

NI-69-039

Study and Evaluation of Projects and Programs  
Funded Under the Law Enforcement  
Assistance Act of 1965

SUMMARY OF THE STUDY AND EVALUATION  
AND  
RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE PROGRAMMING  
IN THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE FIELD

Prepared by  
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For  
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## SUMMARY OF ASSESSMENT OF THE OLEA PROGRAM

### I. Allocation of OLEA Resources

The criminal justice system -- the police, courts, lawyers and corrections -- provides society with a shield against certain forms of disorder. It may act as a barometer of the boiling pressure of society. Recent and rapid changes in our society have converged on this system and have subjected it to great stress. Struggling to contend with the extraordinary pressure, it has been overloaded until it is close to disintegrating.

Starting in 1965, OLEA had the responsibility of using limited funds to provide assistance in shoring up a crumbling criminal justice system that is too rigid, too uncoordinated, too slow, and too unresponsive to cope with a changing and seemingly alien society. Among the obvious weaknesses, tensions, and gaps in what we loosely call the system are:

1. Inability to handle the overload of cases;
2. Confusion of role and function;
3. Absence of criteria for measuring performance;
4. Effects of social change and the hostility of minority groups toward the system;
5. The myths and false assumptions that have prevailed the system; and
6. The problems of bureaucracy such as rigidity, secrecy, poor communication, red tape, antagonism

among different parts of the system, substitution of personal or bureaucratic aims for ideal goals.

In roughly two and one-half years from November 1, 1965, to June 19, 1968, OLEA disbursed \$20.6 million in 426 grants and contracts awarded to 359 separate projects. All 50 states, the District of Columbia, the Virgin Islands, Puerto Rico, and Guam were included. The typical duration of a grant was 13 months, and the average grant award was \$48,254. Forty projects begun under OLEA and not yet terminated at the takeover date of June 19, 1968, were continued by LEAA; some received supplemental grants from LEAA.

In accordance with the Presidential directive to make the District of Columbia a model city in its fight against crime, the D.C. Police Department received the greatest number of grants (8) from OLEA. The National Council on Crime and Delinquency (NCCD) received 6 grants, and the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) received five. As national organizations in corrections and law enforcement NCCD and IACP were logical recipients of grants. The Universities of California, the City of New York, Cincinnati and Michigan State each received several grants. The remaining grants were dispersed, one or two to a grantee.

OLEA allocated its funds according to a plan apparently derived from several studies of criminal justice expenditures in New York State.\* Seven grant categories and their

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\* OLEA 2nd Annual Report, April 1, 1967, p. 7.

CASCIARANO  
NI-69-039  
(PART A)

NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT & CRIMINAL JUSTICE

RESEARCH EVALUATION REPORT

Project Number NI-039 Original Grant  
Funding Level \$101,033 Date Report Received March 1, 1971  
Project Duration: Date Review Completed April 7, 1971  
From 6/30/69 to 9/30/70  
Title of Project: Study and Evaluation of Projects and Programs Funded Under the  
Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965.  
Grantee or Contractor: Georgetown University Law School  
Project Director: Professor Samuel Dash

Abstract of Objectives, Scope and Methods (100-150 words): The purpose of this grant was to evaluate the effectiveness of projects and programs funded under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965. Relying primarily upon self-evaluation by OLEA grant recipients and upon site visits by expert consultants, this report makes conclusions about the effectiveness of a sample of grants awarded under each major category of OLEA activity. While the number of projects studied under each category (supplemented by the consultants' knowledge of the field) is too small to provide definitive judgements about the category, the report concludes that the effectiveness of OLEA as a whole was diminished by a poor dissemination effort, by an over-concentration on the police, by limited staff ability to judge the innovativeness of proposals, and by a tendency to fund too many projects without concentrating on projects with great transferability and impact on other law enforcement agencies.

Institute Center: Research Planning, Coordination and Evaluation Staff

Project Monitor: John A. Gardiner *JAG* Date 4/9/71

ter Chief: John A. Gardiner *JAG* Date 4/9/71

## A. EVALUATION

### 1. Products of the Research:

This project provides a summary of the history of the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance, including its formation under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965, subsequent growth, and supercession by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration in 1968; an analysis of the procedures used by OLEA to encourage and screen grant proposals; and evaluation of OLEA efforts to disseminate the findings of the National Crime Commission and other research on law enforcement; conclusions by project consultants about the effectiveness of a sample of thirty-two individual OLEA grants; and recommendations for the operation of LEAA activities based on overall assessments of the three year life of OLEA.

### 2. Summary of Research Results:

#### a. Research Methods:

The various parts of this report were based up an uneven mixture of interviews with OLEA staff and grant recipients, data collected by the recipients to evaluate their own efforts, and the wisdom of the consultants evaluating individual clusters of projects. While many grant recipients kept their own records on the conduct of their project (equipment used, men trained, etc.), the staff of this evaluation effort collected no independent quantitative data of their own. As a result, each component evaluation within this report must be judged individually; the average consultant evaluation is based upon two or three days spent in observing a project or talking with the project's staff, and a detailed reading of the text is necessary to appraise the validity of individual conclusions.

#### b. Research Findings:

1. Operations of OLEA: Working with a small staff and budget, OLEA awarded \$21 million over three years, almost two-thirds of which went to police programs. Little advanced planning or research was done; little attempt was made to support major investigations of deficiencies in the existing criminal justice system. Decisions to spread awards geographically and to concentrate on police needs were based on perceived political pressures. Satisfactory procedures were developed for screening action projects, but the staff lacked adequate expertise to judge computer and technological proposals. Only two projects studied received adequate evaluation by the recipient; OLEA itself did little to evaluate the results of projects. With the exception of major programs to disseminate the findings of the D. C. National Crime Commissions, there was little sustained effort to disseminate OLEA-sponsored technology.

2. OLEA Grant Programs:

a. Law Enforcement Education and Training: OLEA funded forty-seven Police Science degree programs, but little was done to improve or standardize curriculum, to exchange ideas among program staffs, to raise the standards for recruit training, or to encourage course consideration of social science or non-basic issues during training. Training sessions on particular law enforcement issues were uninspired. Police Science programs in colleges generally had second-class status, and faced constant conflict between "practical" and "academic" goals.

b. Law Enforcement Operations Improvement: The seventy-six grants in this area stressed efficiency of communications, information-handling, surveillance, and mobility, but did little regarding the police role in society, corruption, excessive use of force, etc.

Little was done to integrate police innovation with other components of the criminal justice system, or to encourage research on conventional police practices. Computer projects were more successful in information storage than in predicting police needs (except for St. Louis).

c. Corrections: Correctional projects were few in number and not particularly innovative.

d. Courts and Prosecution: Little was done on personnel training or operational improvements, or even to solicit interest in grants for this segment of the system.

e. Crime Prevention: Very little was done.

f. State Standards and Training Commissions: Grants were given to twenty-one states, but they set low standards.

g. Police-Community Relations Programs: Training programs were generally vague and limited in scope, and were poorly supported by police leadership.

3. General Conclusions:

OLEA was not based upon a clear sense of a mission to improve criminal justice, and did little to provide technical assistance and information-dissemination to implement change. Congressional and police pressures led to a utilization of funds which was too thinly spread and too police-oriented to accomplish what might have been done even with limited resources.

LEAA must improve upon OLEA through a clearly defined view of criminal justice goals, with coordination of related projects, evaluation of programs, and extensive dissemination of successful innovations.

3. ACCOMPLISHMENT OF OBJECTIVES:

This project attempted to do far more than could be accomplished with \$100,000 and a fifteen month effort. If viewed as a scattergun overview of OLEA performance, it is a tolerable product; if viewed as a set of conclusive answers in a series of areas (police computers, community corrections, etc.), it was done too quickly to be effective.

The only apparent utility of this report will be for LEAA and possibly the SPAs as a general encouragement to comprehensive planning, evaluation, and coordination among grantees. It is also instructive on how not to evaluate programs.

4. RELATIONSHIP TO OTHER RESEARCH:

While the consultants looking at individual projects appear to have kept other research in mind as they appraised the innovativeness of OLEA projects, the effort is so low and irregular that we can't view this as a systematic addition to criminal justice technology.

5. RECOMMENDATIONS:

This project indicates both pitfalls which LEAA should avoid (e.g. too little coordination, dissemination, or evaluation) and limitations inherent in project level evaluation. While the consultants utilized in this project were able to compare OLEA grantees against some standard of performance, they could not produce a summative judgement of the impact of OLEA and its programs. The evaluations generated in this massive report only state that a particular project was well run, or that it was not adopted by others; data collection procedures were too sparse to provide the independent judgement that programs were more or less effective. Evaluation programs for LEAA must focus on smaller components of the agency and generate more thorough data.

B. PUBLICATION AND DISSEMINATION:

I believe that this project should not be printed ~~or distributed by NTIS~~, since it is too erratic in quality. I would like to extend the grant period, however, to allow the grantee to utilize remaining grant funds to xerox ten copies of the entire (1700 page) report, and 500 copies of the sixty-three page summary chapter. Full texts would be given to each LEAA component; summary chapters could be given to LEAA program managers (Center Chiefs) and to each SPA.. A cover letter should indicate lack of support for individual recommendations. *The report also should be sent to NTIS.*



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January 11, 1970

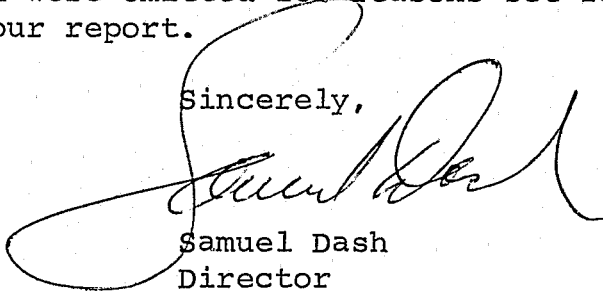
Dr. John Gardiner  
Chief of Research Planning, Coordination  
and Evaluation  
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration  
633 Indiana Avenue  
Washington, D.C.

Dear John:

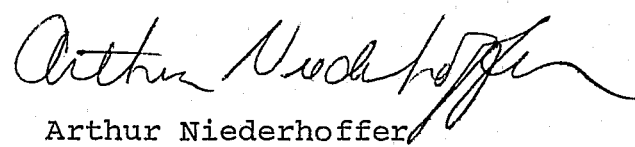
Here is the list of final reports received from IEAA,  
and a list of the 28 projects which were reviewed intensively.  
A discussion of each of the 28 can be found in the main body  
of our report.

We will shortly submit the appendix containing summaries  
and evaluations of the remaining projects, with the exception  
of some reports which were omitted for reasons set forth in  
the introduction to our report.

Sincerely,



Samuel Dash  
Director



Arthur Niederhoffer  
Research Director

Final Reports Received from LEAA

(N=275)

1	26	56	82	118	148	185
2	27	57	85	119	150	186
3	30	58	87	120	151	187
4	31	59	88	121	153	188
5	32	60	90	122	154	189
6	33	61	91	124	157	190
7	34	62	92	125	159	191
8	36	63	94	126	160	194
9	37	64	95	128	161	196
10	38	65	96	129	162	198
11	39	66	97	130	163	200
13	40	67	98	131	164	201
14	41	68	99	132	166	203
15	42	69	103	133	167	204
16	44	70	104	134	168	205
17	45	72	105	135	170	209
19	46	73	106	137	171	210
20	47	74	108	138	172	211
21	49	75	109	139	177	212
22	50	76	111	140	178	213
23	51	77	112	141	180	214
24	52	78	113	142	181	215
25	53	79	114	143	182	216
	55	81	115	144	184	217
			117	146		

220	255	310	375	68-42
222	257	311	66-1	68-43
223	258	313	66-2	68-44
224	259	315	66-3	
225	260	317	66-4	
227	263	318	66-6	
228	264	322	66-7	
229	265	323	66-8	
230	267	324	66-9	
231	270	326	66-10	
232	272	331	67-20	
236	273	332	67-22	
		335		
238	275	339	67-23	
240	277	340	67-24	
241	279	348	67-25	
		349		
242	280	350	67-26	
243	282	351	67-27	
244	287	353	67-28	
245	294	355	67-30	
246	297	356	68-35	
247	300	357	68-36	
249	303	360	68-37	
251	304	364	68-38	
252	305	368	68-39	
254	306	371	68-41	
	307			

List of Projects Selected for Intensive Review (N=28)

10\* 241

15 296

22 300

25 306

27 339

37

38\*

39

44

46

85

91

104

111

121

154\*

166

167

168

203

212

225

232

\*NOTE: Site visits were made to all projects except those marked with an \*. For those projects telephone interviews and personal correspondence were the sources of additional information.

distribution is charted in Table 1. The figures are derived from a count of every grant for each fiscal year.\*\*

Table 1  
OLEA Grants

<u>Category</u>	<u>Number of Grants by OLEA</u>	<u>Per Cent of Total</u>
I Law Enforcement Education & Training	61	14%
II Law Enforcement Operations Improvement	78	18
III Corrections	36	9
IV Criminal Justice	25	6
V General Studies & Crime Prevention	22	5
VI Special Programs		
A. State Planning Committees in Criminal Administration	39	9
B. Police Science Degree Development	47	11
C. State Law Enforcement Standards and Training Commissions	25	6
D. Police-Community Relations	37	9
E. State-wide Training for Correctional Personnel	31	7
F. Planning and Research Units in Medium Sized Police Departments	11	3
VII Technical Assistance, Dissemination, etc.	14	3
Total	<u>426</u>	<u>100</u>

Criteria and guidelines for OLEA projects were contained in the LEAA grant guide and various manuals. They called for projects that embodied 1) new techniques and approaches, 2) an action orientation, 3) value to the nation as a whole, 4) relatively short duration, 5) modest fund requests, 6) substantial grantee contribution, 7) program balance in relation to the total LEAA effort, 8) potential for continuation after grant support ends, 9) broad community sponsorship, and 10) some plan for objective evaluation of results.

\*\* LEAA Grants and Contracts, Fiscal 1966-1968: Complete List of Project Awards Under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965. (1968), pp. 13-86.

Additional guidelines established a maximum period of two years per project and budget range from \$15,000 to \$150,000. Within OLEA an attempt was made to establish a balance between urban and rural needs, training and demonstration projects, the use of technology, and developmental studies.

Despite this criteria, law enforcement received almost two-thirds of the money, corrections less than one-fifth, and criminal justice -- the courts and prosecution -- less than one-tenth. There appeared to be no attempt to establish substantive priorities as between the different parts of the criminal justice system. The police got the lion's share and more.

Even OLEA pointed out that the indicated percentages did not accurately reflect the emphasis on law enforcement. It also justified the practice.

The involvement of law enforcement agencies in projects supported to date is considerably greater than that indicated by the percentages for types of grantees. Over 80% of the project awards to non-government grantees (e.g., colleges, universities, research and professional organizations) involved projects in which grantees are collaborating with specific law enforcement agencies, have been designated as grant recipients by such agencies, or involve direct services to law enforcement agencies, or their personnel.

It will be noted that the preponderance of assistance funds has been allocated to projects involving police activity and the police function. This major focus has been consistent, we believe, with Presidential and Congressional intent. It is deemed sound in light of the larger scope and expenditures of law enforcement agencies, the problems of public safety now confronting police departments, other federal aid currently available for corrections

(manpower development, vocational rehabilitation, and mental health programs in the Departments of Labor and Health, Education and Welfare) and considerable self-stimulated activity within the legal profession in the criminal justice field.\*

This disproportion resulted in part from the title of the enabling act -- The Law Enforcement Assistance Act -- and the name of the agency created to administer it -- Office of Law Enforcement Assistance. In addition, powerful Congressmen assumed that law enforcement would receive most of the money. Finally, there were a preponderance of law enforcement applications for grants. OLEA commented further on this uneven distribution, stating:

"Applications have been fewer in this area [criminal justice], and despite OLEA receptivity and increasing attempts to stimulate worthwhile projects, grant output has been low."\*\*

There may have been other reasons for the emphasis on law enforcement. Underlying the stated purposes of OLEA was the goal of reducing public apprehension about the crime problem. Since law enforcement is the most visible part of the criminal justice system, it made political sense to do more for the police, especially in the way of new equipment and weapons that gave the impression of a force armed with the latest science and technology. As an image producing technique this had advantages over planning and research which could hardly produce immediate

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\* OLEA Second Annual Report, April 1, 1967, p. 7.

\*\* Ibid. p. 21.

or visible changes necessary to reassure the public.

In part, the police may have been responsible for this priority. In the past they have complained about the lack of public support, and stated that given the men, the equipment, enhanced police power and the backing of the courts, they could "make the streets safe." In rasher moments they say in effect, "Give us the tools and we'll do the job." This reiterated claim may have gained credence among some professionals who should have known better.

Interestingly enough, law enforcement officials also provide reasons for any lack of success in preventing crime increases. They claim it is a problem with deep roots in the social fabric and that the police cannot be expected to prevent or control all crime by themselves. Director J. Edgar Hoover of the FBI reiterates this thesis in the preface of every issue of the Uniform Crime Reports. The factors he lists in his statement are remarkably similar to the list proposed by the Italian sociologist Enrico Ferri in 1884. For convenience the FBI statement and the Ferri discussion are placed side by side.\*

It is startling to realize that our understanding of crime factors has remained essentially at the same level that it was almost 90 years ago. Should this realization have caused OLEA to sponsor further research into crime causation, or should OLEA have attempted to sponsor more

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\* Appendix A. See Arthur Niederhoffer, "The Quantity and Quality of Justice", in the Administration of Justice (Newark, Delaware: University of Delaware, 1970), pp. 50-51.



projects which tested assumptions about crime. There seems to have been an almost total lack of conceptual framework about which research and demonstration projects could evolve.

Although OLEA originally projected the appointment of expert advisory committees in the various segments of the criminal justice system, it only partially accomplished this, limiting its activity to advisors who were primarily identified with the police or law enforcement field. The failure to engage in advance planning with experts on a comprehensive basis deprived OLEA of the opportunity to conceptualize the problems of the criminal justice system as a whole and to develop a set of priorities which could guide it in responding to or initiating grant proposals. Instead, the response of OLEA rested largely upon political realities and the exigencies of the moment.

Furthering the confusion in this area have been further complaints by the police, notably that courts are too lenient, and that offenders are released back to their former haunts before the arresting officer returns to his post. They further allege that parole boards release prisoners too soon.

The contradictions inherent in the police claims and complaints deserve thorough examination and analysis. What is needed is a comprehensive approach to criminal justice problems, recognizing their uniqueness -- but also reaffirming their relationship to basic problems in our society.

There is also a need to place in perspective the claims, recognizing that rather than conflict and tension, the component parts of the criminal justice system should work in close and harmonious collaboration.

One further word on the allocation of resources is warranted. OLEA carried the main load for almost three years. Now we have a massive effort through the block grant program to the states and the use of substantial discretionary funds. The National Institute should be made free of most of the pressures on OLEA relating to political requirements. Research and demonstration should proceed on the basis of careful conceptualization and a reasoned ordering of priorities.

## II. The OLEA Grant Programs

### A. Law Enforcement Education and Training

The President's Crime Commission reported that in cities with a population of less than 250,000 the average police department provided its recruits with fewer than three weeks of training;\* and an IACP survey established that 85% of the police officers appointed were placed in the field prior to receiving recruit training.\*\*

There were 61 OLEA law enforcement education and training grants, making this the second largest allocation of grant funds. Of the training projects, nearly one-half were directed toward superior officers and were concerned with imparting managerial and administrative skills.

If 47 Police Science Degree programs are included, law enforcement education takes precedence over any other category of projects. These programs were instituted in 28 colleges and universities with special emphasis upon the 30 states in which no such degrees were granted. These projects were aimed at upgrading police officers and others who sought a career in law enforcement. But most of the programs were carbon copies of each other. Their existence raises problems of curriculum content and educational goals which are still

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\* Task Force Report: The Police (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 138.

\*\* Ibid.

unresolved.

The breakdown of education and training programs was as follows: 1) 25 "Special Project" grants to State Law Enforcement Standards and Training Commissions (\$570,282); 2) 31 grants for State-wide In-Service Training of Correctional Personnel (\$497,650); 3) \$4,400,000 for training of Law Enforcement personnel; 4) \$1,200,000 for Corrections personnel; 5) \$400,000 for Criminal Justice personnel (courts); and 6) Development of College Degree Programs in Police Science (\$294,965).

#### Training Programs

Fewer than five training programs were concerned with demonstrations, riots, campus disorders, or narcotics problems. There seemed to be a propensity to avoid politically sensitive areas. Routine police-community relations projects were the response to potential civil disorder. The failure to fund specialized training programs constituted a significant weakness in the training grants.

Seminars and workshops of one to three days serve little purpose other than inculcating a sense of identity and professionalism among police officers. Seminars of a week or more could enhance law enforcement skills. But many OLEA sponsored seminars were uninspired and included material familiar to

the audience.

Participants can learn administrative and management techniques in training programs such as the one conducted by the Harvard University Business School (Grant #11). The problem is implementing the knowledge gained in their own resistant police departments. Unless this problem is faced, potential gains are dissipated.

There were too few opportunities for OLEA grantees involved in similar projects to meet and discuss their problems. The interchange could have raised the level of OLEA projects and provided OLEA with insights into further areas to be funded. OLEA called only one conference of this type for police science degree program grantees.

OLEA-sponsored State Standards and Training Commissions generally set low standards for recruit training programs. Recruit training programs were almost exclusively composed of vocational or police subjects. Little time was spent on problems of race relations, human behavior, philosophy of police service, ethics, and the implications of police discretion, all vital areas for a police officer. A serious failure was the omission of training relating to the operation of the criminal justice system outside of strictly police work. This truncated approach to training deprives a police

officer of insights as to how his role relates to the functions of lawyers, the courts and the correctional system.

There were too few in-service training programs conducted in depth for one police force and the results of the few funded were usually unsatisfactory.

Police-community relations training sessions were generally failures. Police cynicism was evident in the reaction of participants in the programs. Nevertheless techniques such as group sensitivity training were popular at seminars.

#### Police Science Degree Programs

The two-year degree programs were dominated by the influence of two consultants, one from the IACP and the other from the American Association of Junior Colleges. As a result, two-year degree programs did not have enough variety.

Many police administrators have expressed dissatisfaction with police science programs. These programs have also caused dissension in some police departments and have raised a host of problems to which there appear to be few answers. But administrators have few alternatives and police generally have an ambivalent response to the programs.

Police ambivalence is characterized by anti-intellectualism versus awe for academic scholarship. Police administrators fear that police college students will become cosmopolitan,

disloyal, and critical of police work or that they may emphasize social work aspects of law enforcement to the detriment of more traditional police work. They distrust certain disciplines. (See Houston Police Chief Short's statement about "slobbering sociologists." Final Report Grant #44, p. 105.) There is a general fear of change, a view of college professors as possible subversives, and a fear of involvement in campus disorder.

The response of the colleges has also created problems. Police science programs have been regarded as marginal in terms of status when compared to other well established academic disciplines. There has been a lack of well qualified teachers, respectable literature, and a clearly defined curriculum. There has been an unnecessary overlapping of some police courses with traditional courses in psychology, sociology, and public administration. The necessity of morning and evening courses to permit all police students to attend has offended traditionalists among academics.

Some basic issues must be faced, particularly as to whether police science degree programs are to provide a liberal arts education, a general professional degree, or be taught by police administrators or teachers. The program lacked definition.

Questions of structure, such as placing the program in a

separate division, or an existing department, must be answered. If it is to be a separate program there should be provision for transferring credits into other degree programs. Within this structural problem are administrative issues concerning how a police science degree program should relate to academic departments and courses generally. Obviously the program must be "relevant" to police needs but not so far removed from academic requirements as to lose credibility within the institution. The question of who is to control the program should be resolved at the earliest opportunity.

Stemming from administrative and structural questions are issues involving the kind of instruction to be made available to police science students and the qualifications of teachers in this field. Here the vocational and academic requirements of the program must be balanced by examining whether or not the police programs should be a mix of regular and special courses. Resolution of this question will partially supply answers to the qualifications for faculty members.

How some of the above questions are answered may have impact on whether or not the program should be one-, two-, or a full four-year program and what adjustments in normal admission requirements might have to be made. An interrelated issue concerns remedial programs for police officers if basic core courses



are required. Other issues may involve the type of teaching methods best for police students, whether there should be group sensitivity training, and whether internship programs should be part of the curriculum.

A decision must be made on the question of admitting pre-service students and students not primarily interested in becoming policemen to the curriculum. If there is to be an advisory board its role should be clearly delineated. Finally, a determination should be made of what rewards for attendance in these programs should be available to police officers who complete them.

The posing of the above problems which spring from the general inadequacy of the degree programs point up a basic mission of OLEA alluded to earlier. It should have been apparent to OLEA, had it consulted a range of police experts, that there is frankly very little knowledge available in either the police or educational fields as to what is a good educational program for police. Indeed it is somewhat astounding to find out that we have not developed in this country any generally acknowledged experts in police education programs. This results from the fact that the police and the educators have never taken the time to think the problems of police education through. OLEA missed the opportunity to develop this knowledge and expertise, and

chose instead to spread its funds thinly across the country for generally mediocre if not useless training and police education programs which produced minimal upgrading in police professionalism.

No matter how well federal grant programs succeed in better equipping police with modern hardware, inadequately educated persons who become police recruits and poorly trained recruits who become police officers will be unable to effectively perform the professional police function essentially required to achieve even modest success in combatting crime.

Underlying much of the above discussion is the question of what role the police should be playing in our fast-changing society. Until this question is resolved it is difficult to grapple with the many issues which were not really addressed by OLEA. Related to this question of role is that of how the efficacy of the programs can be measured. Built into any comprehensive educational approach must be a rigorous attempt at thorough evaluation of the impact of the program on individual police officers and entire police departments.

B. Law Enforcement Operations Improvement

The Law Enforcement Operations Improvement category was a mixture of new procedures, equipment, surveys, studies, training, computers, and police-community relations projects. In pulling together programs unrelated to a grant strategy, but

which responded to alleged operational needs, OLEA made Operations Improvement its principal concern; as a category it constituted 78 grants.

In some instances police operations were probably improved in certain ways: 1) Better records systems; 2) Faster retrieval through computerized information systems; 3) Economies effected via consolidation; 4) Better mobility and speed through the use of helicopters; 5) Greater mobility by using scooters; 6) TV surveillance; and 7) Uniform procedures established by police handbooks. No empirical data is available to establish that these programs resulted in enhanced crime prevention or bettered the crime clearance rate.

On the other hand, some authorities believe problems of law enforcement include corruption, brutality, racism, confusion of role, alienation from the community and the other segments of the criminal justice system. From this point of view the operations programs were addressed primarily to surface efficiency. They did not come to grips with deep problems affecting fundamental roles played by the police and the pressures on them which mandate such a role.

OLEA lacked a coherent plan of operations improvement largely because it did not rely on an integrated concept of the criminal justice system, nor did it define the roles of separate

agencies. OLEA did not relate the impact of change in one agency upon other agencies of criminal justice. It responded to political pressure and the demands of police agencies. It could not counter these pressures with an objective well thought out policy, because it had not as an essential first step developed such policy. As a result the operations improvement projects were scattered and unconnected.

The role played by police in their relationship with each other and citizens was not stressed, particularly as it related to motivation, ethics and problems of morale. Methods for preventing and responding to riots, campus disorders, narcotics addiction, and juvenile delinquency were largely ignored. In these areas there were few projects related to how police performance could be improved.

OLEA's policy of encouraging action rather than research grants resulted in a serious imbalance. More funds should have been expended on research and the examination of conventional wisdom concerning accepted police practices.

#### Computer Related Projects

Computer projects have been expensive, costing an average of \$150,000 each (three to four times as much as the average OLEA project). High costs can be justified for innovative programs applying computer technology to police and criminal

justice needs. But too frequently the failure to have computer project proposals screened by a qualified expert resulted in unproductive grants.\*

Attracted to the field of criminal justice because of the availability of funding were technologically oriented research organizations with experience in defense and space programs. Despite their inexperience in criminal justice matters these organizations apparently wrote grant proposals for criminal justice projects with little or no input from appropriate crime agencies.

There was some success with computer projects which involved information storage and certain managerial functions. Performance was less satisfactory when there was an undertaking to build experimental or predictive models. An exception to this was Project #39--the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department Resource Allocation Project--which was successful in predicting the total volume of calls for police service in periods of three weeks or more.

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\* The use of expert consultants to screen grant proposals is especially necessary in the field of science and technology. OLEA had no such expert on its staff. Another example of the expenditure of large sums of money in the science area for a program which added no new knowledge to the field is proposal #154--involving the use of an atomic reactor. Here, too, the proposal was not screened by a qualified expert.

Computer projects tended to disregard the human factor in law enforcement. There was insufficient realization that computers merely reflect the thinking behind the programming. Computerization seemed to be an end in itself--a magical panacea. Finally, the question of the training and motivation of police officers in regard to their use of computer data was not adequately explored.

There was an overemphasis on computer projects for the police. Programs should have been designed for other criminal justice agencies.

An aspect of police computer projects to be considered in the future was the finding that where police were trained to handle computer functions, the project appeared to function better than where a separate research organization managed the whole operation.

Careful consideration should be given to the possible invasion of individual privacy by the collection and dissemination of vast amounts of information. Current public concern points up the need for safeguards and procedures for redress for aggrieved citizens. OLEA projects did not concern themselves sufficiently with these sensitive questions.

#### C. Corrections

The failures of correctional systems have been exhaustively

documented by numerous commissions and study groups. The rank and file correctional worker probably has lower qualifications, less training, and receives less pay than the police. Most penal institutions are institutions of degradation, not rehabilitation, and they result in high rates of recidivism. Most probation and parole systems are undermanned, ill-trained and provide inadequate supervision of probationers and parolees.

The need for extensive training of corrections officials was recognized and OLEA supported 31 grants for state-wide correctional training (\$500,000). Of the 35 other corrections projects listed by OLEA, 19 could be classified as training programs. Eight miscellaneous projects included the evaluation of correctional institutions and the establishment of a computer model of a probation system. Only eight programs were directly concerned with the rehabilitation of offenders. This was a serious weakness in the program.

Finally, too many of the correctional projects seemed to operate as if the clients--the offenders--did not exist. A correctional facility is not a vacuum and no project in corrections should fail to consider the inmate culture as one of the vital variables. Only a handful of the projects did include the inmate group as something beyond a passive remote audience.

The best projects in the opinion of our corrections consultants,

were a) Grant #306 to the American Correctional Association-- development and testing of self-evaluation inventory for correctional institutions; b) Grant #27 to the Sheriff's Department of King County, Seattle, Washington, for a work release project; and c) Grant #37 to the Denver County Court, Denver, Colorado, for a volunteer probation project.

Another project with high potential was Grant #25 to the New England Board of Higher Education to conduct a regional correctional manpower and training program. The promise inherent in this approach was in part defeated by the later funding of similar correctional training grants to the individual New England states. The regional program was rendered almost superfluous. A comment on correctional training projects was that they were too advanced for the student group or were frequently repetitious at the managerial level.

OLEA was remiss in funding too few rehabilitation and correction projects. Little was done in the area of rehabilitation, particularly females, juveniles, and drug addicts.

A prime failing was OLEA's acceptance of the status quo in corrections. As a result few projects were truly innovative or calculated to bring about significant change.

OLEA did not fund a sufficient number of projects involving offender activity and training. The use of offenders as change



agents is a potentially important development in breaking the cycle of recidivism. OLEA avoided controversy by investing heavily in training.

In general there appeared to be minimal exercise of the creative imagination in devising projects which would test diverse alternatives to incarceration. Basic and long held assumptions about the nature of the correctional system were not subject to critical scrutiny and many of the projects were ordinary.

The role to be played by correctional workers, both institutional and community, was not examined. As a result there was no focus to training, research or demonstration projects.

D. The OLEA Criminal Justice Program

OLEA listed a total of 25 grants in criminal justice, of which 11 were related to the courts. Related to criminal justice were some projects listed under the headings of General Studies and Crime Prevention and Operations Improvement. These included traffic in narcotics, professional crime, the incidence of unreported crime, information systems, and characteristics of adult and juvenile offenders.

Several of the more significant projects involved the development of an integrated state-wide criminal justice information system (under Operations Improvement); a massive

study of the potential application of science and technology to the criminal justice system with a plan for a national program of research, development, testing, and evaluation of law enforcement and criminal justice (under General Studies); and special funding for State Planning Committees in Criminal Administration.

Training for personnel and officers of the court was assigned a low priority. Four projects provided training for district attorneys; only two, for judges; and one of these was for Indian tribal judges. Compare the number of criminal justice training projects (6) with the 61 police and 31 correctional training projects. This imbalance, in our opinion, appears to be unexplainable.

In law enforcement there were 78 operations improvement projects. In criminal justice there were fewer than six: Two noteworthy law student prosecutor programs at Harvard and Boston Universities; a computer simulation program in the Federal District Court for the District of Columbia; and a two-day conference focusing on the plight of lower courts.

In law enforcement and corrections OLEA funded many surveys and studies. Corrections was not far behind. In contrast, only one court study fits into this category and it is a judges conference classified as a court operations improvement project.

Because of the limited and diffuse effort in criminal justice, OLEA criminal justice projects could have virtually no impact on improving the operation of the criminal justice system.

There is little evidence that OLEA attempted to relate one project to another in the criminal justice field. This failure extended to projects in all areas of law enforcement, criminal justice and corrections. The importance of this approach may be best illustrated by examining the potential impact upon all agencies in the criminal justice system should police efficiency be dramatically enhanced. What impact would a higher level of arrests have on the already crowded courts and correctional facilities?

It is difficult to understand the cursory treatment given by OLEA to criminal justice. OLEA did not really encourage applications from criminal justice agencies. On the other hand lawyers in their capacity as prosecutors, defense attorneys and judicial officers demonstrated little energy in applying for funds. Lawyers' much vaunted ability to organize for action, and articulate needs, was not in evidence.

On balance, OLEA should have more aggressively sought out those individuals and agencies in criminal justice in an effort

to stimulate applications. Perhaps no funding agency should be a passive receptacle for only those applications which happen to be submitted. If priorities are properly set, and they were not in OLEA, then affirmative action to implement the priorities becomes a necessity.

The fact that management practices have hardly filtered through to the criminal justice system may have a bearing on its apparent inability to cause thorough reexamination of its own assumptions and practices. The reluctance of some judicial officers to breach traditional barriers between the executive and judicial branches may also have had impact on this reluctance. Both of these problems must be overcome if criminal justice is to attain parity with law enforcement and corrections.

E. General Studies and Crime Prevention

For a variety of reasons, action and educational projects are preferred to research or studies. This may stem from a realization that in the past studies and reports have only succeeded in gathering dust on backroom library shelves. It also reflects the fact that a number of major -- and innumerable minor -- studies and research reports have been recently completed or are in progress. In any event a proposal for just a study or research project -- unless it has direct and immediate bearing on the operating system -- will frequently be greeted by the phrase -- "Another study?".

In fiscal 1966 there were 8 OLEA grants under the studies and crime prevention category. In fiscal 1967 this number was reduced to 4, and in fiscal 1968 there were 5 grants of which only 3 were new; two were continuations of previously funded projects.

Only three grants (two plus one supplemental) were directly concerned with crime prevention: 1) A grant to the Des Moines Police Department to train merchants in better methods of store security; and 2) A grant to The Advertising Council, Inc. to accomplish a similar goal for merchants and owners of autos through the advertising media (the second received a supplemental grant).

There were three grants to develop citizenship and law enforcement programs for junior high school students. Four grants were devoted to the application of science and

technology to law enforcement and criminal justice symposiums. The remainder were disparate studies of reporting of crime by victims, incidence of crime, weaponry, narcotics traffic and organized or professional crime.

On the surface crime prevention had high priority in OLEA. It is therefore surprising to note how few projects OLEA included under this category. And it should be noted that some of the projects were undertaken at the request of the President's Crime Commission. OLEA was in the nature of a silent partner.

F. Special Programs

State Law Enforcement Standards and Training Commissions

OLEA attempted to stimulate the formation of State organizations to establish and promulgate standards for the selection and training of police officers. The first such agencies were established in California and New York. By 1968, 31 states had enacted standards legislation. Of this number, 17 have set mandatory standards; fourteen are still voluntary.\* OLEA gave 25 grants totaling \$570,282 to 21 state commissions for planning and development.

Typically, selection standards for recruits were fairly uniform, requiring an applicant for a police position to be at least 21 years old, of good health, a high school graduate or its equivalent, and of good moral character.

Standards for the basic recruit training course were set at a low figure, 140-200 hours, and primarily consisting of vocational and practical police subjects. Little

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\*Charles B. Saunders, Jr. Upgrading the American Police (Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institute, 1970), p. 147.

attention was given to courses that might be classified as social or behavioral science. The required number of hours was substantially under the 400 hours recommended as an absolute minimum by the President's Crime Commission -- Task Force on the Police.

State Law Enforcement Standards and Training Commissions did not reach their full potential as accrediting boards to raise the level of law enforcement. They tended to follow and reinforce traditional standards of recruitment, selection, and training. They were not imaginative or zealous in seeking change. The training standards were low and narrow in range. Courses that might broaden the horizons of the police officer were omitted.

Despite these shortcomings there is evidence that some impact is possible where state legislation makes the standards mandatory, particularly in areas where little or no standards previously existed. Where compliance with established standards is merely voluntary, the impact is considerably lessened.

G. Police-Community Relations Programs

OLEA reported 37 police-community relations grants totaling \$552,309. There were 20 other projects which could be characterized as police-community relations.

There were three categories: 1) Training projects in which the police were subjected to intensive briefing on human relations, with occasional group sessions including police and members of minority groups with whom relations

were strained; 2) Umbrella programs covering everything which could be construed as police-community relations; and 3) A thrust toward school children by introducing law enforcement courses and policemen into the school.

Police-Community Relations projects were difficult to evaluate. Usually the foundation of a project was training which did not really teach skills, techniques, or suggest action, but attempted to develop understanding, tolerance, and favorable attitudes. The curriculum probably produced vague impressions which had a dubious relationship to actual situations.

The average policeman is cynical about police-community relations programs. He may tune out when he hears the words "training in police-community relations." This may reflect doubt about or impatience with an academic or unrealistic approach to a pressing problem.

The umbrella approach to the subject suggests a program that spreads itself thin trying to do everything; it can only end up doing nothing well. Specific issues should be directly approached in a concrete way. The purely academic approach, characterized by measuring changes on paper, may have little relation to actual changes in behavior. Nevertheless, any increase in knowledge of human relations and minority groups may provide a necessary foundation for real demonstration projects.

An important factor in these programs should be an awareness that short training sessions can hardly be expected



to change attitudes or ideologies that are firmly embedded in a lifetime of experience. Therefore, police-community relations programs should not be crisis programs or temporary stop-gap measures. As such they cannot be well planned or executed.

Police occupational experience appears to develop and solidify negative attitudes toward minority groups with whom police have frequent contact. It is important to counteract this tendency with a clear statement of policy together with guidelines and intelligent supervision of personnel. Personnel to coordinate the program should be chosen carefully. The fate of police-community relations depends as much on the persons involved as it does on the substance of the program.

A corollary to the above caveat is the fact that police often resent outside "experts" from the ghetto or the academic world. They may insulate their minds against advice from such individuals. But when their own instructors exhort them to "act nice" and "be understanding" there is little reason to believe this has more impact. Trainees will not respond differently from fellow workers whose behavior necessitated the program in the first place. The program must therefore extend to all levels within a police department. It would be useful to select several departments and develop comprehensive and in-depth community relations programs for these few on a trial demonstration basis. Small projects spread thinly may do more harm than good.

### III. Evaluation

#### Evaluating Incoming Applications

In addition to evaluating projects which received funds, OLEA had the responsibility of evaluating applications for grants. A procedure for screening these applications was established.

Applications were classified into appropriate categories and screened by program managers. Some were so weak that they never passed beyond this point of first evaluation. Those surviving this screening had summaries prepared and attached to the proposals. They were then considered by top echelons where further elimination took place. Remaining applications were reviewed by selected members of the various advisory committees of OLEA. Their recommendations were in turn reviewed and usually followed.

An internal OLEA study of a sampling (10%) of rejected proposals revealed the following reasons for rejection:

1. Research -- too general;
2. Private protection of private property;
3. Too broad -- no specific objectives;
4. Not innovative;
5. Applicant an unqualified individual;
6. Seminar too limited in scope;
7. Training for a single small department;

8. Grant would constitute a subsidy.

OLEA could have strengthened its screening processes. Proposals for costly computer projects, for instance, should have been reviewed by expert consultants because OLEA advisory committees did not possess this specialized knowledge. Computer proposals sometimes were reviewed by many hands because no one wanted to be responsible for awarding large sums given the sketchy evaluation and prognosis. On one occasion there was a directive to speed the approval of computer project proposals so that the annual report could show greater activity in the computer field.

#### Evaluating Funded Projects

Evaluation was a stated requirement of almost every OLEA training or demonstration grant. OLEA appeared to want a valid and reliable system for evaluating the projects.

OLEA projects rarely met this standard. Most evaluations consisted of a questionnaire to the participants in the study in which their reactions to the project were obtained. In one instance a letter of commendation was included in the final  
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report. The writer commended the seminar and workshop because the surrounding hills and forest were beautiful and because of the lack of female distraction. It may well be that an

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\* See Final Report -- Grant #3 to American Correctional Association.

inspirational experience such as this is more than most seminars produce.

In a few projects the evaluation met proper standards of methodology which arose logically from the research design and directly tested the relevance of the project to the stated goals. For instance, Project #257 granted \$63,042 to the Pennsylvania Board of Parole to attempt the resocialization of certain parolees through a control and treatment program including reduced caseloads, counseling services, and living facilities for parole violators. The research plan matched control and treatment groups, hypotheses were spelled out clearly, and the data and method of analysis were specified. While few hypotheses were supported by the results, the findings were valuable, since demonstration projects should subject accepted assumptions to rigorous examination.

Project #52, a grant to the University of Cincinnati and the Cincinnati Police, was for \$62,678 to develop and test a curriculum for junior high school social studies classes. It was later supplemented by grant #313. A basic purpose was to change the openly antagonistic attitude of youngsters toward police. To test the hypothesized change a special ATP Scale (Attitude Toward Police) was developed. It was administered before and

after the project. The results supported the hypothesis that a well designed curriculum could change unfavorable attitudes of junior high school students toward the police.

These two projects were exceptional. Other grants lacked rigorous methods of evaluation.

In general OLEA used several types of evaluation. Project managers evaluated some projects, visiting them for personal observation. But project managers in OLEA were too bogged down in administrative detail to observe and assess the operation of projects. OLEA sponsored conferences on programs in police-community relations, police science degrees, state planning committees in criminal administration, and police management training. These assisted in evaluating and strengthening on-going projects.

OLEA also awarded grants for evaluation, for example, Grant #57-27 to consultants to evaluate OLEA funded police-community relations programs in New Orleans, Newark and Washington, D.C. Grant #306, to the American Correctional Association, was to develop and test a self-evaluation inventory for state correctional agencies. Some of these correctional agencies had OLEA grants that would indirectly be evaluated as part of the self-evaluation.

OLEA should have earmarked a larger sum for evaluation -- at least equal to the dissemination effort (3% of the budget). In this way expert teams of consultants could have been hired to evaluate a package of projects (as they did in Project #67-27).

From a realistic picture of their program, derived from these evaluation reports, many advantages would have flowed:

1. Objective information;
2. Better control of projects;
3. Guidelines for future projects;
4. Directions for new programs;
5. Ability to answer questions of Congressional appropriations committees with real data; and
6. Dissemination of these reports to help other grantees in the field of criminal justice.

Each grantee was required to submit 25 copies of a final report of 50 to 200 double-spaced typed pages. These were to some extent an evaluation of the project by the project staff itself. OLEA staff then reviewed these reports and selected the most important ones for dissemination to other agencies. Our section on Dissemination above reveals how poor the dissemination effort was.

OLEA's program of evaluation was not impressive. The criteria for screening proposals were not generally followed. The self-evaluations demanded of the projects during their life were insignificant. Other efforts at evaluation by OLEA were spasmodic. Whatever pressures produced this result in the past, there must be unremitting effort to fully evaluate future projects.

#### IV. The OLEA Dissemination Program

The LEA Act of 1965 specifically directed OLEA to mount an effective dissemination program. How successfully did OLEA comply with this mandate? With the exception of the major campaigns to distribute the reports of the National and the D.C. Presidential Crime Commissions, OLEA's dissemination program was inadequate, infrequent, and had little impact.

OLEA funded only 14 grants officially classified by its staff as Technical Assistance, Dissemination, etc. for a total of \$462,000. Two of the 14 awards, Projects #67-19 and #67-20 for publication and dissemination of the Crime Commission reports, expended \$294,500 or 65% of the budget; more than 40,000 copies of the two reports were distributed. Only \$168,000 was available for technical assistance and dissemination of all other OLEA reports, and the meager results reflect this expenditure.

Of the 14 projects, five were conferences or workshops for grantees, six were concerned with publication and dissemination; one with the creation of an information center. One evaluated police community relations projects; one was a task force study of crime control, and one project developed training films.

In previous categories we have seen how OLEA classified evaluations and studies as Operations Improvement, and training films under Education or Criminal Justice. We now see similar



projects classified under Technical Assistance and Dissemination.

Aside from the crime commission reports, only police departments received OLEA reports. Police department coverage for some OLEA reports reached 84% but the most frequent number of departments receiving reports from OLEA was about 40% of those surveyed. Dissemination to other criminal justice agencies was almost non-existent. OLEA reports were all but unknown to them.

These findings stem from a special survey of criminal justice agencies which selected certain OLEA studies regarded as important and listed them in a questionnaire. The questionnaire was sent to randomly selected criminal justice agencies to determine if they had received or had knowledge of the listed reports.

What were the reasons for this? Obviously, lack of money and personnel. More than anything else, however, this outcome was the result of a definite policy decision to deemphasize dissemination. In the fall of 1967 a document was circulated within the OLEA administration calling attention to the necessity for proper dissemination, and developing in detail, with a great deal of force, the outline of a strong, well integrated, dissemination effort. It was disregarded.

## V. OLEA in Retrospect

OLEA attempted to involve qualified people, important agencies, and great universities, with the ultimate objective of reducing crime by strengthening the criminal justice system.

Often in the past, the response to crime emergencies has been to pass stricter laws, impose more severe punishment, broaden the power of law enforcement, and increase the money and manpower for criminal justice. Another typical approach to crime issues has been to consign the problem to a special study group or commission. Present problems of crime are being met by both of these approaches. The addition of OLEA represented a major departure--a more farsighted and sophisticated approach. In part it was created to implement some of the findings of the Presidential Crime Commissions and further studies which they began.

It devoted a substantial portion of its funds to studies, surveys, education and some demonstration projects. But it had no clear vision of its mission. It cannot be emphasized too strongly that the focal point of OLEA projects should have been based on a clear definition of the various roles of the criminal justice personnel, whether in law enforcement, the courts, or corrections. There never was such a definition, nor is there a consensus yet on that role for the future. Unfortunately, OLEA operated in an environment where there was a paucity of hard

data, and what data existed were not in a form capable of reliable interpretation.

Despite the difficulties and shortcomings OLEA acted as a permanent funding and coordinating agency overseeing a diversified number of study groups, educational and demonstration projects. OLEA was supposed to function so that the means for implementing the findings of the projects was built in through technical assistance and dissemination. It did not work that way.

Even if it had, it would have been unrealistic to expect its efforts to result in observable reductions in crime in the few short years it existed. Time was not only short, but the festering conflicts in the United States, conflicts of values, conflicts between generations, sexes, races and ethnic groups, and on a wide variety of social and political subjects, made it clear that the criminal justice system could have only a limited effect on issues which admittedly underlay the crime problem.

Final conclusions cannot be drawn. It was impossible for the modest OLEA program to refurbish the criminal justice system in the face of so many powerful contending social forces. The measurement of its significance and impact lies in more than

concrete accomplishments toward improving the system. OLEA should be judged as well on how it used its resources in identifying some of the weaknesses of the criminal justice systems, and in providing knowledge to be applied in correcting those weaknesses.

OLEA was the precursor of an expanded program of federal assistance to the criminal justice system of the country. It had the opportunity to chart the way, and to lay down some standards for supporting research and demonstration programs. As a result of an assortment of pressures, many of them from Congress and police agencies, to use its funds in a way that would demonstrate both visible and wide geographic support of law enforcement agencies, OLEA's accomplishments fell short of its goals.

## VI. A Look Ahead

### A. Some Major Trends in Criminal Justice

If LEAA is to profit from the experience of OLEA, the first step is to identify OLEA's strengths and weaknesses. To utilize most effectively this lesson from the past and to determine a set of priorities for the future, LEAA should also give due weight to the demands of the present and the portent of the future.

With this perspective, we offer our assessment of the significant developments in each of the major areas of the criminal justice system.

#### Law Enforcement

An initial problem confronting police springs from a widely recognized conflict of roles in law enforcement which police have often believed to pose an inherent contradiction between their peace keeping mission and their law enforcement or crime prevention function. A great variety of apparently strange new roles, many of them requiring a major reorientation in ideology, have continually been thrust upon the police.

Some of these new roles are 1) specialist in family crisis or community relations, 2) the policeman as college student, 3) the policeman as teacher, 4) the policeman as author, (many college educated police officers feel secretly that they can be great writers), 5) the policeman as computer expert, 6) the policeman as specialist in administering first aid and even 7)

the policeman as a "mid wife" in emergency delivery of babies.

There is indication that some police departments are not increasing their percentage of policemen from minority groups. \* At the other end of the recruitment spectrum the drive for college educated candidates appears to be losing momentum. In some departments tension between black and white policemen is at a high level. Furthermore, police-community relations programs have not succeeded in reducing antagonisms of minority groups towards the police.

Except in a few cities, reported crime has accelerated and will probably continue to do so for at least the next few years, despite the best efforts of law enforcement and the rest of the criminal justice system. In addition, law enforcement efforts will continue to face other serious problems, including:

- (1) Antagonism of minority groups;
- (2) Hostility of large segments of our youth;
- (3) Racial tension within police departments;
- (4) Violent protest demonstrations;
- (5) A crisis in training and education;
- and (6) Community demand to control the power of the police.

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\* New York Times, January 25, 1971, p. 1.

### The Courts

There will be a tremendous increase in court cases. This is in part a result of Supreme Court cases identifying the need for assignment of counsel to indigent defendants at earlier points in the proceedings and in proceedings which hitherto did not require counsel. It is also a result of belated recognition of the legal rights of prisoners and the increase in law enforcement capabilities in apprehending criminals.

There will be conflicting pressures on the courts to increase the use of probation while at the same time society and new laws may demand harsher sentences and longer terms of imprisonment for a growing number of offenders. These contradictions will also be reflected in the field of corrections.

The radicalization of court trials will emerge as a strong threat to our criminal justice system. In cases involving minority group members and militant or radical political figures, challenges to the legitimacy of the court system can be expected. New procedures such as closed circuit television may be developed to control unruly defendants and spectators. There will be a shortage of trained judges, lack of space, and long delays.

There will be many experiments to speed up the legal process. The plea bargain system will be formalized in many criminal courts; classes of minor criminal cases may be shunted out of the courts to bureaus and referees.

Whatever the changes, new power relations, new social and professional roles, and new functions will emerge. This will call for responsive training programs for all participants in the criminal justice system.

### Corrections

Prisons, like the courts, are likely to be politicized and radicalized. Inmate demands and demonstrations will probably become more frequent. It is expected that the courts will pay more attention to the plight and rights of the prisoners. As a result of this indirect legal supervision, prison administrators will demand better training and education for the custodial staff.

The future trends in the field of corrections are discernible: the most rapidly developing pattern is the community based program for committed offenders, probationers, and parolees. The most popular forms are:

1. Half-Way Houses;
2. Community Correctional Centers;
3. Work Release and Pre-Release Centers;
4. Residential Group Centers;
5. Minimum Custody Satellite Units; and
6. The Non-Prison or Correctional Center (for comprehensive treatment of all problems).



While the major thrust in corrections will be towards community based corrections, there will be a concurrent demand for new penal institutions to be built, both at the state and local levels. There will be a struggle for available monies between those who believe resources and services in the community provide the best way of protecting society via rehabilitation, and those who have an "edifice complex" believing that bricks and mortar solve deep problems and best protect society.

A logical outcome of the present diagnostic and classification system is the differential treatment approach. Categories of offenders receive treatment based upon a specific theory of rehabilitation. For example, the California Youth Authority Community Treatment Program relies upon an Interpersonal Maturity Level System, and the Federal Bureau of Prisons Kennedy Youth Center employs token economic incentives that are an outgrowth of B. F. Skinner's psychological theory of operant conditioning.

The employment of ex-offenders and prisoners in the correctional setting has already been institutionalized. For reasons of economy and the shortage of trained professionals, if nothing else, it will undoubtedly be expanded in the future. Allied to this will be the increased involvement of volunteers as para-professionals.

A reliance on treatment and rehabilitative techniques is gradually supplanting the time-honored punitive custodial philosophy. The spread of group methods has been remarkable. Work release and furlough programs have taken hold. Private industry has moved into the prison and if the first experimental projects prove successful, this will undoubtedly take hold. Finally, probation and parole services will be expanded and decentralized into surrounding communities.

There will be a new awareness of local jails as a focal point in corrections which has been hitherto ignored. The realization that more than half of the inmates of these jails are not yet convicted will stimulate demonstration projects aimed at providing minimal services not now available. This may eventually lead to a movement toward keeping as many charged individuals and convicted misdemeanants as possible out of the jails. This will be accomplished by different methods of handling alcoholics and drug abusers and by renewed emphasis on bail projects, and enhanced probation services for lower courts.

#### A New Dimension

To the traditional three divisions of criminal justice -- law enforcement, the courts, and corrections -- has been added an unexpected fourth dimension. Under the combined stimuli of OLEA and LEAA a new social movement in criminal justice has been created. As yet it is amorphous and heterogeneous, composed of 1) innumerable community organizations; 2) hastily gathered

advisory committees, 3) 55 State Planning Agencies that superseded the 31 Commissions on Administration of Criminal Justice supported by OLEA, 4) a host of local and regional planning agencies, and 5) research organizations some of which are moving away from defense, space, and business research to tap the lucrative, newly discovered mine of criminal justice. Whatever direction this unstructured mass takes, it has the potential to coalesce and swing the three traditional spheres of criminal justice into new orbits. This may well be one of the most significant, although unpredictable, consequences of the law enforcement assistance program.

B. Recommended Responsive Programming

LEAA has an unparalleled opportunity to develop and fund innovative projects for all aspects of the criminal justice system at all levels of government. Through its discretionary funds and specially authorized National Institute appropriation it should be able to fund a wide variety of projects, large and small, with governmental agencies and private research institutions.

But before it can properly do this, a comprehensive plan drawn up with the assistance of the best qualified people in various fields of criminal justice, criminal justice research and the universities must set out the appropriate priorities within a conceptual framework of a criminal justice system which regards each part thereof as an equal partner. Employing

a symbol Chief Justice Warren E. Burger used in a different, but analogous context, the system is like a three-legged stool (law enforcement, corrections and the courts) which can become unstable should one leg receive more attention than the others and collapse should one or two legs be treated to the exclusion of the third.

A basic conception under which LEAA could operate is a view of the entire criminal justice system as a vast screening device, with only a few of the many initiated cases terminating in court with a plea or verdict of guilty and subsequent sentence. Programs should be encouraged which render this screening system fair and effective, with the emphasis on screening individuals out to appropriate alternatives to incarceration at the earliest possible moment in time. Research should be geared to examining those aspects of the system which inefficiently or unfairly screen individuals. Demonstration projects should experiment with ways of rendering the less efficient portions of the screening system more useful to society and the individual.

Within the mandate of the Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended, LEAA must assume a stronger role in taking responsibility for coordinating the chaotic and fragmented criminal justice system that now exists. State plans should be subject to whatever rigorous examination is authorized by law, and discretionary monies should be used to encourage farreaching and indepth proposals which do more than lubricate the existing system.

It is critical for LEAA and the National Institute to move beyond the mere subsidizing of existing programs and create incentives for public and private agencies to develop innovative demonstration projects with built-in effective evaluation. Demonstration projects can take the form of training, education, and experimental projects in a wide variety of areas. The research portion of the program should be rigorous. Evaluation should be conducted by the project participants themselves, LEAA personnel and by independent research teams unconnected with the project or LEAA. No project should be funded without sound evaluation built in.

Within the educational program of LEAA an attempt should be made to find authority to include within it criminal justice personnel who will use their expertise in planning and research. There is now a critical shortage of experts with a planning and research background. Until this shortage is rectified, there will be an insufficient number of creative and innovative projects submitted to LEAA.

LEAA should also examine techniques and procedures developed by other countries throughout the entire range of criminal justice systems. Comparisons between successful approaches in other countries and the techniques used in many states could prove valuable in pointing toward new directions. For example, the concept of volunteers is widely accepted in some European countries and is the basis for the probation system in Sweden.

We should not be hesitant in examining such programs to determine their applicability to the various criminal justice systems in the United States.

As a corrolary to the use of volunteers LEAA should conduct extensive further demonstration projects in the use of indigenous non-professionals as volunteers and paid workers and the continued and expanded use of offenders and ex-offenders in corrections. In addition more attention should be paid to the use of such personnel in both the law enforcement and criminal justice areas.

Since the courtroom may become an arena in which some of the social and political conflicts of our time are joined, LEAA should conduct training and demonstration programs for all who participate in a courtroom setting. Judges, prosecutors, defense attorneys, court officers, and police should receive such training. It should include not only methods of controlling disruptive elements in the courtroom, but also techniques of dealing with potential disruptions before they materialize.

#### Law Enforcement Operations Improvement

Programs improving the law enforcement response to riots, demonstrations and campus disorders should concentrate on the psychology of crowds and ways in which law enforcement personnel can most effectively exercise control without the use of force where it is not required. The programs should also

focus on the liaison and coordination between local and state police, the National Guard, and U.S. armed forces.

The role of policemen and policewomen should be delineated with care so that more than just the traditional functions of law enforcement are the fulcrum about which law enforcement activities revolve. The role of the police as arbiter in a number of disputes should be recognized and the kind of discretion exercised by police in a variety of situations should be openly discussed, not treated as if it is nonexistent.

Although law enforcement hardware is a major component of some grants, it should be keyed to an innovative use or its impact measured in terms of how law enforcement personnel find their function to be enhanced.

#### Law Enforcement Education

There should be more graduate programs to teach teachers of criminal justice and more fellowship programs for students. An effort must be made to attract criminal justice personnel other than the police to this program.

There is a shortage of sound text books, readers, and curricula aids in the field of criminal justice. Grants should be made to recognized scholars to overcome this lack. Only when this is done will criminal justice establish its credibility as a learned discipline. A further step should be the encouragement

of grants to students to undertake research and write theses on topics within the field of criminal justice. As an inducement for such research LEAA might establish some program to honor outstanding dissertations.

More than providing funding for degree programs now in existence, LEAA should sponsor the development of programs that stress the broad vision of the criminal justice system rather than a parochial law enforcement ideology. The best of the degree programs should be expanded into regional centers, preferably located at a university with resources to develop specialties and experimental programs.

#### Police-Community Relations

LEAA should intensively review all police-community relations projects funded by its predecessor, other agencies, and LEAA itself to determine the optimal factors under which a grant can be made and the conditions which should control its implementation. This may be the one area where better understanding can be achieved through deep examination via research and carefully thought out demonstration projects. Without understanding the roots of hostility toward the police demonstrated by a number of alienated groups, police-community relations will continue to be relegated to that unimportant status of all programs which are regarded cynically by all concerned parties.



In addition, existing tensions between black and white officers in the same department must receive a high priority in terms of their resolution. Finally, all projects involving various interrelationships should include all levels of the police department within their purview as well as the good faith involvement of community leadership.

### Corrections

It is in the field of corrections that some of the most promising developments may be forthcoming. Because of the interest of Chief Justice Burger and the American Bar Association, LEAA should be in a position to reach out in the most creative fashion to further the thrust of community corrections which do rehabilitate. Present practices of isolating large numbers of offenders from the community and their families should be eliminated so far as possible. LEAA should rigidly control expenditures of monies for new penal institutions which simply continue discredited practices.

High priority should be given to the expansion of probation services at all levels of the criminal justice system, and most particularly in the municipal and county courts where few, if any, probation services now exist. LEAA should sponsor experimentation with differential caseloads and require strong evaluation components as part of such experimentation. Every effort should be made in those jurisdictions where enhanced probation services are being tried to find ways and means of

convincing sentencing judges that wider use of probation is justified and fully protects the public. In fact, probation grants should have built in provisions for a sentencing institute to examine the meaning of expanded probation services and their potential effect on judicial sentencing practices.

The use of volunteers in probation departments and in connection with inmates of local jails should be encouraged. Careful follow-up of offenders and volunteers should be conducted. Programs using volunteers should have two basic thrusts: 1) To provide services and support to offenders which are not now available; and 2) to educate the volunteers in the shortcomings and needs of the criminal justice system, particularly the degrading nature of local jails and the need for community resources to become involved with the offender group.

Along with the expanded use of volunteers more experimental and demonstration projects using indigenous non-professionals and ex-offenders should be funded. These programs should have very careful research and evaluation components built in to test some of the assumptions regarding the use of non-professionals and ex-offenders.

The rapid development of cases pertaining to the legal rights of offenders has resulted in projects which are now attempting to bring the law together in a form useful to correctional administrators, lawyers and law schools. These programs should be followed up by legal training programs for

correctional administrators and line workers. It is essential for them to understand the changes which are taking place. Grants to law schools to conduct such training for correctional personnel should be a high priority item.

The problems of individuals with criminal records in obtaining employment have been well documented. Studies now in progress will further illustrate the nature of the problem and what must be done to overcome it. No programs of rehabilitation, however well administered, can be successful if the offender finds employment opportunities denied him. Programs for bonding individuals with records should be funded immediately and a wide spread educational campaign initiated so that both public and private employers will give more than lip service to the hiring of ex-offenders.

The educational standards for correctional workers should be re-examined so that narrow requirements do not limit the numbers of those who may wish to enter the field. The educational curriculum for such personnel should also be re-examined. Traditional roles for institutional personnel and probation and parole officers must be re-examined in light of new concepts which are changing the way in which institutions are administered and the kind of supervision which offenders in the community now receive. The custodial orientation for institutional

personnel must be replaced by an emphasis on counselling, particularly in the new and smaller community correctional facilities which are being planned. The traditional role of probation and parole officers as solely exercising close supervision over probationers and parolees is also undergoing change. There is a new orientation toward the coordination of a wide variety of community resources and volunteers and non-professionals who can play important roles in working directly with the offender. These new roles must be reflected in the educational curriculum. Projects for correctional educational programs should emphasize this new orientation.

The thrust of most programs in corrections should be in the direction of alternatives to incarceration. The emphasis should be on providing a wide variety of meaningful community oriented facilities and resources to sentencing judges. They thus will not be faced with the extreme alternatives of imprisonment or outright release to the community under a suspended sentence, frequently with little or no supervision.

Foster homes for juveniles should be encouraged and experimental programs in the training of foster parents should be undertaken. Half-way in-houses should be made available so those who need some structure but not imprisonment can be placed on probation with residence in the half-way house as a condition thereof.

A sufficient number of probation officers should be available in a department to permit intensive caseloads for a select number of probationers. More work release programs should be funded, and the concept of training release should be made part of work release programs. Again we emphasize that all these programs should have provision for the kind of follow-up which accurately reflects the impact of the project on the offenders and those who are working with them.

In the educational field projects should be funded which encourage closer relationships between correctional agencies and universities. Special funding should be made available for the exchange of correctional and academic personnel for a period of a year. Correctional agencies should be encouraged, through funding, to use graduate and undergraduate students in their agencies on a part-time and summer internship basis.

#### Criminal Justice

An immediate effort should be made to fund criminal justice projects on an equal basis with those in the law enforcement and corrections area. Of primary importance should be the sponsorship of projects in which a fresh look is given to the roles played by lawyers and judges involved in the criminal justice process. For instance, more early diversion projects should be funded. They can have special personnel in the prosecutor's office, in a special agency, in an existing probation

department, or in a public defender agency. A research and evaluation component should carefully examine the effect of the program on the charged individuals, counsel, and the prosecutor's office. Particular note should be taken of how such programs affect the self-concept which lawyers have concerning their role in criminal proceedings.

Most charged individuals plead guilty. As a result the action of primary concern to them is what sentence will be imposed. Projects should be funded which examine the role of guilty plea negotiating as it relates to the sentence. The roles played by prosecutors and defense attorneys should be examined to determine whether traditional concepts of the adversary system are valid at this stage of the proceedings.

There should be training programs for all court personnel, including the judges. Particular emphasis should be placed on the sentencing function of the judge and his responsibility to be aware of all sentencing alternatives and their impact on the individual defendant. Such programs should emphasize judicial visits to all the correctional facilities to which they commit convicted persons.

Seminars and workshops should bring together criminal justice personnel in a setting where there can be a free exchange of views on their respective roles. These should be structured so that informality is the keynote.

More programs which bring law students into close contact with the criminal justice system should be funded. Law students can play roles in prosecutors' offices, public defender agencies, probation departments and bail agencies. The use of law students in correctional legal aid programs should also be expanded.

A survey of the teaching of criminal justice in law schools is now underway. Using its findings as a starting point a series of workshops involving teachers involved in different aspects of criminal justice should be held. At these workshops the methods of teaching, materials used, and purposes of their courses could be examined to the mutual benefit of law students, the law profession and the criminal justice system.

#### Administration of Criminal Justice Programs

Teams of expert consultants should be available to LEAA to provide prior screening and analysis of the more complicated and expensive projects. These teams should be made up not only of substantive experts but also individuals familiar with research methodology. In this way the inclusion of sound evaluation for each project can be ensured.

The practice of holding workshops for grantees of similar projects should be continued and expanded. Not only will this enable the grantees to profit from the experience of others, but a good deal of duplication can be avoided.

Where different projects overlap or have specific relationships to each other, LEAA should make it a condition of the grant that

cooperative relationships be established between project staffs on a continuing basis. The practice of making grants to a single jurisdiction for a comprehensive approach to its criminal justice system in all its aspects should be continued and expanded.

The problem of disseminating the results of projects, particularly those which have unique value, must be addressed with more vigor than has been indicated in the past. It is obvious that merely mailing copies of reports, even to a wide audience, is not enough. The flood of material flowing through any criminal justice agency or institution makes it impossible for anyone to closely follow all developments in all fields of criminal justice. It is even difficult to keep up with one's own specialty.

LEAA must experiment with methods of bringing together findings and recommendations to the attention of relevant agencies and institutions so that some implementation will occur. If necessary, LEAA should replicate sound projects in a number of jurisdictions so as to ensure a spreading of the knowledge gained thereby.

In funding a demonstration project LEAA should make it a condition of the funding that the grantee agency or institution make every effort to build into the project the participation of political leaders, local organizations, and professional,



business and citizens groups. The history of too many demonstration projects indicates that after the funding stops the program disappears. Only by including local groups in the operation of the project can there be any hope of its being picked up by the state or local governing body.

## Crime Factors\*

Uniform Crime Reports give a nationwide view of crime based on police statistics made possible by the voluntary cooperation of local law enforcement agencies. Since the factors which cause crime are many and vary from place to place, readers are cautioned against drawing conclusions from direct comparisons of crime figures between individual communities without first considering the factors involved. The national material summarized in this publication should be used, however, as a starting point to determine deviations of individual cities from the national averages.

Crime is a social problem and the concern of the entire community. The law enforcement effort is limited to factors within its control. Some of the conditions which will affect the amount and type of crime that occurs from place to place are briefly outlined below:

- ① Density and size of the community population and the metropolitan area of which it is a part.
- ② Composition of the population with reference particularly to age, sex and race.
- ③ Economic status and mores of the population.
- ④ Relative stability of population, including commuters, seasonal, and other transient types.
- ⑤ Climate, including seasonal weather conditions.
- ⑥ Educational, recreational, and religious characteristics.
- ⑦ Effective strength of the police force.
- ⑧ Standards governing appointments to the police force.
- ⑨ Policies of the prosecuting officials and the courts.
- ⑩ Attitude of the public toward law enforcement problems.
- ⑪ The administrative and investigative efficiency of the local law enforcement agency.

\*FBI Uniform Crime Reports, 1965, p. vii.

## § 126-129] CIVILIZATION AND CRIME\*

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pecially the social sense, and all the peculiarities of the literature and jargon of criminals. On all these points, sufficient data have already been collected, and will be more and more enriched after the preliminary development necessarily given to organic researches, for, in the genesis of crime, the moral temperament appropriate to delinquents is of the highest importance.

### § 126. Anthropological Factors in Crime; Personal Characteristics of the Criminals.

In the third subdivision of anthropological factors (personal characteristics of the criminal) are embraced, aside from the biological conditions of race, age, and sex, the biológico-social conditions, such as civil state, profession, domicile, social class, instruction, and education, which hitherto have been studied almost exclusively by persons concerned with criminal statistics.

### § 127. Physical Factors in Crime.

Then comes the series of physical factors (cosmo-telluric) of crime. These include the causes belonging to the physical environment, all very efficient, as criminal statistics prove in the production of different manifestations of crime. Such climate, nature of the soil, succession of day and night, and seasons, the annual temperature, atmospheric conditions, and agricultural production.

### § 128. Social Factors in Crime.

Finally, there is the category of social factors of crime which result from the social environment in which the delinquent lives, such as different density of population, the state of public and religious opinion, the constitution of the family, the educational system, alcoholism, the economic and political organization, organization of public administration, justice, and judicial police, and finally the civil and penal legislative system in general. These contain a multitude of latent causes which overlap, intervene, and combine in all of the least apparent functions of social life and which almost always escape the attention of theorists and practitioners and of criminologists and law-makers.

### § 129. Classifications of the Factors in Crime.

This classification of the factors of crime, which has been accepted by the greater number of anthropologists and criminal sociologists, seems to me not only more complete and better

\*Enrico Ferri, *Criminal Sociology* (Boston: Little, Brown, and Co., 1917), p. 187. The first edition of this book appeared in 1884.

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Study and Evaluation of Projects and Programs  
Funded Under the Law Enforcement  
Assistance Act of 1965

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### Introduction

The Law Enforcement Assistance Act of September 1965 authorized the Attorney General to develop a program of federally funded grants to local law enforcement and criminal justice agencies. To administer this program the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance (OLEA) was established within the Department of Justice in November 1965.

Its broad purpose was a) to foster new approaches and new capabilities for controlling crime, b) to improve law enforcement and the other agencies of criminal justice, and c) to disseminate the results. To accomplish this, OLEA, in the three year period 1965-1968, awarded 426 grants to 359 separate projects totalling \$20.6 millions.

On June 19, 1968, the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act replaced OLEA by a much larger agency, The Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA). Title I, Section 405(a) (3) of this law stipulated that:

Immediately upon establishment of the [Law Enforcement Assistance] Administration, it shall be its duty to study, review, and evaluate projects and programs funded under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965.

To comply with that directive the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice of LEAA awarded Contract NI-039 to the Institute of Criminal Law and Procedure of Georgetown

University Law Center. The following description of this grant can be found in the First Annual Report of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, August 1969, p. 48.

Abstract: An evaluation of the completed projects funded under LEA Act is the objective of this study. It should provide an analysis of what has been learned, what mistakes have been made, what areas of inquiry deserve no further support and what significant gaps require new efforts.

This general summary of major objectives does not indicate the many additional and specific lines of inquiry and methodology developed in the proposal. The Institute of Criminal Law and Procedure planned to study and evaluate:

1. The Mandate of the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965.
2. The Special Project Grants and especially the Governors Committees in Criminal Justice which were the precursors of the State Planning Agencies funded by LEAA.
3. General Training, Operational Improvement and Study Grants.
4. Dissemination and Technical Assistance Grants.
5. The total OLEA program, and to select a 10% sample for more intensive review, including site visits where feasible.

Because of the enormity of the task, several limits were imposed upon our study. We confined ourselves to the study of projects for which final reports were available. It was not possible for us to make a well-supported judgment on the basis of a proposal alone. We could not make site visits to every project.

This was an end-product evaluation of more than 300 projects. Our summaries and evaluations of each separate project could not be as detailed as they were in the case of the 10% sample selected for more intensive review.

LEAA delivered about 200 final reports to us and we obtained another group of 75 reports that had been subsequently submitted by project directors. Many of the later reports were supplements of earlier projects and the two connected reports were combined into one summary.

Therefore, we did not evaluate about 85 projects funded by OLEA. Mere proposals without final reports were not sufficient for a sound evaluation. However, proposals were valuable when we needed to compare the original proposal with the final report to judge whether the project had accomplished its objectives. Mr. James Swain of LEAA was kind enough to duplicate for us many of the original project proposals. When a proposal was particularly interesting or served as a comparison with

another project, we sometimes prepared a summary and evaluation and these must be interpreted with the understanding that the completed project might be different.

#### Methodology

1. We studied, summarized, and evaluated the final reports. In the review of projects we found it expedient to correspond with and interview project personnel. We did not review the following types of projects:

a) Those for which there was no final report.

It was not feasible to send staff to each of these locations to examine the actual operation.

b) Those that were principally ordered by the President's Crime Commission or the D.C. Crime Commission. These have been published and reviewed many times. OLEA acted more as a disseminator than in any other capacity in these cases.

c) Those relatively few seminar or workshop projects that were similar to others that we did summarize.

2. Interviews with all the key OLEA officials and many of the middle management executives were absolutely necessary. In this connection we received the fullest cooperation from LEAA staff.

3. The history and mandate of the OLEA required a different approach. The clash of personalities, threat of a financial squeeze, or the maneuvering of powerful political figures behind the scenes became apparent as the record unfolded. They constituted an important vector in the determination of OLEA policies.

4. a) As an initial evaluation approach, we devised a questionnaire consisting of two sections. The first part included questions to be answered by all OLEA grantees in the survey. The second part was specifically tailored to the particular features of each of the following major categories: Computers, Correctional training, Police-Community Relations, Police Operations Improvement, Police Planning and Research Units, Police Science Degree Programs, Police Training Standards, and State Committees in Criminal Administration. (See Appendix)

Of the original 426 grants, 35 were eliminated because they were very minor efforts of short duration or required mainly library research rather than work in the field. We sent questionnaires to project directors of 391 grants. By the cutoff date September 30, 1970, 260 questionnaires had been returned, a return rate of 66%. Many others responded with letters reporting that project directors had

**CONTINUED**

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died, or were now unavailable, or that their final reports contained most of the information sought. In addition, many projects were assigned double numbers by OLEA because they received supplemental, continuation, or developmental grants extending the original project. Some grantees elected to treat the two grants as one in completing the questionnaire. As a result some project numbers were combined. Several questionnaires were unusable because so many items were left blank. The final tally was 227 questionnaires from which we derived the following data. Of the 227 grantees who returned the questionnaires, 202 (90%) had finished the project. It must be emphasized that this high rate of return applies only to the 227 projects that responded, and not to the total OLEA program. The 90% figure reflects the fact that the questionnaire was sent during the summer of 1970 and this was two years after OLEA had wound up its operation. However the completion of a project is as much a matter of motivation and management as it is one of time. In any case rate of return is totally unrelated to the question of content, value, or impact of the project.

b) Specially designed questionnaires were used to gather data in the study of Governors Committees in Criminal Administration. Every director of a Governor's Committee, and State Planning Agency, was included on the mailing list.

c) Similarly, for the analysis of the Dissemination Program, we developed another questionnaire and sent it to the chiefs of police of every city in the United States with a population of 100,000 or more. A random sample of 50 criminal justice agencies was included in the summary.

5. We arranged the reports into categories closely following OLEA's own classification scheme. We sought experts in each category to act as consultants.

Professor Herman Goldstein of Wisconsin University Law School, an outstanding authority, consented to serve as our general consultant. The other consultants were:

Computers

Herbert Freeman

Laveen Kanal

Corrections

Albert Elias

paul Keve

Keith Leenhouts

Hans Mattick

Ralph Northrup

Joseph Rowan



Criminal Justice

Samuel Dash

Joseph Goldstein

Herbert Miller

Evaluation and Research

Leslie Wilkins

General

Herman Goldstein

William McDonald

Law Enforcement Operations Improvement

Alfred Blumstein

Jerry Wilson

Police-Community Relations

Robert Williams

Edgar Davis

Police Science Degree Programs

John McNamara

Police Training

Robert Shellow

Psychological Testing

Walter Shorr

Science

Isidore Adler

Youth and Criminal Justice

Marvin Wolfgang

The consultants in particular categories were charged with the responsibility of reading and judging the reports in their sphere of competence. Their primary task at this point was to weed out those that added nothing to our knowledge, or were routine and trivial. The better projects were then considered for inclusion in the group that would be studied intensively.

6. Many conferences between Institute Staff and consultants were devoted to the selection of a 10% sample (about 30) of projects for more intensive analysis and site visits wherever possible. The criteria for this choice were somewhat flexible:

- a) Location of the projects and the demography of the area.
- b) The importance or uniqueness of the project.
- c) Unusually complete questionnaire response.
- d) Excellence of final report and the presence of some interesting but unresolved implications.
- e) Presence and availability of project personnel.
- f) Whether or not there was citizen involvement.
- g) OLEA policies and distribution of grants in various categories.
- h) Continuance of the project.

Members of the Institute staff and consultants visited projects usually for a period ranging from one to four days. Their reports were reviewed in conference. Toward the end of the grant period when the material had been to a great extent absorbed, special consultants were asked to project themselves into the future and to describe the kinds of research that they think ought to be undertaken. Their contributions will be reflected in the recommendations in Chapter VII.

Chapter I of this report describes our study of the mandate. As we pored over the Congressional and legislative documents and sifted the files of OLEA, we sensed the powerful forces playing upon OLEA. The study of the mandate required an analysis of political, bureaucratic, and personal interaction underneath the facade of an impersonal government organization.

The OLEA Dissemination and Technical Assistance Program is the topic of Chapter II. OLEA undertook as part of its mandate to disseminate information, results, and new developments throughout the world of criminal justice. The success or failure of this effort was of vital importance.

Chapter III reports our research into the transition from

Governors Committees under OLEA to State Planning Agencies funded by LEAA. It was important to determine whether there was a continuity of effort. The work of the Governors Committees in Criminal Administration could provide momentum for the State Planning Agencies in developing comprehensive state plans in criminal justice.

Chapter IV analyzes the Allocation of OLEA Resources. It answers the fundamental question of : What priorities did OLEA establish? How much money was assigned to each category? What did OLEA plan to accomplish with its investments?

Chapter V summarizes the general data derived from our questionnaire study. The questionnaires directed to the various classifications of projects elicited material that has been incorporated into the chapter on evaluation.

Chapter VI is an evaluation of the OLEA program, both general and specific. It includes as well the reports of site visits and assessments by our consultants and staff.

Chapter VII contains our recommendations to LEAA for the future.

The individual summaries and evaluations of the remaining projects are collected in the Appendix. It seemed appropriate to arrange the summaries under the same general

headings established by OLEA.

We appreciate the complete cooperation offered by LEAA in giving us access to their facilities and resources.

Professors Herbert Miller and William McDonald were particularly helpful and made important contributions to the study. In writing this report we have made liberal use of their assistance and that of our staff and consultant group.

Samuel Dash  
Project Director

Arthur Niederhoffer  
Research Director

Chapter I  
THE MANDATE OF THE OLEA

Origin of OLEA

Officially, President Lyndon B. Johnson was the first to propose the creation of the OLEA. Crime in the streets was a major issue in the presidential campaign of 1964. In fulfillment of his promise to the country, President Johnson delivered to Congress on March 8, 1965, the first presidential message exclusively devoted to the problems of crime and embodying his plans to control crime and to improve the administration of criminal justice. The message-- "Crime--Its Prevalence and Measures of Prevention" proposed the following.<sup>1/</sup>

Giving new priority. . .to our police. . .to our courts. . .to our correctional agencies. . .

Increased Federal law enforcement efforts; Assistance to local law enforcement efforts; A comprehensive penetrating analysis of the origins and nature of crime in modern America.

President Johnson then continued:

In some areas, however, the federal government has a special responsibility--organized crime, narcotics and drug control, regulation of gun sales, and law enforcement activities in the District of Columbia.

The President said that he would appoint a Crime Commission for the District of Columbia and a President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice.

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<sup>1/</sup> Address by President Lyndon B. Johnson to the 89th Congress, March 8, 1965.

Four our purposes the salient part of this message lies in the following statement by the President.

I believe a major opportunity lies in the development and testing of experimental methods of crime control. To this end, I am proposing the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965. This legislation would authorize the Attorney General to assist State, local, and private groups to improve and strengthen crime control programs and make generally available information as to their effectiveness.

This act would bolster present training programs for local law enforcement personnel and would support the development of new training methods. . . .

This legislation would also authorize Federal support for the development of unproved methods of enforcing criminal laws and administering justice . . . .

The dissemination of information about projects supported under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act will be of substantial value to other communities in designing their own crime control programs.

Although the President stressed the term law enforcement, his message reveals that he included in law enforcement the whole spectrum of the criminal justice system. This is made clear by the following language in his speech:

. . . We must arrest and reverse the trend toward lawlessness.

This active combat against crime calls for a fair and efficient system of law enforcement to deal with those who break the laws. It means giving new priority to the methods and institutions of law enforcement --

to our police, who are our front line both offensive and defensive, in the fight against crime. . .

to our courts, traditionally the symbol and guardian of our cherished freedoms. . .

to our correctional agencies. We cannot tolerate an endless self-defeating cycle of imprisonment, release, and reimprisonment which fails to alter undesirable attitudes and behavior.

The Law Enforcement Assistance Act HR 6508 was introduced on the floor of the House on May 10, 1965 by Representative James C. Corman (Dem. Calif). Hearings on the proposed Act were held in the House of Representatives by Subcommittee #3 of the House Judiciary Committee in May, 1965. On July 29, 1965, the bill was reported favorably with the following amendments: Amendment One reduced from \$100 to \$50 the per diem compensation payable to members of technical and other advisory committees appointed by the Attorney General. Amendment Two placed a limit on the amount of money authorized for the program and provided that not more than ten million dollars should be appropriated for the current fiscal year ending June 30, 1966, and that appropriations for the second and third year should be as thereafter authorized by Congress. The Third Amendment required the Attorney General to make annual reports of activities under the Act to the President and to the Congress.



The counterpart of this bill in the Senate (S.1792) was introduced by Senator Frank E. Moss (Dem. Utah), and an identical measure (S. 1925) was introduced by Senator Philip A. Hart (Dem. Mich.). The subcommittee of the Senate Judiciary Committee held hearings on the Act on July 22, 23 and 30, 1965. Substantially the same witnesses appeared before both the House and Senate Committees, and their statements and recommendations before the Senate Judiciary Committee provided the general outlines of the future development of the OLEA.

At the outset, the important question of what agency was going to administer the LEA Act was raised by Senator Jacob Javits (Rep. N.Y.). He had introduced a somewhat similar bill on March 8, 1965, for the purpose of assisting state and local police forces, and that bill gave power to the Secretary of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare in consultation with the Attorney General to administer the program. The Chairman of the Committee, Senator Sam J. Ervin, Jr. (Dem. N.C.) received a letter from the Under Secretary of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Dr. Wilbur J. Cohen, stating that he thought that the LEA Act would be more appropriately administered by the Department of Justice than by HEW and that he had no objection to the control of the OLEA by the Department of Justice.

In a long statement Attorney General Katzenbach laid down the guidelines which OLEA followed in its career. In substance the Secretary stated:

"We shall have to do more for the policemen who are the front line of the battle against crime. Any effective approach to Federal assistance to state and local communities must be broad. The money is not to be used for establishing day-to-day resources for police departments. It is not designed to build police academies, raise salaries, or enable cities to double the size of their police force. It is not a massive subsidy program. There will be an emphasis on projects to aid police in combating crime in the street. There are new ideas that ought to be incorporated. For example, St. Louis uses a computer to determine police deployment. Portland and Tulsa are saving time by having policemen dictate reports over the phone from the street. Kansas City has formed a metro-squad, an illustration of cooperation by police in different jurisdictions. The State of California is studying the application of systems analysis. Some cities are experimenting with closed-circuit television systems. There are some new developments in computer identification of fingerprints, personalized radio transmitters for patrolmen, better police weapons, faster transmissions of citizens' complaints of crime, more sophisticated equipment for the collection of data and dissemination of information. Finally, there are new insights on the fundamentals of police administration. Colleges and universities should be encouraged to offer degree programs in police administration and criminology. Better ways to handle drunks, drug addiction and so-called invisible crime should be developed. The courts are now operating on an assembly line basis and we must also recognize the importance of the prosecutorial function. More attention should be given to the courts, therefore, and also to the correctional process. It is important to publish and disseminate the material to make the projects visible as models. " 2/

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2/ Statement by Attorney General Nicholas De B. Katzenbach before a Special Subcommittee of the Senate Judiciary Committee on S. 1792, the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965.

On July 30th, Representative James Scheuer (Dem. NY) appeared before the Senate Committee and proposed the establishment of a Science Advisory Committee to advise the Attorney General on advances in physical and communication science, such as that in London in which Scotland Yard developed a closed-circuit television camera as a means of crime surveillance. Congressman Scheuer also proposed to place the responsibility for the administration of the Act in the hands of a specific Assistant Attorney General rather than of the Department as a whole.

Former Director of the Federal Prison System, James Bennett, proposed that the Federal Government could provide some seed money to demonstrate how the workload of the criminal courts might be reduced. He suggested further a system of civil penalties leading to clinical treatment of alcoholism. He recommended prison vocational work and training programs, after care programs for discharged prisoners, shelter homes or half-way houses, and help through probation and parole systems.

Quinn Tamm, Executive Director of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, appeared before the Committee and emphasized the need for obtaining the advice and counsel of the professional state and local police executives. It was important, he said, that the Federal Government should not encroach on the independence

of local agencies.

Senator Joseph D. Tydings (Dem. Md) inquired about the rank of the official in the Department of Justice who would be in charge of the administration of the Act and also whether the Attorney General would set up a Science Advisory Committee to advise him. On August 17, 1965, Attorney General Katzenbach wrote to the subcommittee's Chairman, Senator Ervin, that he would designate someone in his department to be in charge of the administration of the Act who would have all the authority he needed to obtain assistance from all divisions of the Department. The Attorney General also promised to name advisory committees.

On August 2, 1965 the House passed the bill by a 326-0 roll call vote.

A month later on September 8, 1965 the bill was brought to the floor of the Senate for a vote.<sup>3/</sup> The debate on the bill raised some very important questions and clarified the lines of development that would later be involved with the plans of the OLEA. Senator Hart summarized the bill in the following terms:

In short, the main purpose of the bill is to authorize the Attorney General to make grants for the training of State and local law enforcement personnel. . .[and] for projects designed to improve local law enforcement.

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<sup>3/</sup> 111 Cong. Rec. 22255-22265 (1965)

Senator Moss asked whether the bill in any way deprived local law enforcement officials of their authority. Senator Hart, in response, called attention to Section 7 of the bill which specifically forbids such infringement.

In answer to a question about the composition of the advisory committees, Senator Hart declared that he too, was concerned lest the Attorney General turn only to academicians for the committee. Then he gave assurance that the Attorney General, in forming his advisory committees, would seek the counsel of men and women who are professionally trained in the field of law enforcement, and "specifically those men who know what it is to pound a beat or respond in the dead of the night."

Senator Roman L. Hruska (Rep. Neb) called for a broad-scale research program, thus reiterating one theme of President Johnson's crime message. In his opinion, crime was the number one problem of America and it required the policeman to be so many things--judge, sociologist, counselor, parole officer--that an extensive training program was needed to help policemen fulfill their duties. He remarked that the Senate Judiciary Committee on his motion had recommended that the Attorney General implement a broad-scale research effort to uncover the root causes of crime and to seek remedies to the crime problem. Senator Hruska pointed out that the crime problem demands the same type of research techniques

and priorities that we have assigned to the defense effort, space program and the battle against disease and illness. The crime problem lends itself to solution by modern research techniques including operations research, system analysis and electronic computers. He wanted a long term research effort, a division of research into a number of manageable projects and an establishment of research priorities to guide in funding manpower allocation.

The Senate passed the bill on September 8, 1965. The President signed the bill on September 22, 1965, and concurrently made an important statement which had some bearing upon the future of the OLEA. "The control of crime is the major target of this administration." Once more the President repeated that the policeman is the front line soldier in our war against crime. We must give him modern training, organization and equipment if he is to succeed in serving our cities from the malignancy of crime and this is a major objective of the Law Enforcement Assistance Act. The President stressed that this was to be an action program and not a subsidy for cities and states.

The Law Enforcement Assistance Act became public law 89-197. It remained substantially the same throughout its history except that on November 8, 1966, its life was extended two years--from three years to five, and finally it was replaced by the Omnibus

Crime Control and Safe Streets Act, public law 90-351, which was passed June 19, 1968.

The title and wording of the Law Enforcement Assistance Bill of 1965 provided a mandate for action by OLEA.

Preamble:

It is an Act to provide assistance in training State and local law enforcement officers and other personnel, and in improving capabilities, techniques, and practices in State and local law enforcement and prevention and control of crime, and for other purposes.

Section 2:

For the purpose of improving the quality of State and local law enforcement and correctional personnel, and personnel employed or preparing for employment in programs for the prevention or control of crime, the Attorney General is authorized to make grants. . . to provide professional training and related education for such personnel.

Section 3:

For the purpose of improving the capabilities, techniques, and practices of State and local agencies engaged in law enforcement, the administration of the criminal laws, the correction of offenders, or the prevention and control of crime, the Attorney General is authorized to make grants. . .

Section 5:

The Attorney General or his delegate shall require wherever feasible, as a condition of approval of a grant under this Act, that the recipient contribute money, facilities, or services for carrying out the project for which such grant is sought.

Section 6(a):

The Attorney General is authorized to make studies with respect to matters relating to law enforcement organization, techniques and practices, or the prevention or control of crime, including the effectiveness of projects or programs carried out under this Act.

Section 6(b):

The Attorney General is authorized to collect, evaluate, publish, and disseminate information and materials relating to studies conducted under this Act.

Section 7:

Nothing contained in this Act shall be construed to authorize any department, agency, officer or employee of the United States to exercise any directions, supervision or control over the organization, administration or personnel of any State or local police force or other law enforcement agency.

Section 8(a)(1):

The Attorney General is authorized to appoint such technical or other advisory committees to advise him in connection with the administration of this Act as he deems necessary.

It is clear that before the OLEA ever came into existence there were firm guidelines established both from the wording of the law itself, and statements of Attorney General Katzenbach, indicating the direction of his thought on the matter. Direction also came from the recommendations, questions and criticisms of the members of Congress who considered the bill.

The major themes and guidelines that have been established are (1) The emphasis on law enforcement as the most important arm of the criminal justice system. (2) The stress upon action rather than research programs (Senator Hruska was the only important voice raised in support of broad-scale research). (3) A reliance upon programs that would have an immediate impact on crime in the street rather than a long-term development. (4) Attention should



be given to new technological developments, especially computers, better radios and scientific devices leading to improvement of operation of the police.

## Chapter I

## PART II

Administration of the OLEA

While Congress was considering the OLEA Bill of 1965, Attorney General Katzenbach appointed a task force within the Department of Justice to set up an Office of Law Enforcement Assistance. Among this group were Mr. James Vorenberg, Special Assistant to the Attorney General; Mr. Daniel L. Skoler, Staff Assistant of the Criminal Division of the Department of Justice; Mr. Henry S. Ruth, Jr., an attorney in the Office of Criminal Justice in the Department of Justice; and Mr. Philip J. Hoskins, an attorney in the Criminal Division of the Department of Justice. Mr. Vorenberg was the supervisor of this task force, as well as Executive Director of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice.

Hearings Before the House Appropriations Committee

The first budget hearing was held on October 6, 1965, before the House Appropriations Committee of the Departments of State, Justice, Commerce and Judiciary [Representative John J. Rooney (Dem, N.Y.), Chairman].<sup>4/</sup> Appearing for the OLEA was Deputy

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<sup>4/</sup> Hearings before the Subcommittee on State, Justice, Commerce and Judiciary and Related Agencies Appropriations of the House Committee on Appropriations, 89th Congress, 1st Session, 1965.

Attorney General Ramsey Clark, Daniel L. Skoler and J.C. Brown, the Budget Officer. The request of the OLEA was for \$9,327,000 during fiscal 1966, and it also requested authorization for 25 positions to implement its program.

In this and subsequent hearings before the Subcommittee on Appropriations, the Chairman, Rep. Rooney, took a very hard line toward the OLEA, questioning it closely on every expenditure and on the policies they followed.

At this hearing under prodding by Mr. Rooney, Mr. Clark and Mr. Skoler laid down standards that were later to become the policies of OLEA:

- 1) Long range theoretical research projects would be discouraged.

- 2) Grants to police departments would be substantial when compared to grants made to universities and colleges. In fact, a requirement of a grant to a college would be a recommendation by a law enforcement agency.

- 3) A great effort would be undertaken to make Washington, D.C. a model area with a probable cost of two and a half to three million dollars.

- 4) OLEA would encourage 2-year college degree programs for law enforcement personnel.

5) Mandatory recruit training for policemen would be another goal.

6) OLEA planned a crash program in the application of modern scientific technology to the problems of law enforcement.

The Committee authorized an appropriation of \$7,249,000 for the OLEA in fiscal '66. Attorney General Katzenbach then established the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance within the Office of the Attorney General . He appointed Mr. Courtney A. Evans, an attorney and a former assistant director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation to be the Acting Director of the new office. Mr. Daniel Skoler became Associate Director; Mr. Patrick V. Murphy came from the New York City Police Department to be Assistant Director for Law Enforcement; Mr. James E. Murphy was appointed Assistant Director for Corrections; and Phillip Hoskins was placed in charge of the Criminal Justice program. Program managers in various fields were appointed--one for police-community relations, one for police operations, one for police education, one for science and technology, and one for dissemination.

A table of organization was established for OLEA which provided for fifteen professional and ten clerical positions. This small nucleus worked long and hard in establishing a whole set of procedures for OLEA. The primary concerns were to decide how to fund and audit projects, how to receive and encourage

applications and how to administer them. The second problem area was the staffing of the advisory committees that the Attorney General was eager to create in order to fulfill his promises to the Congressional committees that had questioned him on this subject.

Several panels were planned: Law Enforcement, Corrections, Science and Technology, and Criminal Justice. An interim panel on Criminal Justice was proposed -- its members consisting of members of the Department of Justice. No meetings were held but its members were consulted individually upon occasion. The Science and Technology panel was to provide guidance both to OLEA and the President's Crime Commission, but there is little evidence that it fulfilled this role for OLEA. Instead, a subcommittee of the Law Enforcement Panel was chosen to advise on science and technology in police operations. The OLEA director Courtney Evans showed great independence in appointing several men whom the FBI refused to recommend, although the Bureau made no specific allegations against them.

Administration of Grant Program

The Attorney General's Office had never administered a grant program before and OLEA took the initiative in asking those departments that had experience in grant programs to attend a conference to decide the best way for OLEA to develop its own program. The departments that responded were Health, Education and Welfare, the Office of Juvenile Delinquency within HEW, and NIMH within HEW, and the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation. As a result of these conferences, plus their own experience, a set of procedures was established. It must be realized, however, that at the beginning, these few men without any advisory committees did most of the work themselves and there was a certain informality in procedures that was modified later on.

A typical project would proceed through the following steps:

- 1) The receipt by the OLEA of a letter of interest stating that the Department or Institution wanted to develop a certain project.
- 2) A member of the staff reviewed it and submitted a brief report.
- 3) If approved, a formal application accompanied by a letter of encouragement was sent to the applicant. Occasionally, the OLEA would recommend that the applicant get in touch with a university or hire some consultant to work up the project, and rarely, a staff member of OLEA would act as a consultant himself

because the project exhibited so much potential merit. 4) Usually, upon the receipt of the formal application, the OLEA would request the applicant to come to Washington to discuss the problems. 5) Then the proposal would be assigned to a project manager who generally remained with the project until its completion. 6) The next step was a review by one of the directors who would make recommendations. He would be guided by a rough idea of how this project fit into a tentative (informal) master plan that had been established in the OLEA.<sup>5/</sup> 7) Then serious negotiation for funding would start. Finally, when there was a complete package, 8) they would send it to the Associate Director, Mr. Skoler for final review. 9) At that point it was sent to the Advisory Committee. 10) If the Advisory Committee approved, it was sent to the Attorney General for his signature.

Every project had to be authorized by the signature of the Attorney General. The project manager stayed with the project, monitored it, audited it, and kept up with the quarterly reports that were due from the applicant.

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<sup>5/</sup> The term tentative master plan was used by one of the high ranking OLEA officers who was interviewed. It really connotes a financial blueprint in which budgetary limitations permitted only a certain number of projects in each major category. The percentages of the total funds were Police 66%, Corrections 15%, Courts 8%, General Studies etc. 11%.

Even before the passage of the Act, 16 project proposals had already been received. In November 1965 a list of projects for possible OLEA support had been established. Twelve projects of this type were described in a memorandum from Mr. Skoler to Mr. Evans. Among them were: the FBI proposal for a national computerized information system, the National Council of Crime and Delinquency proposal for a national survey of corrections, and the University of Georgia's plan to devise a training program for police using the state-wide education television network. There were several grants for the Washington, D.C. police and the Washington D.C. Crime Commission.

In order to inform local and state agencies about the program Mr. Evans wrote to the governors of all the states to seek their support. He spoke at many meetings and issued a 10-page brochure setting guidelines for grant applicants. This brochure invited the submission of proposals in summary form. By the end of December the OLEA had received over 700 inquiries and 95 preliminary proposals, requesting well over 15 million dollars.

The House Appropriations Committee Hearings, Fiscal '67

On February 11, 1966 it was necessary for the offices of OLEA to appear once more before the House Appropriations Committee under Chairman Rooney to seek its funding for fiscal '67. Originally, OLEA hoped to obtain 25 million dollars, but that was pared down



to a request for \$13,693,000 by the time the budget reached the subcommittee. This was an increase of \$6,440,000 over the appropriation for fiscal '66. Mr. Evans, in his report to the committee, stated that the OLEA had stressed the necessity for "projects which seek to find new solutions to old problems in the hope that the successful experience of one police department or correctional institution may be disseminated to those in other areas of the nation."<sup>6/</sup> He asserted that the area in which the most urgent and frequent requests are made is that of training in law enforcement which is needed at every level, and beyond these areas there are calls for special training in the field of human relations. Almost equal in emphasis to training is the area of demonstration, the development of new techniques and tools for law enforcement. Congressman Rooney questioned the OLEA group closely on the projects for the District of Columbia which added up to approximately one million dollars in fiscal '66.

Chairman Rooney was generally critical of the budgetary requests saying "everybody wants to get on the gravy train." He then inquired into the consultants used by OLEA in its formative

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<sup>6/</sup> Hearings before the Subcommittee on State, Justice, Commerce and Judiciary and Related Agencies Appropriations of the House Committee on Appropriations, 89th Congress, 2nd Session, 1966.

stages and wondered whether they were like the "whiz kids" Mr. McNamara had used. Mr. Rooney described the District of Columbia Crime Commission workshop on burglary, robbery, and theft as a clam bake for the 55 people for one week. In spite of the criticism, the sum of \$7,250,000 was approved by Congress for fiscal '67.

#### Formal Requirements for Grants

The formal criteria and guidelines for projects of OLEA were set forth in the LEAA grant guide and they repeated the standards as delineated in interim guidelines. The standards encouraged projects that embodied 1) new techniques and approaches, 2) an action orientation, 3) value to the nation as a whole, 4) relatively short duration, 5) modest fund requests, 6) a substantial grantee contribution, 7) program balance in relation to the total LEAA effort, 8) a potential for a continuation after grant support ends, 9) broad community sponsorship, and 10) some plan for objective evaluation of results.

Additional guidelines established the maximum period of two years for a project and a general budget range from \$15,000 to \$150,000. Its (OLEA) internal criteria sought to establish a proper proportion between urban and rural needs, and among the basic types of activity training, demonstrations, technology, and developmental studies. These were the criteria that helped the

OLEA to choose among the thousand general inquiries about the Act and the 190 applicants that had submitted over 250 specific proposals. By March 1966, 95 of these proposals were for law enforcement training, 65 for law enforcement demonstration and study projects, together constituting almost 2/3 of all grant submission. At that time there had been received approximately 45 proposals in the area of corrections, 20 in criminal justice, and 25 in miscellaneous areas. Proposals had been recieved from 25 of the 50 large cities, and at least one proposal had been received from each of 37 states. The total funds requested exceeded 35 million dollars.

The advisory committees set up criteria for the special programs such as the Police Community Relations programs, the police science degree programs, the planning and research units, the state planning committees in criminal administration, the state-wide police standards on police training systems and the state-wide in-service correctional training programs. These criteria were incorporated in grant guides for special programs.

It is evident that both the general criteria and the special criteria were statements of an ideal. It is our purpose, however, to examine the real as distinguished from the ideal. Any governmental organization in Washington, D.C. is a target of so many forces and pressures that compromise with the ideal is the ordinary condition of existence.

### PART III The Real v the Ideal

To say that the OLEA had to compromise some of its ideal standards is not to be cynical or to denigrate its activities. There is no doubt that the small OLEA staff accomplished a great deal. They were men of experience, of intelligence, and were motivated by a sincere desire to improve the whole field of criminal justice.

#### Allocation of Funds

Let us examine the pattern of allocation of funds. We find that Washington, D.C. received far more than any other city during the first year of the OLEA efforts. Certainly, the special effort in Washington can be traced back to President Johnson's influence. For example, in his 1965 crime message President Johnson stated, "Both in its own right and as a model for other cities, Washington can and should be a focus for intensive efforts in crime prevention, the detection and prosecution of crimes, rehabilitation, and related activities."<sup>1/</sup>

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<sup>1/</sup> Address by President Johnson to the 89th Congress, March 8, 1965.

Congressman Rooney, Chairman of the House Subcommittee on Appropriations, was critical of the large amount of funds allocated to Washington, D.C. by OLEA. A close look at the situation reveals that the projects funded by the OLEA were attempting to transform the Washington police department into a more modern progressive department with a professional competence. Rooney was representative of Congressmen who felt that this was too rapid a movement away from the traditional concepts of law and order. Therefore, his subcommittee on appropriations was probably representing their interests in having the Washington police force remain as it had in the past.

In any event, we notice that the appropriations and grants to Washington, D.C. ceased shortly after the Congressional subcommittee on appropriations criticized the concentration of funds in Washington.

The next area of concern is the total allocation of funds by the OLEA. For their total expenditure over the three-year period, the percentage of funds invested in law enforcement was 63%, in corrections 15%, in criminal justice 8%, and in general studies, planning and crime prevention 11%. It is at once apparent that there was a tremendous amount spent in law enforcement and rather little in the other areas of criminal justice. This was not

wholly by chance. A primary influence was probably the title of the Act--Law Enforcement Assistance Act. Another important factor was the constant emphasis upon law enforcement and police as the front line of defense against crime. This is a major theme of the President's crime messages.

A majority of the grant applications submitted were heavily concentrated in law enforcement, rather than other areas of criminal justice. There were certain sources for this pattern of allocation of which we must be cognizant. The first reflects the President's Crime Commission estimate of the amount of money spent nationally in criminal justice. This estimate was 66% for police, 25% for corrections and 9% for courts and prosecutions.<sup>8/</sup> An earlier 1965 study in New York indicated that New York State spent 70% for police services, 6% for courts and prosecutions, 23% for corrections, and 1% for miscellaneous auxiliary services.

These two cost studies played a significant role in the allocation plans of the OLEA. The ~~marked~~ similarity of 63% OLEA funds for police and 66% national funds for police--as indicated by the President's Crime Commission--seems almost impossible to achieve except by design.

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8/ The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society. The Report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 34.

It should be understood that some of the projects funded by OLEA can be classified under several headings. For example, a seminar on police-community relations may be placed under police-community relations, or it may be operations improvement, or it may even be training. It is quite likely that this flexibility in assigning projects to categories explains how the OLEA arrived at their figures.

An interesting theory to explain the heavy expenditure on police projects comes by analogy through a survey of the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice of the LEAA. The National Institute freely admitted the police emphasis and the following explanations were offered:

Institute officials freely admit and defend this emphasis on police studies. "The problems are better defined for police," explains Irving Slott, assistant director of the institute. "In other areas we can do little more than basic studies. In corrections, for example, you could line the room with books about the subject, but we still don't know what works."

Slott and LEAA director Rogovin both deny strongly that there is any pressure on them, from the Attorney General or anyone else, to respond to a particular political demand. Nonetheless, the institute is no ivory tower: its priorities are clearly affected by the growing public fear of "crime in the streets." "Stranger-to-stranger personal crime is crucial," says Slott. "This is what people are afraid of, even though two-thirds of all murders in the U.S. are committed by people known to their victims."

Marvin Wolfgang, director of the Center for Studies in Criminology and Criminal Law at the University of Pennsylvania, admits that "people's fears give considerable buttressing to the undertaking of work on street crimes. The best way to deal with this fear, short-term, is at the police level." Wolfgang offers an unusual justification for concentrating on police: the whole criminal justice system, or "non-system" as he calls it, is so poor that "putting money in preventive, deterrent efforts involving police may have a greater payoff, by keeping people from first entering the system by getting arrested." Improved police work, while it might seem to lead to more arrests, actually would mean fewer because it would deter criminals, he argues.

As Wolfgang and Slott both suggest, one of the reasons for emphasizing the role of the police in reducing crime is the almost total failure, in this country and elsewhere, to develop corrections institutions that do any correcting. 9/

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9/ Joel R. Kramer, "Criminal Justice R and D: New Agency Stresses Police over Corrections." Science, Vol. 166 (October 31, 1969), p. 589.



The size and number of grants was to some extent controlled by the money available. That the guidelines emphasized grants which were modest in cost was due to the relatively small sum of about 7 million dollars which was appropriated for OLEA. From this had to come administrative costs as well as money for grant projects.

The fact that not much money was available for a project meant that many projects had to be shortened and were not given proper time to fulfill their expectation. It also meant that in a practical sense many projects suffered from a lack of money which prevented the hiring of qualified project directors or consultants. It is also true that the potential threat of Congressman Rooney and his subcommittee on appropriations was always in the back of OLEA's mind and had something to do with the kind of studies that they funded.

These factors, together with President Johnson's calling for action programs, determined the allocation for many grants. It was difficult for OLEA to undertake research that would not promise results in a short time, because the need to justify their activities made this type of grant rather unattractive.

### Political Constraints

The next general area of constraint was political. The OLEA, like all other institutions in the government, had to respond to political pressures. Their files were crammed with letters from Congressmen asking them to consider projects from their constituents. While these were never in the form of commands, they probably had a certain effect on OLEA.

OLEA made an effort to fulfill the statements and recommendations of the various Congressmen and important witnesses who testified at the various Congressional hearings on the LEA Bill. There is almost a one-to-one correspondence between the suggestions they made and what subsequently emerged from OLEA.

The wide geographical distribution of OLEA projects was as much a political maneuver as it was determined by the specific needs of law enforcement. By spreading their grants around to all the states they satisfied to some degree the political representatives from those areas.

### The President's Commission

Another significant source of guidelines for the OLEA was the report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice--The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society. The Commission recommended eight major areas for federal support:

- 1) State and local planning;
- 2) Education and training of criminal justice personnel;
- 3) Surveys and advisory services concerning organization and operation of criminal justice agencies;
- 4) The development of coordinated national information systems;
- 5) Development of a limited number of demonstration programs in agencies of justice;
- 6) Scientific and technological research and development;
- 7) Institutes for research and training personnel;
- 8) Grants-in-aid for operational innovations.

The Commission also recommended: "In every state and every city, an agency, of one or more officials should be specifically responsible for planning improvements in crime prevention and control and encouraging their implementation." Each of these recommendations was followed by OLEA.

In fiscal '66 police-community relations programs constituted a small part of the total OLEA picture. There were fewer than ten such programs in spite of the riots of 1965. The Crime Commission report came out in February 1967 and called for an urgent effort in community relations: 1) The Establishment of community relations units in departments serving substantial minority population; 2) The establishment of citizen advisory committees in minority-

group neighborhoods; and 3) The emphasizing of community relations in training and operations.

It is not surprising, therefore, that in fiscal '67 the OLEA funded some 27 police-community relations projects, three times as many as in fiscal '66.

#### Advisory Committees

The advisory committee on law enforcement was called in two or three times a year as a body to review projects and to establish the norms for special programs such as police-community relations, education and training degree programs. In general, the committee reflected the advice and suggestions of the OLEA staff.

The advisory committee on law enforcement agreed to establish standards for special programs such as community relations, police education and training, and state law enforcement standards and training commissions. It also agreed to allow OLEA to fund these projects without review in order to expedite their management. The FBI representative was withdrawn from the advisory committee on the ground that the committee in a sense had ceased to function in its proper capacity.

#### Other Sources of Guidelines

Another factor in setting guidelines was the fact that there were few consultants called in to plan some programs. For example, James Stinchomb, a consultant to the IACP for educational standards

and to the American Association of Junior Colleges for police science programs, was more instrumental than any other individual in establishing the various degree programs funded by OLEA.

The police-community relations programs were developed by a preliminary phase of visitations to major police departments, followed by attempts to emulate them. In this way, a few programs set the standards for many smaller police-community relations efforts.

Finally, Attorney General Katzenback had responded to criticisms and developments in the area of crime and violence throughout the country. That he had a hand in directing and establishing the guidelines and patterns of allocation for the OLEA may be seen from the fact that the OLEA fulfilled most of the recommendations he made in Congressional hearings.

#### Dissemination

The guidelines for dissemination again illustrate the difference between the ideal and the real. The third annual OLEA report to the President and the Congress, dated April 1, 1968, delineates what may be considered the ideal. For example, on page 26 the goal of the demonstration program was stated to be the encouragement of widespread implementation of forward looking techniques and concepts throughout the field of program concern.

This was to be accomplished by the dissemination of project reports, project evaluations and associated data.

The OLEA qualified this statement by asserting that a substantial dissemination program would be dependent upon a fund of completed projects, that LEAA was just beginning to accumulate this resource, and that the department was engaged in a concentrated effort to make the reports and significant findings of completed projects readily available to the public, the law enforcement community, and the research and program technicians. As recounted in Chapter II of this report, the dissemination effort in general lagged behind the rest of the OLEA program.

The projects which received the greatest dissemination were the report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, and the report of the Commission on Crime in the District of Columbia. More than 90,000 of these reports, Appendices, and task force reports were published and distributed to governors, mayors, officials, police chiefs, and others in the field.

Oddly enough, this one successful effort was reviewed by Congressman Rooney. He took pains to mention that in his opinion the cost for the printing and dissemination of the reports was exorbitant.

### Evaluation

One other area that needs discussion is the project evaluation standard. The LEAA grant guide, issued June 1966, established norms for the projects. It clearly states:

It will be the policy of OLEA to support only those projects which include an evaluation of activities or for which some means of evaluation, interpretation, and comparison of results can be devised. Where the skills to conduct such an evaluation are not present some attempt to obtain the involvement of professional sources capable of providing this service should be made and also there may be grouping or classification of similar efforts for which OLEA will seek to undertake joint evaluation.

Evaluation is always a difficult area. In most projects the evaluation took the form of submitting questionnaires to project participants and obtaining their opinions. Rarely did a project report include an independent professional evaluation by an objective consultant.

### Innovation

OLEA in its own platform stressed the search for innovative projects. However, few projects were innovative. Perhaps OLEA was limited in this direction by the inadequacy of some of the project proposals. Most projects submitted by police departments were not innovative. But when a project indicated that it had some higher potential, OLEA would send its own consultant to assist in its formulation. It would then in a sense become an OLEA proposal. This was a necessary step in order to ensure some realistic and creative projects.

In summary, OLEA emerges as a small organization composed of no more than 15 professional and 10 secretarial positions. It operated under the belief that it was a temporary expedient soon to be replaced by a larger agency. It was harassed by a hostile appropriations committee that refused to increase its budget. And it responded necessarily to external political pressures, internal bureaucratic tensions, and national crises in the form of riots and increasing crime.

Moreover, Section 7 of the LEA Act prohibited any direction, supervision, or control over the organization, administration, or personnel of any local police force. Taken literally this could have emasculated the program. It may have resulted in a watchdog atmosphere which prohibited OLEA from stimulating local agencies to undertake these projects. At the least, it meant that OLEA had to be careful not to get too actively involved in projects.

The money granted to OLEA constituted a mandate to spend it, and toward the end of a fiscal year there was an annual drive to distribute that money. Only by this complete exhaustion of funds could OLEA aspire to larger sums the next fiscal year. This may not have engendered an atmosphere conducive to objective evaluation of projects.

Obviously, OLEA favored police agencies over other parts of the criminal justice system, as the <sup>62%</sup> ~~62%~~ figure starkly reveals.



In this policy however, it took its mandate from the President's Crime Commission, as well as other sources previously described.

Other agencies had been involved in making grants to criminal justice agencies but OLEA acted as a pathbreaker in bringing the Department of Justice into this field, thus making it the first Federal agency to be devoted exclusively to criminal justice grants. The mandate to improve law enforcement was fulfilled to some degree; OLEA did look for innovation but could not often find it; it did create some new educational programs and improved training for police and correction officers; and it did bring colleges and universities into the field of criminal justice to a greater extent.

The unfortunate fact, however, is that these improvements have been intangible. An educated officer cannot often prove his superior performance, because it often involves exercise of discretion which is difficult to measure. The best police-community relation programs, even when administered jointly by police departments and universities, may break down before forces over which they have no control. The most educated and humane correctional officer cannot do much to prevent recidivism if the inmate culture of the prison brutalizes the prisoner.

It is easy to criticize OLEA; its shortcomings are obvious.

But the failings of the criminal justice system are so gross that the improvement, significant as it may be, can hardly be seen or measured.

## CHAPTER II

DISSEMINATION STUDY  
of  
OLEA PROGRAM

Dissemination of OLEA reports was authorized by Section 6b of the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965 that created OLEA.

§ 6(b) The Attorney General is authorized to collect, evaluate, publish, and disseminate information and materials relating to studies conducted under this Act, and other matters relating to law enforcement organization, techniques and practices, or the prevention or control of crime, for the benefit of the general public or of agencies and personnel engaged in programs concerning these subjects, as may be appropriate.

Two months before the Act became law, at the Senate Subcommittee hearings held July 22, 1965, Attorney General Nicholas de B. Katzenbach called attention to the prime importance of dissemination:

Whatever projects we adopt, however, if they are to serve as models, they must be "visible." For this reason we believe one of the primary functions of this bill is outlined in section 6(b). This states that money may be allocated for making known that which is now lost for want of publication and dissemination.

Too many promising programs and ideas have remained dormant for want of practical trial. Identifying them and publicizing them can have substantial importance in carrying out the purpose of the bill. 1/

At the very inception of the program in 1965, the OLEA leadership apparently recognized the importance of the dissemination effort. A dissemination office was established under the direction of a competent administrator at the middle management level. Within three months he was promoted to manager of police community relations programs in addition to his dissemination duties. (This was a clear example of the "Peter Principle" in operation, by virtue of which a man who is effective in one position is promoted to some other position.) X

With the exception of some few special dissemination projects such as the distribution of the reports of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, and the D.C. Crime Commission, OLEA assigned a low priority to dissemination. The office rarely had sufficient staff. A very few writers and secretaries accomplished the Herculean task of preparing reports and summaries, writing speeches and press

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1/ Hearings on S.1792 and S.1825 before a subcommittee of the Senate Committee on the Judiciary, 89th Congress, First Session, July 22, 1965, pp 9-10.

releases, answering letters, assisting in all phases of technical assistance such as conferences and workshops, and responding to thousands of requests for public information.

There were no official mailing lists for regular dissemination, no name plates, no equipment for this purpose.

Despite the handicaps there was some dissemination. And it was this effort that is the subject of review in this phase of our study.

Let us see how the OLEA itself evaluated its dissemination program. A very clear picture of the OLEA dissemination is contained in a memorandum on dissemination prepared by an OLEA staff member and dated October, 1967.

#### OLEA Dissemination Office 1966-67

OLEA's dissemination office carries on both public information and dissemination activities.

Public information activities include answering mail and telephone inquiries from the public, news media, and Congressional offices; writing press releases, news items and announcements; and obtaining current information on project progress for use of OLEA staff of the Department. The dissemination office prepares or assists in the preparation of OLEA publications, which are information items rather than dissemination pieces. To a limited degree, the dissemination office fulfills an internal public information role (i.e., writing or researching of speeches, circulating news items of interest to the staff, and researching activities of other Federal agencies).

Dissemination activities now represent about 60 percent of dissemination office work and will increase. They include:

- (A) Answering telephone and mail inquiries regarding OLEA reports, and also providing the reports either outright or on loan, plus providing information on Crime Commission reports to news media and the public;
- (B) Preparing OLEA-financed reports and technical assistance materials for publication (editing manuscripts and handling production);
- (C) Determining distribution of reports to appropriate persons.

Thus far, OLEA utilization activities have been carried out by OLEA consultants or OLEA grant managers. These activities have included conferences, workshops and consultation services. [pp 3-4]

Toward the end of the 3-year program, the OLEA philosophy and evaluation of its dissemination program were concisely expressed in the Third Annual Report #16-175, April, 1968.

#### H. Dissemination and Technical Assistance

The goal of a demonstration program is to develop, to test and by disseminating project reports, project evaluation studies and associated data, to encourage widespread implementation of forward-looking techniques and concepts throughout the field of program concern. Thus, the final success of a demonstration program is its long-range ability to effect needed change.

A substantial dissemination program is dependent on a fund of completed projects. LEAA is just beginning to accumulate this resource and the Department is now engaged in a concentrated effort to make the reports and significant findings of completed projects readily available to the public, the law enforcement community, and to research and program technicians.

Early LEAA dissemination work centered on two goals:

--widespread and immediate distribution of the reports of the two Presidential crime commissions whose studies terminated in late 1966 and early 1967--the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice and the President's Commission on Crime in the District of Columbia. More than 90,000 copies of the various report, task force, and appendices documents were published and distributed to governors, mayors, state legislators, county officials, police chiefs, sheriffs, judges, correctional administrators, educators, and civil leaders, most of these consisting of Commission cover reports. This has constituted the single largest dissemination investment of the LEAA program and has provided the nation and the criminal justice field with a comprehensive analysis of current needs and problems, and a blueprint for improvement and reform.

--dissemination of the varied group of short-term study and survey projects supported during the first year of OLEA operation (nearly 40 grants) to obtain important data not currently available, provide a basis for establishing program priorities, and offer guidance and perspective to law enforcement administrators. Many of these were published in their entirety in the task force and consultant studies volumes of the Crime Commission reports (e.g., science and technology study, national survey of successful police field operations techniques, analysis of adult and juvenile offenders in D.C., and police management and organization study). Others have been published separately by LEAA (e.g., police management training in the south, survey of crime laboratories, and national corrections survey).

In addition, at least 25 grantees, as part of their project effort, have undertaken substantial dissemination of the grant work product (e.g., the southern states conference on correctional manpower and training, the New York police officers' manual project, the Ohio State information system project, the corrections college recess institute project, the Los Angeles helicopter patrol demonstration, and most of the LEAA handbook and manual development projects). Numerous

articles describing or reporting the findings of LEAA projects have appeared in professional journals, conference proceedings, and the like--perhaps the best example being the 985-page proceedings of the 1967 National Symposium on Law Enforcement Science and Technology containing interim reports or papers on more than 10 LEAA science and technology projects.

Current dissemination efforts involve expansion of two series of publications:

--selected final project reports. Items already published in this series include the Harvard student district attorney project, the Associated Public Safety Communications Officers radio communications manual, the New Jersey mobile training unit project, the North Carolina police management training project, and the Arkansas police supervisors' training project.

--selected reprints of articles and short descriptive publications on LEAA projects. A dozen reprints have already been published.

In addition, the policy of authorizing grantees in appropriate cases to include publication components in their projects was continued during the report year and special LEAA evaluation studies (e.g., police-community relations projects, programs to qualify disadvantaged persons for police service) will be published in the months ahead.

In spite of limitations in resources and the staff strength needed for extensive direct assistance activities, LEAA has taken important steps to meet the Act's authorization for technical assistance services. These steps have included grantee workshops, production and distribution of manuals and handbooks, establishment of consulting services and information centers, and the conduct of national symposia to transmit new ideas and technology. At the close of the report year:

--Four meetings had been held for groups of LEAA grantees and a fifth was scheduled for April 1968 to discuss work, exchange ideas, and obtain program



guidance. Areas covered included police-community relations projects, police science degree programs, state planning committees, police management training, and correctional in-service training development.

--support had been extended for the preparation or distribution of at least ten manual or handbook documents. These cover such broad areas as police radio communications, riot control, college degree program development, police planning and research units, measurement of correctional agency progress, correctional training curricula, police helicopter operation, correctional recruitment techniques, new penal codes and general police responsibilities.

--consulting and information services had been supported in the area of police-community relations, correctional training, police training and police planning and research.

--three science and technology symposia, each attracting large national attendance from both the criminal justice and scientific fields, have been funded to explore potential assistance and new applications of science and technology to law enforcement.

--training films and slides had been developed under 3 LEAA grants to assist educational efforts in corrections and criminal court operation.

The foregoing have received support both through awards made exclusively for technical assistance purposes and as part of broader project efforts. 2/

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2/ Department of Justice: Third Annual Report on Activities Under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965, Report No. 16-175, Washington, D.C., April 1, 1968, pp 26-28.

It would not have been fair to examine the dissemination at either extreme--the highest, such as the reports of the President's Commissions on Law Enforcement and the D.C. Crime Commission of which 90,000 were distributed, nor the lowest, which included many of the reports which were not distributed at all.

For purposes of this study we chose, in the main, reports that had been disseminated fairly widely. We determined the theoretical extent of the dissemination (Table 1) from office documents, published reports, and interviews with OLEA officials.

Table 1

Reported Dissemination of OLEA Reports <sup>3/</sup>

<u>Project #</u>	<u>Subject</u>	<u>Dissemination</u>
13	Survey of Crime Laboratories	800 to police departments, researchers and technologists.
22	Project Sky Knight	Substantial dissemination to OLEA grantees, 100 largest police departments, federal agencies, those who requested it, libraries.
26	Police Guidance Manual (U. of Pa. Law School)	Substantial; 100 largest police departments, to largest sheriff's departments.
28	Police-Community Relations (IACP)	Distributed by OLEA to 1000 major police departments and 500 for conferences and requests.
44	Detection of Community Violence	To 1,000 conferees who attended conference in March 1967.
85	Harvard Student Prosecutor Project	Distribution unknown, but dissemination of this report was expanded. <sup>4/</sup>

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<sup>3/</sup> Source: personal interviews, office memoranda, published reports.

<sup>4/</sup> In the Third Annual Report, April 1, 1968 (op. cit.) LEAA reports: Current dissemination efforts involve expansion of two series of publications --selected final project reports. Items already published in this series include the Harvard student district attorney project . . . [p 27]

For purposes of comparison and also to reduce a possible halo effect in the answers to the questions, several reports emanating from other agencies in the criminal justice field were added. These included the FBI Uniform Crime Reports, perhaps the most widely distributed and best known of such reports, the Handling of Juveniles from Offense to Disposition distributed by the Office of Juvenile Delinquency of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, and Police Community Relations prepared by the International Association of Chiefs of Police, and surprisingly, circulated by the OLEA.

We proposed in the dissemination study to survey "a randomly selected sample of criminal justice agencies to determine what knowledge or information they have of OLEA funded projects, publications, or accomplishments." For this purpose the questionnaire was modified, and in addition OLEA report #85, the Harvard Student District Attorney Project, was added to the list of reports. According to OLEA it had received expanded dissemination, and the Offices of District Attorneys were the logical recipients.

Certainly, the first three OLEA reports (#13, 22, 26), as well as the FBI, the OJD, and IACP reports were important enough to strike the attention of law enforcement agencies.

The questionnaire was sent to the Chiefs of Police in the

130 cities with population over 100,000 using the census figures of 1967 as an average of the OLEA period 1966-1968.

In addition to the law enforcement group, the criminal justice institutions include District Attorneys Offices, correctional institutions, legal defenders, criminal justice research institutes, and universities interested in the field. We chose District Attorneys as representatives of the court because they are necessarily active, they are engaged in daily proceedings, and thus have a need and are likely to keep abreast of all developments connected to criminal justice in its broadest perspectives. This group, although not primarily involved in law enforcement, has a general interest in projects that would be relevant to their function, and therefore are logical recipients of OLEA reports.

We sent the questionnaire to 15 District Attorneys chosen from the Board of Directors of Prosecutor, The Journal of the National District Attorney<sup>s</sup> Association. From a national list of criminal justice agencies we selected the directors of 15 correctional institutes, 15 criminal justice research agencies including some affiliated with universities, and 6 legal defender organizations, thus making a total of 51 criminal justice agencies.

As a natural corollary to the dissemination study, we wanted

to find out how the reports were processed, what happened as a result of receiving the reports, whether or not they were invited to conferences relating to the reports, and how important the reports were to them.

### Part I Dissemination to Law Enforcement Agencies

We received a total of 83 questionnaires from the 130 Police Chiefs to whom they were sent--a 64% rate of return after several waves had been sent. From the criminal justice groups the return was 28 of the 51 sent--a rate of 55%.

In analyzing the returns we made the usual assumptions that are implicit in all questionnaire studies: 1) that the return rate was adequate to justify generalizations applicable to the total universe; 2) that the respondents were representative of the total universe; 3) that the persons filling out the questionnaire knew what they were writing about and gave honest answers.

Table 2\*shows the pattern of distribution of reports to police departments.

\*In interpreting the data in this and subsequent tables, the reader should be cautious. For one thing it is possible that an agency received an OLEA publication but our respondent may have been unaware of it. This could mean that OLEA's dissemination failed even though publications were sent. However, it could also mean that the failure lies beyond OLEA's control; namely, the agencies may not have adequate means of intra-agency dissemination.

Table 2

Impact of Agencies Disseminating Reports to Police Departments

(N=83)

<u>Disseminating</u> <u>Agency</u>	POLICE DEPARTMENTS RECEIVING REPORTS 1966		1967		1968	
	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>
FBI	80	96	81	97	82	98
IACP	78	94	81	97	82	98
OLEA	35	42	50	60	70	84
NCCD	33	40	41	50	47	57
OJD	20	24	28	34	31	37

It is apparent that in 1966 the dissemination of the OLEA reports was rather weak, in that less than one-half of the major police departments (42%) received the reports. There was a noticeable upturn in 1967 (60%), and a respectable increase in 1968 to 84%. For each year the rank order was consistent in that the FBI was first, IACP second, and OLEA third, followed by NCCD and OJD. The IACP probably had a higher rating because in addition to its own dissemination effort, it was assisted by OLEA in circulating "Police-Community Relations."

We examined the returns of the 10 largest cities, and then

of the 25 largest cities of which we had 21 returns. Table 3 shows that the impact of OLEA was greater in the cities with highest populations.

Table 3

Police Departments Receiving Reports From OLEA

	1966		1967		1968	
	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>
P.D.'s of the 10 largest cities N=10	6	60	7	70	9	90
P.D.'s of the 25 largest cities N=21	12	43	14	67	18	90
Total P.D.'s reporting N=83	35	42	50	60	70	84

The dissemination impact of OLEA reports was greater in 1968 for two reasons. There were more reports to distribute and also the more affluent LEAA, the successor to OLEA, undertook to distribute some OLEA reports.

The low level of OLEA dissemination in 1966 and at least the first half of 1967 is understandable to some degree. OLEA gave the following explanation:



### Dissemination

It was contemplated that technical assistance and dissemination activities would be built primarily on the basis of findings, data and models resulting from LEAA-supported projects. Since few projects have been completed, it has not yet been possible to exploit the full potential of the LEAA technical assistance and dissemination function. 5/

The second question changed the focus of inquiry from the agency to the individual reports. Table 4 presents the comparative data.

Table 4

#### Reports Disseminated to 83 Police Departments

<u>Report</u>	<u>Police Departments Receiving Reports</u>	
	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>
1 FBI Crime Reports	82	99
2 Police-Community Relations (IACP)	67	80
3 Report of Project Sky Knight (OLEA)	54	65
4 1/2 The Handling of Juveniles (OJD)	35	42
4 1/2 Detection of Community Violence (OLEA)	35	42
6 Survey of Crime Labs (OLEA)	33	40
7 Police Guidance Manual (OLEA)	21	25

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5/ Department of Justice, Second Annual Report on Activities Under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965, Report #16-175, Washington, D.C., April 1, 1967, p.25. Substantially the same disclaimer was made one year later in the Third Annual Report of April 1, 1968, p 27.

Of the 70 police departments that received reports from OLEA, 15% received none of the four listed, 30% received one, 30% received two, 9% received three, and 16% had received all four of the reports listed.

Several who said they had not received information from OLEA, checked the space to indicate receipt of one or more of the four OLEA reports listed. The Crime Lab Report, the Police Guidance Manual and the Detection of Community Violence were each checked once and Project Sky Knight was checked three times by this group. This may perhaps be the result of an insufficient notice by OLEA as to its role as the disseminator and instigator of the reported projects, studies and surveys. It may also be that the report was received in 1969.

It is apparent that Project Sky Knight received the heaviest circulation of the four OLEA reports, reaching 65% of the respondents, and that the other three lagged far behind. Table 5 shows the variation in OLEA report dissemination among the first 10, the first 25 and the total of 83 cities responding. Once more the dissemination rate is higher as the population grows larger, and the number of cities in the sample grows smaller.

Table 5

Pattern of OLEA Report Distribution

<u>OLEA Report</u>	<u>10 largest cities</u>		<u>21 largest cities</u>		<u>83 largest cities</u>	
	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>
Report of Project Sky Knight	9	90	17	80	54	65
Detection of Community Violence	7	70	8	40	35	42
Survey of Crime Laboratories	7	70	13	60	33	40
Police Guidance Manual	4	40	9	43	21	25

Most departments had a routine procedure for handling reports received. By far the largest number (77) reported that the Commissioner or his top assistants read the reports first. The second most popular treatment (62) was to send the reports only to those divisions that might be interested in them. The third method (23) was to circulate the reports through the department, and 15 departments summarized the reports and sent around the summaries.

What type of information does a police department look for in a report? Of the 83 responding agencies more than one-half (46) reported that they were concerned with a specific type of information. The largest category was material of practical use to

the department, such as:

"Meaningful data and statistics with which we can judge our accomplishments."

"Information that will be useful in the operation of the department."

"New methods and ideas, also used for source in roll call training."

"New procedures and innovations."

"Practical suggestions."

Another frequent response was more cosmopolitan, and revealed an interest in larger issues on the national front, such as:

"Current trends."

"State of the art."

The next question of importance was the circulation of the report within the police department itself: what divisions and personnel ultimately were the recipients? Table 6 shows the pattern of circulation within the departments.

Table 6

Circulation of Reports Within Police Departments (N=83)

<u>Report</u>	<u>Unit to which Report Was Directed</u>				
	<u>Patrol Force</u>	<u>Training Division</u>	<u>Detection Division</u>	<u>Community Relations Unit</u>	<u>Research Unit</u>
FBI Crime Reports	49	59	63	27	66
Survey of Crime Labs (OLEA)	2	9	14	3	24
Police Manual (OLEA)	8	21	6	5	12
Handling of Juveniles (OJD)	9	21	19	11	13
Sky Knight (OLEA)	24	4	6	3	48
Police-Community Relations (IACP)	11	32	12	57	31
Detection of Community Violence (OLEA)	15	21	11	22	27

It is obvious that the FBI reports received a much wider coverage than the OLEA reports. However, Sky Knight and Detection of Community Violence were well circulated within police departments. Considering that only 35 departments received the Detection of Community Violence, it stimulated a lot of interest. Three-quarters of the 35 sent it to the Research Unit. Almost two-thirds sent it to the Community Relations Unit, and a nearly equal number of departments channeled it to the Training Division.

Sky Knight was sent in the great majority of cases (48 out of 54) to the Research Unit and in one-half of the cases also sent to the Patrol Force.

Did the reports stimulate action or change in police departments? Once again the FBI Reports led. (See Table 7.)

Table 7  
Action Taken as a Result of Reports (N=83)

<u>Report</u>	<u>Report to Department Personnel</u>	<u>Action Taken</u>	<u>Change in Operations</u>	<u>Change in Training</u>	<u>Other*</u>
FBI Crime Reports	42	24	12	12	22
Survey of Crime Labs (OLEA)	6	3	2	3	17
Police Manual (OLEA)	6	5	1	8	6
Handling of Juveniles (OJD)	13	7	3	10	11
Sky Knight (OLEA)	6	18	6	1	25
Police-Community Relations (IACP)	20	17	10	21	16
Detection of Community Violence (OLEA)	12	13	5	12	10

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\* Other included such categories as: reference, press release, data for grant application, comparison purposes, justification for budget.

Sky Knight and The Detection of Community Violence, of all the OLEA reports, generated the most action. Five departments changed their operations based on the latter report, while Sky Knight effected change in operations in six departments. The Community Violence Report led to a change of training in 12 departments while Sky Knight affected only one.

Sky Knight resulted more often in a conference (18); The Community Violence Report was the basis for a conference in 13 departments.

Community Violence was the most often reported to departmental personnel--12 departments. Sky Knight was so reported in 6 departments.

The next question was directed to the action taken by OLEA. Only 25 of the 83 departments were invited to conferences or workshops held in connection with these reports. Only 5 explicitly mentioned a specific OLEA report as the generator of a conference.

Three conferences based on Sky Knight were specified: a conference to prepare a bid to buy two helicopters, a helicopter demonstration, and a helicopter symposium in Boston.

The Report on Community Violence was the basis of one reported conference. The conference was held at Fort Gordon, Georgia

and concerned riot suppression.

The Police Guidance Manual provided the basis for a pre-service training program.

The reports were then ranked in order of their importance to law enforcement. Scoring was in inverse relation to choice. If the report was chosen first it received a score of 7. If it was chosen second, it received a score of 6, etc. Table 8 contains the results.

Table 8

Importance of Reports

<u>Rank Order</u>	<u>Report</u>	<u>Score</u>
1	FBI Crime Reports	463
2	Police-Community Relations (IACP)	302
3	Handling of Juveniles (OJD)	211
4	Detection of Community Violence (OLEA)	209
5	Sky Knight (OLEA)	152
6	Police Manual (OLEA)	132
7	Crime Labs (OLEA)	127

Although Sky Knight was the most widely disseminated, the Report on the Detection of Community Violence proved to be the most important and the most useful of the four OLEA reports. Fifty-seven percent of the total number ranking the report judged it



to be one of the three most important of the seven reports polled; this 57% included those who did not receive the report and might therefore be judging from title-subject matter. Seventy percent of those who actually received the report deemed it to be one of the three most important. The comparison of the two groups' ratings would seem to speak well for the content of the report.

Sky Knight was the second most important of the OLEA reports. Several comments on the questionnaires suggested that for all its enthusiastic description of the project, it lacked immediacy or practicality to other police jurisdictions.

As a variation, the questionnaire asked for a rating of the reports on the dimension of usefulness. Table 9 is rather interesting since it indicates that there were some differences when compared with the rank order in importance. The reports were scored 2 points for a choice of very useful and 1 point for somewhat useful, 0 for little use or no use.

Table 9

Usefulness of Reports

<u>Rank Order</u>	<u>Report</u>	<u>Score</u>
1	FBI Crime Reports	144
2	Police-Community Relations (IACP)	98
3	Detection of Community Violence (OLEA)	59
4	Project Sky Knight (OLEA)	56
5	Handling of Juveniles (OJD)	50
6	Police Manual (OLEA)	38
7	Crime Labs (OLEA)	37

The Community Violence report ranked first of the four OLEA reports. It was rated very useful by 55% of those actually receiving the report and somewhat useful by 38%. Only 3% felt it was of little use and 3% felt it was of no use. Again the report was rated higher when it was actually received. Of the total questionnaires ranking the reports, including those who did not get the report, 50% judged it to be very useful, 39% somewhat useful, 5% of little use, and 5% of no use.

Sky Knight was the second most useful of the four. Interestingly, it was deemed very useful more often by the total responding departments than by those actually receiving the report, although the difference was only a couple of percentage points. Thirty-one percent of the total rankings gave it a very useful rating, while 29% of those actually receiving it found it to be very useful. Fifty-nine percent of those actually receiving the report found it somewhat useful, 12% of little use, and 3% of no use.

The Police Guidance Manual was rated by 22% of those actually receiving it as very useful, 53% as somewhat useful, 20% of little use and 4% of no use.

The Crime Lab report was found to be a little more useful by those who actually received it, than by those judging by title. The ranking of those actually receiving the report was 21% very useful, 48% somewhat useful, 24% little use, and 7% no use.

The respondents consistently made five recommendations.

1. They wanted to be put on the mailing list and to receive regular reports.
2. They asked for more copies to be made available for quick distribution within the department.
3. They demanded brevity--summaries, digests, synopses, because it took too long to read through the reports.

4. They wanted a listing of those reports that were available.
5. They desired practical rather than merely descriptive reports.

## Chapter II

Part II Dissemination to Criminal Justice Agencies

Considering the different focus of the discrete parts of the criminal justice system, it would be surprising not to find disparities in the pattern of response by the other criminal justice agencies as distinguished from law enforcement. This is clear from Table 10.

Table 10

Dissemination to 28 Criminal Justice Agencies

<u>Issuing Agency</u>	<u>1966</u>		<u>1967</u>		<u>1968</u>	
	<u>NUMBER</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>NUMBER</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>NUMBER</u>	<u>%</u>
NCCD	20	71	20	71	20	71
FBI	18	64	18	64	18	64
OLEA	10	36	13	49	18	64
OJD	12	43	12	43	13	49
IACP	6	21	9	32	9	32

The National Council on Crime and Delinquency replaces the FBI as the major source of reports for this group of agencies. The FBI is second and the OLEA moves up from 36% in 1966 to 64% in 1968, to equal the FBI.

The criminal justice agencies were aware of OLEA, but very few of them (see Table 11) received the reports listed in the questionnaire.

Table 11

Criminal Justice Agencies Receiving OLEA Reports

N = 28

<u>Report</u>	<u>Number of Agencies Receiving</u>
FBI Crime Reports	19
Handling of Juveniles (OJD)	13
Project Sky Knight (OLEA)	7
Police Community Relations (IACP)	6
Police Guidance Manual (OLEA)	4
Detection of Community Violence (OLEA)	2
Harvard Student D.A. Project (OLEA)	2

Of particular interest to an office of a district attorney would be a report on the Harvard Student District Attorney Project (OLEA #85) in which third year law students were trained to take the place of the D.A. and act as prosecutors in selected criminal cases. The District Attorneys in our sample are all nationally prominent as indicated by their position on the masthead of Prosecutor. Yet only one D.A. indicated that his office received the report of this project. The other recipient was a criminal justice research agency.

Criminal justice agencies also had routine procedures for processing reports. In 23 cases they were read first by the director or top assistants. Fourteen agencies circulated the reports through the various offices and an equal number sent the reports only to divisions or offices that might be interested in the subject matter. Only 5 summarized the reports and circulated the summaries.

Only 9 of the 28 agencies were looking for specific material. Their interest was focused on data or information that could be used by their offices.

These agencies received so few reports that there was no discernible pattern of action as a result of these reports.

The criminal justice agencies did not show any close connection with OLEA. Only 2 reported that they had been invited to conferences relating to OLEA reports.

When the reports were ranked in importance (Table 12), the order was very similar to the ranking by the police.

Table 12

Reports in Order of Importance

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Report</u>	<u>Score</u>
1	FBI Crime Reports	100
2	Handling of Juveniles (OJD)	38
3 1/2	Police Community Relations (IACP)	25
3 1/2	Detection of Community Violence (OLEA)	25
5	Police Guidance Manual (OLEA)	24
6	Report on Project Sky Knight (OLEA)	18
7	Survey of Crime Labs (OLEA)	12
8	Harvard Student D.A. Project (OLEA)	8

Criminal justice agencies did not consider the OLEA reports very useful (Table 13).

Table 13  
Reports in Order of Usefulness

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Report</u>	<u>Score</u>
1	FBI Crime Reports	25
2	Handling of Juveniles (OJD)	14
3	Police Community Relations (IACP)	10
4 1/2	Detection of Community Violence (OLEA)	7
4 1/2	Survey of Crime Labs (OLEA)	7
6	Harvard Student D.A. Project (OLEA)	5
7	Report on Project Sky Knight (OLEA)	4
8	Police Guidance Manual (OLEA)	3

The recommendations of the criminal justice agencies paralleled those of the police department, for example:

"Circulation of lists of currently available research."

"Circulate abstracts."

"Make the material relevant."

"Provide information on request."

"Prepare up-to-date mailing lists."

"Send criminal justice material to social science people, and relevant social science material to law enforcement people."



## Chapter II

Part IV ~~IV~~ IIIDiscussion of the OLEA Dissemination Effort

Was the OLEA dissemination effort effective? Within the limitations of this small study the answer must be no. With the exception of the major campaign to distribute the reports of the National and D.C. Crime Commissions, OLEA's dissemination was inadequate, infrequent, and had little impact.

OLEA funded only 14 grants officially classified by its staff as Technical Assistance, Dissemination, etc. Each grant is briefly summarized in the LEAA Complete List of Project Awards, which describes every project:

VII. Technical Assistance, Dissemination etc.\*

Grantee or Contractor	Amount/ Date	<u>Nature of Project</u>
Technical assistance project (#67-18)	\$ 12,750 9/5/66	Three-day conference for state planning committees in criminal administration 10/66, University of Maryland.
President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice Washington, D.C. (#67-19)	\$246,064 9/27/66	Publication and dissemination of reports of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice: cover report, 9 task force reports, 41 consultant papers (GPO).
President's Commission on Crime in the District of Columbia, Washington, D.C. (#67-20)	\$ 48,425 1/19/67	Publication and dissemination of final report of the President's Commission on Crime in the District of Columbia: 2 vols. (GPO).
Technical assistance project (#67-23)	\$ 4,540 1/11/67	Conference for OLEA police management training grantees 2/67, Washington, D.C.
Dissemination project (#67-24)	\$ 1,250 1/27/67	Dissemination of national correctional survey report, the by-product, the Grant #003 to the National Council on Crime and Delinquency.
Dissemination project (#67-25)	\$ 4,500 2/24/67	Publication and dissemination of proceedings of the National Symposium on Science and Criminal Justice 6/66, Washington, C.C., a by-product of #66-7.
Federal Bureau of Investigation, U.S. Department of Justice Washington, D.C. (#67-26)	\$ 8,000 4/19/67	Publication of Federal Bureau of Investigation riot manual, Prevention and Control of Mobs and Riots.
W.H.T. Smith and F. Cizon (consultants) Syracuse, N.Y. and New Orleans, La. (#67-27)	\$ 4,771 4/17/67	Evaluation of OLEA-funded police-community relations programs in New Orleans, Newark, and Washington, D.C.

\* Department of Justice, LEAA Grants and Contracts Fiscal 1966-1968, 1968, pp. 57, 58, 86.

VII. Technical Assistance, Dissemination, etc. (cont)

University of Maryland College Park, Md. (#67-28)	\$ 14,000 5/15/67	Two-day training and technical assistance conference for recipients of OLEA police science degree planning grants 6/67, College, Park, Md.
University Research Corp. Washington, D.C. (#67-30)	\$ 23,000 5/15/67	Three-day training and technical assistance conference for 40-60 police officers from depts. conducting OLEA-supported community relations programs 6/67, Washington, D.C.
National Council on Crime and Delinquency New York, N.Y. (#224 and #335)	\$ 83,688 7/1/67- 6/30/68 12 months	Establishment of national Correctional Information Center, to include dissemination, inquiry and consultation service for OLEA grantees other agencies, and 3-day workshop for state-wide in-service correctional training grantees (29 states, 58 participants).
Technical assistance project (#68-34)	\$ 6,275 8/23/67	Task force study to develop recommendations re techniques, organization, planning, formats, and technical assistance for national crime control program.
Technical assistance project to implement Grant #086 (#68-45 - see #086, p.40)	\$ 5,100 4/5/68	Production of prints of "The Adversaries" (series of 16 training films), created by Roscoe Pound-American Trial Lawyers Association; prints to be provided on loan by the Association, National District Attorneys Association, and National Legal Aid and Defender Association.

The total amount invested in this category was approximately \$462,000. Two of the 14 awards--Project 67-19 for publication and dissemination of the reports of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, and Project 67-20 for a similar effort for the President's Commission on Crime in the District of Columbia--call for the expenditure of \$294,500 or 64% of the budget allotted to Technical Assistance and Dissemination. If we subtract this sum, only \$168,000 (36%) is left for technical assistance and dissemination of all other OLEA reports.

With OLEA's financial assistance there was a nationwide distribution of more than 40,000 of the reports prepared by the two Presidential commissions. This was far superior to OLEA's other dissemination efforts.

A paragraph in OLEA's Second Annual Report <sup>6/</sup> explains this disproportionate investment.

Apart from the intrinsic value of these landmark crime study efforts, the results of more than 1.4 million in LEAA-supported study projects (14 different grants and contracts) will be reflected in the Commission's report volumes--indirectly and by partial reference in the cover report and more directly by extended summary or textual reproduction in the Commission's eight task force and appendix volumes; LEAA dissemination support here constitutes, in effect, the publication and transmission to the nation of its first completed study projects.

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<sup>6/</sup> OLEA Second Annual Report, p25.

The 12 remaining projects fall into subcategories: 5 conferences or workshops for grantees, 4 concerned with publication, dissemination or creation of an information center, one evaluation of police community relations projects, one task force study of crime control, and one project to develop training films.

In other projects OLEA classified evaluations and studies as Operations Improvement, and training films under Education or Criminal Justice. Did OLEA feel it had to emphasize dissemination and include diverse grants under the joint heading of Technical Assistance and Dissemination?

The remaining portion of the dissemination program lagged far behind. During OLEA's three years, the police department coverage for some OLEA reports improved to 84%, but the model number of departments receiving reports from OLEA was in the neighborhood of 40%. These represent the largest most prestigious police departments in the country.

The dissemination to criminal justice agencies, exclusive of police departments, was almost non-existent. OLEA was all but unknown to these other segments of the criminal justice system.

What are the reasons for this? Obviously, lack of money, lack of personnel, and lack of equipment. More than anything else, however, this outcome must have been the result of a definite policy decision to deemphasize dissemination. This can be said with some confidence because in the Fall of 1967 a document was circulated within the OLEA administration calling attention to the necessity for proper dissemination, and developing in detail, with a great deal of force, the outline of a strong, well integrated, dissemination effort. That proposal was designed with an eye on the

future existence of LEAA, referred to as the CJA--Criminal Justice Assistance Program. No evidence has been found that OLEA followed these recommendations.

Some excerpts from that memorandum point up, by inevitable comparison, the deficiencies of the OLEA dissemination effort. The report was entitled "Dissemination and Utilization Activities Under the Criminal Justice Assistance Program." (Oct. 23, 1967)

[Dissemination and Utilization Activities Under the Criminal Justice Assistance Program]

The key to a successful Criminal Justice Assistance program lies with dissemination. Without a well-planned dissemination effort, demonstration grants become mere subsidies, research "dies" in the laboratory, and new information becomes old information without being used. [p.2]

Dissemination should not be thought of as the mere act of "dispersing information widely." If distributing information were the only aim, then press releases, pamphlets and other public information tools would do the job -- "distributed widely." There is an implicit obligation that goes far beyond the dictionary definition of dissemination. Specifically, the first obligation is to decide what information is needed; the second is to determine how to obtain it; the third is to provide it in the most usable, salient fashion; and the fourth obligation is to take an activist role and encourage the use of the information. [pp.2-3]

Among the items that OLEA could proceed on are the setting of dissemination priorities, clarifying report requirements to grantees, the adoption of a mailing system, and the inauguration of a monthly newsletter. [p.1]

The memorandum set forth 18 recommendations covering the field:

Summary of Comments and Recommendations

1. Set annual budget for dissemination and public information.
2. Establish two sets of dissemination goals: (a) priority goals (b) secondary goals. Choose six priority goals and plan "campaigns" accordingly. Revise priorities on annual or bi-annual basis. Select secondary goals regarding type of information and statistics that will be gathered and disseminated on a continuing basis.
3. Build explicit utilization plans into a new project at the beginning. Ask grantee to suggest ways to, or state how he will, insure utilization of project findings.
4. Grant managers should confer with dissemination staff on applications where projects have dissemination potential, and on those which have dissemination weaknesses.
5. After grant manager reviews project report in draft and recommends potential distribution, the dissemination office should make an editorial review of draft report and give this to grant manager for transmitting to grantee.

6. Dissemination/public information staff should be responsible for writing (or final editing) and design of all Criminal Justice Assistance literature and project reports. Flexible plans should be made in advance for literature that would be needed upon passage of new legislation.
7. Establish regular procedures for dissemination including monthly bulletin; mailing of project summaries (abstracts); and mailings of, or announcements of, available project reports. Produce quarterly lists of funded projects and mail to regular distribution list.
8. Use films and other visual aids in dissemination.
9. Make broader use of workshops, conferences and site visits as a means of bringing about utilization. Involve personnel of various projects in workshops.
10. Require a grantee to submit at least 225 copies of his final report. In some cases, require up to 500 copies. Make only special exceptions to this rule.
11. Prepare one report from related or "cluster" projects where the significance lies in several projects, not single efforts. Contract with professional writers for reports.
12. Distribute project reports to libraries in the nation. Also place reports in C.J.A. reading room, Department of Justice library, IACP library and Library of Congress.
13. Maintain contacts with both general and professional publications for public information and dissemination.
14. Prepare press releases on granting activities and on project findings. Provide project reports to interested reporters.
15. Strengthen relationship of dissemination office with public relations offices of professional associations and with dissemination staffs of other Federal granting agencies.
16. Take steps now -- before passage of new legislation -- to correct existing OLEA-grantee problems: (a) request all grantees and contractors, both of on-going and completed projects, to provide the summaries (abstracts) as specified in the LEAA Grant Guide; (b) send the directors of on-going projects the revised public information instructions; (c) evaluate and change the 25-copy report requirement; and (d) clarify the reporting criteria.
17. Before passage of new legislation, take these steps: (a) make equipment decisions; (b) check mailing lists owned by OLEA and order mailing plates; and (c) begin mailing monthly newsletter.



18. Evaluate further distribution and dissemination of Field Surveys and Consultants Papers published by Crime Commission. [pp. 31-32]

In November 1968 the LEAA acting as successor to OLEA received the final report of project #68-38: A National Program of Research, Development, Test, and Evaluation on Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, directed by Dr. Alfred Blumstein for the Institute of Defense Analysis. The report also had some intelligent recommendations on dissemination.

Dissemination of research results should be an area of high priority. Although the research will be spread through many organizations and in many areas of the country, the results must be communicated throughout the system to the many agencies in the 50 states in order to realize the ultimate objective of the program. This should be done through professional meetings, workshops and symposia, under distribution of research reports, perhaps a newsletter and a journal. [pp. 54-55]

#### IMPLEMENTATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

The mission orientation of the Institute demands that its results find their way into operational innovation in the crime control process, and especially in the operation of the criminal justice system. Intensive efforts must be directed by the entire LEAA to foster such implementation. There must be a steady flow from research into operations. This will occur in many ways:

The technical assistance organization of the LEAA will be in continuing contact with operating agencies and must be kept closely informed of research results as they develop. This group can then serve as a verbal channel of communication to the users and can assure that the useful results become known to operating organizations. They are also an important source of information to the Institute in identifying important operating problems.

The results of research should be widely distributed through newsletters, journal and magazine articles, conferences and workshops, and periodic Institute notices to State and local criminal justice planning groups urging that proven innovations be incorporated into State and local plans.

The Institute should undertake research into the most effective means of implementing reforms. Investigations of the barriers to change, techniques of stimulating change, and evaluation of the effectiveness of the dissemination and implementation program would all be meaningful.

Any agency willing to invest the time, money and effort to implement these recommendations and proposals, will have an excellent dissemination program.

Further recommendations:

1. Invest enough to revitalize the Office of Dissemination so that it is not a paper organization.

2. Make a supreme effort in compensatory dissemination. Develop mailing lists of a wide range of criminal justice organizations as distinguished from law enforcement agencies, and make LEAA a name familiar to them.

3. In view of the necessity of reaching a far-flung network of agencies, a substantial increase in budget and personnel is <sup>7/</sup> needed.

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<sup>7/</sup> For purposes of comparison we asked several grant agencies what amount or per cent of their total budget was spent on dissemination and information. The Youth Development and Delinquency Prevention Administration of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare has an allotment for this purpose in fiscal 1971 of \$150,000 or 1% of their budget of \$15 million. Similarly, the Health Services and Mental Health Administration of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare allocated \$3.7 million to dissemination and information in fiscal 1971. This is also about 1% of its budget of \$346.7 million. The former agency assigned 4 employees to this phase, the latter 89. The financial office of LEAA was apparently unable to provide us with an estimate of what amount of the OLEA budget was devoted to dissemination in any year of its existence.

The conclusion of this study is that the OLEA dissemination effort over the years, with the two exceptions noted above was inadequate and generally ineffective, even though the money allegedly allocated for this purpose amounted to 2.3% of the OLEA budget.

## Chapter III

The Transition from OLEA Governors CommitteestoThe LEAA State Planning Agencies: Continuity and Cooperation

This phase of our study focuses upon the lines of continuity and cooperation between the now defunct Governors Committees in Criminal Administration, sometimes labeled State Planning Committees in Criminal Administration, sponsored by OLEA and the State Planning Agencies funded by LEAA under the mandate of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968.

History of the Governors Committees

At a very early stage OLEA recognized the need for a strategy to classify and establish priorities among the overwhelming mass of applications for grants. At the same time the provisions of the LEA Act, especially section 7, and the warning of congressional leaders during the hearings on the bill, prevented OLEA from imposing its own direction upon local agencies. This influence, if it was to be used at all, had to be wielded subtly within the boundaries of bureaucratic protocol.

Fortuitously, a partial answer was provided by President Johnson in his message to Congress in March 1966. He proposed the creation of statewide committees on law enforcement and criminal justice.

No matter how creative or detailed the blueprint we develop, we cannot succeed without parallel concentration by state and local authorities. They must undertake detailed planning of their own for reforms that take account of their own special strengths, needs and traditions.

Some states and cities have already begun to do so. There is much for us to learn from them. But in many areas, there is no such road planning, no recognition of the need for a unified attack on crime.

Therefore, I am asking the Attorney General to work with the governors of the 50 states to establish statewide committees on law enforcement and criminal justice.

Such state committees can assist -- and be assisted by -- the National Commission. They can stimulate the growth of public involvement and the development of a comprehensive anti-crime agenda in every part of the country. 1/

With the double motivation to follow the presidential directive and at the same time to solve some of its own problems by building screening agencies in many states, it did not take long for OLEA to act. Within three months of President Johnson's speech, OLEA had already begun its first special program of State Planning Committees and funded Project #63 to Wisconsin's 31-member Governor's Committee on Law Enforcement and Crime -- a grant of \$25,000 for the period June 1, 1966 to March 31, 1968. By July 1, 1966, Michigan, Minnesota, West Virginia, and New Jersey had their Governors Committees operating under grants from the OLEA.

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1/ Address by President Johnson to 89th Congress, March 9, 1966.

Committees

The pace was increased after February 1967 when the report of the President's Crime Commission reiterated the necessity of a state planning agency.

WHAT STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS CAN DO  
PLANNING -- THE FIRST STEP

A State or local government that undertakes to improve its criminal administration should begin by constructing, if it has not already done so, formal machinery for planning. Significant reform is not to be achieved overnight by the stroke of a pen; it is the product of thought and preparation. No experienced and responsible State or city official needs to be told that. The Commission's point is not the elementary one that each individual section against crime should be planned, but that all of a State's or a city's actions against crime should be planned together, by a single body.

The Commission recommends:

In every State and every city, an agency, or one or more officials, should be specifically responsible for planning improvements in crime prevention and control and encouraging their implementation. 2/

OLEA announced the plan by letter to each of the State Governors. A brief summary can be found in the OLEA Second Annual Report:

2. State Planning Committees in Criminal Administration. The goal of this program, announced in March of 1966 by letter to each of the State Governors, is to stimulate the establishment of state committees or bodies to assess local problems and plan integrated law enforcement

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2/ The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society, op. cit. pp. 279-280

and crime control programs spanning all areas of criminal justice activity (police, courts, corrections, citizen action, etc.). The need for such coordinated study and planning has long been recognized and most recently identified by the President's Crime Commission as a necessary condition for effective criminal justice improvement. LEAA funds (up to \$25,000 in grant aid matched by equal state contribution in funds, services, or facilities) have thus far helped support the establishment and operation of 10 such committees -- Wisconsin, Minnesota, West Virginia, Michigan, New Jersey, California, Iowa, Massachusetts, Florida and New York. Applications are under development in several other states which have established such offices. 3/

All 50 states were eligible for matching grants up to \$25,000. Thirty-one states applied for and received grants to establish Governors Committees amounting to a total of \$944,223 covering 39 grants. Six state committees were formed in 1966, 15 in 1967, and 10 in 1968. Massachusetts received three separate grants to continue its committee, six other states received two grants and the others received only one. (See Table 1.)

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3/ OLEA, Second Annual Report #16-175, April 1, 1967, p. 23.

\*  
Table 1

State Planning Committees in Criminal Administration

State	<u>Number in Committee</u>	<u>Year Established</u>	<u>Amount</u>
Arkansas . . . . .	35 . . . . .	.1968 . . . . .	\$ 25,000
California. . . . .	15 . . . . .	.1966 . . . . .	25,000
Connecticut . . . . .	21 . . . . .	.1967 . . . . .	24,746
Delaware. . . . .	22 . . . . .	.1968 . . . . .	25,000
Florida . . . . .	16 . . . . .	.1967 . . . . .	22,068
Georgia . . . . .	31 . . . . .	.1968 . . . . .	25,000
Illinois. . . . .	5 . . . . .	.1967 . . . . .	24,952
Iowa . . . . .	16 . . . . .	.1967,1968. . . . .	49,926
Kentucky. . . . .	35 . . . . .	.1967 . . . . .	25,000
Louisiana . . . . .	25 . . . . .	.1968 . . . . .	25,000
Maryland . . . . .	21 . . . . .	.1968 . . . . .	25,000
Massachusetts . . . . .	17 . . . . .	.1967,1968(2) . . . . .	62,065
Michigan. . . . .	45 . . . . .	.1966,1968. . . . .	50,000
Minnesota . . . . .	33 . . . . .	.1966,1968. . . . .	50,000
Mississippi . . . . .	50 . . . . .	.1967 . . . . .	25,000

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\*Source: LEAA Grants and Guides: Fiscal 1966-1968 (Washington, D.C. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969) p. 94.

Note: The third column indicating the year has been changed from fiscal year to actual year in which the committee started.



Table 1 (Continued)

<u>State</u>	<u>Number in Committee</u>	<u>Year Established</u>	<u>Amount</u>
Missouri. . . . .	14 . . . . .	1967 . . . . .	\$ 25,000
Nebraska. . . . .	17 . . . . .	1968 . . . . .	25,000
New Jersey. . . . .	15 . . . . .	1966 . . . . .	25,000
New Mexico. . . . .	19 . . . . .	1967 . . . . .	25,000
New York . . . . .	16 . . . . .	1967 . . . . .	25,000
North Dakota. . . . .	9 . . . . .	1967,1968. . . . .	44,000
Ohio . . . . .	25 . . . . .	1967 . . . . .	25,000
Oregon. . . . .	20 . . . . .	1968 . . . . .	24,923
Pennsylvania. . . . .	21 . . . . .	1967 . . . . .	25,000
Rhode Island. . . . .	35 . . . . .	1967 . . . . .	25,000
South Carolina. . . . .	33 . . . . .	1968 . . . . .	24,700
Utah . . . . .	15 . . . . .	1967 . . . . .	23,593
Vermont . . . . .	17 . . . . .	1968 . . . . .	24,817
Washington. . . . .	58 . . . . .	1968 . . . . .	25,000
West Virginia . . . . .	15 . . . . .	1966,1968. . . . .	43,433
Wisconsin . . . . .	31 . . . . .	1966,1968. . . . .	50,000

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\$944,223 TOTAL

The Governor's Committee usually assumed a name that was descriptive of its function:

New Jersey -- The Commission to Study the Causes and Prevention of Crime in New Jersey

Missouri -- The Governor's Citizens Committee on Delinquency and Crime

Ohio -- The Ohio Crime Commission

West Virginia -- The Governor's Committee on Crime, Delinquency and Correction

Georgia -- The Governor's Commission on Crime and Justice

Oregon -- The Crime Control Coordinating Council

California -- The Joint Council on Technology and Administration of Justice

The statement of purpose composed by the California Committee is a rather idealized version of the mandate each Governor's Committee assumed, but it illustrates the potential for the system-wide approach that is needed in criminal justice planning.

The California Joint Council proposed to:

1. Function as a statewide planning and coordinating body to assist the development of an integrated program of law enforcement, crime and delinquency prevention, correction and rehabilitation and the overall administration of criminal justice in California.
2. Provide leadership and support for the development of local, regional and statewide programs that will make the administration of justice more effective and responsive to the needs of society under the law.

3. Coordinate with the federal government in the development and implementation of national crime prevention and control programs to assure greater state and local effectiveness.
4. Provide counsel and advice to local, regional and state agencies in California seeking assistance and support under the Federal Law Enforcement Assistance Act.
5. Propose, develop and initiate statewide action programs in support of the administration of criminal justice including the procurement of funded support through the State of California, the Federal Office of Law Enforcement Assistance, or other proper and acceptable source of fiscal assistance.
6. Conduct specific studies and determinations of the adequacy of functions within the realm of the administration of criminal justice as may be deemed essential to the execution of the responsibility of the Joint Council.
7. Provide a forum for the exchange of ideas, information, discussion of problems of mutual concern and coordination of policy programs for agencies involved in the administration of criminal justice in California.
8. Provide for the administration and management of California law enforcement assistance programs when funds and authorization for such programs are authorized by legislative enactment.
9. Nothing contained in this statement of functions and responsibilities shall be construed to authorize the Joint Council on Technology and the Administration of Justice, or a member or officer thereof, to exercise any direction, supervision, or control over the organization, administration or personnel of any state or local agency or official associated in the administration of justice in California, in the absence of specific direction of legislative enactment or except as subject to prior mutual agreement on the part of all parties thereto. 4/

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4/ Final Report of the Joint Council on Technology and Administration of Justice, Sacramento, California, July 29, 1968, pp. 6-7.

The State Planning Agencies

The Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of June 19, 1968 (Public Law 90-351) replaced OLEA with LEAA. Here are the relevant sections from the Act.

## TITLE I

## PART B -- PLANNING GRANTS

§ 201. It is the purpose of this part to encourage States and units of general local government to prepare and adopt comprehensive law enforcement plans based on their evaluation of State and local problems of law enforcement.

STATE PLANNING  
AGENCIES

§ 202. The Administration shall make grants to the States for the establishment and operation of State law enforcement planning agencies (hereinafter referred to in this title as "State planning agencies") for the preparation, development, and revision of the State plans required under section 303 of this title. Any State may make application to the Administration for such grants within six months of the date of enactment of this Act.

82 STAT. 198  
82 STAT. 199

§ 203. (a) A grant made under this part to a State shall be utilized by the State to establish and maintain a State planning agency. Such agency shall be created or designated by the chief executive of the State and shall be subject to his jurisdiction. The State planning agency shall be representative of law enforcement agencies of the State and of the units of general local government within the State.

## FUNCTIONS

(b) The State planning agency shall --

(1) develop, in accordance with part C, a comprehensive state-wide plan for the improvement of law enforcement throughout the State;

(2) define, develop, and correlate programs and projects for the State and the units for improvement in law enforcement; and

(3) establish priorities for the improvement in law enforcement throughout the State.

(c) The State planning agency shall make such arrangements as such agency deems necessary to provide that at least 40 per centum of all Federal funds granted to such agency under this part for any fiscal year will be available to units of general local government or combinations of such units to enable such units and combinations of such units to participate in the formulation of the comprehensive State plan required under this part. Any portion of such 40 per centum in any State for any fiscal year not required for the purpose set forth in the preceding sentence shall be available for expenditure by such State agency from time to time on dates during such year as the Administration may fix, for the development by it of the State plan required under this part.

§ 204. A Federal grant authorized under this part shall not exceed 90 per centum of the expenses of the establishment and operation of the State planning agency, including the preparation, development, and revision of the plans required by part C. Where Federal grants under this part are made directly to units of general local government as authorized by section 305, the grant shall not exceed 90 per centum of the expenses of local planning, including the preparation, development, and revision of plans required by part C.

#### ALLOCATION OF FUNDS

§ 205. Funds appropriated to make grants under this part for a fiscal year shall be allocated by the Administration among the States for use therein by the State planning agency or units of general local government, as the case may be. The Administration shall allocate \$100,000 to each of the States; and it shall then allocate the remainder of such funds available among the States according to their relative populations.

LEAA began formal operations October 12, 1968. Every state created a State Planning Agency and this new unit superseded the Governors Committees in the 31 states in which such committees existed. By June 30, 1969, the 50 states, Washington, D.C., Puerto Rico, The Virgin Islands, and Guam had submitted comprehensive plans for criminal justice reform.<sup>5/</sup>

During fiscal 1968 LEAA planning grants to the states totaled \$19 million, and action grants to carry out the plans amounted to more than \$25 million.

The Governors Committees were created for a narrow purpose, the implementation of the President's Crime Commission report, and thus received a grant of only \$25,000 from OLEA. The State Planning Agencies were given a broad mandate to improve the entire law enforcement and criminal justice system on a vast scale, and were therefore given a minimum of \$100,000 plus a sum based on the state's population. A survey of 12 states revealed that Indiana received the lowest amount for planning and action programs, \$436,150, while California recorded the highest, \$1,387,900. Billions may be available to the states for this purpose in years to come.<sup>6/</sup>

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<sup>5/</sup> Department of Justice, 1st Annual Report of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, August 31, 1969, pp. 1-3.

<sup>6/</sup> "Law and Disorder: State Planning Under the Safe Streets Act." A Report of the Urban Coalition and Urban America, Washington, D.C. 1969, p.2.

Established at the same administrative level as the Governors Committees, appointed by the identical authority -- the Governor of the State, the State Planning Agencies were delegated the authority and responsibility to plan comprehensive programs in law enforcement and, by implication, in criminal justice.

This created a situation where one committee was replaced by another agency responsible for fundamentally the same operation. Can we trace a pattern of cooperation and continuity between the OLEA Governors Committees and the LEAA State Planning Agencies?

#### Discussion

The sources of our data are the Comprehensive Plans filed with LEAA by the State Planning Agencies, the final reports of the Governors Committees -- reports that were required of all grantees of OLEA projects, and the information culled from questionnaires that we sent to the director of each committee or agency.

The State Planning Agencies responded with a high return rate (25 out of 31) while the Governors Committees returned only 15 out of 31. A possible explanation for this low return rate is that the Governors Committees had been phased out for more than two years at the time of our survey. Parenthetically, since twelve Governors Committees had failed to file their final reports, the poor response may indicate a recurrent pattern of laxity.

The record reveals, however, that there was a high degree of cooperation and continuity between many committees and agencies. In eleven states the transition amounted merely to a change of name and an extension of power. Thus the Governor's Committee, virtually intact, became the State Planning Agency (for Connecticut,

**CONTINUED**

**2 of 18**



Delaware, Illinois, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Nebraska, Pennsylvania, Utah, Vermont, West Virginia, and Minnesota).

In thirteen states the continuity proved substantial. We established the following criteria for this judgment:

1) The key personnel of the outgoing committee were employed in an important capacity by the new agency, and

2) There was clear evidence in the report or questionnaire that a substantial portion (about 50%) of the program of the State Planning agency was derived from that of the Governor's Committee. The following states fell into this category: Arkansas, Georgia, Iowa, Kentucky, Maryland, Michigan, Missouri, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Dakota, Oregon, and Wisconsin.

By comparison, the level of cooperation seemed much lower in Mississippi and Rhode Island.

In three states, Ohio, Florida, and South Carolina, the directors of the State Planning Agencies denied vehemently the existence of a Governor's Committee, thus precluding the possibility of any continuity of program.

The directors of the State Planning Agencies in Ohio and Florida both checked no in response to the question: Did your state establish a State Planning Committee in Criminal Administration funded by OLEA from 1965-1968? OLEA records substantiate that

committees functioned in both states. And as further corroboration we received a complaint from the Ohio Governor's Committee reporting that the Ohio State Planning Agency refused the offer of cooperation extended by the Governor's Committee:

Dear Mr. Niederhoffer:

Thank you for your letter of August 4, 1970.

I am afraid that almost any response I might give you would be subjective in nature. Certainly, the potential for communications was available inasmuch as we provided for distribution of at least 40 copies of the final report of the [Governor's Committee in Criminal Administration] to the [State] Planning Agency. In addition copies were sent individually to every state officer who might have an interest, all law enforcement agencies, and so on.

The general apathy of response was a matter of great frustration on the part of the members of the Commission, although we now see evidence, very slowly, of increasing reference to our work in the resurgence of problems that were bound to arise as a matter of growing public concern.

If you are ever in Columbus I would be delighted to talk to you personally on the matter.

[Signed 8/10/70]

The State Planning Agency of South Carolina reported that the Governor's Committee of that state had never existed because of administrative difficulties.

Dear Dr. Niederhoffer:

I have been unable to locate anything concerning OLEA Project #330. I was told that a grant had been made to South Carolina, however, it had never been accepted and that there was no money or no work expended in furtherance of the grant due to administrative difficulties. I hope this is sufficient for your survey. If you can further identify what the grant concerns, I might be able to further track it down.

[Signed] 9/3/70

In California a change of administration led to a definite attempt to eliminate the influence of the Joint Council (The Governor's Committee) and start afresh with the new State Planning Agency. The Governor's Committee, nevertheless, was so tenacious and effective that it was impossible for the new agency not to integrate the work of the Joint Council into its own program, so that there was a fair degree of cooperation despite the lukewarm reception.

The extensive effort to write off the Joint Council can be seen from the following special executive order of Governor Reagan terminating the Joint Council.

EXECUTIVE ORDER NO. R9-68

WHEREAS, the Joint Council on Technology and the Administration of Justice was created by executive action on December 1, 1965;

WHEREAS, the California State Legislature by Chapter 1661 of the Statutes [sic] of 1967, created the California Council on Criminal Justice;

WHEREAS, the duties, functions and authority of the California Council on Criminal Justice encompass all of the areas of responsibility previously held by the Joint Council on Technology and the Administration of Justice;

NOW, THEREFORE, I, Ronald Reagan, Governor of the State of California, by virtue of the powers and authority vested in me by the Constitution and laws of this State, do hereby issue this Order, to become effective immediately:

(1) The Joint Council on Technology and the Administration of Justice is hereby terminated.

(2) The California Council on Criminal Justice succeeds to all powers, duties, authority, and responsibilities of the Joint Council on Technology and the Administration of Justice.

[Signed] . 2/14/68

Further evidence of the negative attitude toward the California Governor's Committee of the previous political administration comes from the listing of the membership of the State Planning Agency -- The California Council on Criminal Justice. Attorney General Thomas C. Lynch, one of the few carryovers, was the only important member whose appointment is described as "Required by Statute."

Despite this, the Joint Council final report lists as one of its major accomplishments the planning and implementation of the changeover to the new State Planning Agency.

Since the agencies in California managed to circumvent the political effort to prevent cooperation, the state may be reasonably included among those in which there was a significant level of coordination during the transition.

Because the State of Washington did not respond to the questionnaire and the State Planning Agency report did not refer to the Governor's Committee, we were unable to make a judgment about it.

It is interesting to compare the interpretations of the mission of the Governors Committees given by the former directors in response to the questionnaire:

Georgia: Survey status of criminal justice system, identify problem areas, and make recommendations.

Minnesota: Pilot Project to determine the feasibility of providing continuing help to part-time county attorneys.

Mississippi: Study present crime conditions and law enforcement and corrective situation.

Missouri: To develop a plan to work toward the reduction of delinquency and crime in Missouri.

Nebraska: Plan improvements in criminal justice and anticipate passage of Omnibus Crime Control Act.

North Dakota: To study the President's Crime Report as it relates to North Dakota.

Ohio: To recommend programs to assist police and law enforcement agencies, fair and unfailing administration of criminal justice, and to examine the applicability of the Report of the President's Commission.

Oregon: Improve communication among the criminal justice agencies -- especially at State level -- with a view to joint policy and program planning.

Wisconsin: To assess priority needs of the criminal justice system.

Equally interesting is the self-reported statement of the major accomplishment of each of the Governor's Committees.

Georgia: 109 recommendations made, some of which were implemented.

Massachusetts: Setting the groundwork for participation in Omnibus Crime Control Act.

Michigan: Established lines of communication between law enforcement and the criminal justice community.

Missouri: Developed data, procedures and generally sound base for continuing state law enforcement planning agency under LEAA.

Nebraska: Since this was early stages, major contribution was political -- brought law enforcement agencies together with hope of improvement.

North Dakota: Begin planning for the projects to be developed by the Law Enforcement Council under the Omnibus Crime Control Bill, help draft new legislation in the criminal justice field.

Ohio: Recommended definitive legislation for improved criminal justice in a broad spectrum of needed effort.

Oregon: Improved communication -- groundwork was laid for a subsequent law enforcement planning organization which has potential for significant accomplishment.

Wisconsin: Initial effort to focus on problems comprehensively in a non-fragmented fashion.

Compare the principal projects of the State Planning Agencies as reported by LEAA:<sup>7/</sup>

Georgia will begin a pilot program of work release for inmates of correctional institutions.

Massachusetts will improve management and operations of criminal justice agencies.

Michigan will spend one-tenth of its \$1 million grant to train juvenile court staffs and probation aides.

Minnesota will enhance police education and training and create a riot-readiness program.

Mississippi will improve training standards for police and corrections personnel and develop a uniform crime reports program.

Missouri will strengthen prosecutors' offices and create a criminal justice information system.

Nebraska will improve law enforcement communications systems.

North Dakota will work to control alcoholism and crime.

Ohio will enhance police training and equipment and develop a criminal justice information system.

Oregon will create ways to improve apprehension and prosecution of offenders.

Wisconsin is giving priority to improved police training, pur-

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<sup>7/</sup> Department of Justice, 1st Annual Report of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (August 13, 1969) pp. 1-2.

chase of emergency communications equipment and strengthening community relations.

Although there is considerable diversity in the projections of the Governors Committees, they characteristically are worded in rather general terms, such as to study, to improve, to assess; to reduce crime, to establish priorities, etc. Fortuitously, these broadly stated mandates engendered a built-in continuity by embracing the objectives of the State Planning Agencies.

It will be instructive for any successor agency to take account of the difficulties faced by the Governors Committees as they are reported in the questionnaires.

Five directors reported that their major difficulty was lack of money and four checked problems of bureaucracy. Three complained of lack of space. Other complaints were:

1. Insufficient staff.
2. Inertia.
3. Getting new members involved.
4. Political interference.
5. Lack of cooperation.
6. Lack of competent personnel.
7. Lack of community interest.
8. Failure to continue.



Obviously, the State Planning Agencies or any equivalent new agency established by LEAA will have to contend with a similar set of problems.

One of the criticisms of the LEAA State Planning Agencies is that too much attention is paid to law enforcement to the detriment of other parts of the criminal justice system. Were the Governors Committees sponsored by OLEA vulnerable to the same criticism? We asked the directors to estimate the portion of their total program devoted to each area of criminal justice. Twelve respondents answered this question and Table 2 shows the results. Of course, these answers are retrospective, a year or two after the termination of the project, and written after LEAA was criticized for this same type of imbalance.<sup>8/</sup> In every case but one (Utah), law enforcement received more or as much as any other criminal justice agency. Even though the Governors Committees shared with the State Planning Agencies the policy of giving priority to law enforcement, it should be noted that this emphasis was not as pronounced, and that corrections--juvenile and adult, as well as the courts, have received more than has been the case under LEAA.

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8/ Law and Disorder, op. cit.

TABLE 2

PROPORTION OF PROGRAM OF OLEA GOVERNORS COMMITTEES  
THAT WAS DIRECTED TO PARTS OF THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

N = 13

<u>Agency of Criminal Justice</u>	<u>Governors Committee</u>													
	Michigan	Ohio	Mississippi	Wisconsin	Missouri	Georgia	N. Dakota	Penna.	Utah	Kentucky	West Virginia	Maryland	Louisiana	Average for all
Police	40%	30%	60%	60%	25%	25%	25%	33 1/3%	20%	40%	50%	20%	20%	35%
Courts	10	5	5	20	20	15	10	16.6	20	10	-	18	20	13
Probation & Parole	7.5	20	8.3	6.6	15	15	20	16.6	10	10	-	15	20	13
Corrections - Adult	7.5	20	8.3	6.6	25	15	20	16.6	25	10	-	15	20	15
Corrections - Juvenile	20	20	8.3	6.6	15	15	10	16.6	-	15	15	20	20	15
Criminal Justice Research	5	-	5	-	-	3	-	-	-	5	5	2	-	2
University Center	5	5	-	-	-	10	5	-	15	10	15	3	-	5
Legal Defender	5	-	5	-	-	2	10	-	-	-	15	7	-	3

Note: Numbers indicate percents of total program. Utah's response added up to 90%. In computing averages we made the assumption that when a percentage spread across two or three categories, an equal value of the percentage was allocated to each category.

In summary, there was continuity and cooperation to a surprising degree between OLEA Governors Committees and LEAA State Planning Agencies. This positive result was accomplished despite the array of potential obstacles to inter-agency cooperation: politics, change of conditions, bureaucracy, lack of communication, loss of records, personal rivalries, and lack of resources.

In 25 of the 31 states a cooperative effort was engendered. More than one-half of the State Planning Agencies estimated that at least 50 per cent of their total program was built upon the work of the Governors Committees.

In better than one-third of the cases the State Planning Agency was identical with the Governor's Committee except for the name. In most of the other states there was a continuation of personnel, function, or policy that clearly spelled out continuity and cooperation.

## Chapter IV

Allocation of OLEA Resources

The criminal justice system -- the police, courts, corrections, and the law itself -- is society's bulwark against disorder, and perhaps its principal institution for regulation and control. It acts as a barometer of the boiling pressure of society. And ultimately, struggling to contend with that extraordinary pressure, it has been overloaded and subjected to stress until it is at the point of cracking.

OLEA had the responsibility of using its limited funds to provide assistance in shoring up this crumbling criminal justice system that was too rigid, too uncoordinated, too slow, and too unresponsive to cope with a changing and seemingly hostile society. Among the obvious weaknesses, tensions, and gaps in what we loosely call the system, were:

1. Inability to handle the overload of cases.
2. Confusion of role and function.
3. Absence of criteria for measuring performance.
4. Effects of social change and the hostility of minority groups toward the system.
5. The myths and false assumptions that pervaded the system.
6. The problems of bureaucracy such as rigidity, secrecy, poor communication, red tape, antagonism among different parts of the system, substitution of personal or bureaucratic aims for ideal goals.

In roughly two and one-half years from November 1, 1965 to June 19, 1968, OLEA disbursed \$20.6 million in 426 grants and contracts awarded to 359 separate projects. All 50 states, the District of Columbia, the Virgin Island, Puerto Rico, and Guam were covered. The typical duration of a grant was 13 months, and the average grant award was \$48,254. Projects begun under OLEA and not yet terminated at the takeover date of June 19, 1968, were continued by LEAA. There were about 40 of these and some of them received supplemental grants from LEAA. What did OLEA accomplish by its program? What were the results -- the obvious as well as the more subtle? Which agencies received the grants?

The Police Department of Washington, D.C. received the greatest number of grants (8) from OLEA. In our review of the OLEA mandate we described the Presidential directive to make Washington, D.C. a model city in its fight against crime, and OLEA's prompt response. The National Council on Crime and Delinquency (NCCD) was second, receiving 6 grants, and the International Association of Chiefs of Police was next in line with 5 grants. The latter two were national institutions with lines of communication to correctional and law enforcement agencies respectively. They were logical recipients of this number of grants. The University of California, the City University of New York, Cincinnati University and Michigan State University each received several grants. The remaining grants were dispersed, one or two to a grantee.

OLEA allocated its funds according to an arbitrary "financial master plan" apparently derived from several studies of criminal justice expenditures in New York State (1965 and nationally  
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1964).

The general grant categories were 1) Law Enforcement Education and Training, 2) Law Enforcement Operations Improvement, 3) Corrections, 4) Criminal Justice, 5) General Studies and Crime Prevention, 6) Special Programs, and 7) Technical Assistance, Dissemination, etc. Their distribution is charted in Table 1. The figures are derived from a count of every grant for  
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each fiscal year.

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\* OLEA 2nd Annual Report, April 1, 1967, p. 7.

\*\* LEAA Grants and Contracts, Fiscal 1966-1968: Complete List of Project Awards Under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965. (1968), pp. 13-86.

Table 1

OLEA Grants

<u>Category</u>		<u>Number of Grants by OLEA</u>	<u>Per Cent of Total</u>
I	Law Enforcement Education & Training	61	14%
II	Law Enforcement Operations Improvement	78	18
III	Corrections	36	9
IV	Criminal Justice	25	6
V	General Studies and Crime Prevention	22	5
VI	Special Programs		
	A. State Planning Committees in Criminal Administration	39	9
	B. Police Science Degree Development	47	11
	C. State Law Enforcement Standards and Training Commissions	25	6
	D. Police-Community Relations	37	9
	E. State-Wide Training for Correctional Personnel	31	7
	F. Planning and Research Units in Medium Sized Police Departments	11	3
VII	Technical Assistance, Dissemination, etc.	<u>14</u>	<u>3</u>
Total		426	100%

Law enforcement received 63% of the funds, more than four times the percentage granted to corrections 15%, and almost eight times the 8% given for criminal justice -- the courts and prosecution. (In fiscal 1966 only 5 of 83 grants were labelled criminal justice grants.)

In fact, law enforcement received a greater share than the official figures show, because 80% of the awards to non-government grantees involved projects in which they were collaborating with the law enforcement agencies. OLEA defused potential criticism by making a virtue out of its bias.

The involvement of law enforcement agencies in projects supported to date is considerably greater than that indicated by the percentages for types of grantees. Over 80% of the project awards to non-government grantees (e.g., colleges, universities, research and professional organizations) involve projects in which grantees are collaborating with specific law enforcement agencies, have been designated as grant recipients by such agencies, or involve direct services to law enforcement agencies or their personnel.

It will be noted that the preponderance of assistance funds has been allocated to projects involving police activity and the police function. This major focus has been consistent, we believe, with Presidential and Congressional intent. It is deemed sound in light of the larger scope and expenditures of law enforcement agencies, the problems of public safety now confronting police departments, other federal aid currently available for corrections (manpower development, vocational rehabilitation, and mental health programs in the Departments of Labor and Health, Education and Welfare) and considerable self-stimulated activity within the legal profession in the criminal justice field. \*

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\* OLEA Second Annual Report, April 1, 1967, p. 7.



This disproportion was a reflection of many obvious pressures: the bias toward law enforcement that is seen in the title of the enabling act -- The Law Enforcement Assistance Act, the directive force embodied in the name of this agency -- Office of Law Enforcement Assistance, the almost unanimous interpretation by powerful Congressional figures who, during the hearings on the bill, took it for granted that the bulk of the monies would go to law enforcement and thus in effect mandated that bias; finally, there was the preponderance of law enforcement applications for grants. OLEA was aware of the uneven distribution and somewhat defensively justified the relatively insignificant sums awarded to courts, prosecution and the criminal justice process by stating,

"Applications have been fewer in this area [criminal justice] and, despite OLEA receptivity and increasing attempts to stimulate worthwhile projects, grant output has been low." \*

There have been other reasons for the law enforcement emphasis revealed by the above table. Underlying the formal purposes of OLEA was the goal of reducing public apprehension about the crime problem. Since law enforcement was the most visible instrument in the situation, it made political sense to do more for the police, especially in the way of equipment such as adding cars, scooters, computers, radios, T.V., and new weapons that gave the impression of a force armed with the latest science and technology to protect the public.

As an image producing technique this was far superior to the kind of in-depth, long range planning and research that would hardly produce any immediate or obvious changes that

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\* Ibid, p. 21.

could impress the public.

The police were somewhat responsible for this state of affairs themselves. When the police complain, as they so often do, about the lack of public support they proclaim that given the tools, more men, more equipment, more legal power, more community support, and the backing of the courts, that they could "stop crime" and "make the streets safe." In rasher moments they say in effect, "Give us the tools and we'll do the job." They have said this for so many years that even some of the professionals who should know better have come to believe it. OLEA in a sense was seduced into sharing this belief and was dominated by it in its master plan. Alternatively, it could have been a challenge to the police, by saying in effect, "Here are your men and equipment. Now, let us see you reduce crime."

However, police have a substitute reason for their inability to prevent the increase of crime. It is that crime is a problem that has deep roots in the social fabric and that police cannot be expected to prevent or control crime. No less an authority than Director J. Edgar Hoover of the FBI reiterates this apologia in the preface to every issue of the Uniform Crime reports. The exculpatory statement purports to explain that the police ought not to be expected to reduce crime by their own efforts because the amount of crime is related to many social, economic and political factors.

It is noteworthy that the list of factors bears a remarkable similarity to the list proposed by the Italian sociologist Enrico Ferri in 1884. For convenience I have placed side by side the FBI statement and the Ferri discussion.

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\* See Arthur Niederhoffer, "The Quantity and Quality of Justice", in The Administration of Justice (Newark, Delaware: University of Delaware, 1970), pp. 50-51.

## Crime Factors\*

Uniform Crime Reports give a nationwide view of crime based on police statistics made possible by the voluntary cooperation of local law enforcement agencies. Since the factors which cause crime are many and vary from place to place, readers are cautioned against drawing conclusions from direct comparisons of crime figures between individual communities without first considering the factors involved. The national material summarized in this publication should be used, however, as a starting point to determine deviations of individual cities from the national averages.

Crime is a social problem and the concern of the entire community. The law enforcement effort is limited to factors within its control. Some of the conditions which will affect the amount and type of crime that occurs from place to place are briefly outlined below:

- ① Density and size of the community population and the metropolitan area of which it is a part.
- ② Composition of the population with reference particularly to age, sex and race.
- ③ Economic status and mores of the population.
- ④ Relative stability of population, including commuters, seasonal, and other transient types.
- ⑤ Climate, including seasonal weather conditions.
- ⑥ Educational, recreational, and religious characteristics.
- ⑦ Effective strength of the police force.
- ⑧ Standards governing appointments to the police force.
- ⑧ Policies of the prosecuting officials and the courts.
- ⑧ Attitude of the public toward law enforcement problems.
- ⑧ The administrative and investigative efficiency of the local law enforcement agency.

\*FBI Uniform Crime Reports, 1965, p. vii. Every recent annual FBI crime report contains this same statement including the latest issue in the Fall of 1970. For convenience sake I have chosen the 1965 report because it has a smaller page that permits a xerox copy to be juxtaposed with the Ferri page.

pecially the social sense, and all the peculiarities of the literature and jargon of criminals. On all these points, sufficient data have already been collected, and will be more and more enriched after the preliminary development necessarily given to organic researches, for, in the genesis of crime, the moral temperament appropriate to delinquents is of the highest importance.

### § 126. Anthropological Factors in Crime; Personal Characteristics of the Criminals.

In the third subdivision of anthropological factors (personal characteristics of the criminal) are embraced, aside from the biological conditions of race, age, and sex, the biologic-social conditions, such as civil state, profession, domicile, social class, instruction, and education, which hitherto have been studied almost exclusively by persons concerned with criminal statistics.

### § 127. Physical Factors in Crime.

Then comes the series of physical factors (cosmo-telluric) of crime. These include the causes belonging to the physical environment, all very efficient, as criminal statistics prove in the production of different manifestations of crime. Such as climate, nature of the soil, succession of day and night, and seasons, the annual temperature, atmospheric conditions, and agricultural production.

### § 128. Social Factors in Crime.

Finally, there is the category of social factors of crime which result in the social environment in which the delinquent lives, such as different density of population, the state of public and religious opinion, the constitution of the family, the educational system, alcoholism, the economic and political organization, organization of public administration, justice, and judicial police, and finally the civil and penal legislative system in general. These contain a multitude of latent causes which overlap, intervene, and combine in all of the least apparent functions of social life and which almost always escape the attention of theorists and practitioners and of criminologists and law-makers.

### § 129. Classifications of the Factors in Crime.

This classification of the factors of crime, which has been accepted by the greater number of anthropologists and criminal sociologists, seems to me not only more complete and better

\*Enrico Ferri, *Criminal Sociology* (Boston: Little, Brown, and Co., 1917), p. 187. The first edition of this book appeared in 1884.

If our understanding of crime factors has remained at the same level that it was 90 years ago, perhaps the need to increase our knowledge is an area to which OLEA ought to have given greater priority.

The police themselves, are responsible for the imbalance in another way. One of their constant complaints is that the courts coddle the prisoner, letting them out so fast that when a policeman takes a prisoner to court, that prisoner is released and back in his former haunts before the arresting officer returns to his post. In addition, they complain that prisons release prisoners on parole too early. In other words they seem to be saying, "We police are doing the best we can, but we are not receiving the proper support from the other branches of the criminal justice system." These claims present a misleading picture and help to produce conflict and tension within the system of criminal justice where close and harmonious collaboration is desperately needed.

## Summary of the OLEA Grant Programs

### I. Law Enforcement Education and Training

The President's Crime Commission reported that in cities of less than 250,000 the average police department provides its recruits with fewer than three weeks of training; and an IACP survey established that 85% of the police officers appointed were placed in the field prior to their recruit training.

There were 61 OLEA law enforcement education and training grants making this the second largest allocation of grant funds. When we include the 47 Police Science Degree grants to 28 colleges and universities, law enforcement education takes precedence over any other group of projects. Of the training projects, nearly one-half were directed toward superior officers and were concerned with imparting managerial and administrative skills.

The Police Science Degree programs were instituted in 28 colleges and universities with special emphasis upon the 30 states that had no such degree programs in early 1966 when these OLEA grants took effect. These grants were aimed at upgrading the educational background of police officers and of those who sought a career in law enforcement. However, most of the programs seemed carbon copies of each other and raised many problems concerning curriculum content and educational goals which are still unresolved.

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\* Task Force Report: The Police (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 138.

\*\* Ibid.

The two and four year degree development programs funded by OLEA should be seen in the context of a number of grants which are related in some fashion to training and education in the general field of Criminal Justice. There were "Special Project" grants numbering 25 to State Law Enforcement Standards and Training Commissions totaling \$570,282 and 31 grants for State-wide Programs for In-Service Training of Correctional Personnel totaling \$497,656. Additionally, \$4,400,000 in grants were distributed for training of Law Enforcement personnel, approximately \$1,200,000 for Corrections personnel and \$400,000 for Criminal Justice personnel (courts). The grants in the category of Development of College Degree Programs in Police Science amounted to a total of \$924,965. This latter total amounted to a bit less than five percent of the total amount spent by OLEA in the 1966-1968 fiscal period -- \$20,560,000.

Fewer than 5 training programs were significantly concerned with demonstration, riots, campus disorders, or narcotics problems, although these all were in the nature of emergency areas for law enforcement. This seems to be almost a policy decision to avoid politically sensitive areas. OLEA grant programs relied on routine police-community relations projects as a response to potential civil disorder. This was a poor substitute for specialized training programs and constituted a significant weakness in the training grants.

## II. Law Enforcement Operations Improvement

The Law Enforcement Operations Improvement category was a potpourri that included some new procedures, new equipment, surveys, studies, training, computers, and police-community relations projects. By pulling together many programs that were unrelated to any grant strategy, but which responded to police requests based on operational needs, OLEA could assert that Operations Improvement was its principal concern as well as its single largest category, constituting 78 grants.

In some instances police operations were improved. A better records system undoubtedly is an improvement; a computerized information retrieval system is quicker, a plan for consolidation will effect economies; more scooters mean great mobility; T.V. surveillance may add a new dimension to police work; police handbooks are helpful. No empirical data is available to establish that these changes helped efforts at crime prevention or raised the crime clearance rate.

On the other hand, if the problems of law enforcement, as some experts state, are corruption, brutality, racism, confusion of role, alienation from the community and the other segments of the criminal justice system, then programs addressed primarily to efficiency in police operations fall short of the mark.



### III. Corrections and Correctional Training

Whatever weaknesses the police establishment may have, and whatever criticisms may be lodged against the effectiveness of law enforcement efforts, conditions are probably worse in corrections. The rank and file correctional worker probably has lower qualifications, less training, and just as many problems as the police. To many critics the prisons are institutions of degradation, not rehabilitation, and they call attention to the high rate of recidivism (60-70%) to support their thesis.

There was a dire need for the training programs in corrections that OLEA supported in the form of 31 grants for State-wide correctional training amounting to some \$500,000. Actually, of the 35 other Corrections projects listed by OLEA, 19 more can be classified as training programs, 8 are miscellaneous projects, such as evaluating correctional institutions or setting up a computer model of a probation system, and 8 are directly concerned with the rehabilitation of offenders -- only 8 out of 66 correctional projects. This is a serious omission and it cannot be justified on the basis that other federal agencies are specifically charged with responsibility for rehabilitation projects, so that OLEA was thereby relieved of the duty.

Finally, too many of the correctional projects seemed to operate as if the clients -- the inmates -- did not exist. The prison is not a vacuum and no project in corrections should fail to consider the inmate culture as one of the vital variables. Only a handful of the projects did include the inmate group as something beyond a passive remote audience.

#### IV Criminal Justice

OLEA listed a total of 25 grants under criminal justice. Of these, 11 grants were related to courts and court officers.

Under General Studies and Crime Prevention, OLEA included several projects that were of significance for criminal justice -- studies of narcotics traffic, professional crime, crime incidence, and characteristics of adult and juvenile offenders.

Grant projects which were significant, or covered a wide spectrum of the field of criminal justice included a national survey of reported and unreported crime; a program to develop an integrated state-wide criminal justice information system; a study of the potential application of science and technology to the criminal justice system; a plan for a national program of research, development, test and evaluation of law enforcement and criminal justice; and the special program of State Planning Committees in Criminal Administration.

However, these projects were mainly in the area of planning and surveys and the OLEA grant program had little impact on the day-to-day operation of the criminal justice system.

V. General Studies and Crime Prevention

The prevailing philosophy today is action, not studies. Between the two choices there is probably good reason to think that general studies in the long run may do more to prevent crime than will precipitate action without any study. Perhaps, this was the rationale behind the juxtaposition of projects into one classification of studies and crime prevention.

In fiscal 1966 there were 8 grants under this category. In fiscal 1967 this number was reduced to 4, and in fiscal 1968 there were 5 grants of which only 3 were new and 2 were continuations of already existing grants. Of the total of 17 only 3 (two plus one supplemental) were immediately concerned with crime prevention. These are the grant to the Des Moines Police Department to give businessmen and proprietors of stores training in better methods of security so as to make it more difficult for burglars to succeed, and the grant to The Advertising Council Inc. to accomplish the same type of program beamed at businessmen and owners of autos through the advertising media. This was supplemented by a grant to the same grantee to continue the campaign. There were three grants to develop citizenship

and law enforcement programs for junior high school students. Whether these will foster crime prevention is still unknown at this time. A set of four grants was devoted to the application of science and technology to law enforcement and criminal justice either through a large study or through symposiums. All the others were disparate studies of: victims' reporting of crime, incidence of crime, weaponry, narcotics traffic, and organized or professional crime.

Since crime prevention was of prime importance among OLEA's priorities, it is surprising to note how few projects OLEA included under the rubric of crime prevention. Some of the studies were really assigned at the request of the President's Crime Commission and OLEA was in the nature of a silent partner.

#### VI. Special Programs

##### State Law Enforcement Standards and Training Commissions

The OLEA attempted to stimulate the formation of State Councils and Commissions which had the function to set standards of selection and training. The first training councils were established in California and New York in 1959, and by 1968, 31 states had enacted standards legislation. Of the 31, 17 have set mandatory standards; 14 are still voluntary.\*

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\* Charles B. Saunders, Jr. Upgrading the American Police (Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institute, 1970), p. 147.

OLEA gave 25 grants totaling \$570,282 to 21 state commissions to help them with their planning and development.

Typically, the selection standards were fairly uniform, requiring an applicant for a police position to be at least 21 years old, of good health, a high school graduate or its equivalent, and of good moral character.

The standards for the basic recruit training course were set low at 140-200 hours, consisting of vocational and practical police subjects with little or no attention given to courses that might be classified as social or behavioral science. The number of hours required was less than one-half the 400 hours recommended as an absolute minimum by the President's Crime Commission--Task Force on the Police.

OLEA grants to assist in formulating needed standards produced disappointing results. However, whatever standards were established must be seen as an advance, since it was only 25 years ago that Gunnar Myrdal reported that in the South, "almost anyone on the outside of the penitentiary who weighs enough and is not blind or crippled can be considered as a police candidate."\*

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\*Gunnar Myrdal, An American Dilemma (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944), pp. 538-539.

## VII. Evaluation

Evaluation was a stated requirement of almost every OLEA training or demonstration grant. Certainly it would appear that OLEA desired a valid and reliable system for evaluating the projects.

OLEA projects rarely met this standard. Most evaluations consisted of a questionnaire to the participants in the study asking them whether they liked the project and whether or not they gained anything from it. And once in a while the person answering the question was carried away by the spirit of the task. For example, a letter of commendation was included in one final report\* as a type of evaluation. The writer of the letter asserted that he did benefit from the seminar and workshop because the surrounding hills and forest were so beautiful that he was inspired. Another source of inspiration was the lack of female distraction. It may well be that a transcendental experience such as this is more than most seminars produce.

In a handful of projects the evaluation was good, arising logically from the research design and testing directly the success or failure of the proposed goal.

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\* See Final Report--Grant #2 to American Correctional Association.

Project #257 to the Pennsylvania Board of Parole was one of these. They received \$63,042 to attempt the resocialization of paroled burglars, larcenists, and forgers through a control and treatment program. This included reduced caseloads, professional counseling services, and living facilities for parole violators. The research design was the classic before and after model with a matched control and treatment group. The hypotheses were spelled out clearly. The data and method of analysis were specified. It was probably the best evaluation of the 426 grants. Unfortunately, hardly any of the hypotheses were supported by the results. However, this, in itself, was valuable from a research point of view.

Another example of a fine evaluation was Project #52 to the University of Cincinnati with the Cincinnati Division of Police. They received \$62,678 to develop and test a curriculum for junior high school social studies classes. This was later supplemented by grant #313. It was labeled the Cincinnati Police-Juvenile Attitude Project. One of its basic purposes was to change the openly antagonistic attitude of youngsters toward the police. To test the hypothesized change, the project director developed a special ATP Scale (Attitude Toward Police) according to standard

Thurstone methods. It was administered before and after the project, and the results of the attitude scale supported the hypothesis that a well designed curriculum can change attitudes of junior high school students toward a more favorable view of the police.

These two projects were exceptional. The rest of the grants were generally woefully lacking in rigorous methods of evaluation. Though this was a weakness in the OLEA grant program, the lack of good evaluation is a common failing in many granting programs of other federal agencies or private foundations.

#### VIII OLEA in Retrospect

OLEA attempted to involve qualified people, important agencies, and great universities, with the ultimate objective of reducing crime by strengthening the criminal justice system.

Often in the past, the response to crime emergencies has been to pass stricter laws, impose severer punishments, broaden the power of law enforcement, and increase the money and manpower for criminal justice. And, in truth, on the political front the same process is being repeated today.

More farsighted and sophisticated in its approach, OLEA devoted a substantial portion of its funds to studies, surveys, and education. Was this strategy capable of



producing an early reduction in crime and violence? Decidedly, not. The explanation for this is that the high crime rate and especially the rampant violence in our large cities is directly connected to the turmoil in our land.

America is riddled with festering conflicts--conflicts of values, conflicts of generations, conflicts of sexes, conflicts of races and ethnic groups, and a variety of social and political conflicts on subjects ranging from peace, to pollution, to pornography. The criminal justice system can only have a limited impact on these problems at best.

The police with more men and greater legal power will arrest more suspects. The courts will take even longer to process them, the jails will be overflowing, a greater number of recidivists will be produced by a corrections system that will be flooded with new inmates. The released prisoners will commit more crimes; there will be a greater number of arrests. Inflation will break down the criminal justice system as easily as the economic system.

The prospect is that at least for another five years there will be little change for the better. Here and there crime rates will go down in a sporadic fashion. It is likely that the rate of increase will be still somewhat inflated because improvements in the reporting of crime have brought the officially reported figures somewhat closer to the true

number of crimes than in the past. It was therefore unrealistic to expect that OLEA's efforts would result in observable reductions in crime.

Similarly, police-community relations projects funded by OLEA were constructed to reduce the level of minority group tension. It is not easy to measure such tension. Tension varies according to a variety of social factors most of which are beyond the control of the police. It may well be that under these conditions a legally required police duty, performed in the most circumspect courteous manner, by a well educated policeman with a Ph.D. in psychology or sociology, may just as well cause a riot in the ghetto. In fact, police action, not necessarily action that was illegal or abusive, was found to be the second most frequent cause of riots from 1943 to 1963.\* Is it fair to say then that police-community relations programs failed if there was a riot? And if we do say this, ought we not be equally scrupulous to observe the converse and praise the project when no riot has occurred?

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\*Stanley Lieberman and Arnold R. Silverman, "The Precipitating and Underlying Conditions of Race Riots," American Sociological Review, Vol. 30 (December 1965), p. 889.

Criminal justice training and education programs are equally difficult to measure on performance criteria beyond paper and pencil tests. It is an article of faith that a man who receives proper training or education is better than that same man without training or education. Sometimes, but not always, we are able to show that such a man is better than another man who did not receive such training or education. We do know that college education reduces authoritarianism and dogmatism in policemen.\* Whether this result is an improvement depends on your point of view.

Constantly, the focal point of evaluation, measurement, or comparison of OLEA projects depended on a clear definition of the various roles of the criminal justice officer, whether it was law enforcement, court, or corrections. There never was such a definition, nor is there a consensus yet on that role for the future.

OLEA operated in an environment where there was a paucity of hard data, and those data were not in a form capable of reliable interpretation. The field of criminal justice is the arena of society. It was impossible for the

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\*Bernard Locke and Alexander B. Smith, "Police Who Go to College," in Arthur Niederhoffer and Abraham S. Blumberg, (eds.) The Ambivalent Force: Perspectives on the Police (Waltham, Massachusetts: Ginn and Co., 1970), pp. 144-147.

modest OLEA program to reconstruct that entire battle zone in the face of so many powerful contending social forces. Its significance lies not in what it did, or did not accomplish, but rather OLEA should be judged on how well it used its resources in identifying some of the weaknesses of the criminal justice systems, and in providing some knowledge for the correction of those weaknesses. OLEA was to be the precursor of an expanded program of federal assistance to the criminal justice system of the country. It had the opportunity to chart the way, and to lay down some standards for supporting research and demonstration programs. As a result of an assortment of claims, many of them relating to pressures from Congress and police agencies to use its funds in a way that would demonstrate both visible and wide geographic support of law enforcement agencies, OLEA's accomplishments fell short of its goals.

## CHAPTER V

## Survey of the Projects by Questionnaire:

## Summary of Significant Findings

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In keeping with our project plan a good part of our questionnaire study sought information about the fundamental areas of money, time, resources, and problems. This chapter is a summary of the 227 completed questionnaires.

Finances are always a sensitive issue in any grant program. Project funds were considered to be sufficient by 184 (81%) of the 227 respondents and insufficient by 43 (19%).

One of the great problems in the criminal justice field is the lack of trained competent personnel. It is surprising therefore to discover that only 55 (24%) directors had difficulties obtaining personnel for the project. Slightly more, 60 (26%) found it easy. For the remaining group the recruitment of personnel was neither difficult nor easy; it probably required a moderate effort.

An important goal of OLEA was to involve colleges and universities in the criminal justice field. It was fairly successful according to our questionnaire results. More than one-half of the projects turned to faculties of colleges and universities at the planning and implementation stages. Slightly less than one-half did so at the evaluation stage. A surprisingly

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\* Our method of approach is described in the Introduction and a copy of the questionnaires will be found in the appendix.

small number -- 35 (15%) used academic faculty as consultants. Only 33 (14%) reported that they did not seek the help of academia.

OLEA demanded in most cases that an advisory committee be asked to assist the project managers. More than 50% received an important contribution from the advisory committee. The advisory committee provided only a negligible contribution in 29 cases (13%).

Consultants were extremely helpful in 102 projects, helpful in 84 projects and made only a negligible contribution in 13 projects.

One of the unstated hopes of OLEA administrators was to bring minority group people into cooperative relations with the criminal justice system. In this OLEA was not as successful as it was in achieving a closer contact between criminal justice agencies and universities. At any of four possible stages, only 17% of the projects on the average involved minority group people in a substantial capacity. Table 1 compares the involvement of college faculty and minority group members in OLEA projects.

Table 1

OLEA Projects Involving External Groups (N=227)

<u>Type of Involvement</u>	<u>Academic Faculty</u>		<u>Project Involving</u>	
	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Minority Group</u>	<u>%</u>
Planning	131	60	44	19
Implementation	118	52	62	27
Evaluation	107	48	18	8
Consultant	35	15	31	14
No involvement	33	14	87	40

The project directors were enthusiastic about the effect of the projects. Almost 70% of them reported that their projects made a contribution of great value to the field of criminal justice and slightly more -- 71% felt that there was an enthusiastic response from the subjects to whom the project was directed. Only 2 were pessimistic enough to say that the project's contribution was of no value or that the subjects' response was negative.

A member of the staff evaluated the project in about 50% of the projects. A university research group evaluated the project in 51 projects (23%). A representative of a criminal justice agency similar to the project agency did the evaluation 9 times.

The range of OLEA's impact across the criminal justice system's boundaries is always an issue and two questions elicited information on that point. They were question 7 that asked the respondent to check the type of agency represented by the principal grantee(s); and question 8 which asked what other agencies of criminal justice were substantially involved in the project. Table 2 shows the distribution.

Table 2

Criminal Justice Agencies Represented in OLEA Projects

(N=227)

<u>Agency</u>	<u>Principal Grantee</u>	<u>Not Principal, but Substantially Involved</u>
a. Police	121	123
b. Probation-Parole	32	52
c. Courts	13	52
d. Corrections	44	51
e. Prosecution or Defense Lawyers	12	38
f. Criminal Justice Research Agency	12	22
g. University Group	65	80
h. Other*	23	40

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\* Other agencies such as: Community action groups, Human Relations Commissions, Industrial Research Organization, Religious agency.



In both columns the law enforcement agencies are by far the most frequently listed -- about 53% of the time. University groups are next in rank listed as principal grantee in almost 30% of the cases and the level ran to 35% for substantial involvement.

OLEA encouraged grants to projects that could continue on their own after the termination date. This standard was met in 162 projects (71%), and 103 of these extensions were funded by the grantees own agency. LEAA continued the funding for 40 projects.

More than one-half (120) of the projects led to some type of publication -- 57 articles, 19 books, 83 newspaper reports.

Although 153 (70%) respondents praised OLEA staff for their generous cooperation, there were some implied criticisms in questions 19 and 22.

To the question, "Were any other OLEA projects helpful?" only 54 (24%) answered yes for the planning stage; 33 (14%) at the implementation stage; 16 (7%) for evaluation. But 135 (59%) reported that other OLEA projects did not help them at all.

The majority of grantees (53%) had no knowledge of the OLEA dissemination of their reports to criminal justice agencies. Only 52 (23%) thought that the dissemination was very thorough. Another group of 22 (10%) considered the dissemination merely adequate and 13 (6%) considered it inadequate. The reasons for this negative response pattern are discussed above in the chapter on dissemination.

It is always important to know what the practitioners judged to be their most serious difficulties. Many of them checked several of the items in the question which asked them to indicate the major difficulties they faced. Table 3 summarizes their judgments.

Table 3

Major Difficulties in OLEA Projects

Rank	Type of Difficulty	Number
1	Problems of bureaucracy	49
2	Lack of competent personnel	42
2	Lack of money	42
3	Lack of proper space	31
4	Lack of cooperation	19
5	Lack of community interest	14
5	Clash of personalities	14
6	Political interference	11
7	Other *	29
8	No major difficulties	27

The total number of difficulties checked is only 251, a little more than one per respondent, which is not very much. About one in five checked problems of bureaucracy, lack of money, and lack of competent personnel.

Problems of bureaucracy was noted by 49, the highest number. The major problems of bureaucracy are red tape,

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\* Other difficulties were: lack of rapport, stupid bastards, ill-conceived project, change in the law, and initial confusion.

secrecy, rigidity, difficulty of communication, and lack of motivation.

Because of the context and focus of the question, we interpret the answers to refer to the bureaucratic environment of the project itself, not that of OLEA.

The data in the special questionnaires is incorporated into our discussion of the major divisions of the OLEA program.

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EVALUATION OF OLEA

I. Law Enforcement Education and Training

Summary Findings

Training

1. Seminars and workshops of one to three days cannot impart much knowledge. They tend to become social gatherings. Their main function is that they impart a sense of identity and professionalism to police officers.
2. Seminars of a week or more may be able to teach law enforcement personnel new or improved skills. Many of them however were uninspired and repeated material that was familiar already to the audience.
3. When important new administrative and management techniques are learned in superior training programs such as that conducted by the Harvard University Business School (Grant #11), the problem is implementing the new knowledge. Police departments resist change and potential gains from the seminars are dissipated.
4. There were not enough seminars and training sessions in the following areas: civil disorders, campus disturbances, narcotics problems, law enforcement problems connected with youth.
5. There were not enough conferences and training sessions

for OLEA grantees. If grantees and project directors of similar projects came together to discuss their work, their plans, their problems, and their ideas, the feedback would have helped raise the level of OLEA projects. OLEA called only one conference of this type for police science degree program grantees.

6. OLEA-sponsored State Standards and Training Commissions generally set very low standards for recruit training programs.
7. Recruit programs were almost exclusively composed of vocational or police subjects. Hardly any part of the recruit program taught the recruit about the problems of race relations, human behavior, philosophy of police service, ethics, and the implications of police discretion; all of these are vital areas for a police officer.
8. In-service training for the force as a whole is infrequent and usually unsatisfactory.
9. Police-community relations training sessions are uniformly failures. The men are utterly cynical.
10. Training techniques such as T-group sensitivity training were popular at seminars. Such confrontations can do more harm than good if not controlled by an expert.

### Police Science Degree Programs

1. The two-year degree programs were dominated by the influence of two consultants, one from the IACP and the other from the American Association of Junior Colleges.
2. Therefore, two-year degree programs did not have enough variety.
3. Many police administrators are dissatisfied with police science programs although they are not sure that they know how to make them better.
4. Police science degree programs are causing dissension in many police departments.
5. Police science programs raise more problems than they provide solutions.

Here is a partial list of problems that were noticeable in the OLEA police science degree programs:

#### I Response of the Police

A. Ambivalence: anti-intellectualism vs. awe for academic scholarship.

1. Fear that police college students become cosmopolitan, disloyal, and critical of department.
2. Fear of certain disciplines--see Houston Police Chief Short's statement about "slobbering sociologists." (Final Report Grant #44, p. 105)

3. Fear that college courses in sociology and behavioral sciences will make social workers out of police.
4. Fear of change--dead hand of the past.
5. Conservative ideology of police that sees college professors as subversives.
6. Fear of involvement in campus disorder.

## II Response of the College

- A. Marginal, second-rate status of police science program in opinions of other well established academic disciplines.
  1. Lack of well qualified teachers.
  2. Lack of respectable literature.
  3. Lack of clear area of study.
  4. Low level of some courses in curriculum.
  5. Overlapping of some police courses with traditional courses in psychology, sociology, public administration.
  6. Necessity of parallel courses morning and evening to allow police students to attend without missing day at work. This offends traditionalists among academics.



7. Resentment of liberal arts school against a vocational course.

B. Possibility of conservative or radical right ideology of police students adversely affecting academic freedom, right of free discussion and criticism.

(Cases of John Jay College and American University and FBI)

### III Intrinsic Problems

A. What is the aim of the program? Is it providing a liberal arts education for policemen? Is it a general professional degree, or is it a degree aiming to produce top police administration or police teachers? Will the program undertake to "place" its students in field position?

#### B. Administrative Problems

1. Ought the police science or law enforcement program be a separate division, or should it be part of sociology, political science, or public administration?

2. Transferability of associate courses to baccalaureate.

3. Questions of validity of field of study.

4. Financing.

5. Staffing with teachers--should they be both academically qualified and also have police experience? How to recruit decent teachers? How to prevent frequent turnover of staff?
6. Will there be enough students?
7. Will police departments control or have too much influence in the program, or will college administrators move the program so much into the academic orbit that it ceases to be attractive or "relevant" to police?
8. How can the program generate cooperation on part of police departments and still maintain its academic integrity?
9. Will such programs and their students create targets for radical students on campus who see police as "pigs" and enemies"?
10. What should the qualifications of the teacher be-- B.A. plus experience, M.A. plus experience? Can a teacher with a Ph.D. but without police experience fit in successfully?
11. Must the police courses meet college standards as to student-teacher ratio, acceptance of police science curriculum and specific courses by

disdainful academic curriculum committees?

12. What should be the mix in the curriculum between police courses and academic courses?
13. Where should the emphasis be placed--1-year certificate programs, 2-year associate degree programs, 4-year baccalaureate programs, M.A. or Ph.D. programs?
14. What type of teaching methods are best for police students? Should there be T-group sensitivity training? Should there be internship programs as part of the curriculum?
15. Will police students have to meet strict college requirements for admission or will they be admitted under open admission policy?
16. Will they need remedial reading and writing courses?
17. Will police students be required to meet strict college requirements such as core courses in math, science, and research methods?
18. What type of courses are best in the curriculum? Do they need research and methodology courses? Should there be a heavy stress on behavioral and social sciences?

19. Should the curriculum be geared to pre-service students as well? Should those students not primarily interested in becoming policemen be admitted to the curriculum?
20. What should be the role of the advisory board?
21. Should the police who go to college be rewarded? Should they receive money increments for each year of college completed; should they receive promotion credit for each year in college? Should they be given preference for the most wanted assignments? Or is merely going to college reward enough?

#### IV Problems of Evaluation

- A. What technique of evaluation should be used?
  1. Tests of knowledge?
  2. Attitude tests?
  3. Performance tests?
  4. By outside agency or by staff of program?
  5. Comparison of college police and non-college police?
- B. What criteria are valid for evaluation?
  1. Popularity of program?
  2. Amount of knowledge?

3. Change of ideology? Lower authoritarianism?
4. Performance on job?
5. Impact on the department?
6. Social costs?

Law Enforcement Education and Training

OLEA made a distinction between the 48 grants for law enforcement education leading to a college degree and the 56 grants for law enforcement education and training that did not lead to a degree. The problems of one category are equally pervasive in the other. The quality of the teachers, the content of the curriculum, the inadequacy of the literature, the degree of student motivation, and the support of the educational effort by the administration are vital elements that spell success or failure of the shortest seminar or the longest degree program.

The short seminar, workshop, or institute has to overcome the tendency to turn into convivial conventions where old friends meeting after long separations are more interested in camaraderie than in learning.

In-service training by police departments, or outside groups as well, must concentrate principally on motivating the police students. There is nothing so frustrating for an instructor as to realize that the class is completely indifferent to his presentation, absolutely cynical about the value of the instruction, and even suspicious about the reason for the training. This is a common occurrence when

policemen are required to attend classes for in-service training.

To ensure a higher degree of involvement by the class, in-service training ought to use more role playing and sensitivity training techniques. As a mechanism to impart learning, these methods avoid many of the difficulties that arise when they are used for therapy or attitude change. However, there are dangers in this technique and only trained group leaders should conduct the sessions.

Recruit training is the most crucial, and of all the types of training, has the greatest potential of accomplishing something dramatic. The average recruit is relatively naive, impressionable, eager to learn, and a little anxious. This is a perfect combination for docility, in the original meaning of the term, "teachability." Yet studies have shown that within two months of appointment a change of attitude occurs in the new policeman--the growth of cynicism\*--that may defeat the mission of the training program.

Most recruit training programs are undistinguished. The model program proposed by the State Law Enforcement Standards and Training Commissions adds not one note of innovation, but incorporates the traditional

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\* Arthur Niederhoffer, Behind the Shield (Garden City: Doubleday, 1967), pp. 90-102.

subjects that were the staples of training for at least twenty years.

The teacher and the teaching are on a par with the content. Police Departments want police academy instructors to have at least college degrees whenever possible and higher degrees if such men are available. But more than this they want to be certain that the teachers are "reliable" and conformist. Thus, the teachers cluster around the mean both in their personalities and their teaching philosophy. This circumscribes the variety and the impact of the training program. In many cases it was true that the recruit was forced to learn the job all over again when he left the academy and was assigned to the precinct.

The reading assignment of the model program reflected the conservative approach. Almost without exception it consisted of police manuals, handbooks, and police literature that reinforced ancient rituals and dogmas. Both recruit and in-service training programs suffered in this respect, particularly when compared to police science degree programs. The bibliographies in the latter, influenced by the academic environment, usually contained a few selections that were controversial or intellectually demanding.

The New York City Police Department has been experimenting



with the recruit training program for many years. The present commissioner Patrick Murphy was an instructor in the New York police academy fifteen years ago. He later became its commanding officer, and is as familiar with the inherent problems as anyone in the country. As far back as 1955 it was known that a turning point for the worse in the career of a recruit came at the point when he left the cloistered surroundings of the police academy temporarily to perform some practice tours of duty in the patrol precincts. The reason for this deterioration in attitude and performance was suspected to be the recruit's contact with cynical old-timers patrolling the same or adjacent beats.

The New York City Police Department applied to OLEA for a grant to fund a study to produce a model recruit training program. The project director was retired New York City Police Department Chief Inspector George McManus, formerly an instructor and later a commanding officer of the police academy. One of the research associates was Professor William Wetteroth of John Jay College and formerly himself a police academy instructor.

Their plan called for an extension of the length and depth of the course, a greater emphasis upon the teaching of moral principles and ethics, and the innovation of a field

escort officer who by his guidance would shield the recruit from the deleterious consequences of the practice tours.

This was Grant #339 to the New York City Police Department to develop a model training program and to design an evaluation system based on performance measurement. We selected this project as an important, potentially innovative approach to training. Our consultant was Professor Robert Shellow, Professor of Urban Affairs, School of Urban and Public Affairs, Carnegie-Mellon University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

Evaluation of Grant #339Police Training and Performance Study

Grantee: New York City Police Department

Amount: \$77,485

Dates: May 1968 to July 1969

Purpose: Development of model training program for personnel of all department levels, with civilian director, revised training academy programs and design of evaluation system based on performance measurement.

Summary

Initiation of the Police Training and Performance Study was prompted by a recognized need for extensive review of training policies and practices in the nation's largest police department which so often serves as a model to others. The basic idea for the study grew out of an interchange between Patrick V. Murphy, then Assistant Director of OLEA, and Howard R. Leary, the Police Commissioner for New York City.\*

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\*Mr. Murphy was thoroughly familiar with the New York City city situation having retired from that department as Commanding Officer of the Police Academy. The fact that, at the time of this report, Mr. Murphy is New York City Police Commissioner, will no doubt have an important bearing on the ultimate utilization of the project recommendations.

A proposal for a fifteen month \$77,485 study was submitted to OLEA on October 18, 1967 with work to begin May 1, 1968 and federally funded until July 31, 1969.\*

Staff: The department's Chief of Personnel, George R. McManus, was named Project Director with Professor John Griffin of Bernard M. Baruch College as Director of Research; Professor William J. Wetteroth of the John Jay College of Criminal Justice and a retired New York City police captain was Griffin's Research Associate, with Captain Marvin Boland from the department's Planning Division serving as liaison to the department but in fact functioning more as another research associate.

The approach taken is best characterized as a cautious one. The staff was heavily salted with men who had long experience as New York City policemen; perhaps reflecting a reluctance to rely upon outside non-police expertise in this most crucial and sensitive area of departmental responsibility--the making of policemen out of civilians.

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\* Mr. Gerald Caplan, who in early 1967 was in the Legal Services Branch of OEO, was asked to do most of the proposal writing. Later he served as an administrative aide to Mr. Murphy when Mr. Murphy was Public Safety Director for Washington, D.C. The police department estimates that its share of the cost was about \$30,000.

Some critics felt that the study was destined to be a waste of time, that it would suffer from a strong departmental bias, and would serve as an elaborate apologia for existing policies and practices. Caution was also expressed in the way the study was officially identified: as a report to the department, not by the department, thus freeing the department from any commitment to implement its recommendations.\* Despite, or more likely because of, these protections, the staff was able to move into its task with considerable freedom. It soon sought out assistance from a dozen advisors and consultants over half of whom came from outside the "police establishment"; i.e. they never had been policemen. It appears that once having established its own bonafide police credentials, the staff was able to evoke a high degree of cooperation from departmental personnel. This approach guaranteed that recommendations would get a serious hearing and not be dismissed as the idealistic ramblings of men "who don't know what it is like to pound a beat."

The work proceeded simultaneously along several lines. Extensive interviewing was conducted throughout the department in an active campaign to secure criticisms and suggestions

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\* This clarification is set forth in a special explanatory paragraph on the title page of the report.

regarding current training practices. A considerable volume of documents was amassed, including police training curricula in other cities and reviews of what the social sciences had to offer, i.e., the definition of the police role, how the public sees police, how they see themselves. In some instances new kinds of data had to be collected either to extend previous studies or venture forth into entirely new areas. In addition, the consultants were asked to produce working papers on thirteen different topics. Ten of these were modified and incorporated somewhere into the text of the final report.

Throughout the course of eighteen months this mass of data, new and old, was assembled, sifted, and analyzed. In its final form the report consisted of twelve chapters, eleven of which contained 109 specific recommendations; the staff's blueprint for a department-wide educational program. One chapter lays out an 18-week (720 hour) recruit curriculum revised upward from a previous 14-week (560 hour) school. Other chapters deal with: the law, firearms, and physical education curricula within the recruit program; in-service training; and administrative and personnel matters related to training.\*

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\*In many places the document rises to the level of a first class commentary on the relationship between police functioning and training; however, elsewhere it is ponderous and wordy, a feature which detracts from its readability and thus its usefulness. With a little more work this could  
[continued next page]

Of all the recommendations the staff selected 19 to list in the "Summary of Recommendations" section of the preface (see Appendix to Grant #339, following). The draft report was circulated to all divisional commanders, many of whom were interviewed after they had responded in writing. Final drafts were reviewed at least twice by Chief McManus, who in the meantime had been made Chief Inspector, and Commissioner Leary, before the finished product was released. The report was distributed to departmental and city administrators and the LEAA in March of 1970.

In the original application for the grant, three goals of the project were enunciated:\*

- 1) To develop a model training program for staff at all levels.

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[continued from previous page] be corrected. Actually the report lends itself to a simpler format. Instead of stringing 109 recommendations out across eleven chapters padded with eleven introductory sections and conclusions, they could all fit into the following four: 1) Administrative Structure and Personnel Practices; 2) Recruit Curricula: Present and Proposed; 3) Special Curricular Areas: The Law, Physical Education, Firearms; and 4) In-service Training and Continuing Education.

\* Application for OLEA grant, October 18, 1967, p. 5A.

- 2) To develop a plan for instituting this program by transferring responsibility for operation of the Academy to a civilian director, and recruiting more civilians to the faculty of the Academy.
- 3) To create a system for evaluating the effectiveness of training by measuring actual on-the-job performance.

Of the three, the first goal was most nearly realized; the second and third only partially so. To some extent this was to be expected, since placing police education under civilian direction and systematically evaluating the effectiveness of training constitute a significant departure from tradition in police management.

Restated, an important aim of the study was to break the insularity characteristic of police education programs by civilianizing both leadership and curricula. Initially the staff was prepared to recommend that a Deputy Commissioner be placed in charge of all police training, with muscle to effect polity and day-to-day operations.\* The idea met with an expected resistance in the lower echelons of the department, but wasn't discarded until the Commissioner and Chief Inspector expressed their opposition. Consequently, the staff settled

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\* In the New York City Police Department, the, the Deputy Commissioner positions are occupied by civilians.



for a civilian Director of Education and Training who was subordinate to the Chief of Personnel. He would have indirect influence on the operation of the Academy which would remain under the command of an Inspector. He would have to rely upon his persuasive abilities to effect change. \* Such an accommodation all but completely compromised the original idea behind a civilian training administrator. Perhaps for this reason no attempt has been made to date to establish this symbolic if not peculiar position. Instead, Commissioner Patrick Murphy, soon after taking office on October 9, 1970, appointed Assistant Chief Inspector Albert A. Seedman to the new post of Director of Training.

A second strategy aimed to civilianize the curricula; and this by injecting large doses of the behavioral and social sciences, taught by civilian faculty. Again a compromise was necessary; but in this case it seemed to turn out quite well. In order to efficiently utilize large numbers of civilian faculty it would be necessary to keep them steadily

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\*One member of the staff suggested that little had been lost in that this was simply a return to an arrangement which seemed to work 12 years ago when the academy and Baruch School worked together with the Commanding Officer of the Police Academy and a faculty member from the school.

employed for a period comparable to the academic year. This was not possible unless the input of recruits into the academy was normalized at a constant number every so many weeks (the staff recommended 500 every ten weeks).. After having completed the report some of the staff had afterthoughts. It seemed unlikely that the academy could attract academics to leave the relatively free environment of the university in order to become employees of the police department. They were concerned about the quality of professors who would accept such a position. Besides standardizing recruit input would require time-consuming clearances as well as budgetary restructuring all the way up through the police department to the mayor's office and back down again. So, rather than follow these recommendations the department opted to develop what is called the "Prelect" program.\*

Supported by its own as well as LEEP (Law Enforcement Education Program) funds, John Jay College of Criminal Justice provides courses in Sociology, Psychology, English and Counselling.

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\*"Prelect" is an archaic academic term meaning "to lecture or discourse publicly," chosen because it had a positive sound and did not have current connotations that might prejudice recruits or others against the program.

Attending courses on the John Jay campus recruits earn a total of six credits, which when added to the ten they receive for the entire academy program, gives them sixteen college credits. The program began on September 25, 1970, with an enrollment of 715; 665 of whom are New York City recruits and probationary policemen (See Appendix B to this report). A new class begins in January 1971. The program is not exactly the "total immersion" experience described by one police administrator; even though they are in civilian clothes and on a college campus, the classes are almost exclusively composed of policemen. There is no doubt that the approach has a certain potential to get more young policemen into college courses with an equity in a degree. An administrator of the program suggests that the experience is profoundly different from that gained in the academy. The men are "treated as adults and must adjust to the stress of freedom." Despite the probable validity of his observation the program appears more cautious and protective of the men than, say, a regular university enrollment. The participants are likely to get a distorted view of what a college community is like as well as suffer a second-class status because they have been segregated away from the remainder of the student body. Overall the Prelect program gets the police into college rather than

admit the academic world into the academy. Whether the insularity of the police education is diminished by the Prelect approach awaits subsequent evaluation.

The Prelect program is running into trouble. These recruits are not voluntary students. Most of them want to be policemen, not college men. They resent the program. Some of the teachers cannot hold their attention and there are rumbles of discontent.

In creating a new model for training the staff built on what already existed. At one time the New York City department was the undisputed leader in the quality and quantity of police training. But other departments like Los Angeles, Chicago and Washington have caught up. It was now time to strengthen as well as rationalize the elements of training at all levels.

The department has now extended recruit training to 26 weeks (875 hours), two months beyond that recommended by the study. During 16 of those weeks, recruits are to spend one day a week attending college. A new curriculum has been drafted and is in the process of being approved and implemented. It closely resembles that developed by the Training and Performance Study. No doubt this is related to the fact that one of the study's principal participants is now the Executive officer

of the academy (see Appendix C to this report).

The plan to use experienced officers in recruit training has been adopted. Seasoned policemen from all commands, called Field Training Officers, or Escort Officers, are presently being oriented and trained. There is concern on the part of study staff that guidelines for selection of officers for this critical teaching assignment were not uniformly followed throughout the department. Apparently, selection was up to division commanders, some of whom took volunteers, others simply assigned men as they saw fit. How they are being trained is unknown to the author since he was unable to attend any training sessions. The field trainers will be using an evaluation scale (suggested in the study) which seems to be based on the old rather than the new recruit curriculum. The way the department has gone about implementing this recommendation has left some observers apprehensive. But again without data as to its operation, it is impossible to evaluate the impact the Field Training Officers will have on recruit socialization. This is a critical factor in the equation. If these officers are not the most capable and idealistic, the whole program will deteriorate.

Recommendations with respect to legal training for recruits

are reflected in the new curriculum. A cadre of policemen-lawyers are responsible for contacting legal specialists throughout the city and scheduling their participation as instructors at the academy. The civilians are given an outline of points to cover, but are free to elaborate and interpret as they choose. "Mini-courses" in legal concepts, case and constitutional law are being tailored to fit the constraints of the police role.

Virtually all the recommendations on firearms training have been followed to the letter. Massed as opposed to distributed training has been adopted; that is, recruits will receive training for one solid week. They must qualify before weapons are issued. Emphasis is placed on judgment in the use of lethal force; proficiency in target shooting is de-emphasized as practice is given in double-action shooting, especially under simulated combat situations (i.e., reduced illumination, with grey silhouette targets, after exertion).

In regard to the physical fitness recommendation, almost none have been adopted. The staff took the position that traditional approaches, i.e., boxing, judo, were of questionable utility in achieving the long-term goals of 1) conditioning officers throughout their entire police career, and 2) providing specialized techniques of control and defense. The

final report held that it was more important to institute a rigorous weight-control program, employ isometrics whenever possible (not requiring gym facilities), and emphasize special holds, like come-alongs, directly related to police work. To date the Physical Education section of the academy has successfully resisted attempts to move them in these directions.

No Education<sup>al</sup> Materials center has been set up. However, development of innovative audio-visual aids continues. The development of courses delivered via programmed instruction (PI) await the acquisition of grant funds. Computer assisted instruction (CAI) is presently regarded as too experimental and costly to be given high priority. Neither a Remedial Education or Counselling Center has been established. The department seems to be relying on John Jay's Offering (Prelect) in English and Counselling (College Orientation), a far cry from what was advocated by study staff.

The model for recruit training is closely tied to recommended changes in the reward structure within the department. New value is given to training. The President's Crime Commission recommended at least one week of in-service training a year for every policeman; the New York City department extended its three day in-service program to a ten-day program located

away from the academy at divisional headquarters. A pilot unit dealing with Burglary was taught in the Spring of 1970. Throughout the course of two months the entire department in small groups of up to 35 men were trained six hours at a time. The program is slated to continue with other "department mandated" topics as well as some of "local" interest. This certainly represents a serious commitment to training.

On the other hand the recommendation that college education be phased in as a promotional requirement for all ranks flounders for lack of advocacy at high levels. It will take considerable diplomacy to overcome resistance from the Patrolmen's Benevolent Association as well as determination by the Commissioner to push civil service reform.

Finally, plans for developing permanent mechanisms for evaluating training policies against actual street performance got lost in the shuffle. Even in the proposed reorganization of the academy the suggested "Evaluation Unit" was deleted. It is the author's impression that this especially difficult type of research represents an anathema to police administrators, much as it does to other managers in the public sector. Because there are few if any program evaluation methodologies that are easily understood by the laymen, much less generally



accepted by social scientists, the issue has simply been set aside. Here again, the question of whether R & D becomes a permanent feature of the New York City Police Department depends upon the ability of leadership to commit the department to periodic self-evaluation. There is no question that the potential for doing so exists in the increasing numbers of policemen both active and retired, who are acquiring graduate training in research tools. Non-police social scientists, systems and operations analysts are increasingly making their talents available to the criminal justice system.

Perhaps, soon, a self-evaluation checklist for police similar to that developed by the American Correctional Association for Correctional agencies will become a reality.

#### Evaluation

The Police Training and Performance Study itself has set the stage for the acceptance of further research. It has done so by involving large numbers of personnel from all over the department on its advisory committees and review panels. For three months after its release academy committees studied the report critically, with the ultimate aim of translating what they could into action. The enthusiasm and energy with which departmental personnel involved themselves for over two years in this self-study is itself an important immediate impact of the project.

All in all, the study has served as an important catalyst

for bringing about change in the New York City department. Because the authors proceed from a well developed philosophy of police education to the specific curricular features of a training program, it is likely to have an impact in other cities as well.\*

There is little question that the value of this project to the nation far exceeds the few federal dollars invested. There is also little doubt that the New York City department learned a great deal from it. It remains only for the Justice Department's LEAA to follow up some of the important implications of the enterprise. First of all, there is a grave shortage of top and middle level management talent in police organizations. LEAA could underwrite specific post-graduate programs in the management sciences for both civilian and police administrators. It should provide funds for top administrative positions to be occupied by suitably trained civilians. Police departments will probably resist the idea unless it is "sold" to them properly.

Secondly, it should support studies of the archaic civil service systems governing and constricting police personnel policies with an aim towards their reform. This

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\*See Appendix D of this report for distribution table

approach would be similar to that provided in the Department of Labor's Public Service Careers program. Everyone talks about re-adjusting civil service policies affecting selection, promotion, and proficiency award machinery but it takes manpower and endurance beyond the reach of most reform-minded police administrators to do the job. In fact, as an inducement, LEAA could provide matching funds for cash increments in the salaries of officers serving in the Field Training assignments. It could also underwrite expanded awards programs, especially directed towards those officers who are proficient in preventive patrol or have maintained unusual rapport with members of a once hostile community of citizens.

The LEAA should arrange for extensive dissemination of an edited and rewritten version of the project report. There is much of general interest and utility for other departments if they choose to re-examine their police educational programs, since the report relates the broader issues of police function and role definition to the mechanics and content of training.

There is a crying need for the development of evaluation methodology. LEAA should commission work groups composed

of research design experts and police administrators to devise methodologies, especially in the area of measuring street performance and patrol effectiveness.

Much of what is recommended in the study and suggested above goes back to the assumption that training--whether it be recruit, in-service, management, or post graduate--is a potent means for ensuring that departmental policy reaches the street, intact and understood. In a period where breakdown in command in large police organizations is almost a daily occurrence, it is imperative that positive models of police performance be communicated and rewarded throughout the entire force. Unless that occurs, the men will be left to their own devices, and the general public will be left to reap the consequences.

## APPENDIX A TO GRANT #339

Summary List of RecommendationsBasic Police Commitments

1. A departmental directive should be issued explicitly insuring the priority of uninterrupted training for recruits.
2. Introduce stability in the recruit training cycle by having new recruits phased into the Academy in increments of approximately 500 every ten weeks during the year beginning July 1, 1971. Budgetary authorities must be committed to providing resources to maintain on a permanent basis competent professional civilian staff.

Recruit Training

1. Establish new support services namely, a Counselling Center and a Remedial Education Unit.
2. Establish three units of field experience woven into the regular curriculum and formation of a training team consisting of Group Leaders and Escort Officers.
3. Introduction of civilian professional teaching personnel for units in the behavioral and social sciences as well as in the law and civilian counsellors within the Counselling Center.
4. An introduction of mini-courses in the law.

5. Special emphasis on practical criminalistics particularly in crime-scene operations.

6. Establish a Human Skills Training Unit utilizing dramatization and small-group discussions.

7. Introduce a new physical training program for 126 hours which de-emphasizes the terminal nature of recruit physical training and provides incentives that would encourage physical conditioning throughout a policeman's career. The physical training program would be integrated with other facets of police training.

8. Reduce firearms training program from 56 to 48 hours with 40 massed hours early in training and 8 hours later on. Recruits will be armed only on successful completion of one week of firearms training.

9. The introduction of a substantial unit in behavioral and social sciences.

#### Organizational Recommendations

1. The creation of a new position within the department titled "Director of Education and Training." He will be a civilian who will report directly to the Chief of Personnel and will serve principally in an advisory and liaison capacity. Elevate the Commanding Officer of the Police Academy above

the rank of Deputy Inspector. He also will report directly to the Chief of Personnel.

2. Create the following ten units within the Police Academy:

- a) Administrative Unit
- b) Recruit Class Leaders' Unit (consisting of Sergeants assigned on a rotating basis to the Group Leader role)
- c) Escort Officers' Unit (consisting of patrolmen selected to accompany recruits in the field training phases of the recruit curriculum)
- d) Behavioral and Social Sciences Unit
- e) Human Skills Training Unit
- f) Police Science Education Unit
- g) Legal Education
- h) Physical Training Unit
- i) Firearms Training Unit
- j) Field Evaluation Unit

3. In addition to the Counselling Center and Remedial Education Unit, add an Educational Materials Development Unit as a support service.

4. The Field Evaluation Unit of the Academy would serve to identify training needs in relation to performance on the job.

In-service Training

1. The Unit Training Program, essentially the only program providing regular in-service refresher training to the entire patrol force, should be improved and expanded. Priority should be given to the unit training. Enhanced status should be given to unit training sergeants who will be assigned to the Police Academy and then detailed to field commands on a

rotational basis.

2. Adopt a systematic and progressive set of educational requirements for all ranks.

Supplementary Recommendations

1. The Academy facility should have a simulated city street as well as suitably furnished rooms for acting out decision-making situations.

2. Programmed instruction and computer-assisted instruction should be carried out on an experimental basis throughout the Department. The implementation of same should be the responsibility of the Educational Materials Development Unit.



## APPENDIX B TO GRANT #339

Police Department

City of New York

September 18, 1970

TO ALL COMMANDS:

Subject: JOHN JAY COLLEGE PRELECT PROGRAM FOR PROBATIONARY  
PATROLMEN

1. In implementation of the Police Commissioner's announced policy of providing college level education as a component of the training program conducted for probationary patrolmen by the Police Academy Recruit Training School, the Police Academy and John Jay College of Criminal Justice, will inaugurate the "Prelect Program", commencing September 25, 1970.

The broad objectives of this program are: to contribute to the efficiency of performance; to encourage and motivate desire for higher education; and, to help develop greater sensitivity to human behavior and to the social setting within which the police function is performed.

2. The Prelect Program contains three two credit college courses and career counseling sessions:

- a) English 21--Basic Communication Skills
- b) Sociology 21--Group Interaction Analysis
- c) Psychology 21--Social Perception
- d) Counseling 21--College Orientation

The above courses will be taught by the faculty of John Jay College at its undergraduate facility located at 360 Park Avenue South, Manhattan. Combined with the ten college credits normally earned by successful completion of the Police Academy Recruit Training School curriculum the six credits earned by successful completion of this portion of the expanded recruit training program will result in the award of a total of 16 college credits toward an undergraduate degree at John Jay College.

3. 665 Probationary Patrolmen and Police Trainees have been selected to attend the first semester of this program:

- a) All personnel assigned to the incoming recruit training class of September 14, 1970
- b) All personnel completing their current course of training at the Recruit Training School on September 28, 1970.
- c) Personnel who have recently completed their course of instruction at the Recruit Training School and who were assigned to field commands as per Special Orders 100 and 122 c.s.

4. Commanding Officers of above personnel shall direct attendance to the Prelect Program in accordance with the listing and instructions provided in attached Appendices A and B [not attached to this report].

5. Registration and Orientation for the Prelect Program for members listed in Appendix A [not attached] of this order will be held as indicated below:

a) 0900 Monday September 21      Police Academy Auditorium  
235 E. 20 St., 2nd Floor

b) 0900 Wednesday Sept. 23

Commanding Officers will apportion members assigned to attend the Prelect Program equally between the above two dates and direct attendance thereat, in civilian clothes with ball point pen. Notifications to members shall include their Class Section Number as indicated in attached Appendix A [not attached].

The provisions of paragraph 7 of this order apply to attendance at Registration and Orientation.

Members who do not register in accordance<sup>e</sup> with the provisions of this paragraph shall register individually on the first day they attend class, by reporting at 0900 hours on that date to the Prelect Office, John Jay College Graduate Center, 315 Park Avenue South, Room 222.

6. The Police Academy Recruit Training School will maintain records of attendance at the Prelect Program. Attendance procedures have been developed with John Jay College. When records indicate a member has failed to attend a session,

the reason for such absence will be ascertained from his commanding officer.

7. No excusals will be permitted members attending the Prelect Program on scheduled days of attendance except those authorized under R&P 2/53.0 (Religious Holiday); 2/54.0 (Death in Family; 2/58.0 (Military Leave); 2/55.0 (Emergency Leave).

8. Members required to attend courts or other governmental agency hearings, etc. on days they are also to attend the Prelect Program will report to their Prelect class at the conclusion of their attendance at same. On those days members will report direct to the court or government agency and shall wear civilian clothing.

9. Inquiries relative to the provisions of this order shall be made to Sergeant Robert Hogan, Police Academy Prelect Program Liaison Officer, telephone OR-7-1133 ext. 319.

10. Provisions of the Rules and Procedures in conflict with this order are temporarily suspended.

BY DIRECTION OF THE ACTING POLICE COMMISSIONER

Elmer C. Cone  
Assistant Chief Inspector  
Chief of Personnel

Distribution:  
All Commands

Ch. of Per. Memo.#64

## APPENDIX C TO GRANT #339

The following divisions and indicated number of courses form the academic portion of the Recruit Training Program and are described in the pages to follow:

<u>DIVISION</u>	<u>TITLE</u>	<u>COURSES</u>	<u>HOURS</u>
I	POLICE SCIENCE	7	67
II	TECHNICAL SKILLS	4	42
III	LEGAL EDUCATION	10	120
IV	HUMAN SKILLS DEVELOPMENT	10	102
V	COLLEGE EDUCATION	4	105
VI	FIELD EXPERIENCE	3	140
VII	EVALUATION AND TESTING	2	32

ACADEMIC INSTRUCTION SYLLABUS  
RECRUIT TRAINING SCHOOL  
COURSE LIST

I--DIVISION OF POLICE SCIENCE (67 hours)

<u>Course</u>	<u>Title</u>	<u>Hours</u>
A	Introduction to a Police Career	9
B	N.Y.C.P.D. Function and Structure	8
C	Police Procedures	17
D	Street Problems and Decision Drills	
E	Police Reports	15
F	Police Tactics	7
G	Police Professionalization	6

II--DIVISION OF TECHNICAL SKILLS (42 hours)

A	Practical Criminalistics	11
B	Driver Reaction and Vision Tests	3
C	Police Motor Vehicle Training	27
D	Police Communications	1

III--DIVISION OF LEGAL EDUCATION (120 hours)

A	Constitutional Law	19
B	Introduction to Criminal Justice	16
C	New York State Criminal Law	19
D	Criminal Law Review and Decision Drills	7
E	Traffic Laws and Regulations	10
F	Criminal Procedure	10
G	Municipal Laws	10
H	Children and the Law	6
J	Civil Rights Law	7
K	Practical Applications of the Law	16

IV--DIVISION OF HUMAN SKILLS DEVELOPMENT (102 hours)

A	Orientation to Human Behavior	10
B	Human Relation Seminars	9
C	Interpersonal Relations	5
D	Human Behavior and Civil Rights	8
E	Family Crisis Intervention	7
F	The Urban Environment	11

G	Moral Principles Governing Human Behavior	6
H	Free Discussion Seminars	6
J	Distinguished Lecturers	30
K	Street Problems in Behavior	8

V--DIVISION OF COLLEGE EDUCATION (105 hours)

A	Social Perception (Psychology)	30
B	Interaction Analysis (Sociology)	30
C	Communication Skills	30
D	Group Counseling	15

VI--DIVISION OF FIELD EXPERIENCE (140 hours)

A	Basic Patrol Experience	35
B	Advanced Experience	70
C	Orientation to Permanent Command	35

VII--DIVISION OF EVALUATION AND TESTING (32 hours)

A	Comprehensive Reviews	16
B	Official Examinations (4)	16

REQUIRED READINGS

1. Rules and Procedures, N.Y.C. Police Department
2. Law Enforcement Handbook for Police, Louis B. Schwartz and Stephen R. Goldstein, West Publishing Co. (1970)
3. Crime and Race, Marvin E. Wolfgang, Institute of Human Relations Press, (1964)
4. Case Study of a Riot, Lenora Berson, Institute of Human Relations Press, (1966)
5. The Puerto Ricans, Clarence Senior, Quadrangle Books, (1965)
6. "Summary of the Report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders", Bantam Books, (1968)
7. Texts for Division V as required by college instruction
8. Additional texts, abstracts and readings as required by curriculum and the instructional staff of the Police Academy



190.

RECRUIT TRAINING SCHOOL CURRICULUM

	<u>Hours</u>
Academic	363
Physical	180
Firearms	49
Water Safety	24
College Level	105
Field Experience	140
Clerical/Security	14
	<hr/>
	875 TOTAL

## Present Curriculum

Police Academy Recruit Training Program  
New York City Police DepartmentDivision IIntroduction to a Police Career

This division is designed to indoctrinate the recruit in the mission, functions and organization of the Police Department, and with the ethics and standards with which he will be expected to comply while a member of the Department.

	<u>Hours</u>
Orientation and Indoctrination	9
Ethics and Conduct	8
Equipment and Department Property	3
Department Organization	3
Reports, Records, Orders	<u>3</u>
	26

Division IIPolice Procedures and Techniques

In this division of the recruit syllabus the procedures to be followed in carrying out specific duties are presented to the student. The methods and techniques employed are explained and are coupled with practical exercises and demonstrations.

Aided and Accident Cases	7
Patrol Procedures	18
Traffic Procedures	14

<u>Police Procedures and Techniques (continued)</u>	<u>Hours</u>
Investigations	3
Summons Procedures	8
Arrest Procedures	12
Prisoners	5
Police Emergencies, Disasters and Civil Defense	<u>5</u>
	72

### Division III

#### The Police, The Government, The Law

This division is organized so that the recruit will be acquainted with the development of legal process in society. Included in this division will be found a discussion of the civil and criminal courts of the City, State and Federal government in which a policeman is likely to be required to appear. The largest number of hours in the division are devoted to presenting the elements of criminal and municipal laws with which the patrolman should be familiar. Evidence is also discussed. Description of the various types of evidence is included as well as specific steps taken to identify, handle, mark and safeguard the several types.

	<u>Hours</u>
City Government and Cooperation with Governmental Agencies	2
The Courts	3
Criminal Law and Modus Operandi	32
Municipal Law	12
Evidence	2
Public Morals	<u>15</u>
	66

Division IVThe Police Role in Human and Race Relations

It is essential that police recruit training include subject matter which will provide a better understanding of human behavior and which will develop proper attitudes on the part of police and which are consistent with the human relations concepts of professional police performance. Towards that end, this division is specifically oriented towards developing a professional police officer who can adapt proper attitudes toward himself and the public he serves. In order to increase the scope of understanding of police-human relations concepts, various instructional techniques are utilized. Through the media of lectures, discussions, films, workshops, required readings and research projects, the recruit is exposed to those ideas, opinions, points of view and conclusions which are basic to the formulation and adoption of desirable attitudes.

	<u>Hours</u>
Psychology and the Police	6
Human Relations	5
Race Relations and Civil Rights	5
Crime and Delinquency Causation	17
The Constitution and Due Process	3
Assemblages	3
Police Ethics (Chaplains)	5
Workshops on Human Relations	8
Critique Term Paper	1
Guest Lecturers	5
History of Negro in America	4
Puerto Rican Culture and Customs	3
	<u>65</u>

Division VDemonstrations and Exercises

Five objectives exist in the presentation of this division. The first of these is to augment the lecture and home study exercises by actual demonstrations of techniques and methods

and by field trips to appropriate courts, the morgue and police headquarters. The second objective is to afford the student an opportunity to apply the knowledge imparted to him by the performance of practical exercises. The third intent of the division is to set aside time for adequate review of important principles. The fourth objective is to test the student's knowledge during, and at the end of the school term. The fifth aim is to make certain that all recruits are indoctrinated in the facets of careful driving so as to minimize personal injury and property damage.

	<u>Hours</u>
Demonstrations	17
Field Trips and Duty	23
Practical Exercises	17
Review and Testing	17
Driver Training	<u>9</u>
	<u>83</u>
Total Academic	312 hours

#### Firearms Program

Probationary patrolmen receive 56 hours of firearms training, during which time each member fires a minimum of 340 rounds of ammunition with his .38 calibre special service revolver. Firearms training is held at an outdoor range, with firing at the 7, 15 and 25 yard target distances, or, during the winter months, at an indoor range at a distance of 20 yards. The New York City Police Department silhouette and bull's eye targets are used. Probationary policewomen, with minor exceptions, receive the same training. Training sessions are divided into range classroom instruction in firearms-related subjects, and range firing. A full presentation of the firearms programs are found in Chapter i.

Hours

56

**CONTINUED**

**3 of 18**

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## Physical Training Program

The physical training program is designed to develop a high degree of strength, endurance, agility, coordination and skill in the police recruit. The development and maintenance of a sound physique, supplementing the academic and firearms training, will produce a highly efficient, well-trained policeman, capable of performing a wide variety of duties and meeting emergency situations. The physical program consists of training in such subjects as infantry drill, calisthenics, baton drill, search and frisk, boxing, unarmed defense, riot control, and first aid. Sessions are held four days each week for a period of three hours each. A total of 192 hours of training is scheduled over the four month period.

Hours

192

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Total Recruit Training Curriculum

560 hours

Summary of the New Recruit Curriculum

Phases of the Recommended Curriculum - Administrative Processes  
(10 hours)

Phase I . . . . . 4 weeks . . . . . 150 hours

During Phase I the recruit will continue to wear civilian clothing and will not be issued firearms. The educational objective is to prepare the recruits for the achievement of professionalization in Phase II.

Phase II . . . . . 8 weeks . . . . . 320 hours

The basic educational objective of Phase II is intensive professional training. Firearms will be issued in either the 4th, 5th or 6th week and a week of field duty will take place in either the 5th, 6th or 7th week. The recruit will return for continued professional training after his basic patrol experience under supervision of his group leader and escort officer.

Phase III . . . . . 2 weeks . . . . . 80 hours

Intensive field experience, again under supervision, intended to expose the recruit to the duties of a probationary patrolman. The recruit will have field duty with specialized units of the Department during this period.



Phase IV . . . . . 3 weeks . . . . . 120 hours

This final Academy phase involves an innovative concept in police training. Essentially, its purpose is to evaluate, on an individual and group basis, the field duty of the recruit as experienced by the recruit himself and observed and evaluated by the group leader and the escort officer. Opportunity is provided in this phase for a variety of decision-making drills.

Phase V . . . . . 1 week . . . . . 40 hours

This phase involves orientation to the recruit's permanent command. Again, the excort officer plays a key role under the supervision of the group leader.

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The Recruit Training Program consists of 18 weeks, 720 hours.

The individual course units within the new recruit curriculum are as follows:

Course Units in the New Recruit Curriculum  
(Administrative Processing - 10 hours)

Phase I - Educational Orientation and Preparation (4 weeks, 150 hours)

Course Unit A. Testing of the New Recruit

In terms of speech, reading, written English, quantitative skills, critical thinking and other relevant measures of present level of achievement and possible remedial needs. 5 hours

Course Unit B. Individual and Inter-Personal Human Skills Development

Moral principles governing human behavior 4 hours

The urban environment, historical, social, political aspects of democracy, with specific reference to New York City 20 hours

Orientation to the Behavioral and Social Sciences as Applied to Law Enforcement - Part I

Introduction to Criminology, Nature of Crime and Criminals. 15 hours

Principles of Social Psychology 20 hours

Course Unit C. Introduction to the Criminal Justice Process - a Law Unit 20 hours

Course Unit D. Selected Aspects of the New York Penal Law - a Law Unit 20 hours

Course Unit E. New York City Police Department, Functions and Structure - a Police Science Unit 10 hours

Course Unit F. Physical Conditioning - calisthenics, boxing, first aid (3 hours a day on alternate days for 3 days a week). 36 hours

Phase II - Professionalization

(8 weeks, 320 hours)

Course Unit A. Police Science UnitPart 1

Techniques in patrol, traffic, summons and arrest procedures, emergency and related areas of police practice; departmental Rules and Procedures

50 hours

Part 2

This unit is presented after the completion of Course Unit G - Basic Patrol Experience; reviews and amplifies topics considered in Part 1.

10 hours

Course Unit B. Orientation to the Behavioral and Social Sciences as Applied to Law Enforcement - Part II

Applied Criminology, Crime and Criminals as Encountered "on the street."

10 hours

Applied Social Psychology, with attention to Ethical Relationships and Inter-Group Tensions.

10 hours

Course Unit C. Criminalistics Unit, Crime Scene Operations and Practical Criminalistics

18 hours

Course Unit D. Law Units including "mini-courses" in Constitutional Law, Civil Rights Law, Traffic Law and other relevant phases of law, together with moot court and legal seminars.

70 hours

Course Unit E.    Physical Training and Police Techniques, calisthenics, infantry drill, unarmed defense, search and frisk, baton drill and riot control (3 hours a day for 4 days a week - 6 weeks).                      72 hours

Course Unit F.    Firearms Training

Recruits to be uniformed and issued firearms after successful completion of firearms training in the 4th, 5th or 6th week of their training.                      40 hours

Course Unit B.    Basic Patrol Experience

Recruits to perform field duty in the week immediately following completion of firearms training. (This field duty unit to be conducted in groups of approximately 175 recruits assigned to selected precincts.) This unit will be completed in the 5th, 6th or 7th week of the recruit's training.                      40 hours

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Phase III - Field Experience                      (2 weeks, 80 hours)

Recruits will perform the duties of a probationary patrolman in patrol precincts and also in selected specialized units under supervision of the group leaders and escort officers.

Phase IV - Training Evaluation and Decision-Making  
Drills (3 weeks, 120 hours)

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- Course Unit A. The Moral Imperative, on  
Ethics Unit 6 hours
- Course Unit B. Human Behavior and Civil Rights,  
a socio-psychological view of  
social forces impacting upon  
law enforcement in the New York  
City community. 30 hours
- Course Unit C. Individualized interaction with  
field situations portrayed  
through dramatizations. The  
individual recruit will be led  
through decision-making situa-  
tions and drilled in appropriate  
discretionary decisions. 52 hours
- Course Unit D. Free Discussion Seminar and  
self-critique of training and  
field experience. This course  
will be led by recruits on a  
rotating basis and will provide  
a self-evaluation of curriculum,  
instruction and field experience 6 hours
- Course Unit E. Review of Combat Firing (one  
day on the firing range) 8 hours
- Course Unit F. Review of Unarmed Defense  
Techniques, reinforcement of  
established physical fitness habits  
(3 hours a day for 2 days a  
week). 18 hours

Phase V - Orientation to Permanent Command (1 week, 40 hours)

This phase will involve recruits after completion of training and will be the responsibility of the group leaders and the escort officers assigned to the precinct where the recruit will assume his normal assignment. During this week the recruit will learn the geography of the precinct, policies peculiar to the locale, sociology of the population, and local crime patterns.

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The new curriculum requires 18 weeks or 720 hours.

## APPENDIX D to Grant #339

DISTRIBUTION OF THE POLICE TRAINING AND  
PERFORMANCE STUDY AS OF 9/16/70

Universities or colleges	77
Police agencies (State)	7
Police agencies (Municipal)	133
Police agencies (Federal)	10
Police agencies (Foreign)	2
Police Standards or Training Commissions	13
Public Libraries	7
University/College Libraries	42
L.E.A.A.	58
Other Governmental Agencies	79
Other	<u>22</u>
Total	455

+ 59 working copies in P.A.

1st printing 300

2nd printing 500

Police Science Degree ProgramsMethod of Evaluation

In this evaluation of the OLEA Police Science Degree Development program we developed the general issues and made frequent reference to examples taken from the projects that were chosen for intensive review. For some comparative and survey material we relied upon the standard works and monographs by scholars such as Charles W. Tenney, Jr. (Higher Education Programs in Law Enforcement, A Review and Analysis of Curriculum Development Projects funded by the OLEA, 1966-1969, Grant #NI-033, National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, LEAA, Nov., 1969); Thompson S. Crockett, (Law Enforcement Education, IACP, 1968); T. S. Crockett and James D. Stinchcomb, (Guidelines for Law Enforcement Education Programs in Community and Junior Colleges, American Association of Junior Colleges, 1968); James D. Stinchcomb (Unpublished review of the Comprehensive State Plans for 1969 submitted by the State Planning Agencies in which a number of implications for the Office of Academic Assistance in LEAA were drawn); and Charles B. Saunders (Upgrading the American Police:



Education and Training for Better Law Enforcement. The Brookings Institution, 1970).

We also attended a two day conference of Administrators from Law Enforcement and Corrections called by the Office of Academic Assistance of LEAA in Washington for the purpose of reviewing the question of Criminal Justice Education and its many issues. Our consultant, Dr. John McNamara, visited three four-year programs funded by OLEA: The Administration of Justice Program under the directorship of Dr. Gordon S. Misner at the University of Missouri, St. Louis Campus (Grant #166); the Criminal Justice Program in the School of Social Welfare at the University of Wisconsin at Milwaukee whose director now is Mr. Robert Stonek (Grant #203); and the Administration of Criminal Justice Curriculum at the University of Illinois, Chicago Circle Campus directed by Mr. Stephen A. Schiller (Grant #111). We chose one two-year degree program for intensive review as a comparison to the four-year programs. The final report of the Tarrant County Junior College, Fort Worth, Texas OLEA police science program was far superior to the others. Dr. William McDonald of the Institute staff served as our consultant and visited this two-year law enforcement degree program (Grant #121). In

addition to this, of course, we surveyed the police science grantees with a questionnaire built around the special problems of such programs. Before we go on to the general discussion of police science programs, it will be valuable to describe our findings from the analysis of the questionnaire data.

Analysis of Questionnaire Data--Police Science Degree Programs

There were 47 Police Science Degree grants of all kinds funded by OLEA, and 26 of them returned questionnaires. Project Directors who filled out the questionnaires were frequently men who combined law enforcement experience with academic accomplishment.

Just as in the correctional training projects we asked for information and opinions about the teaching of police science. What type of person should teach in such a program? The answer was predictable considering the nature of the respondents. Overwhelmingly (20) they called for a teacher combining academic and professional achievement. Far fewer (8) were satisfied to use regular college faculty, and merely 2 accepted a professional policeman as a likely teacher. For his educational requirements, 13 demanded the Ph.D., 16 called for the M.A., and a minority of 7 were willing to consider a B.A. The degree of police experience was our next concern. A short period was acceptable to 12, and 9 wanted the teacher to have 5 years of experience. The two extremes, no experience or at least 10 years of experience, were each checked twice.

The most suitable academic background for a teacher of police science was a matter of some controversy. A

concentration in Criminal Justice as preparation for teaching was the most popular choice (16), followed by police science (13), sociology (11), public administration (10), psychology (8), humanities (7), and social work (4). This agreed quite closely with the results of a similar question applicable to correctional training teachers.

The drawback to demanding these generally high standards for teachers is that persons of this caliber are very difficult to obtain, as the project directors were well aware, since 24 reported that qualified teachers are difficult to obtain, and not one agreed with the statement that they were easy to obtain. In another part of the questionnaire the lack of competent teachers was considered the major problem.

There was a variety of answers to the question of methods of teaching police science programs. Table 1 ranks the choices.

Table 1  
Preferred Method of Teaching Police Science Courses

N=26

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Method</u>	<u>Number of Choices</u>
1	Lectures and discussion	24
2	Films and visual aids	21
3	Discussion of assigned cases and readings	18
4	Seminar	17
5	Classroom simulation of actual practice	15
6	Field observation	11
6	Lecture	11
7	Sensitivity-type class	8
8	Computerized instruction	3

The higher numbers among the first five items indicate that there really was a preference for a combination of those methods.

The most surprising result in Table 1 above is that computerized instruction was in last place, receiving only 3 votes.

Almost all (23) wanted the police science program vested in the college offering that program. Not one wanted control by a police department, although 3 votes were cast for administration by a combination of police and college. However, the question of control of the recruit training program brought a different response. Only 3 wanted the college to take over recruit training, 9 were in favor of a partial takeover by the college, but 12 were decidedly against it, checking item d, "not at all."

A majority (15) agreed that what was most needed now was a 4-year degree program. No more than 6 felt that a 2-year certificate program was the first priority. There were 5 choices for an M.A. program and 3 for the Ph.D.

It was understandable that 15 directors of police science programs should call for an associate degree in police science as a condition of appointment to a police force. And consistent with this, 16 wanted the associate degree to be a minimum qualification for promotion to higher rank.

An interesting insight into the problems these directors faced is provided in Table 2.

Table 2

Major Problems in Police Science (N=26)

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Problem</u>	<u>Number of Votes</u>
1	Lack of competent teachers	20
2	Lack of support by police department administrators	15
2	Lack of money	15
3	Lack of college level literature	14
4	Lack of well defined subject matter	9
5	Lack of facilities	7
6	Lack of well developed programs	5
7	Lack of interest among policemen	4

Lack of competent teachers is generally acknowledged. The lack of support by police department administrators needs discussion. Probably there is a tendency among policemen, who are representative of blue collar America, to share American's ambivalence toward the academic world. They realize its importance and they stand in awe of it. At the same time they fear it, suspect it, and in much of their ordinary life they are anti-intellectual. For police administrators a similar process is at work, intensified in both extremes by the organizational and occupational loyalty that dominates their thinking. They are in favor of practical, applied, vocational training. It makes for "better" policemen as they interpret this quality. It also makes the administrator's job easier because he does not have the burden of providing that training. For this reason, the administrator is usually favorably disposed to certificate and associate degree programs. The four year degree program is another matter. This makes policemen think; it makes them question the world and the department; it makes them cosmopolitan rather than local in orientation; and this is tantamount to making them incompatible or even disloyal according to oldtime police traditions. That is why there is a lack of support from police administrators that is

perceived by the project directors. The project directors themselves are in favor of excluding practical or applied subjects from the degree program by a margin of 16 to 9.

Lack of money was near the top as a problem yet 21 out of 26 in item 3 stated that the funds granted by OLEA were sufficient to fulfill the project goals. Apparently, after OLEA funds ran out, the colleges did not support the police science programs adequately. This may be an indication that in the ordinary academic environment police science will, for a long time in the foreseeable future, occupy at best a marginal position.

The next major problem is the failure to use college-level literature in the field of police science. Perhaps the threat of a high reading standard with which police science teachers cannot cope is the basis for this problem. Or it may be that teachers have a pessimistic view of their students' capabilities and are not willing to assign really challenging bibliographies. With the burgeoning interest in this field, this weakness in the literature will soon be remedied.

The lack of well defined subject matter is a serious problem. The trouble is the disagreement upon which areas should be covered, which stressed, which omitted. We deal



with that question in Table 3 and there is a surprising consensus on the vital material to be included.

Table 3

Areas of Study that Should be Included in Police Science Programs  
N=26

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Area</u>	<u>Number of Choices</u>
1	Human behavior	25
1	Social sciences	25
2	Criminology	24
2	Juvenile delinquency	24
2	Philosophy of police work	24
3	Behavioral sciences	23
3	Police-Community relations	23
3	Changing role of police	23
4	Legal aspects of police work	22
4	Civil Rights	22
4	Role of police in criminal justice system	22
4	Public administration	22
5	History of Police	21
5	New developments in police work	21
6	Humanities	20
7	Research methods	18
8	Characteristics of offenders	16
9	Techniques of control	15

Of course, there were only 18 choices, and apparently the majority wanted every one of them in a degree program. It

is when one gets away from these well recognized staples of such programs that there begins to be wide disagreement.

The respondents had no clear preference for any particular type of evaluation unit. An outside research group was acceptable to 13, while 13 favored evaluation by participants in the project. There were 9 who thought that evaluation was the province of the research staff of the college or police department concerned.

The respondents were asked to estimate the number of students already in the police science degree programs in the academic year 1969, and how many registered for the 1970 academic year. (See Table 4).

Table 4

Estimate of Students in Police Science Programs

N=22

	<u>1969</u>	<u>1970</u>
1 - 100	8	5
101 - 200	6	6
201 - 300	4	8
301 - 400	0	0
401 - 500	2	0
Above 500	2	3

The average OLEA funded police science program had about 225 students in 1969. This number increased to 240 in 1970. There was a slight growth.

Analysis of the Police Science Degree Programs

The three-to-one ratio of site visits was the result of our election to focus on four-year degree programs rather than the two-year associate degree programs. The four-year programs were selected for the site visits for a number of reasons which will become apparent in this review but primarily because they constituted the more novel type of program and had many and more complex problems with which to deal relative to the two-year junior college programs. The four-year programs constituted exactly one-half of the developmental program grants and increased proportionately the number of such programs far more significantly than did the two-year program grants. Crockett reported 44 four-year programs in existence relative to 199 two-year programs in July 1968 just at the time that OLEA had completed its program. It is a significant development that in just two years, by 1970, there were 257 two-year, 55 four-year, 22 masters degree, and 7 doctoral programs in the area of law enforcement or criminal justice, a total of 341 college programs in 292 colleges or universities.\*

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\* IACP, Law Enforcement Education Directory (Washington, D.C. IACP, 1970).

However, in 1968, the OLEA-funded four-year programs constituted approximately one-third of the four-year programs at that time. The OLEA funded two-year programs constituted only 7% of the total number of such programs identified by Crockett. It was also possible during the site visits to learn something of the operations of two-year programs (not funded by OLEA however) through discussions with faculty and other persons involved in the four-year program.

In reviewing the materials on the two year program grants, there appears to have been a development of these programs that was not highly innovative. For the most part a number of guidelines had been published by the IACP and by the American Association of Junior Colleges (AAJC) which served most of the new two-year programs in their development. Furthermore, consulting services provided through OLEA by IACP under a Ford Foundation grant were utilized by most of the two-year grantees. These consulting services for the most part consisted of the activities of J. Stinchcomb and T. Crockett who also wrote the guidelines produced by IACP and by AAJC. Hence it is to be expected that the two-year programs would be characterized by a large degree of uniformity at least in their espoused program concepts.

Judging from the rather sketchy reports received by OLEA from the two-year program grantees they were not always successful in achieving the program goals to which they aspired. The usual problems of faculty recruitment which confronted other two-year programs existed for these grantees: the problem of finding staff with experience in the field of law enforcement and with the necessary academic credentials. Most programs appeared to resolve this in the same fashion as existing two year programs by relying heavily on part time appointments. The part time appointments were primarily made up of practitioners in the field of law enforcement and law.

This was true both of the four-year and two-year programs. The curricula recommended by IACP and AAJC were apparently followed rather closely. The curriculum guidelines in the law enforcement courses, variously labeled professional, vocational, technical, and so on, appeared to concentrate too heavily on the law enforcement side of police work. It was assumed that courses in "human relations," psychology, sociology and the like would be sufficient to handle the educational needs of the students in the area of "public service" job tasks. The above guidelines, for example, allow for a course in police-

community relations as an elective rather than as a core course in the two-year program. Given the fact that most police work consists of solving medical, interpersonal, social and psychological problems of the residents of a community it seems strange that the two-year curriculum should be so heavily laden with courses which concentrate on the problem of crime, supervision, patrol, and the like. There appears to have been little success in developing courses which blend the human relations and social science concepts with the description of various police tasks and functions. It is apparently assumed that somehow the social science courses would automatically have relevance for the student in his field experiences. Some attempts were made to orient social scientists to problems of police work and to have them devise and implement their courses with particular police problems in mind but these attempts appear to have had dubious success.

Again, with regard to the curricula of these two-year programs there appears to be little effort to orient the police officer student to the myriad other agencies and functions that constitute the criminal justice system, and to make him aware that law enforcement is only one part of a larger system of criminal justice. The IACP-AAJC guidelines

do not recommend even a survey course having to do with the Administration of Criminal Justice as part of the core curriculum nor as an elective. Perhaps this is the case due to the development of a separate set of guidelines by the AAJC for a two year corrections program, but it is our judgment that this is a serious shortcoming of the law enforcement guidelines so heavily relied upon by the two-year programs. It appeared that there was some consensus on the part of the administrators attending the conference sponsored by the Office of Academic Assistance that a core curriculum common to law enforcement and to corrections should be developed.

One possible mechanism which might correct in part for this deficiency is the acceptance of most of the two-year programs funded by OLEA of the curriculum characterized as a "balanced program" by Crockett and Stinchcomb. This is a compromise curriculum between a "terminal program" and a "transfer program." The balanced program designed in the AAJC guidelines is one intended to serve both students who do not plan to go beyond the Associate degree and those intending to pursue a higher degree. However, as Figure 1 shows, 24 credits (40%) of the total 64, if we exclude physical education, are police or law enforcement courses.



Figure 1

Suggested Balanced Law Enforcement Curriculum

## First Year

## First Term

English	3
Psychology, Introduction	3
State and Local Government	3
Introduction to Law Enforcement	3
Police Administration	3
Physical Education *	<u>1</u>
	16

## Second Term

English	3
National Government	3
Sociology, introduction	3
Police Operations	3
Police Role in Crime and Delinquency	3
Physical Education *	<u>1</u>
	16

## Second Year

## Third Term

Humanities	3
Criminal Law	3
Mathematics	3
Criminal investigation	3
Public speaking	3
Physical Education*	<u>1</u>

16

Adolescent Psychology or Social Problems	3
Logic	3
Criminal Evidence and Procedure	3
Introduction to Criminalistics	3
Elective	3
Physical Education *	<u>1</u>

16

Source: Thompson S. Crockett and James D. Stinchcomb,  
Guidelines for Law Enforcement Education Programs  
in Community and Junior Colleges, (Washington, D.C.:  
 American Association of Junior Colleges, 1968), p.18.

That is a heavy concentration when it is compared to a typical concentration of 30 credits out of 124 credits or about 25% of a four-year baccalaureate program in other disciplines. Some of the two year program grantees, however, did not adhere to this recommendation and established either a terminal program, a transfer program, or established two separate programs to accommodate the two types of students. The rationale for recommending a balanced program appears sound; it was assumed that a student entering a terminal program may change his orientation later in his academic career and then face the difficult problem of gaining transfer credits for courses which would not be acceptable to a four-year program. Even the balanced program seems to have created a considerable problem of transferability for students going on to four-year programs. The Tarrant County program illustrated this problem at the junior college level. The University of Missouri, St. Louis, accepts only 18 law enforcement credits from the J.C. programs toward the B.C.<sup>5</sup> they offer. The University of Wisconsin reports that, on the average, students transferring in from junior college programs lose about 12 semester credits. This is particularly problematic for in-service students who are on a part time

basis and have a minimal amount of time after satisfying their job, family, etc. obligations for course work and study.

The problem of handling both in-service and pre-service students within the same two-year curriculum did not seem to be well addressed by the grantees, although it is obviously a problem to combine in-service students of a variety of ranks and experience in law enforcement with recent high school graduates who have had little experience in the larger world. According to Saunders the majority of students enrolled in two-year programs are in-service police officers. This has apparently led a number of two-year programs to offer course credit for experience in the field. This practice did not appear to exist among the OLEA funded programs and was strongly criticized by both the IACP and AAJC guidelines. Saunders reported on one junior college police science program which gave as many as 45 credits toward the 60 credits and the rank of the student (see Saunders, p. 105). This practice is indefensible in view of the intended functions of the two-year law enforcement programs and appears to be disappearing. Whether the influence of the OLEA programs and their visibility had anything to do with this change is unclear.

There is another dimension to this problem of accommodating programs to the particular requirements of groups with different backgrounds and aspirations. The rationale for the "balanced" program may be satisfactory for students who are already police officers. It is not an answer to the needs of pre-service students. They need above anything else general knowledge about the world, about society, about people. They must have this before they immerse themselves in law enforcement courses. Those law enforcement courses which they should take ought to be the most general and least policy-oriented. Courses such as the Criminal Justice System, Administration of Justice, the Role of the Police in Contemporary Society, and Police-Community Relations would be appropriate for them.

A number of two-year programs, but not Tarrant County, solved the problem of avoiding overly vocational types of curricula by developing conferences, institutes, and short courses to meet some of the needs of police departments in which the training capability was minimal. This seems to be a logical solution to the problem of maintaining academic integrity in the degree programs. Another solution to the problem of meeting vocational needs of law enforcement in-service personnel, and pre-service personnel as well, was the participation

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of faculty from the two-year programs in the formal training programs of individual departments. Again, this practice allowed for the solution to vocational needs of law enforcement personnel and yet maintained the academic viability of the degree programs.

It appears that the directors and faculty of the two-year programs fared well in their relations with the police administrators in their areas. The advisory boards which many programs established were heavily represented by police administrators. There appears, however, to be a split between police administrators who favor two-year programs and four-year programs. For the most part the two-year programs are perceived by administrators as an extension of their training programs and as having little conflict with existing departmental policies and procedures. In effect the less educated administrators see no threat to the two-year programs but rather see them as helping to fit their personnel into the existing conditions of their departments. In our judgment this is a fairly accurate perception of these programs. This was certainly true in the Tarrant County program which developed warm relations with the police departments. Most of them rely on traditional materials, curricula, faculty and so on which taken together

do not press for radical changes in the police departments served by them. This, on the otherhand, is a source of discomfort to the more educated administrators or the administrators who conceive of themselves as innovators in the field. The contrast in the case of four-year programs will be more systematically analyzed later in this report.

For the most part then, the accommodations made between police administrators and staff of the two-year programs were somewhat one-sided. There is little indication that police administrators adjusted the rotating shift pattern, for example, in order to allow the two-year programs to avoid having to offer the same course in the day and in the evening. In the judgment of our consultant, Dr. McNamara, this is an undesirable practice in that each class has its own distinctive nature depending on the individual students and the relationships developed between the instructor and the students. The requirement that an evening and day class maintain the same pace, <sup>cover</sup> cover the same materials, and so on, creates a type of mechanical presentation which is not "student centered." Again, this is a mechanism providing for the development of a "standardized product" which is perhaps comforting to change-resistant administrators in law enforcement but is not meeting the needs of law enforcement

with respect to the development of new specializations, original decision making, and personnel who can operate within a broad discretionary area in a manner appropriate to our changing society.

Police administrators are ambivalent toward four-year college programs. In public statements they laud education and seem to be saying that they would like every member of the force to have a college degree. Secretly behind the protective barrier of the bureaucratic system, they let the word pass through the grapevine that they are not eager for this eventuality to occur.

They put teeth into the rumor by refusing to change tours for men who want to attend college courses, or denying them days off for that purpose. If the college did not offer the parallel course, so that police officers could attend either day or evening without losing a day's work, many eager police students would be unable to attend college. Weighing the advantages and disadvantages, my opinion is that it is proper to offer parallel sessions of courses whenever feasible to allow the maximum number of police students the opportunity of attending college.

It also appears that little in the way of innovative educational techniques emerged out of these funded two-year

programs. A pattern had been set in a number of existing programs, and while these were an improvement over the prior vacuum in law enforcement higher education, the OLEA funding of two-year programs accomplished the not too difficult task of expanding an existing pattern to a few areas of the country which had not yet developed programs of two-year duration.

The four-year programs funded by OLEA present a much different set of problems, ideas, innovations and a set of soul-searching activities which continue into the present. As indicated above the four-year programs did not fit existing patterns; they aimed at and valued innovation both in their curricula and in the criminal justice agencies with which they worked. In our judgment it can be categorically stated that these programs eventually aimed at producing change agents and students who had a larger view of the criminal justice system in its many ramifications. To a certain degree they appear to have shifted from a conception of their mission as a professional law enforcement program to that of an academic criminal justice discipline. In part this is due to the nature of the compromises that had to be made with faculty from other disciplines and with College and University administrators.



These grants, in numbers alone, were much more significant than the two-year grants. These grants increased the number of four-year law enforcement programs by approximately fifty percent. These grants also brought into bas relief the problems of the Baccalaureate degree so fondly treated by the Police Task Force Report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. Because of the newness of these programs to their institutions and the necessity to develop them quickly to meet the grant conditions a number of questions became apparent that the more established programs had either forgotten or were not cognizant of. We have listed some of these questions at the beginning of this section.

The four-year programs appear to have built into their core curricula of criminal justice courses the social science principles which did not appear to have been built into the core courses of the two-year programs. At the University of Illinois, Chicago Circle, these courses contained so much in the way of social science principles that a freshman sequence of criminal justice can be used by any major to satisfy the lower division social science requirements. This would seem to be preferable to the traditional handling of core courses in that the principles of social science are

not taught as a separate and perhaps unrelated set of notions to the criminal justice courses. In contrast, such courses were nearly completely absent from the Tarrant County Junior College program.

At the same time, the four-year programs relied heavily on social science courses in other departments and attempted to influence the content of such courses in such a manner that their relevance to criminal justice and its administration became more pronounced. Along with the general criminal justice "generic" orientation, the University of Missouri and the University of Illinois appeared to be quite careful in their advisement process with regard to placement of their majors in courses offered by other departments in order to produce students with new types of specialties. The University of Missouri, for example, has proposed a planning and research specialty and relies heavily on research, statistics and computer technology courses offered by other departments. The University of Illinois has developed its own research course under the assumption that there is much that is unique about research in the area of criminal justice. The University of Wisconsin similarly requires a research course but utilizes a research course offered in the Department of Social Welfare, the

department in which the program is located. Of course this was far beyond the capacity of the Tarrant program.

In the site visits to the four-year programs, it was made clear that each of the programs geared its courses to the problems of the criminal justice system and stressed the problematic nature of the existing criminal justice system and its component parts. All of the visited programs espoused a set of objectives with regard to their students in which the final product was seen ideally as a "change agent" and hence these programs stressed the critical necessity of change in the existing system. To some extent this raises the question of where their students are likely to be placed upon completion of the programs and this question will be dealt with more systematically later. Stinchcomb, for example, has pointed out in his review of the 1969 State Comprehensive Plans that only seven states were considering conducting job analyses of police work in order to identify new specializations in police work.

There exist other problems with regard to the placement of graduates of these programs. The interview with staff of the University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, revealed that most of the Milwaukee P.D. police officers enrolled in the program were persons who were disaffected with the

department and were not likely to stay on in the department after completing the program. These officers were also identified as using their involvement in the University program as a means of expressing their disaffection with the department. Hence they could not be expected to be accepted by the department nor to have whatever innovative ideas they might develop accepted by the department were they to stay on. Even during their stay in the department they were seen by the administrators as personnel who were extremely likely to leave the Milwaukee department and hence were not placed in positions where they might have a major impact on the department. However, even Tarrant County students tend to transfer to four-year degree programs and then they also become subjected to this process of change.

The University of Wisconsin program was using an interesting strategy in the attempt of the program to produce change agents. Their majors were required to take a heavy load of social problems courses to motivate them in the direction of the change agent. They were subsequently given a large number of courses in community organization offered by the Department of Social Welfare as a means by which they acquired a background in the technology of planned social change. This is one more example of the variation shown in

the four-year programs in their attempts to develop new ideas and curricula to meet the problems of criminal justice.

The University of Missouri has not yet developed relations with other than law enforcement agencies, but in connection with a new proposal to develop four specializations within the program, they are planning to broaden considerably the number and types of criminal justice agencies with which the program will be involved in a variety of ways. The University of Missouri has proposed four specializations within a broadly oriented criminal justice program: 1) The American Policing System, 2) the Etiology of Criminal and Delinquent Behavior (aimed at prevention programs), 3) Treatment of Offenders (both Juvenile and Adult), and 4) Criminal Justice Planning. It is this last specialization at the Baccalaureate level which seems to me to be a really exciting development. Where a number of graduate programs have such specializations this is the first instance of a planned program of this sort at the undergraduate level and one which has a clear rationale.

The general question raised by the President's Crime Commission recommendation that all police officers be required to have a baccalaureate degree is a difficult one to address on the basis of the materials reviewed. Under any circumstances it appears that unless there is some major change

in the near future, that question will remain "academic" for many years to come. Given the present conditions of the receptivity of law enforcement administrators, given the availability and quality of existing educational programs, given the interest of students outside the law enforcement education programs as well as the law enforcement or criminal justice majors in entering or staying in law enforcement, the standard of a Baccalaureate degree seems quite remote.

What this requirement might do to the seemingly very aggressive attempts at recruiting black police officers is another question of relevance. It appears that there are no special attempts other than the usual attempts of colleges and universities to recruit black students into the programs visited. This is not to say that there are no black students enrolled in the four-year programs but that they are facing the same problems that universities as a whole are facing in this regard.

In the past law enforcement generally has recruited from too narrow a population base and changes in recruitment policy are needed to provide a heterogeneity of personnel which matches the heterogeneity of the community which any law enforcement agency serves. This implies therefore

that while the baccalaureate degree might be of utility for personnel in law enforcement, it would serve to further narrow the population base from which these agencies recruit. There exists the further general question of what the degree represents. It is often assumed that exposure to four or more years of college brings about large and desirable changes in the student. For anyone on faculties of higher education it must be apparent that many students manage to survive their four years rather unscathed by exposure to the educational "process."

A great deal of writing on the subject of education and training for police is given to the exercise of distinguishing between education and training. Much of this appears to me to be a rather empty and fruitless exercise. Rather, it makes better sense to conceive of the problem as one of learning on the part of the in-service or pre-service student. As yet there is little in the way of factual data to support any kind of stand on the question of the baccalaureate requirement in law enforcement.

Police administrators at the conference called by the Office of Academic Assistance appeared to be receptive to the requirement for certain types of tasks in law enforcement such as planning and research and to the necessity of some

college courses for administrators, but few saw the need for the requirement at the entry level for law enforcement personnel generally. Tenney has taken the position that a baccalaureate is a necessary requirement for police officers due to the demand placed on them to exercise extraordinary interpersonal skills in the conduct of their duties. Whether these skills are developed in programs in higher education is questionable. This rationale for the requirement seems to me to be somewhat weak. The receptivity of administrators to the requirement also appears weak and has been remarked on by a number of writers and educational program personnel. Stinchcomb, in his review of the state plans, indicates that no state plans an aggressive program of recruitment on college campuses.

What are the identifiable advantages of a college education for a policeman beyond the increase in knowledge and the rather nebulous benefit that is usually described as a broader perspective on life? James Q. Wilson reviews the evidence and concludes, "It is not yet clear exactly in what ways, if at all, middle-class, college-educated men make better police officers..."\*

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\* James Q. Wilson, Varieties of Policw Behavior (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1968), p. 281.



Saunders, an advocate of such education, is objective enough to admit that the belief in education for policemen rests more on faith than on fact, and that, "research is unable to determine how much knowledge college graduates retain from their studies or even whether their personalities and values are significantly altered by the process." (Saunders, p. 82).

Here are Saunders' arguments in favor of such education: The worth of a general college education for all youth of intelligence and ambition is unquestioned. The liberal arts education provides ethical and moral indoctrination and appropriate attitudes. It enhances occupational competence. He reports (p. 88) on studies in Flint, Michigan and Chicago, Illinois that supported the belief that higher education was correlated with higher performance ratings on the job. College policemen were less authoritarian than non-college police." \* Finally he cites the most compelling argument for higher education which is "the steadily rising educational level of the general population." (Saunders, p. 98).

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\* Alexander B. Smith, Bernard Locke, and William F. Walker, "Authoritarianism in College and Non-College Oriented Police," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, Vol. 58 (March 1967), p. 132.

The college student policeman suffers serious consequences that must be balanced against the improvement that may be seen in some of his attributes. Studies as well as a commonly held tradition have shown that a policeman who goes to college may, under certain circumstances, be more frustrated and alienated "on the job." Patrolmen who have not gone to college often resent the college man because they feel that he is favored for special assignments, or that he is looking for special treatment.\*

As we have pointed out several times already, the police administrators sometimes question his unwavering loyalty to the department. They think of him as a cosmopolitan with too many intellectual interests outside the department. In this belief the administrator is supported by the finding that college policemen are more likely to leave the force.\*\*

The polarization of opinion about college graduates as policemen was revealed clearly by the divergent policies of two of our most eminent police commissioners.

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\* Arthur Niederhoffer, Behind the Shield (Garden City: Doubleday, 1967).

\*\* Ruth Levy, "Summary of Report on Retrospective Study of 5,000 Peace Officer Personnel Records," Police Yearbook, 1966 (IACP), p. 62.

Commissioner Patrick V. Murphy, of the New York City Police Department, announced that "a college education will be a requirement for advancement to the highest police ranks there."\*

Shortly after on December 16, 1970, Chief Jerry Wilson of the Metropolitan Police Force, Washington, D.C., was reported to have said that the requirement of a college degree for appointment or advancement in the police force "is not a sensible policy for a large city police department."

His statement and the reasoning behind it crystallize the position of a large segment of law enforcement.

Police Chief Jerry V. Wilson plans to change his policy of emphasizing the hiring of college graduates, because he has found that they often find police work boring and mundane.

Wilson told a reporter yesterday that the "unconditional requirement of a college education as a prerequisite for appointment to a police force or for advancement to a higher position is not a sensible policy for a large city police department."

He said that routine police work provides "far too little challenge for an imaginative, college-trained man" and that

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\* The Washington Post, December 17, 1970, p. D-1.

less educated officers are often better suited.

The chief said that he would continue to hire college men. He will also continue encouraging those without a college education to enroll in courses in police administration provided at the University of Maryland, American University and Washington Technical Institute.

But he said he would change the department's emphasis on seeking out college graduates or favoring them for promotion.

Wilson said that traditionally a police career has been "a ladder to the middle class" and indicated that he planned to keep it that way. \*

It is obvious that college graduates who become policemen are problems and have their problems in the police world. It is equally true that policemen who enter the academic life are likely to experience difficulties in their adjustment.

The University of Wisconsin became acutely aware of this and finally succeeded in having a psychologist offer a two-credit course in sensitivity training for police officers enrolled in their program. The purpose of the course was to help the officers adapt to a somewhat hostile environment given

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\* Ibid.

the student activism on the campus. The course appeared to be quite successful up to the point that the instructor "leaked" word to the mass media of what he was doing in the course. The response from the officers involved was not favorable. They apparently felt they were seen as having personal problems unshared by persons who were not police officers.

There appears to be little argument against the position that police officers today face unique problems on the campus. Being identified as officers in the four-year programs has given more than one officer some difficulty in interacting freely with others in the student body. Some officers, according to staff at the University of Wisconsin, do not enroll in the law enforcement program but rather in other programs such as "urban affairs" or education in some part in order to avoid being identified by students as law enforcement personnel.

In sum, the requirement of the baccalaureate degree for police officers whether pre-service or in-service officers seems a remote goal and also one which will not clearly solve some of the major problems confronting law enforcement. It appears more than <sup>+</sup> the goal is one which reflects the general value placed on higher education but does not

reflect careful consideration of the utility of the requirement nor of the many latent dysfunctions associated with it.

As indicated in the discussion of the two-year programs, the four-year programs do not appear to have the same degree of support from police administrators nor to some extent from administrators in the other components of the criminal justice system as do the two-year programs. A great deal of variation exists however with respect to the size of the police departments involved and the type of administrators. The staff of the University of Wisconsin reports almost no cooperation from the Milwaukee Police Department. They attribute this to a number of reasons, perhaps the most important being that the administrators of the department see the University program as inconsistent with and subversive to the "semi-military" structure of the department. In return, the administrators of that department are seen by the university program staff as hostile to the program because police administrators believe that members of the department are using the program as a means of leaving the department.

The University of Illinois reports a similar view of their program by the administrators of the Chicago Police Department. Generally, staff in the program and other university

personnel are seen as too liberal for exposure of their men to faculty. This is most marked in the case of social scientists teaching in the programs or delivering guest lectures in the department's training programs. Even the FBI reacts this way. In November, 1970, Director J. Edgar Hoover withdrew FBI agents from John Jay College of Criminal Justice in New York City and from American University in Washington, D.C. because professors made comments that were considered derogatory or too critical of the FBI.

This is a major problem for their-service students enrolled in the Wisconsin program since they are treated with some indifference by the administrators and even with ridicule from their fellow officers and from some administrators in the major police department in the area. They report that there is more support from administrators of some of the smaller suburban departments. Where the large departments see graduates of the four-year programs expecting special privileges - which the administrators feel they cannot give due to resistance from non-graduates and their basic mistrust of such personnel - this does not appear to be the case in the smaller suburban departments, who welcome graduates even with the recognition that these graduates may not stay long with the department. These generalizations

apply more to the Illinois and Wisconsin programs since it was difficult for the new director of the Missouri program to verify these facts for his program. This problem never existed at Tarrant County Junior College.

The University of Wisconsin program reports that there exists a particular problem for in-service officers of the Milwaukee Police Department who are taking advantage of the grant program offered under LEEP of LEAA. The officers enrolled in the University's program are those who are interested in relocating in other settings but the grant program of LEEP requires that they stay with the Milwaukee program in order for the grants to be forgiven. The same problem no doubt exists for officers enrolled in other departments. From the point of view of the individual police officer this is an unfair restriction upon his freedom, but this feature of the grant was intended to help departments hold onto their more educated personnel. The question is now whether in certain departments these students are necessarily going to be effective either as change agents or simply as members of the department in view of the lack of enthusiasm for the program reported at least by the Illinois and Wisconsin program staff.



There would appear to be little in the way of pay or promotional incentives offered by the Chicago and Milwaukee police departments for participation in the four year programs in which their men are enrolled. Tenney reports on an IACP survey of police administrators conducted in 1968 in which it was found that only 4.2% of the 783 responding police agencies reported any pay increases for in-service students completing college courses. Similarly the same survey found only 8.6% of the agencies reporting a higher starting salary for college graduates. The enrollment in college courses and successful completion of individual courses likewise had an effect on an individual police officer's promotional examination in only 8.6% of the agencies.\* Less than 12% of 427 reporting departments in that survey provided preferential pay incentives for college credits toward a degree.

In support of the thesis that the two-year programs appear to be meeting with more support from police administrators, it was reported that the Milwaukee Police Department offers a small pay increment for courses taken in the two-year program but not any pay increment for courses beyond the

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\* Charles W. Tenney, Jr., Higher Education Programs in Law Enforcement (1969), p. 57.

two-year level. Whether this is because of the newness of the Wisconsin program and the prior unavailability of a Criminal Justice four-year programs, or antipathy to the four - year program is not clear.

The two-year and four-year programs all have considered internships, field service programs and the like for credit in their programs. The Wisconsin State University program described by Tenney apparently has developed an extremely broad range of possibilities along these lines. The University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee reports some success in the suburban police departments for pre-service students but there are no such arrangements with the Milwaukee Police Department. The University of Illinois reports no such arrangements with the Chicago Police Department. It also reports some difficulty in achieving any sort of field service program with the courts in Chicago. The Missouri program has not begun to develop an internship program but proposes to do so through the development of an independent study and research course which is now awaiting University approval. Of interest with regard to internships is the experience of Wisconsin in placing an in-service police officer in a juvenile court for a short internship. This experience, apparently, considerably

broadened the perspective of the officer involved who later reported a much different orientation both toward the courts and toward juveniles -- presumably a noticeable gain in his understanding of the broader issues involved in deviance and the criminal justice system. It is relevant to point to the Office of Academic Assistance of LEAA conference. About the only point on which there was some consensus both within and between the law enforcement and corrections administrators was the agreement on the necessity of any program in higher education to develop internship components for course credit.

The problem of scheduling of courses for in-service police officers in particular, due to the common practice of rotating shifts of police officers, was handled quite differently by each of the programs visited. The four-year programs appear to experience more difficulty than the two-year programs in this regard, probably due to the difference in the degree of standardization of course content. The four-year programs visited attempted to resolve the problem by working with the administrators of the major departments involved to allow their officer-students to go on to steady shifts in order to obviate the necessity for coordinating day and evening courses. The program at the University of Missouri apparently was most successful in getting the local

departments to allow the in-service students to go on to steady shifts. The University of Illinois and Wisconsin report little success in getting the administration of the Chicago and Milwaukee Police Departments to accommodate themselves to this problem.

One of the most interesting observations made by faculty interviewed at the three institutions was made at the University of Wisconsin. The relations with the police union of the Milwaukee Police Department were far superior for the program than the relations with the administration of the department. The University was working with the local officers' union to develop a proposal for the funding of a police-community relations program independent of the administration of the department.

The relations between correctional administrators and the programs visited were quite varied. The University of Missouri program had not as yet developed any relations with corrections agencies due to the heavy initial emphasis on law enforcement of the program. Its initial director was a former police officer who had been teaching in the Police Science program at Los Angeles State College and the initial advisory committee associated with that program was heavily represented by local law enforcement administrators. The new

director of the program is beginning to get into communication with corrections administrators in the area particularly in view of his proposal to develop a corrections specialty within the program. The University of Illinois developed good working relations with correctional agencies and saw no problem in their continuance. The University of Wisconsin reported what initially appeared to be a rather unique problem which may in fact be a much more significant problem for four-year programs with a generic criminal justice orientation. The field of corrections for a number of years has relied on schools of social work for its major personnel, and the Criminal Justice program has been experiencing some difficulty in gaining legitimacy for its students in the correctional field. The pattern of relying on the Masters of Social Work as the professional degree for corrections appears to obviate the legitimacy of a degree in criminal justice even though the Wisconsin program is administratively located in the School of Social Welfare.

In sum, the relations between the programs which have a generic criminal justice orientation and administrators from both the fields of law enforcement and corrections are not easily developed to the satisfaction of the administrators and the staff of the programs. To a great extent this is due not just to the nature of the programs and the

nature of administrators per se, but also to the relations existing between the criminal justice programs and the general university settings within which these programs exist. Some of the factors involved will be discussed below in the next section.

Due to the newness of these programs and to the unclear nature of the programs in the eyes of university faculty and administrators, the programs have suffered a number of problems and have had varying degrees of success in solving them. To a great extent it appears probable that the four-year programs experience many of the problems they do because they attempt to combine both professional preparation for criminal justice with courses and programs which could be considered a separate academic discipline.

Probably one of the most serious problems confronting the programs is the set of policies existing in each of the universities visited with respect to faculty recruitment and all that implies in terms of ranks, salaries and the like. The problem faced by each of the programs is to find faculty who have both the perceived necessary experience in the administration of criminal justice and the necessary academic credentials in the form of advanced degrees and publications in prestigious journals. In Tarrant County

Junior College this did not arise as a problem. Standards were lower. However, at the University of Missouri, it is a firm policy that a Ph.D. or doctorate of some sort is a necessary prerequisite to appointment at the Assistant Professor level or higher. This means that their newest appointee, who formerly was at the Assistant Professor level at Michigan State University and who has had a wide variety of experience in the field of criminal justice, had to be hired at the Instructor level.

It was reported by staff at the University of Illinois that the criminal justice program is suffering in particular with regard to gaining status for the faculty to teach in the Graduate School. Although they appear to be successfully initiating a Masters program, they are having difficulty gaining approval for most of the present criminal justice faculty to teach at the graduate level. An advisory committee made up of faculty from the university at large recommended on the eligibility of faculty to teach at the graduate level. The criminal justice staff member reporting this indicated that members of his program have this difficulty because of the newness of the campus in general, and the attempt to achieve "instant status" for the campus by using traditional academic criteria to pass on the eligibility of faculty for

graduate school status. Since no criminal justice specialists are represented on the committee there has been no way of convincing the committee of the quality of the program's faculty. The director of the program has asked that criminal justice specialists from graduate programs at other universities be consulted in this regard and his request is presently under consideration.

The three programs have experienced some degree of difficulty in gaining departmental status. The program at the University of Missouri initially gained departmental status and then had it rescinded, apparently as a consequence of a number of disagreements between the first director of the program and a faculty committee established by the Dean of the college in which it is located as an advisory committee. This committee was and is a separate committee from the initial advisory committee largely made up of practitioners in the law enforcement and criminal justice fields. The faculty committee saw the program as too much oriented toward law enforcement in a narrow technical sense and insisted on a number of revisions in the program which were not consistent with the program approved by the committee of practitioners. A somewhat unusual problem, hopefully unique, also emerged in that program. The first director was requiring a background



character check on all applicants to the program. The Dean of the college heard of this and directed that it be stopped. The first director promised but failed to do so. The present director apparently is able to live with the faculty committee but paradoxically faces pressure from the department of Sociology to make the program more law enforcement oriented and less generically oriented.

The two other programs visited have yet to achieve departmental status although the University of Illinois program expects it in the near future. At Missouri and at Wisconsin the programs are identified as "programs." At Illinois the program is designated as a "curriculum." In order to achieve departmental status the Wisconsin program visited is considering locating outside the School of Social Welfare. Members of the staff see some advantage in not being associated with the School of Social Welfare in that they feel a number of law enforcement personnel and administrators are somewhat leary of what they consider to be a social worker dominated program. However, the staff also sees an advantage in its present administrative location since so much criminal justice activity is of the "social service" variety and has little to do with law enforcement per se. Wisconsin staff also report that many of the faculty outside see the program as a "police

training" one in the narrow vocational sense and respond to it in a manner inconsistent with the goals of the program. This would appear not to be a unique problem for criminal justice programs throughout the country and again reflects the fact that many programs are somewhere between a professional preparation program and an academic discipline.

The programs visited were involved to some extent in training programs but through other means than courses offered for credit. The use of conferences, institutes and extension divisions were the major mechanisms for maintaining the academic integrity of their degree programs. At the University of Missouri the person who originally wrote the proposal for funding by OLEA has played a very active role in conducting such short courses through the extension division. He is located specifically in the extension division and offers no courses in the degree program. The staff of the Wisconsin program wants very much to be involved in this sort of activity through an extension division but the Madison campus of the University already has a well developed series of conferences and institutes for criminal justice personnel and does not seem receptive to joining forces with the staff from the Milwaukee campus in this regard.

One strategy alluded to earlier in the paper, to gain broader acceptance for the programs visited, is that of meeting

with selected faculty outside their programs to attempt to increase the relevance of courses offered by such faculty to criminal justice personnel. All three programs visited reported some success in doing so. It appears that this is a sound strategy both with regard to gaining academic legitimacy and with regard to expanding the number of courses relevant to and supportive of the programs.

In making the kinds of compromises described above within the universities in which the three programs visited were located, there seems to have resulted a number of problems regarding relations with criminal justice practitioners. Because academic and "practical" criteria for evaluating the quality of a program are often at odds with one another, some of the programs or some parts of the programs have come to be seen as alien to the realities of the administration of criminal justice by practitioners in the areas served by the three programs. All of the programs have attempted to find some middle ground in which they can satisfy both the demands of the academic community and the demands of practitioners. Given, however, the change orientation that characterized the programs visited, it can be assumed that a certain degree of tension will always exist for the programs due to their two different audiences. How they meet these

conflicts and resolve them will be probably the most interesting issues, both in abstract terms and in a very concrete set of problems to observe in the future.

As indicated earlier in this review, there existed some problems of transferability of course credits from two-year programs to four-year programs. The programs visited were keenly aware of the issue of transferability and all had taken steps to reduce the problem to manageable dimensions. Apparently this is also true of the other four-year programs on which data were available to this project. The problem is seen from an administrative point of view as one of articulation of the two and four-year programs. Most of the problem centers around credit transferability but the problem of articulation takes on different forms and different solutions.

The University of Missouri presently is basically a two-year upper division program in which the majority of students are police officers who have completed a two-year program in one of the junior colleges in the area and then transferred to the University program. While this has served to minimize the loss of credits for students going on to the Baccalaureate, it has created problems for the university program with respect to students who wish to enter the program at a later stage in their careers. It often happens

that such students, in order to successfully complete the program, are required in their senior year to spend a semester or more at the junior college level in order to pick up the courses offered by them in the division of labor between the university and the junior colleges. The present director of the Missouri program has proposed to the University that a new series of courses be instituted at the university which would parallel the courses offered now only at the junior college level. This would not exclude the junior college programs from the university but would simply allow for lower division students at the university to be involved in the program without the necessity for matriculating at one of the junior colleges participating in the program.

The University of Illinois program has treated the problem of articulation in a systematic fashion and has minimized the transferability problem through a number of written agreements with the junior colleges which make up the Chicago system and offer police science two-year program. These written materials are made available to students. Students intending to transfer later to the university program can select courses for which they will be given credit in the university program. The first director of the university program conducted a number of meetings with directors of the

two-year programs regarding which courses would be accepted as paralleling the lower division offerings of the university program.

The University of Wisconsin has not been so systematic in its approach to the problem of articulation but is aware of the problem and plans to conduct a number of meetings with administrators of two-year programs in the area. The program director wants particularly to tie in with the two-year program of Marquette University which is administered by the law school of that university. He sees a division of labor possible in which Marquette might manage many of the law-oriented courses thereby freeing the University of Wisconsin to place more of its resources in other types of courses.

In general the problem of articulation and the related problem of transferability of courses between the four-year programs visited and the two-year programs in their area seem not to be a major problem. Yet some students do lose a significant number of credits in transferring to the four-year programs and by no means has a clear division of labor developed between the two and four-year programs in any given area. Solutions, moreover, that have been found to this problem exist only at the local level. There are no arrangements that would allow a student, for example, to

transfer from a two-year program in another state and be assured that he will suffer a minimal loss of credits. This type of arrangement may emerge in the future but it seems unlikely given the somewhat provincial nature of these programs, even though substantively they may be quite broad in nature.

Given all the above activities aimed toward the identification of problems and the development of solutions to meet these problems it appears appropriate to consider what kind of placement of graduates of these programs has occurred. The question is quite difficult to answer at this point in time due to the rather small number of graduates known to this writer. Of the programs visited, the University of Wisconsin has had only three graduates and the University of Missouri only one. The programs visited for the most part have not and apparently do not particularly seek to place their graduates in police departments. Of the 25 graduates of the Illinois program, only four are known to be in law enforcement and these four were in-service students.

With regard to the program at the University of Illinois, the staff and students have developed what appears to be quite comprehensive placement service within the program. However, of the remaining 13 graduates on whom information was

available, four had continued on into graduate work in social science departments and nine had gone on to law school. The Director of the program indicated he felt many students perceived the program as a pre-law program and that he was trying to disabuse students of this notion. It appeared however that both the programs at the Universities of Illinois and Wisconsin were perceived by their faculties as "feeder" programs into graduate school.

The difficulties of placing graduates in police departments should be easily inferred from much of the preceding discussion and it is the case that even the two-year programs do not fare well at placing their pre-service students in police work. Saunders reports that one survey revealed that two-year programs participating in the survey placed less than half of their pre-service majors in law enforcement agencies.

Placement of graduates in police agencies should not be the sole criterion by which to judge the effectiveness of these programs. Given the small number of graduates and given the many forces working against placement of four-year graduates of these programs in law enforcement agencies, it is the case they have produced and are producing graduates who are familiar with the problems of the criminal justice system in this country.



While it may be small consolation to the police administrator who is seeking college graduates as candidates for police work, there still is a body of graduates of these programs who may in the future become involved in some aspect of criminal justice. These persons may not act as change agents from within law enforcement agencies but nevertheless may function, for example, in such capacities as staff on state planning agencies or as faculty in both two and four-year criminal justice or law enforcement programs.

It appears to us that the present emphasis in four-year programs should hence be on in-service police officers if the goal of having well educated police is a major goal of these programs. Tenney has taken the same position in his report to LEAA. Until the time at which police departments can create the kinds of specializations and job conditions that are rewarding to individuals holding the baccalaureate degree there seems little likelihood that the four-year programs will place many of their graduates in police departments at the entry level. The numbers of majors in these programs are increasingly rapidly and it may be that this increase in numbers may yield a larger number of graduates entering into police work. The University of Missouri anticipates an enrollment of 90 majors in the Fall

of 1970. The enrollment of the University of Illinois, Chicago Circle is 187 students and the University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee estimates its total enrollment at about 200 majors. Tarrant County Junior College has about 100 law enforcement students.

Turning finally to the future of these programs it appears that they all will continue in one form or another. The University of Illinois is active on three major fronts in expanding its program. It will shortly, the staff believes, begin a graduate program, it has received a grant from the Illinois State Planning Agency to greatly expand its criminalistics program to one it hopes to be of national stature in scope, and it is applying for substantial funds again from the Illinois S.P.A. for the development of a criminal justice research center. (It is a convenient happenstance that the present staff director of the Illinois SPA is the former director of the four-year program on the Chicago Circle campus.) This center is planned as a joint center for the involvement of both the Urbana and the Chicago branches of the University of Illinois. The proposal contains much of merit and should add a great deal to the research activities of the faculty and the involvement of students in the program in the problems of criminal justice in the state.

From the review of materials submitted to LEAA in the form of final reports, proposals or memoranda, it appears that only one four-year program has a research center in operation at the present time. Indiana University in Pennsylvania presently has in operation a "Delinquency Control Institute" which appears to have a research function as well as a training function with regard to handling of juveniles by criminal justice agencies. It is our impression that this Institute was in existence prior to the OLEA funding but apparently its activities have increased, in part, due to the funding.

Only one graduate program appears to be presently in operation among the Universities and Colleges receiving OLEA developmental grants. Memphis State University offers an M.A. in Sociology with an "emphasis" in Law Enforcement. The Universities of Wisconsin, Illinois, Mississippi and Portland State are in varying stages of preparing graduate programs. It is not unlikely that other four-year grantees plan graduate programs and it appears likely that even those without such plans will eventually develop graduate programs. In 1970 there are now 29 different graduate programs of this type.

Even without the development of research centers or graduate programs it appears that some research will be forthcoming from the four-year programs. The Director of the Missouri program is heavily involved in local demonstration projects and has students working with him to evaluate these projects. It appears unlikely that faculty from the other programs are not similarly involved in criminal justice projects in their areas since many of them are located in urban centers and increasingly police and other criminal justice agencies are turning to educational institutions to assist them in project design and evaluation. Portland State University, as part of its initial grant, conducted a study of the Portland Police Department entitled "The Portland Police Officer" which was submitted and accepted as a doctoral dissertation by the Acting Director of that program.

In summarizing the above review it seems that one can say that the Police Science Degree Development Programs were successful in extending Police Science two-year programs to areas which were in need of such programs. The fact that there was little innovative about these programs is unfortunate but the programs filled a need for at least the beginning of the involvement of higher education in police.

upgrading.

The four-year programs appear to be quite different and as stressed throughout this report developed in a variety of styles, raised a number of significant issues and appear to have undergone a shift from a narrow concern with police education to the development of generic criminal justice system education. That this shift may actually have the effect of reducing the recruitment of college graduates into police work in the foreseeable future probably was not predicted beforehand, but then the apparent antipathy of students toward police presently widely publicized in the mass media could not have been foreseen at the time of the initial funding of these programs. It remains to be seen that when these programs achieve a sizeable student population whether or not the programs will serve the function of preparing students for and placing them in police agencies.

Evaluation of Project #111

Grantee: University of Illinois at Chicago Circle.

Amount: \$11,405

Dates: January 1967 to August 1967

(Later supplemented by Grant #251: \$24,985 from  
September 1967 to August 1968)

Purpose: To establish a four-year Bachelor Degree program  
for law enforcement officers.

Summary

Superintendent O. W. Wilson of the Chicago Police Department requested a 4-year College program for policemen at the University of Illinois. A joint committee of police and Illinois U. faculty developed a four-year degree curriculum, a Bachelor of Arts in the Administration of Criminal Justice. The program would serve Chicago, the Sheriff's Department, the Illinois State police, and many smaller suburban police forces. They hoped that eventually the majority of police officers in the Chicago Area would be college graduates.

Not only would the program be open to police officers, but also it would serve as a recruiting device to attract superior police candidates, and at the same time it would give

to non-police oriented students a better understanding of police and thus improve police-community relations.

In April 1965 the program was approved by the Illinois State Board of Higher Education. The philosophy of the course was to build upon a foundation of a broadly based liberal arts education. This can be seen from a description of the program in the college bulletin.

Admission to the Administration of  
Criminal Justice Curriculum

The major may be elected by students who have been admitted to and are in good standing in the University of Illinois at Chicago Circle. The Curriculum examines the total process of criminal justice in terms of operations. It is designed for full-time undergraduate students who are interested in studying in the criminal justice field and for part-time students who may be currently employed in one of the criminal justice agencies in the Chicago area. Those interested in a career in law enforcement, corrections, probation, parole, crime prevention, criminological research on crimininalistics will find the Curriculum an appropriate developmental and educational program. The Curriculum also serves as an excellent foundation for a student who may desire to enter the legal profession, particularly if he intends to work in the criminal courts as a prosecutor, public defender, or

criminal defense attorney.

### The Four-Year Degree Program

All students enrolled in the Curriculum must satisfy both the University and the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences requirements for graduation. Study in the Curriculum will lead to a Bachelor of Arts degree after the student has successfully completed the following course work:

A. Courses that fulfill the general requirements of the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences.	68
B. Courses required in the social sciences . . .	48
C. Courses required in criminal justice . . . .	19
D. Additional criminal justice courses required to complete a major . . . . .	8
E. Courses required to complete the minor . . .	18
F. Elective courses in science, humanities, social science, and criminal justice . . . .	<u>27</u>
	188

The foregoing requirements are fulfilled by successfully completing work in these areas:

- A. Courses that fulfill the general requirements of the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences:



	Quarter Hours Credit
Rhetoric . . . . .	8
Foreign language. . . . .	24
Biological sciences . . . . .	12
Physical sciences . . . . .	12
Humanities . . . . .	12
Physical education . . . . .	<u>6*</u>
Total	68

\* Not counted toward graduation.

The student should complete his rhetoric requirement by the end of his freshman year and his physical education and foreign language requirements by the end of his junior year.

He may satisfy the foreign language requirement either by beginning a language or continuing a language he studied in high school. If he continues his high school language and is recommended for a 200-level course as a result of his score on the language placement test, he is considered to have fulfilled the language requirement; otherwise, he begins with the course recommended by the department and continued until he has passed the 106 course in the language of his choice.

In addition, he should enroll in either a biological sciences, a physical science, or a humanities course each quarter of his first three years. Once a sequence is begun in one of these areas, it should be completed in consecutive quarters without interruption.

B. Required courses in the social sciences:

		Quarter Hours Credit
Sociology 100	Introduction to Sociology	4
Sociology 131	Social Problems	4
Sociology 225	Racial and Cultural Minorities	4
Sociology 276	Sociology of the City	4
Political Science 150	American Government Basic Principles	4
Political Science 151	American Government Organization and Powers	4
Political Science 205	Municipal Government and Administration	4
Psychology 100	Introduction to Psychology	4
Psychology 110	Psychology of Adjustment	4
Sociology 185	Statistics, 4 hours	
OR		
Psychology 243	Statistics, 5 hours	<u>4-5</u>
Total		40-41

C. Required courses in criminal justice:

Criminal Justice		
251	Foundations of Criminal Justice	4
Criminal Justice 252	The Administration of Criminal Justice	4
Criminal Justice 351	- Criminal Law I	4
Criminal Justice 252	- Criminal Law II	4
Criminal Justice 353	- Criminal Law III	<u>3</u>
Total		19

- D. Required additional criminal justice courses to complete the major: At least eight additional hours from the following courses. If only eight hours are taken, they should be in one of the four areas.

Quarter Hours  
Credit

1. Law Enforcement

Criminal Justice 257	Development of Police Systems in Society	4
Criminal Justice 258	Police Administration	4
Criminal Justice 259	Principles of Investigation	4

2. Criminology

Sociology 331	Criminology	4
Sociology 332	Juvenile Delinquency	4
Sociology 335	Organized Crime in the United States	4

3. Science and Technology

Criminal Justice 310	Criminalistics	4
Criminal Justice 312	Forensic Science	4
Criminal Justice 320	Information and Communication Systems	4

4. Corrections

Sociology 337	Probation, Pardon and Parole	4
Criminal Justice 339	Institutional Treatment of Offenders	4
Criminal Justice 345	Community Treatment of Offenders	4

## 5. Criminal Justice Electives

Criminal Justice 350	Role of Law Enforcement in Community Relations	4
Criminal Justice 354	Evidence	4
Criminal Justice 360	Industrial and Commercial Security Administration	4
Criminal Justice 391	Seminar in Criminal Justice	4
Criminal Justice 399	Independent Study	4

- E. The Minor: The student must complete a minor, eighteen hours taken in one field or twenty-four in two. If he chooses to split his minor by taking it in two different fields, he must take a minimum of eight hours in one.

18-24 hours

- F. Electives in physical or biological sciences, foreign language, English, literature, rhetoric, psychology, political science, sociology, anthropology, philosophy, criminal justice, history, geography, speech, mathematics. Here the student has an opportunity to broaden his education in a particular area or to specialize in a field that he finds attractive.

27 hours

The faculty originally consisted of an associate professor and an assistant professor (part time). The college committed itself to raising the faculty to 8 1/3 members by 1969-70.

The program also sponsored seminars and workshops on pre-trial release, and fair trial and free press.

They have developed a satisfactory counseling service.

And the University of Illinois has taken the lead in establishing

liaison with community colleges who plan to introduce law enforcement programs.

At the time of the final report there were 146 majors in the Administration of Justice program.

Both Joseph Lohman of the University of California at Berkeley and A. F. Brandstatter of Michigan State University evaluated this program and made a very favorable critique.

#### Evaluation

This program is one of the better police science programs. It has a clear philosophy -- liberal education for police. The course content is substantial and requires concentrated work from the students. The bibliographies are scholarly and there is a realization that the program covers the whole criminal justice system rather than a small part of it.

The student counseling is successful in placing its students in related courses in other disciplines that provide feedback to the administration of criminal justice.

One of the problems is that the Chicago Police Department, from which the program draws many of its students, is beginning to have second thoughts about sending its members to University of Illinois. The degree program is too

successful in motivating its students to move on to second careers and leave the Chicago Police Department. The smaller suburban departments seem much more sympathetic to this program. This latent hostility on the part of the Chicago Police Department shows itself in the absence of any pre-service student internship program. The department will not encourage the college to send its students as interns.

The director is presently working up a proposal for a Masters program but his problem is the generic one of attaining academic status among the other disciplines. This means that the undergraduate faculty in the criminal justice program will not be permitted to teach on the graduate level, probably because they lack the doctoral degree.

Evaluation of Project #166

Grantee: University of Missouri

Amount: \$14,852

Dates: May 1967 to April 1968

(Later supplemented by Grant #344: \$21,482 from May 1968 to April 1969).

Purpose: To develop a four-year police science degree program.

Summary

Eugene C. Schwartz was the first coordinator of this police science program. In its development he worked closely with an advisory committee composed of faculty from the University of Missouri and leading representatives of law enforcement. As with so many other OLEA funded police science programs, Mr. Thompson Crockett of the IACP and Mr. James Stinchcomb, the representative of the American Association of Junior Colleges were important consultants who did much to shape the University of Missouri program.

They decided upon a law enforcement curriculum of 30 to 45 <sup>a</sup> credits within a B.S. degree program of 123 credits.

The law enforcement core that would be required of students was

24 credits consisting of the following courses:

Introduction to Law Enforcement	3 credits
Police Organization and Administration	6 credits
Law and Legal Aspects	6 credits
Criminal Investigation	6 credits
Criminal and Delinquent Behavior	3 credits

The balance of the B.S. degree would emphasize social and behavioral sciences.

The recommended curriculum for the Bachelor of Science Degree was:

General courses such as humanities, foreign language, science, mathematics and social science -- 55 credits.

Administration of justice courses -- 33 credits

Electives in political science, psychology and sociology -- 32 credits.

Mathematics elective in fundamentals of computer programming -- 3 credits.

Total: 123 credits

#### Evaluation

It is indicative of the high valuation the directors of this Administration of Justice program place upon it, that they will accept only 18 law enforcement credits



toward the B.S. degree when an applicant transfers from a junior college. Some of the junior college police science 2-year degree programs contain as many as 30-40 law enforcement credits, most of which are lost upon transfer to University of Missouri.

An innovative development is the emphasis on planning and research. This program relies heavily on statistics and computer technology courses.

There are some important plans for the future in the form of proposed specialization in 1) The American Policing System, 2) The etiology of Criminal and Delinquent Behavior, 3) Treatment of offenders, and 4) Criminal justice planning.

Originally this program had departmental status but had it rescinded by a faculty committee because it was too heavily and narrowly law-enforcement oriented. The police orientation was so excessive that the first director of the program required a background character check on all applicants to the program. This was soon stopped as it should have been, when the college administration heard of it.

This is basically an upper-division two-year program in which the majority of officers are men who have completed a two-year program at a junior college and transferred to the University of Missouri.

Evaluation of Project #203

Grantee: The University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee Campus  
Amount: \$14,960  
Dates: September 1967 to June 1968  
Purpose: To develop a four-year police science degree program.

Summary

The University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee Campus, received grant 203 in September, 1967, but did not start its program until 1968. An ad hoc committee was appointed by the Chancellor of the University in the Fall of 1968 and a baccalaureate program in Criminal Justice was developed out of the ruminations of the committee. In March, 1969, the faculty of the School of Social Welfare approved the degree program and subsequently a number of committees approved the program until the ultimate approval for the program was received in the summer of 1969 from the Wisconsin Coordinating Council on Higher Education.

At the time of the site visit the Wisconsin University program had a faculty of two full time and two part time members. The initial coordinator of the program, Carl W.

Hamm, left the program in January of 1970 and subsequently Mr. Robert Stonek, J.D., was appointed acting director. A political scientists, Dr. Beverly Cook, is the other full time person. A police chief from the suburban city of Wauwatosa who is working on an M.S. in political science and who has a B.S. from the School of Criminal Justice at Michigan State University teaches part time in the program. The other part time instructor is employed by the Wisconsin Department of Health and Social Services and has a background in corrections, having been a regional director of probation and parole in Wisconsin.

Enrollment in the program in the fall semester of 1969 was 92 students. They projected an enrollment for the spring semester of 1970 of 115 students. The faculty of the program at the time of the report apparently felt their greatest substantive deficiency to be in the corrections field and they were interested in expanding their offerings as soon as possible in that area.

The general program is described as a "broad program centering on the behavioral sciences with special emphasis on specific program development for the law enforcement officer..." They also indicate the program should be of interest to "other

categories of criminal justice personnel." They claim to offer a wide range of electives which can serve the broad needs of criminal justice education. The program was also seen as a good preparation for graduate work in a number of fields other than criminal justice: law, social welfare, urban affairs, public administration, urban planning, public safety and private security.

The report is critical of educational programs which are, in the words of the report, training programs which "...aim at the reform of services by producing either technicians of direct service or administrators of service systems." What the program hopes to achieve instead is an "...academically oriented program which borrows eclectically from the broad spectrum of the humanities and social sciences with special career oriented knowledge which can have specific application within the urban context of today and tomorrow."

In general the report indicates that the program is attempting to produce "change agents" who are keenly aware of the existing major problems in criminal justice. They also stress the fact that the program aims at producing graduates who are familiar with all facets and agencies of criminal justice. This is defended by pointing to the

provincialism of practitioners within each of the individual types of agencies involved in the criminal justice system.

Five courses were reported as being offered: Field of Criminal Justice (a survey of criminal justice agencies, functions, policies, etc. with an emphasis on problems in criminal justice); Urban Judicial Process (a course focusing on criminal courts and their personnel and processes but also on some civil type cases which have some relevance to the service function of law enforcement personnel); Correctional Services (a survey course in corrections seen as a matter of "social welfare" -- some emphasis is given in the course to the interaction of correctional agencies with other agencies); Police Organization and Management (survey of present day use of management strategies in police work with emphasis on possible alternatives "necessary for a dynamic and viable organization in a changing society"); Methods of Social Welfare Research (this course was to be taken by majors until the program developed its own research course. The course appeared to be oriented toward program design and evaluation.)

The report concludes that the program has received support from almost all police departments. (It neglects to mention that the Milwaukee P.D. has not supported it but

might even be characterized as having its administrators hostile to the program.) Even so, the City appointed a Police Education Study Committee which made a number of recommendations to the program basically following the prescriptions for the education of police contained in the President's Crime Commission major report. The committee was all for college educated police and recommended that college degrees should be a requirement for promotion to supervisory positions in the Milwaukee P.D. at some future time, i.e., January 1981. (They also recommended the use of lateral entry into specialist positions. A number of other recommendations were made which were not related to the University.)

Students were expected later (after the report was written) to complete twenty hours of criminal justice and thirty hours of related social science courses such as criminology and deviant behavior. Subsequent to the report also, a new course entitled Field Observation was instituted which allowed for the placement of students in various law enforcement agencies in the metropolitan area of Milwaukee.

#### Evaluation

All in all, the program appears to have noble aspirations. As in the case of many such programs, the heads of

these programs seem to turn over rather quickly and some problems of continuity are generated. As in the case of many other four-year programs it has not received the same support from the major local police department and does not appear likely to gain such support in the near future.

It seems to be too successful in "disaffecting" its police students away from traditional police values. Thus, the Milwaukee Police Department sees the college program as a threat. The program introduces its students to other disciplines such as sociology and social welfare and these seem to have a powerful impact.

This program was one of the few whose counseling service was more than a makeshift beginning. They assigned a psychologist to offer a two-credit course in sensitivity training for police officers. This helps the police officers adapt to the somewhat hostile environment.

There is a fairly successful intern program for pre-service students, but only in the smaller suburban departments, not in the Milwaukee Police Department.

In order to achieve departmental status the program is considering working outside the control of the School of Social Welfare where it is presently located.

Evaluation of Project #121

Grantee: Tarrant County Junior College, Fort Worth, Texas  
Amount: \$14,444  
Dates: February 1967 to December 1967

(This project was later supplemented by Grant #297:  
\$22,500 from December 1967 to December 1968)

Purpose: To develop a two-year police science degree  
program; design curriculum; and secure community  
and law enforcement support.

Summary

The project set forth the following 12 objectives:

1. To identify areas of need in law enforcement  
program development and establish priorities.
2. To stimulate an interest in the law enforce-  
ment education program within the industrial  
agencies and governmental institutions of the  
college district.
3. To open and maintain channels of communication  
between community law enforcement leaders and  
the college staff.



4. To coordinate the efforts of community law enforcement leaders and the college in areas of program development for law enforcement education.
5. To establish a flexible and lasting Law Enforcement Program which will meet the area's changing needs.
6. To identify those individuals who will competently serve as members of a Law Enforcement Advisory Committee.
7. To select and develop adequate evaluative devices to aid in the identification of students' aptitudes.
8. To establish a core of qualified technical counselors.
9. To apply the coordinative effort of counselors, evaluative devices, and law enforcement agencies to ~~de~~<sup>d</sup>etermine students' aptitudes and guide them into areas in which some degree of success can be attained.
10. To collect and catalog data for purposes of planning and publication.

11. To develop a Law Enforcement Program which will provide formal training in the functions of the many areas of a law enforcement agency.
12. To instill in law enforcement students a desire to continue their studies in general education beyond the two-year program (and thereby develop a broad view of society.)\*

Most of the objectives seem to have been accomplished.

(Whether the twelfth objective was fully realized was unknown for sure although there were, in fact, some instances of police officers continuing on in school beyond the two year college.)

The ways in which certain of the primary objectives were realized are of special interest. The development of the instructional program relied heavily on the advice of Mr. James D. Stinchcomb who has developed a model police science curriculum for the American Association of Junior Colleges. This curriculum is presented below as Figure 1.

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\* Jimmie C. Styles et al., Tarrant County Junior College Law Enforcement Program: Final Report, (Fort Worth, Texas: Tarrant County Junior College), pp. 3 and 4.

A comparison of it with the curriculum developed by Tarrant County (Figure 2) reveals the substantial influence of Mr. Stinchcomb on the Tarrant County curriculum development.

Figure 1

Suggested Balanced Law Enforcement Curriculum

## First Year

First Term		Second Term	
English	3	English	3
Psychology, Introduction	3	National Government	3
State and Local		Sociology, introduction	3
Government	3	Police operations	3
Introduction to Law		Police Role in Crime	
Enforcement	3	and Delinquency	3
Police Administration	3	Physical education*	<u>1</u>
Physical Education*	<u>1</u>		
	16		16

## Second Year

Third Term		Fourth Term	
Humanities	3	Adolescent Psychology	
Criminal Law	3	or Social Problems	3
Mathematics	3	Logic	3
Criminal Investigation	3	Criminal Evidence	
Public Speaking	3	and Procedure	3
Physical Education*	<u>1</u>	Introduction to	
		Criminalistics	3
		Elective	3
		Physical Education*	<u>1</u>
	16		16

Source: Thompson S. Crockett and James D. Stinchcomb, Guidelines for Law Enforcement Education Programs in Community and Junior Colleges, (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1968), p. 18.

Figure 2

Law Enforcement Suggested Curriculum

## First Year

First SemesterSem. Hrs.

Applied Communications	3
Applied Algebra	3
Introduction to Law Enforcement	3
Police Administration	3
American Government	3
Physical Education	1
Technology Orientation I	1
	<u>17</u>

Second Semester

Applied Communications	3
Patrol Operations	3
Juvenile Control	3
Elements of Physics	3
American Government	3
Physical Education	1
	<u>16</u>

## Second Year

First Semester

General Psychology	3
Criminal Law	3
Criminal Investigation	3
Introduction to Sociology	3
Fundamentals of Speech	3
Physical Education	1
	<u>16</u>

Second Semester

Traffic Planning and Management	3
Police Internship	3
Criminal Evidence and Court Procedure	3
Elective	6
Physical Education	1
Technology Orientation II	1
	<u>17</u>

Source: Styles, op. cit., p. 16, Fig.1.

It should be noted that out of 66 semester hours in the Tarrant County program, 55 of them were based on Stinchcomb's model curriculum. The similarity goes beyond the titles of the courses suggested. The content of the courses are virtually the same. All this is to suggest that Tarrant County really did not "develop" a curriculum but "adopted" one. It is interesting to note, however, that the Tarrant County people feel that they developed the curriculum and pride themselves on that fact that other junior colleges have been adopting it intact. It would be of further interest to know if these junior colleges also feel they have "developed" their curricula.

The course, Introduction to Law Enforcement, "surveys police problems; crime trends and statistics; organization and jurisdiction and professional opportunities." It does not state that it gives a view of the relation of the police to the judicial and correctional functions, nor do any of the other specifically law enforcement courses attempt to do this.

Tarrant County did develop on their own the good-will and support of the business, legal and political communities for the law enforcement program. This was done in part through the wise use of an advisory council composed of

leading law enforcement officials. Also, the project director personally cultivated the friendships and interest of many civic and business leaders.

The law enforcement part of the law enforcement curriculum is notable for its narrow focus on the police function to the exclusion of attention to the functions of the other subsystems of the system of criminal justice. Also, that focus is distorted even further by a disproportionate emphasis on the mechanical and security aspects of the police function and a comparative neglect of the social and discretionary aspects of the function. In referring to a lack of "proportion" in the curriculum, we have in mind that the average policeman spend his working time performing "social service" functions rather than crime prevention activities in the great majority of his duties.

The curriculum, however, has been made flexible (thereby, more attractive to police officers) by special scheduling arrangements for class hours. The classes would be held at different times on different months to accommodate changes in the police students work schedules.

To determine whether the program was meeting the needs of the local law enforcement community, the project director had his Advisory Committee and other consultants

participate in the "development" of the curriculum. He also surveyed the students after one year in the program and found that 77% (of 90 enrollees) felt that the law enforcement program had been "of great value" while 8% felt it was "of some value" and 1% found it to be "of little value."

### Evaluation

Tarrant had its own interpretation of the grant. According to the report (which was very well written) the general purpose of this project was "to investigate, plan, develop, and implement a high quality technical program in the law enforcement field which would meet the educational needs of law enforcement agencies of Tarrant County.\*

The junior college, because of its special orientation to the local community rather than to the state, national, and international communities, is especially suited to educate law enforcement officials and to provide other means for improving criminal justice in the community. In addition to teaching college courses, the junior college is in an excellent position to offer the facilities and necessary

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\* Tarrant County Junior College Law Enforcement Program:  
Final Report, p. 3.

**CONTINUED**

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administrative capacity to conduct short-term seminars, training courses, and special meetings. The question of what subject matter police science programs should teach will continue to remain unresolved until rigorous research findings regarding the influence of different educational programs upon the attitudes and behavior of the people who are subjected to them, and in turn the effect of these educated personnel upon the operation of the agencies they staff, are available. These are researchable questions which should be the central foci of some well designed studies. They will never be answered satisfactorily by compiling volumes of testimonials from students and officials to the effect that a particular course or program or professor has been a great benefit to law enforcement.

While the effects on the system of criminal justice of different curricula remains unclear, it is clear that the mere bringing together of policemen from local police departments in a police science course does aid the local criminal justice system by reducing the isolation of the police. The classroom acts as a neutral meeting ground where members of different police forces and of different agencies such as probation officers and prosecutors exchange information and develop relationships which are helpful to the system

but are usually prevented from developing due to the compartmentalized nature of the system. It also provides them with social contacts with students not associated with the system of criminal justice.

#### Taking the Police Out of Isolation

The Tarrant County Junior College Program (TCJCP) has shown that the social, academic, and organizational isolation of the police can be reduced, but to achieve this to the extent achieved by TCJC requires a large initial investment of man-hours devoted to developing the trust and endorsement of the local political, law enforcement, judicial, civic and business leaders. Once established these ties must be continually reinforced. (This kind of relationship with the community can perhaps best be achieved and sustained by a community college). TCJC bridged the gap between the academic and police worlds so effectively that TCJC representatives were given permission by one local police chief to carry on a daily recruitment program in the police locker room. Part of the success here can be attributed to the hiring of a former deputy chief of a local police department as a faculty member and to TCJC's care in not duplicating the local police academy's efforts.

Another key to the success was that TCJC took great pains to accommodate the monthly changes in working hours of its police students. However, this convenience can also be a detriment. It could produce a "sheltered shop" group of courses which non-police students would not enroll in because of the inconvenience to them of the constantly changing hours. This possibility apparently did not materialize at TCJC, however. There has been a growing interest among the non-police students in the police science courses. Police and law students have been brought together in classes and some mutual appreciation of each other's beliefs seems to have developed. Providing this opportunity for communication between police and students must be regarded as one of the major values of this type of program. For this reason special arrangements (such as the rotation of class schedules to accommodate the change of duty hours) which might discourage non-police students from enrolling in police science courses should be avoided. For the same reason programs such as those in junior colleges which provide for the intermingling of police and non-police students are preferable to police academy programs, which by necessity perpetuate police isolation.

Another type of isolation -- that between the policeman within and between various police departments, and between the police and other agents of the system of criminal justice such as judges, prosecutors, and probation officers -- has been reduced by TCJC's program. Certain courses are taught not by policemen but by local prosecutors and judges. This provides the police students with an opportunity to communicate with other members of the system of criminal justice in a way that is nowhere provided for by the system itself.

#### Promotional Exams and Academic Integrity

There was no direct monetary incentive for police officers to attend the program. However, it was found that officers who had gone through the program were much more likely to pass promotional exams than officers who had not. In fact, TCJC now espouses this as one of its goals, i.e., to help officers pass promotional exams. This development could lead to a disaster. If this became the primary objective of the program then the college would in effect be giving control of its subject matter to whomever writes the promotional exams. Also, it could happen that although the program administrators did not make departmental promotions their primary goal, the police students with their characteristic

pragmatism could make this their major, albeit unofficial, criterion of the "success" and "value" of the program.

At the moment TCJC officials report that the promotional exams favor officers with "academic" skills over those with only practical experience.\* However, this could change.

#### The Question of Curriculum

The personnel on this project are cognizant of the issues involved in police education. However, they did not attempt to resolve them. Their purpose was to establish a training program, not to demonstrate that one philosophy of police education was better than another.

The Tarrant County Junior College Program (TCJCP) tried to walk the thin line of designing courses that would satisfy the conflicting demands that are placed on any law enforcement program situated in an academic institution. The police students want course work that is "practical", i.e., material that will help them be "better" officers and help them pass promotional examinations.

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\* It would be an interesting study of current police standards to examine a sample of promotional exams for their "practical" vs. "theoretical" content.

Conflicting with the police student's demand for relevance is the police academy's demand that its program of very relevant, how-to-do type instruction, not be duplicated by the colleges.

Also conflicting is the academic demand that the college not become a vocational school, that it teach courses with general and abstract interest. A corollary problem is the problem of transference of junior college credits to senior colleges. While police students want relevant course material many of them also want to continue in school beyond an A.A. degree. But, in transferring to a senior college they stand to lose much -- if not most -- of the junior college credit if the latter's courses have been too vocationally oriented.

Within the colleges there is the demand that these law enforcement programs not encroach on the work of other disciplines working in related fields such as the sociology and psychology of deviance.

Aside from these practical matters there is the more abstract issue of what would be the best type of education for the policeman, vocational, academic, or none. Behind this issue lies many research unknowns (such as the influence of different types of educational experiences on attitudes and behavior; the influence of the social organization of the police

on police attitudes and behavior; the impact of training programs on police social organizations) as well as ideological differences over the proper role of the policeman in society. Until some research data on these unknowns has been provided all discussion - of the relative merits of different types of education for the police will be mere exchanges of opinions. This does not make these discussions worthless -- only endless.

## IIA

## Law Enforcement Operations Improvement

Summary Findings

1. OLEA lacked a coherent plan of operations improvement largely because it did not have an integrated concept of the criminal justice system nor a clear definition of the roles of the separate agencies. OLEA never planned for the effect of the change in one agency upon other agencies of criminal justice. It was responding to political pressure and vociferous demands of police agencies rather than to an objective well-thought-out policy.
2. The operations improvement projects were scattered and unconnected. There was little carry-over from one to the other.
3. They neglected the human element. There were no grants to improve motivation, ethics, or morale.
4. OLEA failed to devote enough attention to improvements of methods for preventing and responding to riots, campus disorders, narcotics addiction, and juvenile delinquency.
5. OLEA should have funded more science projects.
6. Its policy of encouraging action rather than research



grants resulted in a serious imbalance. A far greater portion of the OLEA funds should have been expended on theory and research.

7. OLEA's evaluation program had weaknesses like most other federal grant agencies.
8. OLEA computer projects were expensive--three times the cost of the average grant. They should have been evaluated and screened by consultant experts before they were funded.
9. Computer projects tended to exhibit a machine approach to human engineering that failed to consider the problems that would arise among members of the force.
10. The best computer projects should have been used as models for others rather than allowing new projects to start from scratch.

Evaluation of the OLEA Law Enforcement Operations Improvement Program

A recurrent theme of our evaluation is that OLEA lacked an integrating plan of criminal justice or the concept of the various roles of each of the three main institutions-- law enforcement, courts, and corrections.

In the absence of that unifying scheme, operations improvement had to be a series of sporadic "happenings" rather than part of a comprehensive pattern moving toward a logical goal.

Not only was the philosophy missing, but also the methods were haphazard. Rarely was there a follow-up, a repetition of a successful project in another agency under modified conditions developed from the cumulative experience of the original project. Replication tended to sink into mere repetition when it existed at all. Usually it emanated from a paucity of original ideas rather than a rational extension of a continuing research design. Apparently this also seemed to be the case in police science degree grants, in police-community relations grants, and in computer grants. At best a preliminary survey or visit to other jurisdictions was undertaken to gather some ideas. Occasionally, and especially in police science degree projects, and to a lesser degree in police-community relations projects, the same consultants were used over and over.

There were a few notable exceptions. The Cincinnati Police Juvenile Attitude, Grant #52, was successful, and as a result it was expanded to five other test cities (Key City Project #313). But it was not classified as an operations improvement project.

When the St. Louis Police Department Computer Grant #39 demonstrated that it could improve patrol strategies, several other computer projects sensibly borrowed the innovative conceptual tool known as the Pauly Area.

Another example of a sensible replication was the Harvard Law School Student Prosecutor Project #85 funded in October 1966. When this appeared to be a promising innovation a similar grant (#102) was awarded to Boston University Law School several months later in January 1967.

Despite these all too few exceptions, the general failure to follow up on operations improvement resulted in discontinuities leading to the quiet death of potentially valuable efforts.

OLEA has been accused of being too ready to solve problems by "buying" new equipment. There is no real support for this accusation in its operations improvement programs. Fewer than 20 of the 78 projects in this category called for the addition of equipment, and of that 20, at least one-half

were computer equipment projects.

But if OLEA was blameless there, it fell prey to an equally pervasive bias of the "computer age." Among the operations improvement projects was an important class of 10 to 15 projects that may be called operations research or systems analysis. They were almost three times more costly on the average than the typical OLEA grant because they required expensive computer equipment.

Frequently the proposals were written by research organizations that were essentially engineering companies turning from waning space and defense cornucopias to a promising new field of operations where a toehold could lead to attractive opportunities for rewards--both scientific and financial. Thus a new philosophy has been grafted onto the body of law enforcement, a philosophy that is built around engineering and mechanistic solutions to what are essentially human problems.

A glaring example of the fallacy of "human engineering" is Grant #236 to the Detroit Police Department. Its fascination with operations research blinded them to the realization that policemen are people.

The assumption underlying the engineering approach to any problem is that the problem and its solution are basically "mechanical." The ideal of the smoothly running,

efficiently operating machine with maximum output for minimum input lurks in the not-too-distant recesses of the typical engineer's mind. When he tackles a problem his purpose is to reduce the redundancies, the "noise," the inefficiencies, and to develop a method for achieving a goal with the least expenditure of time, effort and money.

(Of course, as an entrepreneur, these goals are affected by the profit motive.)

When the problem which he is asked to solve involves human behavior, he characteristically proceeds on the assumption that human problems are virtually no different from mechanical ones. To understand his view of human behavior it is perhaps helpful to examine some of the latent implications of two very popular household terms used today that have been given to us by the engineers: "hardware" and "software," and these are especially prominent in computer projects. Although these terms have specific denotations used in technical reports, they have come to enjoy broader connotations which roughly refer to the difference between physical-mechanical and, strictly speaking, "engineering" matters, on the one hand, and human or social problems on the other. The distinction here is the not-very-subtle implication that while physical-mechanical matters are "hard," rigid and

unyielding, social matters are "soft," pliable, malleable, flexible, and adaptable. It is highly unlikely that this particular metaphor--hardness and softness--was accidentally chosen.

The choice seems to be an unwittingly accurate first step in an appraisal of what is involved in the engineer's assumption that the human element in a problem can be regarded as simply an extension of the basically mechanical problem. The engineer feels comfortable with this assumption because of an occupation-wide misunderstanding about the strength, rigidity, and inflexibility of social forces. The engineer can be unconcerned with the interface between his hardware and the people or societies who are affected by it because he has been led to believe that the human component in the system is rather like a plastic that can be moulded into a grip around the handle of the machine. It is assumed that the social group hosting the hardware can adapt to the machinery--although lip-service is sometimes paid to the possibility that it will not adapt. The latter possibility, however, is not seen as the engineer's problem--which is quite correct when the engineer is thinking qua engineer. This was borne out by the response of the computer project directors to the questionnaire. It will be remembered

that not one admitted the possibility of alienation as a result of the introduction of computers into police departments. But, to use their own language of systems analysis, "it is not correct in terms of the demands of the system." Where human problems are involved, systems analysis will not begin to be able to do what it claims it can do--take into account all of the relevant forces within a unit of analysis--until the engineer is given an appreciation of social forces.

This is both a recommendation that engineers be required to have at least a minimal introduction to the sociological and psychological sciences, and that engineers be assisted by social scientists on all projects involving criminal justice systems. Demonstration projects that only propose to show that the engineering hardware works and that it can be applied to problems in the criminal justice system pointlessly belabor the obvious. They are "dangerous in that they mislead the unsuspecting client. Such projects that do not point out the social implications or do not seem to be aware of them must be regarded with caution. No such project should be funded without provision for an examination of its impact on the social system in which it works. For example, OLEA Grant #050 (City of Phoenix,

LEADS Project, Police Records and Data Systems Study) proposed to develop a communication system coupled with a rapid information storage and retrieval system. (This technology was feasible before the project began). It further proposed to apply this system to police records and police information. (The possibility of making such an application was also known prior to the study.)

The LEADS project's overall purpose was "to make the field officer more effective through improved information."\* But human efficiency is a whole lot more than an engineering issue! It is a psychological and a sociological issue. Yet, this point goes completely unnoticed by the authors of the study. The engineer's plasticity assumption about social behavior is clearly at work. It is assumed that police efficiency is a function of the speed of communication, and that the only thing keeping the police from doing more than they do is a slow communications technology. If, with better engineering the policeman can get information on a suspect in one-third the time, he can be three times more efficient; this belief is obviously false.

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\*OLEA Grant #50 Summary Report: LEADS Project: Police Records and Data System Study (City of Phoenix, Arizona in collaboration with Griffenhagen-Kroeger, Inc. Unpublished report to OLEA), p. 3.



The view of man as an adjunct to a machine could not be clearer. The possibility that informal work norms exist among policemen, that there may be a shared sense of what constitutes a legitimate day's work that would put a ceiling on police efficiency no matter how rapid the communication system, is nowhere even discussed. This omission is serious enough at the level of an individual project but when it is made at the administrative level of OLEA itself, it is much more serious. It is regrettable that while hardware projects billed as improving police efficiency were spread about even though some were mere duplicates, not even one project examined that issue within a methodology appropriate to it--a sociological or psychological methodology. This, of course, results from the "passive," catch-as-catch-can style of direction OLEA has chosen to exercise over the study of problems in the system of criminal justice.

More than half of the OLEA computer-operations improvement projects were illustrative of this "mechanistic fallacy."

Because its research design included a carefully drawn plan to accommodate the human factor, the Resource Allocation Project of the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Force

(Grant #39) stands out. It conspicuously avoided the defect of dehumanization. It provided for a prior training program and a questionnaire study of the attitudes of the force before and after the implementation of the program. Perhaps this is why it was the most successful of the computer projects.

Although OLEA was willing to fund operations research, systems analysis, and the "human engineering" projects, they failed to give enough attention to improving the human element. Where are the projects to improve motivation, to improve ethics, or to improve the lawful use of discretion for members of law enforcement agencies?

Fortunately, the Women's Liberation Movement never zeroed in on OLEA. Not one project under Operations Improvement improved the performance or the lot of the police-woman. A great source of talent is lying fallow.

OLEA did however sponsor innumerable seminars and workshops on other topics in which the content was trivial and repetitious.

The greatest fault with the Operations Improvement package is the almost complete absence of true research projects—projects that tested hypotheses, projects that questioned

basic assumptions of law enforcement and criminal justice rather than taking them as fixed and immutable.

Instead, we find projects to produce handbooks that were read once, if at all, and forgotten; projects to standardize police forms; projects to put flashlights and nightsticks in the center, rather than behind or to the left of police officers in radio cars; and projects to paint cars green, yellow, or blue, as if this type of operations improvement mattered.

There were other gaps in the OLEA Operations Improvement Program. Science, as we popularly conceive it, did not receive sufficient attention. Perhaps seven or eight projects were funded for scientific research. The one that produced the best results was a massive survey by the Institute of Defense Analyses--Projects 66-7 and 68-38, costing \$652,000--to study the potential application of science and technology to law enforcement and criminal justice. This was published as the Task Force Report: Science and Technology by the President's Crime Commission; and has served as a "bible" since.

As a result of Project #68-35 to ITT Research Institute there was a symposium and some good technical papers were

presented. Unfortunately there was no scientific fall-out --no impact. OLEA did sponsor Project #13 which was a survey of crime laboratories. Three authentic scientific projects are: tests of spark source mass spectrometry and neutron activation analysis in Grants #154 and #67-13, and an analysis of accelerants in fire remains in Project #10. Significantly, the relative merits of spark source mass spectrometry and neutron activation were not innovative as the data had already been published in learned journals.

Another defect was the failure to do anything that might improve the police response to the problems of illegal narcotics traffic and drug addiction. Only two projects are somewhat related to drugs. One was project #201 to train correctional personnel, not police, to handle narcotics addicts in prison more sensibly. The other was the study by Arthur D. Little Research Corporation of the illicit traffic in dangerous drugs (Project #66-10 supplemented by #67-12).

There should have been many studies and demonstration projects to help improve law enforcement efforts in response to narcotics.

One of the most calamitous weaknesses was the neglect of research studies and training projects relating to civil

disorders. Of the 426 awards, about six projects could be said to focus on this serious problem. Project 68-39 was a miniscule study of the authority of governors and mayors to take action in case of civil disorder. It added nothing to our knowledge. Project #67-26 was devoted to the publication of a riot manual that repeated sociological material and army tactics that were well known to most police departments and usually observed in the breach. Project #68-37 to the IACP was a sensible training program that was finally funded for the last six months of OLEA's existence. It is really the only one that OLEA can point to in self-defense as an intelligent response to a national problem faced by law enforcement. Hardly anything was done to help the police in relation to college campus demonstrations and absolutely nothing was done to assist the campus police forces.

Analysis of Questionnaire Data--Police Operations Improvement

Only 14 police operations improvement questionnaires were returned of the 78 we sent, so they cannot be considered truly representative. They covered the following general areas: manuals and handbooks (4), communications (3), reduction of police response time (2), use of T.V. (2), science (1), records (1), helicopter patrol (1).

The results of the programs were somewhat different from that planned originally. For example, item 24 sought to determine the point of greatest impact and the following pattern obtained: police mobility (2), police-community relations (2), attitude of policemen (1), command control and supervision (4), training (2), crime prevention (3), evidence identification (1).

Not all of these improvements were adaptable for general use by all departments. Only 7 respondents considered their operations improvement to be so adaptable.

The criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of the operation improvement projects were rarely spelled out clearly, nor were they valid in most cases. The standards employed were too general, too indirect, and subject to many interpretations. For example, they involved: public acceptance, implementation, statistical data, results, crime statistics,

court acceptance and clearance by arrest, etc. Constantly, we are reminded that valid criteria for evaluation are very difficult to formulate.

Projects Chosen for Intensive Review

Together with our consultants we screened out many of the operations improvement projects for the reasons set forth in the discussion above.

We selected for intensive study the following projects, all of which were classified by OLEA as Operations Improvement grants. Their very diversity lends weight to the opinion that OLEA did not develop a coherent plan in this area, but was operating on a hit or miss basis. However, each one had some quality to raise it above the level of those which were not chosen.

Project #22, called Sky Knight--the helicopter patrol project--was our first choice. It had attracted national interest. OLEA was very proud of it. It promised to be a definite breakthrough in patrol methods. We considered it important enough to send the following team of consultants to Los Angeles: Dr. Alfred Blumstein of Carnegie Mellon University, Chief Jerry Wilson of the Metropolitan Police Force, Washington, D.C., and our research director Dr. Arthur Niederhoffer.

We chose Project #46, an attempt to develop standards for selection and performance in the Chicago Police Department. It was the most impressive of the very few OLEA



projects that were directly concerned with the improvement of the quality of policemen. Dr. Walter Shorr served as our consultant for this psychology-oriented project.

Project #10, to study fire accelerants in arson investigation, and Project #154 to compare the relative merits of spark source mass spectrometry and neutron activation analysis as methods of identification, were the only projects that might be considered true science projects, and for which we had final reports. They were natural choices for this reason and they were assigned to our science consultant Dr. Isidore Adler for evaluation

T.V. and computers are causing a technological revolution. Undoubtedly each of them must play an important role in the criminal justice system of the future. It was with this in mind that we selected Project #225, a T.V. surveillance approach to crime prevention. We needed to find out whether T.V. at this stage of development would serve as mere gadgetry or become a powerful instrument in the law enforcement arsenal. Dr. William McDonald visited Cleveland for this site evaluation.

## Evaluation of Project #22 (198) Sky Knight

Grantee: Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department

Amount: \$159,350 supplemented by \$39,366

Dates: June 1966 to February 1968

Purpose: To demonstrate routine police patrol by a helicopter, 20 hours per day in an urban county community, Lakewood, California, to test the cost and ability of helicopters to replace autos in patrol.

Summary

The use of airplanes and even helicopters goes far back. In 1925, there was an aero-squadron on a call basis. In 1955, the Sheriff's Department of California obtained its first helicopter, and by 1965 they had five. It was found that helicopters were very useful and their assignments grew from rescues, averaging more than one a week, to rapid transportation of special investigators, to special surveillance and to patrol of small rural communities, such as Antelope Valley, as well as the resort island of Catalina, which was separated from the mainland by twenty-two miles of Pacific Ocean. This also was covered by a daylight helicopter patrol.

The Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department thought that the full potential of the helicopter had not been really explored. They went to the Hughes Tool Company, Aircraft Division, in Culver City, California with a request for cooperation. The company agreed to cooperate and it proposed to deliver three Model 300 helicopters with dual controls, night flying kits, 90 channel VHF radios, and running time meters at a reduced lease rate of \$24.60 per flight hour. This rate was subsequently changed to \$26.95 per hour to include complete insurance coverage on the three helicopters.

The city of Lakewood also agreed to cooperate in this experiment. Lakewood has a population of 86,412 in an area of roughly nine square miles, and there are 201 personnel in the Sheriff's Lakewood Station. Lakewood Station also services five other contract cities in addition to Lakewood, with a population altogether of 210,359. Lakewood contracts for a total of 68 police personnel, and Lakewood is the thirteenth largest city in Los Angeles County. From 1961 to 1965, Lakewood's crime increase was 42%.

According to the project report, it seems to be true that not since the advent of radio-equipped patrol cars in 1929 has there been any truly significant development designed to improve effectiveness of the man on the beat. This helicopter project had six goals: 1. to improve police response time, 2. to demonstrate successful new

daytime surveillance methods, 3. to initiate effective nighttime surveillance, 4. to increase patrol observation, 5. to increase officer security, and 6. to reduce crime in the project area. And all this could be done by an aerial police unit in the helicopter in conjunction with existing ground units.

The name of the project, officially entitled Law Enforcement Aerial Surveillance Methods of Crime Prevention, was changed to Sky Knight. Pilots in the department were given retraining and then they were assigned to Lakewood City as working radio car partners with veteran patrol officers. This gave them intimate knowledge of the district geography and exposure to police problems. And then pilots underwent continuous flight training in all phases of day and night flying with special emphasis on emergency procedures. In addition, the Lakewood radio car officers were flown on patrols over the city while the pilots were establishing routes and emergency landing areas. This exchange provided a healthy rapport between ground and air units.

The helicopters were staffed by two men, one concentrating on the operation and the other to observe, analyze, and report ground activity. It was found that two pilots switching from time to time created as much fatigue as in

one permanent operator, so that there was a definite specialization. One man flew the helicopter constantly, and one man observed, rather than switching back and forth. A public address system was installed that provided communication from air to ground to direct officers on the ground. Two aircraft landing lights with 200,000 beam candle-power apiece were mounted on the floor. The lights proved to be very effective and relatively inexpensive.

Local merchants were contacted and encouraged to install beacon type alarm lights on the roofs of their buildings, and they were thoroughly briefed on the project. They gave good cooperation. Preliminary plans included marking key intersections of the city by placing numbered signs on the rooftops of available buildings. The radio cars had large, 24-inch, black letters painted on the white roofs of the cars and they were lighted at night so that the helicopter could spot the number of the car.

The landing field was the Long Beach Municipal Airport, bordering the city of Lakewood on the southwest. And cooperation with the Federal Aviation Administrator tower controllers has been excellent. Although there have been a very few incidents of failure of the machines, so far the landings have been made without injury to anybody. The helicopter safety factor is based on a principle of auto rotation. In preparation a split shift was worked where one pilot flew the aircraft,

the other worked with a ground unit and then split. After approximately three hours in the air the two teams exchanged assignments. The day-night patrol started officially on June 6, 1966. In the course of one shift the crews cover an average of 300 linear miles, compared to 100 linear miles for radio cars. In the first month of operations, helicopter crews received 57 calls, were assigned 48 details, and made 94 observations, 27 burglary calls, 11 robbery calls, 8 prowlers, 34 suspicious circumstances, 6 auto thefts, 26 disturbances, 26 traffic assists, and 8 fires. Generally, the patrols went from 10:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. and 6:00 p.m. to 2:00 a.m.

A survey of Lakewood residents was conducted by city officials and the Sheriff's Department and 92% of the respondents favored continuation of helicopter patrol; and less than 6% voiced disapproval. Apparently, at the beginning there were complaints about the noise of the helicopter, but this was corrected when the Hughes Aircraft Company replaced the rotors with a new type that made far less noise. Later the program was extended from the city of Lakewood to the whole Lakewood Sheriff's Station, in February of 1967.

Data has been collected for this study during the full 18-month period for the city of Lakewood and an 11-month

period for the Lakewood Station. Lakewood was compared with other cities such as Rosemead and Temple City, which were selected on the basis of demographic similarity to Lakewood for comparison. Both of them also are served by the Los Angeles Sheriff's Department, and both have essentially similar reporting and data collecting systems.

It was found that the Lakewood City statistics were much lower than the others. First of all, in the seven major crimes of the FBI's crime classification index, -- murder, forcible rape, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, larceny (\$50 and over), and auto theft -- it was found that the city of Lakewood's crime rates were significantly reduced in the seven major offenses after the advent of helicopter patrol. And the difference from before to after was found to be significantly reduced from a statistician's point of view. The tests of significance are not shown in the final report.

It is rather interesting, however, that in minor or petty crimes -- those are the typical misdemeanor offenses -- there was a change in the wrong direction. Petty crimes increased during the Sky Knight period. This discrepancy has not been explained satisfactorily. The report emphasizes that it was the helicopter patrol that reduced burglary, which constitutes about two-thirds of the police activity in the seven major crimes.

The city of Lakewood benefitted somewhat more than did the rest of the Lakewood station. A comparison of city of Lakewood with Los Angeles County in crime statistics shows that whereas from fiscal 1965 to 1966 and fiscal 1966 to 1967, (and remember that the Sky Knight program was initiated June, 1966 which would be the start of fiscal 1966-67), the actual major crimes in the seven major categories went up 9% for the county and went down 8% for the City of Lakewood. In burglary, perhaps the most frequent of all the major crimes, the County went up 9%, the city of Lakewood went down 7%. And in robbery, the County went up 22% and Lakewood went down 6%. The total Los Angeles County crime rate went up from 2885 per hundred thousand to 3109 per hundred thousand, plus 8%. Whereas in Lakewood it went from 1383 down to 1228, a reduction of 11%.

There are some legal questions that arise. For example, there is the problem of civil liability of a government for damage resulting from the use of helicopters. A more serious legal question involves the use of the helicopter in misdemeanor arrests which usually require the physical presence or the observation of the officer during the commission of the act in order to justify an arrest. The question is whether the California courts will be as progressive as they might be in accepting the new technology and changing the law of arrest in the case of misdemeanor. It is also possible



that some of the rules of hearsay evidence may be violated in a case where a helicopter team reports to men on the ground, where certain persons are and what they have done. Then it may be necessary for the radio car men who arrested the defendant to admit in court that he received his information from a third person. The courts will have to rule on this.

Note: In conversations with project personnel on our site visit, they reported that they have developed legal techniques that have been accepted by the court.

Evaluation

A team consisting of Dr. Alfred Blumestein, Carnegie-Mellon University, Chief Jerry Wilson of the Metropolitan Police Force, Washington, D.C., and Arthur Niederhoffer of the Georgetown University Institute of Criminal Law and Procedure visited Sky Knight Project in Los Angeles on July 18, 1970. In addition to the conferences and interviews, each of us rode in the helicopter with the regular pilot to observe for ourselves the actual operation.

First, it was important to note that the enthusiasm and the efficiency of the Sky Knight personnel was considerable and impressive. The people we visited were obviously committed to their work and very able police officers. How much of the success of Sky Knight is attributable to this factor, and how much to the concept itself is a fundamental question inherent in any such evaluation. For that reason, evaluation should not stop at the enthusiastic innovator. At least the first imitator should also be evaluated.

Second, the conviction among police officials and city officials in the Sky Knight area seemed to be very strong that the program was a "success." Whether one could find objective evidence of this "success" is a separate consideration even from this apparent euphoria. This feeling of success among public officials, particularly if it reflects a comparable feeling among the private citizens, is an important payout for

the program, to the extent that it serves to reduce the concern and fear of crime. The citizens seem to be clearly aware of the presence of the helicopter patrol.

Third, the rest of the patrol force, initially suspicious and somewhat cynical about helicopter patrol, has come to accept it with good grace and cooperation in a team approach.

#### Costs

The economics of helicopter operations have always been viewed as an important question in evaluating helicopter usefulness.

The Sky Knight operating costs, as reflected in the 1969-70 budget allocations, are as follows:

Helicopter personnel	\$111,786
Helicopter maintenance	81,742 (at \$23.50/Flying hour)
Extraordinary maintenance	3,000
Hull insurance	<u>10,927</u>
TOTAL	\$207,455

These costs are based on an average daily flight time of about nine hours recorded, or a planned total of ten hours, comprising five hours in each of the two day and evening shifts.

This cost compares interestingly with the current rate at which the Los Angeles Sheriff's Office (LASO) bills the communities for which it provides contract police service. The cost to maintain a beat around the clock with two-man cars on two

shifts and a one-man car on one shift is currently \$230,000 per year. Thus, a police department (necessarily large enough) that felt it could gain more from introducing a helicopter patrol than from an incremental beat, could well afford to drop one of its currently maintained beats and institute helicopter patrol -- and still experience a cost saving thereby.

#### Types of Incidents

The kinds of incidents in which a helicopter participates are shown in the attached chart. The data, based on February 1970, show the following predominant incidents to which the Sky Knight helicopters responded:

Burglaries (71) - Mostly in response to burglary alarms, most of which were false

Disturbances (83)

Prowler calls (16)

Other suspected persons or vehicles (64)

#### Observations in the Visit

Flying in the Sky Knight vehicle, aside from being interesting and pleasurable, gave rise to the following observations:

1. People on the ground are easily distinguishable and recognizable at the normal operating altitude of 5-600 ft.
2. The ground becomes a much more amalgamated mass at an altitude of 1,000 ft.

3. Tracking a vehicle with the Sky Knight helicopter is extremely easily and effectively done.
4. One has, from the air, an overview of the ground, a rapid "cross-country" traverse from one point to another, and an ability for observation and response that significantly augments that available through ground patrol alone.

A brief survey with a few citizens indicated awareness of the Sky Knight project, and a feeling of satisfaction over the availability of additional protection due to the Sky Knight operations.

#### General Conclusions About Helicopter Patrol

Thus, as a result of the visit, we came away with the feeling that helicopter patrol provides a significant and meaningful augmentation to ground patrol, is economically reasonable in a department that has appropriate terrain and is large enough to warrant efficient use of a helicopter. Intelligent use of such patrol when associated with an effective public relations campaign within the community can well serve to decrease the citizens' fear of crime in the streets.

The question of the deterrent effect of the helicopters is rather difficult to measure. In the Sky Knight Evaluation Report, which will be discussed later, an important argument for Sky Knight was the consequent reduction in certain crimes in Lakewood as compared to the rest of Los Angeles.

The general contribution of the helicopter patrol operation is becoming reasonably widely recognized and its in-

creasingly widespread operation attests to that fact. This contribution becomes particularly significant as police salaries increase, making the larger operating costs of the helicopters a less significant factor in the total patrol costs.

Thus, the Sky Knight Project can be said to have been a success in both demonstrating the use and operation of a helicopter patrol and in providing an opportunity for eliminating some of the technical bugs (e.g., optimum altitude choice, noise suppression, design and operation of control handles, communication equipment design and integration, searchlight design, etc.). The auto-rotation capability added a safety factor because the helicopter can land as well with its motor stopped as it can while the motor is running.

The evaluation portion of the project, however, cannot be said to have been as successful. The notion of a project evaluation in an innovative program is a particularly important one in terms of serving both to improve the design of a pilot project and to aid in its judicious extension elsewhere. It is to be expected that the operators of an innovative project will be enthusiastic advocates of the project - only with such enthusiasm can an innovative project succeed in overcoming the inevitable obstacles that are presented to such projects. On the other hand, the evaluators must be independent, skeptical critics of the project. It is precisely for this reason that it is important that the evaluators be independent of the

project and from a different organization.

The evaluation report draws conclusions that need further documentation or development. This is not to say that these conclusions are incorrect, but the reader has a right to decide for himself and the evidence should be indicated.

1. On page 127, it is said that stand-by service "has a high economic return basis." It is not at all clear why the economic return is high, on what basis it is high, and what "high" means.
2. On page 130, it is stated that the "communications system was in need of urgent and vast modifications. Much remains to be accomplished in this area." What kind of modifications and what remains to be accomplished? This is the only reference in the evaluation report to the communications system and clearly needs further documentation and specificity.
3. On page 132, it is stated that "some patrol activities are not capable of being handled effectively by aircraft." What patrol activities are considered?
4. On page 132, it is stated that "under certain conditions aerial units can substitute for or totally replace ground patrol vehicles." What conditions?

5. On page 132, it states that "(the helicopter) must be programmed so that its unique capabilities will be maximized." What unique capabilities and programmed how?
6. On page 134, it states that "while debatable, it is our belief that unless contraindicated the helicopter unit should back up ground unit actions, particularly when officer safety is involved." Upon what data is this judgment reached?

The principal focus of Chapter VII, Flight Operations, is on the size of the area, concluding that when the area was expanded (in March 1967), then much more efficient use of the helicopter resulted. This may well be the case, since the city of Lakewood may well be excessively small, but it also turns out that the time during which the limited area of patrol was in use was also the learning period at the beginning of the project, and as can be seen from detailed examination of the data, much of the limited use appears to be attributable to that learning period far more than to the excessively narrow area. Whenever a new operation is introduced, one must expect an initial transient of learning before the operation becomes efficient.

The chart on page 171 suggests that there was an anomalous set of events occurring either in November 1966 or December 1966, both of which are significantly different from the general



trend that appears to be set. The evaluator should use those data to search for the cause of the anomaly in addition to making a report of the "significant" change.

The table on page 185 reports responses only to the question "What do you like about the Sky Knight Program?" One would have hoped for questions like "What do you dislike about the Sky Knight Program?" and questions like "Do you feel the advantages outweigh the disadvantages?"

In reporting the results of public response, a statement like "nearly two-thirds of the respondents indicated that helicopter patrol might prevent crime under certain circumstances" (italics added). Here again, the various answer choices that were offered should have been enumerated.

Similarly, in the table on page 187, where the public was asked "Are you in favor of the expenditure of taxes to support this program?" the groups who answered "yes" and "yes if not excessive" are grouped together. This raises the question of what choices were offered, and why the unequivocal were grouped with equivocal.

On page 217, it is reported that "efficiency for helicopters, was attained to a high degree and that effectiveness was demonstrated on a progressive scale." What measure of efficiency or effectiveness was used?

The crux of the presentation is the reduction in crime. The report of the evaluator summarizes the statistics on

pages 161-187 and he concludes, "One can state categorically that there was a highly significant decline in crime rate for the seven major offenses. This difference was found to be "statistically significant from a statistician's point of view." However, the test of significance is not presented.

The helicopter patrol began in Lakewood in fiscal 1966-67. We find that for the seven major crimes for fiscal year 1967-68 when the helicopter had ironed out its bugs, Lakewood had a 23% increase in its crime rate per 10,000 population, whereas the whole Sheriff's Department increased only 13%.

In fiscal 1968-69 Lakewood did have a reduction of 11% whereas the Sheriff's Department as a whole had a reduction of 2% in major crimes.

There was a question whether the decrease could be ascribed to the helicopter patrol. It is almost impossible to prove that it is. Yet it seems to be the one factor that differentiates Lakewood from the surrounding area.

We wondered whether the reduction in crime in Lakewood, if it was due to the intensity of helicopter surveillance in that area, would not result in criminals going to surrounding areas. This is something of a self defeating examination. If crime does go up excessively in surrounding areas, we may be inclined to blame the helicopter for being too successful by driving criminals away, but only forcing them to change the location of their crimes rather than preventing crime. On the other hand if crime did go down as well in surrounding areas not

covered by the helicopter, one might well ask, "why do we need the helicopter at all?" The results of our investigation of crime in surrounding cities were unclear. Some increased, some decreased. However, those cities that contracted for helicopter patrol seemed to have lower increases and higher reduction in crime than the cities covered by normal police patrol methods. This speaks well for the helicopter.

#### Remarks

As a former police officer who patrolled many years in radio cars, I (Arthur Niederhoffer) found that visibility from the helicopter was easily 50 times the area that is typical in a radio car. Since the communication with radio cars from the helicopter was fairly quick, the greater range of the helicopter definitely was capable of translation into faster radio car response.

We found visibility good. Chief Jerry Wilson was able to identify an unmarked police car by the rubber plug about one inch in diameter that had covered a hole in the rear deck of the auto where a radio antenna had been removed.

The noise level at normal operating heights was no more than that from heavy auto traffic on a highway. Several residents of the area were questioned and corroborated that.

We learn of the psychological impact of the helicopter upon potential criminals from such reports as the testimony given by a witness in the Manson trial during the summer of

1970. She testified that his "tribe" moved constantly and sought cover in the Los Angeles region because they feared that the helicopter patrol would spot them.

#### Conclusion

Despite some loose ends, this project is one that measured up to the ideal OLEA standards. It was innovative; it had wide impact. The general consensus is that it did improve operations and reduce crime. It continued on its own after the OLEA grant period ended, and has spread to some 90 police departments in more than 40 counties and cities in the United States. "During the last 18 months the number of helicopters in service with police agencies around the country has doubled, to a total of 120."\*

Although black and militant groups have complained that helicopter patrol is a symbol of oppression, and have in Kansas City dubbed the helicopters "pork choppers,"\*\* this has not dampened the enthusiasm of the police who claim that the helicopter is one of the finest innovations in law enforcement that has deterred crime generally and sharply.

\* New York Times, December 9, 1970, p. 37.

\*\* Ibid., p. 55.

We find Project Sky Knight to be worthy as a model for other small cities with good terrain -- low buildings, and not too many shade trees -- and good weather conditions. The Los Angeles Sheriff's Department stands ready to train other police departments in the use of helicopters. However, at this time we do not think that routine helicopter patrol is feasible for very large cities with tall buildings.

## Evaluation of Project #10

Grantee: Washington State University

Amount: \$9,480

Dates: April 1966 to November 1966

Purpose: Laboratory and field study of accelerants in fire remains to establish base levels indicative of an accelerant in arson investigations.

Summary

The study was conducted by Bruce Ettling, Associate Chemist and Mark Adams, head of Chemical Research of the College of Engineering, Research Division of Washington State University. Their proposal was to study the typical cases of arson in which the most common substances used to accelerate the fire are liquid hydrocarbons, such as gasoline, fuel oil, kerosene, and other products that use similar hydrocarbons.

They pointed out that there had been many studies in which efforts had been made to identify accelerants. Methods of isolation included vacuum distillation, steam distillation, air flushing, solvent extraction, infrared spectrograph chromatography and mass spectrometry. They stated that it is possible for fire to produce hydrocarbons by its effect on the burning of wood. Therefore, it was desirable to know the level of hydrocarbons that are found in representative material on burning, and then it would be possible to establish a line between the expected level of hydrocarbons for known types of material and

compare this with suspicious levels of hydrocarbons which are much higher in the residue of hydrocarbon than in the ordinary material that had already been standardized.

Their first step was to determine the amount of hydrocarbon that could be extracted from burned or charred material such as wood, textiles or paper, and then they were going to compare this with the same material that was burned in the presence of a flammable hydrocarbon accelerant. They used several techniques. The first was to burn wood blocks of six inches by one inch by three-fourths of an inch, cut from fir, oak, pine lauan and so forth. They also used sheets of textile fabrics, eight centimeters by twelve centimeters from cotton, polyester dacron, wool and a vinyl coated fabric naugahyde, and sheets of paper ten centimeters by fifteen centimeters were cut from newspaper and brown wrapping paper. Finally some of the wood blocks were painted with an alkyd enamel. The accelerants used were gasoline, a commercial paint thinner, fuel oil, and motor oil.

The technique of analysis was chromatography for which they used a chromatograph with a hydrogen flame detector. In addition, they used a spectrophotometer to obtain ultraviolet spectra. Finally, burning was done in a laboratory.

Several methods were used for testing: The first was to

obtain material immediately after the fire, place it in a screw cap jar and let it stand for a few days. Then the cap was loosened and a six-inch needle drew a two microliter sample of the air from inside the jar. That was injected into the gas chromatograph to determine if there were any signs of an accelerant residue. An alternate method was to take the char, the burned material or the whole material in the case of unburned samples, and extract any residue by the use of carbon tetrachloride, acetone, or activated alumina. This was to determine if there was any residue of hydrocarbons.

The original intention was to use a weight basis to establish how many parts per million of hydrocarbons might be found in a substance that was recovered from a fire. However, they found that the textiles and newspapers contained only small amounts of hydrocarbons, and the vinyl coated fabric sizable amounts. This was without the use of accelerants.

In other words, it seems that in materials that normally contain a large amount of hydrocarbon the hydrocarbons are consumed by the fire along with the accelerant. It was determined that parts per million of hydrocarbon is not a reliable indication of added accelerants. However, gas chromatographic analysis provided some evidence of added accelerants. The



chromatograms revealed characteristic peaks of accelerants which were distinguishable from those of the original material. This seemed to depend on the amount of accelerant that was extracted or that remained after the fire. Where there were only small amounts of accelerant residues the chromatographic pattern was not clearly identifiable with a specific accelerant. So that this method also left something to be desired because if the peak in the gas chromatograph which indicated an accelerant could not be identified specifically, it could not be of use in a real arson investigation. Unquestionably, this would be of doubtful validity in a court presentation if the accelerant could not be definitely identified from the chromatogram.

The second part of the experiment was to produce some field tests in which a shack that was to be torn down would be burned after some furniture, rugs and clothing were added to simulate an actual residence. One liter amounts of gasoline or fuel oil were poured in selected locations and then with the fire department standing by, the fire was set and allowed to burn freely for about 15 minutes before it was extinguished. After the structure was cooled and smoke was cleared, samples were taken to various locations and put into the bottles with the screw caps.

Several days later the jars were analyzed by gas chromatography. The chars were extracted and the extracts were purified or analyzed in the same manner as the laboratory samples. Apparently, they showed large amounts of raw accelerants because the fire was not allowed to continue long enough and the accelerants had not burned. Strangely enough, samples in which no accelerants were added disclosed some accelerant peaks in the residue which would seem to invalidate the experiment. If material to which no accelerant has been added shows the same peak that indicates an accelerant then accelerant peaks have no meaning.

The next part of the field experiment was to burn two automobiles with a dead ewe laid on its back on the front seat of each car. Then gasoline was poured in selected locations and the cars were ignited and samples were taken for analysis after the fire. They found that the large amount of animal fat made isolation of the hydrocarbon with alumina technique impossible since the fat also was extracted.

Their conclusions are that the amount of hydrocarbons in the char have little value in itself. Second, that gas chromatography is the best means to categorize accelerant residues or the vapors from char. For residue analysis, extraction and purification on alumina is a very good method.

They also conclude that "when definite evidence of an accelerant can be obtained from the simple vapor analyses it would be unnecessary to go through any further more complicated procedures."

The investigators' conclusions that their tests showed it was rather difficult to distinguish between cases where an accelerant was added or where it was not added throws some doubt on the whole method. To be considered as evidence in court the kind and the amount of accelerant would probably have to be specified.

#### Evaluation

It appears logical that the presence of accelerant and the identification of accelerant materials at the sites of fires is an important problem. It is also reasonable that one needs to distinguish the hydrocarbon residues from the material (wood, paper fabric) involved in the fire from the materials used to start fires.

This study is an attempt to establish base line concentrations above which there would be a reasonable assumption of the use of accelerants and to develop improved techniques for determining the presence of the accelerants. Reading the report we came away with the feeling that such studies are useful and important, particularly since there is a greater

likelihood for systematic examination and accumulation of data, although to be sure it is very difficult for such studies to ever be completely comprehensive because of the very nature of the problems.

Specifically the report has reached conclusions and makes technical recommendations which should be disseminated to various crime laboratories. The report emphasizes that the amount of hydrocarbons found in the char has little value in itself and that gas chromatography is the best means for characterizing accelerant residues or vapors from the char. It also points out how important it is for the samples to be sealed as soon after the fire as possible in order to preserve the important volatile components necessary for identification. Finally, the report ends with recommended procedures for sample taking and analysis.

#### Remarks

Although this study did not provide a solid conclusion, being more in the nature of an exploratory pilot study, it was a step in the right direction. The amount of money was small enough, in contrast to the other science project #154, to make this a worthwhile project.

Evaluation of Project #46

Grantee: Chicago Police Department with Industrial Relations Center, University of Chicago

Amount: \$39,862

Dates: August 1966 to February 1968

Purpose: Establishment of standards for selection of patrolmen, identification of motivational, intellectual and behavioral characteristics, and analysis of performance records.

Summary

The study under review is entitled Psychological Assessment of Patrolmen Qualifications In Relation To Field Performance. The research was conducted by the Industrial Relations Center at the University of Chicago under the direction of Dr. Melany Baehr and Mr. John Furcon. The publication is dated November 1968.

The study deals with the identification of predictors for overall performance of patrolmen and the relation between predictors and specific patterns of exceptional and marginal performance. Four hundred ninety (490) district patrolmen, functioning in a variety of Chicago neighborhoods or districts, received a wide battery of tests assessing intelligence, motivation, and behavior. The testing was conducted during two sessions in February (Wave I) and July (Wave II) of 1967. All of the patrolmen had undergone previous selection screening

by the Civil Service Commission and the Chicago Police Department. The tests included in the research project were selected after an extensive occupational analysis of a patrolman's duties. Approximately twenty factors were derived which include physical health characteristics, the ability to organize perceptual material, prepare written reports, form social judgments, the capacity to relate to the community, social orientation, etc.

The study attempts to develop effective procedures for patrolman selection and to establish scientific or valid standards for these judgments. In addition, it attempts to identify distinctive patrolman types against which a particular patrolman might be compared.

While most police departments made some attempt at appropriate selection procedures and required testing of their recruits there had been remarkably little evaluation of the effectiveness or appropriateness of these procedures. The current investigation is an excellent example of good statistical methodology and a clear definition of validity. It brings scientific information into an area laden with attitudinal and emotional overtones.

After obtaining test measures, the patrolmen were rated by their supervisors. The rating procedure employed a paired comparison rating technique which requires that each subject be compared with every other subject and the supervisor makes a judgment as to whose job performance was better. As a result

of this technique one may obtain the percent of consistent judgments for each rater, the percent of agreement between raters, and the emergence of a performance index for each patrolman who was rated. Those supervisors who were internally inconsistent or whose ratings significantly deviated from the other raters were excluded from the study. Similarly it was possible to exclude those patrolmen on whom raters most disagreed. While this procedure is necessary in order to maximize validity, which was the essence of this study, it, nevertheless, would have been extremely interesting and possibly valuable to report on the data analysis of both the supervisors whose judgments deviated from the norm, and the patrolmen who generated rater disagreement. Seemingly, this might have contributed more to our understanding of patrolmen failures and police crises.

In addition to the data obtained as a result of the paired comparisons, other objective information such as tenure, departmental awards, internal departmental complaints, disciplinary actions, attendance records, and the number of arrests made by the patrolmen were also utilized as criterion measures of effective patrolman performance.

The test results were compared with the performance measures in order to discern which tests contributed most clearly to making accurate performance predictions.

The data was analyzed for the entire group of patrolmen as well as for distinct racial groups characteristic of the Chicago

patrol force. The force is approximately three-fourths white, and one-fourth black. The major analysis indicated a significant relationship between the test battery scores and the performance criterion, indicating that the tests selected for screening and the performance measures were relevant and appropriate.

When the data were analyzed separately, for the racial sub-groups, even more accurate predictions could be made if statistical procedures considered the differential statistical attribution of significance to test items according to the specific racial group. That is to say, the best predictions about a racial group's performance were obtained when the weighting (statistical importance) was based on that racial group. The poorest prediction of performance was obtained when the weights obtained on one racial group were applied to another.

#### Evaluation

This study may be valuable in that it tackles a contemporary issue relating to equal employment opportunities for minority groups in a scientific fashion which can be replicated and documented without lowering standards for efficient performance or developing arbitrary selection procedures in response to pressure. However, there are some possibly negative effects that are discussed below in Remarks.

It is interesting to note that the two racial groups of



competent patrolmen are similar on more dimensions than they are different, and that there is overlap in both areas. Particular factors in the patrolman's background, especially the assumption of early family responsibility appear to contribute heavily to a patrolman's job performance.

The study reports on eight specific patterns of patrolman performance. These subgroups include new patrolmen on the force for one year as well as older patrolmen with tenure. Examples of excellent, average, and poor patrolman performance are depicted. This is a rich adjunct to the basic question of the validity of selection procedures and should be explored in greater detail in additional studies. As the role of the police expands, and becomes more related to the needs of the community and less of an isolated bureaucracy these subgroup patterns may allow for more sensitive placement of new recruits into specific police roles.

It is important to note that the results of this study do not provide a test for police recruits. The results obtained can only be generalized with confidence to the Chicago police department. Furthermore, since all of the patrolmen were on the force, prior screening for intelligence and gross emotional disorder had been conducted by the Civil Service Commission entrance examination and the Chicago police department's own social investigation. On the basis of the methodology employed

in the current research; funding for additional studies is recommended. The logical next study should involve recruits with no previous screening. Secondly, one should plan additional studies with greater concern for their actual implementation. With this in mind it is recommended that more extensive evaluation of the patrolman subtypes obtained as a result of the analysis be performed, as well as a closer evaluation of patrolman failures. It would also be advantageous to negotiate with the Civil Service Commission which ultimately affects national standards and would thus be directly involved in implementation across all jurisdictions.

The publication is excellent in its concern for the layman reader. Its technical discussions are well developed and explained in terms of their scientific purpose as well as their pragmatic goal. The explanation of the underlying principles of research should allow police units in other cities to emerge with an understanding of a process and methodology which they can adapt to their own needs.

A site visit to the Chicago Police Department and ensuing discussion with the Deputy Superintendent and the Director of Personnel who was responsible for recruitment and selection reflected their support of the research and their interest in further study. The Industrial Relations Center, apparently, elicited good cooperation during the period of active research and have continued to serve as consultants to the Police Department on

issues pertinent to the Study. Their recent efforts have been towards collecting additional data for the patrolmen originally studied, to see if their predictions hold up.

#### Remarks

There are some criticisms of this project as it works out in practice as distinguished from the pure research aspect. There is an air of secrecy about the project that is disturbing to the lower echelons of the Chicago Police Force. The very top brass are familiar with the study and seem to think that it was worthwhile in a very limited way, but not of any immediate significance in day to day operations.

Although the project has been refunded and is continuing, there is a growing cynicism and disinterest within the Chicago department that contrasts sharply with the original spirit of cooperation.

The problem of this study is that it assumes the legitimacy of the traditional police standards for evaluating the performance of a police officer. In going to performance records and to supervisors for their ideas of a superior policeman, the project team is in effect rigidifying and legitimizing a police department view of the ideal policeman. We know from past performance that the policeman's ideal type may be the kind of officer we should not look for in today's changing society.

Finally, the results of the psychological tests showing

some likenesses and differences between racial groups may be dynamite if not handled carefully. Black and white police officers are already showing signs of increasing hostility. The publication and subsequent decisions to implement policy changes because of these apparent differences may cause a racial explosion within the department. This project requires very careful review and handling because of the possible repercussions.

Evaluation of Project #154

Grantee: University of Virginia

Amount: \$172,550

Dates: June 1967 to August 1968

Purpose: Research in spark source mass spectrometry re  
identification of substances for criminal investigation  
and prosecution, and comparison of spectrometry with  
neutron activation analysis.

Summary

The principal investigators in this project were Dr.  
W. W. Harrison, Assistant Professor of Chemistry and Dr.  
T. G. Williamson, Associate Professor of Nuclear Engineer-  
ing, both of the University of Virginia.

This project necessitated a purchase of a spark source  
mass spectrometer, a densitometer, and a multi-channel ana-  
lyzer. Two conditions of this grant stipulated that this  
equipment would remain the property of the government, and  
that the grantees would consult with Dr. V. P. Guinn, a  
recognized authority in neutron activation analysis. The  
total cost of the equipment required for this grant was  
\$138,750; the spark source mass spectrometer, \$97,220, the  
densitometer, \$11,300, and the multi-channel analyzer and  
accessories, \$15,000, and dark room equipment, \$5,000.

The experiment was concerned with the analysis of traces of minute samples in crime detection. It is usually important to identify the very small amounts of any substance and compare them with and show their similarity or identity or common origin with another sample taken from a suspect. The two latest techniques most often used in trace analysis are neutron activation analysis and spark gap mass spectrometry. So far the neutron activation analysis had been more popular for forensic purposes than mass spectrometry.

The purpose of this study was to compare the relative advantages and disadvantages of mass spectrometry with neutron activation analysis. The factors to be considered were the type of information that could be obtained and the reliability of data from each, the cost of equipment and subsequent analyses, the complexity of experimental procedures, the range of sample applicability, the time of analysis and the sensitivity of the analysis.

There is no doubt that although the investigators set out to compare the two they had an initial bias in a sense that they felt spark source mass spectrometry was a powerful new technique which might be a direct competitor to neutron activation analysis or it might complement neutron activation analysis. They asserted that their efforts "will

be directed to developing the SSMS method for forensic application." They were to perform the experimental work in two departments, one the Department of Nuclear Engineering which would conduct the neutron activation analysis and the Department of Chemistry which would be responsible for the spark source mass spectrometry measurements. Each department was to conduct the analysis on each type of sample with subsequent inter-departmental evaluation of results, procedures, etc. The samples to be investigated included the following: a. glass, b. paper, c. wood shavings, d. tissue samples, e. blood samples, f. hair, g. plastics, h. synthetic fibers, i. natural fibers, j. insulation materials, k. paint species, l. metal tool filings, m. ink residue, n. pencil lead, o. soil samples, p. powder burns or residues.

The spark source mass spectrometry techniques involved placing a sample of the material to be studied on an electrode, and then creating a spark between that electrode and another, thus ionizing the sample. The beam was then accelerated and focused; the ion beam was allowed to infringe upon a photographic tape, producing a qualitative and quantitative display of the sample material. Then the position of each line of spectrum on the photographic plate defined the mass of the ion for qualitative purposes, and the density

of the line would indicate the quantitative aspect.

The advantages of SSMS in the analysis of forensic problems is that the source requires only a very minute sample so that the destruction of the entire sample is not demanded, and the sensitivity is extremely high for almost all elements showing detection limits below three parts per billion. In addition, sensitivity is approximately constant for all the elements, and the spark source shows marked freedom from matrix effects which implies contamination from the surrounding area. A final asset of spark source mass spectrometry is that a fingerprint spectrum is obtained representing inorganic as well as organic constituents: This is particularly important for comparative studies.

The investigators estimated that 10 to 15 samples per day would be a fair estimate of their procedure, and the data would be fed into a computer for the most accurate analysis. In addition, certain statistical studies of the samples and the results would be undertaken to assure their validity, although these statistical studies were not necessary for the problem of identification.

In neutron activation analysis the technique is different. The sample is irradiated in a nuclear reactor and then



the radioactive products are detected and measured, based upon the energy and half-life of the decayed products. From this many of the elements that make up the sample can be determined qualitatively and quantitatively. One of the big advantages of NAA for forensic work is that the sample can be preserved for presentation in court because radiation does not usually destroy it to any noticeable extent.

The comparison was to be on the reliability and precision and identification by obtaining mean and standard deviations and standards of accuracy. A major goal was an attempt to distinguish the sample by its profile from other samples which differ only slightly in overall composition, and this would be a test of the greater precision of mass spectrometry or neutron activation. The investigators planned to disseminate this information by publication in scientific journals and quarterly progress reports to OLEA as noted in the grantee report requirements. They would forward at least 100 reprints of each published paper to the OLEA.

#### Evaluation

The objectives of the University of Virginia project were to compare the spark source mass spectrograph (SSMS) and neutron activation for forensic applications and to examine a variety of samples by both techniques. The end

product was to be a demonstration of the feasibility of SSMS as a forensic tool and to compare it with neutron activation.

It was known that a great deal if not most of the information was already available in the published literature, in advertising brochures by the equipment suppliers, and in laboratories already instrumented such as the National Bureau of Standards. As a case in point let me quote from a review paper presented by Dr. A. J. Ahearn at the First Materials Research Symposium held at the National Bureau of Standards in October, 1966. This paper was subsequently published in a Volume on Trace Characterization, Chemical and Physical as Monograph 100 by N.B.S.: "With few exceptions all elements can be detected under favorable conditions when trace elements in the ion samples presented to the detector is in the neighborhood of a part per billion atomic fraction of the major component." It is of interest that the Ahearn statement was in turn based on a paper by N.B. Hannay published in Science in 1961 (Science, 134, 1220, 1961).

The Ahearn review article points out that the technique is useful for conductors, semi-conductors, and insulating materials. It is obviously implicit that this would most certainly cover the materials involved in forensic applications. The

paper also states that sample preparation is a very important factor, conducting materials being dealt with differently from non-conducting materials and solutions. Thus one could certainly anticipate on the basis of existing knowledge that non-conducting materials such as hair or fabric would require prior chemical preparation.

At the time when the University of Virginia study was undertaken, there already existed copious literature showing the range of elements detectable and the lower detection limits for both SSMS and NA. In fact, the same volume that carries the review paper by Ahearn carries papers by Vincent P. Guinn and A. A. Smales on neutron activation. Both authors show tables of detection sensitivities for the various elements. This was known to the grantee because his grant required him to confer with Vincent Guinn.

One can also quote from the brochure of the Picker Nuclear Corporation describing the solids mass spectrometer, the MS-702. The brochure describes in a fairly objective manner the range of applications and the analytical capabilities of their instrument and, moreover, cites the institutions performing various types of studies. The applications listed include metallurgy, materials research, reactor materials, geology and geochemistry, biological and inorganic chemicals. Here again the list is so

extensive that the application to forensic problems seems fairly obvious.

Examination of the existing literature would show clearly, without the need for experimental work that SSMS is not completely non-destructive in the same sense as neutron activation. To cite an example, the analysis of hair by SSMS can only be done after extensive chemical preparation. Furthermore, despite the improved techniques described in the University of Virginia report, some 10 mgs. of hair is still required for an analysis. This amount of sample, I am certain, is not often available. To be sure SSMS can detect a greater number of elements than NA, but this information could have been obtained from the existing literature.

There are some positive accomplishments which emerge from the study. Having obtained the equipment, Professor Harrison and colleagues have actually examined (although in some instances in a preliminary way) samples of a forensic nature such as hair, blood and serum, fingernails, tissue, etc. They have as they themselves claim, demonstrated that SSMS is a useful addition to forensic applications. They make the interesting statement that "This first project period has allowed verification of the already known potential of SSMS."

This brings us to the point of drawing some conclusions which may be of some use in future activities. It is fairly obvious that there is a strong need for a more critical technical evaluation of proposals as well as a look at how much does a particular study (even if well performed) contribute to the solutions of the problems of law enforcement. There is nothing wrong in being hardnosed and critical in the evaluation and examination of proposals submitted by scientists no matter how competent or well founded their reputations. For example, the National Science Foundation has no hesitancy about sending proposals written by Nobel Laureates to their peers for a judgment on validity and quality.

Since OLEA has gone this far, in view of the large capital outlay to the University of Virginia, some attempt might be made to exploit the investment. The SSMS laboratory should, in some way, perhaps by modest additional support, be converted into a useful facility for dealing with the special problems for which the potential is so high. Professor Harrison's offer to use its laboratory as a training facility is very well taken. By doing this sort of thing one can obtain the maximum benefit of training people and further developing the techniques by being

involved in specific law enforcement problems.

Remarks

It is apparent that one latent result of this project was to build for the grantee, Professor Harrison and the University of Virginia, a better equipped department of chemistry. Without a doubt that additional instrumentation will be put to good use.

Was this really the major, but unstated, purpose of the proposal? Considering that a great deal of the material sought by this proposal was already known in the published literature, was OLEA a little naive in investing this large sum (\$172,550), more than three times the size of the average grant, without a critical review of the initial proposal? In any case the funds could very well have gone to the grantees but with a different and more sophisticated set of objectives.

## Evaluation of Project #225

Grantee: Cleveland Police Department

Amount: \$63,605

Dates: July 1967 to November 1968

Purpose: The design and demonstration of a closed circuit TV truck for surveillance, incorporating video recording.

Summary

The Cleveland Police Department knew that certain areas or establishments were subject to frequent attacks by criminals. Among them were banks, docks, loading areas, liquor retail outlets, groceries, parking lots, etc. Also, narcotics and drugs traffic were concentrated in certain areas of the city. Information about a particular crime was sometimes received by the police department, yet it was difficult to stake out the area because the presence of officers was frequently discovered by the criminal.

For these reasons they decided to develop a closed circuit television truck or mobile truck that could move from place to place. The truck would have also a video tape recorder so that they could make a permanent record of the activities on the scene. The closed circuit TV truck was designed to be useful at parades and in the guarding of

important persons and political figures. There was a retractable camera on the truck that could be raised or lowered to 20 feet or more above the ground and that gave a fairly wide range of surveillance. The video tapes could be used for training purposes, or for evaluation and constructive criticism by command officers.

They used a Ford truck with a metal ladder permanently attached to the right rear of the vehicle so that they could get to the roof. The vehicle was painted a dark green color and did not attract unusual attention. Four closed circuit TV cameras of the lock interlace type, capable of producing 800 lines of horizontal resolution with ten-foot candles of light were provided. Two of the cameras had manual zoom lenses. A crew of 11 officers and a field supervisory sergeant were needed to insure continuous seven-day operation.

During the operation two men were stationed inside the van to operate the equipment while two men were assigned to an unmarked car keeping in touch with the van operators through the radio. When the TV surveillance truck spotted a situation justifying an arrest, the two officers assigned to the unmarked car were alerted and they moved in to make the arrest.

Officers selected for the operation were drawn from the patrol force and from the detective bureau, and they were



chosen for their knowledge of electronics and technical subjects that were related to the TV truck. All officers were sent to a one-week training program conducted by Motorola engineers. The video tape was used to film police academy role playing sessions in the field of human relations. On the replay, the recruits felt that they had benefitted from the replay and from the TV surveillance.

The TV truck was assigned to parking lots where there had been many cars stolen. Through the use of TV and video tape, there were several arrests made of persons who were stealing autos and also stealing materials from the autos. When defendants arrested saw the TV pictures and tapes that were admitted as evidence in court, they admitted their guilt immediately and pleaded guilty.

Finally, the tapes could be used to make a record of the whole crime from the actual commission of the crime, the apprehension of the offender, and subsequent notification of his rights by the police. Thus, there is an evidentiary record; this helps to silence the most vocal critics of police methods. For the above reasons, the project was deemed a substantial success by the grantees.

#### Evaluation

The basic purpose of this project was to "provide a means

of placing surveillance equipment at the scene of criminal activity and by the use of the latest television techniques to record the activity for the purpose of apprehending offenders and deterring criminal activity."\* The assumption behind this project was that police surveillance and evidence gathering capabilities could be significantly improved through the help of advanced video electronics.

The mobile television unit was constructed, staffed and employed in surveillance work. The unit was responsible for some arrests of individuals breaking into cars in parking lots and other offenders. It was also used for surveillance purposes during a mass rally and a visit of the Vice President of the United States.

The Cleveland mobile television unit has not substantially improved police surveillance technology and does not appear to be a promising area for further development. The gain in surveillance capability of this Cleveland unit - even if its equipment were replaced with the most recent advanced equipment - is so slight as to not warrant the expense. Also, the additional serendipitous benefits of this type of equipment

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\* Stephen Szereto, Closed Circuit Television Surveillance Truck: Summary Report (City of Cleveland Police Department, November, 1968), p. 2.

could be gained through other means and would not constitute a justification for investing in the unit.

A rigorous self-evaluation of this project was not part of the project's plan. This is an unfortunate oversight for the project lends itself to cost-benefit analysis. Furthermore, several aspects of the project and its implications seem to demand that such an evaluation be undertaken (even now). The high initial cost as well as an equally high operating cost make this unit a heavy drain on scanty police resources. With the current enthusiasm for equipping police with more and more hardware, some hard data on the effectiveness of this equipment must be made available.

*why not  
in this  
report*

Actually, a very beneficial study would be to establish the relative values of the helicopter as compared to this television van as compared to simple one-man stake-outs as surveillance techniques with their respective unit costs listed. This would give police departments and their governing bodies the wherewithal to choose where to best spend their surveillance dollar. If such evaluations are performed, however, they should not be based solely on one criterion of success, i.e., number of arrests per dollar. Exactly what the criteria should be we cannot say. (Indeed another valuable study would

be to establish some set of criteria for assessing police effectiveness. This might be funded as the first stage in a two-step project -- the second stage would involve applying the established criteria to a subject such as police surveillance.)

Advantages and Disadvantages of the Cleveland Mobile Television Unit

As a surveillance device the Cleveland Mobile television unit offers negligible advantage over other types of surveillance equipment such as helicopters, or stake-outs by officers equipped with movie cameras or binoculars and walkie-talkies. The television unit's advantage is deception and even that advantage could easily be lost if the chief or the mayor decides to publicize the unit. At the moment, however, the unit is in an unmarked, army-green truck and it can be parked and go unnoticed in places where manned stake-outs or helicopters would certainly attract attention such as large parking lots that are not near any tall buildings. But, the number of such open areas that could not be just as easily kept under surveillance by an officer with binoculars on a roof top or some similar vantage point are few. Furthermore, the Cleveland truck does tend to attract attention when parked in an area for any prolonged period of time. People

have asked the unit's personnel what they were doing.

### Immobility

The other expected advantages of the unit were mobility, efficiency, and evidence collection. None of the three were obtained. The unit is portable in the sense that the equipment is stored in a truck, can be removed from the truck and is transported to different sites by the truck. But, this portability should not be confused with "mobility", - i.e. being very flexible and able to move quickly and being able to operate while in motion. The unit is a closed circuit television unit which means that the transmission of pictures from the strategically placed cameras back to the viewing monitors in the truck is by cable connections. Therefore, before the surveillance can begin an elaborate, time-consuming setting up procedure involving the placing of the cameras and laying of cables must be conducted. This set-up procedure can be avoided if the unit uses only cameras mounted on the truck, itself. But, then the unit offers no advantage (except deception) over a man with binoculars or a camera.

The lack of high mobility is not a liability if the unit is only going to be used for certain types of stake-outs such as observing parking lots for auto burglars. However it was

hoped that such units might be useful in work with mass disorders as well. Here mobility is a necessity because mass demonstrations are fluid and crowds could easily turn on a television unit and destroy it in minutes if it were anchored by its cables or immobilized by traffic conditions. (Also, for such uses the unit should be bullet proofed.) Aside from the threat of destruction, the fact that the unit is essentially a stationary installation severely limits its usefulness in work with mass demonstrations. The Cleveland unit was used at one mass rally and was spotted and identified by the rally's one speaker as "the same snoop truck the National Guard used at Kent State University." One irate youth told the police officer sitting in the driver's seat of the truck that if he had a bomb he would blow the truck up.

#### Inefficiency

It was also anticipated that the television unit would increase the efficiency of police surveillance, that more surveillance could be done by fewer men. In fact, the opposite was true. Anyone who has ever taken a snapshot knows that while a picture may be worth a thousand words, seeing things with your own eyes is a thousand times better than

that. Cameras reduce man's  $180^{\circ}$  vision to 10 to 50 degree vision (depending on the lens used). Also, a man can quickly scan the horizon and get  $360^{\circ}$  views whereas if a television camera were to scan at the same rate there would only be a blur. An example of how these limitations reduce efficiency occurred during a stake-out of a parking lot. The officers in the van spotted two men breaking into cars and called the back-up squad car. However, when the squad car entered the large lot it was extremely difficult for the two officers viewing the four monitors to direct the squad car to the two suspects. Instead of being able to see the entire parking lot as a man could do if he were just standing there the officers in the van had four separate views of four different areas of the parking lot and from these disjointed views they could not put the entire picture together and could not direct the squad car to the suspects. In the end, they decided to let the suspects escape and wait for them to return to the car they had driven into the lot. The unit would almost need a cinemascope screen to overcome this limitation.

Another unexpected cost of the television unit was the number of men it took to staff it. One man cannot watch four monitors for an eight hour shift. A twelve-man, specially trained crew with a special squad car assigned to the unit

is needed to operate the unit. (The squad car is needed to make arrests.) When the equipment is down for repairs this crew is not easily worked into other tours of duty. The equipment can only be used during daylight hours. At night one officer must be left with the equipment when it is at a stake-out just to guard it.

#### Evidence Collection

The television unit was able to get excellent incriminating evidence on video tape which resulted in convictions. But, it is not evident that similar evidence could not have been obtained with a movie camera.

#### Unanticipated Benefits

There were several unexpected benefits of the television unit. The wives of the officers assigned to the unit were happy to have them assigned to plainclothes work because of the lesser danger involved.

The television equipment was used to produce training films. One exciting and novel possibility that should be developed into an experimental training project involved the use of "live action" films for training purposes. The television unit team found a great value in replaying the video tapes of actual crime and arrest situations which they filmed. During the replay they criticized and



complimented each other's actions and acted as "Monday-morning quarterbacks" - rethinking their moves and planning how they would handle similar situations in the future. These replays lacked the artificiality of the regular training films. They held a special interest and had a greater impact on the officers because the situations were real and they, themselves, were the actors.

These types of films might be made of other officers and replayed as part of an in-service training program. This procedure would predictably meet with tremendous opposition at first. It would, no doubt, be seen as internal security checks which are not appreciated by most officers. In fact, these internal security men are referred to as the "fink squads." But the program might be sold to the force if the officers saw it as something analogous to the professional football teams reviewing of their game films.

Other benefits were that the parking lot owners who were informed of the surveillance were delighted. Also, the truck had apparently acted as a deterrent to some "parking lot" criminals who had heard about its operation even when the truck was not in service. Still another gain was in the form of a morale boost for the officers assigned to the unit and a few others who felt that the unit was doing a great job.

The unit's officers enjoyed working on the assignment and most of them would like to continue with it.

#### Technical Difficulties

There were many technical problems with the unit which were only discovered after the unit was put in operation. The members of the unit's team have a long, unwritten list of these difficulties and their advice would be invaluable if a second such unit were to be constructed.

The electronic equipment used on the truck was obsolete before construction of the unit was completed. Low light and cableless, portable television equipment is now available. However, even this equipment would not overcome the problems of this type of unit already described.

#### The Cleveland Effort

The Cleveland police officers that were associated with the development and operation of this unit were familiar with electronic equipment and enthusiastic about the potential of this unit. They gave the unit every chance for success. They were innovative in adding an audio component to the system and in exploring additional uses of the equipment.

From the experience gained on projects of this type, law enforcement agencies may learn to avoid gadgetry (although they must be alert to new developments) and work toward

procuring more well equipped facilities in the hands of skilled operators. Then only will they be able to make use of the many analytical tools already in existence that have not yet been exploited.

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(PART B)

Study and Evaluation of Projects and Programs

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## II B

Computer Related Projects

## Summary Findings

1. Computer projects cost an average of \$150,000 three to four times as much as the average OLEA project.
2. Computer project proposals were not evaluated as well as they might have been before the decision to approve or reject.
3. Computer projects attracted to the field of criminal justice a new breed -- the technologically-oriented research organization. These organizations were moving away from the waning defense and space programs.
4. Such a research organization usually wrote the grant proposal for criminal justice organizations. In fact all the police commissioner had to do was to sign the document.
5. The same research organization might do very well in one computer project, but do badly in the same type of project in another location.
6. During the OLEA period computer projects were more successful in information storage, and managerial functions. They did not perform well when they undertook to build experimental or predictive models. The only exception to this was Project # 39 - the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department - Resource Allocation Project, which was successful in predicting the total volume of calls for police service in periods of three weeks or more.

7. Computer projects generally were too machine-oriented. They did not give enough weight to the human factor.

8. Almost all the computer projects were law enforcement projects. Only two or three were specifically designed for other criminal justice agencies.

9. Computer projects in police departments that trained their own members to handle computer functions were more successful than computer projects in which the external research agency managed the whole operation.

10. Computers are not the magical panacea for law enforcement problems. They are only as good as the thinking and the programs that men provide for them.

11. Even with the most efficient computers, the fastest response time, and the most complete print-out, there will still be problems such as difficulty of access to radio and telephone lines. The motivation of the police officer to perform his duties properly is still one of the great unknowns in this equation.

12. One important problem that needs careful analysis is the possible invasion of the right of privacy by the collection and dissemination of vast amounts of information. What safeguards should there be? What redress is there for the aggrieved citizen? Who or what agency ought to have control and power over this mine of information? OLEA projects did not concern themselves sufficiently with these sensitive questions.

### Analysis of Questionnaire Data - Computer Related Projects

Questionnaires were received from 16 out of 21 computer projects although in most questions only 10 or 11 answers were given. The response pattern on the general questionnaire did not differ noticeably from the norm of the other grantees.

Six of the 10 who responded to the item agreed that the next great advances in law enforcement will most likely be the result of the application of computers to the solution of police problems. At the very least this indicates faith in the importance of what they were doing. This was certainly supported by their choices in the next items, especially questions #25 which asked them to select the area in which the computer expert could make a contribution. A tabulation of their answers appears in Table 1.

Table 1

#### Application of Computers to Law Enforcement (N=16)

Type	Number
a. Prediction models	10
b. Simulation models of the police dept.	7
c. Programs that will predict the occurrence of crime	7
d. Measurements of police efficiency	7
e. New concepts and theories of police work	6
f. Solutions to most police problems	6

Nine of 11 thought it would be feasible in large police departments to develop a team of policemen capable of doing computer research. Only two took a negative position on this point.

The cost of a computer system for a criminal justice agency was considered moderate by 10. There were 3 who thought the cost of computers would be excessive. Would a computer system require extensive training for policemen? To this question 7 said no; 4 said yes.

Perhaps, most interesting of all was the response to item 28 which was a statement about the psychological effect of a computer system upon policemen. Five agreed that it would create a feeling of confidence. An equal number were of the opinion that a computer system would create little difference in police response. No one accepted choice b which asserted that such a computer system would probably create a feeling of alienation among policemen.



Evaluation of OLEA Computer-Related Projects

Computers are the wave of the future for law enforcement and criminal justice. However, our previous discussion of Operations Improvement in Part A applies equally well to computer projects. The computer does, nevertheless, bring with it a host of attendant technical problems. It requires a new vocabulary and possibly, a new way of thinking. With this in mind, we asked our computer consultants, Dr. Laveen Kanal, and Dr. Herbert Freeman to prepare a rather technical discussion that would explain some of the common terminology and basic functions of computer technology. This will be a preface to the reports on those computer projects which were chosen for more intensive review.

The following is a summary of the evaluation of the various computer-related projects funded under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965. A total of 18 grants were reviewed. The evaluations were performed on the basis of final reports where these were available. In some cases, the only documentation available to the evaluation team was the original proposal for the grant or the grant-award document. The final reports or proposals of the remaining OLEA computer projects were not available in time for us to consider them.

As part of the evaluation procedure, site visits were made by Professors Niederhoffer, Freeman and Kanal to Grant # 167 - Project CLEAR in Cincinnati, Ohio and to Grant #39 - The Metropolitan Police Department in St. Louis, Missouri. In addition, Professor Kanal made a site visit to Grant #15, Project Wales, the computerized system of the Washington,

D.C. Metropolitan Police Department. For purposes of contrast we reviewed Grant #38, The Ohio State Highway Patrol LEADS System in which many serious problems hampered the system.

In the following sections are listed the LEAA grants evaluated, along with brief descriptions of the nature of each project. It should be kept in mind that for a number of the projects, the information available was of a very preliminary nature and that subsequent developments in these projects are likely to have substantially changed the nature of the projects.

List of Projects Evaluated

<u>Name of Project</u>	<u>Grant Number</u>	<u>Project Type</u>
WALES	015 071	Information retrieval, regional management, general information system, message switching, command & control.
Polytech. Inst. Brooklyn	030	Operations research study, simulation of calls for service and dispatch of service by police.
Ohio State Highway Patrol (Ohio LEADS System)	038	Information storage and retrieval, primarily for vehicle records.
St. Louis Metro. Police Dept.	039	Resource allocation using computer graphics.
New York State Identification and Intelligence System (Project ALPS)	040	Automatic license plate scanning, data communication, pattern recognition, storage & retrieval of wanted plates.
Philadelphia Police Dept. and Franklin Institute	049	Statistical analyses, clustering, multidimensional analysis.

(continuation of listing)

Phoenix, Arizona (LEADS)	050	Information storage & retrieval resource allocation, computer graphics.
California Criminal Justice Information System	051	Information storage & retrieval.
Boston Police Department	153	Information storage and retrieval; communications improvement.
Cincinnati, Project CLEAR	167 321	Information storage and retrieval, message switching.
Univ. of So. California	168	Statistical analyses applied to probation classification and prediction. Bayesian techniques.
Los Angeles Police Dept.	170	Information storage and retrieval; natural-language question answering by computer; pattern analysis.
Chicago Police Dept.	195	Resource allocation; general operations research.
New York State Identification and Intelligence System (Personal Appearance)	199	Feature extraction and pattern matching for automated personal identification; information storage & retrieval.
Village of Edina, Minn.	235	Resource allocation using randomized patrols.
New England Council, Inc.	354	Information storage & retrieval regional management information system.

As is readily apparent from the foregoing listing, a majority of the projects was concerned with the use of real-time computer systems for information storage and retrieval, for message switching, for command and control along with

the regular use of computers and for automating the usual payroll and personnel data processing needs of police departments. Some of the projects were also intended to develop systems for recording and keeping track of a criminal's "progress" from the time of arrest, through the courts, and through the correctional institutions and probation. Only the two NYSIIS projects (040 and 199) were concerned with applications of computers that were distinctly different from conventional data processing. Some of the projects, such as St. Louis (039) and Edina (235) were primarily devoted to developing improved methods for resource allocation.

#### Some Basic Facts Concerning On-line, Real-time Systems

On-line or real-time information processing computer systems represent the latest development in electronic data processing. Real-time systems are needed whenever it is desired to achieve dynamic interaction between a central processor and its environment. The use of real-time computer systems in Law Enforcement and Police Information Networks is not essentially different from uses of such systems in military or commercial contexts and the strengths and weaknesses of a specific system design or a specific manufacturer's hardware and software for real-time processing are determined by similar factors in all these applications.

In Batch Processing, groups of inputs are processed by one or more passes through the computer. In Real-time Processing inputs arrive at random from (remotely located) terminals linked by communication facilities to a (centrally located) computer often referred to as a CPU (Central Processing

Unit). The CPU is supposed to rapidly respond to each message.

There are three types of unscheduled inputs coming into the typical Law Enforcement Real-Time Computer System.

These are:

- (a) incoming messages sent to the computer for rerouting;
- (b) incoming data to be either stored for later file update on a batch basis, or added to a file on a real time basis;
- (c) incoming messages which request a file search to retrieve information.

For case (a) the system is functioning as a Message Switching System, in (b) as a Data Collection System and in case (c) as a File Inquiry System.

The basic software and hardware requirements for such a real-time system are more complicated than in a batch processing system because of the random unscheduled activity of the real-time system. The success or failure of a system installed for a particular application depends on how well the designers were able to anticipate the nature of the randomness of inputs, determine the volume of peak traffic to be handled and provide adequate hardware and software for the specific application.

The case histories of Project LEADS at Columbus, Ohio and Project CLEAR at Cincinnati, Ohio provide contrasting

examples of designs with Project CLEAR avoiding many of the problems which befell Project LEADS and which had to be rectified in order to get Project LEADS working. Before considering these contrasting case histories and stating why we felt that of the various real-time systems on which reports were available to us, Project CLEAR was the best thought through and planned project, it is necessary to introduce some additional terminology and concepts related to real-time systems. Our description here is necessarily brief.

A major problem in real-time systems is whether the CPU is fast enough to adequately respond to the messages arriving from the terminals continuously. Since inputs enter at random, they sometimes appear in bunches, sometimes rarely. The frequency distribution of inputs differs for different applications. During periods of high input frequency, the CPU may have to form a list or queue of waiting inputs since it cannot handle each input immediately after its arrival. Adequate buffer storage must be available to store the queuing inputs otherwise some inputs will be lost.

At least three kinds of software packages are needed in an on-line information system:

- (a) An "Operating System" for supervisory control of the overall system.
- (b) A "Message Control" package to handle the communication lines and related functions.

(c) A "Message Processing Package" to process the incoming messages.

Sometimes the term Supervisory Program includes both items (a) and (b) above. In all systems an additional package of "Support Programs" is needed. These programs are needed to install the system, test it, debug it, and keep it running smoothly, and are as important as any other item in a real-time system. On most systems the development of the Support Programs requires considerably more programming manpower than the Supervisory Programs.

The Supervisory Program package, or Operating System, for a real-time computer system must in addition to the usual control functions performed in the batch processing mode of operation, handle such functions as dynamic scheduling of programs, automatic interrupts, dynamic allocation of memory, memory and file protection, multi-programming, multi-processing etc. In an On-Line System not only do the messages arrive at random times and are varied in their lengths and nature but in addition it is likely that different messages reaching the computer of a real-time system will require different programs. Thus different functions need to be executed in an unplanned sequence. It is necessary to schedule this unpredictable sequence of operations in such a way that the data are still handled in the minimum time and computer facilities are used most efficiently. This dynamic scheduling of programs and facilities is one of the functions of the "Operating System" or Supervisory Programs.

Multi-programming refers to the simultaneous, i.e. parallel, processing of several transactions or programs. In a simple system only one message at a time is processed, and work does not start on the next message until work on the preceding message is finished. In such a simple system it may be necessary to jump from one program to another program when different types of messages are received, but transactions are not processed simultaneously. However in a complex on-line system, the time taken to process one message may be greater than the interval of time between message arrivals. When two or more such transactions have to be processed simultaneously, we speak of multi-programming. The higher the degree of multi-programming the more complex is the Operating System.

Another way of looking at multi-programming is from the point of view of unused (and expensive) CPU time. In many programs the CPU is idle while an I/O (input-output) operation is in process. Idle CPU time becomes a major item when the computer system includes disk units for the access time to a data item on disk units is between 50-200 milliseconds.

One solution to the problem of idle CPU time is to keep two programs in memory at the same time with the CPU working on the second program while the first program's I/O is under way. Since both programs may stall while waiting for I/O completion it is easy to see how one is led to keeping the CPU busy by keeping several programs in memory simultaneously. Indeed batch-type programs are often kept on a standby basis and run when the CPU has idle time.



The amount of core storage limits the number of programs which may remain in memory at the same time. A multi-programming system cannot in general spend all its time doing useful work since system functions such as initiation of a new program on a processing unit and other activities under the control of the Operating System require instructions to be executed in the processing unit. The CPU time used to perform system functions is called system overhead.

Multi-processing denotes the use of multiple machine units which share the processing load. The use of coupled computers is an example of multi-processing. When multi-processing is used additional complexity is added to the "Operating System".

Real-time Systems make use of interrupts. When messages reach the computer their arrival may trigger an interrupt in the processing, so that the computer can read them into the appropriate part of its storage and hold them until it is ready to work on them. Large multi-programmed systems may have many interrupts per second. When a program is interrupted, control must later be returned to the point at which it broke off. To do this sufficient information must be stored about the program status at the moment of interrupt. This can become rather complicated, especially as the program that was interrupted may have been using input or output devices at the moment the interrupt occurred.

Dynamic allocation of computer memory is usually required in a real-time system since the requirements of

**CONTINUED**

**5 of 18**

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computer core storage are often different from transaction to transaction. This dynamic allocation is also one of the functions of the Supervisory Program.

In a multi-programmed system, a number of operational programs are usually in core storage at the same time. In addition, the memory contains various queues and the Supervisory Program which itself is composed of numerous subroutines and tables. In such a system, it is possible for an operational program i.e. an application program or a message processing program) to address portions of the memory outside of its own coding, data areas, working storage, etc. This could result from either a programming or a machine error. As a consequence, modification of instructions or alteration of data in another operational program may occur. Another effect could be impairment of the supervisory program. Improper tape, disk or drum operations might be initiated and crucial records affected. To avoid such possibilities some form of memory and file protection is desirable.

From the above it should be apparent that an "Operating System" or Supervisory Program Package has many important functions to perform in a real-time system and that such programs are complex indeed.

In third generation systems such as the IBM 360 most of the functions of communications control, i.e. control of lines connecting the terminals to the computer, are handled by a software package leaving a minimal amount to be handled by hardware. In a second generation system the terminals

are connected via phone lines to a communications control computer such as the IBM 7740 (used in the St. Louis M.P.D. system and the Alameda County System). The "Communications Control Package" in the IBM 7740 for example performs the message control functions. The first function performed by the message control package is to determine which terminals will be serviced. There are two basic ways of approaching this function, via (a) Polling and (b) Contention. Polling is the method whereby the communications control computer or message control program sends signals to the terminals one by one asking if they have anything to send. If a terminal replies "yes", it has something to send, the message control program receives the message, assembles the incoming bits into characters and the characters into messages. In addition it should provide sufficient buffer space to hold the assembled message it also checks for errors; translates the message from the terminal's code to the computer's code and performs a number of other functions before making the message available to the Message Processing Programs.

Contention is an alternative to Polling. Contention is a method of servicing terminals whereby the terminals request to transmit. If a channel is free, transmission goes ahead; if it is not free, the terminal will have to wait until it becomes free. The queue of contention requests may be built by the computer and this can be scanned either in a prearranged sequence or in the sequence in which the requests were made.

By means of Macros or Macro Instructions, the message processing programs and other operational programs yield control to the supervisory program, supplying it with all of the information needed to initiate I/O operations. This enables the Supervisory Program to give control of the CPU to another operational program. Thus operational programs communicate with the supervisory program by using macros, which call upon subroutines within the supervisory programs. A large number of system functions are carried out by the various macro instructions.

If there are a number of operational programs in the machine, the availability status of each program is kept in a list called the CPU queue. When a program terminates or awaits the completion of an I/O request, it is removed from this queue. The Supervisory Program refers to this list when it wishes to give control of the CPU to another operational program. In some applications, certain operational programs may have priority for receiving control before other programs in the queue.

The above is a very brief sketch of a real-time information system. It is obvious that the design of a real-time system can be very complex. It is very difficult to make accurate estimates of program sizes, and because the contents of core storage are continually varying it is difficult to predict how much core storage is needed. The size to which queues may grow in the memory of the computer is uncertain. The time it will take to empty these queues cannot be stated precisely. In fact the input to the computer will usually be highly

variable. Determining the time and core requirements now involves queuing theory based on probability. To assist in the design of a real-time system the techniques of simulation are relied upon. A model of the system and its programs is developed. Into this model input can be fed corresponding to the input of the actual system when it will be in operation. This input can be varied easily. The delays and sizes of queues can be measured. The model may be adjusted to make these conform with the requirements. For a multi-programmed system, the model itself becomes quite complicated. The testing of programs for a real-time system is also a very complex task.

As is evident from preceding discussion, the design of an on-line system demands very thorough planning, quantification of anticipated needs, understanding of the strengths and weakness of software and hardware systems offered by various manufacturers and a use of highly skilled personnel. Otherwise surprises are constantly encountered and costly replacements of hardware and expensive reprogramming are needed to get a real-time system working the way it was supposed to.

From the available reports it appeared that of the various real-time law enforcement automated information systems Project CLEAR in Cincinnati was the best thought through and planned third-generation computer based real-time system for message switching and information storage and retrieval. It was also one of the most ambitious. The bases for making this

evaluation of Project CLEAR are brought out in the following section. A second-generation computer based system that appeared to have been working extremely well was that of St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department which had the added feature of having a resource allocation program which has proved itself over the years and been emulated by various other police departments -- again, these judgments are explained in the section on the St. Louis System within the context of this discussion and additional material. Hence the Cincinnati and St. Louis Projects were selected for site visits. A site visit was also made subsequently to Project WALES in Washington, D.C. partially because of its convenient location and partially because it provided a contrast to Project CLEAR.

Another set of problems was evident in our review of the Ohio State Highway Patrol LEADS Project and for that reason we have included it among the group that received special evaluation.

## Evaluation of Project #167

Project CLEAR

Grantee: City of Cincinnati

Amount \$123,712

Dates: March 1967 to February 1968

[This was supplemented later by Grant #321:

\$124,545 from July 1968 to June 1969]

Purpose: Development of computer-based regional law enforcement to integrate and serve information handling requirements of police, prosecution and court agencies in Hamilton County and environs.

Summary

"CLEAR" is an acronym for County Law Enforcement Appplied Regionally. The project covers both the city of Cincinnati and the surrounding Hamilton County which includes 38 separate police departments. It will eventually serve parts of Kentucky and Indiana, as well as Ohio. Project CLEAR is not only a large real-

\* This evaluation of Project CLEAR prior to the site visit was based on the following documents:

1. Project CLEAR Application for Grant #167 for Period March 1, 67 to Feb. 28, 1968, OLEA U.S. Dept. of Justice
2. Project CLEAR Application for Grant #321 for Period July 1, 68 to June 30, 1969.
3. Project CLEAR, Final Report for Grant #167, dated June 30, 1968, OLEA.

The Final Report for Grant #321 was not made available to the evaluators.



time regional information system for law enforcement but includes provision for real-time and batch processing of a host of municipal records and related information, such as voter registration, health information, court records, property and income tax records, etc. Thus it is a very large real-time management information system serving the police and other municipal authorities of the Cincinnati-Hamilton County Region. It includes among its functions message switching, message processing, command and control, communications, information storage and retrieval, background processing of municipal records. Processing of court records to keep track of the progress of an individual through the Justice system, and resource allocation of police and other manpower are applications currently being programmed. Because of its goal of being a total management information system for the regional authorities, it represents a more ambitious project than some of the projects to which it is closely related such as #071 (WALES, Washington, D.C.), #050 (Phoenix, Arizona), #039 (St. Louis, Mo.). #051 (CJIS, California) is the only project that appeared from the reports to want to develop a larger management information system, but from the reports available it would appear that CJIS does not include the command and control function.

By (a) selecting a very capable staff, (b) using knowledge gained from the experiences of the Alameda County Police

Information Network and the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department second generation real-time system based on the IBM 7740 communication control computer and IBM 7040 "host" computer, and knowledge gained from the third generation real-time, Ohio State Highway Patrol, LEADS System based on the IBM 360/40 computer, and (c) having as a principal on-site consultant, a person who had previously directed the feasibility study, system design, and implementation of the Michigan Law Enforcement Network (LENIN), the directors of Project CLEAR placed themselves in a very much better position than projects like WALES which gave a contract to an outside consulting firm to do most of their planning, designing, hardware selection, etc. and did not have a sufficiently knowledgeable in-house staff to closely monitor the details of the hardware selection, software development, etc.

The development of detailed specifications and the process of selecting the vendor from which the hardware was purchased showed that the staff of Project CLEAR had benefitted from the experiences of others and knew what to do so that surprises would be minimized. Section 4 of the Final Report, dated June 30, 1968, on OLEA Grant No. 167 outlines the design criteria and the development of the detailed schedule which would result in the implementation of the real-time portion of the system by Jan. 1, 1969. It also presents the reasoning behind

the real-time program needed to interface with the vendor supplied software and mentions why certain files should be stored on disk units and others located on mass storage.

The software package called CUP (Communications User Program) which CLEAR personnel identified as being the real-time program necessary for them to develop to interface with the vendor supplied software, included a message control routine called COMEX (the Communications Executor) which would be responsible for handling all I/O from the communications into CUP; the schedule which would maintain control of the multiple tasks being performed in CUP and provide for immediate backup and restart capability; the File Executor which would control all I/O to disk and mass storage for all the real-time routines with access to the CLEAR files-- all the other routines communicated with the files through macros so that the detailed, physical level coding necessary to interact with the random access devices would have to be written only once. Also included in CUP was the message processing package called Inquiry/Response Processing. All inquiries would be passed to this routine to be processed by it through the File Executor and then the responses would be sent through the Communications Executor back to the terminal. Other routines in CUP which CLEAR personnel identified for in-house development were a Disk Processing Routine, and a

Mass Storage Processing Routine. The first would, through the file executor, handle all additions, modifications and cancellations to the disk file records and the second do the same for records on mass storage. The inquiry routine, the disk processing routine and the mass storage processing routine were all to be written to permit the processing of up to three transactions simultaneously with each routine.

The fact that the personnel of Project CLEAR were knowledgeable enough to identify precisely the software routines that were needed for interface with the vendor supplied software and capable enough to take on the tasks of developing the needed routines ensured that the end result would contain very few surprises for them.

The explanation of how and why the CLEAR team selected the RCA Spectra 70/45 over IBM and G.E. proposed hardware is very straightforward and well done (see pages 5-1 to 5-1 of the Final Report, dated June 30, 1968). The process of hardware procurement was started by the project personnel producing 500 pages of detailed system specifications of eight vendors who received these specifications. Three, G.E., I.B.M., and R.C.A., replied. After six weeks of detailed study the project team selected RCA to provide their third generation computer system, the Spectra 70/45. The reasons for this choice included the following: G.E.'s Operating System software was not

developed to the point where it could support a system of the magnitude of Project CLEAR. While IBM claimed they were the only manufacturer offering full Operating System software (IBM's OS), the Disk Operating System TDOS offered by RCA was sufficiently powerful for this job. Also RCA committed themselves to deliver the software on schedule and as per contract. The RCA Spectra 70/45 is equivalent to an IBM 360/50 but is priced lower at the price of the IBM 360/40 thus giving more CPU capacity for the same money. Furthermore the RCA Spectra Series 70/35, 70/45, and 70/55 is compatible with the IBM 360 configuration having the same instruction set, and within the series there is complete system capability and modularity, requiring no reprogramming. Thus in choosing the RCA Spectra 70/45 the project personnel felt they were retaining flexibility and would not have to do a lot of reprogramming if RCA did not produce what was promised. IBM on the other hand proposed as an interim system, a 360/20 which presented many programming limitations such as lack of core, small instruction set and no FORTRAN or COBOL. RCA personnel impressed the project team as being more trained and capable than the IBM personnel and RCA made a firm commitment for 75 man-months system assistance of such capable people. The project team also found RCA had a better understanding of their application. In addition to promising a six-month delivery of equipment, RCA

offered their equipment on a rent purchase plan which effectively amounted to a 25% discount, involved no further costs except maintenance after seven years and involved no extra shift rental. Excellent local service, parts and educational facilities were also offered by RCA.

The evaluator found all the points made by CLEAR personnel to be very reasonable and well considered. Although it is not explicitly mentioned in the Final Report it is likely that consultations with the Columbus, Ohio LEADS system personnel revealed to CLEAR personnel the many problems LEADS was having with IBM equipment and software. The fact is that around 1967-1968 there was quite a bit of disappointment with the initial performance of third generation software, especially the IBM 360 system software for the system had been announced and sold long before the software had been completely developed and debugged. On an overall basis of good hardware and software for the money, and excellent support by capable personnel of the vendor, the choice of an RCA 70/45 by Project CLEAR personnel appeared to be a wise one (as was later confirmed by our on-site visit).

#### ON-SITE VISIT TO PROJECT CLEAR

A site visit was made to Project CLEAR, in Cincinnati, Ohio on July 24, 1970, by Professors A. Niederhoffer, L. Kanal and H. Freeman. For Project CLEAR the visit was handled by

special officer T. Jones. Mr. Jack Owens, System Analyst, and Mr. Wayne Hartke, Project Supervisor, also participated. The visitors were first given a general briefing by Project CLEAR personnel. This was followed by a discussion period and a visit to the computer installation, as well as to a police station. At the computer installation a demonstration of the real-time system was given using a Video Data Terminal as the input device. At the police station, the system was demonstrated using a teletype terminal; subsequently, Special Officer T. Jones demonstrated the use of the system from his automobile using a radio inquiry concerning an observed automobile license plate.

#### Evaluation

As we stated in our evaluation of Project CLEAR prior to the site visit, from the written reports available to us, including the Final Report dated June 30, 1968, it appeared that although the software needed had been identified and planned, most of the software development still lay ahead; and we stated that the project's personnel might be overly optimistic with respect to their anticipated accomplishments. The site visit showed that in fact the message switching and information storage-and-retrieval functions of the system were operational and that the system was well on its way to incorporating nearly all of the originally proposed functions.

Unlike the problems experienced by LEADS, described earlier in this report by us, Project CLEAR had experienced virtually no major problems with the hardware or software and the project personnel were obviously very satisfied with the equipment and happy with their choice of vendor. The system had been designed to accommodate its anticipated functions and the project is well staffed with knowledgeable personnel who participated in the design and development of the system.

The project now has 80 persons on its staff and a budget of 2.6 million dollars. The hardware cost three million dollars. In a typical day, an average of 3200 inquiries are processed by the system; of these Cincinnati accounts for 75%. Emphasis is currently being placed on developing a court scheduling facility. Priority is being given at the moment to providing for the handling of traffic citations. There is also some interest in future development of a resource allocation capability similar to that used by the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department.

All told, as far as message switching and message processing systems are concerned, Project CLEAR represents the third generation real-time computer information system which we encountered in this (admittedly limited) study. From the newspapers and trade journals it would appear that during 1970 a number of additional regional and metropolitan police information systems have gone on-line. Without additional



detailed information regarding them it is not easy to be definite. However, it is still likely that at present CLEAR represents as advanced a police message switching and message processing system as exists in the country. The capability of their personnel and the budgetary support of the community make it plausible that Project CLEAR will continue to add functional capability which the third generation system is quite capable of handling. Meanwhile Project CLEAR is an operating system that is fulfilling useful and needed functions.

The Cincinnati police officers whom we interviewed were pleased with the system. It enabled them to get useful data at the scene of an investigation in a matter of seconds, sometimes. It truly is a matter of life or death for an officer to know whether the suspicious car he is chasing, or the person he is questioning, is wanted for a crime or not.

Unfortunately, it is not the computer system that is at fault, but it is the accessibility of the radio dispatcher. In a demonstration of the capability of the computer, an officer picked up his radio phone to call in a license number. It took at least three minutes for the headquarters radio dispatcher to reach his request. Once contact was made, the answer came back in a matter of 30-40 seconds. There is no doubt that the computer system is accomplishing its goal, helping the patrol force and the detectives in their investigations.

Evaluation of Project #39

Grantee: St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department  
Amount: \$170,482  
Dates: July 1966 to December 1967  
Purpose: Development of experimentation with new techniques for allocating police patrol manpower based on hour, need, and geographic region. Predictive techniques will use computer capabilities.

Summary

Of those systems, partly or fully supported by OLEA grants, on which information was provided to us, Cincinnati's Project CLEAR was selected as representing the best thought through and implemented third-generation real-time message switching and processing system. St. Louis on the other hand has a mature second-generation real-time police information system. Indeed St. Louis was the first city in the world to install a real-time computer system.

The St. Louis second-generation system consists of an IBM 7740 communications control computer linked to an IBM 7040 central processor by a high-speed data channel. The 7740 has a 7.3 million character IBM 1311 disk and the 7040, a 226 million character IBM 2302 disk for secondary storage. Straight forward and well written descriptions of the system

and its various inquiry, administrative, and police planning subsystems are provided in the reports listed below.\* As in the case of Project CLEAR, the evaluators were impressed by the quality of the work done by the in-house computer and police personnel associated with the St. Louis system.

Since the only reports available to us prior to a site visit consisted of the two volume final report on OLEA Grant #039, and since the Resource Allocation subsystem was the part supported by OLEA, this was the only aspect of the St. Louis system evaluated by us prior to the site visit. As we stated then, the reports impressed us as representing the best job of applying operations research to the problem of how to use most effectively a limited patrol manpower in crime control. In addition there was innovative use of

\*St. Louis M.P.D. reports:

1. Hovey, S.W., "Computer-based information systems for police department", (1967).
2. Stoechner, T.W. and Gaffney, P.M., "A computer-based field interview report system", (1968).
3. Cornish, L.A., "A Computer Based Adult Arrest Record System Case Study", (1967)
4. Manson, D.A., "A Modern Law Enforcement Communications Network", (1968)
5. (St. Louis M.P.D.), Allocation of Patrol Manpower Resources in the St. Louis Police Department, Vols. I and II, Report on OLEA Grant #39, (July 1966-December 1967).
6. Allocation of Patrol Manpower Resources in the St. Louis Police Department, Supplementary Report, (Jan. 29, '69).
7. Pauly, G.A., McKewen, T., and Finch, S., "Computer mapping -- a new technique in crime analysis", (1967).

Computer Graphics, and it appeared that an excellent study had been performed for the amount of money (\$170,482 from July 1966 to December 1967). Our evaluation prior to the site visit stated "Excellent overall as far as the study goes. Whether this excellence then produced results in the field and substantially improved law enforcement in St. Louis is not easy to determine from the reports and perhaps some discussion of this should be taken up during a site visit." This was the reason for the site visit -- to determine how well an excellent study had been translated into practice and to determine whether the excellence of the study produced any substantial results in the field.

The basic description of the Resource Allocation subsystem is given in reference 5 and summarized previously in the draft dated 11/6/19, on #039. This will not be repeated here. What we do wish to comment on here is the validity of the theoretical basis for the resource allocation system, its likelihood of corresponding to reality and the capability of the model to be changed and improved.

The basic ideas are, in retrospect simple and obvious, but it should be kept in mind that they were first thought through and implemented for police information systems only as recently as 1965. These ideas are that calls for police services have both spatial and temporal patterns and that these

patterns can be understood by (1) appropriate division of the city into standardized, permanent, data gathering units, (2) developing generative statistical models for the data, i. e. ; proposing succinct mechanisms from which data such as that observed could have arisen; (3) generating predicted data from the proposed models and seeing how well they compare with actual observed data; (4) making use of spatial graphical plots so that the incidence of crimes in various parts of the city is clearly visible, for visual presentations are much better as transmitters of information than long printouts of numbers.

One of the main contributions of Operation Research techniques to the operation of various service type businesses, ranging from airlines and supermarkets to the corner shoe shine store, has been to show that efficient provision of the service to customers, and utilization of personnel can be simultaneously accomplished through the application of Queueing Theory. This involves developing a model for (a) the input distribution, i. e. the probability distribution of time between calls for service (customer arrivals); (b) the service distribution, i. e. the probability distribution of time required to take care of the customer; and (c) the Queue discipline, i. e. the number of servers and the organization of the waiting line and the organization of the service. The net result of such a

Queueing Theory analysis is to provide quantitative information on the number of servers needed to maintain various levels of service at various times.

The Resource Allocation Project of the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department applied these ideas to the problem of crime prediction and patrol allocation in a realistic manner. Their problem oriented approach and thorough documentation of the manner in which they tried it out contrasts very favorably with many of the other reports by OLEA grantees. The selection of a Poisson probability model for the probability of events in a fixed interval of time is relevant for the generation of calls for service in a fixed interval of time (p.28, Vol. 2). Obtaining the average rate for a given Pauly area and given period of time determined from the exponentially-smoothed series for the actual number of events (see p.93, Appendix, Vol.2) also represents an application of relevant statistical methodology. By setting up the data collection areas as permanent areas using the concept of Pauly areas (which are sufficiently small, but not too small as to be too numerous and give unmeasurable incidences of crime from which no stable estimates of statistical parameters can be made), by categorizing radio calls about ten categories and maintaining a smoothed series for each category for both the number of calls for service and

the required service time, and by generally understanding how to apply the standard methodology of Queueing Theory to their problem, the St. Louis Project came up with what we consider to be a valid patrol unit allocation system.

This allows a police department to: (1) have a fair idea of what workload to expect in a given area at a given time of day; (2) determine how many patrol units would be required at various times of the day to provide various levels of service; (3) consider alternative strategies for allocation of manpower, such as split patrol units (one for service calls and one for crime prevention patrol) and variable call-for-service beats. The sections from pages 29-45 of Vol. II of reference 5 give in-depth evaluations of the call for service predictions, the crime data and patrol operations, and comparisons of the Test and Control District Operations. They show clearly that the St. Louis Police Department was able to control the application of resources to the call-for-service function on the basis of the data supplied by the Resource Allocation prediction programs. The scheduled resources provided the level of service predicted so that the Statistical Theory was capable of being implemented in practical patrol policies. Furthermore, the Police Department was able to, because of the prediction tables, release manpower to meet the problem of crime prevention and still

maintain a satisfactory level of service.

There is no question of the validity of the theory on which this resource allocation project is based. The theory is well founded, has been applied in many similar applications before as a result of which it is well developed. The end results show that additional complexity of assumptions regarding the input distribution of calls for service would not be warranted since the Poisson assumption is working well, with predicted calls in good statistical agreement with actual calls. The main questions that do arise concern the Queue Discipline and especially the organization of the service, i. e. the patrol units, and variable beats. Here theory is of little help and simulation and actual trial of alternative strategies is necessary.

Simulation is possible because of the computer system and gives some guiding results. Actual trial is more convincing, but unfortunately depends on a lot of other side factors which are not under control as when one is simulating. One of the factors in evaluating by trials is that such an evaluation should be done over a long period of time and at the time the project report was written only data on a six-month period of trial were available. Another factor is that a large variety of options cannot all be experimented, i. e., a full design of experiments is not feasible, and so to a large extent choices must be narrowed down



on the basis of what seems feasible. In such a situation one cannot speak of optimum allocation of resources, but must look for satisfactory methods that work. The split-function patrol concept (service or crime prevention) and variable call-for-service beats do give one satisfactory method in that responses to calls for service were provided as required without significant delay, the overflow workload from the calls for service was of the magnitude planned. However, as far as responding to calls for service, the scheduling during the six month period prior to the implementation of the project methods was also practical so that the schedules developed in the second phase could only be judged as superior or inferior to those used before on the basis of the availability and distribution of preventive effort. The ability to anticipate using a systematic method, the workload to be expected, to be able to balance workloads with levels of service and to concentrate preventive resources at times when they could be most productive is a help to any Police Department.

Other than the above help in planning the department's work rationally, the comparison of operations in the seventh and ninth districts during Phase I and Phase II of the Resource Allocation Project did not show a consistent picture of either success or failure for the Project. Because the project seemed well conceived and experimentation with it was continuing at

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St. Louis, it was selected for a site visit. The purpose of the site visit was to see what was the present opinion of the people using the methods of the Resource Allocation Project and what impact its implementation had had on the operation of the Police Department.

The St. Louis IBM 7740/7040 system is now operating 96% of the time. Connected to it are 60 ASR-28 terminals. A total of 21 county agencies are participating, as well as 9 city districts. The system serves about 2200 police officers in St. Louis itself and another 1000 in the neighboring counties. There are six on-line subsystems operating in the 7740/7040 environment. These are: (1) vehicle; (2) warrant; (3) arrest; (4) F.I.R. (field interview reports); (5) personnel; (6) wanted persons. In addition, the system is used for Accounts Receivable and record checking on potential employees. There is, however, only manual backup in case of equipment failure.

After receipt of a police report, there is direct entry of information from a terminal to the system. Only the agency that created the record can modify or destroy it. Vehicle records are kept until the vehicle is recovered -- some records in the system date back to 1960. Warrants are strictly bench warrants. The arrest system in St. Louis, because of a State Law, allows the police to hold a person for

20 hours on probable cause to believe that he committed a felony. At the 18th hour the computer starts reminding the police that an arrested person has to be released in two more hours, or taken to court. The booking is done on-line and each arrest register number has to be accounted for. The time of arrest is the time a policeman first stopped the arrested person. Currently, the effort is to make the arrest system also a criminal history system. Every arrest leads to a description of the person being sent to NCIC. The Field Interview Report or Field Interrogation Report leads to an F.I.R. file that can be searched by nineteen descriptions. The F.I.R. system which includes curfew (for juveniles up to 17 years) and truancy reports, develops who has been in a certain area. Known Police Characters (K.P.C.) are the only ones required to be interviewed with other persons being interviewed on a given occasion at the discretion of the police officer concerned.

The St. Louis system now also has an IBM 360/30 which serves as a management information system and background information has been moved over to this computer, which uses a 2314 disk file and 2260 visual data terminal instead of keypunches. Gradually it is expected that all keypunch equipment will be replaced by visual data entry equipment which is easy to use, being just like a typewriter and therefore faster than

keypunches; also visual verification on the face of the cathode ray tube display makes the entry less error prone than when keypunches are used. The department is now considering changing the 360/30 with a 360/50 which is 15-30 times faster than the 7040, and costs \$35,000 per month in rental; they are also considering an IBM 370/155 which is the latest and most modern of the IBM computers announced and rents for \$34,900 per month.

Presumably the faster third-generation IBM 360 system should allow the system to be even more responsive and the mass data storage capacity of the third generation system makes it possible to consider even more widespread use than at present. Basically the move to a more powerful computer system is motivated by bringing down the cost per operation of the system even though this requires additional investment in new equipment. Of course, in this respect the Police Department is no different from any company or organization which upgrades its equipment via capital expenditures in order to reduce per unit operating costs. However, changeover from the second generation 7740/7040 system to the 360/50 system requires a massive job of reprogramming. All the programs that have been operational for years on the older computer must be redone so that they will run on the new computer and redoing these programs is not easy or inexpensive. Fortunately the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department has very capable personnel in its data processing department and their experience with IBM equipment, along with the experiences of LEADS and others, should prove

valuable. As was the case for the second generation system, they will probably develop most of their software themselves and thus may be able to avoid some of the problems of LEADS and WALES.

In addition to speed and larger capacity, the tradeoff between the second generation and third generation systems includes the hardware problems which require greater and greater maintenance as a system gets older versus the hardware and software problems which might be encountered because of the nature of the new system. Although IBM has approximately eighty percent of the computer market, the reputation of the 360 hardware and software among computer professionals suffers in comparison with systems offered by RCA, CDC and UNIVAC. These problems include lack of sophistication in the Operating System for the 360, which for example makes it necessary for a programmer to declare ahead of time how much storage his program will need whereas systems by other manufacturers perform dynamic allocation of memory. The IBM tape drives are notorious for their variation from specifications and the 360 operator's console is said to produce an error each time someone bumps it. Furthermore, as was the experience of Project CLEAR personnel, IBM is not as motivated nor are its personnel as well qualified to look at the problem from a point of view which is optimum for the user. The decisions to purchase computer systems are, however, made at the higher levels of management where the salesmanship of IBM wins out over the technical understanding of the computer professional.

At St. Louis, of course, the various programs will be written and debugged by the project staff once and for all and there are not many other users trying to run a variety of programs which call for flexibility and sophistication of the software to do such things as dynamic allocation of memory. We (meaning L. Kanal) are nevertheless surprised that St. Louis has not examined the experience of LEADS and CLEAR and considered going to a third-generation system like the RCA 70/45 which offers the equivalent of the IBM 360/50 at a lower price and with fewer headaches.

Thus the present state of the computer system is that the conversion to a third-generation system is still ahead of St. Louis. As a result of the conversion, St. Louis should have a system equivalent to CLEAR or LEADS as far as message switching and information storage and retrieval goes. Of course, the data gathering procedures will differ since each department is refining its own methods. The report referenced below,\* provided to us during the site visit, presents the latest state of the computerized Field Interview Report System which gathers data for the real-time computer file of F.I.R. information which can be queried by teletype terminals throughout the Police Department. The other major difference is likely to be the emphasis (because of their experience) by the St. Louis group on SYMAPS and related computer graphics. The development program for Project CLEAR calls for this capability at a much later stage.

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\* St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department, Field Interview Report, Information Manual, 2nd Edition, October 1, 1969.

## Evaluation

Discussion of the experience with the Resource Allocation System since the writing of the two volume report on OLEA Grant #39 included a description of the 15-week experiment which was performed starting on October 22, 1967. As a result of the Resource Allocation Project, the St. Louis Police Department approved the use of Resource Allocation information for a 15-week period in four police districts with a different method of operation being implemented in each district. The procedures and results of the 15-week experiment in the four districts are documented in the supplementary report\* dated January 29, 1969, which was provided to us during the site visit. The report gives a subjective evaluation which relies to a large extent on reports from command personnel directly involved in the experiment. The nature of such an experiment, which is superimposed on the day-to-day concerns of an operating police department, makes it very difficult to produce quantitative analyses which are any more meaningful than the subjective evaluations. Indeed one of the major stumbling blocks to the successful application of Operations Research to most existing complex systems and organizations is clearly demonstrated again in this application, that rarely is there an analytical solution pointing to one optimal strategy and implementation of alternative strategies in a real environment is difficult, time-consuming and often leads to less than clear cut results as far as performance is concerned.

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\* St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department, Supplementary Report, January 29, 1969.

The original intent to test two sets of operational procedures by using each set in two districts was not realized in practice. For example, "Although, patrol units had been assigned in the third district to answer virtually all calls for service without delay, the Commander of the Third District was very much impressed with the idea of delaying non-urgent calls. A number of such calls was indeed assigned to the two-man overlay units assigned to the supervisory areas. This procedure violated the original provisions of the test, since stacking procedures were to have been tested only in the Fifth and Ninth Districts." A number of similar departures from test procedures arose.

For a Police Department it would seem that a true measure of performance is the reduction in crime and all other aspects of planning are incidental to this goal. However, crime depends on many factors beyond the control of the Police Department. Suppose the number of Index Crimes in the Ninth District (which was using the Split-Patrol Technique of call-for-service patrol units determined by predictions of the Resource Allocation program and a second set of patrol units for preventive patrol) decreased during the first six months of 1967 in comparison both with the previous six months and the first six months of 1966. How could one say that the new patrol methods were responsible for this decrease? The decrease might have been greater using the traditional patrol method. What actually happened was that during the 15-week test period, Index crimes increased in the Third District as compared to the same period of the previous year, so that the Resource



Allocation program did not reduce the rate of reported crimes. But one could hardly conclude that the program increased crime since increases for the year had already been reported in six of the nine months completed and crime increases were also reported in those districts which were not using the Resource Allocation program.

Direct causal correlation of the program with crime reduction thus does not seem feasible. What is feasible is that within the constraints on resources and objectives set by the local or state authorities, the department do the best it can in allocating those resources. Even to the question of what is the optimum number of officers to be employed in an area only a part answer can be given. The calls for service can be modeled and predicted but as far as preventive patrol goes, how is one to really determine that an officer should spend a certain percentage of his time on preventive patrol? The supplementary report also points out some of the "people" problems which arise in implementing a strategy. For example (see p. 41 of the Supplementary Report), "The Resource Allocation Unit recommended that the watch hours begin at midnight, 8 a.m. and 4 p.m. rather than 7 a.m., 3 a.m., and 11 p.m. . . . However, the morale of the patrol force reportedly dropped as a result of this change. Subsequently, a recommendation to return to the normal watch house beginning April 8, 1968 was approved." Another example (see p. 46 of the Supplementary Report): "A main difficulty encountered in the Fifth and Ninth Districts arose from the designation of call-for-service unit or 'crime prevention unit.' Patrol

personnel in the former units had a tendency to feel that their only responsibility was to answer calls for service and that they were not required to perform any preventive activities. Similarly, personnel in the crime prevention units had a tendency to believe that they should never receive a call for service." However, as was noted at the conference during the site visit, the effect of the program on officer morale was generally beneficial and as the system was understood and used by a wider group, its effect on morale continued to be positive. Part of this may be attributed to the effort to match the system to the people as was the case with the change in watch hours and non-designation of extra personnel as crime prevention units and the establishment of a rotation schedule so that no patrol officer is assigned to either type of patrol unit for a long period of time. It is in fact suggested in the report that if such a rotation schedule is not established overall patrol morale may decline. Part of the morale improvement may be traceable to something observed when we visited a precinct. The police officers working with remote terminals, SYMAPS, etc., were clearly enthusiastic about the system. It reflected a subtle upgrading of their work and furthermore interaction with an on-line real-time computer system is an activity which seems to have an inherent fascination for most people. It's a nice but very useful "toy" to play with and by now it is obvious was designed to help the police do a better job, and not cause them additional boring duties.

The planning of the Resource Allocation experiments by a committee composed of the Commander of the Bureau of Investigation, the Commanders of the North and South Areas, the Third, Fifth, Eighth and Ninth Districts and the Communications Division; with Director of the Resource Allocation Unit and a representative from the Government Research Institute of St. Louis acting as advisors, started the process which led to increased insight into the operations of the St. Louis Police Department. During the course of the experiments in the Fifth, Ninth, Third and Eighth Districts, the Commanders of these districts, using a rational set of alternative plans actually tried out the Resource Allocation program. The alternatives included variable vs. fixed number of beats, traditional vs. split patrol, one-man vs. two-man patrol units, and stacking of radio calls. The SYMAPS also got the people involved aware of the spatial and temporal patterns of the incidence of crime in their districts. Thus even when the resulting Resource Allocation program did not produce clear cut quantitative results, the active involvement of personnel in the experiment gave subjective insights into the operation of the department. This is one of the indirect beneficial effects of such an exercise. Thus, for example, both the District Commanders of both the districts which had tried out the split patrol concept requested their continued use after the termination of the test.

Objective information produced by the Resource Allocation project includes the predictions of calls for service and the queueing reports

which have proved sufficiently accurate to be useful. The flat-tone and contour SYMAPS provide graphic evidence of the incidence of crime and shifts of crime over a period of time. Maps are produced not only Total Index Crime but also for eight major categories of crime; Auto Theft, Theft from Auto, Business Burglary, etc. This allows the District Commander to see where his specific needs lie in the area of crime prevention. The predicted crime maps are produced every few days. They take into account seasonal factors through exponential smoothing and the factors used in the exponential smoothing are themselves smoothed, i. e., the actual rates immediately preceding them are given more weight than those which held several weeks or months ago. In addition, in the design of beats such well known facts are incorporated such as that there is more activity on Friday and Saturday evenings than at any other time. The predictive aspects of the Resource Allocation program have proved useful and the activity using SYMAPS which we observed in the precinct gave the impression that it was a tool much used in the day-to-day operation of the department.

The basis of the system is the Pauly map, an innovative design for collecting meaningful operational data. The following description of the Pauly Area is taken from Vol. 1 of the final report, pp. 35-37.

## "II. The Pauly Area System and the New Location Code

Before discussing the planning and analysis data provided through the Resource Allocation Project, it is necessary to explain first the systems which were established for recording the information. The data upon

which much of this information draws are taken from the source documents, on which the locations of the incidents are indicated by street address or intersections. Summaries and averages of the activities with which these data are concerned are recorded by geographic units called "Pauly Areas." By coding street addresses into the proper New Location Code designation, a Computer Street File System can record quickly and efficiently these data by Pauly Area.

#### Pauly Area System

The Pauly Area System for collecting data originated in 1964, when Lieutenant Glenn Pauly was Commander of the Crime Analysis Section, a unit of the Bureau of Field Operations. One of the duties of the Section was to furnish, when requested by the Bureau Commander, special statistical information concerning the incidence of crime in given areas of the city. "Crime Slips" constituted the source documents for this information. These slips are prepared by the Crime Classification Section from the original copy of the police reports. Each slip contains all known data concerning a particular criminal incident. Before the Pauly Area System was established, a report came into the Crime Analysis Section and was filed by the type of offense and by the district in which it occurred. The requests for crime data usually specified an area of about 10 square city blocks. For example, many requests concerned crime in various housing projects or in St. Louis Gaslight Square, a popular night club area. In order to find the incidence of given types

of crime for such areas, it was necessary to individually search the slips or reports of an entire district or even several districts, select those which fell within the area specified, and total the results. It became evident that a quicker means of gathering this information would be beneficial.

In the summer of 1964, the Commander of Crime Analysis began experimenting with various ways of dividing the city into small geographic areas for data collection. Subsequently, the city was divided into nine large sections of approximately equal size. These sections are bounded by the city limits and four main thoroughfares -- Arsenal Street and Cass-Easton Avenues, which run East and West; and Grand and Kingshighway Boulevards, which run North and South. Each section was further subdivided into small areas approximately 1/12 of a square mile in size, which became known as Pauly Areas.

There are between 37 and 79 Pauly Areas in each Section, and a total of 480 in the city (Figure 1). Each Pauly Area has a unique number formed by simply prefixing the Section number to the Area number within that Section. Thus Area 23 in Section 4 is 4-23, while Area 23 in Section 8 is 8-23. The fact that the Pauly Areas are grouped under nine major sections, with each of these divided into smaller areas, makes this an extremely efficient filing system.

The criterion followed in constructing the Pauly Areas was that each be a fairly homogeneous geographic unit, with an average size of from 9 to 12 city blocks. A "homogeneous" unit is interpreted to mean

an area composed of similar structures, such as residences, business establishments, or housing projects. This construction of Pauly Areas made them particularly useful in crime analysis.

The Pauly Area System is very useful for data collection within the context of police patrol operations. Statistics on crime for an entire district are of very little use to the district commander in deciding where preventive patrol units should be concentrated. It is highly desirable to define crime problems by smaller basic units.

One alternative is to collect data by individual city blocks. However, this unit was rejected for data collection purposes because they are too numerous, and a long period of time is generally required before there is a measurable incidence of crime in any given block. The patrol beat was also rejected for data collection purposes. Beat boundaries should be flexible, so that areas patrolled by officers can be adapted to changing needs, but a permanent area is needed for data collection.

Once the System was constructed, a procedure was established whereby each criminal incident noted on all incoming crime slips was assigned its proper Pauly Area number by reference to a large map on which the Sections and Pauly Areas were clearly indicated. If no location, or a nonexistent one, was given on a crime slip, the slip was filed in an "unknown" section. Those with proper Pauly Area numbers were filed first by Section number, and then by Pauly Area. (A copy of the crime report was also kept and filed for each district by type of offense.)

At the end of each month, the totals of each offense, by type, and the total number of offenses which occurred within each Pauly Area were tabulated and logged on a two-page form (Figure 2) for each Pauly Area. On this form were indicated the Pauly Area number and a breakdown, by type, of the incidents which occurred during the month. By early 1965, a full year's data had been recorded by Pauly Areas, thus providing a solid basis for comparison with future data and for the analysis of patterns and trends of crime. Today, data continue to be collected and filed under the procedures originally established for the System.

Performed manually, the Pauly Area System of data collection requires a great deal of clerical effort, although it is still a vast improvement over previous methods. The system also lent itself readily to incorporation into a computer file system at the St. Louis Police Department which, once established, superseded the manual Pauly Area System. In addition, more applications were found for using the computer system. As described in Chapter 1, the Pauly Area System as adapted to the computer is being used effectively for both planning and evaluating patrol operations. Crime reports based on information collected by Pauly Area have proven to be very valuable in the Resource Allocation Project. The call-for-service beats in the test district were developed on the basis of predictions made for each Pauly Area.

The permanency of the Pauly Areas provides the stability necessary for valid data collection, while their size makes them ideal for



evaluating the patterns and trends of various activities. The fact that they are distinct from, and smaller than, patrol beats makes them useful for determining where activity is occurring, even within beats."

With the Pauly Area system, maps can be produced by the computer showing the total volume of calls or the total volume of crime. The crime maps are shaded according to the ranges of crime in the city. So that at a glance a precinct commander, or any other member of the force, can tell where crime is heavy or light, make comparisons for any period he desires, or plan future changes in patrol.

Every commander can ask the computer center for maps for any period he is interested in. The computer center produced maps and reports of all types. Based upon an analysis of these reports, a precinct is divided into radio car patrol sections for a cycle of 21 days. These suggested patrol divisions can be modified by precinct commanders and occasionally are. However, the suggested plan is usually followed automatically by the clerical officer making up the roll calls. The sectors change every 21 days according to the new information fed into the computer. This 21-day period allows a rate of success in prediction for calls for service well into the 80% area. With smaller period the percentage of successful prediction falls off.

The computer center constantly feeds reports, monthly, weekly, daily and, if wanted, hourly. Based upon our discussions with a commander of a station house, it was our impression that this is an excess of information that goes into a desk drawer and is rarely if ever looked at again.

It may be that there is an over production of information here that eventually may detract from the impact of even the 21-day chart that now is working well.

The morale of the patrol force is good. They do not seem to be disturbed by the maps and reports, nor are they disgruntled by the frequent changes of radio car sectors. Apparently the enthusiasm for the computer system and the resource allocation project which makes the St. Louis department unique has created a feeling of pride in the men that has overcome any natural tendency, evident in other departments, to develop a sense of territoriality. This was corroborated by the attitude survey which was part of the research design. There were 5 such scales to the test:

- a. Satisfaction with department management.
- b. Satisfaction with immediate supervision.
- c. Satisfaction with job.
- d. Satisfaction with role in the community.
- e. Satisfaction with unit.

This 64-item test was administered before and after to the patrol force in the test district and in the control district as well. There was no evidence from the test data that morale was lowered as a result of the innovation.

The department is honest enough to state that certain important problems remain to be solved, such as:

1. What type of manpower mix is most desirable to secure maximum results?
2. How should the proportion of one- and two-man call-for-service units be decided?
3. How much emphasis should be put on prompt response to calls for service if this requires a dilution of staffing of preventive patrol units?
4. Should all preventive patrol units be two-man? Should such officers work in uniform or plainclothes, in marked or unmarked vehicles?

In passing it is worthy of mention that Lt. Pauly and the rest of the team are working on the possibility of predicting crime patterns as successfully as they have done with calls for service. Other computer projects have failed badly in this area, but in view of this group's talents, a close look should be given to their experimental efforts in this direction.

The overall impression gained by the site visiting team was that an exceptionally capable system had been put together in St. Louis and that the Resource Allocation system was yielding benefits. On a city-wide basis the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department was planning on using variable beat patterns in each district with the number of beats varying by time of day and day of the week.

On a theoretical level one might argue that St. Louis should have done some simulation of alternate plans for organizing patrol units,

stacking calls, etc. But on a practical level, a mathematical model for such a simulation is likely to be both too complex and unwieldy, and unrealistic so that the methods developed and tried out can hardly be criticized.

It is interesting to note that recently the St. Louis police group has written a computer program, coded in GPSS, to simulate the operation of the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department's real-time motor vehicle inquiry system. The simulation model explicitly involves the communications channels, four computers and eleven remote terminals, and considers four types of inquiries, viz, vehicle (or license) checks, and additions, deletions and modifications to stored information. Other system equipment and types of inquiries are implicitly represented. In the preprint of a paper scheduled for presentation to the 38th National Meeting of the Operations Research Society of America,\* four experiments with the simulator are reported. These involve changes in terminal equipment, the message assembly procedure, the priority system and system loading. Unlike the P. I. B. effort, here specific questions were asked and specific conclusions drawn regarding an existing complex system. Examples of conclusions based on the experiments are (a) the system as it now exists is capable of handling an increased volume of inquiry traffic without developing unmanageable queues or unacceptable

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\* N. B. Heller and R. Kolde, "The Use of Simulation in Planning Expansion of the St. Louis Police Real-Time Motor Vehicle Inquiry System"; presented at the 38th National Meeting O. R. S. A., Detroit, Oct. 28-30, 1970.

delay times; if a 25% increase in response time were acceptable, all inquiry rates could be increased by as much as a factor of four.

(b) Response time can best be reduced by replacing teletype terminals (which communicate with the 7740 at a transmission rate of 10.6 characters per second) at the district stations, with IBM 1050 terminals (for which the line from the 7740 has a transmission rate of 14.8 characters per second). The paper illustrates by specific examples that simulation can provide a relatively inexpensive approach to the evaluation of proposed changes, not only in data services but in other areas of police operations as well.

However, lest anyone think that the St. Louis department has reached a pinnacle of rational objective decision making by the introduction of computers, logic and mathematical sophistication, let them take heart. In many respects the St. Louis police department is still the predictable bureaucracy that is the prevalent style in large police departments. About the time of our site visit in July 1970, there was a scandal in the New York City Police Department involving corruption in the Narcotics Bureau. Frightened by that distant rumble, the St. Louis Department did the expected. It took Lieutenant Pauly, one of the most innovative and competent research and analysis men to be found in any police department, out of the analysis unit and put him in charge of the Narcotics Unit.

Evaluation of Project #15

Grantee: Metropolitan Police Department, Washington, D. C.

Amount: \$257,456

Dates: May 1966 to October 1968

Purpose: Developmental work for computer based information system to service police departments in metropolitan Washington, D. C. area. Also to test the "wanted auto" file.

Summary

The proposal was, to say the least, ambitious in that it envisaged a regional computer center covering law enforcement in Washington, D. C., Maryland and Virginia for a start, but with possible extension to other eastern states; and further it planned to accomplish all the following capabilities:

- I. Information Retrieval System
  - a. Name file
  - b. Driver's license file
  - c. Wanted file
  - d. Youth gang file
  - e. Alias file
  - f. Motor vehicle file
  - g. Criminal history file
  - h. Crime character file (this is a variation of a modus operandi file)
  - i. A fingerprint index file
  - j. Personal profile file

- II. A Management Information and Resource Allocation System
  - a. Statistics on crime
  - b. Statistics on investigation
  - c. Statistics on arrests
- III. Command and Control System
- IV. Message Switching

WALES has an IBM 360/40 fully dedicated to this project with the IBM 360/50 of the U.S. Government Share Complex (utilized by many agencies of the Government) providing the backup capabilities. In the event of the 360/40 failure, operations are switched over to the 360/50 through IBM 2911 units four of which are provided. One of 2911's is dedicated to the data bank on the 2314 disk unit; one to the central processing unit; the other two to the terminal devices and other peripheral equipment such as card reader, printer and punch. To accomplish switchover, appropriate switches are thrown manually. In the event that the 360/40 2314 unit is inoperative, the disk packs are moved manually to the 360/50 2314 unit in order to operate in the back-up mode. The remote terminal devices consist of thirty IBM 2740 Keyboard/Printers, and eight IBM 2260 Video/Display Keyboard terminals.

#### Evaluation

The project is operational as far as some files of the information storage and retrieval system such as stolen car records are concerned. It is connected to NCIC, but message switching and most of

the other functions envisaged in the original proposal still remain to be implemented.

The new communications system is the current pride and joy of the Washington Police Department and there has been a reported drop in crime in Washington. However, as far as WALES is concerned, the contrast with Project CLEAR and St. Louis where both the police and civilian personnel seemed to be very competent and full of enthusiasm for their computer real-time information systems, is very great indeed.

There was very little if any in-house capability in the area of computers. The system was designed by an outside contractor on the basis of a study awarded to this contractor after the present Chief of Police of Washington visited the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department. Other departments such as Cincinnati and St. Louis had outside consultants do the initial feasibility studies but then these departments staffed up and developed in-house capability to design their own systems. Even the outside consultant did not have the requisite personnel as is mentioned in the section on Contractor Evaluation (p. 63) of the WALES report made available to us.

Unfortunately even at this date because of the budget problems of the Washington Police -- they are dependent on Congress whereas St. Louis and Cincinnati can levy taxes and have basically designed and implemented their system with money raised by their citizens -- in-house capability to develop a full-fledged system like CLEAR is not possible without substantial funds from LEAA or other sources. Furthermore,



since there were insufficient in-house people associated with the detailed design and procurement of the hardware and software (that was done by the contractor) the kind of staff expertise we witnessed in Cincinnati and St. Louis just hasn't had a chance to develop at Washington. The director of data processing at WALES seemed to be somewhat demoralized by the lack of funds to hire qualified personnel who would provide such an in-house capability. WALES needs an in-house team of bright computer systems analysts, programmers and operations researchers working closely with the officers to bring the system up to its full potential. The support of the police authorities and the community which was available to the St. Louis and Cincinnati projects could also help here.

Evaluation of Project #38

Grantee: Ohio State Highway Patrol, Columbus, Ohio

Amount: \$76,200

Dates: July 1966 to October 1967

Purpose: Feasibility study for model state-wide computer based information system to serve law enforcement agencies at all levels (survey of needs, analysis of service-offering potential, and development of recommendations).

Summary

The contract for the study was given to Ernst and Ernst, the research consultant firm. They started by surveying the use of computers in law enforcement. This part of the report may be the best accomplishment of the project.

They proposed a system given the same name as some other computer systems in use, LEADS, Law Enforcement Automated Data System. It was purely an information retrieval system and the heart of the data storage was the three main information files:

- 1) An Ohio licensed vehicle registration file.
- 2) An Ohio operators' license file, including a record of arrests, conviction, and traffic summons points.
- 3) An auto alert file containing information on stolen cars, missing plates, etc.

The system would be designed for compatibility with the FBI National Crime Information Center (NCIC) as well as the Law Enforcement Tele-communications System (LETS) which has direct lines to systems in 48 states.

They were fortunate that the Ohio Department of Finance had a computer, an IBM 360/40 system, and that it had the capacity to handle the additional load contemplated by LEADS. In addition, there was a second machine available as a back-up computer that could be phased in within ten minutes in case the primary computer broke down. In other words, the computer system in Ohio State was feasible and ready to get started. Unfortunately, it would need a lot of money. The lowest estimate for the system was \$218,000.

The system was eventually installed but ran into many serious problems.

#### Evaluation

The evaluation of the Ohio State Highway Patrol computer system, LEADS, located in Columbus, Ohio, is a case study of computer project problems. The LEADS system provides communications, data storage, retrieval functions, and is interfaced with the NCIC computer system. (Although only the Feasibility Study, dated April 1967 was available originally to the evaluators, some of the trials and tribulations of Ohio's LEADS have been reported during the last year by the Computer Trade Journals and it is this information which is used here.) As it now stands LEADS is a message switching plus computer file inquiry system which

uses an IBM 360/50 computer with another IBM 360/50 as backup to give twenty-four hour service to 280 terminals, yielding 33,000 to 40,000 inquiries daily. LEADS went on-line with 44 terminals late in 1968. During 1969 while about 200 new terminals were being added, downtime averaged 6.5%, about half of which was for testing. By April 1, 1970, LEADS files held information on 6,544,000 registered vehicles, 8,250,000 drivers and 17,000 stolen vehicles.

From the early period of LEADS' history one learns that the software for LEADS message control caused the computer to use excessive time polling terminals. As mentioned in the above section, in third generation computers like the IBM 360 there is the capability of building a software "Message Control" package right in the main frame computer to perform most of the functions previously performed by a communications control computer like the IBM 7740. In the IBM 360, this message control is accomplished through the use of a high-level macro instruction language called QTAM (Queued Teleprocessing Access Method). QTAM handles polling, message buffering, editing, and routing to queues; error checking, code translation, etc. Unfortunately, in the earlier period of the 360's introduction, QTAM was not completely matched with the IBM Supervisory Program called Operating System (OS) for the 360. Thus it was decided to use the IBM Disk Operating System (DOS) for LEADS since this could support QTAM message switching.

Starting with an IBM 360/40 with the message switching program under DOS/QTAM, programmers had 10 terminals on line, testing. But when more terminals were added the system refused to start message processing because the system could not get out of the initializing phase. QTAM is shut down once every twenty-four hours and upon reopening the program must take a few minutes to initialize files, tables, etc., before message processing can start. With 15 to 20 terminals on LEADS, the system could not get out of the initializing phase. After three weeks of searching, the programmers identified the problem. A buffer in the operating system was too small and was acting as a bottleneck in the transfer of data within the system. Buffer size was increased and the system started operating normally.

Subsequently a 360/50 replaced the 360/40 although this move was "difficult to quantify exactly because of the rapid expansion of the network during the time of installation."

Another problem arose because the backup computer owned by the Department of Finance was switched from DOS to OS for State payroll, etc. This led to the decision to switch LEADS also from DOS to OS. Unfortunately, OS records contain an extra control character and all DOS records must be rewritten to include this character. This is a flaw in the IBM software which cost LEADS \$100,000 for reprogramming.

The problems of interfacing automated law enforcement systems are illustrated by the following situation which arose when LEADS was

interfaced with NCIC. NCIC's computer operates under Basic Teleprocessing Access Method (BTAM), a close relative of QTAM. When interfaced LEADS and NCIC computers each assumed mastery, each poll asking for traffic and neither computer wanting to talk to the other. This situation was resolved for one line but came up all over again when a second line was installed from LEADS to NCIC under OS. It took IBM trouble shooters 3 weeks to get the computers talking to each other.

III. The OLEA Corrections and Correctional Training Program  
Summary Findings

1. The best projects, in the opinion of our corrections consultants, were a) Grant #306 to the American Correctional Association in which a self-evaluation inventory for correctional institutions was developed and tested, and b) Grant #27 to the Sheriff's Department of King County, Seattle, Washington, for a work release project.

2. Another project with high potential was Grant #25 to the New England Board of Higher Education to conduct a regional correctional manpower and training program. However, OLEA defeated the aspirations of this project by later funding similar correctional training grants to the individual New England states, making the regional program superfluous.

3. Correctional training projects often were over the heads of the student group and were merely repetitious at the managerial level.

4. OLEA was remiss in not funding many more rehabilitation and correction projects rather than training projects. Too little was done to rehabilitate females, juveniles, or drug addict prisoner groups.

5. OLEA too clearly accepted the legitimacy of the status quo in corrections. Few of the projects were likely to bring about significant change or disturbance.

6. OLEA should have funded many more projects involving inmate activity and training. The use of inmates as agents of rehabilitation is a potentially important development to break the revolving door pattern of recidivism.

7. OLEA played it safe by investing heavily in training.

8. Therefore, despite some worthy programs, OLEA's contributions were less valuable than they should have been.



OLEA's Conceptions of the Needs and PrioritiesIn Correction

In establishing the needs and priorities in correction OLEA was guided by the Statute which created it. The enabling Legislation, namely Public Law 89 - 197 or as it became known, The Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965, set forth the guidelines as follows:

"To provide assistance in training State and local law enforcement officers and other personnel, and in improving capabilities, techniques and practices in State and local law enforcement, and prevention and control of crime, and for other purposes."

Of the four major components of this act, only two of them, namely training and improvement of law enforcement have relevance for corrections. In effect, then, OLEA was mandated to develop opportunities for State and local law enforcement agencies including correctional agencies, to receive grants in these two areas. The result of this broad mandate was that OLEA was in a position to support, within the limits of its financial situation, about any type of proposal in the general field of corrections. As a consequence, it is difficult to assess specific needs and priorities of OLEA, although it is quite obvious that

professional training and related education were defined as critical areas.

There appeared to be at least two developments which justified OLEA's concern in this area. The first was related to the fact that it is almost impossible to effect changes of any kind in correctional agencies unless the staff members have the formal educational capability to implement changes. At the time this act was passed there were over 120,000 persons employed in correctional institutions, jails, detention homes, training schools, parole and probation agencies. Approximately eighty percent (80%) had major responsibilities in custody or maintenance. Moreover, the great majority of these employees entered corrections with little or no formal academic or custodial training. It was customary, and still is in most jurisdictions, for new correction officers to learn their jobs by working for a period of time with an experienced officer.

Formal training programs, where they did exist, were organized and operated within the framework of a police academy model. They did not really accomplish the purpose of upgrading the philosophy, conceptions, and understanding of progressive practices. Actually, it was limited to training the employees to a particular job in a particular correctional

agency. The traditional role of in-service training was really that of a correctional step-child. This fact is high-lighted in the results of a national survey conducted by H. Piven and A. Alcabes in early 1966. It indicated that the majority of correctional systems received no funds from external sources and anticipated none in the forthcoming year. The median amount of budgeted funds was about one thousand dollars (\$1,000.00).

A second development which dramatized the need for support for correctional training by OLEA was the passage of a series of Federal laws, at about the same time that the Law Enforcement Assistance Act was passed in 1965, relating to this problem. They include the Manpower Development and Training Act, the Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Offences Control Act, and particularly important for OLEA, the Correctional Rehabilitation Study Act. The latter authorized the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration, now the SRS Administration, to make grants for a broad study of Correctional Manpower and Training. The Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training which was largely funded under this act engaged in a series of studies which encompassed the broad field of correctional training and proposed a substantial number of recommendations. Coincidental with these developments was the establishment of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration

of Justice in July, 1965. In effect, OLEA was in a favorable position to help implement many of the recommendations of the Joint Commission.

The second mandate which established the priorities for OLEA in corrections was to improve the capabilities, techniques, and practices of agencies engaged in the conviction of offenders. The very broad and all encompassing character of this guideline is understandable. In the light of the paucity of organized knowledge in the field of corrections in particular, and in the criminal justice field in general, it would appear that the concept of improving the general character of correctional agencies is so diffuse as to be meaningless. Yet, it may have been prescient, at least, in retrospect to designate OLEA's official position in this way.

The fact is that there had been very little experience with federally supported programs in corrections prior to the OLEA of 1965. In the past, juvenile correctional agencies had received some attention from NIMH, the defunct office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime and the Social Rehabilitation Services Administration, to a limited degree from Title I of the Elementary and Secondary School Act of 1965 and the Children's Bureau. However, the adult corrections

field had received only marginal support from federal legislation.

Moreover, the state of the art in corrections was quite poor at the time and still is to a considerable degree. It suffered from multiple problems, - apathy, piecemeal programming, inadequate funding, and a general lack of public support. Therefore, it may have been the only way to approach the problem of determining needs and establishing priorities in the field. By getting some experience with the types of proposals that were presented and examining their implementation it would make it possible to define more specifically their needs and priorities.

Correctional Agencies' Views of Need and Priorities

It is difficult to gauge with any degree of accuracy the perception which correctional agencies have of their needs and priorities. However, it is possible to assess them indirectly, on the bases of several factors. The factors that were considered here are as follows:

1. An examination of a number of proposals that were funded by OLEA including a few that were rejected.
2. A review of correctional literature including:
  - a. Reports of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice.
  - b. Reports issued by the Joint Commission in Correctional Manpower and Training.
  - c. Review of recent issues of the following journals: Federal Probation, Crime and Delinquency, American Journal of Corrections, Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, and others.
  - d. Several major textbooks including Korn and McCorkle, Sutherland and Cressey and Caldwell, as well as significant works in the

field. The Prison, Organization for Treatment, Evaluation of Penal Measures, Imaginative Programming in Probation and Parole, and Half-Way Houses.

3. A review of basic problems in the field as viewed by a sample of correctional administrators in the United States.
4. Discussions with a number of correctional administrators of large and small facilities and with institutional and community based programs.
5. Using the report of the Joint Commission in Developing Correctional Administrators as a model, the needs and priorities as seen by agencies in the field are grouped into six categories, - staff training, fiscal needs, evaluation, implementation of program, planning and academic relations. Each will be considered separately.

#### Staff Training

Since most correctional agencies and institutions are understaffed, manned by personnel with little or no educational training for correctional work and lack essential professional services, it is understandable that staff training would be regarded as a crucial need with the highest

priority. It is virtually impossible to modify or rectify existing programs and procedures and to experiment with innovative projects without adequate personnel. Recruitment of these individuals is one of the most serious of all personnel problems when all of the needs of corrections are considered. However, in spite of this situation, it appears that most of the correctional agencies in the country have no organized training programs. (See Task Force Report: Corrections, p. 101 and NCCD, Corrections in the U.S., p. 244). In fact, even correctional administrators themselves have not had any training on-the-job.

Recruitment and training of correctional staff as a problem is complicated by the fact that very few agencies have developed opportunities for career advancement and the competitive level of salaries that are necessary to retain staff. As a result, corrections as a field has experienced significantly high levels of turnover of competent staff. In fact, in many instances professional staff and many correctional officers view their jobs in corrections as a training opportunity for advancement and employment in other fields. Consequently, the problem of assessing employee performance receives little attention probably because of fear of losing current staff whose departure can have very



serious consequences for program maintenance and development. In this regard, it is interesting to note that both young people and adults tend to place corrections as a career, at the bottom of the list of careers considered by them.

#### Fiscal Problems

Corrections depends on legislators, policy makers, and governmental agencies as well as on higher administrative personnel for its funds. Since this area of problems is beyond the control of the agencies themselves, it becomes a painful and frustrating situation for them. In many respects the correctional administrator tends to be caught in the middle, between the political pressures of external groups and agencies and the internal demands of the staff and the offenders. To obtain sufficient funds to maintain existing programs and to introduce others are perennial problems. Without the benefit of long term fiscal planning, administrators find themselves devoting more and more of their efforts in this area and less to program operations. In this regard, it is important to embark on a training program to familiarize correctional workers with modern budgetary methods. Lack of sufficient funds to operate programs is regarded as a need of high priority by the field. Funds

for additional programming tends to become a division, as a result.

### Program Effectiveness

Evaluation has been defined as a process which examines both efficiency and effectiveness in achieving the goals of the organization. It cuts across a number of problem areas including decision making, budgeting, program development and staff recruitment, among others. This is a problem which has been largely ignored by the field, and, perhaps, the most embarrassing. In view of the relatively high rates of recidivism and the generally low opinion of the effectiveness of the field by the public and by members of other disciplines, it is not surprising to find that the problem of evaluation represents a pressing need, which correctional workers place high on any list of priorities.

Administrators want effective research methods to be introduced into the field. In this way they can cope with the related problems of getting information systematically on the community performance of released offenders. A second need here is one which the field has only recently been concerned with, namely, how effective are the internal program operations? The relatively high cost of institutionalization, for example, bears directly on the related

problems of budgeting, staff training, and program planning. Yet, there are few means for systematically acquiring data on this problem, by the agencies. With the pressure being placed on the field by the public, the courts and the offenders themselves to provide treatment programs and to protect the civil rights of those committed to their care, correctional workers are in a very precarious position. The general problem of evaluating all phases of programs operation becomes a crucial one, as a result. A related problem here, obviously, is the fact that as a rule correctional agencies have failed to recruit and maintain research oriented personnel in substantial numbers. Therefore, it would be ludicrous to provide funds for instruction, if competitive salaries were not provided for staff.

#### Planning Needs

In a formal sense, planning involves establishing the goals and objectives of the agency and, at the same time, delineating the means for achieving them. In an informal sense, from the point of view of correctional workers, thinking, or hiring someone to think about the problems of the organization is what planning is all about. The reality is that very few correctional agencies can afford the luxury of planning, either for short-range or long-range

goals. In fact, it is difficult for these organizations to generalize their experiences so that they can benefit from them. The need for personnel and opportunities to plan is a serious one. It is related directly to the more immediate problem of collecting information systematically which can be utilized for planning. An example of the lack of capability of corrections, generally, to plan is the fact, that its reporting procedures tend to be either non-existent or very crude, at best. Many agencies would like to learn how to establish an internal reporting system which could form the basis for a planning program.

#### Program Implementation

The needs of correctional agencies that are most obvious, relate to the problem of carrying out the established programs on a daily basis. The allocation of available resources and the coordination of the efforts of diverse groups of employees represent a need of serious proportions. How to deal with obsolete facilities and equipment, attempting to relate the programs within the institution with those in the community, educating the staff to develop an awareness of current developments that may be beneficial to the agency all reflect the need for effective implementation of programs.

Relations with Colleges and Universities

Although many agencies do not consciously plan to attempt to establish a working relationship with academicians, the assumption is made that the universities can be of great help to the field of corrections. In fact, it is usually taken for granted that this is the case, although it is not entirely clear in what way the assistance can be provided. Except for research and training assistance, there is little understanding of the nature of the relationship. Until Colleges of Criminal Justice were established and funds provided for tuition fees for correctional workers who attend Criminal Justice courses in colleges, academic agencies played a relatively minor role in meeting the needs of corrections. Even in the area of personnel, it is evident that an adequate supply of appropriately trained personnel is not available from the universities.

The universities can contribute in the professionalization of personnel through training staff, providing for the continuing education of manpower, focusing research resources on corrections and assisting in planning and evaluating programs.

### Contrasting Views of Correctional Needs and Priorities

It appears that there were both similarities and differences between OLEA's concept of needs and priorities in the field and the concept of correctional agencies.

In general, it appears that correctional agencies were concerned largely with seeking OLEA support to help them solve immediate and pressing problems. To some degree OLEA provided opportunities and funds for this purpose. More specifically, there were three general areas of agreement. By and large, there was consensus about the need and importance of staff training, implementation and expression of existing programs, and improving relations between corrections and colleges. To a lesser degree, there was agreement that planning was important. However, in the area of fund problems and evaluation of the effectiveness of correctional efforts there seemed to be not so much disagreement as lack of concern. This is understandable since they are more complex and difficult areas to deal with, almost by unspoken mutual consent.

### Evaluation of the OLEA Corrections Program

OLEA at its inception seemed eager to move into the correctional field. Two of its first three grants went to the two major correctional associations in the country. They were

Grant #2 to the American Correctional Association to establish a training institute for key correctional administrators at which they would be able to consider the burning issues of correction and to develop plans for the future; and Grant #3 to the National Council on Crime and Delinquency to conduct a national survey and evaluation of correctional systems, personnel, facilities, programs, workloads and financing. This study developed a comprehensive inventory of services and collected data for the President's Crime Commission. It was an important source of data for that Commission's Task Force Report on Corrections. The final report on Grant #3, entitled Correction in the United States, was widely disseminated by funds supplied by OLEA Grant #67-24.

From the high point of two out of the first three grants, corrections fell to three of the first ten, five of the first twenty, and eight of the first thirty projects.

#### Strengths

1. As with any large funding operation whether it is privately or publicly supported, the availability of money provides an incentive for correctional agencies to undertake program modifications. Although some of them turn out to be pet projects of particular administrators or policy makers,

or in some cases, merely the resurrection of old proposals that were rejected by other agencies, OLEA did provide an outlet for the field of corrections, particularly in the case of agencies for adult offenders. At other times, it served to bring together correctional workers from diverse parts of the country to share common problems, for the first time. It is fairly clear that this function of OLEA was a crucial one. For the first time, it provided a means for channeling federal funds directly into correctional agencies. In this respect it generated a feeling of hope and improved the status of the field generally. This type of attention forced other segments of the community to pay positive attention to the field. A cursory review of the history of corrections, which is essentially a state and local problem, suggests that it has tended to be regarded as a necessary evil which must be tolerated by the local community. The infusion of federal funds in substantial amounts helped the field of corrections in many ways. The offenders committed to these organizations gained a great deal as a result.

2. OLEA made possible the introduction into the fields of many professionals, particularly social scientists, who might otherwise have never concerned themselves with it.



Academicians and practitioners served as trainers and researchers primarily and, in a few cases, they maintained a continuing relationship as consultants or as employees. The requirement that university affiliation be an integral part of a proposal was an important one. Furthermore, the interaction between the agencies and the universities served to benefit both organizations, in many cases.

3. Still another strength of the OLEA program was the fact that it generated a greater public interest and therefore public support for programs in the field of correction. The opportunity to modify or expand programs, particularly on a local level, created an awareness on the part of legislators and other public officials of the increased possibilities available to them to reorganize and in some cases create new correctional forms which might not have been possible otherwise. A case in point is the grant given to the King County Jail in Seattle, Washington to expand their work release program. Toward the end of the grant period and subsequently, the jail not only increased the number of prisoners on work release status but used this experience, because of the availability of professional staff in the project, to develop a new Rehabilitation Bureau. The net effect was that the county officials

not only sustained the program at the project level, but also used it as the foundation for a new program for providing other rehabilitative services to inmates and their families.

Although this development did not appear to be too common, it does illustrate what is possible.

4. OLEA provided grants that stimulated correctional workers to explore for themselves academic opportunities which they had not thought within their reach. Also, these grants, in some cases, generated sufficient interest and enthusiasm on the part of custodial personnel to improve training programs in their own agencies. By exposing these personnel, sometimes for extended periods, to university life, many officers who were essentially high school graduates, learned that higher education was not only possible for them, but that they could compete and survive in a university setting. In effect, they began to upgrade their skills and aspirations. It would seem, then, that the OLEA granting of large scale funds to universities for correctional programs was a significant development, in many cases.

This situation is illustrated in the case of the two training grants that were given to Southern Illinois

University Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency and Corrections. These proposals required that substantial numbers of correction officers and supervisors spend several weeks on the campus, in connection with a training program for trainers. Not only were these workers given the opportunity to learn from academicians, they learned about college life. Also, they developed a healthy respect for the knowledge the faculty imparted to them which hitherto had been absent. Moreover, this experience led to the establishment of a national association of correctional trainers. The likelihood of these situations developing was not too great prior to the OLEA period.

5. A related achievement of OLEA was the support it granted to proposals for training programs. This may be perhaps the single most important contribution to the field of correction. It filled a serious gap in the area of personnel administration. Training in this field has had a poor history. It was considered a luxury. Administrators gave lip service to the significant role of training, not only because it upgraded the skills of the largest group of employees in institutions, for example, but also because it improved the morale of the entire staff. They were unable to implement comprehensive training programs not only because

of lack of funds but more importantly because of lack of a qualified trainer.

OLEA attempted to meet the crucial need on several points including planning grants to regional agencies and professional organizations, funds to universities and correctional systems for specific types of training, and to institutions and community correctional agencies as well. Funds that were granted to local agencies were particularly important, because of the generally poor financial condition of these facilities and of the almost complete absence of trained and professional personnel in them. In a sense, OLEA confronted these organizations with an opportunity for involvement in what can be regarded as a self-help program. It provided a climate for training and retraining workers on a legitimate basis.

#### Weaknesses

1. One of the serious weaknesses of the entire OLEA program was the fact that there was inadequate investigation of the capabilities of some agencies to carry out the funded proposals. In some cases, significant aspects of proposals were never carried out. Generally they tended to be the evaluation segment of proposals. In the case of the King County Work-Release proposal and the Southern Illinois University

proposal, there was no follow up of the impact of their programs. This is not an unusual development for effectiveness studies tend to be costly and difficult to implement. Yet, in many respects, they represent the most significant aspect of the projects. This is a problem that has plagued corrections for years. OLEA had an opportunity to help the funded agencies deal with this issue, but missed it.

It may be that some of the programs were not used by other jurisdictions because there was no evidence that they were effective. The net effect is that, too frequently, programs are duplicated with the same built-in deficiencies from which prior programs suffered.

2. Another problem emerged which may not be critical but certainly is worthy of consideration, namely - the fact that in some instances the university involvement in a project was minimal or virtually non-existent. Yet, this item was a major requirement of OLEA in many cases. The extent of their participation was limited to the use of college classrooms and cafeterias, and, in other cases, to pledging support and signing vouchers. A more careful evaluation of this segment of a project might have insured that the university's role would have been greater.

3. OLEA undertook to support proposals for the regionalization of programs without fully comprehending the complex character of such arrangements. It is quite clear in other areas, that, without legislative support, it is very difficult to implement programs that cut across state lines. It is very difficult to achieve even within state jurisdictions. Across county lines without a legal mandate most regional proposals never get beyond the report stage.

A case in point is the project to regionalize training programs in the New England States. Although the proposal was well designed, it failed because the individuals responsible for initiating the proposal lost their positions. There was no indication in the original proposal that the parties involved seek the support of their respective legislative bodies.

4. There did not appear to be any overall, systematic plan for approving or disapproving proposals. In fact, it is not clear what the criteria were for evaluating proposals, apart from the fact that they were required to meet the usual conditions of project designs. The advantage of requiring a minimal research component is that the program impact could be determined. Admittedly, such a requirement might have created serious problems for small agencies.

However, the effective involvement of universities might have resolved this dilemma. Also, a rationale, with clear guidelines, could have been helpful.

Concomitant with the above situation is the fact that projects were not adequately monitored by OLEA staff. This situation would have insured that projects were being properly implemented. Also, it could have provided assistance to those jurisdictions and agencies that lacked sophisticated personnel or expertise in project design and research operations.

6. The failure of our prisons to rehabilitate is easily the number one problem of corrections in the United States. It is difficult to understand why OLEA funded such a paltry few rehabilitation projects -- only 8 out of 66. The general level of these eight was superior to the average correctional training project. For example, there were several such projects that raised interesting, even exciting questions. Project #257 to Pennsylvania Board of Parole -- The Resocialization of the Paroled Non-Aggressive Predatory Offender -- resulted in no discernible reduction in recidivism as a result of increased probation services. Project #37 -- The Denver Volunteers in Probation Project -- and Project #300 -- The Texas Adult Probation Project -- both reported dramatic reductions in recidivism.

This contradiction begs for research to learn why the results were so different.

There appeared to be a systematic bias in the project proposals that were approved in that they tended to be oriented toward programs for male adult offenders. Female offenders constitute a relatively small proportion of the national offender population, yet there appears to be a need to address research questions to this group. It was particularly important that OLEA seek out projects to involve agencies for female offenders because it is a seriously neglected area in corrections, as well as among academicians with an interest in this field.

Also, relatively few proposals involving juvenile delinquents were supported. However this may be a function of the fact that the Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Offenses Control Act was mandated responsibility for this field. Also, youth serving agencies may not have sought out OLEA for project support.

7. It might have been helpful for OLEA to have explored the implications of grant proposals regardless of the amount of funds involved. Actually, proposals were not required to deal with this issue in a comprehensive way. No doubt there were a number of legitimate reasons



why this problem was not confronted, not the least of which was the pressure to allocate these funds allotted to it within a short time period. Admittedly, it is difficult to delineate the implications of any proposal in advance. Yet it would seem that a consideration of this problem might have served to reject otherwise adequate proposals.

As an example, there is the OLEA grant to the American Correctional Association to develop an accreditation procedure for all correctional institutions in the country. If it is correct to assume that institutions which form the core units of correctional systems will continue, more or less in their present form, then their accreditation appears to be a justifiable and necessary development. After all, if the community is going to maintain them financially and politically, then they ought to be the most humane and rational organizations it is possible to make them.

Accreditation is based on the premise that the community is not really interested in devising completely new ways of dealing with offenders. The relative isolation of offenders from the free community has a long and inglorious history. Today's institutions are basically similar to those of the late 19th century. Their basic physical and

program structures have remained essentially unchanged. Most of the changes have been of peripheral character. Security and punishment are still paramount and represent the corner stones of almost all correctional programs.

Accreditation of correctional agencies may insure the humane character of correctional treatment, but it will not make basic changes easier to implement. This is so because accreditation fails to deal with a fundamental issue in the field; namely, are institutions necessary? Are they the most important alternative we can develop to cope with the offender who is judged to be incapable of remaining in the community? It seems then that accreditation of correctional agencies may result in maintaining the correctional system in its present form. It may even result in the unanticipated consequence of locking in today's institutions to such a degree that change becomes difficult and even impossible. Accreditation leads to legitimation, not to examination of the field.

Problems of Corrections

The chain gang is still a feature of the correctional system in some Southern states. It symbolizes the backwardness and the callousness of our prisons. Men of recognized stature within the field of corrections, not outside snipers, have acknowledged this dark outlook. "It is not too harsh to describe the dominant correctional pattern in the United States as an impersonal monster.\* Prisoners are in law almost slaves of the state. The 13th Amendment gives de jure authorization to the de facto treatment.

"Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction."

The plight of the prisoner has now become front page news with a series of riots in prisons across the nation. In one of his first major speeches soon after taking office in June 1969, Chief Justice Warren E. Burger called for a new policy toward men in prisons, reasoning that once we

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John P. Conrad, Crime and Its Correction (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1967), p. 59.

condemned them to prison we owed them a responsibility. On another occasion he developed the same theme in more detail.

He suggested having agencies other than judges and juries sentence convicted persons, increasing work release and limited confinement programs for prisoners and experimenting with early incentive releases for those who learn a trade.\*

We may predict from this that the Supreme Court of the United States will take a hard look at the prisons, probably extending the protection of due process or civil liberties to prisoners. This will produce a storm of protest from old-line prison administrators. They have been operating up to now in a secret world with its own strict code of laws. The courts rarely intervened into the world of corrections because of a legal doctrine that decisions in regard to the treatment of prisoners were exercises of administrative discretion and not subject to review by the courts. Unable to rely on the protection of the courts the prisoners were truly a most disadvantaged minority.

There are already portents of change. The courts have ordered wardens to remove prisoners from solitary confinement. Prisoners, by militancy and riots have gained reforms such as

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\*New York Times, August 12, 1969, p. 1

the creation of a Board of Correctional Review to oversee the correctional system and to act as a counterweight to the autonomy of the correctional administrative hierarchy.

The high rate of recidivism by released prisoners has become too threatening a social cost. To reduce it an extraordinary variety of programs for prisoners are now in operation, so much so, that prison may become for the "young manipulator" an alternate route to success. In a lecture to a recent New York City seminar on the correctional system, an ex-offender boasted that the easiest way for a young man to go to college was by committing a crime, being convicted and sent to prison. Then it was only necessary to let all the eager rehabilitation experts arrange the college education. He stated that the advantage continued afterward connected with his ex-offender status. As proof he pointed to his own career which had taken him from prison to college, to the third year of medical school. He was confident that he would in due course parlay his prison record into a doctor's license.

The correctional system then is a mass of contradictions, polarized between contending traditions of vengeance vs. rehabilitation, chain gang slavery vs. humane work-release programs, and ignorance vs. education. If any part of the

criminal justice system could justify a priority of attention by OLEA, it was corrections.

It is significant that Henry Ruth who was director of the LEAA National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice and thoroughly familiar with the work of OLEA adopted this order of priority as soon as he left LEAA to become Director of the New York City Criminal Justice Coordinating Council. He stated that "riots in city jails should be a signal for a revolution in court administration. While there has been an increase of 20% in arrests and 25% in judges, the number of cases being disposed of has hardly increased at all." He stated that he intends to concentrate the bulk of the \$7 million Federal grant on courts, probation and correctional agencies.\*

Another serious problem is that of developing college degree courses for corrections. Is corrections ready for this step? Are the universities capable of mounting programs that will be valuable for correctional personnel? Should OLEA have seeded college degree programs in corrections as it did for law enforcement? On our questionnaire study,

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\* New York Times, August 14, 1970, p. 25.

only 6 project directors out of 33 OLEA correctional training programs were in favor of college degree programs. In addition, it was the judgment of one of our consultants who has had a distinguished career in Corrections, that for the average custodial personnel a high school level program would be more appropriate. He thought that a college program would be, and also many of the OLEA funded Correctional Training Programs were, beyond the capacity of the students to assimilate. Assuming the truth of his assessment, OLEA should, nevertheless, stimulate the involvement of universities into the field of corrections. It will in the course of time be beneficial to both systems. There is no reason why two-year community or junior college courses, with some remedial work as preparation, could not meet this challenge.

If OLEA did fund such correctional degree programs, all the problems associated with the police science degree programs would have to be faced, such as type of faculty, availability of students, type of program, curriculum, bibliography, relations with other college departments, resistance of correctional administrators, and placement of graduates.

And when the time comes that college education for correctional personnel is widespread, the transformation in self-concept, ideology, and group allegiance will bring its own set

of problems. There will be arguments for more autonomy, increased salaries, and special concessions. Will society be prepared to change its perspective on corrections and fulfill these demands?



Analysis of Data in Correctional Training Questionnaire

Although OLEA listed only 31 state-wide correctional training projects in its special program, there were 19 additional correctional training grants listed under the general heading of Corrections. This made a total of 50 and of these we received 33 completed questionnaires. We asked questions pertaining to curriculum, methods, teachers and evaluation.

Our first concern was the teacher. A rather even split divided the responses. The largest group (21) wanted the correctional in-service training program to be taught by faculty from a college or university. Just behind was the second choice (20) calling for professionals from other agencies to fill the teaching position. And 16 votes were cast for "personnel from your agency" to be the teachers. Surprisingly, there were 7 choices for inmates to become teachers. At least, for some courses this is not a far-fetched suggestion. Certainly, correctional staff has a lot to learn from the "other side" of the bars.

What educational background should a correctional teacher possess? The majority (16) said a Bachelor's degree. Eight wanted teachers to have a Master's degree, and two went all out and called for a Ph.D. Five took a compromise position

and indicated that specific requirements should depend on the individual being considered for teacher. This was a much lower level of education than that considered appropriate for police science teachers. The police science questionnaires called for Ph.D. and M.A. degrees.

Allied to the above question was a consideration of the best field of study to prepare a corrections teacher. Predictably, the greatest number (18) chose the field of corrections as the most suitable field of study. Next came sociology (15), followed by psychology (10). Public administration received 7 votes, and social work was close behind with 6. Only 5 considered humanities a suitable preparation.

The place of training was the subject of item 25. A regional center was chosen most often (13) and just two fewer -- 11 -- suggested that each agency run its own program. Eight wanted the training center at a nearby university.

The type of program they desired was obvious. Overwhelmingly, they (26) wanted a continuing permanent program. Only five asked for short term workshops or institutes. Not one favored a series of lectures on selected topics. Advocates of college education for correctional workers

will be disappointed to learn that only six chose a college degree program or program giving college credit.

There was no dramatic preference for a particular method of teaching correctional courses. Table 1 is notable only for the reason that teaching by lecture alone received zero votes. The high numbers in the first five categories of the table indicate that there was a preference for combinations of teaching methods.

Table 1

Preferred Method of Teaching Correctional Courses

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Method</u>	<u>Number of Choices</u>
1	Examples of actual practice	24
2	Lecture plus discussion	23
2	Films and visual aids	23
3	Seminars	21
4	Classroom simulation of practice	20
4	Discussion of assigned readings and cases	20
5	Field observation	19
6	Sensi i	13
7	Lecture alone	0

The evaluation of the program was an occasion for disagreement. Sixteen preferred evaluation by participants in the program, and 15 recommended evaluation by an outsider.

The agency research staff was the choice of nine respondents. It is a favorable portent that no one checked the item calling for no evaluation at all.

Which group in corrections has most need of training? It is certainly proper to ask correctional people themselves for their opinion. Their answers are arranged in rank order in Table 2. The custodial staff was a logical first choice. It is surprising to see that supervisors and middle management were so near the top, ranking second and third respectively.

Table 2

Corrections Group That Needs Training Most (N=33)

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Group</u>	<u>Number of choices</u>
1	Custodial staff	20
2	Supervisors	17
3	Middle management	16
4	Staff concerned with juvenile inmates	12
5	Top administrators	11
6	Probation and parole	9
6	Training staff	9
7	Research-Planning	2
8	Diagnostic staff	1

As vital as any other element is the curriculum. What should it include? Item 30 in the questionnaire provided 16 choices of area of curriculum and the respondents were asked to choose the six most important. The rank order can be found in Table 3.

Table 3

Most Important Areas of Correctional Training Program  
(N=33)

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Area</u>	<u>Number of choices</u>
1	Behavioral sciences	22
2	Characteristics of offenders	19
2	The role of corrections	19
3	Philosophy of corrections	18
3	New developments in corrections	18
4	Techniques of controlling inmates	10
5	Criminology	9
5	Civil rights of offenders	9
6	Social Sciences	8
7	Juvenile delinquency	7
7	Legal aspects of corrections	7
7	Cooperation with other agencies	7
8	History of corrections	2
9	Research methods	1
9	Humanities	1

The clustering of the first five areas whose average score is twice that of the next group reveals a definite consensus that these areas should be included in the training curriculum. Rather interesting is the high status given to Behavioral Sciences and the much lower position attained by the Social Sciences. Compare this with the high rank given Social Sciences in the questionnaire on Police Science Degree programs. The unanimity in rejecting humanities and research methods ties in with the fact that only six of this group of respondents from the field of corrections wanted a degree program. It would seem that corrections has not yet reached the point where its own practitioners feel that college degree programs are a feasible answer to its educational needs.

To complete the rather pessimistic picture painted by the project directors, most of them (17) judged the literature in the field to be inadequate, and ten gave it the weak description adequate; no one would place a check in the space marked excellent.

Projects Chosen for Intensive Evaluation.

Our two principal correctional consultants were Commissioner Paul W. Keve of the Minnesota State Department of Corrections and Professor Hans W. Mattick, Co-director of the Center for Studies in Criminal Justice, the University of Chicago. After several meetings between these consultants and the staff of the Institute of Criminal Law and Procedure of the Georgetown University Law Center, in which the correctional projects were reviewed, a choice of projects for more intensive review was made based on the following criteria: geographical distribution, innovation, diversity in areas of correction such as training, rehabilitation, use of volunteers, and computer technology. The others were set aside because they were unimaginative or repetitious. We might have selected Project #257 for special review, but we received the final report too late to assign it to our consultants for a site visit.

The Institute was fortunate to secure the services of well qualified special consultants to make site visits to the projects. They were Albert Elias, Superintendent of Yardville, New Jersey Youth Reception Center, Judge Keith J. Leenhouts and Dr. Ralph T. Northrup, President and Assistant to the President respectively, of Volunteers in Probation,

Inc., Royal Oak, Michigan, Joseph R. Rowan, Executive Director of the John Howard Association of Illinois, and Dr. William F. McDonald on the staff of the Georgetown University Law Institute. The following projects were chosen for intensive evaluation:

Grant #25--Consultant Elias. This was a superior example of a regional training program that might have corrected the known defects of the New England correctional system.

Grant #27--Consultant Elias. This was one of the few rehabilitation projects, and its technique of work-release is an important new development in corrections.

Grant #37--Consultants Leenhouts and Northrup. The use of paraprofessionals is one possible solution to the problem of mounting costs and enormous case loads in probation and parole. This, with Grant #300, comprised the total OLEA correctional effort in this area.

Grant #168--Consultant McDonald. This was the only example of a computer project in corrections.

Grant #241--Consultant Elias. Our consultants picked this as a better than average training program developed



by a university with a strong interest in corrections.

Grant #300--Consultants Leenhouts and Northrup. Like Project #37 this involved the use of paraprofessionals with the interesting variation of using ex-offenders as agents of rehabilitation.

Grant #306--Consultant Elias. A self-evaluation inventory developed by the American Correctional Association in the project has the potential of leading up to a system of accreditation. It was the only example of its kind in the OLEA program.

Evaluation of Project #27

Grantee: King County Sheriff's Department, Seattle, Washington

Amount: \$107,570

Dates: July 1966 to June 1968

Purpose: Development, operation, and evaluation of a two-year pilot work-release program for inmates of King County Jail (75-man capacity, mostly misdemeanants). Work-releases to receive training, counseling, and rehabilitative services. Earnings to apply to family support and maintenance.

Summary

The project director was C. James Coughlin.

The principal aim of the project was to establish a therapeutically-oriented treatment program for adult male convicted offenders in the King County Jail in Seattle, Washington. The major technique employed in this project was work-release for selected inmates.

The project was designed to achieve the following objectives:

1. To provide the opportunity for selected inmates to continue their employment.
2. To maintain and strengthen the basic family unit.

484.

3. To help the inmates to better organize and structure their personal lives.
4. To demonstrate the program's rehabilitative and cost effectiveness.
5. To extend the existing work-release program from 25 men to 75 men.

Other related goals of the project were:

1. To remove the offender from his environment without loss of dignity and a sense of self-worth.
2. To isolate selected inmates, in the work-release program, from less desirable offenders, with poor prognosis for rehabilitation.
3. To provide individual and group counseling.
4. To assist local law enforcement agencies in training programs.
5. To examine total jail population in order to identify two groups of inmates:
  - a) Men eligible for work-release
  - b) Men in need of counseling and other social services
6. To assist offenders in county jails before they are committed to State institutions.
7. To mitigate the problem of idleness found in most county jails.
8. To develop a rehabilitation program in a county jail which has less criminally sophisticated offenders, that operate usually in state and federal correctional facilities.

**CONTINUED**

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### Target Groups

Three target groups were to be selected for inclusion in this program:

1. Petty offenders who were involved in an unbroken chain of infractions. These offenders are recidivists whose careers include a cycle of arrests, sentencing, release and return to the county jail.

2. Younger first termers who are minor offenders.

3. Offenders who are sentenced to less than one year terms. Generally they are untreated due to lack of staff and program in the jails.

### Project Methods

The project methods included a number of procedures including criteria for inclusion and exclusion, referral, admission and research. More specifically, they were:

1. Criteria for Acceptance

- a. Probation failures.
- b. Well motivated first or second offenders.
- c. No prior commitment to state or federal correctional institutions.
- d. Above 18 years of age.
- e. Average intelligence.
- f. High school education or equivalency.

- g. Steady adequate income.
- h. At least a 30-day sentence.
- i. Approval by the sentencing judge.

2. Criteria for Exclusion

- a. No family ties.
- b. Severe alcoholic or narcotic problems.
- c. Extreme physical, mental and emotional problems.

3. Referral Procedure

Cases were to be referred by the sentencing judges or by petitioning the sentencing judge. In the latter instance, the offender, his attorney or the work release staff were involved.

4. Admission Procedure

There were four steps in this procedure that were employed in screening referrals. They included (1) a preliminary interview by the work-release staff to insure that referrals met the acceptance criteria; (2) testing by the psychologist; (3) an intensive interview by the staff social worker and (4) consensus by the staff after reviewing the diagnostic material and recommendations.

5. Research Plan

Although a research proposal was not included in the

original plan, it was implicit in the final report which described the research methodology and findings. Essentially, the research was designed to evaluate the work records of the participants, the reports on the nature of the family relationships and a follow-up of the arrest records of the program graduates two years after release from the program.

#### Program Elements

The major components of this Work-Release program consisted of: (1) assignment to six dormitories in a separate section of the jail; (2) academic and vocational training; (3) work in the community; (4) weekly group counseling sessions and daily individual counseling; (5) payment from wages for room and board (\$3.00/day) and for fines and family support; (6) a ten-hour furlough after one month's participation in the program and (7) recreation and visits.

Other elements included (1) referral for vocational rehabilitation services; (2) daily allowance; and (3) personal services.

#### Staffing Pattern

The staff included a total of fourteen employees. Of these, eight were full-time and six part-time individuals, the

project director (social worker), one and one-half psychologists, one full-time and three, one-third-time social workers, two secretaries, two case aides, a business manager and two consultants, psychiatrist and social worker.

#### Plan of Assessment

The assessment of OLEA Grant #027 involved the following:

1. Review of two documents, namely the Grant Proposal and the Final Report. The research design was not available although a request was made for a copy from the Project Director.
2. Site Visit - an interview was held with the Project Director, Mr. C. James Coughlin, and a tour of the physical plant was made. An opportunity to interview other staff members and inmates as well as to observe the group sessions in the evening was not granted for "administrative" reasons.

#### Evaluation

A. The basic goals of the project were achieved for the most part. There were two respects in which they were not realized as follows:

1. There was no follow-up of the graduates of the program for a two-year period, in terms of their arrest records.



2. Except for the fact that a relatively substantial amount of money (\$147,049) was contributed by the Work-Release inmates, to the support of their families, there was very little other type of evidence that the program served to maintain and strengthen the basic family unit. In fact, the research evidence does indicate that the families of these inmates had "lower" opinions of the program than the participants.

B. However, the major goals that were attained include the following:

1. The existing work release program was extended from an average daily population of 25 men to 60 men as a direct result of the grant. Originally it had been planned to expand the program to 75 men.
2. Selected inmates were granted an opportunity to continue their employment in the community. For the most part, employers were willing to maintain the employment status of these men.
3. The inmates were assisted "to better organize and structure their personal lives." The fact that the staff was regarded by the inmates favorably suggested that the inmates were interested and able to better organize their lives. The men engaged in several activities which stemmed from this situation. For example, they organized a club for the purpose of purchasing recreational equipment for their friends. Also, on several occasions, the men engaged in securing toys and equipment for a group of mentally retarded children. They joined together to solicit these items from local merchants at reduced cost. The funds were contributed by the men themselves. They engaged in other activities in which they demonstrated their capacity to structure their lives in a conventional manner. Generally, as a group, they were relatively well motivated.

4. The program's cost effectiveness was demonstrated by the fact that for every \$1.00 invested in the program, \$1.92 was received. More specifically, the total cost of the two-year project which included 627 inmates, was \$177,770.

a. Local Contribution -	\$70,200
b. OLEA Grant -	<u>107,570</u>
Total -	\$177,770

while the total inmate earnings was \$342,006. Each inmate earned, on the average, \$545.00. Their earnings were distributed as follows:

1. Support of Dependents -	\$147,049
2. Payment of Fines -	20,770
3. Reimbursement to County-	87,994
4. Personal Expenses -	50,919
5. Savings -	<u>35,274</u>
Total -	\$342,006

There is some question regarding the total achievement of goal #4, namely "to demonstrate the program's rehabilitative and cost effectiveness." The cost benefit factor has been explained. However, there was no direct evidence to indicate the relationship between the services that were rendered by the program and success in the community after release. As indicated earlier, there was no follow-up study.

C. Other goals that were achieved included:

1. The opportunity to provide staff assistance to the County Jail staff in the area of in-service training.
2. Counseling and referral services to jail inmates who were not eligible for the work-release program.
3. Most program elements that were originally included in the program were maintained throughout the

life of the project. Perhaps the most disappointing feature of the program, from the point of view of the staff, was the failure of the academic and vocational training elements. This part of the program was staffed by volunteer students from the Seattle University. The men were not particularly interested in education nor were the students very adept at motivating them.

D. Consequences of the Project

The extension of the Work-Release program as a result of support by OLEA Grant #027, led to a number of developments. First, it should be noted that the county officials continued to support the work-release program in essentially the same format and at the same level of operation as formerly. There were sixty inmates in the program on the day of the site visit which was two years after the termination of the project.

Another important outcome of the project was the establishment, by the county officials, of a Division of Rehabilitation Services in the King County Jail. The Work-Release Program is one section of this new division. In this way, a larger proportion of the jail inmate population is receiving treatment services. Other indications of increased interest in the jail program by professionals is the fact that the University of Washington faculty have encouraged their students to volunteer their services and to conduct research projects for these purposes. In addition, the project staff

is now able to assist the court in providing diagnostic information and counseling services in the case of unsentenced individuals.

Moreover, as a result of the county's experience with this project, plans have been formulated to establish a series of small community-based work-release and counseling service centers throughout the county. King County encompasses an area of approximately 25,000 miles. In order to best serve these inmates so that they would remain close to their jobs and homes, they could reside in these centers. This proposal is to be submitted to the electorate at the next election.

Insofar as the present program is concerned, one of the most difficult problems has been resolved. For the duration of the project, it was necessary for the project inmates to walk through the entire jail in order to leave and enter the work-release area. Recently, a new separate entrance was constructed eliminating this problem.

#### E. Limitations of the Project

The most serious issue confronting this project is one that has plagued the correctional field generally, namely, that there was no follow-up of the men who were released from the project. The research was limited to an assessment

of the inmate's earnings, his personal and his family's attitudes toward the project, and his behavior in the program. There were no control or comparison groups. Moreover, the fact that the families of the men who were interviewed had a generally unfavorable opinion of the program should have been explored. A comparable situation existed in the case of single inmates who expressed more dissatisfaction with the program than the older ones.

Other aspects of the program suggest the criteria for inclusion in the project were so restrictive that they may have applicability to such a small proportion of a typical jail population of sentenced offenders that it might not be helpful to other jail administrations. Also there is some question as to whether or not the criteria screened into the program men who might have performed as well on probation or a suspended sentence. For example, this project included men who were essentially minor, first offenders, some of whom were probation failures, who were well motivated and of average intelligence with a high school education and a steady adequate income. Moreover, men with drug or alcoholic problems were excluded. In effect, the possibility of encountering inmates with these characteristics in a jail is very slight.

There is another issue of interest here. One of the intentions of the project staff was to provide assistance to other interested county jail administrations. However, unless they make a personal visit to the facility, it is not possible to learn about it. The staff did not have descriptive material to disseminate to others regarding the program.

This project demonstrated that a fairly substantial work release program can be established in an urban jail setting. The question of whether the particular inmates selected for this program were appropriate is unanswered. No rationale was given for selecting the best possible risks for participation initially; while it is understandable that the staff was interested in the success of the project at first, it is not clear why the criteria were not broadened, after the grant period, to include inmates whose prospects were not so favorable. In this way, the program could be tested more realistically and consequently be of greater assistance to other correctional administrators.

Evaluation of Project #25

Grantee: New England Board of Higher Education

Amount: \$33,716

Dates: September 1966 to September 1967

Purpose: After a survey of needs and resources, development of a comprehensive plan for establishment of training programs for corrections personnel of New England states.

Summary

The project director was Professor Albert Morris. The project extended to Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, Vermont and Maine.

Training opportunities for correctional personnel in the New England states were considered to be inadequate at the time of the project proposal. There was a need:

1. to upgrade existing opportunities;
2. to provide new opportunities for professional correctional personnel.

The problem in New England was regarded as a long range and continuing one. The major goals of the project were to:

- a. survey the needs and resources in the area;
- b. develop a master plan for a training program;
- c. assign priorities to needs to be met.

The ultimate goal was to improve total correctional efforts in New England.

In order to implement the proposal five issues were developed for examination. They related to:

1. Current manpower and training situation in correctional programs for adult offenders;
2. Correctional staffs, objectives and conditions of work;
3. Recruitment of adequate personnel;
4. Selection, placement and retention of personnel;
5. Provision for adequate pre-service and in-service staff training.

#### The Survey

Project staff surveyed by personal interview and by questionnaire the top administrators of the New England correctional, probation, and parole systems.

The number of inmates in those institutions surveyed was 5,093 as of March 1967. Of these only 339, or 6%, were women; and following the national trend there has been in the last two or three years a decreasing number of prisoners in the New England adult correctional institutions. There was a shortage of correctional manpower in New England, either because of the lack of sufficient number of positions granted by the state, or because of the inability



of the state to fill the available positions. The ratio of correctional officers to inmates in New England was relatively good (1 to 3 1/2) and much better than the national average which is 1 to 7.

Correctional personnel were required to pass a written civil service examination, sometimes an oral examination in addition. However, no state used personality or aptitude tests in screening applicants for the positions of correctional personnel. There was no extensive recruitment program in any of the New England states. Only Massachusetts had statutes requiring the training of correctional officers. However, all the states had some kind of training program which varied greatly from state to state. The most immediate training need was for adequate and improved instruction of the line officer in the institutions.

There were 164 parole officers, (25 of them women) in the New England states and the average caseload of officers supervising probationers and parolees was 90 for male officers and 70 to 80 for female officers. The ideal caseload is 40 to 50 individuals.

There has been a shift from custodial orientation to treatment orientation in the institutions. The report

stated, "For the line correctional officer average intelligence and range of general knowledge, a degree of needed skill and experience in social relations, integrity, a sense of human decency and dignity, and good personal adjustment are probably more important as entry qualifications than high levels of formal education or pre-employment training."

It is not likely that college graduates will be interested in opportunities as correctional line officers except on a temporary basis. Parole officers on the other hand are essentially social workers. They need the knowledge that is available in undergraduate college courses in sociology, psychology, and political science. Therefore the substantial improvement of correctional education depends not upon persuading colleges and universities to give courses in corrections but upon removing the isolation of correctional institutions and the universities from each other by making both of them aware of the opportunities and resources each has to offer the other. A table of recommendations is attached to this report.

### Results

1. A master plan was developed which included an analysis of the major issues described above.

2. A list of 17 recommendations were made which revolved around the proposed establishment of an office of Regional Correctional Staff Education.
3. The proposed Regional Correctional Staff Education Program was not adopted. Several factors contributed to this situation. They were as follows:
  - a. The passage in 1968 of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act was probably the most crucial factor in deterring the several states from joining together. This act provided for the establishment of State Law Enforcement Planning Agencies. These agencies became the recipients of federal funds provided by the LEAA. In effect, the state plans which these agencies were responsible for developing precluded provision for financial support for a regional program. Moreover, these agencies controlled the distribution of LEAA funds.
  - b. The states of Vermont, Rhode Island and New Hampshire almost immediately adopted state plans, making it impossible, at the time, to consider a regional effort.

- c. The fact that the warden of the Rhode Island Adult Correctional Institution was not re-appointed, after a change in state administration, seriously affected the support for a regional program. This individual had been a member of the Project Advisory Committee and Chairman of the New England Correctional Administrators' Conference. Since this organization had initiated the request for an OLEA grant, there did not seem to be assurances for continued support of the Project recommendations.
- d. At approximately the same time, the chairman of the New England Board of Higher Education, which had been another sponsor of the Project, resigned. This change contributed to the further deterioration of support for the recommendations.
- e. Several states adopted recommendations of the project and incorporated them into their own state plans, including Vermont, Rhode Island and New Hampshire, as part of LEAA funds, - not OLEA funding.

- f. The funding of this project appeared to be adequate and the grant period sufficient for completion of the project. The Project staff had the capability for carrying out the provisions of the grant. Their product, the Final Report, reflects that capability.

### Evaluation

#### Advantages

1. The role of the proposed New England Regional Correctional Staff training program is carefully delineated so as not to interfere with staff development efforts of individual agencies. By focusing on fundamental issues, basic problems, trends and policies, this program can provide a foundation upon which individual state systems can build their own particular programs, geared to their own needs.
2. A fairly comprehensive plan was developed which incorporated innovative features that extended beyond the traditional institutional or parole inservice training program. Examples are:
  - a. The establishment of a Regional Resource

Center which would be of great value to facilities that lack the resources and personnel to implement well designed programs;

- b. The concept of leave of absence with pay for education relevant to corrections, a practice that has been reserved traditionally for academicians, is a necessary element in a personnel retention and upgrading program.
3. The plan to integrate university personnel and facilities into the proposed program may result in legitimizing correctional work for many students and provide a sense of respectability to correctional training. The several ways in which it is proposed that it be accomplished will insure the maintenance of this type of support. Also, universities could provide the students as aides, research opportunities and facilities, and provide crucial evaluative services.
4. The recommendation that the proposed program experiment with interstate and intrastate exchange of

personnel, if implemented, would go a long way toward mitigating the provincialism that pervades most correctional workers and state systems. Sharing ideas and practices in a work setting would provide opportunities for the participants to list their own skills and interests and to be exposed to those of others.

5. This Master Plan could serve as a model for other regions and for individual states, as well. The format of the report, the several studies that were conducted, the number and diversity of the contacts that were made in the course of the development of materials for the final report, and the tremendous support secured from many colleges and universities in the New England area, attested to the value of the report. Certainly, the project director and his staff performed their tasks in an exemplary manner.
6. In this connection, it is interesting to note that although a Regional Correctional Staff Education Program was not established several of the states did adopt some of the recommendations of the report. Apparently, the availability of the data and the

development of ideas assisted the several state law enforcement planning agencies in establishing their local programs.

7. The Project staff recognized early in the grant period the value of coordinating its efforts with those of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training. Arrangements were made with the Joint Commission which was conducting, at the time, a nationwide questionnaire survey, to cooperate with them in obtaining data for New England institutions. These coordinated efforts permitted the Project staff to gain access to information it might not otherwise have been able to obtain.

#### Limitations

1. The Plan is deficient in that it did not propose to deal with institutions and agencies involving juvenile offenders. The reasons for this gap are not made clear. This is particularly important because the State of Vermont has provided for the establishment of a new institution for youthful offenders and Connecticut has reorganized its juvenile offender program. Moreover, there are



substantial numbers of institutions for juveniles in New England that could benefit from the training services of the proposed Regional Staff Evaluation programs.

2. Although the concept of regional programs is not a particularly new one, it is certainly an innovative notion in the field of correctional training. It appears to be a very relevant idea, in that historically New Englanders have had a common identity. As the Final Report of this project attests, there are a number of regional organizations and interstate compacts already in existence.

However, like many past attempts to regionalize operational units (not deliberative units), there are a great number of pitfalls, not the least of which is the problem of funding and staffing. Related efforts have not been too successful in the past, because of the public and even official concern over the control of monies allocated to support these programs. The report makes it very clear that the inadequacies in training facilities and programs "are so great that correctional work is not done, procedures considered desirable

by standards-setting bodies of experienced correctional administrators cannot be used, the potential contribution of corrections to crime control is not achieved, and what is sometimes thought to be fiscal economy turns out to be a contribution to both human and fiscal waste." (p.27).

Despite the validity of this position, there is little reason to believe that regional support is forthcoming. Regional operating units tend to materialize and survive only when they are established by legislation. The New York Port Authority is a case in point. There are similar interstate organizations that have been legitimized in this way. I would recommend that efforts be directed along these lines. The Final Report is an excellent document that could provide the evidence and the guidelines for such a development. The legislatures in each New England state should be approached, perhaps by an advisory committee such as the one proposed in Recommendation #3 (p. 59).

The fact that the individual states each developed its own plan, following the passage of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act, illustrates the dilemma that the regional program would have faced, had it been established, even in skeletal form.

List of Project Recommendations

1. Establish, preferably in the New England Board of Higher Education, an Office of Regional Correctional Staff Education.
2. Appoint a director in consultation with the Advisory Board of the New England Correctional Manpower and Training Program.
3. Establish a New England Correctional Staff Education Advisory Committee.
4. Establish in collaboration with a New England University the post of New England Regional Professor of Criminology.
5. Establish a Resource Center to Serve Correctional Staff Education Programs.
6. Collaborate with the New England Educational Television Network in planning and producing a Regional Correctional Education Program.
7. Provide a variety of one to three day Correctional Staff Education Institutes.
8. Provide comprehensive annual five-day institutes on university campuses.
9. Develop a program of college faculty-in-residence.
10. Further the development of a correctional internship program.
11. Support leaves of absence with pay for extended staff education.
12. Provide full educational support for selected career personnel under specified conditions.
13. Provide for interstate and intrastate exchange of personnel within correctional systems.

14. Provide budgetary support for a "Training Quota" to permit a continuous correctional training program.
15. Provide improved and more aggressive recruiting procedures.
16. Provide for an annual "Careers in Corrections" Day in selected New England Cities.
17. Request funds to support the proposed Regional Correctional Staff Education Program.

Evaluation of Project #37

Grantee: Denver County Court

Amount: \$156,604

Dates: July 1966 to June 1968

Purpose: Establishment of a professionally directed community-oriented probation service for misdemeanor offenders. Probationers will receive diagnostic services, priority referrals to social agencies, job assistance, "crisis counselling," and, if needed, psychiatric and group therapy.

Volunteers are trained as probation workers.

Summary

The volunteer program in probation was started in July 1966 by Judge William Burnett of the Denver County Court. He selected an advisory committee which became the driving force behind the project.

This advisory committee requested and obtained from the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance a grant which was sufficient to finance the program until it could be funded locally, either publicly or privately. These funds helped to operate the program until local public funds were made available in 1969. This program is both a city and

and county court program with jurisdiction over city, county and some state matters and is financed out of city and county tax funds. The volunteers in the probation program were placed within the jurisdiction of the Denver County Court.

The court deals with traffic cases from age fourteen (14) and misdemeanor cases starting at eighteen (18) years of age.

Only the preliminary hearings are held in felony cases. Felony cases are then assigned to the District Court for final prosecution.

At the beginning of the program, in June of 1966, there were two full-time counselor positions with salaries ranging from \$8,000 to \$10,000. There were also two full-time psychologists receiving salaries ranging from \$7,500 to \$9,500, a full-time director with a salary range from \$10,000 to \$13,000, two stenographers with salaries ranging from \$3,500 to \$5,000 and a half-time medical psychiatrist receiving a substantial hourly rate.

The probation activity started with the treatment of delinquent defendants involved in minor city offenses such as disturbing the peace, resisting arrest, assault and battery, drunk driving, shop lifting, indecent exposure,

homosexual acts, prostitution, soliciting, etc.

The present program is still operating as a County Court Probation Program in the City of Denver, Colorado and is presently funded by tax monies in the amount of \$137,220 for the year 1970. A request for \$140,000 has been submitted to the mayor's office for the year 1971. Thus, it is now funded locally.

The portion of supplemental service under "Volunteer Court Service" using retired "Volunteer Associate Counselors" is financed from private funds in the amount of approximately \$20,000. These funds were first made available in October, 1969.

Volunteer Court Service (Counselors)

The Volunteer Court Service Counselors assist in the regularly established full-time probation program of the Denver County Court Probation Department. This program is supported by private funds granted through Project Misdemeanant Foundation, Inc. and began October 15, 1969. The foundation granted some twenty thousand dollars (\$20,000) to carry on the volunteer retiree program.

A board of directors has advisory supervision of the program from a financial point of view. The supervisory authority of operation, recruitment of volunteers, training of volunteers, volunteer supervision and the assignment

of probationers to the program remains with the Denver County Court Probation Department.

Within the organization of the Volunteer Court Service Program, we find two classes of personnel. One includes those retired individuals who receive one hundred forty dollars (\$140.00) a month, because of the Social Security limitation. They work approximately thirty hours per week. These individuals are called volunteer associate counselors and work as supervisors with the unpaid volunteer counselors.

The second type works under their supervision. In this group are some one thousand two hundred and fifty-eight (1,258) trained volunteers from all walks of life who serve without any compensation and work with probationers on a one-to-one basis. At the time of this investigation 374 volunteer counselors were serving the program. The number of volunteer counselors serving at any given time might fluctuate up or down by some fifty to sixty individuals depending on the court caseload.

#### Philosophy of the Program

Throughout the United States, thousands of volunteers from all walks of life are being selected and trained to work with delinquent youth.



In the Denver County Court alone one thousand two hundred and fifty-eight (1,258) volunteers have been trained to work with delinquent youth. At the time of the survey three hundred and seventy-four (374) volunteers were working with delinquent youth on probation. At the present time they have one hundred and three (103) volunteers trained and awaiting assignment and of this amount fifty-three (53) are ready to take a second or new assignment. We believe this to be the largest volunteer court program in the nation.

The volunteer may be a businessman, a teacher, a lawyer, doctor, tradesman, minister, public utility employee, professional athlete, mechanic, engineer, housewife, etc. The volunteer counselor may be of any age, any religious affirmation, of any ethnic or racial group, or come from any economic group. The very diversity of the Denver program is one of the strong points in its favorable organization, since each probationer may be matched with a volunteer having abilities in the field of the defendant's interest.

The court also has volunteers living in the same community with the defendant. The volunteer may be of the same economic status as his counselee and be of the same race and

creed, thus lending better understanding to the defendant's problems.

A study conducted by the University of Colorado of the Denver program compared two similar groups of defendants from the court. (1) "A control group taken before the program began and (2) an experimental group using the volunteers. Here the study concerned hard-core recidivists (with an average of three arrests during the year prior to the court appearance being studied), and success or failure was based upon re-arrests. In the control group only 15 out of 54 or 28 percent succeeded; in the experimental group 28 out of 44 or 64 percent succeeded. Thus the success ratio using volunteers was more than doubled."\*

A chart posted in the probation office shows the case-loads assigned during the month of May 1970 to the various courts, to professional probation personnel and to volunteers.

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\*The Volunteer Probation Counselor, Burnett, W. H., Judicature, Vol. 52, Number 7, February 1969, p. 285.

Assigned to court	Number of cases	Assigned to Professional Counselors	Assigned to Volunteer Counselors	Staff Supervision Load	Arrest Warrants Pending	Total Probation Load
A	1					
B	0					
C	1					
D	4					
Traffic	6					
E	65)					
F	67)					
J	81)					
P	1)					
Civil	2					
	222					
		139	374	328	198	1039

The referrals to the probation department during 1969 were two thousand sixty-one (2061). As of June 1, 1970 the case load amounted to one thousand thirty-nine cases. The present recidivism rate of the Denver County Court now using probation is approximately twenty percent (20%).

Denver County Court Probation Procedure

After breaking of the law and arrest, the defendant appears before the judge and is informed regarding the nature of the charges against him, his rights under the constitution and whether or not he was treated fairly by the arresting officer. He is asked if he wishes to have an attorney defend his rights or if he desires to have the Public Defender represent him. In the cases we witnessed, the Public Defender was used as the attorney. All the above information was resolved before the defendant made a plea of guilty or not guilty.

Bond may or may not have been posted previously to the defendant's first appearance in court. The defendant may have come directly from jail to the court.

If the judge felt probation should be considered or the defendant requested probation, the judge requested an officer from the sheriff's department who was already present in the court, to escort the defendant to the Diagnostic Clinic of the Probation Department located in the basement of the court house.

The defendant may or may not, depending upon the nature of the offense and other extenuating circumstances, be processed under the twenty-four hour pre-sentence investigation

procedure by the Probation Department. Regardless of the time element of pre-sentence, the defendant is tested and scored by a psychologist using the University of Minnesota "Multi-phasic Personality Inventory." The test is scored immediately after completion by the defendant. The test score and the defendant are transferred to a full-time professional pre-sentence investigator. The pre-sentence investigator has the defendant complete a "Background Information Form , an "Incomplete Sentences Blank" and a "Self-Report" before discussing the defendant's violation problem. All the information contained in these reports along with the psychological test score are studied by the pre-sentence investigator before the final pre-sentence report is completed.

Before the final pre-sentence report is presented to the judge, the report is reviewed by a committee composed of five or six full-time professional staff counselors at a group meeting held each afternoon from Monday through Friday. The director, Mr. Nelson is always present at this meeting.

The pre-sentence report as drafted by the pre-sentence investigator is read and discussed. Recommendations, suggestions and changes may be made at this meeting.

Following the meeting the finished final pre-sentence

report is filed with the judge for consideration when passing of sentence. In the twenty-four hour program, the defendant appears before the judge the day following his first appearance in court to learn of the disposition of his case. If the defendant is placed on probation, he or she is assigned by the director and his staff, to the professional staff or to a volunteer or to a retiree (Volunteer Court Services). In either one of the latter two cases, Mr. Nelson and his staff directly supervise the probation program. The volunteer is matched as set forth earlier in this report and works with the defendant on a one-to-one basis. The counselor's assignment may also be made on the basis of personality, sex, compatibility and vocational interest.

If the nature of the offense and the pre-sentence investigation require more time than twenty-four hours, the program is sufficiently flexible to allow more time and final sentencing may be postponed for a period of ten days to two weeks.

The defendant is free to contact the director of the full-time probation staff if he feels his needs are not being properly met or there appears to be a conflict of personalities. This action is shown in the organization chart.

At the present time, June 1970, there are three hundred seventy-four (374) volunteer counselors assigned to defendants on a one-to-one basis.

#### Volunteer Recruitment

Volunteers were recruited from all walks of life through speaking engagements with service clubs, churches, teachers, friends, news items, radio talks, hand out notices, T.V. broadcasts, etc. Such service clubs as the Junior Chamber of Commerce, the Optimist Club, Sertoma, Professional organizations, Engineering organizations, Business organizations, Legal organizations, Social Agencies, Vista volunteers, Policemen and Firemen organizations and many others are used in helping recruit and evaluate volunteers for the probation program.

At the present time a "Volunteer Counselor Application Form" is employed (see appendix) along with an explanation sheet when a volunteer applies for volunteer service to the program. This form is completed and filed with the Probation Department of the Denver County Court.

After careful review, satisfactory candidates are invited to attend three rather long training sessions, 7:30 to 10: P.M. or later, on three different evenings. Insincere or unqualified candidates usually fail to report

for the second training session. Such actions help with the screening process.

If the candidate completes all three sessions satisfactorily the Director of Probation completes the blank spaces at the bottom of the "Volunteer Counselor Application Form" and the prospective volunteer is invited to a "swearing in" session. On the evening when the successful volunteers are "sworn in" a leader in the field of law enforcement gives a talk and each of the candidates receives an identification card and lapel pin.

#### Volunteer Training Program

The volunteer training program is under the direction of Professor James Jorgensen of the Department of Social Work at Denver University. Each of the three training sessions meet from 7:30 to 10:00 P.M. or later on three consecutive evenings, with a fifteen minute coffee break at the mid-point of each session.

The first evening features a welcome and introduction by one of the county judges. There is also a discussion of the general organization of the court, the probation program, the background thinking, planning and assumptions underlying the philosophy of the program. Questions are permitted and answers given.



A second phase of the first evening features the movie, "The Price of Life." This film lasts 25 minutes and shows a young offender for whom probation is utilized. It portrays quite well the economy and humaneness of probation and sets the tone for understanding probation as an alternative to incarceration.

Part three of the first session tends to give an understanding of the misdemeanant with particular emphasis on the psychology of the "character disorders" and what to expect of him. It covers such things as early signs of character disorder, the general characteristics, specific attitudes, and behavior patterns.

The second evening session is devoted to the principles of counseling the misdemeanant. Deviant and normal behavior are discussed and the possible methods of treatment.

Case studies are presented and probation is discussed along with the idea of the volunteer's being a friend and not an enforcer of the law. Also, during the second session "Basic Concepts of Counseling" are discussed. Empathy, understanding, respect, advice, an attentive ear, communication, etc. are discussed.

On the third evening the movie, "The Revolving Door" is shown. This movie is relevant to the class in that it

deals with the misdemeanor offender. It points up the lack of progress in jails and the futility of dead time. The Denver County Court Probation Counseling Program is suggested as an alternative.

The group of trainees are given a "hand out list" of community resources and instructed to use the agencies when necessary.

The third session ends with a role playing program in counseling and critique. The class upon completing the final session is invited to attend a formal swearing in ceremony, usually on the following day, held at 1:00 P.M. in the County Court Building. The volunteers are given an oath by one of the judges and inducted into the court as a volunteer probation counselor. Each receives a lapel pin and an identification card with his name inscribed upon it. Also, a tour is made of the court and probation offices.

#### Work Release

The Denver County Court operates a work release program for defendants. The individual is permitted to leave jail in the morning and go to the place of his employment each working day. (This is not the same as the work activity program).

He must return to jail each evening at a stipulated time after work and remain in jail over night. He also spends his week-ends in jail. This procedure is followed as per the requirements set down by the court judge. A period of probation may also follow if deemed necessary for rehabilitation.

The use of work release is an indication of an enlightened and progressive court.

Work Activity (Deferred Prosecution)

The defendant may apply for a deferred prosecution at the time of his appearance before the judge. If the judge grants such permission, the defendant's sentence may include such work activity as washing of walls in public buildings (the court, library, police department, etc.), painting walls or varnishing furniture, or working in the parks and recreation department. The sentence may or may not require the payment of a supervisory fee. If a fee is required, it could be from \$5.00 to \$200.00 for such service.

A combination of work, fee payment and term of counseling probation may be required by the court if deemed necessary for rehabilitation. The judge may require two days, six days or twenty days of such work.

Deferred prosecution is often employed when it is not

likely that the offender will appear before a court again. This procedure keeps the defendant from receiving a criminal record and is used with citizens who have good future potential. Often executives and those with marital problems receive this consideration. This is an excellent concept and Denver should be highly commended for this progressive and innovative program.

Usually unofficial probation follows and lasts for six months to one year. The order of dismissal comes from the probation department and the defendant does not appear before the judge when dismissed. We suggest that the defendant should appear before the judge for dismissal and Denver seeks to do this soon.

During May 1970 two hundred and fifty-eight and one-half (258 1/2) man hours were worked under the work activity program.

#### Diagnostic Clinic Report

Starting with 1966 and until May 1970, there has been a steady increase in the ages of those referred for pre-sentence investigations. The trend seems to be continuing for the older groups. A slowing of the trend is noted for the younger ones; however, a momentary reversal for those under 20 should be noted.

Occupations of Volunteer Counselors

Lawyers, engineers, architects, chemists, teachers, social workers, sociologists, secretaries, stenographers, clerks, clerk typists, clergymen, salesmen, insurance agents, doctors, dentists, pharmacists, housewives, students, telephone operators, nurses, military personnel, airline pilots, flight instructors, merchants, bankers, investment brokers, computer programmers, mechanics, machinists, inspectors, tax personnel, auditors, psychologists, Vista volunteers, Head Start aides, butchers, bailiffs, librarians, models, statisticians, cosmetologists, dental assistants, printers, photo engravers, sanitation workers, foremen, janitors, purchasing agents, public relations personnel, cooks, advertising agents, business executives, policemen, firemen.

Evaluation

There are some inherent difficulties and problems in any probation program like that of Denver. The encouraging and heartening aspect of the program is that Denver recognizes all of these factors and is constantly taking care and caution to minimize their effect. These factors are:

1. Whenever there is more than one judge, there is a difference in philosophy, goals, sentencing, evaluation of the effectiveness of probation, use of

rehabilitation and punishment, etc.

2. Volunteer Court Services (VCS) is physically separated from the court and probation department. Failure in communication and understanding is a constant threat.

3. Some police officers feel that probation is used too often. To us, this is a good sign. The only time police-court relations are perfect is when one completely subordinates itself to the other. With 1,000 police officers and 13 judges, the problem is far greater than when there are 25 police officers and one judge. The Denver court now has a program of orientation with new police - "rookies" - which will assist greatly in better understanding--but not, we hope, complete agreement between the court and the police.

The fact that jail terms and fines are often included in the terms of probation also assists in the general acceptance of the program by the police.

4. When a large number of volunteers are utilized, inevitably some will not be as good as others. This is true of all types of people. In a study

of 374 judges, some will prove better than others. The same is true of professional probation officers, volunteers and everyone else. As the presiding judge noted:

- 1) Some volunteers fail to report properly and on time. (In Royal Oak, we found that some of the worst "reporters" were the best volunteers and vice-versa).
  - 2) In some cases, volunteers missed appointments. (This is true of all of us).
  - 3) Perhaps probation was utilized too much.
  - 4) Volunteers must be very dedicated.
5. As the program continues, more and better job descriptions and analyses must be developed. This is true of all growing programs. This is particularly true in Denver which has both the Volunteer Court Services and the professional probation program.
  6. The screening and selection of volunteers is now quite good.
  7. There is, of course, always a need for greater and better use of community resources and agencies by court programs. No court ever reaches the maximum fulfillment of the potential services available.

8. One of the full-time probation officers indicated that he was responsible for approximately 85 probationers. He sees them once a month. In addition, thereto, he was in charge of several volunteers. Some of them did not report properly. He found that this was a heavy caseload. This is unfortunate and is the story of probation at the lower court level universally throughout the United States.
9. Occasionally a probationer assigned to a volunteer is brought before the court on a new charge and the volunteer is not informed.
10. As previously noted, the work assignment program has not reached its full potential of good administration. In the past few months, a new man has been assigned to this program on a full-time basis and the court anticipates that this program will be better administered in the future.
11. Unlike the majority of lower courts, Denver does have psychiatric services in that they can refer to the Denver General Hospital or a mental health center.



Remarks

Although it is hard to single out the greatest source of strength, the involvement of over a thousand volunteers since 1966 on a one-to-one relationship with an equal number of probationers is certainly one of the outstanding aspects of this program.

At the present time, some 374 volunteers are assigned on a one-to-one basis with offenders. Without a doubt, this is the largest volunteer court program in the United States.

Ultimately, the final test of the effectiveness of any probation department is found in the evaluation of the program by the probationers. The investigating team talked with some 50 persons connected with the program in Denver. Among the most impressive interviews were two meetings with probationers, one a Mexican-American and the other a Negro. Each had a white volunteer, which is significant. One had been off probation for a considerable period of time. The other was on probation when interviewed.

Both of these young offenders, one still a teenager and the other in his early twenties, spoke with high praise about their volunteers. The investigating team talked with the volunteers and the probationers separately. Both the active probationer and the discharged probationer said that the best

friend they had "in the whole world" was their volunteer. Both said they were glad to come down to court to be interviewed, - even with last minute notice, - since their volunteer explained to them that it could help the program. Each had been so impressed by his volunteer that he felt the volunteer would call upon him (the probationer) if the volunteer needed help. They stated that the first person they would contact if they were in trouble was their volunteer. The ex-probationer indicated that he had actually received a request for assistance from his volunteer and was happy to respond.

Each felt that he somehow was a better person and had a better opinion of himself as an individual because of the volunteer. The investigators have talked with many probationers throughout the United States, and none have spoken with more sincere conviction about their deep and abiding friendship with their volunteers than the defendants in Denver.

Also, extremely high on the list of strengths of the program was the Volunteer Court Services. They do essentially four things. First, each retiree has a caseload of about 70 probationers--usually the older probationers. This relieves the professional staff and enables them to concentrate on the

younger offender in greater need. Second, they follow through with the volunteers by contacting them when reports have not been sent in, by conducting in-service training and small group meetings and in the re-enlistment of volunteers. Third, they assist in the pre-sentence investigations, primarily in the fact-finding aspect of these investigations. Fourth, they administer the work-detail program and see that it is done properly. As noted above, this is a relatively new operation and needs improvement probably more than the first three aspects mentioned above.

The creative use of retirees which, for a very small expenditure of money, virtually doubled the staff of the court probation program and the effective use of the one-to-one volunteer was one of the great strengths of the program.

The third great strength which we noted was the training program hereinbefore described. Denver apparently has a fine training program for volunteers.

The Volunteer Court Services has also developed a newsletter which will greatly aid in the communication among the various departments and hundreds of individuals who are part of this rehabilitative effort.

Evaluation of Project #168

Grantee: Youth Studies Center of the University of  
Southern California

Amount: \$112,942

Dates: April 1967 to March 1968

Purpose: Development of mathematical models of the probation process, including computerized prediction of probation process and probation alternatives not likely to be selected. And then to test them in three county probation departments. The ultimate goal is to help probation officers select the best treatment for delinquent youth.

Summary

This project was later supplemented by Grant #359 for \$96,259 from April 1968 to December 1968. There was a total of \$209,201 invested in this project. It is almost the sole example of the application of the computer to the field of corrections and rehabilitation. The acronym for this project is SIMBAD--Simulation as a Basis for Social Agents' Decisions.

The model depends on the collection of a mass of data concerning prior histories of young people on probation. From their histories by the use of Bayesian algebra it is

possible to develop a probability model of the future direction of a person on probation. This may be used as a guide to help probation officers make their decisions.

The consultants who helped develop the program for this project decided upon the use of an IBM 1130 and the programs were written so that they will interface with IBM's Fortran IV.

Evaluation

Only part of the initial purpose was achieved. A computer program for aiding probation officers' decisions was written as well as a program that will provide informational and statistical summaries of probation data.

(The latter purpose -- "developing a program to provide the probation officers with quick means of obtaining statistical summaries" -- was not in the LEAA Grants and Contracts statement of purposes. It seemed irrelevant to the decision-making project except as a possible enticement for probation department cooperation with the field test.) However, the actual implementation of this on-line decision system in probation departments was not achieved. Therefore, the experimental demonstration was not made.

According to the response on the questionnaire, the field demonstration of SIMBAD was not accomplished because of lack of funds. It was not clear from the Final Report that the experimental demonstration had not taken place. During the site visit in conversation with the Project Director, Alexander McEachern, he reported that the program had not been used, that experimental demonstration would hopefully be the next step.

The background of the SIMBAD project is interesting. Project Director Alexander McEachern had previously published the results of two studies on probation and found that the reports were never read by the probation officers in the field. This he saw as just another example of the almost total failure to implement in practice the implications and ideas contained in the mountains of social science studies being published. He decided to attempt to bridge this gap between theory and practice by devising a way in which the finding of his studies could be used by the people who should use them, probation officers. In brief, he wanted to develop an easy access to complicated knowledge. He did not want to go to the in-service training route because this would not suit his purpose. His aim was not to show probation officers how to do a better job but to supply them with a body of knowledge that could instantly be brought to bear on the individual decisions of the officers. Their "training" would only be in regard to how to use the hardware equipment that would give them the benefit of the individualized analysis of this knowledge.

The most significant aspect of his attempt to bridge this gap was the nature of his bridging. He was going to

apply the recent developments in decision-making studies (utility theory) to the probation setting. Applications of these studies have already been made -- reportedly with some "success" -- in defense work and in the field of economics. It was hoped that further applications in other fields such as administration of justice might also meet with similar success. Some of the advantages of utility theory -- as outlined by J. Robert Newman for the Public Systems Research Institute, University of Southern California in a paper titled, "Evaluation Technology: A Proposed Method For Evaluation of Social Action Programs in the Area of Juvenile Delinquency," p 18\* are:

- .. The theory and method encourage the decision maker to give a unified picture of his problem as an integrated whole.
- .. Individual preferences are made explicit and thus useful for guiding the individual to better decisions.
- .. Rough conceptions of "worth" or "value" are translated into relatively precise terms.
- .. Describes or helps delineate the interaction of preferences among the attributes in the case of multi-attribute alternatives.

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Unpublished paper, University of Southern California, July 1970.



- .. Presents an integrated picture of group preferences when the group is acting as a decision unit. This should be useful in guiding the group to better decisions and indicate the relationship between group preferences and individual preferences.
- .. It serves as a stimulus for the decision maker(s) to think hard and systematically about important practical problems.

Among the possible advantages of introducing this type of decision-making procedure to the problems of the administration of justice are:

- .. Rigorous thinking: It would stimulate a new order of rigor in the thinking and self-examination of decision-makers in the systems of criminal justice.
- .. Uncover Hidden Values: It would help identify many of the latent functions and officially extraneous but organizationally essential values at work in the system. This includes weighing individual personal biases as well as organizational biases.
- .. Increase Rationality: It would de-mystify many aspects of the system thereby aiding the quest for greater rationality in the system.
- .. Efficiency: (1) It would help decision-makers achieve their goals with less expense of time, effort, money, and other costs including social defense and personal liberty. (2) It allows them to bring a complex mass of information to bear on a single decision.

- .. Research: It would provide a means for testing the effects of various programs and policies on the administration of justice. Changes would be represented essentially by changes in the weights given to the factors in the decision.

Of course, it can be argued that some of these advantages would be mixed blessings and should not be actively sought. Perhaps justice needs mystery surrounding it? Perhaps rationality and justice are antagonistic? However, assuming for the moment that the present administration of justice could use a limited increase in rationality and demystification, then an attempt to determine the applicability of utility theory to the problems of the system should be welcomed and encouraged. What is more, the probation field is a good area to initiate such studies because of its comparative lack of complexity. Even if it is found that the utility of utility theory is limited in probation work there may be serendipitous spin-off applications to other fields within criminal justice where the theory would be of value.

Since the whole field of decision-making theory is so young it would be a mistake to expect too much from it too soon. Studies involving attempts to apply utility theory to criminal justice should be supported so that the developments that do occur in the field of decision-making theory are made on criminal justice matters. It seems that some of the

real innovations in criminal justice in the future are more apt to follow from developments in decision-making type studies than from technological applications, surveys, improvements of operations, etc. This prediction is predicated upon the following observations:

1. Very little innovation has resulted from the traditional experts in criminal justice, so why not draw from new blood?

2. Utility theory (especially when garbed in computer dressings) may appear to many traditionalists as harmless, non - threatening, pure efficiency, but actually raises many hidden issues and requires the system to openly deal with them; e.g., how much weight must be given to political and organizational factors?

3. When some of these issues are addressed, they would clarify how the system actually operates and may lead the way toward meaningful change. For example, by whom and on what bases are the decisions to arrest, to release, to prosecute, to convict, to place on probation and parole actually made?

With \$209,000 already invested in the project, it would seem advisable to give SIMBAD the money to demonstrate the program in the field. The design for the demonstration

should have an explicit, carefully constructed means for later evaluation of the project either by the SIMBAD staff or by an independent outside consultant. After this evaluation there may be adequate reason to examine the feasibility of applying utility theory to other decision points in the system of criminal justice.

The President's Commission's Task Force Report on Science and Technology has spaded the ground for utility theory applications to criminal justice. So far, it seems the Report has mostly been used to support "hardware" installations in police work. Greater use of the material should be made.

#### Criticisms of SIMBAD

(1) SIMBAD is an expensive, sophisticated prediction device used to help a probation officer analyze masses of information in making a decision. The question is whether a high powered, expensive predictive instrument (that will give its user not just a general prediction of "likely" or "unlikely" but rather a very precise prediction expressed as a decimal number between .0 and 1.00) is really worth it? How much uncertainty should be reduced? Is that order of precision really necessary? As Wilkins points out, there is no reason to spend resources to provide information that

would reduce uncertainty to the 5% level of confidence when a 10% or even a 40% level is all that is needed.\*

Couldn't a simpler, albeit less precise, model be used?

The Manhattan Bail Project's instrument, for example, only used five items of information in order to decide whether an individual is a good risk for release on own recognizance and they are correct in a high percentage (80% at least) of the cases. How correct does the probation officer's predicting device have to be in order to be useful?

It is proper to ask what level of confidence does the probation officer need to make his decision? Before we go running off to collect mega tons of information, can we determine where the point of diminishing returns begins? Perhaps it is back at the 5-item information sheet.

The next area of contention relates to the conservative bias of the instrument. Does it distract from fundamental reforms in corrections? Does it merely perpetuate the status quo? These are underlying issues not discussed by the SIMBAD people although these were the things our consultant attempted to get them to discuss.

Could a prediction machine replace the probation officer's

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\* Leslie Wilkins, "New Thinking in Criminal Statistics", Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology & Police Science, LVI, (1965), pp. 278-279.

function as decision-maker and leave him solely with the function of "therapist"?

Another grave question pertains to the axiom that a computer is no better than the data and the concepts fed into it. For more years than correctional researchers would like to admit they have been testing without computers a great variety of models to predict success on probation. A great many of the same variables as those used by this project have been employed: age, sex, race, crime, type of treatment, etc. In general the ratio of predictive success never was raised substantially over the intuitive decisions of experienced and intelligent probation officers. Is there any reason to expect a computer program to do better? This project's theoretical approach seems to assume that probationers are automata who will respond willingly to the decisions and restrictions ordered by the probation officers. The reality is somewhat different. Probationers do not always cooperate in fact. "Probationers, parolees, and prisoners are notoriously resistant to correctional innovations which would change them to significant degrees."\*

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\* Edwin H.. Sutherland and Donald R. Cressey, Criminology, 8th Edition (Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1970), p. 370.

It is almost a mockery to hold out hope of solving the crisis of probation for young offenders when a study assessing the state of probation in California in 1960, only 5 years before OLEA began its work, reported that the average juvenile caseload was 162, ranging from 70 to 200. And furthermore the data of that study clearly revealed that "most probationers receive less than one hour of casework per month."\*

Finally, we come back to the insistent refrain that we have reiterated constantly. We need better evaluation of probation although it is notoriously difficult to accomplish.

The expenditure of \$209,000 to develop a program for a model (without buying any computer equipment) that never was even tested in practice seems exorbitant. Our own computer consultant agreed with this opinion. This project should have been evaluated by expert consultants prior to the grant to see if it was worth the expense, and then it should have been carefully audited by OLEA during its life.

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I. J. Shain and W. R. Burkhart, A Study of the Administration of Juvenile Justice in California, (Sacramento: 1960), pp. 42-44, cited in John P. Conrad, Crime and Its Correction, (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1967), pp. 21-22.

EVALUATION OF PROJECTS #241 and #317

Grantee: Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency and Corrections at the Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Illinois.

Amount: \$209,800

Dates: September 1967 to August 1968

Purpose: National training institutes (two months), for correctional staff training officers, to include study of training methods and techniques, preparation of visual materials, and supervised teaching, and correctional administrators' workshops (200 trainees, 14 graduate assistants--45 state programs).

Summary

There were two project directors, Robert J. Brooks who served from the beginning of the grant period--September 1, 1967 until September, 1969-- was responsible for the operational phase of the project; Henry J. Burns, who was largely responsible for the publication of the training materials and the preparation of the final report succeeded him.

This project developed out of a prior OLEA Grant #041 which supported a pilot-training program for correctional staff trainers. This grant sponsored a training institute



in the spring of 1967, from March 20th through May 19th. It consisted of a nine-weeks program for 17 training officers, 44 correctional officers and 13 middle managers. These participants were from 14 mid-western states.

The motivation for the establishment of this program stemmed from an interest in meeting the need to provide training for the many changes that correctional facilities were undergoing.

Based on experiences gained during the earlier project (OLEA #041) certain changes were made. The structure of the present program was as follows:

1. Three training institutes to be conducted during one fiscal year (1967-68).
2. Duration of Institutes - Eight weeks
  - a) First five weeks included small team learning experiences and group lectures
  - b) Two weeks of practice teaching
  - c) One week for participation by agency administrators, principally superintendents
3. Number of participants - 176
  - a) Trainers - 57
  - b) Correction officers - 69
  - c) Correction administrators - 50

- d) States represented - 40
- e) Correction institutions represented - 100

#### 4. Instructional Staff

The Project staff included faculty members of the Center as well as other departments of the University, a substantial number of graduate research assistants and instructors from other universities and public and private agencies.

#### 5. Project Goals

- a) Instruction of training officers in order that they may conduct a more efficient program for training correctional officers.
  - 1) Corollary goals here were:
    - (a) To develop a pool of trained correctional officers
    - (b) To generate support for guiding the training officer by exposing administrators to the trainers during the institute
    - (c) To develop tested reputable programs, materials and research
    - (d) To develop measurable indices of the utility of training.

#### 6. Project Structure

- a) Type of participants per institute:

- 1) Approximately 20 trainers per institute who were in residence at the Center for the entire eight weeks
  - 2) Approximately 25 correctional officers per institute who participated for a two-weeks period
  - 3) Approximately 17 administrators per institute who participated for one week
- b) In general, the training day was divided into three parts: mornings were devoted to didactic training experiences; afternoons were designated as laboratory sessions which involved team projects; evenings were taken up by audio-visual and other supplementary programs.
- 1) When the correctional officers arrived, the trainers served as their instructors
  - 2) When the administrators came, the trainers participated with them in joint planning sessions and critiques of lesson plans
- c) Training Materials
- A manual entitled Tools for Trainers was developed that contained three categories of materials
- 1) Lectures
  - 2) General resource material and information for locating learning materials
  - 3) Lesson plans developed by the trainers themselves. Included were 129 lesson plans.
- Other items included slide-tape presentations, a 16-mm film on Institute Training and a series of readings in training and pamphlets in the field of correction.

Evaluation

Essentially, the evaluation of this training institute involved the following:

1. An analysis of daily logs that were kept by all of the trainers
2. A questionnaire developed by Thurstone designed to measure attitude change along a continuum ranging from punitiveness to rehabilitation.

Results of the evaluation indicated that the daily logs were helpful in determining the shifts in the trainers' assessments of their experiences. The staff found that the trainers were more concerned with content and procedure categories than they were with theory. Another finding was that during the fourth week, mid-point in the training program, positive evaluation by the trainers began to decline. Also, there was a relationship between lack of interest and programs that focused on the implications of the behavioral sciences and great interest when the class material focused on familiar material, - especially work related issues.

It was planned to follow up the effects of the training institutes on the trainers after they returned to their respective institutions.

Program Advantages

1. This training program is perhaps the most comprehensive ever undertaken in this country for the training of correctional trainers. In terms of its scope and breadth of coverage of materials and techniques, its involvement of staff levels - particularly the joint use of trainers and correctional administrators, - its commitment of a very large number of institutions nationwide to help underwrite the program and its ingenious utilization of instructional staff, - particularly graduate students, - it is an excellent example of what can be accomplished in this field.

2. It is an excellent example of the kind of cooperation between universities and the field of correction that is essential if this field is to move up to the 1970's. In this regard, this project (#241) was successful in bringing to bear the resources of a large university on the problems of correctional training. It should serve as a model for other universities to use in seeking a role for itself in helping local correctional systems to train its employees.

3. The institutes provided the stimuli to a substantial number of training officers to organize their own nationwide association, - namely, the American Association of Correctional Training Personnel. Although this organization

is young and relatively weak at this point, its development points up the need to upgrade the field of correctional training, at the institutional level. Apparently the training officers at the institutes decided there was sufficient need and interest to organize themselves. However, without the financial support of their institutions and other national organizations such as the American Correctional Association, it will not survive or play a significant role in this field.

4. This project gained immeasurably from the fact that it took advantage of the experiences of a prior pilot project (OLEA Grant #041). The present project, OLEA #241, is a modified and expanded version of the previous one. This is a clear example of the value of experimenting with a pilot project prior to launching on a large scale study.

5. The training model that was employed used to good effect an important principle in training lower level staff in an organization, - namely that it is not profitable to train line staff without attempting to gain the support of the administration. By bringing together the training officers and the superintendents for a week, the project succeeded in exposing the latter group to the effects of the training, the instructional staff and the training site. Although it can be argued that one week is insufficient time to expect

much impact, this project demonstrated the feasibility of implementing such a situation.

6. This project achieved a substantial goal in moving the training of correctional workers from the pedestrian, traditional custodial approach to a broader context of the whole correctional field. It placed correctional training in a behavioral scientific framework and, at the same time, succeeded in maintaining a balance with the more familiar custodial orientation. By using social scientific material, techniques and knowledge, it exposed the trainers to a wide range of training opportunities.

7. The project provided the trainers and the correctional officers to the university setting for an extended period. In so doing the trainers learned to relate to university personnel in a useful manner and at the same time, to accept the university setting as a legitimate and profitable place for correctional training. The traditional in-service training program conducted usually at institutions tends to be superficial, didactic and routine, by way of contrast. Hopefully, there will accrue benefits to both the university and the officer. In many respects, these correctional personnel participated in the type of training programs that paraprofessionals are exposed to, in other

areas. It might be useful to pursue this analogy.

8. The project succeeded in teaching skills that are essential to correctional training, - namely role playing, audio visual technology, lesson plans, presentation of lectures, and others. This exposure was helpful in widening the world of the trainers and stimulating their interest in taking advantage of materials and techniques that many of them felt were not available or useful to them.

9. The project used an effective approach in the training institutes toward the end of each session by requiring that each trainer teach other trainers and, later, correctional officers who attended for two-weeks periods in each of the three institutions. This type of involvement not only tested the skill of trainers, it committed them to the role of teachers, which they would be required to play at their home institutions.

10. All in all this project helped to broaden the scope of the interests and knowledge of the trainers, and, in so doing, achieved its objectives in large measure. Although there is still the issue of evaluating the impact of these institutes on the participants, it appeared to succeed in doing for correctional training what the field of group dynamics and organizational development is doing for



industry; namely, to teach the trainers that the knowledge developed by the theoreticians and researchers can be of great help in training others effectively.

#### Limitations

There are a number of limitations regarding this project. They are as follows:

1. The evaluation of the project was extremely weak. An attempt was made to evaluate the impact of the program by employing two measures: (1) a daily log prepared by the trainers, and (2) a Thurstone attitude toward punishment scale. The daily log revealed the following: (a) when the trainers were exposed to content material with which they had some familiarity, they were very interested; (b) when they were exposed to material which was more theoretical in nature, that attempted to reflect the relevance of behavior science studies, they developed all kinds of resistance.

The response to the attitude scale except for minor differences reflected no changes in attitude toward punishment or rehabilitation. For a project that was designed for learning experiences which would be digested by the trainers after return to their facilities, there is no objective indication that this was done. As the final report

indicates on page 32, "the ultimate measurement of the institute's effectiveness is to be found in the contribution each participant will make upon return to his prison system."

Since there was no formal follow-up there is no way to determine the program impact. A cursory interview with individuals who participated in the program as well as secondary information gained from a brief tour of some facilities indicates that of those states examined, very few actually developed training programs or improved existing training programs. In New Jersey, for example, only one of the four institutions that participated took advantage of the learning experiences of the training. There is no doubt that there are many reasons for this development: (1) Many of the trainers felt that upon return to their institutions they would be facing great resistance on the part of the administrators, even though some did actually visit the training site for one week. (2) No money was budgeted for the purpose of implementing a training program. (3) The trainers felt that more of them gained considerable knowledge regarding training than those who did not. However, as individuals they were not in a position powerful enough to do anything about it. (4) Most institutions do not have the capabilities to implement training programs due to negative attitudes and to limited staff.

2. The fact that the field of correction has not resolved its major dilemmas suggests that training programs for trainers will continue to be confronted with serious problems of implementation. Because there are no tested models to help administrators develop training programs as integral parts of the entire operation, each institution and each institution in a sense develops its own training program by the "seat of its pants."

Many participants of these institutes attest to the fact that training individuals has great merit. However, might it not be more fruitful to develop priorities in which training models are developed that could be available to training systems for implementation?

3. The follow-up conducted by some members of the institute staff was informal. Individuals did provide support for those trainers who showed interest in taking advantage of what they learned. The absence of a formal follow-up, however, makes it difficult to determine objectively the impact of these institutes.

4. In order to legitimize correctional training on a local level, it is imperative that funds be made available--perhaps from a federal source, since most states require this luxury-- to support those institutions that demonstrate

the capacity to take advantage of them.

5. In developing training programs, it might be useful for correctional officers to examine literature in the training of paraprofessionals for mental health, welfare, education and community services. In many respects unless correctional officers are involved in a systematic, well organized training program, geared to career development, the motivation to actively participate is going to be minimized. Some paraprofessional training programs could be examined for this purpose: one developed by Howard University in Washington, D.C. and a second by Lincoln Hospital in New York City.

6. There appears to be considerable interest on the part of training officers around the country in promoting a communication system and a national organization to implement it; this would help them to gain an identity and support for developing training programs on a systematic basis in institutions.

The efforts of the American Correctional Association in this regard have been minimal. They have had a committee on personnel standards and personnel for a number of years. Recently, Mr. Robert Brooks, first director of the OLEA Project #041, has been appointed chairman. In this connection an attempt should be made to revise the Correctional

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Officers Training Guide which was distributed by the ACA; secondly, ACA has decided to revise the Manual of Correctional Standards; including a section on training which could be helpful. Their underwriting and supporting the American Association of Training Personnel would be a great help in this regard.

Evaluation of Project #300--Texas Adult Probation Program

Grantee: The Law School Foundation, University of Texas

Amount: \$74,651

Dates: February 1968 to January 1969

Purpose: Use of volunteer and salaried sub-professionals in adult probation services in a six-county area, to involve persons from poverty neighborhoods, senior citizens, and rehabilitated ex-offenders as aides to court probation officers (estimated 18 placements).

Summary

The State of Texas does not have a unified probation program. Probation services are available in a few counties. However, in most counties the services ranged from none at all to very inadequate services. Previous to the establishment of the present Adult Probation Program, with headquarters at the County Court House at Austin, Texas, the program was operated and supervised in 1956 with only one probation officer functioning under the direction of the court and Sheriff's office.

"In 1967, after two years of study of adult probation in Texas, a joint committee of the Texas Council on Crime and Delinquency and the Texas Council on the Administration of Justice, recommended that action be taken to conduct a

demonstration project to show the state and county governments the advantages of providing good probation services as an effective alternative between imprisonment and unsupervised release. This group surveyed probation departments in the metropolitan areas of Texas and recommended that the demonstration project be located in the central Texas area of Austin. In addition to the inclusion of both urban and rural areas, the Travis County Adult Probation Department and the judges of the 22nd, 147th and 155th Judicial Districts were receptive to the proposal to experiment under the new services.

The University of Texas School of Law and the School of Social Work agreed to participate in the proposed project.

The critical shortage of experienced and trained manpower in the nation coupled with the necessity of making the model economically attractive and feasible led the planners to propose experimentation with sub-professionals, volunteers, rehabilitated ex-offenders, and general community involvement in programs."\*

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Report of Texas Adult Probation Project, Office of Law Enforcement, Assistance Grant #300, February 1, 1968 - July 31, 1969, p. 1.

560.

The grant application submitted to the U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Law Enforcement Assistance in February of 1966 proposed a two year program of research, experimentation and demonstration. Limitation in Federal funds reduced the request by approximately one fourth and limited the experiment to one year.

Supplementary grants of \$10,000 from the Moody Foundation of Galveston, Texas and \$15,000 from the Hogg Foundation for Mental Health of Austin, Texas permitted the extension of the project period through July 31, 1969.

The object of the experiment was to encourage the establishment of a statewide probation system in the state of Texas, and to develop an improved method of selecting and supervising persons placed on probation utilizing the involvement of local volunteer citizens.

The areas selected for this demonstration provided a reasonable representative sample of social, economic and cultural influences existing in the state. Both urban and rural counties were included in the experiment. The urban county chosen already had an existing probation program and organization which could be used as a base of operation for extending services to the rural counties lacking probation programs. The several judges within the area were quite receptive to the experiment and showed



considerable enthusiasm for its success. The experiment as finally established included Travis County, which contains the urban community of Austin, Texas, and the three rural counties of Hays, Comal and Caldwell. The rural counties include the agricultural towns of San Marcos, New Braunfels, and Lockhart.

These communities are rapidly being affected by the influences of the larger urban areas. Caldwell County has a population of 20,000 people, with the City of Lockhart about 6,500 population.

Comal County has a population of approximately 24,000 people with the town of New Braunfels having 18,000.

Hays County has a population of 28,000 people. The town of San Marcos has 18,500.\*

Thus, in a state with inadequate to non-existent probation services, the experimental program as conducted by Travis County has led to proposed legislation which hopefully will result in such a program becoming statewide. Pending legislation is presently before the legislature and action is expected in the spring term.

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\* Report of Texas Adult Probation Project. Office of Law Enforcement Assistance Grant #300, February 1, 1968 to July 31, 1969, p. 3.

Program Goals

The aims of the Texas Adult Probation Project are to:

- a. Formulate a pattern for statewide probation services in Texas.
- b. Bring about legislative changes for law enforcement and probation by moulding public opinion.
- c. Test and evaluate the feasibility of probation in rural areas through the use of a paid and qualified probation officer working with a paid assistant and unpaid volunteers working as a team.

Citizens Advisory Councils: Organization and Duties

In the four counties, Travis, Comal, Hays and Caldwell the probation programs utilize citizen advisory councils. These councils are composed of leading citizens, professional people, housewives, tradesmen, trained social workers, ministers, school representatives, businessmen and other interested citizens.

It is the duty of the councils to meet once a month. They are not constituted by law and each contains approximately 40 members.\* The councils are so constituted

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\*Austin's proposal for the state system will be to create the council by law and call them Councils of Community Corrections.

because of the varied ethnic groups in the four areas so as to include whites, Negroes, Mexican-Americans for communication and understanding. It is the duty of each of the Advisory Councils to publicize the probation program, recruit volunteers, gain public support and enthusiasm for the program and to help the probation program's success in diverse ways.

It appears that the committee in Hays County, according to one of the advisory committee members, is having difficulty in obtaining volunteers and in selling the program to the community. He stated the community is not completely sold. This community is composed of a large number of retired army personnel who do not want to cooperate and become involved. Also the community contains a college and many of people are students. These two factors tend to affect community spirit.

Power politics has asserted itself in a political struggle between whites and Latins. This has affected the success of the volunteerism in the area.

In other areas the Citizens Advisory Committees have been quite successful.

Team Program Approach to Probation

In this program a well qualified probation officer is in charge of the team. Directly under his supervision and working with him is an assistant, originally referred to as a technician, but now called an assistant to the probation officer. He may be a person working for a degree or taking special training to qualify for the work he is expected to do.

Where weaknesses are found they are being overcome by special training. The third part of the team is comprised of the unpaid volunteers. These people are trained and selected to work with probationers in groups or to work with such probationers on a one-to-one basis.

No volunteer has more than five probationers assigned and spent no more than five hours per week except those working in teams.

The strongest aspect and uniqueness of the team program is that teams are organized on an ethnic basis: white, Negro, Spanish, Mexican-American, etc. Several of the teams are so organized as to have personnel representing two or three ethnic groups. The advantage of such an arrangement is that someone within the team speaks the language of the probationer, understands his customs, lives in his community

and is able to interpret the law to the defendant without arousing antagonism. They build the bridge which overcomes the gap existing between the court and the minority groups.

#### Recruitment and Training of Volunteers

The recruitment program for volunteers is done by the Citizens Advisory Councils.

The recruitment is using the mass media of radio, television, news items, church announcements, speeches at professional business clubs, luncheon clubs, recruitment of students at the University Law School and the ex-probationers training program.

They do not use teachers or administrators from the public schools at present. KTBC Television Station is making a thirty minute film documentary on the Texas Adult Probation Program. This should be very helpful in recruitment.

They have a continuous training program to help insure that new volunteers will always be available. During the week of July 20, 1970, an additional seven volunteers will have been trained and available to Travis County. Each county does its own selection and training of volunteers

The training program in Travis County consists of three sessions of one and a half to two hours each. The sessions are held both during the day and in the evening. In the outlying counties the training seems to be somewhat less intensive.

Following the training period, the volunteer is given a folder containing an application form, a handbook, the volunteer's pledge, a volunteer probationer contact report form, time sheet, a diagram of probationer referral process, appointment forms, the Hogg Foundation Publications, an article on individual counseling and an identification card which permits him to visit in homes, at the jail and in the employment offices of business. The volunteer does not take an oath but he does sign a pledge to meet with his probation officer once a month and participate in the program for one year following his training.

(The full-time probation officers have a badge and do have arrest powers. However, they do not cover a "beat"; this activity is left to the police officer.)

The volunteer is assigned to a team and to a probation officer. He serves under the probation officer.

He meets with the probation officer to learn of his duties. The officer explains the philosophy of the program and the monthly report forms which must be completed. The probation officer tries to match the defendant with a volunteer according to similar aptitudes, interests, time available and needed for counseling and ethnic groups.

The probation officer also explains probation and its meaning to the defendant on Thursday afternoons. The volunteer sits in and observes this procedure. The volunteer may be invited to go with the probation officer's assistant to the home, agency or jail where the defendant resides as a means of learning more of the defendant's background. Before an assignment is made to the volunteer, several possible cases may be suggested and considered before a final decision is made. If, after several meetings with the defendant, success seems impossible, there is an opportunity to assign a different volunteer counselor. The defendant has an opportunity to go to the probation officer in charge of his team if he feels his volunteer is not satisfactory. Each of the volunteers has access to all pre-sentence reports and other data regarding his counselee. Such information is understood to be strictly confidential.

Each volunteer receives a handbook published by the Hogg Foundation of Mental Health of the University of Texas and a printed list of available public agencies which may be used for rehabilitative services in the probation process. There are 33 paid personnel and 53 volunteers working in the Travis County Probation program at the time of this study.

Screening is done at present by training, evaluation of a personal data sheet and discouraging questionable candidates. Those screened out are not assigned to a probationer.

The volunteers with whom we conversed expressed interest and enthusiasm in the program and stated they want another counselee when finished with their present assignment; this is one of the surest signs of success.

At the time of this study there were 1533 individuals on probation in Travis County. There were 641 misdemeanants and 843 felons.

The estimated recidivism rate for Travis County is between ten and fifteen percent.



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TRAVIS COUNTYAVERAGE PROBATIONERDEMONSTRATION AREAProfile

Male, Married  
 2 Children  
 Owns Car  
 Rents Home  
 Earns \$378 a month or  
 \$4,536 a year

Pays Own Way

Restitution	\$193
Court Cost, Fine	37
Sales Tax	51
State Gasoline Tax	36
Property Tax	<u>10</u>
	\$327
Federal Income Tax	<u>219</u>
Total	\$546

YEARLY COST OF SENTENCEProbation

Recommended National Standard	\$378
Demonstration Project (1/3 less)	254
Less Local Contribu- tion	- 101
Requested	<u><u>\$153</u></u>

Prison

Incarceration	\$1,100
Dependents' Welfare	1,032
Lost Taxes	<u>546</u>
Subtotal	\$2,678
Other Lost Income	<u><u>3,990</u></u>
Total	<u><u>\$6,668</u></u>

The Percentage of Total Cases Terminated in Travis County  
and the Texas Adult Probation Program - 1965 to 1969

Period 1965 to 1967  
Travis County

Felony	20.6%
Misdemeanors	1.9%
Total	11.9%

Period 1968 through Nov. 1969  
Texas Adult Probation Program

Felony	11.0%
Misdemeanors	1.6%
Total	4.5%

Percentage of Total Caseload -- Travis County and Texas

Adult Probation Program - 1965 to 1969

Period 1965 to 1967  
-- Travis County

Felony	10.6%
Misdemeanors	1.2%
Total	6.8%

Period 1968 through Nov. 1969  
Texas Adult Probation Program

Felony	5.0%
Misdemeanors	1.4%
Total	3.0%

Work Detail Program

Austin does not have a work detail program like the one in Royal Oak, Michigan. Such a program enables worthy first offenders to earn a dismissal by working for the city in addition to unofficial probation. Thus, the criminal record resulting from jail terms and the payment of fines is averted. Austin might like to institute such a program in the future. (A program of week-end sentences does fulfill some of the goals of a work release program for prisoners.)

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Statistical Table Showing Treatment and Disposition of  
Felony and Misdemeanor Cases in Hays, Caldwell and Comal  
Counties of Texas as reported February 1, 1970. (See  
attached sheet.)

The following table shows the number of cases supervised in the three counties of the 22nd Judicial District respectively and how the various cases are being treated under the Texas Adult Probation Program. Court costs ordered and collected, fines ordered and collected and restitution costs ordered and collected are also included.

TEXAS ADULT PROBATION PROJECT  
 22nd JUDICIAL DISTRICT  
 HAYS, CALDWELL, COMAL COUNTIES, TEXAS  
 February 1, 1970

	Hays County	Caldwell County	Comal County	- Felony	= Misdemeanor	22nd District
Cases supervised since February 1968 ...	208	117	247	123	124	572
Courtesy Supervision Cases since February 1968.....	42	10	10	7	3	62
Cases supervised presently, as of February 1970.....	142	79	118	79	39	339
Courtesy Supervision Cases as of February 1970.....	25	4	8	5	3	37
Cases revokes since February 1968.....	5	2	5	2	3	12
Felony Violations.....	11	9	4	3	1	24
Misdemeanor Violations.....	18	15	18	12	6	51
Cases discharged since February 1968 ...	66	36	129	44	85	231
Cases receiving early discharge since February 1968.....	12	12	3	3	0	27
Cases receiving disposition by court (either Texas Dept. of Corrections, Jail or Probation) from February 1968 to February 1970.....	94	72	331	80	1	487
Pre-sentence Investigations requested by the Court.....	93	72	83	62	1	248
Cases sentenced to Texas Dept. Corrections, ..	10	8	14	14	0	32
Court Cost ordered since February 1968..	\$9,744.00	\$2,729.50	\$6,597.60	\$1,667.00	\$4,930.00	\$19,071.10
Court Costs collected since February 1968..	\$8,746.00	\$3,039.50	\$ 0	\$ 0	\$ 0	\$11,786.50
Fines ordered since February 1968.....	\$1,803.00	\$2,150.00	\$10,317.00	1,700.00	\$8,617.00	\$14,270.00
Fines collected since February 1968.....	\$1,333.00	\$2,200.00	\$3,933.00	\$ 806.00	\$8,126.00	\$12,466.00
Restitution ordered since February 1968.....	\$51,930.00	\$1,658.00	\$ 0	\$ 0	\$ 0	\$53,588.00
Restitution collected since February 1968.....	\$5,768.00	\$3,388.00	\$ 0	\$ 0	\$ 0	\$ 9,156.00

592.

Evaluation

a. In the areas where the team program is employed and the matching of personnel has been based on a racial, language, socio-economic and cultural basis, it appears satisfactory success in counseling and rehabilitation has taken place.

b. There seem to be some reservations both among the judges, probation officers, and volunteers as to the success of the team approach. They are carefully observing the program since it is relatively new. Acceptability seems to be growing in Travis, Comal and Caldwell Counties. This cautious optimism is good.

c. The probation program and the team approach have been greatly hindered in the town of San Marcos in Hays County because of political forces opposed to change, language barriers, indifference of citizens towards volunteerism, a lack of community spirit due to a variety of ethnic groups and socio-economic resistance to change. The remarkable thing here is not that more progress has not been made but that some progress has been seen.

d. The probation officers, their assistants and the volunteers feel the program is good and satisfactory results are being achieved. They realize that improvement is needed, which is a good sign.

e. The training program is good but perhaps a later follow-up would make for better trained volunteers.

f. Generally, the volunteers feel the one-to-one counseling is far superior to that of counseling in groups.

g. In all counties there is fine cooperation by the police and sheriff's office with the probation program.

h. An experiment is being conducted in Travis County to compare a group of probationers who report to a single probation officer doing his own pre-sentence report work and counseling with a group operating under the team program. The lone probation officer has a caseload of 75 defendants whom he contacts once a month only during a six-months probation period.

The team group has a caseload of 150. The pre-sentences are done by the probation officer and his assistant. Some of the counseling is done by unpaid volunteers. The study will be based on a two and one-half months operation.

Recommendations

1. It appears there is a need for a strong alcohol and drug information school at Lockhart since only a minor A.A. program now exists.

2. Even though they have a continuous recruiting and training program, more volunteer citizens are needed. Greater publicity, movies and a short TV program might help in this deficiency. This is not meant to infer any lack of respect for what has been accomplished. Out of a complete vacuum a few years ago, fine citizen involvement is now evident. In a short time, a tradition has been established.

3. There appears to be a need for more service volunteers who could help with the paper work and monthly reports of counseling volunteers.

4. There is a need for a full-time psychologist and psychiatrist.

5. There is a need for more marriage counseling and a driver's school.

6. As in all programs, everywhere, there is a need to constantly seek to reduce the paper work.

7. There is a need for better and larger probation quarters.

8. A study should be made to see if the present controls of probation can be somewhat modified.

9. It appears that caseloads should be reduced. There is probably no area in the United States where this is not true.

10. It appears there is a need for more service to be rendered in securing employment for defendants who need employment. All probation departments must work constantly at this.

11. There is a grave need for tapping the east side Negro and Mexican-American areas for volunteers. (The fact that this program is doing this at all puts it ahead of the vast majority of courts in the nation).

12. There appears to be some evidence of a feeling of frustration on the part of a few volunteers. They need to feel a sense of accomplishment. This is a continuing challenge for all volunteer court programs.

13. The probation officer in charge of a team should constantly call attention to the public agencies which are available for rehabilitative purposes and see that they are used when a case warrants the same. This is something all volunteer court probation programs must work constantly at to continually improve.



14. Volunteers should be notified when their counselee violates probation. The probation department should not have the defendant sentenced without notifying the volunteer and allowing him to speak on behalf of the defendant. All volunteer courts must continually work on this.

15. The term "technician" should not be used when speaking of the person who aids the probation officer since the term tends to suggest poor training. It should be preferable to speak of the individual as the "Assistant to the Probation Officer."

16. There appears to be a need for more meetings between volunteers and the probation officer and for better communication between all individuals working in the program. This is universally true in every program which has the imagination, dedication and courage to use volunteers. It is a built in problem for those who involve many people, the only way in which the job can really be done.

Evaluation of Project #306

Grantee: American Correctional Association

Amount: \$18,060

Dates: March 1968 to August 1968

Purpose: Demonstration and testing of a self-evaluation inventory enabling state correctional administrators to measure existing programs and services against model standards and to formulate programs. Other national correctional groups are cooperating.

Summary

The project director was E. Preston Sharp.

The lack of national standards of operation in the correctional field is regarded as a severe handicap in developing and implementing plans.

This project was designed to improve the capabilities of correctional institutions in meeting their responsibilities. The principal method for achieving this aim was the use of self-evaluation reports by agencies in this field. More specifically, the Project was designed for the following purposes:

1. To determine the effectiveness of a Study Guide which was developed from funds authorized by an earlier OLEA Grant (002), as a tool for self-evaluation by correctional institutions and agencies;
2. to conduct a national institute for persons representing various correctional services, on a geographic basis for the purpose of instructing them in the value and use of the Study Guide;
3. to select two institutions to serve as pilot projects for the use of the Study Guide;
4. to prepare an outline for state planning among correctional systems.

A long range goal of this Project and of the American Correctional Association is to utilize the results of this proposal to develop and eventually implement a plan for the accreditation of correctional institutions and agencies in the United States. The 1966 edition of the Manual of Correctional Standards is the resource which was used in developing the Study Guide for Application and Measurement of Correctional Standards.

**CONTINUED**

**7 of 18**

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This Study Guide consists of a series of checklists in the form of Correction Evaluation Reports for each of 33 out of 36 chapters in the Manual. It describes and illustrates the technique for testing these standards by self-application on the checklists.

OLEA Grant #306 constitutes Phase I of a three-phases overall plan. It is anticipated that Phase II will involve demonstrations involving jail personnel, community correctional centers and parole authorities. Also, it will involve field testing of material in correctional camps and in re-testing revisions of the Study Guide developed in Phase I (Grant #306).

Specific Project Goals in Phase I

1. Print and distribute the study guide for the use of self-evaluation reports for the Manual of Correctional Standards. The guide will also include instructions for tabulations and the methods recommended for a number of participants to be involved in the evaluation.

2. Present the study guide and discuss its use at the February meeting of the Association of State Correctional Administrators and Association of Paroling Authorities.

3. Conduct an institute for wardens and superintendents for the purpose of informing and instructing them in the value and use of the self-evaluation form.

4. Select two institutions to serve as pilot projects for the use of self-evaluation forms. Consultants will be provided for the orientation and training of staff in the use of the self-evaluation tools.

Different types of institutions will be selected in order that the pilot project will provide different experiences.

5. Provide instructions for the preparation and transfer of data to IBM cards so that it can be used for data processing and thus provide a profile of either an institution, unit or system.

6. Prepare an outline for state planning, using the self-evaluation forms as the basis for the preparation of the plans.

7. Begin collecting information which will be used in the next revision of the Manual of Correctional Standards and the revision of the self-evaluation correctional report. Also start the accumulation of significant data from the self-evaluation reports in order to have a knowledge bank which later, if sufficient participation occurs,

will give a national profile of the correctional services.

Phase III will involve analyses and integration of accumulated data into a revised edition of the Manual. Eventually an Accreditation Commission will be approved to implement the results of Phase III.

#### Plan of Evaluation

The assessment of OLEA Grant #306 involved the following steps:

1. Review of all of the available documents that were used and developed by the project.
2. Review of related documents including material developed out of OLEA Grant #002, and other items such as An Accreditation Plan for Corrections (Interim Edition) issued by the ACA Project on Self-Evaluation and Accreditation and a report submitted to the Ford Foundation which provide a two-year grant to the ACA for a project to evaluate correctional services in the United States and to establish a system of accreditations. Also an additional proposal to the Ford Foundation to implement the Accreditation Plan was reviewed.
3. Site Visit - An interview was held with the Project Director, Dr. E. Preston Sharp.

4. Interviews were conducted with selected personnel of two correctional institutions that participated in a Self-Evaluation project.

#### Evaluation

It appears that the goals of Project #306 as outlined in the proposal (p. 7) were achieved except perhaps for #6, which states: "Prepare an outline for state planning, using the self-evaluation forms as the bases for the preparation of the plans." A special task force of the Federal Bureau of Prisons along with representatives of LEAA have prepared such a document. Considering the relatively brief period of the project and the limitations of funds, the project's achievements are considerable. They are as follows:

1. There was nationwide distribution of all reports, especially of the Study Guide and self-evaluation forms and, in fact, approximately 150 institutions from 40 states have already participated in the Self-Evaluation Study.

2. Two institutions, the Colorado State Reformatory at Buena Vista, Colorado and the Bucks County Prison in Doylestown, Pennsylvania served as pilot projects. Documents describing their experiences were prepared and distributed widely among correctional administrators. In this connection, it should be noted that each facility



was self-evaluated on two separate occasions and the results recorded. In fact, the Colorado State Reformatory has formally requested that it be reviewed for accreditation as soon as possible.

3. A National Institute on Self-Evaluation and Accreditation sponsored by the ACA was held on June 6-8, 1968.

4. Participation in the Self-Evaluation Project by many institutions and agencies on a state and local level has been initiated.

5. The Project Director was able to elicit support for the project from all of the state directors of correctional systems as well as from many local directors. In this connection, the Project staff demonstrated its capability to conduct this project within the allotted time and funds. In addition, it is suitable for machine tabulations and analyses of the data collected during and after the grant period.

6. Feedback to all state and local agencies that participated in the study was made so that they are able to determine their strengths and weaknesses as they relate

to the Study Guide.

7. This grant, #306, generated substantial developments. Following the grant period seven regional workshops were held for 140 correctional workers from 48 states. The aim was to provide training in the self-evaluation process. Moreover, additional funds were granted to the Project staff to continue the results of the #306 Grant. In fact, it is anticipated that the plan to revise the Manual and to implement the accreditation plan will probably be supported by private sources, shortly.

8. The results of this proposal have stimulated contact on the part of the Canadian Correctional system to develop its own accreditation plan. As a result, the Project staff on the invitation of the Canadian officials, has conducted three workshops in self-evaluation in that country for the staff members.

9. Since correctional institutions in this country, as a rule, do not have manuals of operation, or collate procedures, the checklist had the advantage of serving as a temporary set of operating standards for them. This is really an unanticipated consequence of the project and deserves commendation.

10. This report represents an innovation in the field

of correction. The notion that correctional administrators should and can be held accountable for the operation of their programs is implicit in this study. Self-evaluation and the accreditation that will follow will be an important step in achieving this end. One advantage will be that inmate care and program development will be improved considerably.

There are some limitations of the proposal and its outcome that merit consideration. They are:

1. The Study Guide constitutes the single most important tool for self-evaluation. It is therefore the heart of the project and, in many respects, the success or failure of the project depends almost exclusively on the adequacy of this Guide. Since the guide was developed from the Manual of Correctional Standards, it would seem appropriate to raise some questions about the Manual, itself.

The proposal assumes that the Manual was an adequate and appropriate reflection of the current state of the structure of, and knowledge about, correctional practices in this country. Justification of this position is cited in the proposal "the last edition in 1966 re-titled Manual of Correctional Standards was the product of 137 contributors and consultants under the direction of a 29 member Committee of Association." (p. 8) Although one must take for granted

that the Committee and the contributors they selected were competent in the areas in which they made a contribution, it does not necessarily follow that the Manual they produced should be the sole source for self-evaluation and eventually for accreditation.

It might have been more appropriate to incorporate in the Project, a systematic evaluation of the Manual prior to development of the Study Guide. This approach might have lent greater credence as to the adequacy of the Guide. Also, in view of the fact that the Manual will be revised greatly, the question can be raised as to whether it is feasible to proceed with accreditation, at this time.

A related issue is the question of "the effectiveness of the Study Guide" as a tool for self-evaluation (Final Report #306, p. 1). The statement is made in the final report of the project that "from experiences gained by those participating in this project, the opinion has been formed that the Study Guide and the Evaluation Report Forms made from it, may be used effectively as tools for self-evaluation leading to accreditation." (p. 7) There are no systematic data presented to substantiate those opinions or experiences. It might have strengthened

and clarified this situation had such data been made available. There is, of course, no indication that that such data has, in fact, been collected. Certainly, the design of the proposal did not indicate that such an analysis would be undertaken.

2. Another issue relates to the question, did this study make a difference? is there a demand for such a study?

Apparently, there was a demand on the part of the ACA as an organization and presumably it represents the thinking and the wishes of the State and local directors of principally adult correctional agencies. There is no such indication among administrators of public, state and local training schools and privately sponsored programs as well. It is true that the Study Guide includes items relating to juvenile offenders. However, because the Manual does not include sections on these agencies, the Study Guide should not be thought of as having applicability to all types of correctional forms. This situation is not made clear either in the proposal or in the final report.

3. No attempt was made to explain whether or not the use of the Study Guide could be justified when compared with the results that could have been obtained

by other methods. Since there is no statement as to whether or not other approaches were considered it is not possible to deal with this issue. The fact that consultation was held with accrediting agencies in other disciplines does not, in and of itself, justify the method that was selected.

4. There is no indication regarding the accuracy or completeness of the data that was collected by the participating institutions. It is stated that in each case the staff of the institutions that participated in the Self-Evaluation, received training in the use of the checklists. It might have been more appropriate to include, in the instructions to these institutions, a request for a description of the content and length of training. This was done quite well in the Program Assessment Report of the Colorado State Reformatory. The system used in this instance was designed to insure that their procedures were evaluated from all levels and not just from the top, thereby assuming a more complete and thorough evaluation. Also, an attempt was made to assist the evaluators in the Reformatory in studying and understanding the contents of their respective chapters. An analysis of the training and orientation, conducted by the institutions would clarify the issue of quality control.

5. The usefulness of the Study Guide as an integral part of the Accreditation Plan of the ACA is contingent, in some measure, on whether or not an institution or a particular correctional system has developed a set of standards that are in use. Since it is not possible to determine whether this is the case, it cannot be determined whether or not the participating institutions were measuring their actual performance or reflecting their aspirations.

6. The Study Guide does not appear to be useful in evaluating programs for special offender groups; i.e., psychotic inmates, sex offenders, drug addicts, retarded inmates. Although these types of offenders may not have any place in correctional programs since their primary problems are not anti-social, the reality is that they are committed to correctional institutions.

7. In view of the developing awareness in this field that inmates themselves can contribute to the effective operation of correctional programs, it is interesting that no reference was made to their role in the self-evaluation process.

8. Although there is a section in the Study Guide on Research it relates principally to administrative research. No attempt is made to measure the effectiveness of programs from the point of view of the post-release adjustment of the offenders. In fact, the Study Guide focus is exclusively on the management of institutions and little attention is paid to the impact of correctional management on the inmates, during and after their incarceration.

9. The Study Guide does not address itself, at this point, to the problem of preventing and resolving crises, such as mass disturbances, employee strikes, serious equipment breakdowns and other types of emergency situations.

Throughout this evaluation, Dr. Sharp was helpful in all respects. Without his excellent cooperation and understanding, it would have been difficult to complete this report.



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## IV

## Criminal Justice

Summary Findings

1. OLEA did not encourage "criminal justice" projects. It preferred to concentrate on law enforcement.
2. To OLEA the courts and court personnel were synonymous with criminal justice.
3. Court personnel, including judges and prosecutors, needed more training which OLEA did not provide.
4. OLEA should have stimulated more court operations improvement projects.
5. OLEA should have tried to assess the impact of projects upon the other agencies of criminal justice.

Evaluation of the OLEA Criminal Justice Program

OLEA listed a total of 25 grants in criminal justice,\* to which 11 were related to the courts. Perhaps more significant for criminal justice were the projects listed under the heading of General Studies and Crime Prevention. These were studies of illegal traffic in narcotics, professional crime, the incidence of unreported crime, and characteristics of adult and juvenile offenders.

Grant projects which were significant to the field of criminal justice were: a program to develop an integrated state-wide criminal justice information system (classified as Operations Improvement); a massive study of the potential application of science and technology to the criminal justice system with a plan for a national program of research, development, testing, and evaluation of law enforcement and criminal justice (listed under General Studies); and the special program of State Planning Committees in Criminal Administration.

Hardly anywhere is there a hint that OLEA tried to gauge the impact of a law enforcement project upon the other

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\* So few questionnaires in this category were returned that it was not feasible to include the analysis in a separate section.

two branches of criminal justice. The statement is equally true about projects in the courts or corrections.

If, by chance, OLEA operations improvement projects did succeed dramatically to raise the level of arrests by the police, what would happen to the already overburdened courts and prisons? The extra load might cause them to break down completely.

Training for court personnel was assigned a very low priority. There were four projects for training district attorneys, and only two training projects for judges, and one of these was for Indian tribal judges. Judges need training just as badly as police and correctional personnel. Compare the number of court training projects (6) with the 61 police and 31 correctional training projects.

In law enforcement there were 78 operations improvement projects. In the courts there were fewer than six. These were the two law student prosecutor programs of Harvard University and Boston University; the computer simulation of the Washington, D.C. District Court; and a two-day judges conference focusing on the plight of the lower courts.

In law enforcement OLEA funded many surveys and studies. Corrections was not far behind. We have, in

contrast, found only one court study to compare with these and that is the same judges conference we have just classified as a court operations improvement project.

Because of this limited criminal justice effort and the diffuseness of the projects, OLEA criminal justice projects had little impact on the day-to-day operation of the criminal justice system.

Since the bulk of these projects was not effective in changing the system, we chose for special review a project which did give promise to direct impact upon the court procedures. This was Grant #85, the Harvard Law School Student Prosecutor Program. Professor Samuel Dash did the evaluation.

Evaluation of Project #85

Grantee: Harvard Law School, Cambridge, Massachusetts  
Amount: \$22,960  
Dates: October 1966 to December 1967

(This grant was supplemented later by Grant  
#293: \$11,121 from December 1967 to  
September 1968).

Purpose: To use senior law students as prosecutors in  
minor criminal cases of selected local courts.

Summary

Since the Gideon and Escobedo cases in the Supreme Court there had been a decided interest in law schools in providing lawyers for the defense of indigent defendants. In 1966, an amendment to the Massachusetts District Court rules permitted senior law students to appear for the prosecution in minor criminal cases. The senior law students could appear in the Massachusetts District Court system in cases of trial without a jury, misdemeanor cases, trial without a jury of felony cases if punishable by less than

five years in the state prison, trial without a jury of cases of juvenile delinquency, and probable cause hearings in felony cases. Finally, permission was granted for students to appear on appellate trials where there had been a prior conviction in a lower court in a case without a jury trial. It was extended to permit a senior law student to appear for the prosecution on an appeal on a trial de novo before a six-man jury.

The goals of this experimental project were: 1) to assist the courts to keep up with the crush of many cases, 2) to train law students for positions as prosecutors after graduation, 3) to assist criminal justice agencies and to cooperate with them at the law school level, 4) to give law students additional opportunities for clinical training and responsibility.

Approximately 50 senior law school students at Harvard University Law School had taken part in this project for experience as student prosecutors. The project at Harvard Law School was under the direction of Professor Livingston Hall, and he was assisted by Professor Allan Dershowitz and Professor Lloyd Weinreb. The project had been developed into a non-credit course at Harvard University Law School entitled "Professional Responsibility of the Prosecution."

The District Attorney assigned two of his regular staff to give the law students proper training by means of a series of three two-hour lectures covering topics such as: the District Attorney's Office and its functions; the duties and responsibilities of the prosecutor; the examination of witnesses and preparation for trial; trial strategy and problems of evidence; the prosecution of criminal cases; disposition on a plea or a finding of guilty; do's and don't's for a prosecutor; search, seizure, confessions; motions to suppress and dismiss. After this, the students spent several hours in court observing and discussing cases and trial techniques with the supervising assistant district attorney.

Before the senior student in law school could appear in court as a prosecutor he needed written approval by the Dean, attesting to his character, legal ability and training. Several rules were agreed upon. No student in the project could prosecute any criminal defendant who then was a client of any other student in either civil or criminal matters or vice versa. The second rule held that no Harvard law student could during the same semester, both prosecute criminal cases under the project, and defend Massachusetts criminal cases as well. All prosecution records and files were kept in the project office.



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As far as the work of the students was concerned, it was successful in that the statistics of guilt and acquittal were approximately the same as in cases where experienced prosecutors appeared. Out of a total of 69 cases 55 were non-jury cases. 12 were 6-man jury cases, and 2 were juvenile cases. Of the 69, 35 were convicted of some charge, 2 defendants submitted to a finding of guilt, and 8 defendants were acquitted. The others, for some technical reasons, were not included in either guilt or acquittal. Some of these were due to the fact that no trial was possible, or the case was continued past the time when the student could appear as a prosecutor. The reaction at all levels of the criminal justice system -- police, prosecutors, and judges -- was very favorable to the work of the students.

A new system was tried at Harvard in the year 1967-1968. Instead of a non-credit course the new Harvard project combined a credit course with voluntary extracurricular appearances for which no academic credit was given. The project directors made the following recommendations:

- 1) The program of clinical training of senior students for court appearance on behalf of the prosecution should be continued after June 1968.
- 2) It should be extended to many

other law schools in other states. 3) Federal agencies and courts should encourage and support student prosecutor programs.

### Evaluation

This program was excellent as a clinical experiment to give third-year law school students a type of reality shock that would prepare them for a future in criminal justice.

Clearly the addition of bright young law students, representing defendants who had not received such representation in the past, added a significant contribution to the atmosphere of the courtroom. In addition, it served as a substantial challenge to the court and to the prosecutor which assisted in maintaining the adversary system.

There were some limitations. The program was deficient in that it was treated only as an extracurricular activity with no law school credit. Furthermore, no faculty member was assigned who would incorporate the experience of the law students into a seminar providing educational input into the program.

The young law students gave zealous service but had to develop their own guidelines concerning professional responsibility and strategies. We recommend that this program be expanded and integrated into the law school curriculum.

## Police-Community Relations

Summary Findings

1. The average policeman is very cynical about the value of police-community relations programs. He is turned off as soon as he hears the words "training in police-community relations."
2. A change in administration can "kill" a promising program.
3. A police-community relations program that spreads itself thin trying to do everything its authors can think of will end up doing nothing well.
4. A change of attitude measured by a paper and pencil test may have no relation at all to a change of behavior.
5. A relatively short period of training in community relations can hardly be expected to change attitudes or ideologies that are firmly embedded in a lifetime of experience.
6. However, it has been found that generally group interaction is somewhat more effective in changing attitudes than mere lectures and discussions.
7. On faith alone, but on little other evidence, we accept the fact that an increase of knowledge about human relations and minority group people may do some good.

8. Police occupational experience seems to solidify negative attitudes toward minority groups.

9. The change toward what may be considered a desirable norm of behavior needs, in addition to training and motivation, proper administration--a clear statement of policy together with guidelines and intelligent supervision of personnel.

10. The fate of a police-community relations program depends as much on the persons involved as it does on the substance of the program.

11. Police-community relations programs usually are crisis programs and tend to be temporary stop-gap measures. As such they are not well planned or executed.

12. Police often resent outside experts from the "ghetto" or the "academic world," and they insulate their minds against the message. At the same time when their own police officer instructors exhort them to "act nice" and "be understanding" there is no reason to think that the trainees will act any differently from their fellow workers whose behavior necessitated the p-c-r program in the first place.

13. Within police departments, black and white police officers are confronting each other with growing hostility. This is a potentially explosive situation.

## Evaluation of Police-Community Relations Programs

The OLEA reports that there were 37 police-community relation grants totalling \$552,309. In fact, there were at least 20 others that could have been legitimately described as police-community relations projects.

There were three main types: 1) training projects in which members of the force received concentrated doses of human relations training, sometimes there was the added factor of group sessions with members of the minority group with whom relations were strained. 2) There were also some shotgun or umbrella programs in which the police department tried to do everything that might possibly be considered police-community relations. 3) Another group directed its main thrust toward school children by introducing law enforcement courses and often policemen, as well, into the school.

Police-Community Relations projects are among the most difficult to evaluate. Generally the foundation of the project is a training program. This training does not really teach any skill, any technique, or any action, but tries to develop understanding, tolerance, and favorable attitudes. The usual curriculum produces nebulous impressions that may or may not be related to action. The action, however, takes place in a different context, a different world so to speak. The classroom just cannot duplicate the field of forces rampant in the streets of the cities.

Our questionnaire elicited definitions of police-community relations in which the concept of communications loomed large. Communication, we must reiterate, is only a process, a completely neutral process with equal potential to lead to a successful outcome or a disaster. Sometimes, there may be too little communication, sometimes too much. Understanding these limitations, we conclude that open lines of communication have more potential for good than bad, because without any communication at all the scale is weighted toward disaster.

There are some experts who decry the fact that the police are preparing for riots by stockpiling weapons rather than developing police-community relations programs to prevent riots. While we agree that weapons are not the proper answer, the implication that police-community relations programs have the power to prevent riots needs examination.

The basis for the opinion must be a combination of two elements. The first is the belief that community hostility to the police is one vital ingredient in the eruption of a riot. The other is that improper police behavior may trigger a riot.

The report of Project #44 illustrated the former hypothesis. Ric University researchers, after analyzing their data collected by interviews and questionnaires decided that the most important single factor for

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the measurement of community tension was "hostility toward the police."\*

Another confirmation is the study of precipitants of race riots by Lieberman and Silverman.\*\* They concluded that police action was the second most frequent precipitating factor in all the major race riots from 1913 to 1963.

Police-community relations programs always have one or both of two principal goals: 1) to reduce community hostility toward the police, and 2) to improve the behavior and attitudes of the police toward the community.

Riots develop from conditions over which the police have no control, for example: poor housing, unemployment, lack of political representation, segregation, and the failure of institutions generally to satisfy the needs and aspirations of the people. Police are only one part of the syndrome. Furthermore, when riot situations are at the point of exploding, police action of any type, good or bad, may be the trigger.

Police-community relations programs are useful because they tend to make the work of the police department easier and more effective in its day-to-day operations. They also help

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\* Final Report, Project #44, pp. VII, 51.

\*\* Stanley Lieberman and Arnold R. Silverman, "The Precipitants and Underlying Conditions of Race Riots," American Sociological Review, Vol. 30 (December 1965).

the police to perform their duty in a more professional manner. They should not be considered a panacea for the defects of our society.

For some reason many policemen suspect the purposes of these programs and sabotage them. This may be a result of a law enforcement ideology that interprets police-community relations as a liberal sociological conspiracy that would legitimize and encourage the complaints of the black population against the police department. It has happened that officers involved in these programs have been faced with conflicts of loyalty to the police department of which they were the representatives and the black community that may have had a justified grievance against the police.

Police-community relations programs need more imagination and variety. For example, a program for improved relations with a black population probably needs different elements from one focusing on relations with a Puerto Rican or Mexican-American community.

A sign that law enforcement is unwilling to change set patterns of police-community relations is the disregard of the recommendation of the President's Crime Commission to create the new position of Community Service Officer.

What did OLEA accomplish in its Police-Community Relations



Program? Thousands of law enforcement officers were exposed to and trained in human relations courses. Most of the grantees established special community relations units. But no one can say how much the hostility toward the police was reduced, how many policemen applied this training to their daily patrol activities, or what violent confrontations were avoided as a result of these programs.

### Analysis of Questionnaire Data--Police-Community Relations

There were 37 police-community projects in the OLEA listing. At least 20 more grants could legitimately have been included in this category. Thus from a potential sample of 57 we received 37 questionnaires. Among other things we were interested in determining to what extent the community was involved in these programs, what criteria were used for evaluation, and finally what was the concept or definition of police-community relations around which the project was built.

One of the OLEA recommendations for grantees was to involve community groups in projects wherever possible. The probability of involving minority group members in this set of projects was much higher than in the other programs. Table 1 compares the total returns and the police-community returns on this point.

Table 1

#### Use of Minority Group Participants

Type	Total Projects		P.C.R.	
	N = 227		N = 37	
	#	%	#	%
Planning	44	19	17	46
Implementation	62	27	22	60
Evaluation	19	8	9	24
Consultants	31	14	17	46
Not at all	87	40	7	19

Many projects used minority group people at several stages so the figures add up to more than 100%. However the data in the table corroborate our expectation. The proportion of police-community relation projects involving the use of minority groups was much higher than the average of the other projects taken as a whole. The percentage of police-community relations projects not using minority group participants at all is only one-half that of the rest of the projects.

We asked what percentage of the program was devoted to the police force itself, and what percentage to the community in general. Only 6 out of 22 programs devoted 50% or more of the effort to the police and 14 of the 22 directed 30% or less to the police. On the other hand, the community was the recipient of 50% or more of the effort in 19 out of 24 areas.

It is surprising to find that universities were used in these programs in only 55% of the projects. The rate was higher for the total group of projects.

Out of 28 who answered the question, only 5 claimed to have modeled their program after that of some other police department. Yet a look at the programs reveals many similarities.

A large number of them, 29 out of 37, had a specialized police-community relation unit within the department, yet only 5 of them followed a comprehensive or master plan.

In question 30 we asked them to list the criteria for evaluation of their programs. The responses are listed below and they show how little hard data are available for evaluation.

Criteria for Evaluation of Police-Community Relations Programs

Feedback

door-to-door

degree of acceptance

Community interest and participation

complaints

news releases

no answer

informal outside commendations

decrease in minority problems

satisfaction with program

our successes and failures

none

attitude-crime

We use opinions of Chief of Police, Community leaders, poverty leaders, minority leaders, school officials, etc., for evaluation;

Community acceptance of programs;

End results obtained;

Public reaction and criticisms;

Response of both community and the police;

Ability to involve people consistently, crime trends;  
 Impressionistic monitoring of minority group community  
 through Human Relations Division of Mayor's Office:

No formalized evaluation procedure;

Follow-up, initial response and consultation with other  
 agencies and community groups;

Geographic Boundaries (problem areas), citizen awareness -  
 response - willingness to report;

Citizens' response by phone and mail;

Depends on program. Do crime analysis of computer districts  
 throughout the county, using all demographic data available,  
 attitude surveys, simple response questionnaires.

Our final question asked for a definition of police-community  
 relations, and the answers are set forth below. It can be seen  
 that the improvement of communication is one of the central  
 themes.

#### Definitions of Police-Community Relations

##### Given by Project Directors

Function within the Flint Police Division which provides  
 for establishment of more positive communications between the  
 Division and citizens;

Better rapport and effective communication with the total  
 community;

Seeks to relate with entire community but most notably with underprivileged and minority neighborhoods where need is greatest for police understanding and involvement;

Open communications between police and community to facilitate citizen involvement in crime prevention and control and total community involvement in solving social problems as a means of reducing crime;

Improvement of understanding between police and the community with both gaining greater recognition of each other's problems;

Process of establishing communication, confidence, respect and cooperation between the community and the police;

Result of every action or reaction between the police department and the community we serve;

Ours is police community "Services" rather than "Relations" somewhat casework oriented - dealing with human need and unjust barriers;

Establish and Maintain continuing program within the community designed to enhance effective two-way communication between that community and its law enforcement agency;

Encourage Police-Citizen partnership in the maintenance of law and order and crime prevention;

Encourage communication between police and community;

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create an awareness in police of police-community relations problems, encourage officers to help solve them;

Involve all citizens to help make out place a better place to live;

Help police and community understand each other more; co-operation; thereby make police operations more effective;

All efforts of the department directed toward improving communications with total community. Includes crime prevention efforts, public relations and neighborhood problem solving groups;

Our program is designed to fulfill the needs of the community in making them aware of the problems of police and making the police aware of the problems of the citizens.

Selection of Projects for Intensive Review

With our consultant Lieutenant Robert Williams of the Human Relations Section of the Chicago Police Department we screened the police-community relations programs. Many of them were copies of each other; most were unoriginal and involved traditional methods of training policemen by exposing them to lectures by well-meaning social scientists who had little effect on the police audience.

There were some action programs that showed promise and we concentrated on these. We finally chose four of these for more intensive evaluation by our consultant, Lt. Williams.

The projects chosen were 1) Grant #44 to Rice University in Houston, Texas. This project has attracted national attention and was often cited as a superior example of the genre. In this evaluation Lt. Williams was assisted by Sgt. Edgar Davis of the Human Relations Section of the Chicago Police Department who was a resident of and familiar with the Houston situation.

2) Grant #91 to the Des Moines, Iowa Police Department. This project introduced a law enforcement course into the high school curriculum. It was taught by a former police officer and from the report it seemed to be a successful operation. Since the greatest hostility toward the police is located in the youth of America, we wanted to examine a youth oriented project.



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There were several projects of this type focusing on law enforcement courses to be introduced into the high schools and junior high schools. Among them was Grant #52 in which the University of Cincinnati and the Cincinnati Division of Police were joint grantees. Grant #52 was undoubtedly stronger in methodology, conceptualization, and evaluation than Grant #91. However, we had already made a firm decision to review carefully the computer program--Project CLEAR of the Cincinnati Division of Police. We did not want to select two projects directed by the same grantee.

3) Grant #104 to the Boston Police Department was representative of a popular style that we have labeled the umbrella type because it tried to do a little bit of everything. It was important to learn whether this all-embracing approach could accomplish its objectives.

4) Grant #212 to the Charlotte, North Carolina Police Department was innovative. It trained 3-men teams composed of police and indigenous members of the community to operate in the community. It was interesting enough and unusual enough to call for a closer look.

Evaluation of Project #44

Grantee: Department of Anthropology and Sociology, Rice  
University, Houston, Texas

Amount: \$37,350

Dates: June 1966 to August 1967

Purpose: To develop measurement techniques to determine the  
level of community tension and the potential for violence  
in Houston, Texas.

Summary:

The Rice University Department of Anthropology and Sociology proposed to develop a method of procuring reliable objective data rather than mere intuitive speculation about what the Negro community thought. This could then be relayed to the police to keep them informed of potential riot situations.

The project staff conducted 7,156 interviews among the 290,000 Negroes in the city. They were interested in attitudes toward the police, toward jobs, housing, schools, integration, and the use of violence. All these scales when combined would theoretically give a temperature reading on the level of tension.

The interviewing was done by a team of Negro interviewers who were first trained in what is called a natural dialogue method in which interviews are carried on in a conversational manner without the respondent being aware that he is being interviewed. It was found that the attitudes toward police are a

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very important indicator, and that the hostility toward the police was high.

As a result the proposal was offered for group sessions between police officers and members of the black community.

There are other spin-offs from this program in that surveys by the project teams were conducted to determine the effectiveness of various strategies employed by police officers and other officials in coping with situations of a tension producing nature. Sample: they used a block watcher program to watch for a fire bomber, they saturated areas with patrol cars, they staged a job fair to get youth jobs in industry. And there was a survey of the Negro community to indicate its feeling on each of these programs, which, in each case, was favorable. The project teams that did the interviewing were also helpful at scenes of demonstrations and incidents that had potential for violence. They could send back readings on the intensity of feelings.

On one occasion police had warrants to arrest the group leaders of a disorder, and they were ready to make arrests when it became apparent from the team members within the crowd that this would create an incident that would inflame the students into violence. The police withheld making arrests on the basis of this information until the group split up and

the leaders could be apprehended independently. An ecological map of unrest was computed for authorities in 18 Negro neighborhoods, and this correctly predicted the area where grievances were highest. One of the features of this study was that it included both sociological and psychological questions. The questionnaires and surveys were compiled both before and after violence and thus the changes that occurred were pinpointed and some generalizations made about the variations in the indicators and what they showed for future violence.

#### The T-Group Sensitivity Training Sessions

In connection with this project a community organization of interested businessmen fearing the danger of riots founded the Houston Cooperative Crime Prevention Program. They helped finance the T-group sessions which encompassed an 18-hour program that was completed in 6 weeks. 200 police were accommodated at each six-weeks session, 40 police each day, five days per week, each meeting scheduled for three hours. It started October 1967 and by 1969 they reached the roughly 1400 police of Houston.

Group leaders were highly trained psychologists and others experienced in group dynamics. Management development techniques, action therapy, role playing and other devices were employed by the group leaders. Each group of 40 policemen

was broken into three smaller groups of 13 or 14. They met with community participants and there was, wherever possible, racial representation among Negro, Mexican-American and Caucasian, as well as the different socio-economic levels or roles and diverse occupations. At the end a questionnaire was given to the group. It was rather general so as not to arouse any defensiveness in the expression of the feeling about the impact of the program. Apparently there was some improvement in the relations of police and community and a heightened degree of awareness of the other side's views as a result of this program.

The report itself revealed the antagonism of the police toward Negroes and toward academicians. It includes Police Chief Short's "snide remarks about 'slobbering sociologists.'" (p.105) It is important to remember that the police were each paid \$54 for attending the sessions.

The report states as a conclusion (p. 75): "Reduction of hostile attitudes among ghetto dwellers and police can be achieved through bringing the two together in small group sessions and using sensitivity training techniques to resolve differences."

At best this is only a hypothesis. And according to our consultants who visited Houston and interviewed police and community residents the group sessions were not effective;

the cynicism of the police officers was not reduced; if anything, it was increased.

There have been several instances of confrontation and shoot-outs between police and ghetto residents since these group sessions were instituted.

### Evaluation

Our consultants report that Houston is far from being a peaceful city with harmony between the police and the black or Mexican-American Community which numbers about 100,000 and has grievances of its own. Their feeling was that there was strong antagonism but that the apathy of the public would prevent a major riot.

This community relations program has not tapped the pulse or tension level of the community.

In support of their contention they refer to several confrontations, one of which was a shoot-out between the police and Peoples Party Number Two, commonly identified as a Black Panther group.

At the time of the project there were only 50 black police officers on a force of 1400 members, and there was not one black Superior Officer. This is a 3 1/2% proportion whereas the city itself has a black population of about 25% of the total. This in itself is enough to cause antagonism

between police and the black community. The police department has met a solid wall of resistance in its efforts to recruit black policemen.

There is an indication that the police administration was not thoroughly behind the project, but probably secretly shared the chief's negative view toward academic attempts to change the police. The program ended when all 1400 members had taken part in the group sessions. Since that time 600 new officers have been appointed, bringing the force up to a strength of 2,000. Yet there has been no move to extend the T-group program to the new men, although Dr. Cleveland recommended that such group confrontations be made part of the recruit training program.

The questionnaires and surveys have not reached enough of the community to make a real impact.

At the present time the program seems moribund. Apparently, short-range police-community relations projects are doomed to flare like a brief candle and peter out as the ripples die down. The police, with half-hearted cooperation to an innovative academic overture, "covered" itself by taking part for the time being. Now they have returned to the traditional approach of a police-community relations program with little real impact.

The survey phase of this project was a market research approach much like a Nielsen rating of TV shows. It would

be valuable for the administration and the police to know the temper and mood of the people. The question is whether or not a survey at regular intervals is the best method. Unless it is reduced to a small panel study, a community survey is slow, expensive, and has political implications that may defeat the purpose of the survey. Another method of gauging community sentiment is the urban task force idea that Mayor Lindsay of New York City has utilized successfully. This seems to be superior; it is quicker, less expensive and just as reliable.

The sensitivity training segment follows a very popular technique. But there are many possible obstacles to a favorable outcome. It will probably be an empty ritual if the police hierarchy is really against the whole operation and passes the word along surreptitiously. This seems to be what happened here. In the opinion of our consultants, the sensitivity training barely affected the average officer and by the time of our evaluation it had passed into oblivion.



Evaluation of Project # 91

Grantee: The Des Moines Police Department, Des Moines, Iowa

Amount: \$16,120

Dates: January 1967 to January 1968

Purpose: To develop and test a law enforcement course for vocational high school seniors and to provide police career orientation and understanding of law enforcement function.

Summary

The Des Moines Police Department was experiencing difficulty in recruitment, and one of its purposes was to attract lower class youth to the Des Moines Police Department. It was felt that the high schools were failing to make youngsters aware of the opportunities for employment in law enforcement. The department thought of producing a program or course in the high schools, technical high schools, and vocational high schools in order to remedy the situation. After taking the course and graduation from high school, the student would enter the cadet program given by the department and eventually become a policeman.

The original grant for this program stipulated that a minimum of 125 students would be involved. At the end of the

grant period, 185 students were enrolled. The course was given at the Des Moines Technical High School. The first teacher assigned to the program was a social studies teacher. However, there already was a former policeman teaching in the high school who had been a patrolman and detective in the Des Moines Department before he became a teacher, and he was assigned to teach the course. Apparently he had a good deal to do with its success.

As part of the program the students were excused to go on field trips to police stations, courts, and various bureaus of the police department. On Friday and Saturday nights, from 8:15 p.m. to 4:30 a.m., the students rode in a radio car with a patrolman. There were some exciting incidents in which the students were involved in police chases. Female students riding in the car would ride in pairs with a sergeant as chaperone. Later on they were allowed to ride with a patrolman who would take them home just prior to the end of the tour of duty.

The report stated that there was no doubt that the course objectives were accomplished, creating and promoting a better understanding of police problems and the police department. Interest was stimulated in the career of law enforcement. In one poll it was found that 85% of the students would

be interested in participating in a police cadet program. Several students indicated that they wanted to enroll in a college that offered a degree in law enforcement.

In turn, the program gave the individual police officer a better understanding of the teenager.

The evaluator, a professor from Grandview College, questioned whether or not a major police department would be willing to allow students to ride in the radio cars and expose them to the dangers attached to this practice. He concluded that there was a need for better counseling and guidance for the students.

#### Evaluation

This project is continuing and is being supported now by the municipal government. Des Moines has a police force of 277 with only 3 Negroes, all sergeants. So there is not one black policeman on regular patrol in the minority group neighborhoods. They are singularly unsuccessful in their efforts to recruit Negro policemen.

This program did not have a single black student. It seems that the black youth is intimidated by a militant group modeled after the Black Panthers. It is precisely the riding in radio cars which is so popular with the white students that generates the opposition of militant groups, although their reasons for opposing it are not very clear.

There is some danger that not enough guidance and counseling are given. Some students are apparently registering for the course because it is a "snap" course--one that requires little work and is easy to pass.

It is a successful program to the extent that students in the program like it, are enthusiastic about the teacher and the riding in radio cars. Undoubtedly they feel more friendly toward the police after the course than they did before.

However without an exciting teacher who had the experience of being a policeman, this course might not accomplish its purpose.

It has not reached the black students at all and is virtually unknown in the black community. It is, however, better than nothing at all.

Compared to Project #52, a generally similar program in Cincinnati, this project has several deficiencies. It attempts to reach high school seniors who may be too old to be changed, whereas the Cincinnati school program is beamed at junior high school youngsters. The curriculum at Des Moines seems to be put together with less attention than the Cincinnati curriculum which is a product of long seminars by an expert advisory committee. The Des Moines course (the only one) is

chosen by students, some of whom are seeking an easy course.

The Cincinnati course was given to almost all the pupils in the 7-8-9 grades in many schools.

Perhaps as an experiment it would be interesting to have a former policeman teach the Cincinnati law enforcement course.

Evaluation of Project # 104

Grantee: Boston, Massachusetts Police Department

Amount: \$15,000

Dates: October 1966 to September 1967

Purpose: To develop and expand police-community relations programs.

Summary

Boston already had a police-community relations program operating for several years. It was rather innovative in cooperating with the Boston University Law and Medicine Institute to establish a small T-group interaction program between police and community representatives. This was funded by the Office of Juvenile Delinquency. So it seemed that the Boston OLEA program would be worth reviewing.

However, the OLEA police-community relations program in Boston follows the very well known traditional lines. The police-community relations section had the general leadership of the program and was conducting a wide range of workshops on subjects that would be of interest to the community. It arranged tours of police facilities by youth groups.

Of some interest was the Spanish language program, in which 51 Boston police officers voluntarily registered in Spanish speaking classes held twice a week from 7:00 - 9:00

p.m. at Don Bosco Technical High School. They receive certificates of achievement when they complete the course.

The Boston Police Department sent its commanding officers to the New England Institute for a Dale Carnegie course which taught them how to speak and address large groups of people. The coordinator and assistant in the police-community relations section were able to attend workshops and conferences held by Michigan State University, the National Conference of Christians and Jews, and the New York City Human Rights National Conference. In addition there was a three-day police-community relations institute held from April 9-11, 1967 in Newton, Massachusetts, sponsored by the National Conference of Christians and Jews.

A community relations workshop manual was prepared on the basis of studies of other departments, and steering committees consisting of 12 cross sectional representatives were organized in each of the 13 police districts. Films were shown in all the districts. Steering committees were active in organizing classes, having youth groups visit police headquarters, scheduling membership meetings, and in coordinating discussions of police related matters.

There was a police recruitment night held in Roxbury, the area where minority groups were heavily represented. Sixty young men registered for classes that were offered by

the Boston Police Academy, which consisted of a 16-week course of instruction to prepare them to take the civil service examination. Thirty-six of them took the test; eighteen finally qualified and were awaiting appointment.

A city-wide conference on police-community relations was held: 400 citizens came to the event in February 19, 1967. Boston school departments cooperated with the police and conducted a school police seminar in which student panelists representing junior and senior high schools reversed the usual procedure and asked questions of 45 police officers. A pops concert was sponsored; there was a police week held in Boston; cadet legislation was passed; special programs were held in Roxbury and Belmont for the summer. Athletic programs were started and an ecumenical conference was held at the ecumenical center on human relations, on August 17, 1967, to see that the true principles of Christianity were practiced through the elimination of all forms of discrimination.

The Boston Police Academy instituted a 13-week recruit training course and an in-service training class; police-community relations was one of the subjects scheduled.

The Boston police recommended that the community-relations section become a permanent organization within the department. They proposed the appointment of a national police-community



relations coordinator to provide law enforcement and the public with accurate and current knowledge on police-community relations.

Further, they recommended the formation of a federal council on police-community relations composed of experts with authority to design a comprehensive plan.

### Evaluation

The population of Boston is about 600,000 and its black population is about 70,000. The Boston Police Department has 2,600 men of which 61 (2.4%) are black. This is one of the lowest proportions of black policemen in any large department in the country. There are only 3 black officers of supervisory rank. This low ratio in itself is enough to indicate that the Boston Police Department badly needs a powerful community relations program.

The Boston Police Department community relations effort is theoretically administered by the Bureau of Community Affairs. The actual implementation is the responsibility of sergeants or lieutenants who are assigned in charge of the community relations efforts in each of the 14 local precincts. They have had special training given to them at a local college.

The Boston program tries to do a little bit of everything in community relations, very much the same as most large police departments. However there is little that is truly

innovative. The Spanish language program has ended, the police cadet program did attract 60 police aspirants, but not one is black. The specially trained 14 community service superior officers are more involved with routine police matters than community relations, and very little money is allocated to this branch of the service.

In our estimation this program is too diffuse to accomplish its fundamental objectives.

Evaluation of Project #212

Grantee: Charlotte Police Department, Charlotte, North Carolina

Amount: \$14,219

Dates: July 1967 to June 1968

Purpose: To establish and train 15 community relations, problem-solving teams, each team including police and citizens.

Summary

Charlotte is a city of 258,000, 72% white and 28% Negro. It has a very high rate of per capita income for the south, and a very high rate of crime. The Charlotte police department established a community relations section in 1967 to acquaint the community and the police with each other's problems.

In this project they proposed to send into the community 15 action oriented teams composed of three members--one police officer and two citizens, one of whom would be an indigenous leader in one of Charlotte's high crime neighborhoods. These teams would be part of a Police Community Council.

A blue ribbon steering committee was composed of professors from Smith University, Queens College and the University of North Carolina. Other members were from the Charlotte Bureau of Employment, the Health Department, Friendship Baptist Church

and from the police department. They received application forms and made recommendations for membership in the teams of the Police Community Council. Then they conducted interviews with each participant; after a check by the police department for the records of crime a final selection was made.

All the teams attended the University of North Carolina and received training in politics, speech, the origin and purpose of police, the nature of crime, criminal law and courts, theories of crime, organization of the Charlotte Police Department, juvenile problems and the juvenile court, model city plans, the Charlotte Police Department, civil disturbance, survey of the community, and sociology and social behavior of man. The same lectures were given not only to the three-man teams, but also the police command and supervisory personnel.

The classes were conducted by a series of instructors who were experts in the various aspects of police community life. The training program was designed to give the team members an understanding of their own community, the nature and problems of authority, the theory and practice of crime prevention, criminal justice and current methods of correction, minority groups and their interaction, and methods and

techniques of police-community relations. The police department and the steering committee evaluated and refined the curriculum during its existence.

Then finally the teams went out into the field and their assignment was to become known within the area so that people would come to them with their problems. They arranged speaking engagements, community visits and so on. A newspaper, Link, was set up to describe the experiences of the groups and it was sent to members of the police department so that they they could see what was happening and evaluate the program properly.

After the assassination of Martin Luther King, Charlotte experienced some minor civil disturbances. The Charlotte Police Community Council, meeting the three-man teams, tried to analyze the factors contributing to the unrest and an attempt was made to interview 192 persons arrested. And then a control group was chosen, matched according to sex, living in the same neighborhood, etc., to see what the differences were. A professor of sociology, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill is preparing that study.

In its own evaluation the report states that the objectives of the Police Community Council have been met favorably. As evidence it describes the questionnaire given to the people

who attended neighborhood seminars. However, there were only 22 respondents contacted from whom they received 17 responses. This number is hardly enough to be a valid cross section of community opinion.

#### Evaluation

Our consultant was impressed with the knowledge and sense of purpose revealed by the Charlotte police officers he interviewed. The program was innovative, and for a while it worked.

However, the program is all but dead as of this time. The reason seems to be a change in the top command of the department. The new Chief of Police was not interested in "pushing" this community relations effort and it was allowed to become dormant. The Police Community Council held infrequent meetings, and those during the day hours when community members were at work and could not attend. The meetings were dominated by members who did not represent the heart of the black community.

The epitaph for this project should read, "It might have been a good one." The idea of community relations action teams seems a sensible method of getting into the life of the community and learning what needs to, and can be done to improve relations.

## VI

State Law Enforcement Standards and Training  
Commissions

Summary Findings

1. State Law Enforcement Standards and Training Commissions never fulfilled their potential as accrediting boards that would raise the level of law enforcement.
2. They tended to follow and reinforce traditional standards of recruitment, selection, and training. They were not imaginative nor zealous in seeking change.
3. The training standards were too low, and too narrow in range. There was generally an omission of courses that would broaden the perspective of the police officer, or teach him anything about the society in which he operated.

4. Some impact is possible where the state passed legislation making the Commission's standards mandatory. Where compliance with the Commission's standards was merely voluntary, the Commission could not be very effective.



Evaluation of the OLEA programState Law Enforcement Standards and Training Commissions

OLEA stimulated the formation of six new State Law Enforcement Standards and Training Commissions and funded grants for increased activity on the part of 15 other already existing commissions. All together OLEA gave 25 grants totaling \$570,282 to 21 state commissions for planning and development.

The first such training councils were established in California and New York in 1959. By 1968, 31 states had enacted law enforcement standards legislation, 17 mandatory and 14 voluntary.\*

Typically the selection standards were fairly uniform, requiring an applicant for a police position to be at least 21 years old, of good health, a high school graduate or its equivalent, and of good moral character.

The standards for the basic recruit training course were set low at 140-200 hours. The curriculums stressed vocational and practical police subjects with little or not attention given to courses that might be classified as social or behavioral science. The number of hours required was less

\* Charles B. Saunders, Jr., Upgrading the American Police (Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institute, 1970), p. 147.

than one-half the 400 hours recommended as an absolute minimum by the President's Crime Commission Task Force on the Police.

Perhaps we should be thankful, not critical - any standards are better than none. It was only 25 years ago that Gunnar Myrdal reported that in the South, "almost anyone on the outside of the penitentiary who weighs enough and is not blind or crippled can be considered as a police candidate." \*

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\* Gunnar Myrdal, An American Dilemma (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944), pp. 538-539.

Analysis of Questionnaire DataState Law Enforcement Standards and Training Commissions

In this category we received 14 completed questionnaires out of the total of 21. The Commission reported that as a result of their efforts, standards were established for training (9), recruitment (8), appointment (7), and promotion (4). In six states the standards were made mandatory by law, in eight the legislature failed to pass the mandatory standards law.

Recruitment

There is no shortage of candidates for law enforcement. Police administrators find it convenient at budget time to wail that they cannot attract sufficient numbers of applicants. This should be translated as a ploy to get higher salaries and better conditions from the Mayor of the city. The shortage is a myth.

There are on the other hand some real problems of recruitment that have not been solved. One is to raise the number of candidates with college education, the other is to attract members of minority groups to the police career.

The criminal justice system in a democratic society needs the best people it can get. At the same time it should be representative of the community it serves, both as an ideal principle and on the practical level as well, to avoid the imputation of class, religious, or racial prejudice.

When law enforcement leaders used the term best people, they really meant college graduates. By itself, a policy of recruitment focused upon college graduates would, if successful, lead to a lily-white elitist police system. Perhaps fortunately for the police such recruitment programs have until recently been unsuccessful. However, there is

more reason to support such a policy now because more than 50% of the high school graduates in the country are entering college. The police, to reflect this change, should increase their percentage of college graduates beyond the 5 to 10% level that exists at present.

Only during the depression in the 1930's and early 40's were college men in large numbers attracted to law enforcement. Since then college campuses have remained largely indifferent to or hostile to the police.

The same response of indifference or hostility was all but universal in minority groups, especially the black, the Mexican-American, and the Puerto Rican communities. For decades they have criticized the police as racist organizations because there were so few policemen who came from their groups. With the growing political strength of these minorities, the pressure has finally forced the police to make strenuous efforts to recruit minority group members. So far this attempt has failed as well.

Fewer than 10 OLEA grants were remotely concerned with recruitment (#18, 67, 109, 115, 169, 187, 232, 277, and 66-5). Some were studies, some were small pieces of larger police-community relations programs, and only a few were actual demonstration projects. Most were abject failures.

The 21 State Law Enforcement Standards and Training Commissions funded by OLEA worked out their qualifications for recruits within the traditional format of law enforcement. One after the other they set standards of high school education, good health, passing grade on a written examination, good moral character, and minimum heights and weights. For decades, standards very much like these have been used to exclude minority groups. It is apparent that a different combination of requirements must be established to permit the entry of minority group members.

As with so many of the other issues raised by OLEA projects, police recruitment policies depend on the more fundamental issue which was not addressed by the projects, namely, what will be the principal roles of the policeman? Then only can we decide intelligently the qualifications of the specific kinds of candidates law enforcement needs.

Dr. William McDonald of the Georgetown University Institute of Criminal Law and Procedure acted as our consultant for Project #232 which was basically a recruitment project, although the grantee was the California State Standards and Training Commission. This project exemplified many of the flaws characteristic of the other recruitment efforts funded by OLEA. However, it did undertake a

644.

demonstration program of recruitment in addition to the more general purpose of improving standards. For this reason we chose it for more intensive review.

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Evaluation of Project #232

Grantee: California Commission on Peace Officer  
Standards and Training.

Amount: \$34,286

Dates: September 1967 to August 1968

Purpose: New program development. Existing commission  
will develop a comprehensive state-wide law  
enforcement recruitment program.

Summary

The California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST) proposed to "coordinate the actions of local and state agencies, and private enterprise into a unified recruitment effort that would have a state-wide impact. The main thrust was to be directed toward college graduates and young minority members in ghettos or core city areas."\*

This project failed by far to achieve its purpose.

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\* Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, California Law Enforcement Recruitment Program (Sacramento, California, 1968), p. 2.



It could not enlist any significant aid from the State Department of Employment which saw the project as an unwanted additional burden. It could not get the local police departments to field teams of police officers to speak at various public events on behalf of police recruitment needs. It was unable to get \$27,000 of grant support from LEAA or anyone else to pay out-of-pocket expenses of advertising agencies who might have contributed about \$250,000 worth of recruitment advertising on a state-wide basis. Consequently, this campaign was abandoned. The only constructive thing to come out of the project is a compilation of the employment qualifications required by 89% (187) of the California law enforcement agencies. This was published in 1968 under the title "A Career in Law Enforcement: There is No Greater Challenge." It is a bound publication which means that it cannot be updated as requirements change. However, its authors say it was of value to some cities and students and police officers. One wonders whether it was \$34,000 plus of value.

The project apparently failed to give any attention to two of the key issues which it was supposedly going to address: hiring college graduates and hiring minority members. Nowhere in its final report does it even discuss the problems involved in these issues -- although it spends considerable time discussing whether the standard for visual

acuity should be 20/20 or less.

### Evaluation

Commissions on police standards and training are among the several measures -- including judicial review; civilian review boards; ombudsmen; policy setting and reviewing units within the police departments -- regarded as ways of controlling police behavior. Michael Banton (The Policeman in the Community, New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1964) felt such commissions would have a beneficial impact on the police. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice also discussed the potential value of these commissions (see Ch. 8 Task Force Report: The Police); but, the very cautious nature of the discussion betrays an underlying pessimism about the real value of these bodies as controlling agents. For example, about the strongest statement in support of these commissions is the following: "If properly constituted and empowered, however, State Commissions on Police Standards could play a significant role in the process of upgrading police effectiveness," (p. 216 of final report, not underlined in original).

One of the reasons for its guarded endorsement was the President's Commission's awareness of the fact that these state standards commissions pose threats to local control of the police and for this reason are unlikely to be given the kind of authority needed to achieve their potential. For this reason apparently only 17 of 31 states with such standards commissions have passed laws making mandatory the standards and certifications established by the commissions. Without such laws, the commissions are only window dressing.

State Standards Commissions have their role in the process of upgrading the police but that role can never be very forceful or controversial. Even when they are given authority as in New York, they will have to exercise it carefully and minimally. As long as local control is cherished, these state bodies will have to rely on the good-will and essentially voluntary cooperation of the police departments they deal with. As branches of their respective state departments of justice, it is unlikely that they would be anything but cooperative and amicable with the municipal police departments.

Their limitations are starkly revealed to the reader of the California POST report, especially the section on height and visual acuity standards. When what police

departments need most are more minority group recruits and more college level recruits, POST throws its weight in favor of less rigid visual acuity and height standards. No doubt these standards need to be changed and somebody has to say so. But, if that's the most significant change these commissions are able to create then they should not be regarded as instruments of major change in the police and they should not receive LEAA monies.

The most significant finding of the POST project was that there was really no pressing need for the project in California. In a survey conducted by POST it was found that the vacancy problem on the California police forces was not as great as everyone seemed to think. For one thing, 255 out of the 398 responding police departments had no vacancies. For another, the vacancy rates were never greater than 3% (with one special exception). With all the talk about the difficulty in getting recruits a false impression was created that the police were suffering from the same rate of decline in new "vocations" as the religious orders are. The big vacancy problems (like the California Highway Patrol (CHP) problem of 13.4% rate of vacancy) are usually created by a legislative (or executive) authorization to greatly increase the size of the force. This is what happened with CHP. When it occurred,

it increased the vacancy rates of many of the other police departments in the state as well because CHP siphoned off many personnel from these departments. This, of course, results in a false picture of the vacancy problem at that time. There are other reasons why the vacancy rates can not be taken at face value. The CHP incident is just one example of the interdepartmental rivalry for recruits that goes on among the police. Some of this has created strained relations between the departments. The typical complaint is that a department invests time, energy, and money in the training of a recruit only to lose him to another department. This would not be so bad if in the end it all equalled out, if the department that lost recruits it had trained also picked up an equal number of seasoned men. But, because of the differences in the training programs that exist -- some departments have virtually none at all -- this reciprocity does not work. A few departments have good programs and other departments tell potential recruits to get their training in these good programs and then come back. (CHP was notorious for this and created some bad blood because of it.)

The amazing thing is how men will jump from one force to another for negligible differences in salaries or benefits. At Tarrant County, Texas (Grant #121-297), they reported that

that the college Police Science Program contributed to the department-hopping in the area. Policemen from different departments attending the classes would learn that in such-and-such a department a person of his rank got \$10 a month more. So he would switch.

This desire to be free to switch was behind one of the policemen's complaints about LEAA's program for supporting policemen in college. That program requires the beneficiary to continue his employment in his department for a year (maybe longer) after he completed the college program. You might think a year isn't long to wait but it was a sore spot with the policemen. Of course, their administrators back at their respective departments favored this restriction.

In any event, department-hopping is another reason why vacancy rates at any one moment in time may be misleading. It also leads one to the other side of the recruitment coin, namely, retention after recruitment. Getting the bucket full requires plugging the holes as well as pouring in from the top. If high attrition rates account for continuing high vacancy rates, then the problem is not one of getting recruits but of keeping members on the force once hired. This was another aspect of the recruit problem not addressed by California POST's project.

## VII. Police Planning and Research Units

Planning and Research Units, like most other special offices in police departments, tend to be staffed by favorite sons rather than by efficient researchers. In general such units are used to develop charts and statistics for the chief when he wants to impress the newspapers, the community, or the mayor. They usually can be depended on not to rock the boat.

Here is one niche in the average police department that ought to be staffed by civilians -- non-policemen -- who are acquainted with the intricacies of research.

In the third year of its existence OLEA began to fund grants of this type for the study of needs priorities, and procedures, and of the recommendations of the National Crime Commission. OLEA restricted the grants to medium-sized police departments to the exclusion of the larger police forces. Michigan State University held conferences and provided material and consultants to help the new planning and research units over the inevitable difficulties encountered in any new program.

Analysis of Questionnaire Data -- Police Planning and Research Units

All 11 of the police planning and research units returned their questionnaires. They were asked to list the three most important projects they worked on during 1970. It can be seen from the answers below that although they were principally concerned with departmental procedures, there was not a great deal of overlapping.

The Work of the Police Planning and Research Units:

- Precinct consolidations & attendant problems;
- Development of caseload standard for investigation;
- Program to develop integrated planning, programming, budgeting system;
- Training curriculum;
- Manual of procedure;
- Establishment of Research & Development unit;
- System for compensating officers for off-duty court appearance;
- Surveyed personnel attitudes on uniform shirt, adopted new summer shirt;
- Evaluated police escort activities, resulting in change of procedure;
- Continuation of EDP Program;
- Revising Operating procedures;
- Evaluation of Investigative Director;
- Reapplication for pedestrian safety project grant;
- Rewriting of departmental General Order;
- Position Reclassification study;



Helicopter feasibility study;  
Revision to duty manual;  
Implementation of community service officer grant;  
Revision of misdemeanor releases on own recognizance;  
Educational Pay Incentive Program;  
Police Communication;  
Burglary Prevention;  
Study of space needs for P.D.  
Manpower needs;  
Legislation research;

In five departments the work of the planning and research units was assigned by the top administration, but in five others the units developed projects on their own initiative.

Manpower requirements for these research and planning units were very low. In 7 units there were only 1 to 3 men assigned. However, 4 of 10 used non-police personnel such as stenographers, police interns, accountants, and management analysts. Generally personnel assigned to the planning and research unit had no special qualifications, other than innate talents such as ability, insight, judgment.

Interesting variations appeared in the answers to the question asking what the planning and research unit should concentrate on in their work. Long range problems were the choice of 9, but 8 selected immediate problems. Most (8) were of the opinion that the unit should work on broad problems that might involve the whole community. By comparison only

two advocated concentration upon problems affecting only the police. Finally, six thought that the unit should devote itself to theoretical research.

Our consultant, Dr. William McDonald, visited the Richmond, California Police Department to observe the OLEA funded Planning and Research Unit (#296) in action. His evaluation reveals many of the difficulties that are inherent in such units.

This unit was chosen for special attention because it was unusual for the presence of a civilian rather than police director and in contrast to the others this unit actually was addressing itself to important issues.

Evaluation of Project #296

Grantee: Richmond, California Police Department

Amount: \$15,000

Dates: January 1968 to December 1968

Purpose: Establishment of a planning and research unit, to study the department's police-community relations program, training, recommendations of the National Crime Commission.

Summary

The purpose of this project was to establish "a strong planning and research unit: one that [would] provide a unity and organization to Richmond Police Department's (RPD) planning efforts. The office [would] serve as a central focus for ideas and information about policing, the department and the community, and [would] provide a stimulus for innovation and experimentation." It would also study the recommendations of the National Crime Commission.

A Planning and Research Unit (PRU) was established and has been continued as part of the RPD administration. The project was a qualified success in some ways.

Whether the RPD's PRU project is considered a success or a failure depends upon one's conception of what a PRU should do. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice described two types of PRU's, those that focus almost exclusively upon the analysis and improvement of internal operating and managerial procedures, such as the deployment of manpower, the evaluation of equipment, and the streamlining of clerical procedures; and those units which would do these sorts of

things but in addition would also formulate policies relating to crime control and crime prevention functions of the police and continually review and revise their law enforcement

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practices.

RPD's original project was an attempt to establish an expanded PRU. The individual in charge of the unit seemed to have the necessary broad perspective on police work, education, and familiarity with current police-related issues to deal with the problems of setting police policies. Judging from his activities reports to OLEA at the beginning of the project's one year operation, he seemed to be heading toward developing the expanded version of the PRU as envisioned by the President's Commission. For instance, he reported that he had been analyzing the recommendations relevant to the police of the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence; and he actually submitted to OLEA a copy of his resume on this subject. This appeared to be a working paper to help establish policies for RPD's handling of civil disturbances. His interest in improving police handling of such disturbances is also demonstrated by a second internal working paper he produced in which he describes his observations of RPD's handling of a memorial march for Martin Luther King, Jr. a few days after his assassination. He also engaged in many other activities which fall under the scope of what a basic RPU should do.

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\* President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: The Police (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967) p. 27. Hereinafter cited as "Task Force on Police."

For convenience refer to the first type of PRU as "basic" and the secondary as "expanded."

One of the main obstacles that prevented him from attaining the goal of an expanded PRU was his relations with the new police chief who took command of RPD at approximately half way through the life of the project. The original chief (who retired) had endorsed the expanded version of the PRU. The new chief did not. Exactly what accounted for the new chief's objection to the expanded role of the unit is unclear. It may have been a matter of personality clashes or of principle or of misunderstanding. From what we can gather it probably was a product of a combination of misunderstanding and lack of diplomacy. But it is important to see that, personalities aside, this misunderstanding of and aversion to an expanded PRU is almost guaranteed to occur with any attempt to establish such a unit in any organization, especially the police. The RPD's experience is instructive in this regard. Although personality clashes were very much in evidence on this project, it would be a great mistake to attribute this project's difficulties entirely to the unique situation in which two individuals simply could not work together. The expanded version of a Planning and Research Unit's role. i.e., helping to set and review departmental policy, has a natural conflict-generating potential between such units and their parent organization. This potential should not be overlooked or understated.

Installing an expanded PRU is, in effect, attempting to build into an organization a feedback mechanism that will continually reorient the system. In short, these units are instruments of perpetual organizational change. Their special characteristic is that they initiate change from within the organization.

Immediately the difficulties in establishing a modus vivendi between such an instrument and the organization it "serves" should be apparent. A look at the President's Commission's flow-chart illustrating how such a unit should work should help clarify the question of what some of the difficulties would be (see below).

Unfortunately, the Commission's caveat accompanying this chart grossly understates the problems involved. It reads:

"Essential [to the successful operation of an expanded PRU] is a strong commitment on the part of the police administrator to the importance of research. He must give meaning to this commitment through the devotion of a substantial proportion of his own time, by providing for adequate staffing, and by closely relating the function of the research unit to other aspects of departmental operations." \*

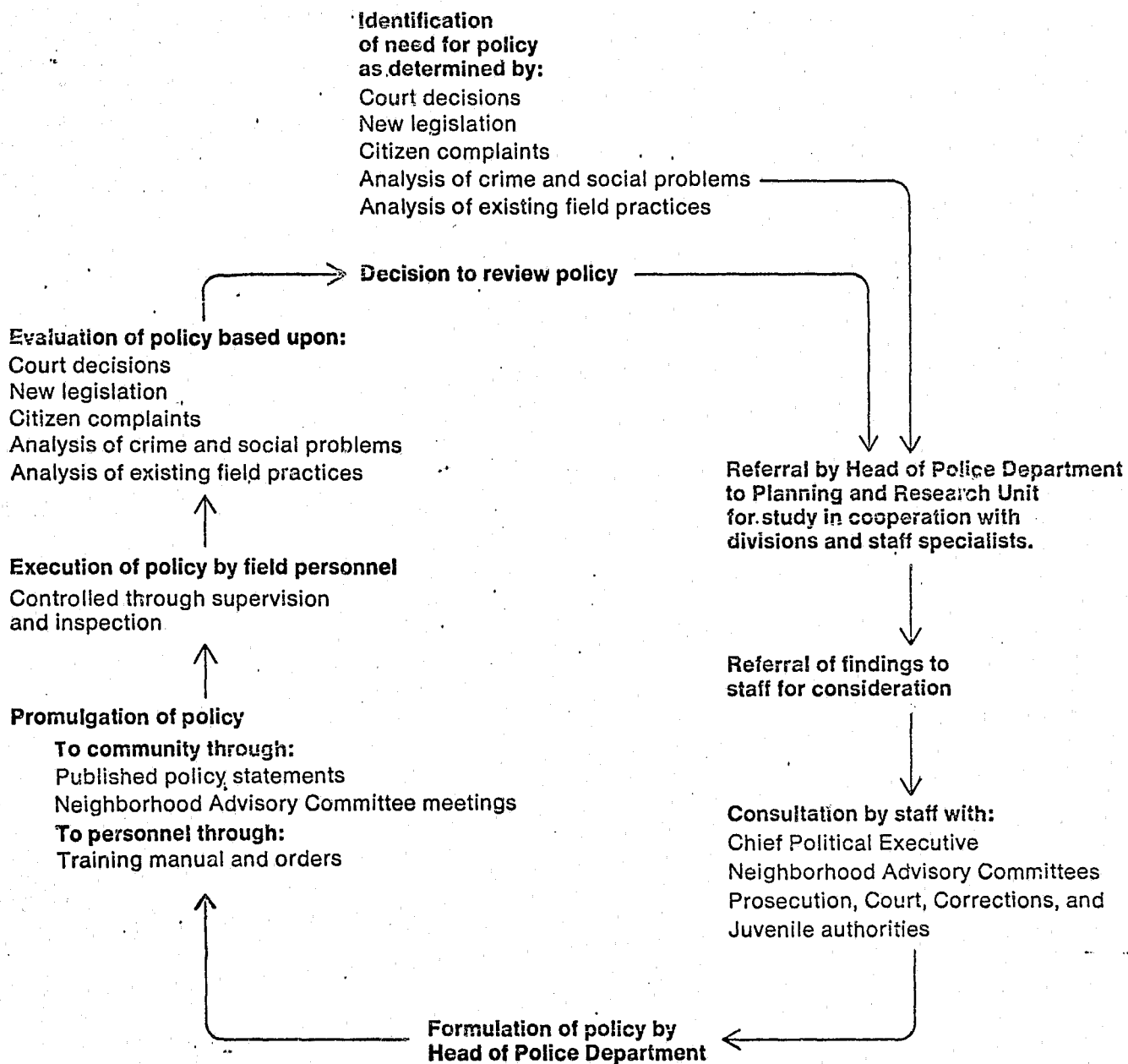
Easier said than done!

As with any organization this formal chart does not reflect the informal organization by which the system operates. This chart is essentially describing a revolutionary type of police administration -- from the traditional one-man, chain-of-command, authoritarian, paramilitary type of control to quasi-democratic type of control. The Head of the Department may have final say on policy but he must listen to the advice of a special unit of policy formulators, his staff, outside experts and community interest groups. (see steps 2,3 and 4: Chart 1)

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\* President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice: Task Force Report: The Police, p. 27.

## Formulation and Execution of Police Policy



When one fully grasps the leadership role that this unit is supposed to exercise, it is not surprising to hear that RPD's new chief and several of his staff had felt that the PRU's director was trying to be chief. This misunderstanding is a danger inherent in the nature of the expanded PRU's function. If it is to be a success, the PRU must lead. But as the RPD final report so clearly shows, exerting leadership alone without the acceptance of and cooperation of both the management and the rank and file will not achieve success either.

Every organization develops resistance to change. Attempts to change from within or without are characteristically met by strong opposition. This would be particularly true of organizations with strong traditions of secrecy, distrust of reason (anti-intellectualism), and conservatism, such as the police. Also, if change is not prevented by the sheer strength of the resistance, it may be thwarted by a conversion of the agents of change. Efforts of change from within the system are especially susceptible to this type of fatality. RPD's PRU director essentially resigned (at the end of the project) in frustration. On the other hand, some of the lawyers who have been acting in a PRU capacity in advising police departments regarding standards and policies have been known to forget their role as formulator and reviewer of policies controlling the police and have become more "police" than the police.



There is no question that the President's Commission's expanded version of the PRU is a needed adjunct to police administrations today. The police task is not solely ministerial. They exercise an enormous amount of discretion most of which can never be eliminated; but, police discretion can at least be confined and minimally controlled through the promulgation and enforcement of standards and regulations based on sound policies.\*

In the recent past the police have been taken to account by forces outside their departments. The Warren Court was their most visible accountant. The civilian review boards are another method of controlling the police. But, these are outside controls. The expanded PRU would hopefully be a control from within and a control through prevention rather than by ex post facto recriminations. Aside from the advantages already mentioned, interval control would reduce some of the friction between police and the courts and between police and special groups. It would be a definite step toward an improved system of criminal justice.

For these reasons it is incumbent upon LEAA to take the President's Commission's work one step further. Going beyond advocacy and abstract charting of expanded PRU's, LEAA should initiate research on the question of how one establishes an expanded PRU and sails a steady course between the twin hazards of

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\* This is precisely the rationale behind the President's Commission's advocacy of the expanded PRU. See Page 18, Task Force on Police. The authors of that section of the Task Force Report, Frank Remington and Herman Goldstein, are Chairman and Reporter, respectively, of the American Bar Association's Committee on Standards for the Police. For more references defending police discretion and advocating that the police develop policy guidelines, see James Q. Wilson, Varieties of Police Behavior (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1968), p. 293.

total frustration and "copping out". This research should question whether only policemen can staff this unit or whether laymen can, without losing effectiveness. (One problem in RPD was that the PRU director was a civilian and for this reason alone was distrusted by some of the officers.) What should be the professional composition of the PRU? Should there be lawyers, experienced policemen, behavioral scientists and criminologists as suggested in the Task Force Report (p.27)? Is cooptation a function of the size of the unit; its physical location; its professional composition; the size of the police department; social forces within the organization? What gains in integrity but losses in effectiveness, if any--and other costs--would be achieved if these units were independent agencies established on a regional or state basis?

These are a few of the questions that could help provide the type of information needed to establish effective PRU's in police departments.

It is not necessary to try to describe the ill-will that developed between RPD's PRU director and the new chief, and the isolation of the PRU from the rest of the department. The director makes that clear in his final report. But, there also is an

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\* A study of all existing PRU's might capitalize on the data collected by RPD's PRU's original director in his survey of existing PRU's. The responses to his survey sit in a bundle in a file drawer in RPD's PRU.

OLEA memo on the Richmond Police Department PRU project which says that a similar thing happened elsewhere.

After the termination of the OLEA grant in December 1968, the PRU continued under the short directorships of a series of three different policemen, all sergeants. They were appointed by the new chief. They performed the type of planning services for the department which come under the President's Commission's conception of a basic PRU.

A glance at the weekly reports of these sergeants shows that the type of planning they were involved in (see Appendix E) was largely of police-operations-improvement sort, e.g., attended helicopter training seminar; new method for licensing sentry dogs; new rain gear demonstrated; study of name badges; new process to register ambulances.

The officers in charge of this unit did not have the same qualifications as the original director by any means. They were career policemen who saw an assignment to the unit as just another step up the career ladder. The one director who was interviewed prided himself on knowing and doing exactly what his chief would want done -- an attribute which should automatically exclude him from directing an expanded PRU. There is one project begun either during or before the original PRU project which has been continued since the original director left office. It was billed as a "police-community relations" project but appears more like a recruit training program.

## VIII

OLEA's Program of Evaluation: Summary Findings

OLEA evaluated the projects it funded, at least to some degree, at three different stages of the grant period: before, during, and after.

Before the Grant

Incoming applications for grants were classified into appropriate categories and screened by program managers. Many proposals were so weak that they never passed beyond this point of first evaluation. Summaries of projects were attached to the proposals and they were then considered by the top echelons. Some projects were rejected here. The remaining applications were sent to selected members of the various advisory committees of OLEA and their recommendations were reviewed and usually followed.

An intra-office OLEA study of a 10% sample of the rejected proposals revealed the following reasons for rejection:

1. Pure research--too general,
2. Private protection of private property,
3. Too broad--no specific objections,
4. Nothing innovative,
5. Applicant an individual--not qualified,
6. Seminar that was too limited,

7. Training for a single small department,
8. Grant would constitute a subsidy,
9. Primarily research--nothing innovative.

OLEA has been deservedly criticized for its almost complete failure to fund projects that might be considered pure research. The document cited above shows that this was the considered policy of OLEA. Its policy makers wanted action, not research.

So few of the projects funded by OLEA were innovative that it would be interesting to compare the funded projects to the proposals rejected for absence of innovation.

It was at this preliminary stage that OLEA could have strengthened its evaluation scheme. Proposals for costly projects, especially technical ones such as computer applications, should have been collected together and sent for review to consultants who were experts in the field. The advisory committees established by OLEA did not ordinarily possess this specialized knowledge. Because computer projects were very expensive, the proposals sometimes were passed from hand to hand because no one wanted to award such large sums when the evaluation and prognosis were so sketchy. At least on one occasion a directive filtered down to speed the approval of some or all of three computer project proposals

(Cincinnati, Los Angeles and Boston) so that the OLEA report for that fiscal year could show greater activity in the computer field.

In the absence of special circumstances OLEA had definite formal criteria for evaluation which were listed in its Grant Guide. They were:\*

1. New techniques or approaches,
2. Stimulation of change,
3. Broad significance,
4. Relatively short duration (1 or 2 years),
5. Modest size (\$15,000-150,000),
6. Contribution by grantee,
7. Responsible evaluation,
8. OLEA program balance,
9. Intention to continue after grant period ends,
10. Sponsorship by all agencies to be affected,
11. Not for construction or purchase of facilities or equipment,
12. Financial necessity and need for problem to be solved.

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\* Office of Law Enforcement Assistance LEAA Grant Guide, April 1967, pp. 11-13.

Not many proposals could qualify under a strict interpretation of grant criteria 1, 2, and 3. Most OLEA projects were neither new techniques, nor were they of broad significance. The amount of change stimulated by the projects was generally very small. In a sense OLEA guaranteed this by accepting the legitimacy of the law enforcement and criminal justice assumptions. Apparently, despite the clarity of the grant criteria there were subjective and informal interpretations based on personal, financial, political, and bureaucratic factors.

OLEA's evaluation of proposals prior to the award was probably the standard operating procedure that would develop in any large bureaucracy. They had a list of formal criteria, they had a theoretically objective and expert advisory committee to review their own decisions. On the surface this seems as good a system as any. We have already suggested that for large grants they should have asked expert outside consultants to evaluate the proposal and its potential before awarding the contract.

Since so many of the projects are not at all up to the standard of the criteria, the criteria obviously were not followed consistently. This could arise from many causes: a) lack of capacity to judge the quality of proposals; b) lack of proposals that could measure up to the criteria; and c) submission to bureaucratic and political pressures.

Because of the expertise of OLEA staff, it is highly unlikely that it could have been lack of capacity. We are left with b and c in combination as the best explanation.

Evaluation During the Life of the Grant

OLEA properly required some form of evaluation. As little as it may amount to, evaluation becomes a type of quality control that makes project staff a little more careful in fulfilling their responsibilities. For most of the smaller projects it was not improper to accept a low level evaluation. Evaluations cost money, and if evaluation becomes the principal part of the project, project personnel are likely to respond negatively.

At this stage there often was a double evaluation -- one by OLEA and the other which was part of the project design. According to the results of our questionnaire this latter evaluation was performed by a member of the project staff in 50% of the projects. University faculty were called on for the evaluation in 23% of the cases.

The usual evaluation at the project level consisted of an opinion questionnaire asking variants of two questions, "Did you like the project?" and "Did you gain anything from the project?" What was gained or learned hardly ever was measured. We have already mentioned some exceptions where the evaluation was superior. These were grants #52 to the University of Cincinnati for the Police-Juvenile Attitude Project and #257 to the Pennsylvania Board of Parole for Resocialization of Offenders.



OLEA used several types of evaluation. Project managers evaluated the projects under their administration from time to time and visited them for personal observation. OLEA sponsored conferences on programs in police-community relations, police science degree, state planning committees in criminal administration, and police management training. These were of some help in evaluating and strengthening on-going projects.

OLEA also awarded grants for evaluation, for example, Grant #67-27 to W.H.T. Smith and F. Cizon (consultants) to evaluate OLEA funded police-community relations programs in New Orleans, Newark, and Washington, D.C., and Grant #306 to the American Correctional Association to demonstrate and test a self-evaluation inventory for state correctional agencies. Some of these correctional agencies had OLEA grants that would indirectly be evaluated as part of the self-evaluation.

Project managers in OLEA were so bogged down in administrative detail that they were not able to, if indeed they desired to, observe carefully and assess the operation of projects.

OLEA should have earmarked a sum for evaluation equal to the dissemination effort. This would be about 3% of the budget. For this sum they could have hired expert teams of consultants to evaluate a package of projects just as they did in Project #67-27 mentioned above, one of the very few evaluation projects.

With a realistic picture of their total program derived from these evaluation reports many advantages would have accrued, such as:

1. Objective information,
2. Better control of projects,
3. Guidelines for future projects,
4. Directions for new programs,
5. Ability to answer embarrassing questions of Congressional appropriations committees with real data instead of pious generalities,
6. Dissemination of these reports to help other grantees in the field of criminal justice,
7. Recommendations for improving the projects, and the evaluator.

#### Evaluation after the termination of the Grant

Each grantee was required to submit 25 copies of a final report containing if possible between 50 and 200 double-spaced typed pages. These were in effect an evaluation of the project by the project staff itself. OLEA staff then reviewed these reports and selected the most important ones for dissemination to other agencies. Our chapter on Dissemination above reveals how poor the dissemination effort was. Most of the project reports lie unread on book shelves or in cartons in inaccessible rooms in various Department of Justice offices. OLEA did not pay enough attention to these reports. Many of them were important, not so much for the substance, but for the insight they gave to the inter-agency, inter-group, and inter-personal relations that often determine the success or failure of a project.

The whole OLEA program had to be reviewed and evaluated by LEAA according to the mandate of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968. The Georgetown University Institute of Criminal Law and Procedure was awarded the contract for this evaluation. That grant NI-039 was scheduled for one year duration. This was too short a time. Two years would have been more realistic. If LEAA wanted that report in one year's time, they should have split the OLEA program into segments and awarded several contracts to evaluate the parts. But then the various reports might not have meshed together to give an integrated picture of OLEA and its program. Therefore, we consider the award to a single grantee capable of producing an integrated frame of reference to be the superior method. Given the extra time we would have liked to call together a conference of experts in criminal justice and possibly from several other disciplines to evaluate our findings and recommendations so that we could feed in to the final product the best thinking available.

OLEA's program of evaluation was not impressive. The criteria for evaluation of the proposal at the preliminary stage were not followed in most cases. The self-evaluations demanded of the projects during their life were usually insignificant. Other efforts at evaluation by OLEA were spasmodic rather than systematic. It was almost as if OLEA was a little afraid to face the repercussions that might emerge from a strong evaluation program.

Problems of Funding and Evaluation in theOLEA Program

The field of "criminal justice" studies is comparatively young. There is only a limited number of people who know the field and who have the skill to do competent research within it. There are less than a dozen institutes whose work is devoted entirely to researching the issues in the field and providing apprenticeship opportunities for future researchers in the field. These institutes themselves are all less than a half-dozen years old. Because of the insecure nature of the funding for these institutions, it has been difficult for them to retain staff for long periods of time. Generally, the field of criminal justice has been a sellers' market for anyone with any competence in the subject. With many new criminal justice programs opening up and so few people to staff them, salaries have been driven up and staff turnover has resulted. These conditions have perpetuated a general insecurity in the field and has encouraged researchers to select small and often terminal research questions. The

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political nature of crime control is an additional source of instability in the field which is without analogue in the physical sciences. Researchers have to face the threat of loss of funds not only because of government economies but also due to changes in political favor.

The fact that OLEA gave money to 350+ different research staffs did not improve this situation. If anything, it aggravated it, as did the knowledge that funding would be determined to some extent on political as well as research merits. Under these conditions it is not surprising to find that the majority of the studies were of limited scope. It was inevitable that a handful of people would be consultants to dozens of projects. The fragmentation of the criminal justice field by unplanned funding was another unavoidable result of OLEA's policies. This was one consistent drawback that never was corrected.

In looking through the various projects funded by OLEA, it is difficult to see any connective elements. As one means of correcting this deficiency, OLEA might have asked the applicants to spell out the link between the proposed project and the criminal justice system.

Perhaps it is not reasonable to expect applicants to be concerned with the general picture of the criminal justice system

**CONTINUED**

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and how their particular projects might, or might not, fit into the total scheme of things. It may, of course, be quite incorrect to see the criminal justice system as any sort of system, but its various parts are connected together and interact, often it seems, in a conflict role rather than working together toward some single or consistent set of objectives. The offender, however, passes through the various elements, and even if it is only he who provides the connecting link, this fact justifies some consideration of the total pattern.

It is recommended that the application forms should be redesigned and ask specific questions to stimulate applicants to think about, and put on record, some statements which indicate how the investigation they propose inter-faces with other elements of the criminal justice system or sub-systems. The validity of the claims regarding the relationship of the proposed project to its interfaces with the existing structure could be assessed by the review panels, and such assessments would give some indication of the size of any probable payoff.

For example, many of the OLEA projects which relate to police operations, depend upon the availability of a suspect. In what proportion of cases are suspects available? If the proportion is small it may be that more attention might be

given to those kinds of research which either do not rely upon the availability (a priori) of a suspect, or which might increase the precision of identification of the suspect, or of the suspects' characteristics which could be "keyed into" other known sets of information. Specifically the study of spark source mass spectrometry does not so much relate to criminal investigation as to power or proof in court of the guilt of persons who were identified as probable suspects by other (unknown) means. There are other examples which are similar but where the importance of interface is not so clearly established.

It might be useful to require applicants to state how they came to identify or become interested in the problem which they propose to investigate. It would be interesting to know how the original question or stimulus was operationalized. In particular it seems that many of the projects were worked up by the research worker on the basis of subjective input from some other source, and that many of the assumptions which originated in that source have been taken over without question. Too much reliance upon subjective input from those in the field may lead to investigations of how to do faster, or more, of what is now being done slowly and badly. What is now



being done about crime does not, as a total entity, seem to be altogether successful, and more of the same may not be any the more successful. If what is now being done were more closely and scientifically examined, it might be possible to identify elements which are more effective than others and then to decompose the existing package of procedures. It would seem that research workers have not explored in sufficient detail the nature of the problems before the submission of their proposals. Perhaps they can not be expected to do this at their own expense and the recommendations made in an earlier study seem to be emphasized by the data in the present case materials.

It is recommended that the potential advantages of sequential designs and conditional funding by stages should be explored. The stages which seem to fit the majority of designs could be:

1. A study designed to test the assumptions of the main project;
2. A study to test the feasibility of the project, given that the assumptions are sound (as modified if necessary as result of stage (1));
3. An estimation of the 'pay-off' of the results of the project, on the assumptions of feasibility

and success of research operations;

4. A study to test the estimates made in (3) above.

It is clear that many of the OLEA studies could have been improved or considerably modified if the assumptions had been tested rather than accepted as given by the operational staffs who appear to have advised on these matters. A specific example is the study of 'communications' which has the criterion of time rather than code form or content as its basis. In this case the requirement to consider the interface with the existing system or some probable future state of the system would have been most helpful.

#### Getting into the Model

Any scientific study implies some model. Once a model is accepted, it is not a difficult matter to work with it. In many of the projects the nature of the model was not spelled out and hence, not knowing exactly what the model was, it was impossible to consider whether it was appropriate to the problem. Usually in the absence of other information, it might be assumed that the model was related to statistical

inference. But statistical inference has several forms, even if it is basically sound and appropriately utilized. The difference between 'significance' (which may be insignificant) and estimation did not often seem to be appreciated.

Consideration of matters under this category lead to re-confirmation of a further recommendation which has also been made previously in relation to similar problems, namely, the establishment of a methodological audit. It might be unreasonable to expect applicants to set forth in detail the methods which they propose to use, indeed it could be dangerous to require such specification at too early a stage. Sequential designs and conditional funding could, of course, change this situation. Nonetheless, it is recommended that consideration be given to the establishment of a methodological audit system associated with the fund giving agency. At present careful audit of expenditures are made, but money spent 'correctly' may be totally mis-spent in terms of the objectives of the studies. If, for example, the specification for the project states that a 'probability sample' will be selected, then it seems essential for the agency to audit the procedures to ensure that the sample, as in fact drawn, meets this requirement. It should be possible also to modify in the light of increasing information, both the financial and

the methodological audit conditions.

#### Estimates of Pay-Off

In most of the proposals the writers seem to imagine that their chance of being funded is proportional to the size of the problem they claim to be able to solve. The promised products are usually discussed in some detail, but are only very remotely related to the proposed production machinery. This is a similar but somewhat weaker and more sweeping complaint to that made above regarding the nature of model building. The problem or deficiency may, however, derive from a different source. Most proposals are the result to some degree of cooperation between different interests. This may explain the common style of application writing which seems to stress the WHY questions rather than the HOW questions. Sound initial evaluation is difficult or impossible without HOW information. Perhaps the application form could elicit more relevant information if some specific questions were related to this issue.

It is recommended that the form of application for funds should specifically seek to elicit information on methods and by what means these are expected to deliver the promised products. The mere listing of methods which will be used does not go far enough; we need to know how the

methods are related to the problems and by what form of inference.

It might be possible to clarify what is desired in this regard by requesting references to appropriate authors. For example, "mathematical analysis", "systems analysis", or "multi-variate analysis" may represent nothing more than the use of "O. K.-words". Any numerical analysis may be considered to be "mathematical" or even "multi-variate", but the question is one of relevance. Some proposals give some clues to the initiated, particularly if the initiated are also familiar with prior work by the same research organization. It is not possible to say whether the methods 'map' on to the problem without detailed references. In particular the uses of the words 'systems analysis' are most misleading and imprecise. By no means all authorities agree as to the definition of a system, and the perception of a thing (set) as a system does not get one far. Systems analysis implies, perhaps, a certain collection of methods of data collection, coding, collation and analysis as well as sometimes defining the approach to be taken towards the criteria, but it does not imply a specific strategy of investigation, analysis or research.

Criteria

The criteria which may be appropriate for the decision of the funding agency and the criteria which may be appropriate for each project area, of course, different but related. The granting agency can decide only within the limits of the proposals before it, whereas the applicant has far more scope in the selection of the problem and in deciding upon the objectives of his particular study.

Few proposals set forth the considerations regarding criteria at all clearly. This criticism has already been reflected in the suggestion that applicants should be required to consider how their particular project fits into the larger system or interfaces with other sub-systems. There remain, however, some other aspects of criteria setting which it may be desirable to note here. It may be that many of the systems engineers and scientists have recently become interested in the field of crime and its control. They are learning criminology, jurisprudence and related areas of knowledge as they develop ideas for the application of their particular know-how to this (for them) new field. It is, perhaps, not surprising that they seem to follow the apprenticeship model of learning about their new area.

There are many difficulties with the apprenticeship model. If that which is to be learned is a particular type of knowledge, then apprenticeship may be a desirable method for learning. But is the field of crime such a type? The writer does not think so. On the contrary it is thought that a rather high level of abstraction may be the more relevant way of conceptualizing the problems in our area at this time. There are things which are being done reasonably well in the present system of organization, but the total organization does not seem to be effective. Since it does not seem to be known what elements are 'good' and what elements are not 'good', an apprenticeship model does not fit as the best learning model. Let us consider a specific example to make this general point clear. It is often considered by those concerned with the efficiency of the police that the old system of beat patrol on foot was 'good'. It is often expressed, in regret terms, that this method of patrol is no longer possible. However, to say that the beat system was 'good' is not a very informative statement, even if we agree with it. It might be more useful to identify those particular elements within the beat system which were the basis of the evaluation that it was 'good'. We might, for example, observe that the policeman on the beat

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was accessible, he was also known as a person (and whatever that might imply), he obtained information about all kinds of incidents, persons and situations which enabled him to predict likely outcomes, and so on. A thorough breakdown of the elements (in terms of some degree of abstraction) of the 'good' beat system might enable us to see ways in which those elements might be obtained or developed in other systems which were cheaper, possible at the present time, and perhaps capable of amplification by modern technology. While we see the beat system as a whole, and see it as 'good', we do not have information of the kind which can be utilized in terms of modern technology nor in terms of scientific analysis. Such methods of breaking down concepts might be related to methods of 'process analysis'.

If, then as an example, we take the assessment that the beat system was 'good', then we might set up as a criterion or as a set of criteria, those elements which were determined to exist within this system. The claimed characteristics of the beat system (not the system as such) become our criteria. Thus:

- a) Qualify of information available to the patrolman (e.g., its diversity),
- b) his 'image' in the community,



- c) his multi-faceted role,
- d) his accessibility,

and etc.

These criteria then provide a means by which to assess any different approach to patrol or other appropriate analyses.

It is regretted that no trace could be found of this form of approach to the problem of criteria in the studies examined. Because of the lack of basic analysis of criteria problems it follows that the studies did not consider the approach of technology from the viewpoint of being able to (a) amplify, (b) transform, or (c) expand the elements which contributed to success within the current operations which are seen as successful. A similar model can, of course, be applied to the examination of operational procedures which are regarded as dysfunctional.

In general the proposals did not give an impressive write-up of considerations of criteria, even where this seemed to be considered as relevant. The majority of studies were not justified as (a) sufficiently practical, nor (b) sufficiently theoretical, and none related these considerations to total relevance. It is hoped that by redesign of the application kit it might be possible to force applicants

to consider equally the relevant (practical) and theoretical (challenging of assumptions, etc.) elements in any future proposals.

Assessed in abstract terms, a well designed project was SIMBAD (Grant #168). This related to the improvement of decision processes in probation. It did not seem, however, that it was sufficiently keyed into the system such that it was assured of development during attempts to put it into effect. It seems probable that it will remain a theoretical exercise for some time. It has value in that capacity, but not the value which it might have attained had it been more closely related to a dynamic model of the decision process, linked at the same time, with a feedback (or learning) process for those involved -- both the scientists and the decision-makers in the actual environment. It appears, from the theoretical viewpoint, that the scientists in this study were not sufficiently aware of the necessity to consider, or sufficiently skilled in dealing with the 'environment' of the 'decision game'.

On the other hand, some of the proposals seem to suggest that the researchers were too much aware of the state of the environment and did not see it as capable of significant change. The assumption that 'message units' provide a

satisfactory basic unit is one such case. There was in this case no assessment of the nature of the coding process nor any attempt to identify 'noise' or 'redundancy' in the system. It was assumed that the present content was optimal and that the only problem was one of capacity of the system and the reduction of time in the passage of a 'message'. There were several analogous cases which fell into either the kind of error of SIMBAD or the error of the communication study: the one failing to accommodate the environment adequately, and the other taking the assumption that the environment was optimal.

We do not, of course, have any measure of the efficiency of police forces, still less can we assess marginal efficiency in cost-benefit terms at the present time. It is, perhaps, reasonable to question whether arrests provide a basis for such a measure. Perhaps from the police viewpoint the arrest figures do provide a base, both of 'work done', and of efficiency. If, however, we see the courts as the ultimate authority in the law-and-order issue and not the police, then the work done in arrests is not a measure of police efficiency, since it may be inappropriate work. The ratio (arrests/convictions) may give a measure related to the amount of unnecessary or inappropriate work carried out by police. Yet many of the existing systems, and the proposals too, particularly

those in the area termed criminalistics, presume a suspect as the starting point for the application of technology. In the arrest of suspects, considerable work is done by the police (and there are certainly externalities of considerable significance), yet there was no attempt to assess the disutilities of this work in the provision of suspects, and its relationship to the identification procedures which were to be developed.

A further example of inadequate consideration of criteria and at the same time an acceptance of the 'apprenticeship' learning model is to be found in the study to improve 'mug shots' (Grant #199). It was assumed that the greater the amount of information the greater the probability that the offender would be identified. This is a serious (and probably incorrect) assumption. It is, however, one which is found quite generally among decision-makers where the procedure is more one of art than of science. It is certainly equally reasonable to postulate that too much detail may reduce the probability of a subject making the 'fit' between the information (picture) presented and his prior experience with an offender. There is such a thing as 'information overload' which can reduce the efficiency of decisions made by persons so overloaded. It would seem that this problem might have been

the more appropriately studied under conditions of a higher level of abstraction than the presentation of colored pictures. Moreover, it does not seem that such factors were investigated.

The assumption that the more the information the better should certainly have been challenged and investigated. Again, this particular example has very close analogies with other studies dealing with different topics, and failing to examine other basic assumptions.

Perhaps the apprenticeship model for learning is particularly invalid in the field of crime control and investigation. A small percentage of crimes are cleared up by arrest, and by no means all persons arrested are found guilty. Almost without doubt crimes cleared up and persons apprehended do not provide random samples of all crimes nor all offenders. Thus experience is biased, based, as it must be, on 'successful' cases. Experience, and the related apprenticeship model for learning, does not likely provide a sound basis for general inference. Too much emphasis on inferences derived from non-random (unrepresentative) samples can lead to poor strategies for action. Perhaps if fewer of some kinds of offenders were actually caught we

might have data which would serve better as a guide to improvements of the overall system! In any event, an increase in (N) is not sufficient as a sound criterion of improved efficiency. Hence an increase in the work done along the same lines as is current practice would not appear to be a sound policy.

Perhaps a taxonomy of offenses and offenders related to police operations could be developed such that patterns of probability were taken into account. Presumably those offenders who are extremely difficult to find, or who are found only by reason of some totally unpredictable event, are more like those who are not caught at all? Any such classification would have to be within age, sex and other relevant groupings. Perhaps some kinds of mathematical functions might be found which could indicate the probable typologies of offenders not normally identified? It is interesting to note a possible similarity between this idea and the fact that the Pareto distribution was used by Keynes to suggest the characteristics of persons who were avoiding payment of income tax. This point is made to indicate that the procedure which relies upon direct inference from existing strategies without a sufficiently sophisticated analytic approach and which attempts solutions at too low a level of abstraction is not

likely to be optimal. It is true that we can start only from where we now are, but how far we may get depends upon the selection of elements of the here-and-now and the kinds of perceptual models of the present which we may utilize. Perhaps this may be summarized as a criticism of lack of imagination on the part of most of the proposals, but a lack of imagination related to practical issues, rather than detached (as it so often is) from them.

#### Some Further General Comments

Any research results will at some stage in the process have to be communicated to others. In view of this it was surprising to find that some of the applications were very badly written: one contained several non-sentences. A badly written application is a poor prognosis for the final report.

It appears that a fair proportion of the studies have not been completed within the period estimated in the application. Perhaps some will never be completed. Some of the projects funded as apparently 'new' proposals are in fact extensions of prior work previously funded by other agencies. It would be interesting in such cases to compare the application made to the original agency (and what was promised as the delivery date and the exact nature of the product) with the proposal in the present case.

A large proportion of the proposals seem to deal with problem areas which have common ground with others. There is, of course, no objection to replication of studies, but if value is to be gained from such replication or overlapping, it will need to be extracted from the reports. Several studies, for example, deal with communications; several with information systems; several with variations in policing and several with attempts at various forms of 'prediction'. It would seem that some value might be derived from a study which made comparisons between the different pieces of work, noting the results which confirmed each other and those which diverged. Some studies promised very broad, sweeping results (e.g., "a complete study and redesign of police communication system to provide model system format") and if they were successful, there should be no further need for research in the areas they have specified! It is possible that there are identifiable characteristics within the form and style of the application which correlate with the degree of satisfactory completion of the promised products. A knowledge of any such correlations would assist in future decisions by grant giving agencies.

In the light of subsequent events, and so far as it is possible to relate these to the prior statements in the



forms of application, the task of assessing the merit of proposals is almost impossible. The reason is that, as it is now known, the apparent information contained in the proposals does not relate sufficiently closely to the outcomes achieved. In at least one meaning of the term we may say that the information upon which decisions regarding funding had to be based proved unreliable or invalid. It would seem that ways for assessing the likely validity of reasonableness of claims to probable performance could be explored if data specific to this kind of problem could be systematically collected, collated and studied. A sound design would require the cooperation of several fund granting agencies, since not only does it appear that proposals are 'spliced together', but some which are not funded by one agency reappear in another in almost the same form, and these secondary or tertiary applications are sometimes funded.

Decision Making

What is a good decision? When is a decision to give or refuse funding for a research project a good decision? Perhaps the assessment of the research funding operation is one of the most difficult tasks falling under the category of evaluation studies. By definition, research is concerned with what is, at least in part, unknown. Yet a rational decision requires information, if only information regarding the nature of the uncertainty.

One who claims to be a scientist should attempt to utilize scientific methods in assessment of the role of science in the area of crime control. In view of the central issue of uncertainty, it seems reasonable to turn to the THEORY OF GAMES for some kind of model.

Errors of the First and Second Kind

In almost any kind of decision we may identify two kinds of error (since no decision is without the probability of error). These kinds are related to the "first" and "second" kind, or to "producer" and "consumer" risk. In the present

case there is a loss of money if it is given to a project which is not successful (leaving aside for a moment the question of what is the meaning of 'successful'), and there is the risk of not funding a project which, if funded, would have been successful. This latter form of error may be seen as a type of 'regrets' disutility. We may set up the simplest alternatives in the form of a four cell table, thus:

TYPES OF DECISION OUTCOMES

Funds granted	<u>successful</u>	failure
Funds refused	project would have been successful	<u>project would have failed</u>

Presumably we may regard the underscored categories as representing 'correct' decisions. While the risk of error in this case is closely analogous to the producer/consumer risk in inspection processes in industry, no information is available with regard to those risks which are related to the refusal of funds. It is possible that some of the rejected projects were later put up to other agencies and some may have been funded by them. On some occasion it might be possible to attempt to trace some of these and to

obtain estimates relating to the second line of the above table. The fact that the second line remains unknown does not mean that it can be ignored. Indeed a rational decision process may be considered as relating to estimation of the unknown risks.

Pressing the model somewhat further, we may suppose that there are 'utilities' associated with the four cells of the above table.

$U_1$ (funded/success)	$U_2$ (funded/fail)
$U_3$ (unfunded/success)	$U_4$ (unfunded/fail)

$U_1$  is obviously positive;  $U_4$  may be regarded as equal to zero; (the only loss is in terms of the time spent in the working up of the proposal, and this may be considered as having externalities of learning which, although small, may cancel out the time spent by the decision-making agency in rejecting the proposal.)  $U_3$  is a 'regrets' value, or a negative utility.  $U_2$  is also a negative utility. Hence a priority rating might be obtained by considering only the cells  $U_2$  and  $U_3$ . The greater the ratio

$$\left( \frac{\text{regrets}}{\text{cost of funding}} \right)$$

the higher the priority to be given to the proposal for funding.

Estimation of the 'regrets' value is, thus the term with which the decision is mainly concerned. It may be defined as the estimate of the utility of the project if it were to be successful, multiplied by the probability of its being successful, given a negative sign in this case to accord with the idea of 'regret'.

This seems a trivial solution, and it is likely that the nature of the game has been inappropriately specified. Nonetheless it sharpens two issues: the need to consider separately:

- (a) the probable value of the project (success assumed),
- (b) the likelihood that the research team will 'pull it off'.

These two dimensions are probable uncorrelated as such, but there may be some chance that the more experienced and sophisticated research teams will be reluctant to put up a project which, in their estimation of the probabilities, does not stand a good chance of being completed and rated as successful. They have a goodwill which they can damage if they do not produce a good product -- of at least a consumer acceptable product. Postulation of models of this kind takes us into a situation where we have to

accommodate the idea of strategic interdependence, and it is not possible at this time to attempt further analysis of the complex forms of games at this time. The simple model has, however, indicated the relationship in a sound decision strategy for funding of projects, between the assessment of the probability of the success of the research and the usefulness of the results. These are two different kinds of consideration which require different kinds of data to be examined. The former relates wholly or mainly to the research methods, including their feasibility in the situation of the particular case; the latter relates wholly or mainly to the research methods, including their feasibility in the situation of the particular case; the latter relates wholly or mainly to the nature of the problem area and the likelihood of the acceptance of the changes which may be proposed as a result of the successful outcome of the study. Given these two independent dimensions it is possible to consider the operations upon the two assessments as a further and separate procedure.

(The analogy is related to the strict game model where the prize money may be regarded as independent of the probability of a win, and the selection of a player's strategy (minimax, maximin, poor gambler's ruin and the like) is a further factor or 'operator' which reflects the

player's state of mind or pocket or both).

In our consultant's evaluation of the strategy of another agency that funded grants we found that the smaller projects (in terms of costs) could be said to be more often successful than the larger ones. The larger projects attempted much more (the prize on offer was larger), but in retrospect at least, it seems that the probability of a win was less. It thus appears that the funding agency was, perhaps, too much attracted by the size of the 'prize' and paid insufficient attention to the probability of success. It is interesting to note that this form of behavior is characteristic of many kinds of subjective risk-taking behavior. On the other hand, it may be that the self-selection due to the 'goodwill' factor noted above, resulted in the more careful editing of the projects put forward by the more sophisticated research organizations, and that this led to the size of the project correlating negatively with the probability of success in terms of the sample size or frequency distribution of projects available to the funding agency. In other words, the sample of available products (research applications) which could be 'bought' by the agency was a biased one, and that this bias was unknown or not taken into account in the decision process.

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In this it has been possible to say a little more than that a long shot (small estimated probability of success) may be justified for funding if the pay-off is estimated to be large (it is a serious problem which is being investigated). We are also saying a little more than the complementary statement that an estimated large probability of success may justify the funding of a project which does not address such serious questions. The increment due to the use of the games theory model is in that it reveals the probable nature of the interdependence factors in any appropriate model for research funding strategy. It is, however, the intention here only to use these ideas as a rough framework of analysis with which to examine the materials provided. We turn now to the considerations involved.

#### The Place of Evaluation in Criminal Justice Projects

Proving that any program of planned change is achieving what it set out to do is a difficult but necessary task if strategies for change are to continue to receive support and if they intend to be based upon rational decision making. This realization has over the last few decades led to the development of techniques for measuring the impact of a variety of programs of social change from the



minute influences of a one-day conference on the attitudes of the conferees to the broad impact of large-scale government programs in health, poverty, war, transportation and education.\* The large scale federal investment in fighting crime and improving the quality of criminal justice

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\* Some of the breadth of the evaluative literature can be seen from this brief sampling:

Martin Beckman, et al., Studies in the Economics of Transportation, (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1956);

John Maurice Clark, The Costs of the World War to The American People (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1931);

James S. Coleman, et al., Equality of Educational Opportunity (Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1966)

Robert Dorfman, ed. Measuring Benefits of Government Investments (Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institute, 1965)

Louis L. Dublin and Alfred J. Lotka, The Money Value of a Man, rev. ed. (Ronald Press, 1946)

"Evaluating the War on Poverty." The Annals, 385, (September, 1969)

H. F. Freeman and C. C. Sherwood, "Research in Large-Scale Intervention Programs," Journal of Social Issues, 21:1 (January, 1965)

Herbert H. Hyman, Charles R. Wright, and Terrence K. Hopkins, Applications of Methods of Evaluation (Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1962)

will have to be evaluated on a continuous basis.

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Daniel Glaser, The Effectiveness of a Prison and Parole System (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1969)

Julius Margolis, External Economies and the Justification of Public Investment, Department of Economics, Stanford University, 1955)

Maynard M. Hufschmidt, Standards and Criteria for Formulating and Evaluating Federal Water Resources Developments. (U.S. Bureau of the Budget, 1961)

S. M. Miller, "Evaluating Action Programs," Trans-Action, (March/April 1966)

Herbert Mohring and Mitchell Harwitz, Highway Benefits. An Analytical Framework (Evanston: Northwestern University Press, 1962)

Selma J. Mushkin, "Health as an Investment," Journal of Political Economy, 70:2 Supplement, (October, 1962)

J. Robert Newman, Evaluation Technology: A Proposed Method for Evaluation of Social Action Programs in the Area of Juvenile Delinquency, (unpublished paper for the Public Systems Research Institute, University of Southern California, 1970)

June L. Shmelzer, ed., Learning in Action: Selected Issues in Training and Demonstration Projects, (Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1966)

June L. Shmelzer, "Evaluation of Staff Training Programs," Welfare in Review, (March, 1965)

Edward A. Suchman, Evaluative Research: Principles and Practices in Public Service and Social Action Programs (New York: Russell Sage, 1958)

Burton A. Weisbrod, Economics of Public Health (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1961)

Leslie T. Wilkins, Evaluation of Penal Measures (New York: Random House, 1970)

In an excellent article on the problems of conducting valid, reliable and useful evaluations of action projects in the area of delinquency prevention and treatment, Carol Weiss has catalogued and discussed the many issues involved in conducting legitimate evaluative research. She cites the following 14 issues which she found to be key obstacles to achieving credible evaluations of action programs\*:

1. The clarification of project goals.
2. The definition of goals in behavioral terms.
3. The choice of issues for evaluation.
4. The understanding, by administrators, program operators, evaluators and possibly by target groups, too, of the intended uses of the results.
5. Methods of selection of target group members.
6. Clarity about the target population.
7. Use of control groups.
8. The securing of baseline data, prior to beginning of the program. (Where effect on institutions is a subject of study, this requires information on relevant characteristics of institutions, too, before the onset of the project.)
9. Specification of program inputs.
10. Unambiguous measures of outcome.
11. Appropriate scope of expectations.
12. Attention to unexpected outcomes.
13. Appropriate statistical methods.
14. Follow-up beyond the end of the training period.

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Carol H. Weiss, "Planning an Action Project Evaluation," in June L. Shmelzer, Learning in Action: Selected Issues in Training and Demonstration Projects (Washington, D. C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966).

These same issues presented themselves in many OLEA projects that either attempted or might have attempted "real" evaluations of their impacts. Of course, there were "evaluations" done by many of these projects themselves but such evaluations amounted to little more than either an accounting of what was done, or a collection of testimonials from various people associated with the project stating generally that it was a good thing and should be continued. They were not rigorous pieces of research.

Lyons has pointed out in his study of the federal government's use of social science research that policy making will in the end always remain politics--with or without scientific evaluations and analyses.\* But, as he also notes, Congress and the various federal departments have become sophisticated producers and consumers of rigorous research. What is more, political leaders have become less bound by pure politics and are freer to be guided by the results of such research.\*\*

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\* Gene M. Lyons, The Uneasy Partnership: Social Science and the Federal Government in the Twentieth Century (New York: Russell Sage, 1969), p. 15.

\*\* See Robert Lane, "The Decline of Politics and Ideology in a Knowledgeable Society," The American Sociological Review, Vol. 31 (October, 1966), p. 658 ff.

These developments hold important implications for the place and quality of evaluations of future government programs affecting law enforcement and criminal justice. Non-rigorous, non-scientific appraisals of programs, for example, testimonials by high officials and others as to their benefit and worthiness of a particular project, will always have a place in politically sensitive funding situations. But, with the increasing level of research sophistication among political leaders, there will be an ever increasing need to supply evaluations based on sound research methodology.

The obstacles to this type of evaluation are, as Weiss notes, substantial. Our experience in evaluating post facto OLEA projects corroborated Weiss' findings point for point. In particular, formulating the "what" of the evaluation of a specific project was always difficult. There were always at least three different levels involved in the goal structure of the project. These were: 1) the funded purpose; 2) the legislative or "ultimate" purpose; and 3) the intervening or operational purpose. The funded and the ultimate purposes were clear. The publication, LEAA Grants and Contracts: Fiscal 1966-1968, listed the official, funded purposes of every project, i.e., what the

project would do specifically, such as "establish a 2-year police science degree" or "establish an information and retrieval system in a medium-size police department."

The legislative or ultimate purpose was stated in the "Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965" which was enacted "to provide assistance in training State and local law enforcement officers and other personnel, and in improving capabilities, techniques, and practices in State and local law enforcement and prevention and control of crime, and for other purposes."\*

But, between this overall purpose of controlling crime through an improved criminal justice system and the specific funded purposes of individual projects lies an abyss of unstated or unknown or contradictory intervening purposes. Some projects took a step into this darkness by defining an intervening goal which was assumed to be either the link between the funded and the ultimate purpose or the ultimate purpose, itself. For example, efficiency was often cited as an intervening goal; and in some cases, was mistakenly thought to be the ultimate goal. This mistake is a replay

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\* U.S. Congress, House, Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965, Pub. L. 89-197, 89th Congress, 1965, HR 8027, p. 1.

of the history of American criminal law reform. Haller asserts in his paper for the National Commission on Violence, on this very point, that efficiency in itself is not a goal. One must still ask the question, "Efficiency for what ends?" He notes:

"Reformers from all traditions (of criminal law reform) could often unite on certain programs. This was particularly true of campaigns to increase the "efficiency" of law enforcement by eliminating corruption, insulating criminal justice officials from political influences, and raising the standards of training and competence of officials. . . . Such goals were equally sought by those for whom "efficiency" meant swifter and more certain punishment and by those who wished to raise the training of court and correctional personnel so that rehabilitation would be more likely to result. In short, the recurring campaigns for efficiency in the criminal justice system have been joined by many persons who did not examine too carefully what the ends of efficiency should be."

The evaluator then must ask at least three basic questions. The first question is about the funded purpose.

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\* Mark H. Haller, "Theories of Criminal Violence and Their Impact on the Criminal Justice System," in Crimes of Violence, Vol. XIII, by National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969) pp. 1331 and 1332.

"Did the project do what it was specifically funded to do?" The next question is whether achieving the funded purpose did or did not result in an increase in efficiency in the expected manner. Finally, one must ask whether this increase resulted in more crime control and a better quality of criminal justice.

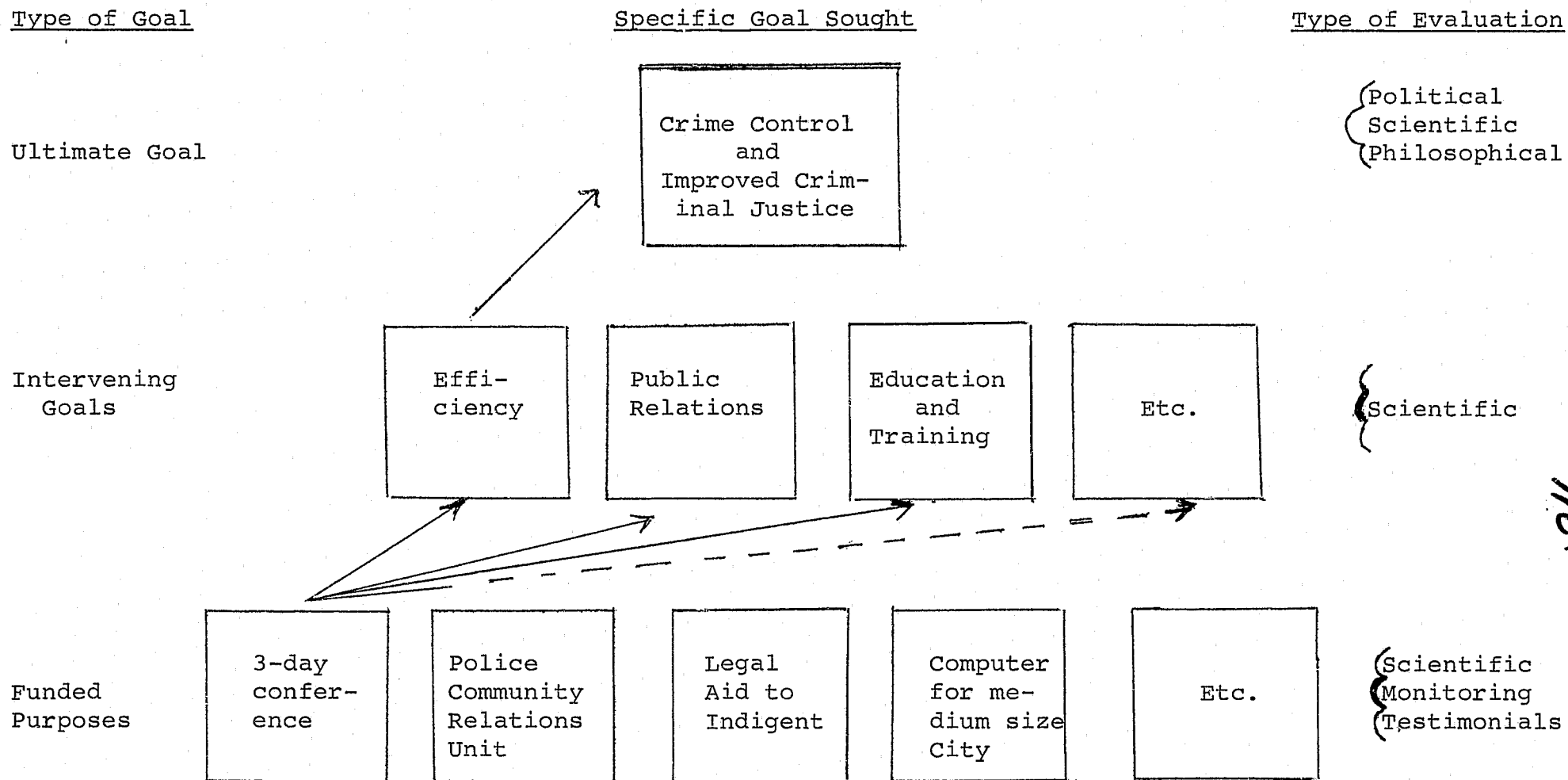
There is a rank order of difficulty in providing valid answers to these three questions. Establishing whether or not the funded purpose was achieved is the easiest of the three tasks. It should not be regarded as an "evaluation" as such but is more properly thought of as an "accounting." Our consultant, Leslie Wilkins, has suggested that there should be a research accountability as well as a financial accountability required of every project. This could be done on either a monitoring or review basis.

Of the second and third tasks, - i.e., determining whether the intervening and the ultimate goals, respectively, were achieved -- the second is more amenable to rigorous, quasi-value-free treatment. The third is inevitably a political question - best answered multiply with one (or more) answers (s) for each possible and reasonable political position.



Figure 1 illustrates the tripartite goal structure we have described and the type of evaluation most appropriate to each level in the hierarchy. At the level of the specific projects the type and extend of the evaluation must depend upon the "critical size" of the project (not its absolute or relative size). Some projects may be small in both an absolute and relative sense but may be of great import to the system of criminal justice. The sophistication of the evaluation of the project should be directly related to its possible importance. Secondly, it should be related to the project's absolute size. Any project funded for less than \$25,000 (one-half the average grant award) and which is not of great consequence need not be evaluated extensively. In many such cases it will be enough to have an administrative monitoring or accounting to ensure that the specific purpose for which the project was funded was achieved or, at least, that an honest effort at achieving this purpose was made. However, even these types of projects should be required to make a self-evaluation of their success--no matter how impressionistic, "loose," biased or otherwise unreliable such evaluations might be. They are helpful both to create a sense of accountability and

Figure 1. Illustrative Goal Structure and Type of Evaluation For Program  
To Improve Crime Control and Criminal Justice



to foster self-criticism and may perhaps be heuristically valuable. They are certainly valuable to the post facto evaluator, such as ourselves, who must evaluate the individual projects as well as the total program.

That evaluator - whether he initiates his evaluation before, during, or after the project - is often faced with constraints forced upon him by an unrealistic inflated statement of objectives by the grant applicant. For example, one grant to provide police community relations training for policemen gave as its goal the following objectives:

1. to further the understanding and acceptance by the police of their professional responsibilities
2. to relate their performance of duty to the needs of society in which they work
3. to further development of these necessary attitudes, skills, and knowledge
4. to implement a more complete understanding among the police of the role of the professional police leadership in contemporary society

5. to further an understanding by police of a need to communicate with the community
6. to explore with the police methods of professionally coping with persons coming into contact with police.

Incredible as it may seem, these diverse, noble and rather vague objectives were being sought on a budget of \$56,000 through the medium of three eight-hour training conferences. This is rather like the ant who tried to move mountains. Of course, everyone concerned recognizes that statements of objectives are by convention frequently presented in a grandiose style and are not to be taken too seriously. But the problem with this convention is that it distracts one's attention from the serious business of evaluation (i.e., realistic appraisal of what one is doing). In fact, it virtually forces evaluation to end with a negative conclusion because these grandiose objectives are not attainable in themselves. They must be translated into intervening objectives which are researchable, such as changes in attitudes as measured by a particular attitude scale. Perhaps OLEA should demand a statement of objectives that is more realistic and researchable as the statement of an intervening objective. This statement should come from the

authors of the project and it should be given in the application for funding. This procedure would perform several valuable functions. For one thing it would force the authors of the project to take a more realistic view of their intended impact as well as of the assumptions underlying their work. They may even want to change their project design if they see, for example, that the grand objective of "opening lines of communication with the community" achieved through a three-day conference really means changing police attitudes from more to less authoritarian.

By the same token, the funding agency would have an entirely new and substantially more rational basis for decision making. Under current practice the decision to fund must be based on either very imprecise or totally irrelevant criteria - excluding political discretion for the moment. For example, a three-day training session for police might be funded on the basis of the relevant but vague goal of education for police with the assumption that this is a good thing or on the irrelevant goal of having a certain number of three-day conferences for police. How much more rational, precise and intelligible it would be

if such projects were funded on the grounds that they were trying to achieve a specific intervening goal such as a change in police morale as measured by a particular scale.

Then the buyer (the funding agency) could be more aware of what he was buying; he could initiate further research to determine whether his purchase was a good thing; also, he could compare the quality among different producers and among different methods of production.

OLEA funded several police community relations projects all of which had the general goal of improving race relations between the police and the public. If several of these projects had been asked to strive for a specific measure of success, for instance, a change on some index of racial prejudice, a whole series of events might have occurred which would have given a substantially greater return on the initial investment. No doubt the first event would have been the disagreement over which specific measure of success should be used. This may have led to the development of new instruments on the one hand and a greater appreciation for the difficulties of and need for measurement of change. It would also force the project

advocates away from the nonthinking sloganism of clichés such as "meeting the needs of society" and "opening lines of communication" and towards the difficult question, "What exactly do you hope to accomplish by your efforts?"

## CHAPTER VII

## Summary Evaluation of Balance of Reviewed OLEA Projects

## Introduction

This section of our report includes summaries of and evaluative remarks about those projects which, according to our criteria discussed on pages 9 and 10, were excluded from site-visits by our staff. Most of what is said about the projects relies upon what the projects reported about themselves in their final reports. This, of course, forces the evaluator to rely upon the candor, competence and evaluative and reportorial skills of the authors of the reports. Inevitably there are distortions and omissions in such reports; and these, in turn, influence and restrict what is said about the projects which they describe. This does not mean that such a review is valueless, only that it must be read with caution.

The quality of the final reports in terms of thoroughness, insight, evaluative content, and style varied greatly from project to project, but there is no reason to believe that this correlates with differences in quality among the projects. However, it is difficult to overcome the influence of a poorly or well written report.

We have attempted to overcome the limitations of the method errors by avoiding evaluative remarks about a project, itself, unless the final report was sufficiently thorough to support such remarks. In effect, this greatly limited the number of such direct evaluative comments. However, it did not restrict our remarks about the project as one of a class



of projects, or about the class itself. Also, it did not preclude our reporting of the project's own evaluative comments and research findings when they were offered.

As mentioned elsewhere\*, evaluating the OLEA projects was a difficult task for many reasons. The projects were not required to report self-evaluations and many did not. Among those that did there was no uniformity. Consequently, we were forced to consider each project in its own right even though in many instances, for example, training projects, there were dozens of essentially similar projects. However, we have attempted to impose some uniformity on the situation by asking the following six questions of each project:

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

This is a limited question which refers only to specific operation that was to be demonstrated or the specific piece of research to be conducted. If a project received funds to develop a computer-aided prediction device and field test it, and, in fact, did both these things, the question would be answered affirmatively. If the device were developed but not tested, the answer would be a qualified affirmative, i.e., "partially."

Note: If the project with OLEA approval altered its plan, the question applies to the altered plan.

2. Was the project innovative?

Many projects were innovative in trivial ways. This question is only meant to refer to what in our considered

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\* See our discussion of the place of evaluation in research and demonstration programs. (p. 701)

opinion were substantial innovations, for example, the victim surveys that shed new light on the dark figure of crime.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Responses to this question were based upon both reports of impact by the project and our judgment that a project was of such nature that it would very probably produce some substantial and immediate change in the host system. We could not make any empirical studies of the various systems of criminal justice to determine whether in fact an impact had been made.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Responses to this question were also based both upon the OLEA projects' own validated reports of crime prevention or reduction, and our judgment that some substantial and immediate reduction or prevention of crime would occur.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

This refers to whether the specific project should be replicated or developed further.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No explanation needed.

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(PART C)

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Grant #1

Grantee: President's Commission on Crime in Washington, D.C.,  
jointly with the Metropolitan Police Department and the  
International Association of Chiefs of Police.

Amount: \$18,301

Dates: January 1966 to June 1966

Purpose: To conduct a one-week workshop on police operations  
re burglary, robbery, and auto theft, for 40 high  
ranking police officials and 15 chiefs of police.

Summary

This proposal sought to apply the experience of police  
practioners from a variety of police agencies, to provide a  
forum for an exchange of knowledge, and to disseminate the  
results on a national scale so that other police forces could  
benefit.

Representatives of 15 major city police departments with  
crime problems similar to Washington, D.C., and others who  
had innovative programs to reduce the number of robberies,  
burglaries and auto thefts were invited.

There were working committees and workshops on each of  
the three crimes. These short presentations of techniques  
employed successfully were followed by discussion and  
recommendations for new approaches.

In theory, the idea of bringing together experienced police officers to share their knowledge was quite attractive. However, judging from this conference, it was of theoretical, not actual, value. The discussions, lectures, and proposals for the most part were stale rehashes of material that was old fifty years ago, such as: better training, more cooperation from the public, better records, and of course, aggressive preventive patrol.

When questioned later on, the participants had not really changed their typical approaches. The report concluded:

In conclusion we feel that this initial effort, while not producing any new innovations of earth shaking proportions, has caused the participants to appreciate the nature of their problems from a broader perspective and was a beneficial exercise.

That is more like an epitaph than a song of praise. This project clearly failed to accomplish its goals.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #1

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. It is time to declare law enforcement a failure in dealing with burglary and auto theft and to try some new approach?

7. Remarks.

Even the best law enforcement agencies are uniformly unsuccessful against the crimes of burglary, robbery, and auto theft. Why bring them together then?



Grant #2

Grantee: American Correctional Association, Washington, D.C.

Amount: \$55,425

Dates: January 1966 to December 1967

Purpose: To develop five training institutes for key correctional administrators.

Summary

The objectives of this project were 1) to give administrative personnel the opportunity to study the issues in the field of corrections, 2) to discover answer to problems, 3) to provide information and exchange ideas, 4) to secure better understanding of recent legislation and court decisions, 5) to improve training techniques, 6) to stimulate significant improvements in treatment, and 7) to develop a source book.

From these institutes came some suggestions such as the exchange of personnel among different institutions and also the preparation of the study guide to test the manual of correctional standards.

The objectives of a modern correctional program was the subject of the first workshop in an institute held for administrators. This workshop discussed: 1) correction or rehabilitation, to fulfill a general need to reintegrate the offender into the community, 2) securing public understanding,

3) evaluation of the feed-back programs, 4) reconciliation between treatment and custody aspects of the penal and correctional programs. There was some evaluation by legitimate persons in the field, especially Dr. Peter Lejins.

To show the favorable impression made upon the participants, letters received are reproduced in the report. One of them states ". . . next, the crystal mount setting which was beautiful and isolated to the point that there were no telephones in the room, no transportation, no female distractions, in fact no extracurricular activities, must have been an important factor. I keep telling myself we could have gotten the same conferences in or near a large city, but I'm not at all sure." Obviously, when one of the participants has to call attention to the fact that there were no female distractions, that the surroundings were beautiful, and that there were no telephones and no transportation, then these elements were evidently more important to the participant than the topics and the material of the institute itself.

Some of the institute material is worthy of mention. At one institute they discussed the role of the warden. The following criticisms were made: 1) there is a tendency to be satisfied with the status quo; 2) wardens should communicate with the public; 3) changes should be presented in terms

of usefulness and desirability.

A more detailed restatement of the goals of the institutes follows: 1) to allow administrators opportunity to study the issues pertaining to their responsibilities; 2) to improve the training and abilities of men and women in the correctional field; 3) to promote translation of things learned into positive action programs; 4) to discover some of the answers to problems in the field; 5) to provide information and knowledge to prepare for a change; 6) to stimulate significant improvements which would reduce recidivism; 7) to develop a source book which would contain the content of the planned institutes; 8) to share the content of the institutes through dissemination of the source book; 9) to develop a pilot project in the conduct of training institutes; 10) to provide an opportunity to acquire a better knowledge of recent developments and the recent trends in corrections; 11) to develop a better understanding of the recent federal legislation which had major implications for the field.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 2

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not much.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Conferences of this type are probably necessary but they tend to become occasions for social activity rather than learning activity.

Grant #3

Grantee: National Council on Crime and Delinquency

Amount: \$98,234

Dates: February 1966 to December 1966

Purpose: Survey of corrections in the United States

(excluding Federal Corrections) and recommendations  
to improve it.

Summary

This study was conducted for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice. This was a massive survey of the correctional system in the United States accomplished in six months, from February to September 1966. The survey used three sources of information:

- a) data from correctional programs,
- b) group meetings with correctional personnel in each state, and
- c) published reports and studies.

The project staff divided corrections into nine divisions:

1. Juvenile detention
2. Juvenile probation
3. Juvenile training schools
4. Juvenile aftercare
5. Misdemeanant probation
6. Local adult correctional institutions and jails

7. Adult probation

8. State correctional institutions for adults

9. Parole

The findings are largely descriptive. Time did not permit a qualitative evaluation. To survey correctional services not operated by the state, a specially selected sample was drawn from 250 counties, out of the 3,000 in the United States.

#### Problems of the project

1. Collection of hard data --such data are notoriously absent in corrections.
2. Statistical data, such as the total number of offenders; case loads often were not accurate.
3. Human errors entered into the survey at all stages.

#### Findings

In 1965, 409,000 juveniles were admitted to detention facilities. These are more than two-thirds of those apprehended. The average daily population of juveniles in detention homes is 13,000. They are held an average of 12 days at a cost of \$130 per child. About 7,900 people are employed to care for this group.

As far as the total picture is concerned, on any day 1,250,000 people are under the jurisdiction of state and local correctional agencies. Of these, 28% are juveniles and 72%

are adults. One-third (over 400,000) were in institutions, two-thirds (over 800,000) were in communities under probation or parole supervision.

Agencies receive in one year 2.5 million people whose status affects another 6 million people. Corrections cost about \$1 billion in 1965. About 80% of this is allocated to institutions. Only 14.4% is allotted to probation services. One-third is for juvenile detention, institution, and after-care.

The daily cost for a juvenile in an institution is 10 times the cost of juvenile probation or aftercare. For adults, state institutional costs are 6 times that of parole and 14 times that of probation. The low cost of probation is attributable to heavy caseloads and low salaries.

If all planned construction takes place, it will cost \$1 billion and increase the capacity about 24% and will add \$200,000 annually to the cost of the institution.

The ratio of institutional personnel to probation and parole personnel in juvenile correction is 4 to 1, and in adult corrections 10 to 1. Within institutions, 63% of all personnel are custodial staff. Treatment staff are only 3.6% and educational staff are 5.9%.

More than two-thirds of those on felony probation are in caseloads of over 100. To bring up staff to the recommended

standard would call for the additional hiring of 16,583 personnel. Of these, 12,532 are required in probation and parole.

About 53% of local jails and institutions have no educational qualifications. Generally, qualifications for institutions fall below those required by probation and parole.

The specific needs and problems of corrections are:

1. Training and education
2. Diagnostic services
3. Better detention centers
4. Special services
5. Diversification
6. Statistical system
7. Regionalization
8. Pre-sentence reports
9. Research
10. Adult services
11. Miscellaneous --youth authorities, standardization of legal codes, citizen action programs.

#### General issues

1. Strengthening of probation and parole
2. Greater funding of corrections
3. Need for a clear correction philosophy
4. Need for public understanding of the correctional task



5. More manpower
6. Increased state coordination of services
7. General improvement in the administration of justice.

Finally, they developed a long list of recommendations. Unfortunately, the state of corrections now makes it apparent that most of the recommendations were disregarded.

Only the OLEA program of training for corrections has attempted to meet their recommendations.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 3

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes, for corrections.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Possibly.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. Where will we get the money and men necessary to fulfill the recommendations of the project?

7. Remarks.

It is always valuable to have this collection of data. The question is now what will they do with it.

Grant #4

Grantee: Metropolitan Police Force, Washington, D.C.

Amount: \$583,100

Dates: March 1966 to December 1967

Purpose: Development of police planning and development bureau, vehicle supplementation and remarking radio equipment for off-duty police officers' cars and scooters.

Summary

Aside from the police planning and development bureau the rest of this project was a "boondoggle". The "scientific" project was a travesty fit to be included in a play satirizing bureaucracy. Radios in private automobiles are only as good as the motivation of the police to answer calls they are not required to answer.

A police planning bureau should not cost over \$300,000 as this one did.

Evaluation

This project was merely an equipment project and as such it did not meet the standards set by OLEA for its grants.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #4

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Possibly.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was an inferior project, apparently the result of political decisions. It was ill-conceived and badly carried out.

Grant #5

Grantee: National Center on Police and Community Relations  
in Michigan State University.

Amount: \$48,716

Dates: February 1966 to January 1967

Purpose: A national survey of police-community relations programs including the police role, the community's role, the development of questionnaires and on-site observations.

Summary

Based upon a careful collection and analysis of data, the grantee would design a series of recommendations or action models as guidelines for future program development in the field of police and community relations programs. In addition, there was a development of an extensive current bibliography and the specification of criteria for the evaluation of police-community relations programs.

Although this program is under Operations Improvement under the OLEA grant and contract list, it is included under police-community relations programs because it serves as a model for most of the others (if it can do what it says).

The survey studied, in whole or in part, the community relations programs and related aspects of police departments

in such cities as St. Louis, San Francisco, Philadelphia, Oakland, Los Angeles, Chicago, Flint, New York, and so on.

The study points out that as early as the second decade of this century Arthur Woods wrote the book, Policemen and the Public; so, police-community relations has been a problem for a long time. However, as late as 1964, a survey by the IACP and the United States Conference of Mayors, of police departments in cities with more than 30,000 population, revealed that 40% of the departments had no training in the field of police-community relations programs.

The significant development in the police-community relations area is the development of formal units to deal with the problem. In the mid-fifties the St. Louis police department established and staffed a Community Relations Unit which has served as a prototype for more general application of the idea. The study found that police-community relations programs usually had a number of goals: 1) to encourage police-citizen partnership in the cause of crime prevention; 2) to foster and improve communication and mutual understanding between police and community; 3) to promote professional approaches to the solution of community problems; 4) to stress the principle that the administration of justice is a community responsibility; 5) to enhance cooperation in the relationship

of the police, prosecution, courts and correction; 6) to assist police and other community leaders in understanding the nature and causes of the complex problems of police-minority group relations, and to strengthen the implementation of equal protection under the law for all persons.

The root of the problem between police and minority groups appears to be that the minority groups are angry at what they call permissive law enforcement and that policemen fail to provide adequate protection and services in areas occupied by Negroes. In addition, they complain about the practices in arrest and detention, and harassment toward the minority groups.

The study found that the vast majority of the white middle class is either apathetic toward the entire problem or support the police and are willing to wait for improvement in the police. The majority of their complaints seem to be in the area of service and technical competence.

Police attitudes are the other half of the equation and their complaints center around the question of apathy, that the public is apathetic toward the police and refuses to help them. They are also angry about the charges that police are cruel or unfair, or discriminate against minority groups. They resent the over-emphasis upon rights of the individual as

compared to society. They are uncertain about their own role in present day society, and, finally, they expressed concern about the moral decay of our society. They would like to go back to old values and see themselves as defenders of the status quo. In summary, these police see themselves as a beleaguered army fighting apathy and moral decay. This is a national picture as far as the survey was able to ascertain.

Another pressing police problem that the study focuses upon is the problem of opposing views, the traditional police view that the police should confine themselves to law enforcement matters only, and the opposing view that stresses police involvement in community affairs to the degree necessary for the maintenance of a peaceful community. The report says that the police as agents of government responsible to the community must be responsive to community needs.

Police efforts must be directed toward focusing the resources of the community on the prevention of crime. Community involvement is necessary if the police are to carry out their primary responsibility of crime control with a minimum of community dissention. The basic assumptions of good police-community relations programming are set forth: The police commitment must be formalized by the department and promulgated throughout the community. The commitment must include the total



involvement of police departments toward bettering community relations.

Communication channels must be established between the police and the community that are available to all citizens. The program must utilize the resources of the entire community. It must employ means which will reach community segments not accessible to normal channels even if this means diverting the police role in new directions.

A working model can be drawn which utilizes seven elements and might improve police-community relations in a coordinated comprehensive effort. There should be an advisory council such as that in St. Louis. The establishment of a police-community relations unit directly responsible to the Chief as found in San Francisco. The incorporation of a public information unit of the type found in Chicago. The identification of tension and conflicts as done in the human relations section in Chicago, but on a broader base. The design of original programs for tension and conflict reduction as found in San Francisco, as well as in New York and St. Louis. The development of a district committee organization of the San Francisco format with neighborhood meetings patterned after the Chicago workshops. The assignment of a district community relations coordinator of command rank to each district as in New York. Each

department should view this model in light of its own needs. A major part of the study that follows is the implementation of these seven elements.

A long discussion of police brutality really does not come to any conclusion. Apparently, there is some, but according to the report probably it is overemphasized and in many cases cannot be validated. Officers should be educated to recognize that brutality is serious and that police administrators would be assisted by two legal tools, namely, having felony statutes for the punishment of unnecessary physical force or police brutality by police officers. It would obligate administrators to dismiss police officers who were guilty of brutality. Police administrators should take a strong stand against police officers who abuse their authority and provide education to change their attitudes.

According to the report, the most important person in the entire police and community relations picture is the individual police officer. His conduct and attitude toward the public are the primary causes of good or poor community relations and the major concern is to get conduct from the officer that will enhance rather than injure the police-community relationship. The two methods to achieve this are through education and through discipline. The first technique, education, is the

most desirable.

The problem of civilian complaints against the police is probably the most pressing in some large cities and must receive special handling. There is a widespread distrust of internal police trial procedures in the major minority groups through the country. The survey recommends setting up of internal control machinery to strengthen the administrative control over personnel and to provide a system that all segments of the community can respect. It suggests that this will influence in a positive fashion all police and community relationships. After the internal investigations unit there should be a trial board and a centralized complaining process and appeal. Undoubtedly, adoption of the methods recommended will result in more citizens complaints, but this is a necessity.

The next problem dealt with was the difficulty of recruitment of minority group people into the police departments. According to the report, the reasons are that 1) there are limitations to the normal recruitment techniques; 2) there is prejudice in the selection process; 3) lack of opportunity for promotion; 4) the adversary concept in which the police are looked upon as the enemy; 5) the availability of better positions elsewhere; 6) it is a civil rights strategy in that Negroes refuse to join police agencies. Why should they assist a

police chief who is trying to hire Negroes when the police chief has been against them for years? The study assessed favorably the Philadelphia program which had raised the percentage of minority group recruits.

Another area discussed was police-community relations training in which there are institutes that have not been really evaluated. However, according to the report they should continue and they probably will multiply. There are recruit and in-service training programs and the general feeling was that too little time was given to the study of human relations in the academies. One of the problems with training is that training only presents information that is supposed to be utilized, but once an officer leaves a training facility his behavior and subsequent traits are learned or relearned from older officers and his supervisors. Therefore, greater attention must be paid to reaching the older officers and the field supervisor if we are not to lose even our minimal accomplishments.

Police field activities are at the core of police organization and also really at the core of community relations. There are three distinct functions--control, traffic, and investigation. The big problem is field interrogation which causes a great deal of animosity on the part of minority groups. The police, on the other hand, feel that police field methods

have been used over the years and are found to be the best way of controlling or preventing crime. Most field techniques require use of force, the use of firearms, the use of detention, the use of tactical mobile units, and selective enforcement. All of these create problems and some of the ways of handling this are for the police departments to be sure primarily of the legality of the procedures, the efficiency of the procedures, and the effectiveness and the professionalism of the procedures.

The tragedy, according to the study, is that to the police it is the community that is at fault, and the community claims that the blame lies with the police. They make the assumption that this is a wholly artificial and unrealistic dichotomy. The report continues that historically the police are the community, and the community is the police (page 327). They feel that the police are interested in their own professional development and commensurate responsibilities more than non-police. The report recommends that the police officer be a community leader.

The major recommendations follow: It is recommended that the police place greater emphasis upon the concept of public service as a goal of the organization. That police agencies develop extensive formal and comprehensive community relations programs. Police agencies review honestly and

evaluate the existing citizen complaint procedures. That the personnel practices and policies and their training program be organized with scrupulous attention and sensitivity to community relations. Police administrators review, assess, and improve their current field procedures and data collection and presentation, especially of crime statistics.

As a summary, the report accomplished its aims. As a guide for future police-community relations programs there are some reservations. This report is sophisticated, the experts know the police well. However, I believe that they have idealized the police. For example: "The police are the community and the community is the police . . ." "The police are interested in their own professional development and commensurate responsibilities more than non-police." These are doubtful assumptions. They do not talk about the police hostility toward the ghetto dweller, nor do they mention the police resistance or, at least, indifference to the typical police-community relations program.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 5

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

In a limited way.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes.

7. Remarks.

This was a needed and valuable contribution to the literature.

Grant #7

Grantee: Probation Research, Inc., New York, New York

Amount: \$14,985

Dates: April 1966 to June 1967

Purpose: To organize two three-day institutes and develop curriculum to acquaint college students with correctional field and careers.

Summary

The probation department of the Brooklyn Supreme Court conducted two 3-day institutes during Easter and Christmas for college students who expressed an interest in a possible career in corrections. Announcements were sent to colleges, and eight hundred students from 115 colleges in 16 states applied.

Only 125 could be accepted for each of the two sessions. The sessions lasted from 10 A.M. to 4 P.M. on the first and third days, and from 10 A.M. to 11:30 P.M. on the second day.

The morning sessions were held in the probation department and were devoted to lectures, demonstration and role-playing sessions, films, and small group sessions.

The topics were: treatment of offenders, problems in correction and law enforcement, use of group therapy for narcotic addicts.

The response of the students was enthusiastic according to the report. I know from personal experience, because several students from my criminology classes attended these institutes and came back committed to a career in corrections.

One problem was the almost complete absence of black and Puerto Rican students. The report recommended a special effort



to recruit minority group participants to future institutes of this type.

Evaluation

This was a very successful institute. It would be interesting to follow it up by a survey to find out how many of the attending students actually did enter the correctional field.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 7

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes, in its method of going after the people it wanted to attract. It was very aggressive.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Probably, but only follow up research could tell.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Excellent in achieving its purpose of attracting students to the field of corrections.

Grant #8

Grantee: New England Council

Amount: \$87,335

Dates: April 1966 to February 1968

Purpose: To conduct a supervisory and command training course for state police of six New England states. There were to be four 4-week sessions each with 30 students.

#### Summary

This grant was instrumental in helping to establish the New England State Police Staff College, a regional training institution in Rhode Island which has attracted police from Ontario, Canada and also from the Delaware State Police.

In 1960 the New England Council, a private economic development organization, brought together the state police for a conference. Ultimately, this resulted in the New England State Police Compact in 1967, to foster regional cooperation among the various state police forces in New England. The New England Council applied for the grant to form a Staff College for high ranking officers of state police forces.

The college, under the grant, held four sessions in 1966 with 30 officers each. They were able to reach 120 of the 293 officers above the rank of sergeant, who were eligible to attend.

The director chosen was a former Chief Inspector of the New York City Police Department, and the evaluator was a former police inspector of that New York City Police Department and a professor in the School of Criminal Justice in the State University of New York at Albany.

The faculty was drawn from major universities in New England, as well as representatives of police, criminal justice, NAACP, and the American Civil Liberties Union.

The curriculum was divided into the following major subjects: organization, administration, and supervision, with special emphasis on communications. The fourth week of the course was devoted to special police problems such as organized crime, criminal intelligence, riot control, court decisions, and civil liberties.

The first day of the course was devoted to a review of the police image across the nation. A panel representing divergent viewpoints presented the material and covered subjects such as civil liberties, police review boards, and police brutality.

Judges and public and private attorneys led discussions on Mapp, Gideon, Escobedo, and Miranda, the major Supreme Court Decisions affecting the police.

Riot control was handled by reviewing case histories of

riots across the country, especially in New England, and a summary of the standard operating procedures developed by NESPAC.

The evaluation was rather sketchy. No written test before or after, and no attitude tests were administered because of the high level of students who might have resented such tests.

Finally, they decided that the best (really the most politically acceptable) evaluation was an opinion poll --- a questionnaire completed at the end of every class. In later sessions the polls were taken weekly.

Results: The staff college served as a model for the New England Chiefs of Police Association, and police training councils in Connecticut, Massachusetts, and New York.

The New England State Police Administration Conference was organized to act as the central organization for New England State Police. In June 1968 they obtained another grant from OLEA to study the feasibility of a regional criminal intelligence information system.

There was \$6,000 remaining from the original grant and OLEA gave permission to the grantee to hold two seminars on civil disturbances, one in November 1967, and one in March 1968. They were of one week duration and attracted police and fire officers from the New England program. These were workshops in

management, planning, logistics, communications, and legal aspects of police response. A mock situation was used for discussion of strategy and analysis.

This was a valuable project. The development of regional compacts is a progressive step allowing for better planning, training, and administration. The faculty was excellent; the subject matter was important, in that it was one of the few projects to concern itself with preparation for prevention and control of civil disorders.

The evaluation was weak, but possibly the political strategy that dictated not giving tests to the participants was wise.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 8

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was one of the better training programs. Regional programs make sense. It devoted some time to civil disorders and this was unusual enough to make the project important.

Grant #9

Grantee: South Carolina Law Enforcement Division

Amount: \$180,700

Dates: April 1966 to March 1968

Purpose: To train all policemen (about 3000) in South Carolina by educational T.V. -- one-hour video tape plus one-hour lecture discussion.

Summary

Schools in every county were equipped to receive closed circuit E.T.V. Police officers in each county could visit a school with a minimum of inconvenience. Each of 16 judicial districts had an area coordinator to implement the program in his county. A discussion leader and assistant in each county was chosen who selected a school in the county and made arrangements for it to be open at proper times with accommodations for the police students.

Each month there was a two-hour session held at 7:30 PM on the last Thursday of the month, and repeated on the first Tuesday of the next month. The first hour was spent by the students in watching a video taped ETV program. Then the discussion leaders took the remaining hour to review the material, answer questions, and stimulate discussion.

The title of the program was "From Crime to Court," and some of the unit topics were: Search and Seizure; Law of Arrest; Duties of Magistrates; Rules of Evidence; and Basic Criminal Law. The last unit was divided into a presentation of specific penal laws such as burglary, rape, larceny, homicide, assault, and battery.

The contract provided that 20 new programs be produced with a rebroadcast of 4 of these 20. This goal was surpassed; 27 new programs were developed. About 3500 law enforcement officers received these training sessions.



The project's evaluation consisted of testimonials by law enforcement people such as "This is the greatest step undertaken for the benefit of police officers in this state." "We had a terrific response." In addition there was a questionnaire survey of the police who attended.

Most of the responses were favorable but some dark notes appear in the findings that were not discussed in depth:

"There is a slight tendency for a reversal in favorableness among those with the greatest job experience and the most education."

"The minority who tend to disfavor televised instruction are those who appear to have the weakest set of personal characteristics from which to draw in arriving at a judgment."

#### Evaluation

It appeared that those with most experience and most education did not respond favorably. These were the men who would be the best judges. The next finding implied that these officers were weak personalities.

There is no doubt that knowledge of procedures and laws is necessary for law enforcement, and therefore this program was of some benefit.

However, \$180,700 was an excessive cost. The plan was to give monthly lectures in 16 districts. The lectures were repeated once. Therefore there were 24 x 16 or 384 lectures given. It seems to me that an organization like IACP or even a team of experts assembled in South Carolina could have done the same work, with the same impact, for one-quarter of the cost.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 9

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Impressions were that it had some adverse impact.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

In the toss up between intensive programs for the few, and diluted, thinly spread programs for the many (like this one), experience suggests that the former should be given greater priority. This project should have had some follow up evaluation of its impact to attempt to determine how thinly a program can be spread without defeating its purpose of having some influence on its consumers.

Grant #13

Grantee: John Jay College of Criminal Justice, New York City

Amount: \$26,598

Dates: June 1966 to May 1967

Purpose: National survey of police crime laboratories, to develop standards, and suggest a curriculum for laboratory personnel.

Summary

The survey was conducted with diligence. It proved that there were very few crime laboratories in America that measured up to reasonable standards of efficiency.

There was a total absence of qualified personnel for manning those laboratories.

A criminalistics and forensic science curriculum was developed and is now in operation at John Jay College.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 13

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Slight impact.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Not much.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Possibly.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. Why is there so little impact by science upon law enforcement?

7. Remarks.

As with so many other surveys, this one did the hard work of identifying needs. But then nothing was done to correct the weaknesses found. It would take political pressure and too much money to build decent crime laboratories.

Grant #14

Grantee: Regents of the University of California, Berkeley,  
California

Amount: \$70,190

Dates: May 1966 to November 1966

Purpose: Intensive study (San Diego and Philadelphia) of dynamics of police-community relations, to determine status, problems, and attitudes, develop suggestions, explore services and mechanisms for strengthening; and suggest action models and programs.

#### Summary

This survey was planned as a research operation. Dean Joseph Lohman and Professor Gordon Misner of the School of Criminology of the University of California at Berkeley decided to follow six research methods:

- 1) Familiarization with the formal community and police structure and organization.
- 2) Familiarization with the informal social systems of police and community.
- 3) Structured interviews.
- 4) Participant Observation.
- 5) Recorded group meetings.
- 6) Panel method sessions.

#### Part I: The Study of San Diego

San Diego, with 573,000 people, is California's third most populated city. It has 35,000 black people and 30,000 Mexican-Americans. The police force numbers 1,000, and prides itself on being "enforcement minded," efficient, and impartial. And in general the white public supports the police department

**CONTINUED**

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rather well. However there are only 20 black officers, a 2% proportion and one that belies the democratic character of the force.

The San Diego force has a police-community relations unit whose major purpose is to maintain communication and good public relations with community groups.

Negroes and Mexican-Americans take a dim view of the police. They complain about discrimination, brutality, lack of grievance machinery, and hostility toward youth.

The report describes San Diego police values and practices such as their negative view of the black population, their reliance on the show of force, their enforcement of curfew laws, their field interrogation procedures, and their resistance to community control.

The report describes these aspects of the community and the police organization without really uncovering anything new. It keeps reiterating that community relations are good, but between the lines one senses that the black population does not share this opinion. In other words, relations between the police and the black community are strained and little is being done to ameliorate them.

#### Part II: Study of Philadelphia

This study was completed in October 1966. The first section was demographic analysis of Philadelphia. As of 1960, there were 2 million people in Philadelphia, slightly more than 500,000 (24%) Negro, and 14,424 (.7%) Puerto Rican. In 1966 there were 5,700 members in the Philadelphia police department making it the fourth largest city force in the United States.

In 1966, Mayor Tate, Police Commissioner Bell, the Fraternal

Order of Police, and the Police Advisory Board, all played their part in the generalized struggle for political control.

The department displayed strength in its policy not to use excessive force when facing demonstrators unless it was absolutely necessary.

The evaluative team criticized the Highway Patrol--the elite group of police who had created a tremendous resentment among minority group people. They also took issue with the Philadelphia policy of not allowing police officers to live in the area where they work.

The Philadelphia Police Community Relations Unit was criticized because it saw its mission as public relations.

In general, the minority group feared and resented the police. There was a great deal of animosity between the police department and the Police Advisory Board which was a Civilian Board that reviewed complaints against the police.

Unfortunately, this report is now out of date. The political administration in Philadelphia has changed: the Police Advisory Board was abolished. Commissioner Rizzo is now at the head of the Philadelphia police force, and he has become popular in the city. Apparently, the image of the police has improved as well.

The following recommendations were made by Lohman and Minser. Some of them are too grandiose to be realistic. A few are trivial and repeat traditional methods that have not worked in the past. These recommendations, necessarily, must be taken seriously because of the high standing of the two experts who proposed them.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 14

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No. It was a study of police-community relations.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Some for the police.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes, in the sense that studies and comparative evaluations may prove worthwhile.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. It opened all the questions that have yet to be answered in this field.

7. Remarks.

The second half of the study which surveyed the Philadelphia scene was superior to the first part.

Grant #20

Grantee: Associated Public Safety Communications Officers, Inc.

Amount: \$29,029

Dates: May 1966 to May 1967

Purpose: To develop, publish, and disseminate to all police departments serving populations of 5,000 or more, a manual of standard operating procedures for police radio systems.

#### Summary

APCO was a nonprofit organization of state and local government agencies which had communication responsibilities. It had participated in proceedings before the Federal Communication Commission and had worked closely with the IACP.

The manual was distributed to more than 12,000 police departments and covered:

1. The responsibilities of the operator;
2. Telephone techniques
3. Radio telephone - voice - techniques
4. Mobile Unit techniques
5. Standard set of signals
6. Standard guide for description of wanted persons
7. Message forms
8. Rules of the Federal Communication System
9. Law enforcement communication.

#### Evaluation

This was a very sensible and needed guide for police radio operators. It was simple and direct. Under telephone techniques, for example, it listed the following guidelines: Answer promptly, identify yourself and your department, speak directly into the mouthpiece, observe telephone courtesy, take

charge of the telephone conversation, take all information, explain waits, avoid jargon, and show interest.

There have been too many justified complaints about response of police telephone operators. This manual will serve as an important training tool in improving telephone service in police departments.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 20

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Probably some improvements in quality.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

It is too bad this project did not have the benefit of the findings of another OLEA project that examined a police communications system and developed a similar manual.

Grant #24

Grantee: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education

Amount: \$109,690

Dates: May 1966 to February 1968

[This was supplemented later by Grant #319: \$12,490  
from March 1968 to October 1968]

Purpose: Regional training program for correctional personnel in 13 western states; traveling teams to conduct in-service training in remote location; faculty summer placements in correctional institutions.

### Summary

This organization conducted a series of seminars, workshops, and sensitivity training sessions. During the summer, it placed college faculty in prisons. No doubt some good was accomplished. There is no reason to believe that their training programs were inferior to others funded by OLEA.

Their technique of evaluating the impact of a series of one-day workshops conducted by traveling teams was to compare the number of inches of press coverage of the correctional institutions for the three month periods before and after the seminar. If, as in Salt Lake City, the coverage went from 9 stories to 21 stories, and 83 inches of press coverage to 271 inches, the workshop was considered a success. Of all the methods of evaluation developed by OLEA grantees, this deserves the award for least valid and most ridiculous!

The Commission efficiently developed flow charts of the work of correctional personnel. It also pointed out that there was a need to survey correctional manpower needs and to involve universities in the area of correctional training.

The report specialized in press clippings, flow charts, self-serving declarations. The objective evaluator would not find much to evaluate in this report.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 24 and # 319

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

A weak project.

Grant #26

Grantee: University of Pennsylvania Law School (with  
Philadelphia Police Department)

Amount: \$42,402

Dates: June 1966 to December 1967

Purpose: To develop a series of 10 manuals dealing with  
legal and constitutional questions relevant to police  
duties.

Summary

Two outstanding professors, Louis B. Schwartz and Stephen R. Goldstein of the University of Pennsylvania Law School, collaborated in producing a handbook for the Philadelphia Police Department. Not content with their own considerable experience, they consulted with policemen at all levels, and rode on patrol in radio cars. Although directed primarily to Pennsylvania Law and Philadelphia in particular, the authors tried to make it generally applicable for all metropolitan police forces across the nation. The handbook was written in a style intended for readers with a high school education.

Manual #1 - The Criminal Justice System - functions of the various agencies and officials in the system.

Manual #2 - Police Career

Manual #3 - Criminology for Policemen

Manual #4 - Patrol, Frisk and Arrest

Manual #5 - Search and Seizure

Manual #6 - Vice and Organized Crime

Manual #7 - Preserving Order and Keeping the Peace - the body of this chapter was on drunkenness and disorderly conduct.

Manual #8 - Traffic

Manual #9 - Juvenile Delinquency

Manual #10 - Demonstrations and Riots.

Evaluation - This guide compresses the most complicated police and legal problems into one or two pages each.

Although they have done a fine job, the manual necessarily must be a survey rather than an analysis in depth.

It is probably useful as an introductory text on police service or police administration.

It will be up to the instructor to develop and discuss in depth the issues that are raised in the guide.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 26

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Some.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Handbooks are of some value. The authors were well known law professors. But overall handbooks are not the best technique for law enforcement improvement.

Grant # 30

Grantee: Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn, (PIB), New York

Amount: \$43,193

Dates: September 1966 to August 1968

Purpose: To develop a computer model of the New York City

Police operations in order to simulate certain operations and to arrive at solutions of problems that might be too expensive and difficult to solve by actual experience.

#### Summary

The project director, Dr. Daniel Duffy, of the Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn, who had a doctorate in engineering science would have primary responsibility for liaison with the New York City Police Department and field work. His assistant, Norbert Hauser, Professor of Industrial Engineering and Management at the Polytechnic Institute, also had a doctorate in engineering science and was delegated the primary responsibility for the programming. Both scientists would formulate the model. In addition, the New York City Police Department would assign one operations research expert from its planning division. The computer available for use was an IBM 7040 computer system and 2 consoles connected to a GE Datanet time sharing system.

The report indicated that it was undesirable to experiment extensively with police departments in variations of the size

of the force, in the ratio of automobile patrol to foot patrol, in different patrol routes, etc. There would be too much risk of an unsuccessful experiment. Therefore, the report continued, there was need for a general computer simulation model that could be used by many police departments to conduct rapid inexpensive computer experiments free from risk and the restrictions of actual operating conditions.

The project was divided into three phases: (a) the information gathering, (b) the composing of the model, and (c) observing performance of the model, altering it, and evaluating it. The information was stored as knowledge in the brains of supervisors and officers of the force, as well as in records. This information would be gathered by interview, observations, and examination of records. The approach would not restrict itself to formally recorded data, but would draw upon the vastly larger store of information gathered over the years by police personnel.

The second stage would be to reduce this information to a mathematical form to be entered into the computer. And apparently, the system as it was proposed would be self-building in that the components were already known and would be fed into the computer. But the relations among them could only be discovered through having the system imitate real life under the "normal" operating conditions. It was on the basis

of this computer experience that relationships would be developed, and the concept of a system would finally be worked out for best results on the computer.

Advantages of this system would be that it would also find out what types of data were irrelevant to the total picture, resulting in a transformation of the police departments information gathering and record keeping systems. Once the system parameters and interrelationships were established and the model behaved properly under normal conditions, it proceeded to the second phase of answering questions like: What would an increase of 10 percent manpower mean in incidence of crime? What would be the result of a radical increase in the number of police cars of different shift assignments, or of new communications networks?

Finally, the project's effectiveness would be evaluated by a panel of police executives meeting with specialists in computer simulation who would assess the results. The one indirect benefit of this experiment would be to help initiate a new type of program at the Polytechnic Institute in which graduate students would be exposed to this new field of operations research and police problems -- the application of mathematical scientific techniques to the understanding of police systems. The system could be checked and changed at will by introduction of new parameters as experience dictated.

Another advantage would be that other police organizations would have available to them a general model which they could adapt to their own problems.

A final area of the project was a proposal for dissemination by creating a detailed manual which would explain how the model was arrived at and how it might be modified for different organizations.

In addition, publications for journals in the field of criminology would be prepared. There would be seminars for representatives of interested police organizations and a computer produced film to dynamically display the nature of the model.

Commissioner Harold R. Leary of the New York City Police Department stated in a covering letter: "Our department is anxious to participate with the Polytechnic Institute in the development of this project. We have been seeking for some time to explore the utilization of computer simulation but have been prevented from doing so because of lack of proper equipment and sufficient expertise."

#### Evaluation

The Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn's work under grant # 30 was basically an exercise in simulating incoming calls and dispatch of service in response to calls. It was closely related to # 39 but not as thorough. It was not as well done as the St. Louis study as far as trying out effects of various

realistic strategies, but the PIB study cost only \$43,000. The application for the grant was a very general description of what simulation may do and the problem was selected and structured in such a way that the IBM simulation language GPSS (General Purpose System Simulator) could be directly applied.

It appeared that the authors were not at all interested in or familiar with work previously done in the field such as the one by the St. Louis project. There was no reference to St. Louis either in the application or in the grant report. Thus the project was more in the nature of a demonstration than an attempt to come up with something that would be immediately implemented.

The final report was filled with flow charts, classifications, programs, and tables of simulated events, but there was little else to justify confidence in the future of this program. There was no practical knowledge, no field work, no testing at all of the model.

Instead of fulfilling the goal of building a model of a police department's operations, it narrowed the focus to problems of dispatching radio cars and response patterns. There is nothing intrinsically wrong with this, but it is a far cry from the high ambition of the proposal.

This project had an idea that was innovative, but as yet the idea has proven ephemeral and is not nearly close to achievement.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 30

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not as it turned out.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes.

7. Remarks.

This project hoped to accomplish more than it could. Its theoretical design while innovative fell far short of combining all the complex variables into a workable model.



Grant # 31

Grantee: Minneapolis Police Department in conjunction with  
the Minneapolis Public Schools, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Amount: \$70,364

Dates: September 1966 to August 1968

Purpose: To place juvenile officers in the five junior high  
schools to maintain an office, organize special educational  
programs, and handle conventional juvenile  
officer duties.

Summary

The rationale of the project was that the junior high  
school age was rather critical. Many boys and girls especially  
in the slum areas, and in the lower-class neighborhoods,  
get in trouble at that age. What happens in encounters with  
the police department is of tremendous importance in the  
lives of the children concerned. It is imperative that such  
interaction be as supportive and effective as possible  
(according to the report). The quality of such interaction  
is a common concern of the police department and the public  
school system and the parents involved.

A police-school liaison person could help make referrals  
which otherwise might be delayed or missed. Through a  
cooperative program of police and schools a multi-disciplinary

team could work toward a reduction of recidivism, delinquency and prevent crime.

The liaison officer would have the opportunity to organize a law enforcement education program with student leaders in the school: he would be in a favorable position to work on many creative programs. For example, he could work with gang leaders trying to interest them in constructive activities. He would be able to identify problems focused on young children, check school grounds for loiterers, and take steps to correct matters that were against the best interest of the children.

He would make regular visits to the feeder elementary schools and check suspicious adults or automobiles near the schools, observing infractions of safety rules. He could investigate matters in the community at the request of the pupil personnel team and he could take part in many school functions. He could gain information and observe conditions that were inimical to the welfare of the children. He could serve as a valuable member of the personnel team. He could confer with neighbors and parents and other members of the community on pre-delinquent behavior and he would be available as a resource person for law enforcement and juvenile court

procedures. He could deal with truancy.

He could still serve in a normal police capacity if any crime was committed. The principal would be responsible for coordinating the efforts. The officer would not have authority for discipline within the school.

In September 1966 the Minneapolis Police Department initiated the police-school liaison program. Five officers were selected from the juvenile division along with a project director. Men were chosen for this project who had certain attitudes, personal and by training, for the work. Meetings were held with the Board of Education and a program was set up and descriptive literature was sent to parents informing them that officers would be stationed at the school. This literature met with the approval of both parents and schools.

The officers were assigned to their respective schools in offices, although much of their time was spent outside the office acquainting themselves with the faculty and the students, an important phase of the program. The officers then made contact with all the feeder elementary schools. They spoke at PTA's and so forth. Once a week they met with the principal, the counselors, the visiting teachers, etc. Problems were discussed and action was taken that was considered necessary either by the police or school officials.

The officers reported on progress of the previous week and the project director recapitulated the officer's reports into his own files. The report correlates that the placement of police liaison officers in target area junior high schools did prevent juvenile delinquency and did reduce recidivism through the increase of communication among students and their families, an increase in information and improved communication between school and other groups, an early identification of pre-delinquent children, and improved communication between the police and the school.

Apparently, the school liaison program proved effective. For example, in the month of September 1967 compared to the month of September 1966 in the control areas there was a drop of 39% in the number of cases of delinquency, whereas in the other schools there was an 11% increase in juvenile delinquency. Crimes in which there was the biggest decrease in the control schools were simple assault, narcotics, and vandalism.

A set of letters praising the program is appended to the report and there are evaluations by the students and the school staff which seem to be favorably disposed toward the program.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 31

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Apparently, more rigorous evaluative techniques would have been appropriate.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Possibly.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes.

7. Remarks.

This was a project that merited closer evaluative attention. It seemed to be going in the right direction.

Grant #33

Grantee: City of Newark, New Jersey, and the Newark Human Rights Commission in conjunction with the Newark Police Department

Amount: \$99,284

Dates: June 1966 to December 1967

Purpose: This is a pilot project with intensive small group training among 150 police and 150 disadvantaged citizens in a joint 16-week course on police-community relations.

Summary

The objectives of the program according to the report are

1. to create a training center where civilians and police can examine their negative stereotypes and resolve the antipathies that estrange them from each other;
2. to devise techniques where the message of the program would be carried back to the larger community and
3. to research and evaluate the success of the program in meeting objectives.

In October 1966 an expert in small group dynamics from Scientific Resources, Inc., was brought in to train 14 civilians and 12 police officers to act as tandem leaders in small group discussions, and a full week of leadership training was given to them before the opening of the program. The civilians were voluntarily recruited on the basis of their influential position

in the neighborhood and the police were assigned by the department. There were superior officers, sergeants and lieutenants chosen on the criteria that their duties involved them with substantial public contact.

During the existence of the program from November 1966 to May 1967 they conducted five separate training programs, each of 25 hours or four weeks duration and each program included from 45 to 60 individuals with an approximately equal balance between police and civilians. All the programs were essentially similar and a total of 303 participants (165 civilians and 138 police) received training during its duration. The police recruitment for these members was by random selection from a list of ranks up to and including sergeants, but civilian participation was voluntary and was recruited by community agencies and organizations such as the Welfare Department, Neighborhood Youth Corps, Human Rights Commission and so on. The civilians were supposed to be representative of, or influential within, the community.

To transform negative stereotypes into sympathetic orientations the staff relied upon five "classical pedagogic techniques:" lectures, visual aids, small group discussions, trained tandem leaders for field trips to police and civilian sites, and situational role playing.

A post program evaluation questionnaire was also constructed to measure the degree of feedback that the graduated participants had in carrying the message back to the community.

An interesting phase of the project was that undergraduate social science majors from college were hired to train as observers so that they could maintain diaries of all phases of the program.

A typical program started at 9:00 a.m. and finished about 12:30 p.m. Started at 9:00 a.m. with a leadership training sessions, 9:15 a.m. the participants were given the day's format, at 9:30 a.m. a session in the lecture hall started and at 9:45 a.m. the lecture began, a tape recorder was turned on and the speaker began his lecture and concluded in 30 minutes to allow 15 minutes to answer questions, at 10:45 a coffee break, 11:00 discussion groups and 12:00 adjournment for the participants and a training sessions for leaders. By 12:30 there was adjournment for the leaders.

The titles of some of the lectures were poverty and prejudice, poverty and crime, poverty's culture, problems of the police, aspects of discrimination, so on, the role of the press, impact of recent court decisions, and the city we live in.

The quest for outstanding lectures proved difficult, but



they managed to recruit some prominent people from law enforcement agencies, Sealy and Mangam of New York, Dan Dodson of New York University, Paul Lipsit of Boston University, the Dean of Rutgers Law School, a United States District Court of Appeals judge.

Apparently, there was little evidence of change as a result of participation in the program. The question of whether the discussion leaders were effective has to be, according to the report, a qualified yes. The basic obstacle to effective leadership was the leader's identification with his respective group. Police officers remained police officers and citizens remained citizens. There was no attempt made to involve activist individuals. Only the influential community leaders participated in the project.

~~Although the original~~ experimental design did call for an experimental as well as a control group, it was impossible to get these groups organized, so, evidently there was no real experimental design to check whether there was an improvement in the experimental group as compared with the control group.

The training period was not long enough or designed in the right sequence to accomplish designed goals. The turnover of group leaders did not allow individuals an opportunity to learn from previous mistakes.

One interesting fact developed by the questionnaire on pages 101 and 102 is that while civilians thought that the problem between police and community was caused by both police and civilians, the policemen thought themselves completely blameless and thought that civilians were totally guilty.

On pages 105 and 106 of the report the statement appears that there was an improvement in police attitudes in making more conciliatory statements thus improving police community relations. In other words, before the program they were less conciliatory and after the program they were more conciliatory.

One interesting test given to the participants was the Osgood Semantic Differential test. The Osgood Semantic Differential test is based on a response to pairs of adjectives that are opposite, such as good-bad, clean-dirty, hard-soft, and so on. In each case the trigger word is given and the response is rated along a continuum between the two opposite adjectives. There are three general factors: 1. an evaluation factor, 2. a potent factor and 3. an activity factor.

This was almost a case of over-evaluation. As far as the report indicated, there was no follow-up on the results of this test.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 33

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

In a small way.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Apparently not very great.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

It is discouraging to learn that this fairly well operated project was unable to break the barriers between citizen and police.

Grant #36

Grantee: United Planning Organization, Washington, D.C.

Amount: \$122,677

Dates: June 1966 to September 1968

[This project was later continued under grant #264 in which \$84,991 was given in addition to the original grant.]

Purpose: To establish a Citizen's Information Service (CIS) providing screening, referral and follow-up services to people with problems that were formerly taken to the United States Attorney's Office.

#### Summary

The Citizen's Information Service (CIS) project was an answer to the following problems: The United States Attorney's Office in Washington, D.C. roughly corresponds to the District Attorney's Office in other cities. The office is under the control of a chief assistant United States Attorney with one deputy and a small number of assistants who are usually men of little experience. There is a high turnover rate among the assistants.

For the following reasons, the grantees felt that something should be done: The Office of the United States Attorney is overwhelmed by a number of citizens' complaints -- 14,000 each year, 90% of which are not really relevant to the work

of the office. Most citizens are turned away without help. The complaints of the citizens cover a wide variety of problems, essentially social rather than legal. The second problem is that there is no real central agency to receive citizens' complaints. Thirdly, there is no agency and no resource for complainants to be heard promptly and in private. The fourth is that police community relations in deprived neighborhoods are deteriorating because police send complainants to the United States Attorney's Office for help, and when they are turned away, there is resentment against the police for their part in what appears to the citizen to be a farce. The fifth problem is that there is no central source of data which contains material and documentation of the work of the community institutions in relation to the needs of the citizens. The sixth is the lack of sufficient numbers of professional personnel in the field of social work and law.

For all these reasons, it was proposed to establish a new screening and referral service for citizens' complaints which would be staffed by both professional and non-professionals. This could offer legal and social referrals to appropriate community resources. Legal referrals would be to the United States Attorney's Office, neighborhood law offices of the Legal Aid Society, lawyer referral service, and so on. Social

citizen aides and a second clerk typist, and toward the end of the year five more citizen aides and a third clerk typist.

A Citizens Information Service Advisory Board was established, and at the first meeting in August 1966 the following committees were established: 1. Personnel Committee; 2. Nominating and By-laws Committee; 3. Community Resources Committee; 4. Space Committee; 5. Training and Research Committee.

An evaluation phase was built into the project. This was to be undertaken by the United Planning Organization (UPO) Research Division with the help of outside consultants. Research efforts were to be focused upon the documentation of CIS operations. For example, a) how clients got to CIS; b) where they live; c) the nature of the problem; d) referral resources and the outcome of referrals; e) relationship between supply and demand for service and peak and low peak periods of demand; f) other questions relating to future possible decentralization; and g) other questions relating to future operations without OLEA funds.

There is a hope that the method of handling citizen complaints by CIS may be the forerunner to a national system of such services. All metropolitan communities share this problem. It has been shown that the long established social and legal institutions do not reach the poor multi-problem families in

referrals would be to the Health and Welfare Council and other agencies, especially neighborhood-based agencies.

The CIS intends to keep records for a year to show where clients come from, what their problems are, where they went for help, what help was received. This will provide the basis for intelligent planning for neighborhood decentralized CIS offices. The CIS project employs people who live in, and who have intimate knowledge of the various neighborhoods. These are citizen aides to establish and maintain personal relations with the people who run other services, thus insuring that no referrals are made from the CIS unless real help is available at the other end. These citizen aides are required to maintain cooperative relations with the police in the neighborhoods which they represent and to assist the police in acquiring more information about community resources.

It is estimated that approximately 15,000 citizens will be served during a year's operation. These complainants would be poor and ill-informed. Persons who can afford lawyers or psychiatrists, or who know where to go for help do not typically seek help at offices such as this.

The plan for personnel for a year's operation envisions a project director, a receptionist-typist, an attorney, a social worker, five citizen aides, one clerk typist, five more

any significant numbers; the CIS may. It can serve as a needed catalyst in urban centers to weld the social and legal complexes into a functioning unit. The second significant development from the CIS, it is hoped, will be the training and education of people into new career lines in the "human services." A third point was the mutual education that would result from the activities of the CIS in which assistant aides would be accepted as colleagues to the professionals whom they encountered in their work, and to whom they will impart their particular kind of information which professionals truly need. In April 1967 the office hours were extended from the usual 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. to 7:00 p.m. on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays, and on Saturdays from 9:00 a.m. to 12:00. The CIS has developed a counseling service to help people who may become alcoholics, and to try to solve family crisis incidents by counseling.

77% of incoming referrals usually come from law enforcement agencies or the United States Attorney's Office. 60% of the clients are referred to community resources with no one resource serving the majority. A citizens' aide has been assigned to the United States Attorney's Office on a full time basis to make services available to more citizens who come to the United States Attorney's Office and need guidance there. The majority of the problems involve legal matter. More than



one-half of the legal cases involve family or marital problems. The second largest category of legal cases involves general property disputes, and the third is disputes between landlord and tenant. During the first year of operation 11,076 clients were served. 4,926 of these were for information only, either by person or telephone, and of those seeking help rather than information, 3,399 appeared in person, 2,251 called by telephone.

The recommendations of the group indicate that

1. a closer look should be taken at the use of peace bonds in other jurisdictions, and the possible use of this procedure by the District of Columbia, because approximately two out of every five clients interviewed by the staff of CIS require the issuance of a peace bond;
2. the services of the CIS should be decentralized into the neighborhoods of the community where they are most needed;
3. CIS will need public funding in fiscal 1969; and
4. the program of CIS should be expanded to include some of the services embodied in the ombudsman concept.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 36

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

For the most part, yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Only in the sense that it had not been tried in Washington, D.C. before.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes, it might have.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Possibly.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. Why it did not gain wide acceptance.

7. Remarks.

This project had important implications as an answer to the failure of institutions for minority group people. For some unknown reason the community did not make use of it.

Grant #40

Grantee; New York State Identification and Intelligence System

Amount: \$180,000

Dates: July 1966 to May 1968

Purpose: To develop an automatic license plate scanning system, acronym ALPS.

Summary

It was proposed to employ automatic equipment-cameras and other scanning equipment located at sites where many cars pass, such as entrances to tunnels, toll gates, and thruways. The equipment would read and record the New York State automobile license plates. The information would be sent through a communications link to a central computer that would check the incoming data against a list of wanted plates. If a wanted plate was detected, a notification was given to a stand-by police officer who would intercept the vehicle.

The justification for this project was that the IACP survey disclosed that police chiefs throughout our country believed that automobiles were involved in from 65 to 90 percent of crimes reported to the police. There was also the ever increasing problem of stolen automobiles. The project report asserted that its proposed method would be much better than the usual method in which a police officer checked

license numbers selectively or instituted road blocks that resulted finally in a police chase and a discharge of fire arms.

The mass checking of license plates by ALPS would help to 1) prevent crimes involving motor vehicles, 2) swiftly identify wanted persons and vehicles upon the highway, 3) permit apprehension without jeopardizing public support or civil liberties and with a minimum hazzard to those involved, 4) curtail juvenile delinquency by making the joy-ride theft an unattractive gamble, 5) curb the interstate transportation of stolen vehicles, and 6) provide a discreet method of surveillance of movements of motor vehicles. The project would be of value to state, local and federal law enforcement agencies.

There were to be three phases. The first phase was the program definition, phase two was the development of the prototype, and phase three was the evaluation.

#### Evaluation

The above report was taken from the proposal. Since then the final report has been received. There has been a prototype developed. A cost benefit analysis has been made that seems to justify the expenditure. The project is ready to proceed, given the money.

This is an innovative use of a computer linked up to a camera. It seems to be a practical system that will pay off in possible prevention of crime and in an increased arrest rate.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 40

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No. It was never put into practice.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes. It was one of the few computer projects that did not restrict itself to mere information retrieval.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

It may have in the future.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

It may have in the future.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Possibly.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

From a police point of view a license plate scanning system of this kind would be very helpful. The cost-benefit analysis in support of this project was one of the few studies of this type conducted by OLEA grantees and should be analyzed as a possible model.

Grant #41

Grantee: Center for Study of Crime, Delinquency and Corrections,  
Southern Illinois University

Amount: \$189,236

Dates: July 1966 to June 1968

Purpose: This was a Regional Correctional Training Development Laboratory for Middle Management in Correction "to bridge the gulf . . . between the behavioral sciences and practice in the correctional field."

Summary

The training program set as its goals:

1. To give trainers substantive knowledge of history of and trends in corrections.
2. To provide training in learning principles; human behavior, and teaching techniques.
3. To afford practice in teaching under supervision.
4. To demonstrate that training could become a tool for management in effectuating change in correctional practice.

In 1966 only 25% of the correctional agencies had full time training officers -- (according to a survey by Southern Illinois University.) To correct this the project hoped to develop training officers.

A staff of experts was collected, Ph.D.'s in psychology sociology, M.A.'s in correctional education and criminology, and a M.S. in behavioral sciences.

A doctoral student in sociology was given the responsibility of handling the evaluation. Ten graduate students were assigned for various roles. Consultants were also employed.

The conceptual framework of the curriculum was built upon

the introduction of the behavioral sciences, particularly sociology, psychology and management, into a correctional program.

Consultants were sent to prisons to find out the content of their training programs. Visits were made by staff to prisons.

In current programs the staff observed that there was:

1. Emphasis upon security and custody.
2. Prison personnel held neutral and negative attitudes towards training.
3. A tremendous gulf between units of the institution. Poor communication was the rule.
4. Training officers felt they had little impact on trainees.
5. Prisons were isolated from other agencies.
6. Staff held pessimistic attitudes about inmates and had little faith in rehabilitation.
7. Staff felt it should be isolated from inmates.
8. There appeared to be an element of restraint.
9. Problem incidents were caused by staff treatment of inmates.
10. Staff was lax in security and custody procedures.
11. There was very little in-service training.

The nine-week session for curriculum planning was divided into training, curriculum, student teaching, and administrative support. A set of lesson plans was prepared. The third segment was a joint effort planning a one-week middle management program. There was a period devoted to producing stimulating audio visual teaching aids. Several pilot programs were held for administrators.

In the nine-week long workshop for middle management, 17 states were eligible. Thirteen states attended as well as

Tennessee and Virginia from the South.

The program schedule was as follows:

First week: Orientation and selection of topics for presentation by the trainers (and later on to a group of correctional officers).

Second week: History of corrections and role of correctional officers.

Third week: Social class, group structure, and communication.

Fourth week: Correctional program for staff and inmates.

Fifth-Sixth week: Instructional methods.

Seventh-Eight week: Trainers practical teaching -- students were correctional officers.

Ninth week: Combined institute for training officers and middle management.

#### Evaluation

Although the evaluation and follow-up were incomplete, this was nevertheless an imaginative, well conceived program. A sensible instructors manual was prepared which would be helpful to any training officer.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #41

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

A well done project. The incomplete evaluation is a substantial loss. It may have pointed the way to improving a sound approach.

Grant #42

Grantee: New Orleans Police Department, New Orleans, Louisiana

Amount: \$62,077

Dates: August 1966 to June 1967

Purpose: A police-community relations training course for the entire city police department, about 1,100 men plus 100 key officials from four surrounding parishes.

Summary

The course would include about 18 hours of lecture and group discussion. The narrative report is a discussion of the problems that emerged from the lecture material and the way it was presented. Some of the questions treated here: How did the speakers make contact? How did they really try to change attitudes? What was the effect upon the men?

There was no correlation between the literature and the material. All the publications except one were from one organization, the Anti-Defamation League, and, as the report notes, this proved to be the red cape waved at the bull. In one of the sessions a two-week period was devoted to A Police-man Looks at Himself. Ironically, none of the speakers had any law enforcement background, but they were members of the Anti-Defamation League. The Police and the Juvenile Offender

topic was received a little better because a local state juvenile officer and judge lectured on it.

The period devoted to extremist groups was taught by Sergeant Fanning of the Chicago Police Training Academy and Mr. Mears, formerly commanding officer of the Civil Disobedience Squad of the Philadelphia Department. Other subjects were Emotionally Distrubed Citizens and Deviant Behavior, and Effective Police Communication.

#### Evaluation

The proposal for the program was fragmented and disconnected. There was not much chance for the men to agree or disagree with any items. The literature distributed was irrelevant - given out all at the same time, it seemed like brainwashing. Its sources were limited.

The proposal was directed to all police department members including maintenance men and secretaries. Since the classes were two hours every other week for eighteen weeks there was little sustained interest in them. The curriculum was not oriented to specific duties so that it was irrelevant to many.

The goals of the program were vague. Stated in the proposal - it aimed to improve the racial situation, create better understanding between police and Negroes. In some quarters

the goals were "to make the police think." Discussion leaders shared the confusion and did not know what they were supposed to achieve in terms of goals. Sometimes discussion leaders imposed their views and stifled contrary opinions.

The police department had little involvement in the program. It seemed as if an outside group was trying to infiltrate the program.

There seemed to be little communication between the administrators of the program and the department. When a weekly reporting procedure in the department was started, a positive rapport was developed.

Because of the early suspicion and the criticism of the program by the men, the Superintendent spoke on behalf of the program in a taped message. Officers asked that speakers with police experience be used and that other viewpoints be represented. This was arranged.

As the department became involved - in offering the facilities of the Police Training Academy, in reviewing literature before distribution, with the commanding officer offering constructive criticisms, the operation of the project became easier.

Attitude Changes - Mainly because of greater police department involvement, the initial fear, suspicion, etc. gave way to acceptance. A change in the orientation seemed to enhance positive feeling towards the program: Discussion leaders made an effort to understand police views and the police were more receptive too.

Policemen were generally more open-minded towards men who had law enforcement experience. After getting through the initial period of "bitching", the men and the discussion leaders developed a definite rapport.

A questionnaire aimed:

- 1) to note changes in attitude towards the program,
- 2) to note changes in attitude towards in-service training,
- 3) to get written comments on the program.

Of the 95% returned completed questionnaires, about 65% indicated positive attitudes. About 45% of these said that they had undergone attitude change - from unfavorable to favorable. About 30% of the participants maintained either bad or indifferent attitudes. Only two respondents changed their initial favorable attitudes during the course of the program.

Of the 233 written comments received, 118 were definitely favorable, 50 as unfavorable.

In spite of the positive attitudes developed there was a significant lack of concrete suggestions toward improving

the department. It was suggested that each discussion group should have prepared to present a "positive imperative" to the department at the close of each class.

Unfavorable comments showed the general police distrust of those in the behavioral sciences. Perhaps an effective orientation session could have lessened these resistances, it was suggested. Officers contended that those who studied human behavior were out of contact with reality.

"It is apparent that we have lost our country" was one negative comment. Extreme right-wing sympathizers were among the ranks of the police. Material that came in the mail reinforced anti-program feelings. At first these outside forces had an important influence on the officers' feelings, but by the final stages only a small hard-core group maintained these views.

There was some discontent about officers having to attend classes on their own time, although they were to receive 24 hours compensatory time for 18 hours in class. Many continued to feel, however, that the training should be done on the department's time. Others saw the program as a job of a "Federal-Socialist" oriented agency, (the Anti-Defamation League) in spite of the announcement that this was a LEA grant.

Some participants thought they should be rewarded for their completion of this course. However, the Administration could not award certificates of success to all - (since all did not complete the course with success), and there was no legitimate way of deciding who deserved a "degree" and who didn't.

Other comments found the project at fault for not orienting the police toward the program before ordering them to report to the Academy at an assigned time to attend classes they knew nothing about.

Some comments reflected the idea that having women discussion leaders was a bad idea.

#### Recommendations

1. An extensive orientation session - to tell participants about goals, reasons, sponsorship, etc. of the program.
2. Curriculum should have central theme - giving continuity to classes and topics.
3. Training should be within department units and not department wide. The classes should be scheduled more closely together than every two weeks. The in-service training should be held during working hours. An intense few days of classes might be more productive than the scattered classes.

Testing might be introduced into the program as a motivation. Certificates, rewards, (such as steps towards promotion) should be given to those with passing grades.

Reporting to P.D. - Each project should be in weekly contact with the police department so as to gain feedback from them and vice versa. This would help keep the police department involved, and could also help it to solve problems. Good communication between the two would help to create the identification of the police department with the PCR Project.

Coordination of Project with Local Department - Key personnel - Training Directors from within the department. Utilization of built-in lines of communication within the department.

The "grapevine" was found to be a great help in program acceptance. It was also important in finding out rumors about the program. Rumors should be paid attention to by the project administrators. Untrue ones should be corrected as soon as possible before they were accepted as fact, and make the PCR job more difficult.

Project "Leader" from within the department - to involve a police leader and gain his confidence helps gain the confidence of the men under him.



Recommendations to OLEA

1. "To insure that the terms of authority and responsibility are clearly defined in the proposal." In this case when the lines of authority and responsibility were not clearly defined, important decisions were postponed.

2. "Continuity of curriculum if it is included in the proposal." The OLEA might distribute a list of policemen or ex-policemen who know curriculum design, to serve as consultants to insure a unified curriculum.

3. A compilation of professional police trainers should be made available to grantees. New Orleans' Project had trouble finding speakers with police background during its first eight weeks.

4. All major police departments should agree to participate fully with OLEA programs wherever possible, Schools of Criminology, Police Science, Police Administration, etc. A National Conference or Steering Committee could coordinate this participation. National resources should be available to local projects.

Salary Studies - Since most programs are short-term with no security, higher salaries should be offered to get capable administrators.

Periodic Conferences - Nationally or regionally for project administrators to exchange problems and solutions. Using OLEA "Dissemination Officers" as coordinators, they could learn problems and spread information to other future projects. "The establishment of field officers in the regional centers, might "facilitate the review of proposals and provide closer personal contact with individual projects."

Additional Comments

Discussion leaders and coordinators were harassed by segregationists and anti-semites. Discussion sessions were often teaching sessions instead of discussion. In training the discussion leaders, the emphasis had been misplaced on group dynamics. It should have been on discussion techniques.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 42

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

In some small ways.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

See below.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This project might have been doomed from the outset. It might serve as a model of what not to do when operating this sort of program.

Grant #43

Grantee: Judicial Research Foundation, Inc.

Amount: \$8,931

Dates: June 1966 to December 1967

Purpose: A two-day judges' conference to define needs of lower courts' case handling and to recommend methods for dealing with problems.

Summary

This project defined the nature of the problems that caused justice in the lower courts to be inadequate; in what ways it is inadequate; and suggested the means to correct these deficiencies and implement remedies. Included for consideration were anticipated problems of the next 20 years.

The method used was the panel of experts approach. Two separate conferences composed of different conferees and devoted to different tasks were held. The experts were handpicked judges from lower courts who were thoroughly familiar with the issues at stake. The participants were: William H. Burnett (Denver County Court); Francis A. Cochran (Los Angeles Municipal Court); Keith J. Leenhouts (Royal Oak, Michigan Municipal Court), Eugene K. Mangum (Phoenix City Court); John F. Martin (San Diego Municipal Court); John M. Murtagh (New York City Criminal Courts);

Earle W. Frost (Kansas City Municipal Court); Byron Haworth (High Point, North Carolina, Municipal Court); Maurice D. Jones (Salt Lake City Municipal Court); J. Earl Langner (Birmingham, Alabama Records Court); Claude M. Owens (Anaheim, California Municipal Court); Francis Z. Poynton (Cook County Circuit Court); David N. Strausser (Corona, California Municipal Court); Glen R. Winters; Laurence M. Hyde, Jr. and Geoffrey C. Hazard, Jr.

The first conference was attended by 13 participants and a moderator. It was devoted to defining, enumerating and discussing the problems of the lower courts and expressing the feelings of the judges towards their work. The discussions were directed into four broad topics: 1) problems attributable to court structures; 2) problems of operation and procedure, 3) problems of public policy, and 4) problems of restrictions on the judge.

The second conference was attended by four persons who were designated as a Task Force whose purpose was to review the problems defined at the first conference and recommend methods of solution. Each recommendation was considered by all members of the Task Force, though not all were unanimously endorsed. However, it was the Task Force members' feelings that the recommendations themselves, whatever their particular

merits, were at least useful and responsible.

The proceedings of the two conferences were edited and published in a report entitled, Struggle for Equal Justice: A Report on Neglect and Crisis in the Lower Courts. The style of this report revealed still another--unstated but implicit--purpose of the conference, namely, to overcome public apathy toward the lower courts and to initiate the move toward reform. The imperative need for such reform was underscored (literally) in the salutation of the cover letter which was the first page of the report. It read: "TO WHOM IT MUST CONCERN." This tone of urgency was repeated over and over again throughout the report.

Still another unscheduled but perhaps inevitable purpose of these conferences was a political one--to improve the public's image of the judiciary's stand on law and order. This was "inevitable" because of the inextricable relationship between the administration of justice and politics--made especially apparent by the fact that several of the judge-conferees held elected judgeships. This purpose was achieved in different ways. For one thing, the judges attempted to heal the rift between the courts and the police by promulgating the following guidelines of basic judicial policy:

- a) Judges understand and appreciate the responsibility of the police officer, and share his disappointment and frustration resulting from court delays, improper plea-bargaining, the over-load of cases, citizen disrespect for law, absurd charges of "police brutality," and the highly dangerous policies of "permissiveness" that pervades the law enforcement effort.
- b) Judges recognize that there has been a trend to over-emphasize the rights of the individual as opposed to the right of society to live in a climate of law and order.
- c) Judges re-affirm their objective of supporting, not hindering, the efforts of all who seek to enforce the law. They desire to encourage, not to frustrate, the efforts of police for proper law enforcement. They will not in any way contribute to the lessening of police morale, or to supporting feelings of futility.
- d) Judges specifically extend their invitation to join with law enforcement officers for meaningful discussions of mutual problems and respective spheres of responsibility, at the local, state and national level, for the purpose of fostering better understanding and further cooperation to attain mutual objectives.\*

The report states that these guidelines were promulgated for the express purpose of inter alia "reassuring law enforcement personnel everywhere."\*\*

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\* The Judicial Research Foundation, Inc. Struggle for Equal Justice: A Report on Neglect and Crisis in the Lower Courts (Washington, D.C., The Judicial Research Foundation, Inc., 1969), p. 25.

\*\* Ibid. p. 25.

Another resolution showed that the judges were strongly against the current vogue for social protest and dissent.

The judges declared:

"Civil Disobedience, when it amounts to the violation of any criminal statute or ordinance, must be abolished in this nation. No citizen, or group of citizens, can elect to violate the law in the name of any cause, however altruistic it may be." \*

The report concluded with over 35 specific recommendations which were divided into six categories:

- A. Problems of such importance that steps must be taken immediately to obtain solutions.
- B. Problems given number 2 priority.
- C. Problems given number 3 priority.
- D. Problems given number 4 priority.
- E. Problems not susceptible to a given time priority.
- F. Specific proposals for emergency action.

These categories were then further subdivided. In the top priority category were listed the following needs:

- 1. court reorganization
- 2. professionalization
- 3. improved staffing and facilities
- 4. improved bail and summons

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\* Ibid. p. 28.



5. improved mass trials in civil disorders
6. provision of pre-sentence investigation
7. provision of probation services
8. orientation and training of judges
9. public education to needs of the court
10. short-term correctional facilities

Second in order of priority were:

1. resolve issue of free press v. fair trial
2. adequate court personnel
3. adequate court facilities
4. use of non-professional court personnel
5. elimination of trial de novo
6. increase use and regulation of plea bargaining
7. provide counsel of indigents
8. eliminate mandatory sentences
9. improve conduct of the minor civil courts

Third in order of priority were:

1. decriminalize traffic cases
2. decriminalize alcohol cases
3. decide whether to decriminalize drug abuse cases
4. develop court calendar management and docket control
5. give greater attention to problem of shoplifting

Fourth in order of priority were:

1. reduce delay due to use of juries
2. eliminate preliminary arraignments in felony cases
3. eliminate trial de novo
4. establish and expand night and neighborhood courts
5. give greater attention to minor crimes among family and friends
6. give greater attention to misuse of vagrancy laws

Some topics which were not given a time priority were:

1. provide guidelines for sentencing
2. clarify the status of the judiciary as autonomous branch of government
3. devise methods for optimum allocation of judge's time
4. improve public opinion towards court reform

Some specific proposals for emergency action included:

1. establish a federal commission to help implement the recommendations of the study
2. unify lower courts in a state court system
3. arouse support of groups capable of assistance
4. survey of the lower courts to determine their location, staffs, facilities, jurisdiction, procedures, and practices
5. initiate stop-gap measures such as up-grading and re-organization\*

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\* The repetition of some topics was not explained.

### Evaluation

It should be noted that the time period (6/1/66 to 12/31/67) during which this project operated coincided to some extent with the operation of the President's Commission on

Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice which devoted one of its task forces to the study of the problems of the courts. That task force reported 36 specific recommendations\* virtually all of which were repeated by the Judicial Research Foundation (JRF) study. The latter went only slightly further by singling out for special mention certain topics such as the inadequacy of the courts to handle mass disorders.

Through the clear vision of hindsight it is obvious that the JRF study duplicated the President's Crime Commission's work. One wonders whether this could have been foreseen before the study was funded and whether this duplication could have been avoided. And, one further wonders whether duplication was a non-optimum use of research funds. The project was a "success" but it had already been done elsewhere. What utility or disutility does it have given these circumstances?

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\*President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: The Courts, (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967). p. 3.

Obviously, one of its greatest values was that it arrived at generally the same conclusions as the President's study. This replication enhanced the value of both studies by illustrating the widespread consensus among the experts as to what the problems were and what should be done about them.

Other less obvious and more limited benefits of the project were that it, in itself, was a direct step toward the upgrading of lower courts by allowing at least a few of the judges from those courts to mutually inspire each other and gain new perspectives on their role as judicial officers and their status in the legal profession. Judges are notorious for their independence and resistance to outside prodding--for research purposes or upgrading purposes.

Although the call had gone out by JRF and many others to upgrade lower court judges no one had yet designed an acceptable means of "teaching" or "guiding" or "upgrading" these professional men who with good reason were sensitive to direct efforts to "improve" them. Richard Korn of the School of Criminology of the University of California, Berkeley, and his Bay Area Associates have engaged in projects designed to increase judges' sensitivity to the criminal's plight. Participating judges have often revealed their resistance to this kind of "outsider's" efforts to "improve" the judiciary.

Perhaps the most subtle way of making these improvements is by using the format used by JRF for this project,

i.e., a panel of experts "defining" their problems. However, this format would in reality be a diversion for the real work of the meeting, namely, direct upgrading by mutual inspiration and collective self-criticism. The conferences would be held officially for the purpose of discovering the problems of the court but would really be designed to achieve a clandestine purpose, teaching and upgrading the judges.

The JRF study unwittingly exemplified how this can be done and should be regarded as a "success" as a model for programs designed to upgrade the lower court judiciary directly.

It is amazing that the authors of the study did not realize this. The authors and participants were so busy looking at things outside themselves they failed to include in their analysis and recommendations one fundamental problem in particular that was repeatedly mentioned in the conference sessions and which is interrelated with many of the issues for which there were specific recommendations. This problem was the matter of the judges' own opinions of themselves as judges.

One of the exceptional values of the study was its provision of a record of the judges' candid discussion of this matter of judicial self-esteem. Repeatedly, the judges referred to their professional inferiority complexes as a result of their being judges of "inferior" courts. But,

nowhere in the conclusions section of the study did the authors specifically refer to court reforms that were specially designed to increase the judges' self esteem. Of course, giving the judge better facilities and larger staffs and more judicial discretion and authority would no doubt also indirectly have this beneficial effect. But, the point is that a conference devoted to defining problems and in which a particular--and apparently crucial--problem was repeatedly mentioned should not neglect to cite specifically this problem.

Another irony in the study is that it doesn't recognize that it, itself, was the answer to some of the central issues it raised. By inviting these select judges to a secluded mountain resort to discuss their problems, the project produced a noticeable (from the remarks in the transcript) improvement in the judges' self-esteem and may have pioneered an acceptable method for doing this for other members of the lower courts.

In sum, the study was in a sense successful in spite of itself. It not only uncovered a sensitive topic, viz., judicial self-esteem (which was nowhere mentioned in the report of the President's Task Force on the Courts), but it also found a way of dealing with the issue. Neither of these discoveries were recognized by or capitalized upon by the study's authors. But in view of the fact that virtually

everything else in the study repeated the President's Commission's study, these two findings may well represent the major new contribution of the JRF study. It is an unfortunate oversight of the authors of the JRF study to have missed this issue in their analysis of the problems defined at the conference. Had they grasped this issue and dealt with it more directly the study would have been more than a list of things to be done immediately. It would also have been easier to justify funding this project which added virtually nothing to what was done by the President's Commission's study.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 43

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes, in that it developed many recommendations to improve the court system.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No. Most conferences of this type are not productive.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. Especially in relation to the courts.

7. Remarks.

This conference project was surprisingly productive.



Grant #47

Grantee: Eastern Kentucky State College, Richmond, Kentucky

Amount: \$36,844

Dates: June 1966 to February 1968

Purpose: To develop a two-year and four-year law enforcement degree program.

Summary

At the time of this grant Eastern Kentucky University had a school of law enforcement in existence with a class of 40 students and the OLEA grant made it possible to expand the program. At the initiation of the project, the staff consisted of the project director and three part time teachers.

The curriculum leading to an associate of arts degree in law enforcement was developed by conferences among the deans of the university, the consultants supplied by the IACP, and also the recommendations of the American Association of Police Professors. In addition, they sought catalogues and other information from most of the police science programs throughout the United States.

The associate program was a two-year program of 59 credits, but appeared heavily weighted in favor of law enforcement subjects, to the exclusion of general subjects in the humanities and social sciences. They also developed law enforcement

degrees with special titles such as: associate degree in law enforcement -- juvenile ; associate degree in law enforcement -- corrections; and associate degree in law enforcement -- industrial security; in which the specialized subjects are slightly different and pertain to the special title.

The bachelor of science degree was developed for the total of 131 semester hours required. Students majoring in law enforcement were requested to minor in sociology, psychology, business or political science. A graduate of the school of police administration and public safety of Michigan State University was employed as a full time faculty member. The director of the State police crime laboratory and a retired FBI agent were employed part time. Extension classes were developed in half a dozen cities in Kentucky. Two full time faculty members were employed effective September 1, 1967 in addition to the man from Michigan State. The school had five full time faculty and four part time faculty.

The latest enrollment figures revealed 222 students majoring in law enforcement. Arrangements were made with state police and the police of several cities to provide for expenses including travel, books, and tuition, if necessary. A scholarship program was created using money from part of the OLEA grant, and an advisory scholarship committee had been set up to determine who would receive the scholarships.

Obviously, there was an emphasis on law enforcement subjects because 31 credits of the 59 had to be in law enforcement in the two-year degree program and approximately 39 credits in the four-year bachelor of science program required in law enforcement.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 47

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The special degree programs are misleading, unnecessary, and unwarranted upon the basis of real differences in the training.

Grant #49

Grantee: The Philadelphia Police Department

Amount: \$76,367

Dates: July 1966 to September 1967

Purpose: To develop and test an operations research model  
for crime prediction.

Summary

The Philadelphia Police Department proposed to develop a new model for crime prediction. It was based upon the hypothesis that each crime is surrounded by a characteristic pattern of circumstances, and that computers have the capacity when fed a proper program to analyze all the surrounding data and determine the correlation of these factors with the crime. Some of the factors which it intended to use, although these were not exclusive, were: time, date, weather conditions, type of premises, location, unemployment rate in the neighborhood, racial character of the neighborhood, proximity to a tap room, street lighting, weather, and scores of other factors.

The department hired as a consultant the well known criminologist, Marvin Wolfgang of the University of Pennsylvania. In addition, it contracted the services of the Franklin Institute Research Laboratory which did studies of a scientific nature, as well as operations research and systems analysis.

The Philadelphia Department expected delivery of an IBM 1440 computer (8K Core-No random access), and as part of this project would use the services of an IBM 7094 computer for several hours.

The project was divided into two phases, and each phase into several tasks:

Phase one was devoted to Model Development and Refinement. The first task in this phase was to determine significant factors in the incidence of crime. These were objective and subjective factors based on the feelings of experienced police officers. Task two would be to determine whether statistical data were readily available for coding into the predictive model. Task three was to perform an initial multi-dimensional analysis based on the readily available data to determine the values of the factors. Task four would be to develop an initial predictive model based on the results of the multi-dimensional analysis. This model would be a computer program that would accept as input the characteristics of a particular program that would accept as input the characteristics of a particular situation, and would provide as output the types of crimes that were probable, as well as the actions that were required to prevent them. Task five was to test the initial model by comparing predictive crimes with the actual crimes. And task six was to refine a model by adding to the multi-

dimensional analysis the factors that were not originally included because of difficulty in obtaining them or lack of data.

Phase two -- Implementation and Evaluation. The first task of phase two was to prepare and debut the IBM 1440 computer program of the model. Task two would operate the final model during an implementation and training phase. Task three would operate the final model during an evaluation phase using both an experimental and a control group, some of which used a predictive model as a basis for preventive action and some which did not. There would also be different action strategies in connection with the prediction to determine the most effective action. Task four was to prepare a final report covering the results.

#### Evaluation

The reliance upon psychological scaling in order to assess the validity of subjective reports was also of questionable value in this study. Because the above report was taken from the application for the grant, the results of the project were not known.

The problem is that the factors chosen may be associated with crime, but merely coincidentally, not causally. Therefore, they probably will have no predictive value. This program is

starting from zero. It probably would be wiser to give a project of this type to the St. Louis Police Department which had already demonstrated the ability to predict volume of service, if not crime. St. Louis had a background of experience that would put them ahead of Philadelphia.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 49

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

In aspiration, yes, not in practice.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No. It failed.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. Why is it that the understanding of crime has advanced so little in 100 years.

7. Remarks.

At the time of the OLEA grant this project was bogged down. Since then, there have been reports that some routine results have been accomplished. However, they still fall far short of the original goal.

Grant #50

Grantee: City of Phoenix, Phoenix, Arizona

Amount: \$92,485

Dates: August 1966 to July 1968

Purpose: To develop a police records and data systems

designed to modernize and integrate existing system of data collection in order to improve the capacity for meeting operational, analytical, and reporting requirements.

Summary

The City of Phoenix hired the consultant firm of Griffenhagen-Kroeger, Inc., of San Francisco to assist. The whole project had the acronym LEADS, Law Enforcement Assistance Development Study. Its parts had two acronyms: ALERT, for Automated Law Enforcement Reporting Techniques, and AID for Analysis of Incidents and Deployment, a program similar to the one produced by the St. Louis Department (grant # 39) in which it analyzed called-for services over any past period of time and forecast the man-hour requirements to handle predicted work loads.

For the ALERT system, seven blocks of information were used, namely: warrants, field incidents, property information, extra-city interfaces (that means with the Department of

Justice National Crime Information Center, with the Auto Status computer, and the State Crime Center). There were also the police court information, administrative information, and reference index. For each of these seven sub-categories instructions were given on how to develop the input for the computer, and for each one the number of transactions in a month were estimated so as to ascertain the size of the computer that would be needed for information storage and retrieval. The ALERT system would make instantly available to the men any type of information that they desired on person, crime, record, auto, property, evidence, etc.

The other system, AID, was based on analysis of each incident reported on a dispatch card. The previous history of all dispatches was analyzed. A computer printout map, based on a grid system of the city, indicated the kind of police power that would be required on a prediction basis in any area of the city at any time of day, shift, beat, week, and month. Twenty-one maps could be produced for any week, one for each shift of each day. Similarly, reports and graphs could be produced to provide statistical data as to crime, volume, time of occurrence, etc. It could also produce the reports required by the FBI.

This system was essentially similar to the system used

by St. Louis (including the Pauly system of grids).

Referring once again to the ALERT system, this was really a system which provided administrative information so that, for example, when a citizen called there could be an immediate assignment of a radio car through the analysis of number of cars available, the number of men available, and so forth. When an officer called, the information became available immediately through computer usage.

All the specifications for a computer system were detailed, such as communications control, the kind of switching and storage of data, the capability of sending and receiving at different speeds, so that the central processing unit should have a real time time-sharing capability and a real time clock and interval timer available, provide comprehensive instruction, and include sophisticated hardware. There would be high-speed random access storage, approximately 200-million characters with provisions for expansion, maximum access time to any record of less than 100 milliseconds, and transmission at a speed in excess of 167,000 characters per second. Then there would be a lower speed random access storage, which would store approximately 300-million characters. This computer apparently was planned to use cobol language.

#### Evaluation

The project represented an attempt to apply existing

computer technology "across the board" in a city police department and to specifically improve communications and data handling. The project included information storage and retrieval, data processing of police records, voice and data communications, computer graphics and analysis and prediction of crime patterns. Thus, in scope, it encompassed the work envisioned in #153 for Boston, #167 for CLEAR, and #39 for St. Louis.

Unfortunately the available reports were not sufficiently informative as to what was actually accomplished. In fact, the summary report seemed more a statement of what the authors of the report would still like to accomplish and left unsaid what they actually got done. It appeared that this project benefitted from exposure to the St. Louis work, and from the AID (Analysis of Incident and Deployment) system of Phoenix. The Phoenix system became operational in July 1967 and seemed to have done for Phoenix what the #39 study did for St. Louis, but not enough information was provided to judge what methodology was used and how it compared to the St. Louis system.

The consultants to #50 were from a computer-oriented firm, and the city had no civilian employees such as in St. Louis or Cincinnati to develop the system. The end result was that the system was not an integral part of the police

department's functioning and was more what the computer consultant thought it should be. This could be gleaned from page 31 of the summary report where it was stated that the study had not been entirely successful in that the goals established by the staff at the beginning of the project were not generally met, even though the goals established in the grant application were generally met.

The project report itself provided a critique in which it admitted that it did not meet all of the goals. The appended material was taken from the final report, pp. 31-32.

## APPENDIX

## PROJECT CRITIQUE

Meeting Objectives

One measure of the success of a project is the degree to which original objectives have been attained. From this point of view, it can be said that this study has not been entirely successful. The explanation is that there were two sets of objectives for this project:

1. The goals established in the grant application, and
2. The goals established by the staff at the beginning of the work.

The former have generally been met; the latter have not.

The two major goals established in the grant application can be summarized as follows:

1. The modernization of police records and data systems.
2. The improvement of the value of the records system to the officer in the field.

These goals have been achieved at least in design form and we have no reason to believe that this design cannot be implemented. A number of improvements have been designed:

1. Almost all police records will be computer stored (or be available through other types of high-speed accessing techniques) and the information can be rapidly correlated and retrieved.

2. Stored information can be made available to officers in the field in significantly reduced time.
3. The scope of the information available to a field officer almost immediately will be considerably greater than before.
4. The method by which crime information is analyzed and reported has been considerably improved.
5. The receipt of complaints and the dispatch of assistance will be accomplished with reduced time and increased effectiveness.
6. The availability of investigative information will be revolutionized under the proposed system due to the mass of data on persons and property that can be instantly accessed.

In addition to meeting most of the project design objectives, the study produced an actual working system - AID. The AID system not only provides a better information base for manpower deployment, but it also provides a working system for analyzing crime and incident information.

On the other hand, some goals set by the staff at the outset of the project have not been entirely attained:

1. While some report consolidation and simplification have been achieved, still the field officers' report preparation time has not been significantly reduced.



2. While communications time between the field officer and the information system has been reduced, we were not able to achieve the ultimate of putting the officer directly on-line. This is less a system design problem than it is a technological problem.
3. The project did not, as we had intended, produce a truly metropolitan system. There is, however, the potential for any surrounding city to tie-in to the ALERT system with key-set terminals to receive limited persons or property information. If this is done, we believe that there is a future potential for developing a common comprehensive data bank for all agencies in the area providing the political complications can be overcome.

PAGES 832 - 843 WERE UNAVAILABLE AT TIME OF FILMING

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #50

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Only in part.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes, as an information system embodying data from several agencies of criminal justice.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

It may when it has been debugged.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was a typical computer project.

Grant #51

Grantee: California State Department of Justice, Sacramento,  
California

Amount: \$350,000

Dates: July 1966 to November 1968

Purpose: To develop an integrated state-wide criminal justice information system covering all components of law enforcement, corrections, and courts.

Summary

This was contracted out to the Lockheed Missiles and Space Company in Sunnyvale, California, which submitted the reports.

The California Criminal Justice Information System, known as the CJIS, was a plan to make an important body of information available to all units of the Criminal Justice System. It would be compatible with the California Law Enforcement Tele-Communications System that flashed fingerprints and pictures of wanted criminals and was used for rapid communication throughout the state. It would also be compatible with the Department of Motor Vehicles Automated Management Information System, and with the Department of Justice National Crime Information Center.

The content of the Criminal Justice System consisted

of automated data and files throughout the state collected under the following scheme: a personal data record for every person on whom there was a set of fingerprints in the active fingerprint file; for every person not fingerprinted, for whom a warrant was issued; a criminal history would be established for each person who was arrested, booked, convicted; an abbreviated crime summary; a conviction record; a warrant record; a juvenile index; a firearms and associated person record; a vehicle and associated person record; miscellaneous property file; a fraudulent document case file; criminal statistics, etc.

There would be available as a result of these files an immediate response to field inquiry. There would be automatic notices to agencies at each step of the way, and there would be a control on each case by a milestone and suspense control file in which each succeeding step was anticipated and called for. If the information was not entered, an inquiry was sent to make certain that it had not been overlooked.

There would also be a statistical accumulation so that there would be files on all important series of events. There would be interfaces with other systems in California and Washington, so that information could be shared. There would be three types of output: 1. action requests and requests for specific action by the agency receiving the

output; 2. information for decisions; and 3. information indexes which would be a reference for an agency.

The report went into great detail to demonstrate what kind of hardware would be needed. But it avoided stating exactly what computer was recommended, so that the number of terminals, the time of output, and the capability of output and input, and so forth, were discussed in general terms. There was an implication that some use would be made of the available RCA 201 computer.

The administration, recording and handling of criminal justice information in California cost about \$63 million, and they estimated that about \$13.5 million would be saved by installing this program. They also stated that if CJIS could bring about a one-percent reduction in crime, it would save the citizens of California \$22 million annually. The costs of the project were never clearly stated but they were charted, and would be somewhere near \$6 million.

#### Evaluation

The project was aiming for the stars. It would be an important gain for the criminal justice system if the various agencies had access to this information. However, with the experience of NYSIIS as a model, this project would take many years to be completed. Although the goal of a one-percent

reduction was modest, it probably would not be reached. The work of the various agencies of criminal justice seems to be regulated by forces that will not be greatly affected by the availability of more information.

The final report on CJIS by Lockheed also compared unfavourably with the reports from projects #167 and #39. By contrast, it resembled a preliminary study that should have been worth about \$50,000. It was not the definitive and substantial report one should expect for \$350,000.

Only general statements may be obtained from the study, e.g. on pp.2-6 section 2.1.4 the broad conclusion that could be drawn was that the software that must be developed included the following: a time sharing monitor and executive system; a file management system; an inquiry language and user interface system; batch processing considerations; utilities for batch operation on a real-time data base; programming and debugging aids. The conclusion went on to say "System Software for CJIS poses some challenging problems due to the system's size, complexity and requirements for interface with other systems. In some areas, software development must lead detailed analysis and design. Yet it must remain flexible so as to be responsive to the unique application requirements that will become evident as the system develops." Most of

the report was filled with such "soft" conclusions of a very preliminary nature.

As we stated above, it was the sort of report which one normally received at the very early stages of a system study and on that basis would be acceptable. But the personnel of the better computer projects did not spend \$350,000 coming up with their clearly superior, detailed specifications and software.

Again it seems that the main benefit of the project was to get Lockheed educated in the needs of police information and criminal justice systems. Personnel on such a project could have learned a lot from Project CLEAR instead of doing it from the beginning themselves. Obviously, the difference between an outside effort like Lockheed's versus an in-house effort such as performed by CLEAR and St. Louis makes the in-house efforts stand out.

Finally, as of November 1970 the California Law Enforcement Telecommunication System (CLETS) is in operation.\* It is the nation's largest state-wide computerized information system using four RCA Spectra 70/46 computers. It may fulfill the ambitious plans laid out in the OLEA project.

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\* Police (Nov.-Dec. 1970), pp. 78-81



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 51

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Yes, but it took several years beyond the end of the OLEA grant period for it to become operational.
2. Was the project innovative?  
Not very.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Only when it started daily operation in 1970.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
It will as a source of information.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
No.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
No.
7. Remarks.  
This project was definitely too expensive.

Grant #52 (See #313)

Grantee: University of Cincinnati (With Police Department)

Amount: \$62,678

Dates: 7/1/66 to 12/31/67

Purpose: Development and testing of curriculum and materials  
for junior high school social studies classes and local  
police academy to assist adolescents in understanding  
law enforcement concepts.

Grant #53

Grantee: Institute of Government, University of North Carolina

Amount: \$25,089

Dates: August 1966 to November 1967

Purpose: Management Training for police executives in North Carolina. Monthly 4-day sessions to total 20 days.

#### Summary

The five monthly sessions of 4 days each totalled 120 hours of classroom instruction together with outside assignments. Twenty-six police executives attended the sessions. The curriculum was formed on 6 basic administrative functions:

1. Management and Organization.
2. Personnel Administration.
3. Community Relations.
4. Administrative Practices.
5. Dynamics of Administration.
6. Control.

The courses were conducted by faculty of the University of North Carolina and 16 consultant lecturers. The evaluation was conducted by Dr. George of the University of North Carolina School of Business and by the IACP, but was not included in the report.

#### Evaluation

This was a standard management training course - necessary, sensible, but not really innovative in spite of some problem-oriented class sessions.

The best thing about it was the proposed evaluation by the IACP that undertook to examine the correlation between theories taught and the practical application in the field.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 53

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This is one of several OLEA funded police management training sessions. It would be worthwhile if the people who operated these sessions met and discussed their successes and failures, and attempted to develop a model training kit (or kits).

Grant #55

Grantee: Portland State College

Amount: \$81,572

Dates: June 1966 to June 1968

Purpose: To conduct in-service training and seminars in management and community relations for law enforcement personnel, and tie-in with undergraduate program.

Summary

The grantee made good use of this grant and interpreted its mandate loosely as an incentive to develop further the law enforcement program which was part of the Urban Studies Center at Portland State College.

The grant was used to expand three different components: 1) The Police Science Degree program--a 4-year baccalaureate in the social and behavioral sciences in which there was a core of 21 credits of police courses. (See attached pages). 2) Research into police administration, police training, and police-community relations, and 3) the seminars and non-credit course for law enforcement which seemed to be the principal purpose of the grant.

The seminars were short and based on the following topics: 1) The community college and the law enforcement program, 2) Supervision (?), 3) Planning and Research, 4) Role of the Police, 5) Challenge of crime, 6) Coordination of Law Enforcement and Lateral Entry, 7) Police Community Relations, 8) Recruitment, 9) Motivation, 10) Teaching.

These seminars were probably helpful and did arouse controversy according to the report, but they were not as important as the police science program.

The second part of the project was research and a survey of the Portland Police Department. The grantee analyzed the police management function, described the typical Portland police officer - and his public image.

These were straightforward surveys. They found that there were two types of police: activists and traditionalists who differed on many premises.

It is the police science program that is of most interest because it concentrated on a major in the social or behavioral sciences with a minor in police work. This model is different from many other law enforcement programs which were more heavily sprinkled with police courses. The results of this program should be compared to the product

of the more traditional police science course which calls  
for 30-50 credits in police work.

**CONTINUED**

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## THE UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAM\*

### Law Enforcement

The purpose of the Law Enforcement Certificate program is to provide a professional education for students preparing to undertake careers in public service which are identified with law enforcement.

A candidate for the certificate will be required to satisfy all college requirements for a baccalaureate degree, departmental requirements for a major in Sociology, Psychology, or Political Science, and the requirements established for the Certificate in Law Enforcement.

The program of required and elective courses drawn from academic disciplines is intended to afford a broad general education specifically designed to contribute to preparation for a career in police administration and law enforcement and at the same time to satisfy liberal arts requirements for a baccalaureate degree.

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Final Report, Grant #55

Certificate Program in Law Enforcement

A. Completion of all requirements for graduation with a B.S. degree and a major in Sociology, Psychology, or Political Science.

B. Completion of the following courses:

History 201-202. History of the United States 6 hours

Twenty-one hours in Law Enforcement

Eighteen hours in Political Science

Eighteen hours in Psychology

Eighteen hours in Sociology:

Speech 111, 112, 113 9 hours

The undergraduate program is open to students from other majors and has attracted large numbers who have taken the courses as electives. This exposure to the issues involved in law enforcement and the administration of justice gained by persons who will engage in other callings is desirable and hopefully will promote the application of the knowledge obtained in both their professional and personal lives.

It is difficult to estimate the number of students who consider themselves law enforcement certificate students.

Students declare for majors in Sociology, Psychology, and Political Science, and often do not apply for the certificate until near graduation. About 50 students are currently being advised by the Law Enforcement Program staff. Students enrolled in the classes have varied backgrounds and academic standing. Some are part-time students and full-time policemen, others are graduate students in Education and still others are undergraduate students in the various majors. Class size varies from small seminar groups of five to large lecture classes, in the lower division courses of up to 150 students.

At present, the only full-time faculty member teaching the courses is the Associate Director and Assistant Professor of Law Enforcement. He is joined by an outstanding part-time faculty recruited from the profession in the Portland area. A Portland Police Sergeant has taught sections in Crime Prevention, as has a Multnomah County Deputy Sheriff. The law courses are taught by deputy district attorneys with outstanding backgrounds and the correctional courses are taught by the Multnomah County Senior Jail Counselor, a clinical psychologist. An excellent lieutenant in the Multnomah County Sheriff's Office has taught a course in Police Administration. All

of these persons are prepared academically, as well as by experience, to teach the material offered. The summer program being offered in 1968, is being conducted by an outstanding criminologist from Long Beach State College, Dr. A. C. Germann. The full-time teaching staff of the program will be doubled as of September, 1968, with the employment of the Director.

Police agencies from around the country continue to seek graduates of the Portland State College Law Enforcement Program. As the number of graduates increases and they begin to fill positions of responsibility in law enforcement agencies, it is thought that the application of concepts learned will have a significant impact.

While original thinking precluded the establishment of a major in law enforcement, in favor of the certificate program, increased interest in a major by the agencies and students is causing the position to be reassessed. There is some interest in the establishment of a broad major in, possibly, The Processes of Criminal Justice. Such an undergraduate program might be aimed toward a general liberal arts education for those desiring careers or graduate training in Law Enforcement, Law, Court Administration, Crime Prevention, Corrections, and allied fields. There is also interest in establishing graduate degree programs.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 55

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes. In the way they interpreted the mandate of the grant and used the funds.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This project invested its funds and its efforts sensibly.

Grant #56

Grantee: Connecticut Municipal Police Training Council

Amount: \$27,000

Dates: July 1966 to September 1967

[This was supplemented later by Grant #356: \$20,000  
from May 1968 to July 1969]

Purpose: To study the need for selection standards for  
patrolmen and minimum training standards for auxiliary  
officers (supernumeraries.)

#### Summary

The Council surveyed police departments in Connecticut to gather information. The council had the power to set standards for police under the Mandated Training Act (Public Act 575, attached hereto).

The Council recommended the following selection standards for police candidates in Connecticut to be incorporated into an amendment to Public Act 575. These requirements only formalized the practices that the larger police departments had been following for a long time.

#### Recommended Minimum Employment Standards for Law Enforcement Officers

That through legislative act, the following employment standards be made an amendment to Public Act 575.

#### Objectives

To raise the level of competence of Connecticut law enforcement officers by establishing minimum standards relating to physical, mental and moral fitness which shall govern the selection of Connecticut "Police Officers" as defined in Public Act 575.

Minimum Standards for Recruitment

1. Be a citizen of the United States.
2. Minimum age of twenty-one years.
3. Graduation from high school or equivalent. Equivalent defined as having attained a passing score on the General Education Development test indicating high school graduation level.
4. Fingerprinting of applicants with a search of local, state and national fingerprint files to disclose any criminal record.
5. The applicant shall not have been convicted of a felony offense.
6. Good moral character as determined by a favorable report following a comprehensive background investigation covering school and employment records, home environment, personal traits and integrity. Consideration will be given to any and all law violations, including traffic and conservation law convictions as indicating a lack of good character.
7. Acceptable physical, emotional and mental fitness as established by a licensed physician following examination to determine the applicant is free from any physical, emotional or mental condition which might adversely affect his performance of duty as a police officer. The trainee shall possess normal hearing and normal color vision. He shall be free from any impediments of the senses. He must possess normal visual functions and visual acuity in each correctable to 20/20. The trainee must be physically sound; well-developed physically, with height and weight (Ref. p. 115) in relation to each other and to age as indicated by accepted medical standards and in possession of his extremities. He shall be free from any

physical defects, chronic diseases, organic diseases, organic or functional conditions, or mental instabilities which may tend to impair efficient performance of duty which might endanger the lives of others or himself if he lacks these qualifications.

A declaration of the applicant's medical history shall become a part of the background investigation. The information shall be available to the examining physician.

8. An oral interview shall be held by the hiring authority or his representative, to determine the applicant's acceptability for a police officer position and to assess appearance, background and ability to communicate.

9. Recruitment and employment practices and standards shall be in compliance with existing Connecticut statutes governing this activity.

It is emphasized that these are minimum entrance standards. Higher standards are recommended whenever the availability of qualified applicants meets the demand.

#### Evaluation

The standards of police training set by the Council were deficient in that there was too narrow a focus on specialized police subjects. Even recruits who must learn the police job from scratch need some broader background in understanding individuals, groups, and human behavior in general. The only material of this sort included in the 160-hour curriculum was a small part of a 2-hour class on Juvenile Delinquency and of a 3-hour section devoted to Civil Disorder. The omission was even more glaring in the proposed 40-hour course for supernumeraries. They were to receive only one hour on Juvenile Delinquency



and one hour on Civil Disorder. Perhaps 15 minutes of this time could have been devoted to the human factor. The curriculum should be revised to include at least 12 hours for police and 4 hours for supernumeraries in the area of the behavioral sciences. Note: The term "public relations" used in the proposed curriculum ought to be changed to "community relations."

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 56

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not much.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The standards set by the Council were too low and there were weaknesses in the course of training recommended.

Grant #57

Grantee: Memphis State University

Amount: \$13,482

Dates: September 1966 to August 1967

[This was supplemented later by Grant #248: \$24,954 from September 1967 to August 1968 for the first year of operation of the degree program.]

Purpose: To establish a two-year degree program.

Summary

The report was succinct and indicated that the law enforcement program in Memphis State University was under the department of sociology and anthropology. There were several courses proposed leading to: 1.) a certificate in law enforcement; 2.) a two-year associate of arts (they called a certificate rather than degree); 3.) a four-year bachelor of arts degree in sociology with an emphasis in law enforcement; 4.) a master of arts program in sociology with a minor in law enforcement.

The University admitted two types of students: the first group on the basis of high school graduation and entrance examination; the second, an adult special category open to all students 21 years of age and older who would be accepted by application and would be expected to take up to 9 semester hours of work per semester. At any time an adult special student could apply for regular student status, and all completed work was transferable.

It was under this program that many policemen entered the university. The law enforcement program at Memphis State emphasized strong academic offerings, and in no way duplicated the training which officers received in the Memphis police academy. A note to

the report stated that when a community college was set up under Memphis State University the associate in arts certificate would become an associate of arts degree offered by the community college. At that time there would be no conflict between the associate of arts degree and the bachelor of arts degree.

There was very little said about the nature of the faculty. The law enforcement advisory council's major function was to insure the continued flow of information between persons actively engaged in law enforcement and the law enforcement faculty at Memphis State.

The certificate was granted upon completion of a five course sequence in law enforcement. It was a one year professional certificate designed for adult special students as well as for students in other programs such as education, psychology, political science. The associate of arts certificate was awarded upon satisfactory completion of 65 credits, a two year professional degree. The bachelor of arts degree in sociology with an emphasis on law enforcement was obtained upon satisfactory completion of a minimum of 132 semester hours, in addition to requirements for the major in sociology. The student had to complete the law enforcement sequence. The department of sociology also offered a minor in law enforcement when a student's major would be taken in a field other than sociology.

There was a proposal for a bachelor of arts degree in law enforcement to be awarded upon completion of 30 semester hours of sociology, law enforcement, and social work courses including required courses such as introduction to criminology, police, introduction to law enforcement, plus courses in one of the following areas: police administration, corrections, general law enforcement. Apparently, there were 300 sociology majors and 200 law enforcement

participants, and 80 of the law enforcement were employed on a full time basis by the Memphis Police Department.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 57 and 248

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

In a small way.

2. Was the project innovative?

Unknown.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes, its certification arrangements may be of interest to other programs.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Well done. It accommodated different needs and illustrated how police science programs need not be administered separately in their own programs.

PAGES 871-879 WERE UNAVAILABLE AT TIME OF FILMING

Grant #58

Grantee: Institute of Government, University of Georgia

Amount: \$15,000

Dates: September 1966 to March 1967

[This was supplemented later by Grant #245: \$75,000  
from September 1967 to August 1968]

Purpose: To develop and operate two-year police science  
programs.

#### Summary

The first phase of the project was a survey of the need, the possible resources, the student body, and the problems. There were no existing police science programs in the state at the time of the award. By September 1969 there were seven programs operating with plans to extend to four-year criminal justice programs and to establish graduate programs as well.

The problems encountered were typical:

1. Difficulty in obtaining good teachers,
2. Lack of preparation of potential student body,
3. Financial problems,
4. Poor image of the police restricted the recruitment of pre-service students,
5. Resistance of law-enforcement agencies, and
6. Difficulty of disseminating information to high schools.



PAGES 881-889 WERE UNAVAILABLE AT TIME OF FILMING

Evaluation

This project did establish a state-wide educational program for law enforcement. That first step was difficult and the programs compared favorably with the average police science degree program to be found in other states. The proposal to develop a criminal justice four-year baccalaureate program was worthwhile.

The following pages taken from the final report illustrate the method and findings of this project.

## APPENDIX I

Summary: A Study of the Need and Demand for Police Science Programs in the Colleges of Georgia.

The study for the need and demand for police science degree programs in the colleges of Georgia was undertaken from September, 1966, through March, 1967. This survey was premised on an earlier survey conducted by the Board of Regents in which interest was expressed in a state-wide study. The Institute of Government at the University of Georgia applied for and received a grant for the study from the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance of the United States Department of Justice, Washington, D.C.

Questionnaires were distributed in the areas surrounding the 14 participating colleges. These colleges were: Georgia State College, DeKalb Junior College, Georgia Southern College, Armstrong State College, Middle Georgia College, Columbus College, Albany Junior College, Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College, South Georgia College, Brunswick College, Gainseville Junior College, North Georgia College, Dalton Junior College, and the University of Georgia.

In general, the study demonstrated that the greatest demand in Georgia was for a two year associate degree in Police Science with the possibility open for transferring to a four

year degree program. A total of 5,763 police officers, college freshmen, and high school seniors were surveyed. It should be noted that the figures obtained from the high school and college students are considered to be optimistic, while the results obtained from the police officers are thought to be conservative. Of the total number of questionnaires returned, 1,081 were from police officers, 3,606 were from high school students, and 1,076 were from college freshmen.

These figures may be further broken down in the following manner: 872 of the 1,081 police officers were interested in police science courses, and 756 of the 872 interested officers were educationally qualified to participate in a college program. The survey of high school students indicated that 331 of the 3,606 participants would be interested in majoring in Police Science and 1,150 would consider police science courses as electives. 63 college freshmen expressed a desire to major in police science, while 435 said that they would take these courses as electives.

All of the 1,100 potential majors in police science (including police officers, college freshmen, and high school students) were polled as to their preference for full or part time study. A full time degree program was preferred by 33.6%. Part time degree programs were preferred by the remaining 66.3%.

This same group was asked to express their preferences as to the type of degree program desired. The following results were obtained: 209 preferred a two year terminal degree; 559 wanted a two year degree that could be transferred to a four year degree program; 115 desired a four year degree program; and 217 supported a graduate degree program. Surveying the 716 police officers separately, 125 preferred the two year terminal degree; 423 wanted a two year transfer degree; 50 wanted a four year degree; and 119 preferred a graduate degree.

PROPOSED 2-YEAR (ASSOCIATE) DEGREE PROGRAM  
IN LAW ENFORCEMENT

TRANSFER

FIRST YEAR

SECOND YEAR

<u>Course</u>	<u>Sem. Credits</u>	<u>Course</u>	<u>Sem. Credits</u>
English	6	Intro. Soc.	3
Govt. (Natl. State-Local)	6	Math or Logic	6
General Psychology	3	History (Ancient)	3
Humanities	6	Biol. and/or Phy. Science	9
Intro. to Law Enforce.	3	Criminal Invest.	6
Police Org. & Admin.	6	Criminal Law	6
Criminal & Delinq. Behavior	3		<u>33</u>
	<u>33</u>		

Total: 66

(Physical Education requirement will add four additional credits to this program.)

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 58 (See #245)

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Yes.
2. Was the project innovative?  
No.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Yes. Law enforcement degree programs may have far reaching consequences for criminal justice.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
No way of telling.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
No.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
No.
7. Remarks.  
This was a valuable project. Police education in the South is sorely needed.

Grant #59

Grantee: Indiana University of Pennsylvania in Indiana, Pennsylvania

Amount: \$13,191

Dates: September 1966 to August 1967

[This was later supplemented by Grant #452: \$24,998

from September 1967 to August 1968]

Purpose: To develop a two-year and also a four-year degree program in law enforcement.

Summary

The director of the program, Harry More, had a BA from the University of California and MA from American University. The Board of Trustees of the College approved the establishment of the Department of Law Enforcement in the school of arts and sciences in September 1966. In December 1967 the Board approved the change of the name of the department of law enforcement to criminology.

The program was developed (the report says) in order to meet the following five-fold objectives: The education of the students for employment and leadership in criminal justice; the education of presently employed law enforcement and correctional officers; the instruction of students who wish to acquire and understanding of the problems of criminal justice; and the curriculum would provide the foundation for students preparing for a course in criminal law.

The four year baccalaureate course requires a completion of 52 semester hours in general education and then a minimum of 30 semester hours in a major field. There is also a minor of 15 to 27 semester hours in one of the social sciences. Then there are electives of 15 to 27 semester hours. The criminology major requires 30 credits, (remember this is really the law enforcement major), of which the courses are: general administration of justice, criminology, research administration I, research administration II,



criminal law I, criminal law II and law enforcement electives.

The other credits are in the minor of 15 to 27 credits in one of the social sciences and remainder of the 124 credits required for graduation and a bachelor's degree can be taken in three electives.

And now there is a certificate for a two year course given in law enforcement, and it is not clear whether it is called criminology as is the baccalaureate degree. The two year course requires 50 semester credits of course work, 30 hours in criminology and law enforcement, and 30 hours in general education courses.

There is also a certificate given with a correction emphasis that requires 30 hours in criminology, law enforcement, and 30 hours in general education courses. However, here the emphasis is on treatment of the offender and correctional administration. They give courses on campus and off campus.

In the fall of 1967 they had 38 students in the program, and for the fall of 1968 they estimated that there would be 101 majors in the department. There were 11 teachers in the program including the director Mr. More. Half of them have MA degrees, the others LL.B degrees; one has a doctor of education degree; and two have BA degrees. An advisory council of some 20 persons with police experience assist the program.

There is also a police science institute program which has institutes on various areas during the academic year such as arrest, search and seizure, supervision, drug abuse and delinquency. In addition there is a delinquency control institute established as a permanent part of the Department of Criminology.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 59

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

It would be interesting to know if after taking this program policemen would be any different than policemen taking one of the IACP programs.

Grant #61

Grantee: Metropolitan Police Department of Washington, D.C.

Amount: \$56,450

Dates: July 1966 to June 1967

Purpose: Police-community relations training for approximately half the field personnel.

Summary

The goal of the project was (1) to further the understanding and acceptance by the Metropolitan police department of their professional responsibilities, (2) to relate their performance of duty to the needs of the society in which they work, (3) to further develop these necessary attitudes, skills and knowledge, (4) to implement a more complete understanding among the police of the role of the professional police leadership in contemporary society, (5) to further an understanding by police of a need to communicate with and methods to communicate with the community, and (6) to explore with the police methods of professionally coping with persons coming into contact or in conflict with the law enforcement agencies.

The department already had a 40-hour recruit level human relations program, and an 8-hour human relations program to all persons above the rank of private, an 8-hour human relations program as part of the Washington Police Academy curriculum,

an 8-hour human relations seminar to a cross section of the department sponsored by the Metropolitan Police Department and presented by the National Conference of Christians and Jews, as well as a five-day human relations course, and a Police-Community Relations Institute offered annually at Michigan State University and attended by representatives of the Metropolitan Police Department.

For this project they approached Leadership Resources, Inc. This group had submitted a proposal for consulting, designing and conducting a training program on the emerging role of the professional policeman in contemporary society. The program for human relations training was set up and the groups attended September 28, 29, 30 of 1966 and October 5, 6, and 7, 1966. The other classes were held in October 1966 and June 1967, and there were more than 1,000 of the force that took this course of three days.

The attitude questionnaires that were given before and after the training showed that although there was not a unanimous positive reaction, there was a change of attitude in the preferred direction. The personal feelings questionnaires pointed to a willingness of a majority of the police to indicate that the training had some positive influence.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 61

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. Assuming that attitudes change slightly in a favorable direction, does this result in a change of behavior by policemen?

7. Remarks.

Police-community relations training programs are viewed by policemen with suspicion and rarely attain real change in behavior.

Grant #62

Grantee: Southern Regional Education Board

Amount: \$7,120

Dates: June 1966 to March 1967

Purpose: Institute on meeting manpower needs for correctional rehabilitation in the South -- Atlanta, Georgia

Summary

In the 15-state region served by the Southern Regional Education Board, 3,040 of the national population and 43% of all jurisdictions of the United States were represented.

The statistical picture relevant to corrections in the South was at least obscure and based on estimates from surveys of corrections by NCCD and other sources.

Correctional services were divided into separate functional parts:

Juveniles - Detention, Probation, Institutions, Aftercare

Adults - Probation, Parole, Jails, Institutions, and

Probation for Misdemeanants

Detention of Juveniles in South - local service

Juvenile Probation - local service

Juvenile Institution - operated by a state agency

Juvenile Aftercare - only in 9 out of 15 states were there special aftercare programs.

Misdemeanant Probation was almost non-existent. In the South, administration and organization of corrections was fragmented. There was competition for money and personnel. The same state might provide good and poor services side by side.

The South tended to sentence and commit more people to institutions than other sections of the country. The national rate was 102 inmates per 100,000 population; in the South it was 117 per 100,000.

Between 70-80% of the money in corrections in the South was spent on institutions rather than community services.

Probation caseloads were 3-4 times the national standard.

There were plans in the South to construct facilities to increase the capacity by 18,750 more beds by 1975. More than 3,650 new correctional positions would have to be filled.

A great deal of inconsistency existed in institutional job specifications.

Another problem was that most of the Southern correctional systems required their workers to work more than 40 hours a week.

Only 60% of the state adult institutions had formal in-service training programs.

New programs in corrections in the South were rare.

#### Trends in Correctional Rehabilitation

1. Change to Rehabilitation Ideal

2. Community Based Services

Work-Release, Half-way Houses, Guidance centers

3. Vocational Rehabilitation

4. Cooperation between Federal & State Vocational Rehabilitation programs

There was a crash program needed for manpower:

1. Training aides

2. Social workers (a major shortage of psychiatric social workers)

3. Rehabilitation Counselors

4. Vocational Evaluators

5. Psychologists

6. Psychiatrists

7. Every phase of law enforcement needs professionals

There was a need for help from college graduate schools and medical schools.

Would the universities be a source of help? They would probably be resistant to change. In order to appeal to universities it was decided that corrections would have to improve its image by emphasizing treatment rather than custodial or punitive care. This would elevate the field toward professionalism.

Universities could help to:

1. establish research & training centers in corrections,
2. establish teaching programs in some correctional institutions,
3. establish centers of continuing education to bring instruction to correction workers in the local communities,
4. extend existing counselor training programs, and
5. establish work-study programs in corrections.

LEAA grants to corrections were biased in favor of training projects. Such grants have been made to: American Correctional Association, N.C.C.D., Southern Regional Education Board, Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, New England Correctional Administrators Conference, and Southern Illinois University. OLEA made grants to states for in-service correctional training. Vocational Rehabilitation Administration offered teaching grants, traineeships, etc.,



for improvement of correctional training.

There were three models of university-agency cooperation involving internships, hiring and research at correctional institutions:

1. Florida State University cooperating with Florida Law Enforcement Academy and Florida's State Prisons.
2. Kent School of Social Work, Louisville, Kentucky - Internship at the Federal Youth Center and Kentucky Department of Corrections.
3. Sam Houston College, Huntsville, Texas and the Texas Department of Corrections.

#### Recommendations of the Conference

1. States to share training resources.
2. Discussion & action groups to involve wider group interest.
3. Regional training program in corrections should be established.
4. Newsletter to keep lines of communication open.
5. Hold another conference in six months.
6. More information about possible federal funding.
7. Pilot training center for corrections.
8. Conference between administrators of universities & corrections.

#### Evaluation

This was a correctional conference that developed data and understanding of the correctional situation in the South and began to expose possibilities of doing something about it.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 62

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

In part.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not much.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. Why conferences end with ideal statements of needs and so little is accomplished.

7. Remarks.

The institute did a good job of identifying the needs, but usually there is no follow through. This seems to have been the case here.

Grant #65

Grantee: National Council on Crime and Delinquency

Amount: \$82,664

Dates: October 1966 to November 1968

Purpose: A series of one-week training institutes for upper  
and middle management probation personnel.

Summary

The institutes probably were well planned and well  
executed programs, but I did not receive a report on them.  
The final report was a bibliography on Management of Probation  
Services developed by the Probation Management Institutes.

Evaluation

It was an annotated bibliography of a selected sample  
of the literature relevant to organizations, their structure,  
function, change, and the human factor. This book will probably  
gather dust on many correctional agency library shelves.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #65

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Information not available.
2. Was the project innovative?  
No.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on  
the criminal justice system?  
Little impact.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in  
reducing or preventing crime?  
Probably not.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar  
projects?  
No.
6. Were questions or leads for further research  
raised?  
No.
7. Remarks.

Grant #66

Grantee: University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah

Amount: \$10,600

Dates: August 1966 to December 1967

Purpose: To develop and test audio-visual aids, usually film strips and slides for in-service training of correctional officers, and to improve the understanding of anti-social behavior and methods of working with offenders.

#### Summary

The emphasis was on developing film strips and animated cartoons that could be utilized as proper subjects for training and lecturing. The target groups included the community people to whom correctional officers might speak occasionally, the correctional officers themselves through in-service sessions, and the prison inmates brought in for a discussion of their problems as well as for education.

Two major film strips were developed. The first, entitled "Corrections in America," consisted of ninety colored frames and a narration of 47 minutes. Two or three hours were needed to show this film strip completely and to allow time for discussion. The use of the film strip in in-service training would be of help to develop insight into a) the extent of crime

in America, b) the characteristics of criminals, c) the methods of assisting law violators to make satisfactory adjustments and d) the problems and methods of prevention. The second film strip entitled "Understanding and Helping the Prison Inmate," consisted of 104 colored frames. This narration ran about 40 minutes and would probably require two to three hours to be presented if it were to permit a discussion period.

There were several suggested discussion topics: 1. How correctional officers might assist inmates in modifying attitudes and behavior; 2. Trends in penal administration; 3. Problems of the convicted law violator; and 4. Reasons for anti-social behavior.

The film strips were produced rather as a stimulus to controversy and discussions than as explicit or implicit learning devices. Both film strips can be obtained for \$9.75 each from the University of Utah.

Several other slides for use in discussions with inmates were in the nature of symbolic representation, something like the TAT pictures in which the inmate is pictured in situations that would reveal certain attitudes; for example, the first slide was one of an inmate in prison, the second was an inmate with a large weight on his shoulders, the third depicted the inmate in a large group of inmates, the fourth showed the judge

and the inmate and the word injustice across the judge's desk, the next showed people casting stones.

The director of the project conferred with the staff of the Utah State Prison, and he visited other state prisons in Idaho, Washington, and Oregon. During the field visits in which these films were shown, several criticisms were made and modifications were instituted as a result. The major criticism was that the original film strip about inmates seemed to be too sympathetic to the inmates. One slide showed the custodial officer or the correctional officer and the inmate having coffee together during a break. The prison staff indicated that the coffee cups should be removed and that the discussion should take place while both inmate and correctional officer were standing. There was also objection to the concept that inmates have a more difficult time making a satisfactory community adjustment after spending time in the prison. Several of the correctional officers indicated that they thought there was too strong an implication that the inmate is sometimes a victim of unfortunate circumstances and should be assisted to improve his social and vocational skills. Another modification of the strip based upon critiques given during visits to other prisons was that less emphasis would be given to the concept that correctional personnel should attempt to provide individual

counseling for inmates to indicate a sincere interest in their welfare.

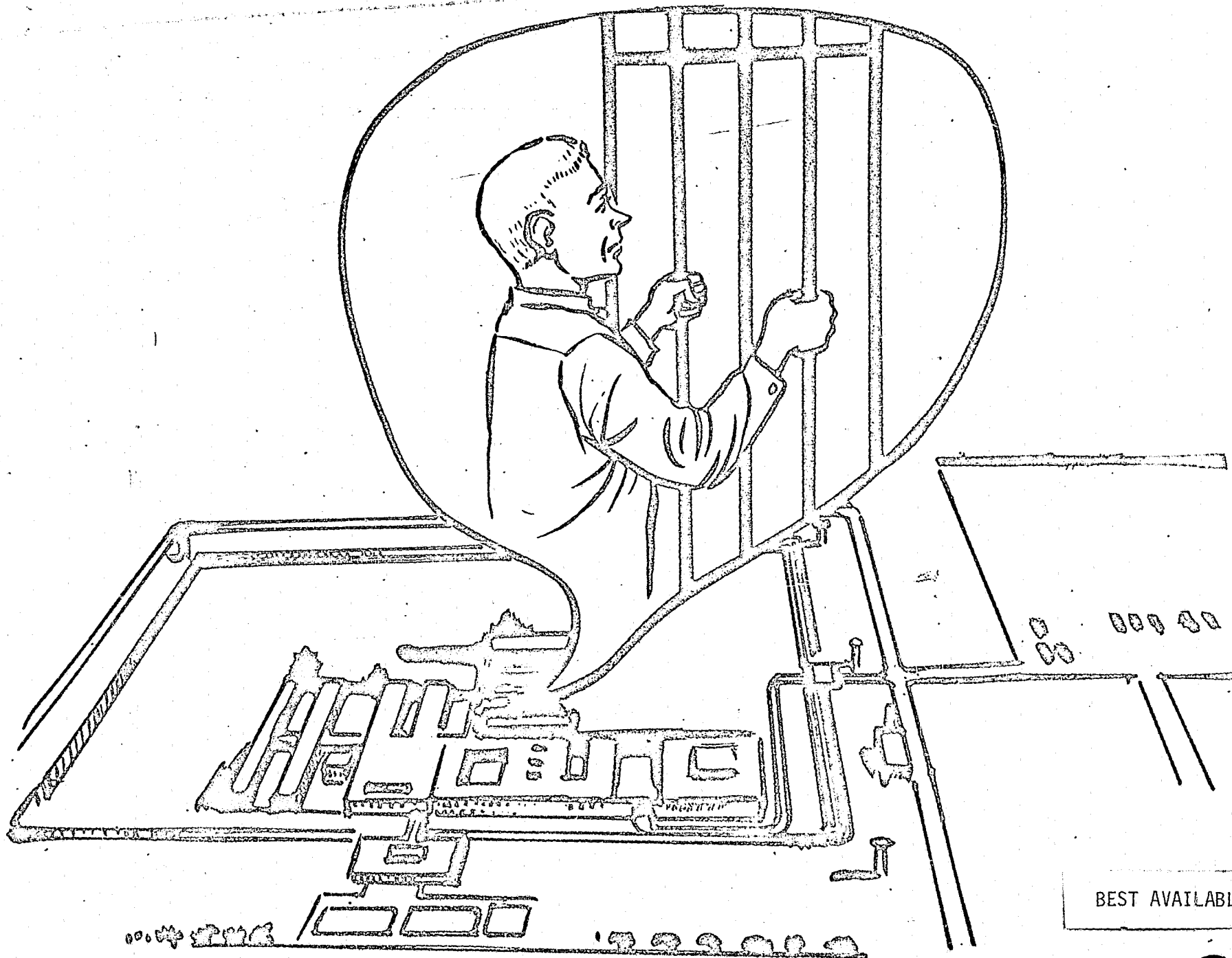
Various groups were given the strips to evaluate and apparently the ratings were generally favorable. It was rather interesting that the second film strip was shown to graduate students in the School of Social Work at the University of Utah and their ratings were generally favorable; however, they may have been somewhat prejudiced, since the director of this project was also their instructor.

The report recommended that 1) prisons should do more to improve the educational backgrounds of their correctional officers, 2) courses should be provided to assist new correctional officers to improve their ability to understand and help inmates to modify attitudes and to become familiar with the basic principles of criminology, 3) the in-service training instructors should experiment in the use of the overhead and film strip projectors, 4) regional conferences should be held for prison in-service training instructors to use more visual aids, 5) an individual who is enthusiastic in the use of visual aids should be employed to visit selected correctional agencies to demonstrate the value of film strips to motivate small group discussions, 6) additional prisons should use some of their staff to lead small groups of prisoners in discussing their



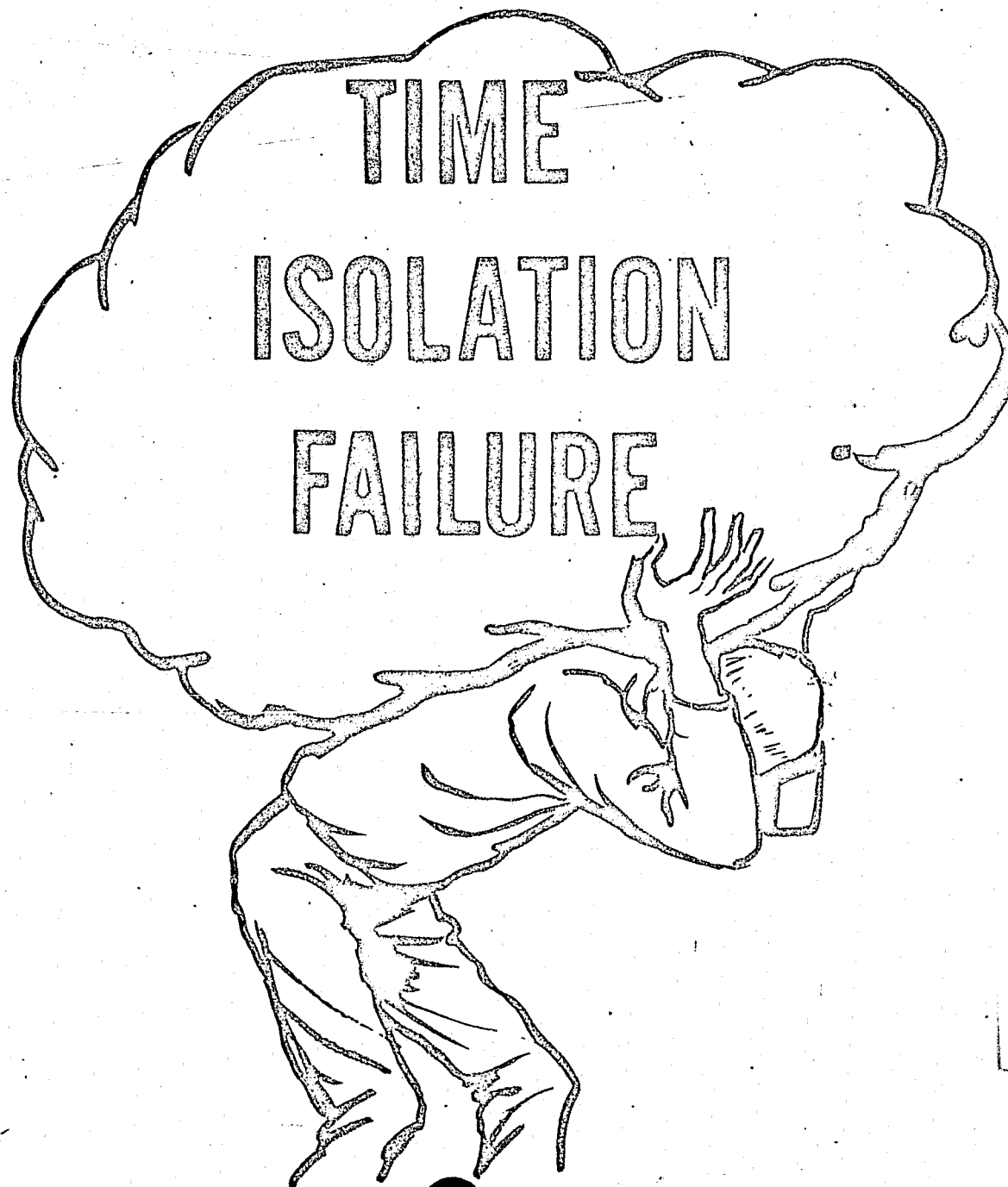
problems, and 7) experimentation should be carried on with the use of slides to motivate small group discussions. Copies of several of the slides used are attached.

914

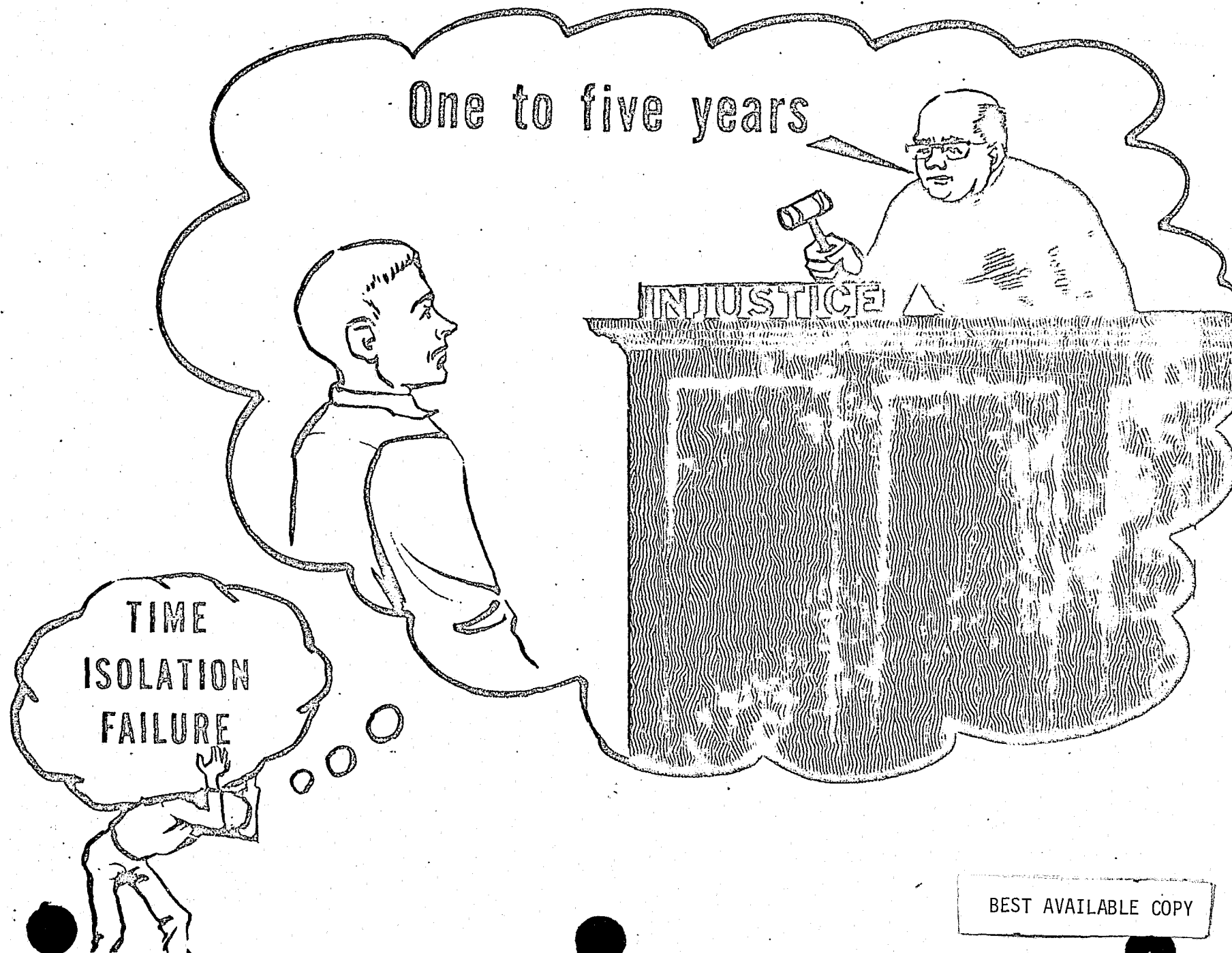


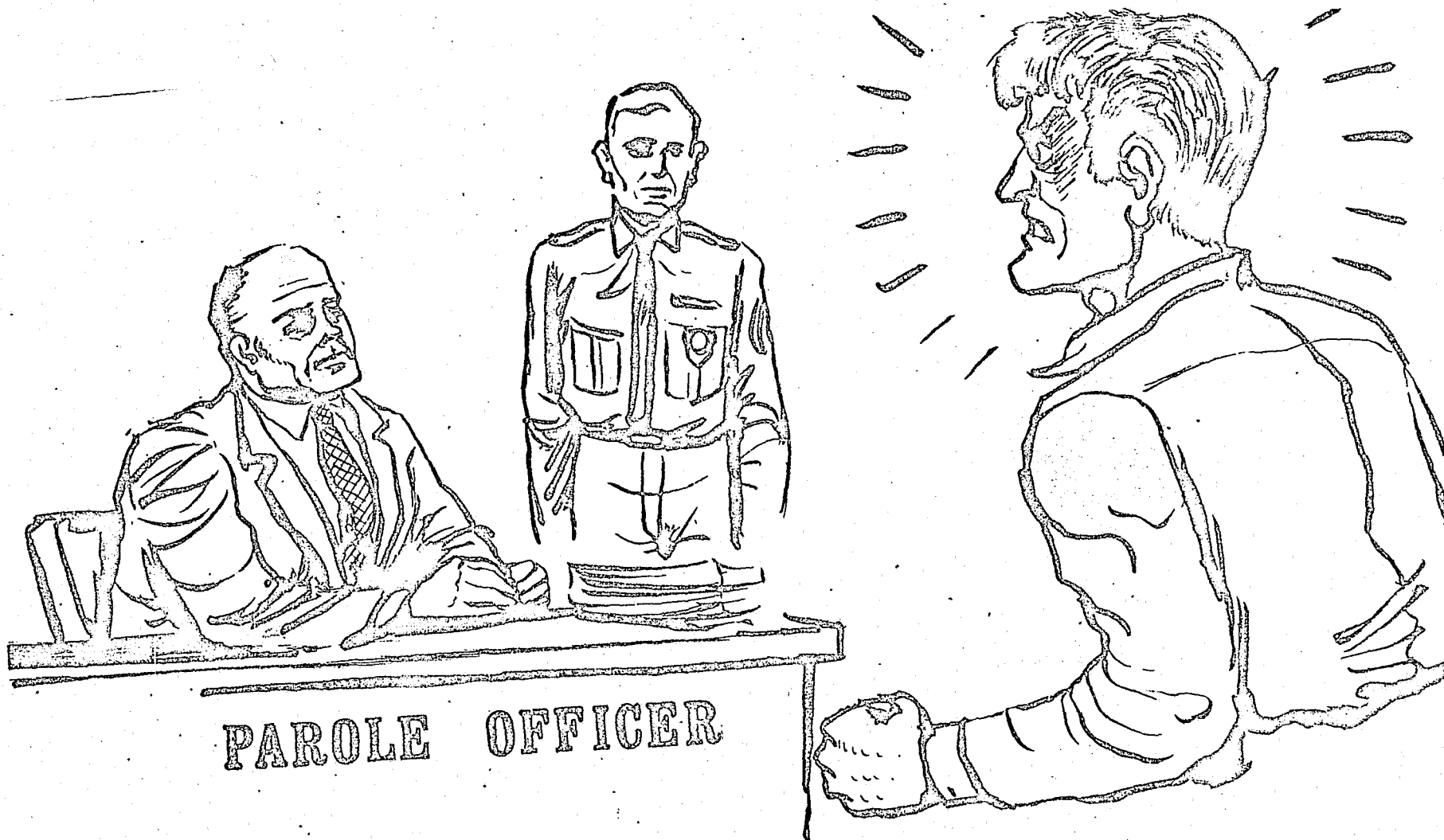
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PROBLEM: FEELINGS OF  
RESENTMENT TOWARD AUTHORITY

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 66

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

In part.

2. Was the project innovative?

To some extent.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

A little for corrections.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. Are visual aids more effective than other training techniques?

7. Remarks.

The film strips were reduced in impact by "cleaning" them up to conform to the wishes of the correctional people to appear perfect.

Grant #67

Grantee: The Lawyers' Committee for Civil Rights Under Law  
in Washington, D.C.

Amount: \$75,093

Dates: July 1966 to October 1967

Purpose: To develop and demonstrate in three cities some  
new techniques for implementing police-community  
relations programs.

Summary

The program involved preliminary conferences with lawyer groups, law enforcement officials, citizen groups, etc. who studied the police role, police practices, recruitment in training and crime prevention in Detroit, Atlanta and Seattle. Although the report was quite voluminous, it contained very little that was either original or useful.

Apparently, in Detroit in the middle of its proceedings, a riot occurred that set it back. The only tangible achievement was a proposal for a cadet program for recruitment. In Atlanta, the committee decided to evaluate the crime prevention program that was in progress at the time. In Seattle, it organized a blue ribbon committee of top lawyers to act as a liaison committee to the police department, sheriff's office, and other law enforcement agencies, to help them in the

enforcement of law and order without infringing upon the constitutional rights of the citizens. Except for these, very little was accomplished.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 67

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. How can lawyers help law enforcement?

7. Remarks.

This project was a disaster. Nothing was accomplished.

Grant #68

Grantee: School of Police Administration and Public Safety, Michigan State University

Amount: \$96,282

Dates: July 1966 to April 1968

Purpose: Originally planned as a police community relations training project, it was converted into a police executive management training program and a later workshop for the same group on legislative relationships.

### Summary

The three-week executive training course was held during April of 1967. The chiefs of the largest midwestern cities in the population range from 50,000 to 200,000 were invited to attend. Of 80 cities tendered invitations, 31 chiefs attended.

Participants filled out a detailed questionnaire on their backgrounds and were given an I.Q. test on the first day of the course. Each participant had a private interview with the director of the project. The average chief was 45-55 years old, had over 20 years of police experience, had completed high school, and had an I.Q. of 103.

The methods of instruction were varied, from lecture to the "in basket" technique. There were also seminars, case studies, and work projects. The students were given hand-outs of reprints from Harvard Business Review and a suggested bibliography.

### Evaluation

The evaluation of the program was impressionistic and not based on any reliable data because of:

1. The vague nature of the standards of success and means of food administrative performance;
2. The lack of resources and time.

The work sessions were not successful. The staff felt that the students learned something but did not believe that this was the best way to train police chiefs.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 68

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The experiences of this project's staff and others who have attempted management training seem to be somewhat similar. In as much as this staff felt their methods were not effective whereas other staffs felt theirs were effective, some effort should be made to put these conclusions to a sound test--so that these issues can be resolved.

Grant #69

Grantee: Minnesota Governor's Commission on Law Enforcement,  
Criminal Justice Administration and Corrections,  
St. Paul, Minnesota

Amount: \$25,000

Dates: July 1966 to December 1967

Purpose: To establish a 33-member commission and a technical advisory committee of 15 members to coordinate the system of criminal justice in Minnesota.

#### Summary

The purpose of the Commission was to develop a plan for the control of crime and the improvement of the administration of justice in the state of Minnesota. The Commission found that Minnesota had long been one of the progressive states that had improved its criminal justice system long before the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice made its recommendations. In 1963, Minnesota inaugurated a method of appointing attorneys for indigent defendants. In addition, there was a plan to provide legal assistance on a regional basis for county attorneys to cooperate in prosecution of criminal cases, and there was in-service training of its law enforcement officers. It revised the criminal code in 1963 and special attention was directed to the provision for an appeal by the prosecution from certain orders made in criminal cases without regard to the prohibition against double jeopardy.

There were five major areas in which the Commission recommended improvement in order to control crime. These areas were: 1) reform of the bail system, 2) review of disparate sentences, 3) improvement of juvenile court procedures and facilities, 4) improvement and uniformity of criminal procedures, and 5) reorganization and reform of the court structure. The

final report of the Commission was a series of recommendations.

The proposals for the reform of the bail system were to tailor the Minnesota bail reform bail system after the Manhattan Bail Project established by the Vera Foundation in which indigent defendants were allowed to remain in the community pending trial if they had roots in the community.

The Commission proposed a review of disparate sentences, i.e., sentences that were of unusually long duration compared to the average sentence for a similar crime. It suggested a test of sentencing councils as a possibility, but it stressed the possibility of an intermediate Court of Appeals as a tribunal to exercise jurisdiction over review of sentences.

It recommended a change in the juvenile court procedures and facilities to conform with the Gault decision which increased the concern and attention paid to the Constitutional rights of juveniles in court. And finally, it proposed an improved and uniform code of criminal procedure, a court reorganization, and reform. This included a new method for the selection of judges, to creat a merit selection plan based on the Missouri Plan.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 69

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes, in some ways.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

It will have direct impact if the proposals are implemented.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This commission was very active and illustrates how such commissions can have a direct effect on the system of criminal justice rather than the very indirect influence so many commissions choose to exercise.

Grant #72

Grantee: The Michigan Commission on Crime, Delinquency,  
and Criminal Administration, Lansing, Michigan.

Amount: \$25,000

Dates: July 1966 to June 1967

[This was supplemented later by Grant #328: \$25,000,  
from April 1968 to March 1969.]

Purpose: Research, analyze, and develop comprehensive course  
of action for improved law enforcement and criminal justice  
administration in the state.

#### Summary

The 45 member Commission on Crime, Delinquency, and  
Criminal Administration in Michigan was called by Governor  
Romney in September 1966. There were four regular committees:  
one on the impact of crime, one on police and public safety,  
one on the administration of criminal justice, and one on  
corrections, probation and parole.

At the first meeting Governor Romney announced his desire  
for a new committee on organized crime; this was established  
by October 1967. The Commission membership was raised to 56  
persons, two-thirds had made careers in the crime control  
area.

It is important to realize that there had been improvements

in the area of criminal justice before the Michigan Commission was established. The legislature had created the Michigan Law Enforcement Officers Training Council in 1965 to improve police training, to computerize law enforcement information, and to review departments of the lower courts. A substantial penal law and Code of Criminal Procedure revisions had been completed and were ready for hearings by the legislature. There were also innovations in sentencing methods. All these were projects going on while the Commission was gathering force.

The specific reports of the Committees were not available. There were, however, several important recommendations of the Commission:

1. To mount a massive campaign against organized crime,
2. To establish a center for law enforcement and research and planning,
3. To organize a program for identification, recruitment, and training of future police officers,
4. To obtain amendments to the Motor Vehicle Law to allow pleading on citation without necessity of complaint and warrant,
5. To make appropriations for juvenile detention home construction and to expand aftercare facilities.



The Commission conducted a state-wide inventory of local law enforcement throughout the state; it assisted local crime commissions; it acted as a catalyst to local projects, for example, to develop a probation training service of training probation aides in the courts; it participated in planning for the creation of a civil alcoholic detoxification and community referral center for alcoholics; it coordinated and cooperated with the Michigan Youth Commission on juvenile court improvements; and it also conducted conference on citizen volunteers in crime prevention.

The Commission brought together the membership of persons expert in the field of law enforcement and the administration of justice; it identified some of the most pressing problems of crime control and established priorities for study in Michigan; it examined most of the reports of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice and formed initial reactions to many of the recommendations as they applied to the Michigan situation; it cooperated in local programs which offered promise for crime prevention or enhancement of criminal justice; it made a few recommendations for legislators, it attended conferences in and out-of-state; and it organized a meeting in Washington for several governors planning committees. (See the pages attached to this report for further information.)

Evaluation

This definitely was one of the better commissions established under the OLEA special program. It tried to develop comprehensive plans for the whole criminal justice system, rather than concentrating on law enforcement to the exclusion of other agencies. It made possible a smooth transition to the successor organization--the LEAA funded State Planning Agency.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #72

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Yes.
2. Was the project innovative?  
Yes.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Yes, in Michigan.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
Possibly.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
No.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
No.
7. Remarks.  
At least this Commission paved the way for the State Planning Agency and its work was not useless.

Grant #73

Grantee: Tucson . Police Department, Tucson, Arizona

Amount: \$60,291

Dates: September 1966 to December 1967

Purpose: To assign a School Resource Officer (S.R.O.) Program of Policemen to work with junior high schools and elementary schools.

Summary

This is a continuation of a program that started in 1962. The application brought three additional schools into the program so that eight junior high school complexes in Tucson participated in the program during 1966 and 1967. The duties of the school resource officer included the following: lecturing, showing films, patrolling the schools, interviewing students and parents, contacting businessmen, and investigating complaints relating to juveniles. Probably less than 50% of the day consisted of programmed activities. If patrolling was included, the non-programmed activities would constitute eighty percent or more of a typical day, enabling a great deal of flexibility.

The reactions to the School Resource Officer Program varied: a substantial number of school administrators supported the program; a majority of the community supported or was

indifferent to the program; there was a strong minority, including some school administrators and the ACLU that actively opposed the program. Some of the criticisms leveled at the program were that it confused the role of community agencies, that police took over the responsibility of school counselors, and that it threatened disadvantaged children and minority groups.

The general goals of the program as stated in the guidelines were to help the child develop a positive concept of police officers and law enforcement, to help them gain a better understanding of the law enforcement function, and to prevent juvenile delinquency and crime.

In the evaluation by Jerry Miller, principal investigator of the evaluation phase, it was found that the only goal that was reached successfully was in giving the students a better understanding of the law enforcement function of the police. In the other areas there was not a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 73

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

To some degree.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Probably not.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. Should police officers be assigned to schools?

7. Remarks.

There were some vehement protests over the violation of the children's rights in having the police officer assigned. The assistant director of OLEA had to go down there to assure the people that this was not the purpose of the project.

Grant #77

Grantee: Richmond Professional Institute, Richmond, Virginia

Amount: \$13,638

Dates: September 1966 to June 1967

Purpose: To develop a four-year degree program in law enforcement. [This was supplemented later by Grant #244: \$25,000 from September 1967 to August 1968 for the first year operation of the degree program.]

Summary

Richmond Professional Institute had already developed a two-year associate degree program in law enforcement before this grant. Mr. Hormachea, who was sociologically oriented, was the advisor to the program and also the principal teacher in the program. That program was developed with the cooperation of Mr. James Stinchcomb, educational consultant of the IACP. At his recommendation in the old program, courses such as penology, treatment of juvenile delinquents, and other courses were dropped and replaced by police administration courses and criminal investigation.

After the grant was received Mrs. Lois Washer, chairman of the school of social science, was appointed project director and Mr. Hormachea was still retained as project advisor. Their problem was to develop a four-year program. Mr. Hormachea

designed a sample curriculum for the four-year program heavily weighted in the sciences such as biology, chemistry, algebra, and this was given tentative approval. It was submitted to the OLEA with the grant application.

Once again Mr. James Stinchcomb visited the campus and suggested certain "improvements" which changed the curriculum from the highly idealistic one endorsed by Mr. Hormachea that might possibly discourage students from applying for admission to a more realistic and less academic course of study. Then Mr. Stinchcomb proposed that the curriculum be revised to fit better into the associate degree program.

The new program seemed to be built more around sociology than police science courses. The associate degree program was fully transferable to the four-year program. It was proposed to include 127 hours based on a major of 36 semester hours of law enforcement, with 18 semester hours of sociology required of each student.

The course was so tight that only 9 semester hours were allowed for electives. Since its inception, the law enforcement program has been a part of the department of sociology and housed in the building rented from the City of Richmond. According to report it was an ideal arrangement since the Richmond police academy was also housed in the same building.



The name of the college was recently changed from Richmond Professional Institute to Virginia Commonwealth University.

Personnel included Mr. Hormachea as full time teacher as well as advisor and Mr. William Bechtel, retired chief of police of Redondo Beach, California, who held a bachelor and master degree in police administration from Los Angeles State College, California. He taught the police oriented courses and Mr. Hormachea the sociologically oriented courses. In addition, there were a number of part time teachers such as Mr. Velier who was chief of campus police and Mr. Michael Morchower who taught the forensic sciences. Other persons who were full time teachers in the Richmond Professional Institute also participated in the program.

Twenty-seven students enrolled in the bachelor of science program. At the conclusion of the grant period the number increased to 60 majors in the four-year program and 225 students enrolled in both the associate and bachelor degree program on a full and part time basis. It has expected that it would double again by the beginning of the 1969-1970 school year.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 77

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This project pointed to the conflict between the academic and professional approaches to education for police. Once again, this issue was not faced squarely and resolved, but bypassed.

Grant #78

Grantee: University of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii

Amount: \$14,679

Dates: August 1966 to June 1967

[This was supplemented later by Grant #215: \$24,991 from September 1967 to June 1968 for the first year of operation]

Purpose: To establish a two-year degree program.

Summary

Hawaii presented special difficulties because the system was spread over a number of islands, and air travel was the only method of transportation. There were five community colleges in the Hawaii Community College system. The program was started late, and it was difficult to recruit anyone to serve as coordinator. Therefore, the responsibilities of the coordinator were temporarily assumed by the University vice-president.

In August 1966, James Stinchcomb of the IACP was appointed as consultant to the system, retained for four weeks and charged with the following responsibilities: an evaluation of the state agency needs; the promotion of understanding of an associate degree program; development of a program and curriculum guide; and an evaluation of previous courses offered by the University.

The recommendations were not only for the associate program, but also for a four year course of study to supplement the associate degree curriculum.

In the meantime, the search went on for a coordinator, and finally Robert Lansing was appointed coordinator-instructor of the police science program. He had been coordinator-instructor of the police science program at the College of San Mateo.

In the proposed program the core would be offered at Honolulu Community College. There would be other general and professional courses at the other community colleges, so that most of the program could be completed at the colleges nearby. It would be only necessary for the police officer to come to Honolulu Community College for one semester or so of full time study.

The general admission requirements for enrollment were: any high school graduate or person 18 years or older who demonstrated an ability to profit from the instruction program. One additional requirement would be clearance of background (no criminal record).

In the spring of 1967 there were several in-service courses given, an introduction to law enforcement and police organization and administration. These were offered by two recently retired FBI agents residing in Honolulu.

In the summer session three courses were offered; police administration, criminal law, and fundamentals of delinquent and criminal behavior. Subsequently, the full semester program of three courses would be offered: introduction to law enforcement, general investigation, and patrol administration taught by Mr. Lansing, the present director and by two former captains of police.

The total enrollment for the police science program for the state of Hawaii was 230, of which 158 were police personnel. The teaching staff consisted of the director, Mr. Lansing, and three police captains from the Honolulu Police Department.

Currently, there is a two year associate degree program in police science which is heavily weighted in favor of police science courses. Thirty of the 50 credits are related to law enforcement. The purpose of the program, according to the report, was to provide the students with the basic information which an officer should have

when entering into the police service and also to keep the employed officer abreast of the changes that were taking place within the police field.

They are now developing a four year Bachelors Degree program to which some of the associate degree courses will be transferable.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 78 and # 215

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

To the extent that it shows how to overcome special transportation problems, yes. Otherwise, no.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This is another duplicate of the IACP program. If this type of college education for police turns out policemen who do not fit into the system, the police have only themselves (i.e. IACP) to blame.

Grant # 79

Grantee: International Association of Chiefs of Police

Amount: \$81,489

Dates: August 1966 to August 1967

Purpose: To conduct three regional training institutes of one month each for some 80 police chiefs in 20 states.

Summary

The three institutes were held at University of Georgia, 20 students; University of Maryland, 23 students; and California State Polytech, 17 students. In general, the police chief students were in their forties and fifties with high school education and little training beyond that, although the California group was somewhat younger and averaged about one year of college. Actually, each institute constituted about 17 working days. The areas for the first two institutes were:

1. Foundations of Justice
2. The Environment, Growth and Conflict
3. Man's Involvement
4. Individuals in Groups
5. The Basic Tools
6. The Human Tools
7. Management -- The Job

The third institute was somewhat different covering some

history and international relations in addition to the other subjects.

Basically, this was an attempt to offer these police executives some insights into sociology, psychology, social problems, and modern management techniques.

The teaching technique involved student participation and "buzz" sessions as much as possible. The evaluation was the usual opinion questionnaire given to participants.

No one can really prove that these workshops improve the performance of the participants when they return to their own commands. We accept them as valuable because of our faith in education.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 79

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Partly.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

A little.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Conferences of this type are always a staple of police training. There is very little evidence to prove that the seminars are valuable.

Grant #80

Grantee: Eastern Kentucky University and Kentucky Law  
Enforcement Council

Amount: \$15,000

Dates: September 1966 to June 1968

[This was supplemented later by Grant #240: \$14,993  
from September 1967 to June 1968]

Purpose: Planning grant to establish State Law Enforcement  
and Training Commission in Kentucky to develop legislation  
for standards for selection and training of officers.

Summary

The Kentucky Peace Officers' Standards and Training Council was organized in 1966, but its name was changed to Kentucky Law Enforcement Council and legally established by the Kentucky Legislature on June 13, 1968. Robert Stone, a retired FBI agent, was appointed Executive Director of the Council and the project. The Kentucky Legislature refused to pass an act making mandatory the standards recommended by the Council. Thus, the status of the Council was merely advisory and educational. The Council was authorized to establish and maintain a police training program; prescribe standards for police training, for police training schools, and police instructors at those schools; to issue certificates to instructors and schools, to study training and standards, and to acquire and dispose of property.

The Council in July 1968 conducted a one-week training program in police management taught by FBI instructors. More than 50 chiefs and sheriffs completed the course.

It was learned that representatives of the Fraternal

Order of Police felt they had been neglected by not being included as members of the organization. The Council at its fourth meeting voted to increase its membership by two to include the State President of the Fraternal Order of Police and the President of the Kentucky Peace Officers' Association. Captain Robert Schindler, President of the F.O.P., and Sheriff Joseph J. Sharpe, President of the K.P.O.A., were appointed by the Governor to be additional Council members.

A committee was appointed to study recommended minimum standards. At the sixth meeting this committee made the following recommendations:

1. All standards for law enforcement officers should be set by the Council. Legislation providing this should be recommended to the General Assembly, and if possible certain conflicting and out-moded statutes now on the books should be repealed. All statutes set would apply only to those officers employed after a certain date following the effective date of the act.

2. A provision should be included in the statute that any local jurisdiction may set standards more restrictive than the standards approved by the Council.

3. It is assumed that standards can be set only to cover non-elective law enforcement officers. Consideration has been given to deputy sheriffs actively engaged in law enforcement, and the committee feels that they should meet the requirements set forth below.

4. Standards

- a. United States citizen (no residence requirement).
- b. Shall have reached 21st but not 41st birthday at time of employment.

- c. Shall be a high school graduate or shall have received equivalency certificate and be able to read, write and understand the English language.
- d. Character
  - 1) Shall not have been convicted of or be under indictment for any felony or any crime involving moral turpitude.
  - 2) The hiring authority must be able to satisfy the Council, if requested to do so, that the applicant is of good moral character and mentally stable.
  - 3) Shall provide three copies of his photograph and fingerprints. One photograph and one set of fingerprints shall be filed with the hiring agency, one with the Kentucky State Police, and one with the Federal Bureau of Investigation.
- e. Physical Qualifications
  - 1) Male applicants must be at least 5'7" in height, and all applicants' weight must be consistent with their height.
  - 2) Must pass a physical examination, including testing of sight, color vision and hearing, by a qualified medical doctor.
  - 3) Must be capable of performing arduous physical exertion. Must have all appendages.

A committee was also appointed to draft a proposed statute. At this and subsequent meetings through January 1968, five proposed drafts were submitted to the Council by this Committee. The following curriculum proposed for a recruit training class by the Council, may also be considered its recommendation for

training standards although the report never clearly spelled it out.

Proposed Curriculum for police recruits in Kentucky

Registration and Orientation	1 hour
Arrest, Search and Seizure	2 hours
Organization of Notebook	1 hour
Criminal Law	10 hours
Traffic Laws	4 hours
Traffic Direction & Control	2-4 hours
Accident Investigation	2-8 hours
Report Writing	4-8 hours
Public Speaking	1 hour
First Aid	10 hours
Fingerprinting	2-4 hours
Defensive Driving	4-6 hours
a. Pursuit	1 hour
Mechanics of Arrest	3-4 hours
Laws of Arrest	2-3 hours
Records and Communications	1 hour
Public Relations	2 hours
a. Police and Community	
b. Race Relations	
c. Ethics	
Rules of Evidence	3 hours
Court Room Testimony, Demeanor	3 hours
Scientific Aids	3 hours
Narcotics	2 hours
Interview and Interrogation	2 hours
Firearms	21 hours
	<u>104 Maximum</u>

Evaluation

Only 2 hours were allowed for Public Relations (Police and Community, Race Relations, Ethics). This was a definite weakness. This area should be increased to at least 10 hours or 10% of the total.

The curriculum for recruits was weak in the following areas: community relations, orientation, human relations, role of the police, the criminal justice system, civil rights.

The standards of employment were very lax.

The Council faced the difficult task of making an impact upon police departments without any real power. It is not likely to effectuate much change for the latter under the present conditions.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 80 and #240

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not much.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The standards proposed by the Council were too low, and they were not made mandatory by the legislature.

Grant #82

Grantee: Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer  
Standards and Education.

Amount: \$33,838

Dates: September 1966 to February 1968

Purpose: To develop standards of selection, training,  
certification of instructors, and curriculum aids.

#### Summary

The attached pages taken from the final report show that the Commission did fulfill its goals only to fall short when the Legislature refused to pass the act making the standard mandatory.

#### Evaluation

It was wishful thinking on the Commission's part to assume that most departments would fulfill the requirements and procedures recommended by the Commission.

The Commission did establish standards for certification of law enforcement officers, instructors, police academies, and regional training centers. It prepared instructional material for the schools. Unfortunately, unless this is made mandatory, they will remain a symbol rather than a reality.

## APPENDIX A

OBJECTIVES OF THE COMMISSION

TO RAISE THE LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE OF LOCAL LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS BY ESTABLISHING MINIMUM STANDARDS RELATING TO PHYSICAL, MENTAL AND MORAL FITNESS; TO SUGGEST MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR RECRUITMENT OF OFFICERS; AND ESTABLISHING MINIMUM EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS TO BE ATTAINED BY THE OFFICERS.

Texas police authorities, recognizing the need for placing police officers more on a level with judges and prosecutors, and further, recognizing that better qualified policemen would help reduce crime and delinquency, deter potential law violators and demand and receive more respect as professional people, sought ways of "pulling themselves up by their own boot straps."

The police associations, through their Legislative Council, presented a bill to the legislature creating the Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education.

The main substance of the Act is found in the following sections:

Sec. 2. The Commission shall have authority to make full and complete studies, recommendations and reports to the Governor and the Legislature for the purpose of: (1)



suggesting reasonable minimum standards of officers appointed to enforce the laws of this State and the political subdivisions thereof; (2) suggesting basic minimum courses of training, training facilities, and qualifications and methods of training for law enforcement officers; (3) suggesting procedure for the certification of law enforcement officers and instructors.

## DEVELOPMENT AND PUBLICATION OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL

The Commission prepared lesson plans in the following subjects:

1. Justifiable Homicide
2. Murder
3. Breaking and Entering a Vehicle
4. Shoplifting
5. Vagrancy
6. Theft
7. Offenses Against Morals
8. Robbery
9. Burglary
10. Assault and Battery
11. Laws of Evidence
12. Theft and Illegal Possession of Mercury
13. Theft and Illegal Transportation of Copper Wire or  
Copper Cable
14. Homicide
15. General Aspects of Criminal Law
16. Driving Without Owner's Consent
17. Examinations on Criminal Law, Laws of Evidence, and  
Code of Criminal Procedure

18. How to Study
19. Classroom Notetaking
20. An 18 page paper on the 1967 Amendments to the Code  
of Criminal Procedure
21. Outline of Title 15 Texas Penal Code
22. Outline on Principles of Arrest

The above material is used in police training programs sponsored by the Commission, and is also furnished to police instructors who are in need of this material.

APPENDIX B

MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR EMPLOYMENT

As approved by

THE TEXAS COMMISSION ON LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICER  
STANDARDS AND EDUCATION

I. EDUCATIONAL REQUIREMENTS

Graduation from an accredited high school.

II. CITIZENSHIP

Must be a citizen of the United States.

III. PHYSICAL REQUIREMENTS

A. Age

1. Minimum age: Maturity is recognized as an important factor in the selection of police personnel. This cannot always be equated with age in terms of years. The Commission believes a good starting point is age 21, recognizing some deviation from the standard may be desirable.
2. Maximum age left to discretion of employing agency.

B. Height and weight

1. Minimum height should be 5 feet 7 inches.
2. Weight should be in proper proportion to height.  
It should not be less than 2 pounds nor more than 3 pounds per inch of height according to body build.

### C. Health

General health -- A physical examination should be required.

### D. Vision

1. Vision should be 20/20 (corrected if necessary) in both eyes and should not be less than 20/40 uncorrected in either eye.
2. Color blindness should be enough for rejection.

### E. Physical Examination

1. Physical condition should be determined by the designated examining physician.
2. Applicant should be in sound physical condition.
3. Applicant should be free from physical defects that could prevent the performance of duty.

## IV. CHARACTER AND REPUTATION

A. The purpose of a thorough and exhaustive investigation of the character and reputation of the applicant is an absolute necessity in order to minimize the incidents in which an individual who does not possess adequate moral standards and emotional stability may be recruited into the police service.

In order to assure the success of such background investigation, it is incumbent on all law enforcement

agencies to cooperate to the fullest extent, and to make their facilities available to one another.

B. Supported by a background investigation which would include:

1. Criminal

- a. Should not have been convicted of a felony (to be supported by a fingerprint check with FBI, DPS, local police and police from any city in which he may have had previous residence .
- b. Should not have been convicted of DWI or DUID.
- c. Should not have been convicted of any crime involving moral turpitude.
- d. Applicants with arrest records (including traffic) will be individually evaluated.

2. Traffic

- a. Must have a valid Texas Operator, Chauffeur, or Commercial Operator License. This license must not be in jeopardy of being suspended.
- b. Must not be an habitual violator of traffic laws.
- c. Must not have been convicted of FSRA or FSGI.

3. Previous Employment -- Must have a satisfactory

prior employment record with an honorable discharge from the military service if military service is a part of the employment record.

4. Satisfactory credit reference and record --

To be supported by reports from local credit bureaus (where possible).

5. Reputation in community -- Candidate's reputation in the community, including loyalty to the United States, both past and present, must be good.

6. Emotional stability -- Should be established through oral interview and investigation.

V. APTITUDE

A. It should be recognized that, though an applicant may meet all of the criteria for appointment pertaining to physical requirements, educational requirements, character and reputation, and citizenship, there remains the question as to whether he possesses the aptitude, capacity and adaptability for absorbing the training and skills which are essential to the performance of the law enforcement function.

However qualified an individual may be for the performance of other vocations, there is no guaranteed

method of ascertaining in advance whether he may possess the aptitude for applying himself to both the necessary studies and the actual performance of duties as a law enforcement officer.

Some indication of the individual's aptitude for law enforcement, however, may be acquired through application of the methods of written and oral examinations which are outlined below and one or more of both the written and oral examinations are recommended as standard procedure for new applicants entering the police field.

#### B. Written Examinations

1. There are a variety of aptitude, adaptability and comprehension tests available which have proven useful in the examination of police applicants. A listing of these may be secured from the Commission.



## APPENDIX C

TEXAS COMMISSION ON LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICER  
STANDARDS AND EDUCATIONCURRICULUM

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Hours Required</u>
1. CLASSROOM ORIENTATION & NOTETAKING	1
2. POLICE SERVICE AS A CAREER	1
3. BEAT PATROL & OBSERVATION	4
4. CODE OF CRIMINAL PROCEDURE	6
5. LAWS OF ARREST & SEARCH	8
6. MECHANICS OF ARREST	4
7. OFFENSIVE & DEFFENSIVE TACTICS	10
8. THE RULES OF EVIDENCE	4
9. CASE PREPARATION	4
10. OFFICER CONDUCT IN COURT	2
11. REPORT WRITING	4
12. CRIMINAL LAW	12
13. LOCAL CITY ORDINANCES	2
14. CRIMINAL INVESTIGATION	10
15. FIELD DEMONSTRATIONS	4
16. FIELD INTERROGATION & INTERVIEWS	6
17. CROWD CONTROL	4
18. JAIL PROCEDURES	2

19. FIREARMS TRAINING	12
20. HANDLING OF JUVENILES	2
21. FIRST AID	10
22. TRAFFIC SUPERVISION	24
23. POLICE & COMMUNITY RELATIONS	<u>4</u>
Total	140 hours

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 82

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
No. The legislature refused to make the standards mandatory.
2. Was the project innovative?  
No.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Not much. It was only advisory.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
No.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
No.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
Only how to succeed in the political aspect of criminal justice.
7. Remarks.  
Unless they are backed by legislation, standards of law enforcement remain utopian wishes.

Grant # 83

Grantee: Boise College, Boise, Idaho

Amount: \$14,758

Dates: September 1966 to August 1967

[This was supplemented later by Grant #246: \$24,991  
from September 1967 to June 1968 for the first year of  
operation]

Purpose: To establish a four-year degree program in law enforcement.

Summary

Two programs were established, an associate of science, a two year program and a four year bachelor of arts academic degree program in criminology with a major in law enforcement. The two year curriculum was designed to prepare police officers at the operational level, and the four year degree program emphasized the preparation of law enforcement supervisors, executives, administrators and training officers. There was no other degree program in Idaho for police officers. The college also extended field services in cooperation with the FBI and Idaho State Police. For in-service training, the instructor was taken into the field to visit the local law enforcement agencies

The requirement for the two year associate of science degree included 32 semester hours of basic requirements in the areas of English, physical education, humanities, social science, natural science and/or mathematics. Eighteen semester hours in pre-criminology or law enforcement programs courses, a minimum

**CONTINUED**

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of 64 semester hours with a grad point average of 2 was required for the associate of science degree.

The bachelor of arts degree in criminology with a major in law enforcement included 56 semester hours of basic requirements in liberal arts and social sciences, 36 hours in the major of criminology including 18 semester courses in law enforcement. Apparently, there were only two teachers in the program for law enforcement courses.

During the early stages of the project the professional advisory committee was formed to include representatives of various law enforcement agencies, the Attorney General, and local attorneys, etc. The enrollment in the law enforcement program was expected to number 25 students. However, in the field of criminology from which the potential law enforcement majors would be drawn counted 158 students and anticipated as many as 297 in 1969 and 1970.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 83 and #246

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The project has potential to reach a substantial number of local police.

Grant #88

Grantee: The Honolulu Police Department, Honolulu, Hawaii

Amount: \$19,947

Dates: September 1966 to July 1967

Purpose: To establish a one-week training institute in police-community relations for police, social agencies, churches, unions and minority group organizations, with a goal of 200 to 300 participants.

Summary

The institute was held in Honolulu, Hawaii, July 16-21, 1967, and the theme was "Working Together in Achieving Liberty and Justice for All." The Michigan State University School of Police Administration and Public Safety and the National Center on Police-Community Relations assisted in developing the program. The two hundred participants received a certificate of attendance in the police-community relations institute.

The institute consisted of speakers, workshops, clinics, and panels.

In general, the workshops were rated very highly and the clinics were rated low. Luncheon speakers were considered ineffective.

The suggestion was offered that there was a need for (1) participation by more local community representatives, (2)



follow-up to assure that there was action not just talk, (3) more workshops, (4) councilmen, legislators, industry and lower echelon police to be present at the institute, and (5) an annual institute.

In reviewing the list of speakers we observed that many of the same people appeared quite frequently at other institutes of this kind. Professor Louie Radelet, Director Brandstatter of the Michigan State University School of Police Administration and Public Safety, Dr. Nelson Watson of the IACP, Police Chief Garmire of Tucson, were rather well known.

How effectively this institute functioned was never really determined, and this is a generic problem of all institutes.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 88

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Probably not.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. How effective is a short institute on a topic like police-community relations?

7. Remarks.

It is interesting to see that the same well known figures are in attendance as far away as Honolulu.

Grant #89

Grantee: Washington, D.C. Department of Corrections

Amount: \$74,530

Dates: October 1966 to February 1968

Purpose: To establish a model research unit on the effectiveness of the correctional process. This was a proposal, not a final report.

#### Summary

The objectives of this research demonstration unit were 1) to develop a basic statistical collection procedure, 2) to develop post-release crime statistics, including expectancy tables, 3) to evaluate for different groups of offenders various types of programs available in specific institutions, 4) to evaluate the effectiveness of current programs in the institution, 5) to establish appropriate experimental projects which would not only improve but also expand the efficiency of the correctional process, 6) to establish other types of research where necessary, and 7) to utilize the findings and data from the research unit to determine the most efficient plan of operation for the department of correction.

The rationale for this research organization was that without experimental evidence based on experimental and control groups outside the agency it would be impossible to get hard

data that could be relied upon. Subjective impressions are defective because they are usually based on generalizations from atypical cases which are singled out for special attention. Failure cases are brought back to the correctional process and success cases are no longer known since their lack of criminality keeps them out of contact with correctional agencies. Frequently, the offender's presumed rehabilitation is seen in the artificial environment of the correctional institution; since the prisoners often learn to conform with staff expectations to avoid punishment and gain privileges, this unnatural observation of the inmate causes false judgments about the reformation of the inmate.

One of the most interesting proposals stated that all prisoners released in 1960 might be followed up five years later to see whether they were recidivists. This was a standard higher than the ordinary test of success of a parole or a correctional program, which is two or sometimes three years of staying out of prison.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 89

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

In some respects.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Some for corrections.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. What should be the standard for parole success?  
How many years of law abiding life fulfill the criterion for rehabilitation?

7. Remarks.

One proposal was for the correctional officer to spend a day as a prisoner to get the "feel" of prison life. But this procedure was cancelled before it began.

Grant #90

Grantee: Des Moines, Iowa Police Department

Amount: \$14,054

Dates: October 1966 to October 1967

Purpose: A crime prevention program training community people to help prevent crime.

Summary

The program was called the COPS Program --Co-working Officers for Public Security-- and about 150 community people were trained at the Police Academy in a 20-hour course designed to familiarize them with methods of preventing crime. It aimed especially to assist businessmen in preventing frauds, burglaries, robberies, auto thefts, shop lifting, etc.

There was an interesting implication in the police view of the world propounded on page 3 of the report. The study pointed out that it was important, when you wanted to get meaningful help and action from the public, to get the segment that was intelligent, that could be viewed as leaders and influential people in this sphere of activities, and who would be willing to take the time necessary to commit themselves to finding solutions. And it then identified this group within the community as businessmen and businesswomen who represented the aggressive, talented, and involved section of any city.

To help them understand and believe an idea was to have real power and effort channeled toward an effective solution, according to the project.

The Des Moines Police Department prepared a ten-week course, one night per week, two hours each session at the Police Academy, in methods of defense against crime. Other objectives of the program were to stimulate crime prevention thinking, public support of the police department, a closer relationship between police officers and the community, and to motivate the citizens into becoming knowledgeable eyes for the police department.

As an added inducement each participant was given a loose-leaf binder with fill-ins each day, name tags, and a complete roster, listing the students alphabetically along with their application.

Some of the material within the course included the following:

First week: Introduction to the Des Moines Police Department

Third week: Shoplifting

Fifth week: Crime Scene Evidence

Seventh week: Identifying Suspects

Ninth Week: Police Services for You

Other subjects were: building and home security, bad checks, safes, fireproof containers.

The problem was that the report pinpointed all the difficulties and advantages of the program, but did not reveal whether there was any resulting reduction in crime, or whether there was any improvement in the atmosphere in the street. The report was entirely restricted to the classroom situation.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 90

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

There was no evidence on this point.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Probably not.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The fact that there was no evaluation of results was a serious weakness. It would have been easy to collect data on this phase of the study.

Grant #93

Grantee: St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department

Amount: \$158,781

Dates: October 1966 to October 1967

[This was supplemented later by Grant #284: \$79,850]

Purpose: A detoxification facility for drunken persons taken into police custody.

Summary

The grantee aimed to establish a 30 bed detoxification center at St. Mary's Infirmary in St. Louis, Missouri. It followed from a 1963 St. Louis Police Department directive requiring that all individuals arrested or suspected of public intoxication be medically examined at a city hospital.

St. Louis had experienced a great burden on police service, on court time and on jail expense because of required police action in the numerous arrests for intoxication. The time expended by a police officer in processing an inebriate from arrest to detention averaged 190 minutes.

Two United States Court of Appeals' cases, Driver v. Hinnant and Easter v. District of Columbia, established the rule that a chronic alcoholic was not a criminal if his public drunkenness was a result of disease. Therefore it was necessary to establish detoxification centers that would remove the chronic drunks from the street to a place where they could receive special medical help rather than be prosecuted through police, courts and jails.

The alcoholic offender will be exposed to the following treatment process: 1. The police officer will take the

- 2 -

intoxicated person to the reception room of the center where forms will be completed and personal property will be safeguarded; 2. The center personnel will begin routines for detoxification procedure. If the alcoholic is ill in a physical or psychiatric sense, he will be conveyed to the appropriate city hospital; 3. He will be showered and deloused, then clothed and assigned a bed; 4. The patient will remain in bed for one or two days until he becomes ambulatory. A drug will be applied in which vitamins, tranquillizers and a high protein diet will be the main ingredients; 5. A program of physical therapy will be undertaken; 6. There will be an in-patient program in which lectures, therapies, socio-drama, and other rehabilitative procedures will be given to the inebriate; 7. He will be counseled by staff members; he will be given employment information, and finally discharge will be made by the multi-disciplinary team with the appropriate follow up and aftercare.

This will be a team effort among the police, the medical profession, and the social profession. The evaluation of the program will be carried out by the Social Science Institute of Washington University in St. Louis under the direction of Dr. David J. Pittman and Laura E. Root. They will be assisted by Mr. Michael Laski, the research assistant of the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department.

The evaluation will fall into two categories: 1) The

- 3 -

impact of the detoxification center on the criminal justice system and 2) the impact of the center on the offender himself. The success of the program will be measured by the following variables: 1) Time required for the police officer to process an intoxicated offender. (This should be sharply reduced.) 2) The number of cases of intoxicated defendants in the city courts. (This should be reduced.) 3) The number of those arrested for public intoxication who are sentenced to the city workhouse.

The admission form for each patient entering the center will contain a mass of information that will promote increased research capabilities to the evaluating team. It will permit an analysis of the types of offenders, the demographic profile of the population, the rate of recidivism, the kinds of referrals, and the possibility of a follow-up study of detoxification center patients.

It is hypothesized that the intervention of the center will effect the following changes for the future: 1) Fewer arrests; 2) Greater employment; 3) Longer periods of sobriety; 4) More residential stability; 5) Acceptance for treatment by other agencies; 6) Membership in Alcoholics Anonymous. The follow-up study will be limited to a sample of 200 patients because of budgeting restrictions.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 93

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Yes, by treating drunken persons as sick rather than as criminals.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes, can this treatment be extended to other categories of victimless crime?

7. Remarks.

A later report claimed that the project was working successfully.

Grant #094

Grantee: University of Mississippi

Amount: \$15,000

Dates: September 1966 to November 1967

[This was supplemented later by Grante #285: \$24,000

from December 1, 1967 to November 1968 for the operation  
of the degree program]

Purpose: To produce a four-year law enforcement degree program.

Summary

The University employed Assistant Professor of political science, Richard Compton, to take charge of the program. He had a MA degree in criminology from Florida State University and had experience with police departments in Florida. He observed law enforcement groups in Mississippi and programs in other states. He conferred with the IACP.

It was decided to place the program in the Department of Political Science as a bachelor of public administration degree program. However, the University could not get accreditation for the police program. As a result this program for a law enforcement degree was transferred to the College of Liberal Arts again within the Department of Political Science which was also shifted to the College of Liberal Arts.

Three programs were started: a bachelor of arts, with a major in law enforcement (a four year program), a one year certificate program in law enforcement, and a correspondence course in law enforcement. Of 53 individuals enrolled for law enforcement courses in the first semester most were political science majors. The last enrollment for law enforcement courses in the second semester of 1967-68 increased by 37%, approximately a total number of 85 to 87.

It turned out that political science majors taking the course under the political science department were afraid that they were not taking enough courses in their field of concentration. Therefore, it was decided to change the degree to a political science law enforcement combined major requiring 30 semester hours in which there were many political science courses required. Sociology was a mandatory minor. Political science majors could only apply 6 semester hours of law enforcement towards their major. A student majoring in law enforcement had to complete 30 semester hours of political science and law enforcement courses and 18 semester hours of sociology. However, a study of the description of the courses in the report disclosed that the law enforcement courses were retitled as political science courses. For example, political science 331 was a survey of law enforcement, political science 333 was criminal investigation. Nevertheless, it was good to see that there was a strong background of liberal arts subjects which every student was required to

complete. For example, 12 semester hours of English, 12 hours of natural sciences, 12 hours of two social sciences, 4 to 12 hours of physical education or ROTC. The remaining 6 to 26 semester hours were electives. In the 1967-68 school years only 5 or 6 students were really pursuing the major in law enforcement. However, registration for the 1968-69 fall semester revealed that almost 60 were either majoring or taking a minor in the field of law enforcement.

There was one full time teacher, and two part-time teachers. The certificate program was a one year program for persons interested in law enforcement as well as allied fields who wanted law enforcement orientation. The certificate was granted upon completion of 24 semester hours of the courses listed below, 15 of which were from Group A, the law enforcement courses, and others are from Group B, sociology courses, C, the psychology courses and D the law courses.

The correspondence course appeared sensible because there were very few policemen available to attend the course. For example, the largest city near the University of Mississippi is Oxford which had 10 police officers, the largest department within a 55 mile radius. Since Mississippi was so isolated the need for a correspondence course for service offices throughout the state was practicable.



The final report was rather optimistic in that it says one of the long-range objectives would be the development of a graduate program as well as the development of adult education programs to provide in-service offices with continuous training.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 094 and #285

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

It provided a needed service to a regional area.  
It did not examine fundamental issues.

Grant #95

Grantee: Oregon Advisory Board on Police Standards and  
Training

Amount: \$29,990

Dates: January 1967 to February 1968

[This was supplemented later by Grant #334: \$25,000  
from May 1968 to April 1969]

Purpose: To help the Board expand its program-- revision  
of training, certification of students, development  
of corps of instructors.

Summary

The Board accomplished some of its goals. Especially important was its role in securing the passage of a mandatory law enforcement training act requiring certification of police officers after January 1, 1968. Unfortunately, the act made an inadequate 120-hour basic course the minimum standard for certification.

The Oregon Board, considering this totally inadequate, developed a 250-hour course that was superior to the one being used. At the time of the final report (summer 1969) no legislative action had been taken on bills that would have substituted the 250-hour course for the 120-hour program.

### Evaluation

Therefore, all that emerged was: 1. A series of recommendations for improvement of law enforcement training, 2. The development of manuals, visual aids, and course curricula, and 3. A proposal for a police instructors course of 50 hours.

The 250-hour basic course proposal fell far short of the 400-hour standards recommended by the President's Crime Commission Task Force on the Police. It had nothing on civil liberties, or on ethics, or on the role of the police except what could be included in a 2-hour introduction to law enforcement.

Nevertheless, the proposed 250-hour course was an improvement over the present standards. The recommendation for certification and points for education leading to higher salaries had merit. The small departments outside the large cities needed help and this was one way of getting them better trained policemen.

Accrediting agencies and establishment of state-wide law enforcement standards of recruitment and training were worthwhile contributions.

The following pages taken from the grantee's final report describe its work.

## APPENDIX

GRANTEE SUMMARY

The objectives of Grant 334-(054) were:

1. Initiate and perfect a procedure whereby the Board on Police Standards and Training issues Basic, Intermediate, and Advanced Certificates to qualified officers.
2. Improve and expand the present program of basic training, including visual aids.
3. Assist the Regional Training Councils to improve the advanced training programs throughout the state by providing specialized training schools in the various areas.
4. Cooperate with and assist the various statewide law enforcement associations in the establishment of one organization open to all law enforcement officers of the state and develop therein a training committee to work with the Board as a representative voice of law enforcement throughout the state.
5. Initiate and perfect an Instructor Course at a statewide academy.
6. Conduct a preliminary study to determine the needs to be furnished by a new statewide police academy facility.

The Police Standards and Training Act was enacted by the 1961 Oregon Legislative Assembly and signed into law by the then Governor Mark O. Hatfield. This Act created the Advisory Board on Police Standards and Training for the purpose of encouraging and assisting municipalities and counties in their efforts to raise the level of local law enforcement by recommending minimum standards of recruitment and basic training.

Prior to the enactment of the Police Standards and Training Act, formal basic training was limited to the major police departments. Smaller departments had to rely heavily on voluntary regional training schools. Although there was no uniformity or standardization of basic training, the regional schools did fill a definite need to acquaint local police officers with some basic phases of police work.

The 1967 Oregon Legislative Assembly amended the Police Standards and Training Act changing the role of the Board from that of an advisory board to that of a regulatory agency, empowered to establish and enforce minimum standards of training. The new law also called for mandatory certification of police officers after January 1, 1968. The Board was empowered to establish requirements for certification and to certify officers complying with the requirements.

The previously recommended standards of recruitment were adopted as one condition for certification. A 120-hour basic training course was developed and implemented. Satisfactory completion of this course was decreed a condition for certification.

### BASIC TRAINING EXPANSION

The purpose of this objective was to develop a curriculum for an expanded and improved mandatory basic training course for newly appointed police officers. During the grant period, a 250-hour curriculum was developed which includes the following essential elements: (1) specific subject matter areas; (2) course description; and (3) training time allotted for each of the subject areas.

#### Subject Matter Areas

This work was accomplished by giving principal attention to the subject matter that would most likely result in recruits being able to perform their duties efficiently and effectively. A great deal of law enforcement experience and consideration of training needs were the basis for judgments concerning the specified subject matter areas as shown in Table I.



TABLE I

A.

<u>Subject Matter Area</u>	<u>Minimum Training Time</u>
Introduction to Law Enforcement . . . . .	2 hours
Criminal Law . . . . .	12 hours
Criminal Evidence . . . . .	8 hours
Administration of Justice . . . . .	8 hours
Juvenile Procedures . . . . .	6 hours
Criminal Investigation . . . . .	44 hours
Offensive-Defensive Tactics . . . . .	17 hours
Patrol Techniques . . . . .	23 hours
Traffic Operations . . . . .	23 hours
Firearms . . . . .	26 hours
Community-Police Relations . . . . .	22 hours
General Topics . . . . .	11 hours
Examinations . . . . .	<u>4 hours</u>
Total	200 hours

B. Forty (40) credit hours shall be received in supervised field training in the officer's department.

C. Ten (10) credit hours shall be received for completion of the Standard First Aid Course.

## SPECIFICATION

BASIC, INTERMEDIATE, AND ADVANCED CERTIFICATES

## 1. GENERAL PROVISIONS

- (a) All applications for an award of the Basic, Intermediate, or Advanced Certificate shall be completed on the prescribed Board form entitled, "Application for Award of Certificate."
- (b) Each applicant shall attest that he subscribes to the Law Enforcement Code of Ethics.
- (c) Each applicant shall meet the Board's prescribed minimum standards for recruitment and training established pursuant to ORS 181.640.
- (d) In addition to the requirements set forth in (c) above, each applicant for the award of an Intermediate or Advanced Certificate shall have completed the designated education and training, combined with the prescribed law enforcement experience, OR, shall hold the college degree designated, combined with prescribed law enforcement experience.

## 2. EDUCATION POINTS

- (a) One semester unit shall equal one and one-third points.
- (b) One quarter term unit shall equal one point.

3. TRAINING POINTS

- (a) Twenty classroom hours of police training approved by the Board shall equal one point.

SUGGESTED VOLUNTARY INCENTIVE PROGRAM

1. Possession of the Intermediate Certificate would qualify the officer for a 7.5% pay increase above his base salary.
2. Possession of the Advanced Certificate would qualify the officer for a 15% pay increase above his base salary.
3. To remain eligible to receive the Incentive Program pay increase, the officer would requalify each year by:
  - (a) Successfully completing no less than 50 classroom hours of education or training which would be recognized by the Board as courses credited toward the Intermediate or Advanced Certificate, OR,
  - (b) Completing a project approved by the department head, OR,
  - (c) Successfully completing courses specified and approved by the department head other than those recognized by the Board when, in the judgment of the department head the course has added to the professional development of the officer, and the community will benefit from such training and education.

The certificates could be used for the purpose of lateral transfer between police agencies. They could also be used by a police department to measure the level of education, training, and experience of individual officers as well as the

the entire department. Ultimately, the certificates could be a factor in promotions to supervisory and command positions.

These suggested incentives are offered as a guide in considering purposes for which the certificates could be used. It would appear that a Basic, Intermediate, and Advancement Certificate Program could be used for many more purposes than are suggested in this proposal.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 95 (See #334)

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
No.
2. Was the project innovative?  
No.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Not much.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
No.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
No.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
No.
7. Remarks.  
See evaluation sheet for Grant #82 for a repetition of this one. ("Unless they are backed by legislation, standards of law enforcement remain utopian wishes.")

Grant #96

Grantee: Maryland State Department of Education, Baltimore,  
Maryland.

Amount: \$12,123

Dates: October 1966 to June 1967

Purpose: To develop and test a course on citizenship and the  
law as a crime preventive in twenty junior high schools  
in three counties.

Summary

It was a three-week unit incorporated into existing social studies programs in junior high schools' civics or government courses. The goals were (1) to emphasize understanding and appreciation of the law and law enforcement, (2) to stimulate instructional units which might deter the growth of juvenile crime in their communities, (3) to provide an index of the degree to which education should become involved in certain areas, meeting the challenge presented by increasing juvenile delinquency, and (4) to stimulate interest and concern in this area of citizenship education on the part of education leaders and other citizens.

No attempt was made to select special teachers or students. The selection process was based upon a random sample of teachers who were most interested and willing to cooperate

in the project. No control or experimental groups were established to determine significant differences, although there were some studies and surveys administered to the students and teachers. Apparently, in the great majority of cases, the participants were favorably disposed toward the program.

At a final meeting of the advisory committee, acting on the wealth of evaluative comments received from individual schools, it was agreed that the four goals of the project were met to an exceptionally high degree for such a comparatively short period of time. It must be understood, nevertheless, that there was no attempt to determine whether as a result of this program, the children exposed to it did have a significantly lower rate of juvenile delinquency than some others who were not exposed to the program.

A statement on page 16 says that criminal division personnel were developing plans to follow-up with local agencies the possible effect of this project's impact upon the seven thousand or more students who were exposed to it. They would attempt to evaluate its influence upon children in deterring them from active participation in criminal activities. It says, however, that this was a pilot resource project and was to be evaluated as such, and that it was a successful



beginning. Its potential was seemingly unlimited, according to the project director, Earl Schubert.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 96

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Probably not.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The Cincinnati project introducing a law enforcement sequence into the schools was superior to this one.

Grant #097

Grantee: University of Mississippi (National Sheriffs Association cooperating) Oxford, Mississippi

Amount: \$62,004

Dates: October 1966 to April 1968

Purpose: To provide "a mass of heretofore unavailable data descriptive of the organization, operation and law enforcement responsibilities, needs, problems and potential of southern sheriffs."\*

Summary

It was hoped that this information would immediately be useful in at least three ways: (1) help LEAA evaluate the relative worth of future grant proposals relating to sheriff's departments; (2) assist planning of programs to up-grade sheriffs departments; and (3) provide the individual sheriffs studied with information that would help them evaluate their department relative to others.

The method used was a combination of a questionnaire survey of the 972 sheriffs in the South and a structured interview with 165 of them -- as well as a search of the statutes relating to sheriffs' obligations and responsibilities. The project resulted in a 230-page report which dealt with the following: term; tenure; selected characteristics of incumbents; compensation; law enforcement; judicial administration; jail administration; tax collection; personnel; budgeting; training and relationships among law enforcement agencies.

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\* Dana B. Brammer and James E. Hurley, A Study of the Office of Sheriff in the United States (University, Mississippi: Bureau of Governmental Research, 1968), p. 3.

### Evaluation

The study was a profile of some important and some trivial aspects of southern sheriffs' departments. In a subtle way the authors circumvented their intention not to evaluate or prescribe, but only to look at and describe the office of sheriff. They described many features of the incumbents of the office including: their age when they first assumed office; their educational attainment; their major fields of study; their immediate prior occupation; and other sociological, legal and operational minutiae such as the calendar of elections and terms; the shift arrangement of road patrols and the possession of riot equipment. Some of these items of information will undoubtedly be helpful in gauging the present state of the art of sheriffing in the South, and this, in turn, might lead to innovations such as state commissions on peace officer standards and training. Such an outcome would be one step towards better law enforcement.

The flaw in the study, however, is fundamental. It lies in the basic decisions which were made regarding what information was essential to know in order to assess the state of the office of sheriff and to plan either upgrading or demonstration projects. The bias here is quite clear. For example, out of 81 tables on various aspects of the sheriffs' offices none made any reference to the matter of race. Also, whereas the total number of sheriffs' automobiles by 1960 county population-size group was given, the number of Negroes on the various forces was never given. And also, whereas the frequency of attendance by sheriffs at their respective county governing board meetings was given, the number of sheriff-community-relations units was never discussed. In short, the study avoided many critical issues and deals in trivia.

The possible retort to this criticism is that asking questions about these issues might have aroused hostility, reduced the (60%) return rate and might have resulted in less cooperation from the interviewees. But, then, was it necessary to use this particular methodology? Was a complete census necessary? Could not a stratified sample have been just as useful? After all, this project was, in one sense, just a kind of "quality control" type of operation.

Furthermore, if in fact there were no ways to get at essential information, what was the point in compiling trivia? Most important of all, by proceeding with the study while avoiding many of the vital albeit difficult issues, the project did not remain ethically neutral (as its authors suggested), but subtly contributed to the view that these vital issues were not vital and/or did not exist.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 097

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Yes.
2. Was the project innovative?  
No.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Unknown.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
Unknown.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
No.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
No.
7. Remarks.

This type of project presents the grant administrator with a difficult problem of control. On the one hand, it is pointless to fund a project that is going to dabble in trivia and avoid all the rough spots. On the other hand, an administrator can interfere too much with the project director. However, this case illustrates the need for some research accounting or monitoring by the administrator. Some hard questions about the value and feasibility of this survey should have been put to the project director. "Providing a mass of data" is a very weak justification for funding.

Grant #99

Grantee: National Council on Crime and Delinquency and the  
Menninger Foundation, Topeka, Kansas

Amount: \$9,387

Dates: December 1966 to April 1967

Purpose: To develop a three-day institute in Topeka, Kansas  
on the management and treatment of mentally disordered  
offenders.

Summary

Correction personnel from nine Western states were invited to this institute. They were from New Mexico, Utah, Arizona, Colorado, Kansas, Oklahoma, Nevada, Wyoming, and Nebraska. The purpose of the institute was to improve the handling of prisoners with mental problems in adult institutions. The institute hoped to approach this goal by improving the level of understanding between prison administrators and the psychiatric profession.

Other goals of the institute were: to develop practical correctional programs using psychiatric and psychological services, to develop administratively feasible and economical methods of providing services for areas having few resources, to provide research and advance progressive practical examples of new programs, to review the practical considerations

concerning the release and supervision of the possibly hazardous prisoner with mental problems, and to develop a training project to upgrade programs in the participant states.

The institute established three criteria to determine if the program was successful: 1) evidence of appreciation for the institute by the participants; 2) evidence of willingness to use what was taught upon return to the home city; 3) evidence of participation in plans for additional institute activities. The faculty of the institute combined practical field experience with theoretical and management ability. The institute encouraged an open exchange between corrections and psychiatry wherein each was free to criticize or acknowledge weaknesses.

The content of the institute revolved around the following points: 1. Psychiatry must be much more specific in its contribution to corrections; it must spell out the practical implications for handling a person as well as providing for a mere diagnostic label. 2. Psychiatric principles applied to management especially in the handling and management of crisis would be welcomed by correctional people all over. 3. Psychiatric recommendations ought to be geared to the facilities of the institutions and, in addition, possible alternatives ought to



be offered. 4. The need to establish a complete partnership of responsibility between psychiatrists and correctional people rather than having merely a token relation. 5. The problem of psychiatrists who consider adult correctional institutions relatively undesirable places to work as compared with juvenile institutions. 6. The problem faced by psychiatrists in that adult penitentiary programs seem almost designed to produce mental degeneration. 7. The possibility that much of the treatment needs of its prison program could be performed by people other than psychiatrists. 8. The use of psychiatry in training correctional officers. 9. The need for treatment disciplines such as psychiatry to set out their goals more clearly in terms that have meaning for persons with non-psychological backgrounds. 10. The question of how to prove that treatment works, which is a major problem.

There were 56 participants in the institute. In the very brief evaluation it appeared that the participants benefited from the institute as a training experience, and that apparently it was a successful indoctrination because it had motivated the participants to change some of their practices. Moreover, there was an evident aura of good will between correction and psychiatry. Therefore, according to the evaluation, the training institute accomplished what it had set out to do.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 99

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not much.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. How much change was generated by the conference?  
The evaluation on this point is not thorough enough.

7. Remarks.

There is usually a spirit of animosity or distrust on the part of the correctional people toward psychiatry. This project glossed over that aspect of the relation.

Grant #102

Grantee: Boston University Law School

Amount: \$63,517

Dates: January 1967 to January 1968

Purpose: To use senior law students as prosecutors in minor criminal cases. This was a proposal, not a final report.

Summary

On June 20, 1966 the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts authorized senior students in law schools, with the approval of the Dean, to appear without compensation on behalf of the Commonwealth in criminal proceedings in any District Court, provided that the case would be under the general supervision of a District Attorney.

The Boston University School of Law proposed to develop a clinical program in which selected law students would take a concentrated lecture series on District Court practice and procedure as it related to the prosecution of criminal cases; then they would proceed to the prosecution of criminal cases in the District courts supervised by a full time supervising Assistant Attorney General and an assistant attorney to be assigned to the project. In conjunction with this, the students would take a three credit course in Advanced Problems in Criminal Procedure.

The justification for this program was rather unusual. Ordinarily, the complaint is made that defendants do not have resources enough to get a fair trial. Now Boston University had developed the theory that because the prosecution of criminal cases in the District Court was conducted primarily by police officers who were not attorneys, the cases were not handled properly, and therefore the Commonwealth of Massachusetts was not being properly represented in the prosecution.

The assignment of law students to prosecute the cases was proposed as an improvement. This project was developed in conjunction with an expanded voluntary defender program which performed similarly on the defendant's side.

Fifteen students would be selected for the program. The intensive four-week lecture series concerning District Court practice and procedure in criminal cases would be given by a supervising assistant District Attorney. He would arrange for lectures to be given by the Clerk of the Court, probation officers, assistant district attorneys, police, prosecutors and certain faculty members. This heavy indoctrination was equivalent to the course that many novice attorneys received when they first went into practice.

The first project would be restricted to the Dorchester courts. The supervising assistant District Attorney, or his

assistant, would be the attorney of record in every case and they would be physically present during the court appearance of any student who participated in the project. Furthermore, the supervising attorney would be free to intervene in the proceeding at any time, if he desired to do so. Therefore, the student was actually working for the prosecution as part of a team rather than wholly on his own.

The program would occupy offices in Boston University School of Law and in addition, an office would be located near the particular District Court involved. There would be a basic law library, and a room for interviewing witnesses and conducting other business connected with the project.

The supervising assistant District Attorney and his assistant would screen all cases and, in conjunction with the judge of the court and the local police officials, would determine what cases were appropriate for trial by student prosecutors. The District Courts have jurisdiction over violations of local ordinances, all misdemeanors (except conspiracy and libel), and all felonies punishment by imprisonment for a period of not more than five years. They also hold hearings to establish "probable cause and binding over" on more serious felonies which will subsequently be tried in the Superior Court.

The students would be primarily concerned with misdemeanors and lesser felonies where challenging legal problems were more

likely to occur. Among these offenses are simple assaults, passing worthless checks, various larcenies, unauthorized use of automobile, frauds, drunken driving, family offenses, vandalism, and gambling.

When the student received an assignment, he would discuss the case with the supervising attorney in terms of the legal, evidentiary, and practical problems it presented. Then he would conduct whatever research was necessary. He would secure and interview witnesses. He would draw up motions and responses to special pleas where they were appropriate. If additional time was necessary to prepare the case, the student might seek a continuance which would normally be granted if there was no objection by the defendant. After disposition the case might be appealed to the Superior Court. The caseload of each student should be an average of one case every two weeks, or about 15 cases per student during the academic year of 30 weeks. Based on past experience such a load could be expected to require six to ten hours of the Student's time a week.

The Legal Studies Institute of Boston University Law School which had experience in the defender program would supervise this student prosecutor program.

An evaluation of this project would be conducted from several points of view. There would be detailed records kept

as to the offenses prosecuted, the final dispositions, the types of sentence, and the frequency of appeal. These statistics could then be compared with records of the Court before the introduction of the program. Records would also be kept with respect to the types of legal problems raised by these prosecutions. That information might give valuable insight into the impact of Supreme Court decisions in that area. There might result from this a better understanding of the problems the police face in their efforts to abide by recent Supreme Court decisions.

In addition to the evaluation of empirical data, faculty personnel would frequently observe the students as they conduct trials to evaluate their progress in the courtroom situation. This same type of qualitative evaluation would be carried on by a sociologist recruited from the faculty of the Boston University School of Liberal Arts who would interview judges, police, and attorneys to determine the psychological and sociological effects of such a project on the judicial institution.

Some of the future goals of this program will be to inspire greater post-Law School participation in the area of criminal law and administration on the prosecution side as well as the defense. The student prosecutors will gain invaluable experience which no purely academic course can hope to duplicate.

Student prosecutors will make a concrete contribution to the efficient prosecution of offenses. The program will demonstrate to the Legislature the need for expanding the number of trained lawyer-prosecutors for similar service. And finally, it is hoped that other states will emulate this example.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #102

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Yes.
2. Was the project innovative?  
Yes.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Yes. It brought a vital new element into the courtroom.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
Probably not.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
Yes.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
Yes. How far students can replace experienced lawyers at all stages of the case.
7. Remarks.  
Projects like this should be expanded to other law schools.

Grant #103

Grantee: Joint Council on Technology and the Administration of Justice,  
Sacramento, California

Amount: \$25,000

Dates: October 1966 to March 1968

Purpose: To establish a fifteen member council to coordinate the  
California Criminal Justice system.

Summary

The Attorney General secured the support of the governor who issued a directive establishing the Joint Council on Technology and Administration of Justice on December 1, 1965. The membership of the Council was representative of the major governmental agencies which made up California's system of criminal justice.

The objective of the joint Council was not only to provide leadership for an approved state-wide justice system. It was also to provide direction through the Criminal Justice Information System which was planned. This system based on modern computer technology was a combination of information systems and modern techniques of management.

This was the first time that responsible officials of the various agencies of criminal justice in California were brought together for joint planning. The decisions and operational actions at one level of government within the system would have an impact on the decisions and operational requirements of an associated agency. Technological improvements could be developed, installed and operations measured, so that resources could be more widely allocated and coordinated. Available resources and skills would now be marshalled to engage in an innovative attack upon the many current problems of crime control.

The Joint Council approved the following statement of functions:

1. It was to function as a state-wide planning and coordinating body for an integrated program of law enforcement, crime and delinquency prevention, correction and rehabilitation, and over-all administration of criminal justice in California.
2. It was to provide leadership and support for the development of local, regional, and state-wide programs.
3. It was to coordinate with the Federal Government in the development and implementation of a national crime prevention program.
4. It was to provide counsel and advice to agencies in California seeking support under the LEAA.
5. It was to propose, develop, and initiate state-wide action programs in support of the administration of criminal justice.
6. It was to conduct specific studies and determine the adequacy of the functions in criminal justice.
7. It was to provide a forum for the exchange of ideas, information, and discussion of problems.
8. It was to provide for the administration and management of California law enforcement assistance programs.

The following activities of the Joint Council were representative of its work:

1. It prepared and submitted applications for the OLEA support of the criminal justice information system study.
2. It selected a project director for the criminal justice information system.
3. It prepared a crime package consisting of various studies of California administration of justice:
  - A. The Criminal Justice Information System Design Study;
  - B. the establishment of a California equivalent of the Law Enforcement Assistance Act,
  - C. a program to restore public respect and support for law enforcement,

D. a proposal for a research and development study for optical scanning to code fingerprints,

E. a way of improving crime statistics was proposed.

It also had a hand in establishing the Law Enforcement Research Center and cooperated with local agencies in several studies.

Finally, the Council was part of the group that planned a new Act, Senate Bill #84, which was passed by the State Legislature on August 1, 1967. That Bill provided for a state-wide council called the California Council on Criminal Justice consisting of 25 members, 12 members appointed by the Governor, 6 members appointed by the Senate Rules Committee, 6 members appointed by the Speaker of the Assembly, and the Attorney General was a member by specification.

The same Act provided for the establishment of a California Crime Technological Research Foundation. The new California Council which replaced the Joint Council on Technology and Administration of Justice had the following powers: It was to identify the nature and scope of the crime problem, evaluate and maintain criminal justice resources available to combat the crime problem, encourage and direct research and innovative projects in crime prevention, foster the improvement of personnel recruitment, selection and training in law enforcement and criminal justice, facilitate the conduct of studies for improvement of services, assist local government agencies, provide coordination, function as a recognized state agency to coordinate state and local projects with the Federal Government, serve as an advisory agency to the Governor, and to provide for the collection and dissemination of information regarding the status of criminal justice.

The California Crime Technological Research Foundation mentioned above had the following composition. The appointees

included representatives of criminal justice agencies, the academic community, persons qualified in the field of research and system technology and four members to represent the public. The Foundation had the following powers: to support and foster scientific and technological research concerned with prevention and detection of crime, to identify, review, and evaluate research efforts, to sponsor conferences, collect and disseminate information, issue reports related to scientific and technological research, to retain and employ technical and specialized consultants on contract or other basis, and to receive real property, personal property and money, to exercise all powers necessary or convenient with respect to the purposes of the Foundation.

Steps were being taken to develop a state-wide plan so that the California Council on Criminal Justice could be a state planning agency as defined in the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 103

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

It probably will have.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown. Evaluation of the impact of the criminal justice information system on crime should be done.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes.

7. Remarks.

This was an ambitious project that can act as a model for other projects. It represents only the initial steps in a program of continued research and planning in the field of criminal justice. But, these steps provide a sound legal and structural basis for this type of program.

Grant # 105

Grantee: University of Nevada, Reno, Nevada

Amount: \$13,730

Dates: January 1967 to August 1967

[This was supplemented later by Grant #249: \$22,350  
from September 1967 to June 1968 for the first year of  
operation of the degree program]

Purpose: To establish a two-year degree program.

Summary

This is a sketchy report. Apparently, after the informal meeting of local police administrators the application for the grant was made by Harry J. Wolfe, Director of Nevada Technical Institute of the University of Nevada, where the program is now established.

After the grant was received they hired a program coordinator, Vincent G. Finney who was a former Reno policeman and about to receive his master's degree from Michigan State University in police administration.

An Advisory Board was appointed to look into the curriculum. With their approval a final curriculum was approved which maintained a balance between general academic courses and courses oriented to law enforcement. In addition, there were 24 credits of the course applicable for baccalaureate credit. The two year degree was an associate of science in

law enforcement and required 69 credits.

It had one interesting variation in that the cour Law Enforcement 30 required a professional paper on a research problem for two credits: one at the end of the first year, and one at the end of the second year. Looking over the proposed courses for the two years it seems that there was a fair weight given to academic courses. The report, however, is very brief and leaves much to be desired.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 105 and #249

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

In one small way.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The project should help meet the local needs.

Grant #106

Grantee: Richmond, Virginia Bureau of Police

Amount: \$14,718

Dates December 1966 to October 1967

Purpose: To establish a police-community relations program  
and a police-community unit.

Summary

Richmond is a metropolitan city of 552,000 inhabitants; 52% are Negro; two-thirds of the school population are Negro. A police-community relations unit was set up and its activities covered four broad classifications: (1) assisting the police in maintaining law and order; (2) assisting the police in the prevention of crime; (3) taking an active part in supporting the police bureau's effort to make the community a better place to live, work, and play; (4) developing a neighborhood awareness and alertness to sectional problems.

The Police Academy's curriculum was revised, and greater emphasis was placed on human and community relations. The general plan of training for all police officers was also implemented. Attendance in a program sponsored by the Richmond Professional Institute (now Virginia Commonwealth College) became a requirement for all recruits and also for in-service training.

Some of the courses given in the area of human and community relations were (1) four hours on historical change in the legal process with emphasis on the rights of the individual, (2) two hours of the psychology of rumor, (3) four hours of psychology, (4) six hours with representatives of various community agencies, and (5) fourteen hours in other related subjects. The other phase was to conduct field interviews. The form of these interviews was devised by the consultants, and was used during a nine month period to find out just what the citizens thought about the police department.

An interesting project was the police-community relations action program in which civic associations, clubs, federations and all organizations with community-wide impact were told to appoint subcommittees. These were: (1) a juvenile committee to receive and process reports concerning areas of juvenile needs, and areas of juvenile delinquency; (2) a public relations committee to process reports of incidents regarding police service or individual police action and to promote public relations activities; (3) a crime committee to review with police personnel the general crime situation; (4) an auto theft committee; (5) a traffic committee; (6) a sanitation committee; (7) a membership committee, and (8) a program committee.

There was a problem of coordinating the activities of these committees on a city-wide basis and city-wide committees were formed from each of the various subcommittees. They met monthly in order to coordinate and exchange ideas. In addition to the prime function of each subcommittee, the organization selected a special project that fullfilled the serious and immediate need in its own area. September 1st of each year was the target date.

Other programs were to produce a general order concerning civil rights for citizens to be circulated throughout the police department. Each man was required to know these provisions of the constitution and certain guidelines in each area of civil rights. Some of the crime stop programs were Women Beware, Youth Employment, Burglar Proof, Ride Along (citizens were allowed to ride in police cars).

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 106

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

Not very.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. How much can a police-community relations program accomplish? Is it a panacea?

7. Remarks.

It is too much to expect a police-community relations program to do all the things set forth as objectives of this project.

Grant #108

Grantee: Minot State College, Minot, North Dakota

Amount: \$13,772

Dates: November 1966 to November 1967

Purpose: To establish a two-year degree program.

Summary

The report was sketchy. Its brief summary stated that Robert J. Bonner was hired as program director and was made associate professor. He was assisted by faculty representing social science and other divisions of the college. He also conferred with Mrs. Yurow of OLEA. An advisory committee was appointed, consisting of people from the college, from the police department, and other areas.

Mr. Bonner finally developed his own program of associate of arts degree in law enforcement based on 105 quarter hours. The first phase was 43 hours of general education requirement, and the second phase was 12 hours of required academic courses. Fifty hours were required in law enforcement courses. They anticipated that in order to start the program they would need 15 full-time students and 100 part-time students. There might be as many as 100 additional students who would be recruited from the air base.

Obviously, this report leaves much to be desired.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 108

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This project's host should be critically appraised before receiving funding for future projects.

Grant #109

Grantee: Bureau of Police in Wichita, Kansas

Amount: \$14,998

Dates: November, 1966-July 1967

Purpose: 1) To develop a police-community relations program including a police-community relations unit, 2) a training course, 3) expanding the recruiting of officers from minorities, and 4) working more closely with minority groups.

Summary

In the summer of 1965, Wichita became aware that racial tension and unrest was becoming a real problem because of young Negroes. Two to four hundred of them were gathering at location in the city, were becoming unruly and defiant, and throwing missiles at passing vehicles including police cars. The chief of police and the director of the Human Relations Commission went to Washington, D.C. to confer with the Department of Justice officials and the OLEA, for the purpose of obtaining a grant to establish a police-community relations section.

When the grant was received, the section was established with a police major, two police sergeants, two civilian field representatives, and one secretary. Although the grant was



originally awarded for the purpose of planning, the chief felt that the department should get as much use as possible from the time and money. Therefore, the plan immediately became operational, and several programs were immediately initiated. It should be noted that Wichita is the largest city in Kansas, having a population of more than 280,000, and about 10% Negro.

The police-community relations program that was established was in the traditional manner. The first thing was operation crime control. This, of course, helped get people to report crime to the police as quickly as possible either from their home or on the street. Then there were school programs in which time was allotted to the police-community relations section to speak to the members of the intermediate and high school during assembly times. Short talks on good citizenship were presented by selected police officers.

As soon as the public became aware of the fact that a police-community relations section had been established, the Headstart Program called on the police to talk to the four-year-old children.

Any doubts as to the value of talking to children of this age vanished when the police discovered that the reason several of the children became hysterical at the sight of the uniform

was that they believed that the police only arrested Negroes, and that the guns and handcuffs were used only against Negroes. The same type of lecture was given to grade schools.

A training program was instituted for recruits, and in order to improve the community relations area, outstanding lecturers from minority groups, NAACP, and the NCCJ were brought in to discuss the problems.

Using funds from the grant they contacted the head of the sociology department at Wichita State University and asked for help in developing a manual of human relations for the police. According to the report, two sociologists from the department were assigned, took more than the allotted time, and finally produced 300 typewritten pages of mostly gibberish that was in no way suitable for use as a police manual.

It was inadequate because most of the material had been copied verbatim from many sociology books, and there was no effort made to use words and phrases that would be understood by a person other than a sociology major.

The police-community relations section edited the sociologists' manual and literally translated it into something understandable. The police-community manual produced by Nelson Watson of IACP proved to be a more satisfactory instrument.

There was an increase in attempts to recruit Negro young men to the police department, but the results were minimal. Only four Negroes were added, bringing the total to thirteen Negro officers on the Wichita police department.

The police-community relations section also assisted in obtaining employment for disadvantaged people. The program was called WON (Work Opportunity Now). To supplement this, a community development program was engendered to help create better communication between Negro and police, to inform the citizen in regard to police functions, service problems, how to help reduce crime and where to get assistance. In addition, there was a summer recreational program and a self-protection program in which women's groups were taught to defend themselves.

In its attempt to cover the whole range of activities, this project spread itself too thin.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 109

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No, except for its attempt to reach a special group of citizens, namely, 4-year-old minority children.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes, it does suggest special attention should be given to police relations with the very young.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised? Yes, but indirectly. The questions were not formalized by the project staff. But questions about socialization into an anti-police subculture were raised tangentially.

7. Remarks.

This was a typical police community relations project. Its uniqueness is in its dealing with the strong fear of the police among very young children. Perhaps it should have concentrated on this area and not spread itself so thin.

Grant #112

Grantee: Jefferson State Junior College, Birmingham, Alabama

Amount: \$13,145

Dates: January 1967 to September 1967

[This was supplemented later by Grant #269: \$22,791  
from October 1967 to September 1968]

Purpose: To offer a college level educational program which would fill the needs of Alabama law enforcement by providing a deeper comprehension of the police career and a broader perspective of society.

#### Summary

In September 1966, the program began with a single specialized course, Introduction to Criminology. At the outset, 39 students enrolled in the course and soon the program was enlarged with the addition of courses in police organization and administration, psychology for law enforcement officers, and general criminal investigation.

Later, courses were added in criminal law and introduction to forensic science. Originally, there were three optional programs, Law Enforcement, Forensic Science, and Police Administration. Later, Law Enforcement was joined with Forensic Science to form Techniques of Law Enforcement, and more emphasis was placed on the general studies rather than the police courses.

Mr. James L. Pugh, who held an LLB degree from the University of Alabama Law School, and was with the FBI, taught the courses at the beginning. Later he was assisted by Kenneth M. Jensen, who had a master's degree in Criminology from Florida State University, and Mr. Robert B. Johnson, a toxicologist, with a MA degree in biochemistry from the University of Alabama.

Consultants in initiating the program were: Mr. James D. Stinchcomb, of the IACP, Doctor Raymond P. Witte, of Loyola University, Clarence Kelly, Chief of Police of Kansas City, Missouri, Charles Schildecker, head of the Police Science Program of Miami Dade College in Miami, and James Robey, President of the Alabama Peace Officers Association.

An effort was made to establish a ratio of about one-third law enforcement courses to two-thirds general academic courses. Special attention was given to provide courses transferable to four-year institutions.

Further objectives of the Law Enforcement Department at Jefferson State were the establishment of a two-year degree program to help the employed law enforcement officer acquire a deeper comprehension of the skills and arts essential to his career and to provide him with a broader perspective of his society; second, to provide the non-law-enforcement student desiring a career in law enforcement with a pre-service college education, thus providing the police service with

qualified recruits capable of advancement, and third, to provide two years of transfer education for the law enforcement officer who desired a baccalaureate degree.

In the school year of 1966-67, there was a total of 137 students, consisting of 93 law enforcement officers and 44 non-law enforcement officers.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 112 and #269

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was a standard duplicate of other such programs.



Grant #114

Grantee: New Haven Police Department, New Haven, Connecticut

Amount: \$14,917

Dates: February 1967 to January 1968

Purpose: To develop a police-community relations program which would work with community agencies and citizen groups, and to have intergroup conferences.

Summary

In August 1966 the post of police-community relations officer was created to develop a police-community relations program with the emphasis on problems of inner city citizens. He prepared a preliminary survey of police policies and activities and made an application of the OLEA for federal funds for a general planning study on a course of action to improve police-community relations; the grant was funded.

The goals of the project were to develop long range strategies for greater police-neighborhood resident communication and relations, to evaluate the present training programs as they related to improving police-community relations, to evaluate the department's general policy in terms of their impact on police-community relations, to investigate the possibility of creating employment opportunities within the police department that would improve police-community relations,

and to explore how regular police activities could be coordinated with other community activities.

The first step was the creation of a twelve-member committee of ranking police officers to plan with community leaders methods of improving police-community relations. The committee consisted of the community relations officers as project director, an assistant director, a director of the department's youth division and training division, and five other members who dealt with patrol, detectives, administration, recruiting, and promotions.

Subcommittees were established in the area of youth training, program development, and neighborhood relations; each committee was responsible for a careful analysis of department programs and policies; each committee worked with relevant agencies outside the police department. There were 102 meetings for the purposes of examining and discussing programs and policies.

The department decided to test the program in the Hill and Dwight neighborhoods, rather than the whole city. These two neighborhoods contained a high percentage of minority group residents. The hypothesis was that findings from the study of these two neighborhoods would be applicable to the other inner city neighborhoods and, in fact, the remainder of the city.

Although the department originally saw the program as a planning study with few action projects, comments by residents indicated that the assumption might not be correct. Therefore, the committee took a multi-faceted approach and developed an advisory committee including residents of the inner city neighborhoods and representatives of concerned community agencies. The programs undertaken were in cooperation with other agencies. For example, members of the project committee met with youth at the Legion Multi-Service Center to discuss problems and future programs. There were police employment programs for inner city residents. There were neighborhood police offices staffed by members of the police-community relations unit, regular line personnel, neighborhood volunteers, and neighborhood police aides. It was a place where police matters could be handled on a more informal basis than in a regular precinct station. Activities included discussions, forums, panels on safety, crime and narcotics, etc.

The police-community relations unit was established in December 1967 consisting of the police-community relations officer and six other personnel. They maintained contact with neighborhood groups of all kinds, advised the chief and commanders in regard to community relations programs, and provided other police units with information on neighborhood

conditions. They planned and implemented the programs to acquaint individuals and citizens with their responsibilities in the maintenance and preservation of law and order.

A training plan was instituted to prepare the officer to perform police functions, to understand his role, and his community. The department used talented instructors as well as policemen. Arrangements were made with the Opportunities Industrialization Center to provide pre-examination coaching for applicants for positions in the police department. Better relations with schools and the youngsters in schools were maintained by producing a short course on the role of the police department in a high school, and in six other schools for grades 4 through 7.

In addition, there were neighborhood police aides, young men between the ages of 18 to 21 with the aptitude, integrity, and stability necessary to perform police work; they did not have full law enforcement powers and did not carry arms, but they were not limited to clerical duty. They were uniformed members of the police department, maintaining close contact with juveniles in the neighborhood where they worked and lived. They worked primarily out of the neighborhood police office and performed service duties that law enforcement officers had little time to perform.

This program seemed to extend into too many directions. New Haven had a reputation for being a very progressive urban center, but its police-community relations program seemed to be too diffused in scope to be effective.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 114

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

In some ways.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No one can say.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. What are the relative merits of various police-community relations strategies.

7. Remarks.

A police-community relations program cannot hope to utilize every possible strategy of developing favorable community attitudes. In the long run that broad a program must collapse.

Grant #115

Grantee: San Jose, California Police Department

Amount: \$14,970

Dates: February 1967 to July 1967

Purpose: To develop a police-community relations program  
especially a pilot program in a diverse ethnic area.

Summary

The San Jose police community unit was founded in October 1966 before this grant was given. After the grant was obtained, the staff visited Los Angeles, San Diego, Chicago and St. Louis to observe other programs of police-community relations and attended the 13th Annual National Institute on Police Community Relations, May 21-26, at Michigan State University.

The target area of this program was the Mayfair section on the east side of the city of San Jose in which the major part of the population was Negro and Mexican-American. Mayfair, as the first section on the demography of the area revealed, was a typical lower-class, almost ghetto, community with a heavy concentration of minority groups with the resulting problems of low income, high unemployment, and poor housing. The San Jose department envisaged police-community relations as involving working with the community, solving community problems in day by day relations between the police and the citizens, keeping up an ongoing dialogue between the police and the public, and identifying the informal means of organization.

Naturally, the important element was getting to know people, talking with them about one another's problems, and then working together to solve them.

In an illuminating statement the report asserted that the

aim of the San Jose police-community relations program was to reconcile communication with action, theory with practice, thereby making the police a part of, and not apart from, the community it served.

In September 1966, before the OLEA grant, the San Jose police department conducted a study of the Mayfair area to determine what steps should be taken to improve relations between the police and the citizens, and also to provide information for a city-wide community relations program. The interview method was used to conduct the study. It was found that there was a feeling of distress toward the police department among the people in that area; many felt that there was harassment and prejudice by some of the officers.

Under the plan, a police-community relations area council to work with the Economic Opportunity Commission of Santa Clara County was developed and activated. The purpose was to emphasize the dependence and interdependence of the police department and the community in the maintenance of law and prevention of crime, to develop mutual respect between police and people, and for the police to work with the community in solving community problems. However, page 32 of the report pointed out that the initial efforts to establish the police-community relations area council for the Mayfair area proved unsuccessful.

A meeting was held with persons from that area, and the San Jose police department proposed a police-community relations workshop for the Mayfair area in which the people could frankly discuss problems relative to Mayfair and the police; The workshop would work with the police in getting more persons from



ethnic minorities to join the police department. The proposal was accepted, and a steering committee was set up to plan for the first workshop. That was the status at the time the report was prepared.

In October 1966, the police-community relations unit published its first police-community relations news bulletin, a monthly bulletin that was widely distributed throughout the community. It covered the activities of the PCR unit and proved to be a valuable tool in relaying and disseminating information.

A seminar on police-community relations in our changing times was held in conjunction with the National Conference of Christians and Jews, San Jose Human Relations Commission, and the San Jose police advisory committee. The under sheriff of San Mateo County was the keynote speaker. In addition, there were panel discussions, and a human relations in-service training course, a 15 hour in-service training course given at San Jose City College. Approximately 300 men from the San Jose police department attended.

Since 1964 the San Jose Department has conducted a program of citizen recognition whenever citizens assisted police in crime prevention, etc. A "stamp out crime crusade" that endeavored to counteract public apathy by urging citizens to report crime to the police, was well supported by the community. There was also an information brochure, and a speakers' bureau, and law enforcement scholarships for needy students wishing to enter or continue in a law enforcement program at one of the local colleges. And finally, there was a Mayfair community service center that would have its own building.

A police-community relations aide program was initiated in which young men 17 to 20 would assist policemen with non-enforcement duties and be eligible to enter the police department upon reaching their 21st birthday and completing 60 college units.

This program was another example of an overly ambitious approach which attempted to do a little of everything.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 115

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

I have seen conferences on police-community relations conducted by agencies such as the National Conference of Christians and Jews. They are well meaning but ineffective. The police laugh at them.

Grant #116

Grantee: Southern Oregon College, Ashland Oregon

Amount: \$14,493

Dates: January 1967 to December 1967

(This was supplemented later by Grant #299: \$22,500

from January 1968 to December 1968)

Purpose: To develop and operate a four-year police science degree program.

Summary

This report was not written by the original project director of the degree program. It was prepared by the chairman of the present Law Enforcement Department at Southern Oregon College who had some candid criticisms and specific recommendations to offer.

The need for the police science degree program was obvious. The report (p. 2) noted that:

Unfortunately, Oregon did not--and does not--have many well educated law enforcement officers, nor many opportunities to receive such professional education beyond high school. Many states, for that matter, found themselves in this undesirable, but quite common, situation during the middle 1960's.

A survey (funded under OLEA Grant #095) of all state, county, and municipal law enforcement agencies in Oregon was conducted during the first half of 1967. One of its many findings indicated that less than seven per cent of Oregon law enforcement officers (159/2257) had attended college for two or more years. Even more significant was the fact that 70 per cent of this "educated" group (112/159) was employed in the Multnomah County area, which serves the metropolitan Portland region in the northern part of the state. The southern region of Oregon, the educational needs of which are served by Southern Oregon College, was found to be almost totally lacking law enforcement personnel with college experiences.

The problem, therefore, was difficult to ignore. The experiences of many social scientists indicate that the quality of police service is directly related to the educational level of police personnel--and the southern Oregon region (with a 1965 population of 150,000) was practically devoid of well-educated law enforcement officers.

Although Portland State College already had a law enforcement degree program, it did not begin to fill the demand.

Southern Oregon College hired as project director a retired FBI agent with a B.A. in Commerce awarded in 1936, about six hours of current post graduate work and about six months of teaching experience.

A certificate program was instituted and taught by the one-man faculty. (The project director was assisted by lawyers who became part-time teachers.) It consisted of the following courses:

1. LE 111. Police and Society. 2 hours. An orientation to the liaison between the public and the agencies that administer justice; the origins and development of law enforcement agencies; crime and the criminal; the courts; prosecuting and defense attorneys; correctional and penal institutions; probation and parole; police systems.

2. LE 112. Law Enforcement Agencies. 2 hours. Principles of organization and administration of law enforcement agencies and their application at city, county, state, and federal levels.

3. LE 113. Law for Police Officers. 2 hours. The salient principles of law related to police work: criminal law, law of arrests, of search, seizure, and evidence; automobile law. Nature of court procedures.

4. LE 301. Criminal Law for Policemen. 3 Criminal jurisprudence as related to the municipal police officer. Survey of the law of evidence, arrest, criminal courts and procedures; appellate procedures.

5. LE 302. Police-Community Relations. 3 hours. Place of the policeman in the community; proper relationships toward citizens, civic clubs, business and professional groups, and pressure groups; problems in public relations.

6. LE 303. Penology. 3 hours. A study of the relationships of penological institutions to inmate behavior. Prison systems. Methods of rehabilitation used; pardon and parole.

7. LE 304. Police Administration. 3 hours. Analysis of responsibilities and duties of police administrators. Application of administrative principles to problems of patrol, investigation, traffic control, crime prevention, organization, personnel procedures.

A request to approve a four-year program was turned down by a college committee.

The committee felt that: (1) a law enforcement baccalaureate program should be located in a metropolitan area where it could capitalize on available resources; (2) a one-man faculty was insufficient to insure orderly development of a degree program; and concluded that "...Southern Oregon College should continue to offer its certificate program in law enforcement. When the certificate program has been offered sufficiently long to develop stability and maturity the committee will thoroughly review a request ...for a baccalaureate degree in law enforcement should SOC wish to submit one then..." The Oregon State Board of Higher Education concurred in the decision of the committee.

The effort was not a total failure. The request for the degree included four courses in new subject-matter: (1) administration of criminal justice, (2) criminal investigation, (3) probation and parole, and (4) criminal psychology. The first three subject-matter areas were approved for course offerings during the 1967-68 academic year. Additionally, several changes in existing courses were requested: (1) combining LE 111 - Police and Society, LE 112 - Law Enforcement Agencies, and LE 113 - Law for Police Officers into a nine-hour lower-division sequence entitled: Law Enforcement and Society; (2) expansion of

Criminal Law for Policemen to nine hours; (3) retitling of several upper-division courses to provide better coordination within the program curriculum. All of these changes were approved by the OSBHE, with the exception of the third course in the three-course criminal law sequence.

As a result of this curriculum activity, the law enforcement area of the original certificate program was considerably expanded for the 1967-68 academic year--15 additional credit hours, for a total of 36; and courses in three new subject-matter areas.

In October 1967 the request for the four-year degree program was resubmitted. It included some additional courses: a) a third term in criminal law, b) criminal psychology and c) a seminar course in a variety of subjects.

This was approved. By now the faculty had been increased to 1 1/2 F.T.E. faculty (1 full-time and two part-time teachers), and there was substantial growth in the number of students.

The authorized degree program, which was designed to complement rather than replace the existing certificate program, would require degree candidates to satisfactorily complete:

1. All Arts and Sciences general education requirements.
2. A 48-hour major composed of 39 hours of law enforcement courses; 6 hours of Criminology and Delinquency; and 3



hours of The Psychology of Criminal Behavior.

3. A total of 36 hours in the Social Sciences, in addition to the 9 hours required in the major program, including lower-division courses in General Sociology (9 hours), American Governments (9 hours), and General Psychology (6 hours), and 12 hours selected from upper-division social science courses.

One significant feature of the degree program, which distinguished it from all other subject-matter degree programs at Southern Oregon College (and most other institutions) was the requirement of a 2.50 grade point average, from a possible 4.00, for all classes at the time of graduation. A 2.00 cumulative GPA is required by the college and most other disciplines. Law enforcement degree candidates must, therefore, achieve at a higher level of academic performance than their fellow students in other fields. There were many in the academic community who openly expressed their doubts that the program would graduate anyone. The record has proved them wrong!

1968-69 Academic Year.

Two new courses in the general subject-matter area of industrial security were requested, approved, and authorized for instruction during the 1969-70 academic year:

LE 220 - Introduction to Industrial Security (3 hours),  
and LE 320 - Industrial Security Administration (3 hours).

The intent behind this request was to create the foundation for eventual development of an interdisciplinary major in the field of industrial security. The degree would blend together relevant offerings from law enforcement, business administration, psychology, and other behavioral sciences. This effort is progressing quite satisfactorily at the present time.

In addition to the above courses, new offerings in the fields of police organization and corrections were requested, approved, and authorized for instruction during the 1970-71 academic year. LE 352 - Police Organization was designed to broaden the subject-matter currently being examined in the existing administrative course: LE 351 - Police Administration. The two courses were planned to complement each other.

It was decided at the beginning of the 1968-69 academic year that the program's correctional curriculum needed expansion in order to meet both student and professional demands. The existing correctional courses (LE 301 - Probation and Parole and LE 341 - Penology) formed an ideal base upon which to build. Therefore, three correctional courses were added to the curriculum, effective the 1970-71 academic year: LE 361 - Juvenile Corrections, LE 362 - Adult Corrections, and LE 363 - Correctional Administration. Appendix E contains a copy of the program's curriculum which reflects these current additions.

The faculty for the program was increased to 3.25 F.T.E.

The Oregon State System of Higher Education had set the student-teacher ratio at about 1 to 20. The ratio in the law enforcement program has about 1 to 35.

The four-year degree program was a good mixture of humanities, social science, and law enforcement.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 116

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Somewhat in that it balanced law enforcement courses with humanities.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes. Education in college has impact.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Probably not.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Possibly.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was one of the better degree programs. It had a good core of sound science and humanities courses.

Grant #117

Grantee: Lorain County Community College, Lorain, Ohio

Amount: \$13,130

Dates: January 1967 to September 1967

[This was supplemented later by Grant #243: \$24,926 from September 1967 to August 1968 for the first year operation of that program.]

Purpose: To establish a two-year program.

Summary

George Rosbrook was appointed coordinator of the program. After visiting many police science programs and sending questionnaires to those he could not visit, he developed a program for Lorain County Community College and created a proposal. He employed Vern Folley, Chairman of Police and Public Administration Division of Harrisburg Community College, and Harry More, Chairman of the Law Enforcement Department, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, to review and evaluate the police science program. Evidently, their proposal was used to establish the final program.

The Ohio Board of Regents on September 15, 1967 approved the curriculum, an associate degree in Police Science Technology. Although it was not clear exactly how many credits were required in the police science course, a note in the report mentioned that the Ohio Board of Regents required for two year technical programs, at least the equivalent of 15 semester hours of credit in selective subjects basic to the field of study, at least 15 semester hours in non-technical subjects including oral and written communication and social studies, and at least the equivalent of 30 semester hours of credit in technical courses, making a total of 60 semester hours.

In addition, they moved to the quarter system which required a conversion in credit hours for each course indicated in the report. Fifty-two students registered for the course when it was first offered in September 1967. However, in the spring of 1969, 106 persons were in the program.

The report left many gaps. There was not indication of the number of teachers or anything specific about the program.

**CONTINUED**

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EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #117 and 243

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

- 4.. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

It was difficult to evaluate it from the report.



Grant # 118

Grantee: Weber State College, Ogden, Utah

Amount: \$15,000

Dates: January 1967 to May 1968

[This was supplemented later by Grante #315: \$22,490

from May 1968 to May 1969 for the first year of operation  
of the program]

Purpose: To develop a two-year police science program.

Summary

The dean of continuing education was appointed the project director and selected an advisory board consisting of members of the college, police departments, and sheriffs' offices nearby in order to screen candidates for program coordinator. The program coordinator held a BS degree in sociology, with an emphasis on criminology, from the University of Utah and was completing the requirement for a masters degree in public administration at Brigham Young University, Utah.

Basically, the philosophy underlying the curriculum of the police science program was that it should be academically rather than training oriented, and that the individual completing the program should take a broad core of courses in liberal arts. They used as guides, the college requirement for an associate degree program, the IACP guide for police science curriculum development, and the actual curriculum

developed by other police science programs.

The associate degree in police science was finally established with a total of 93 credit hours including: electives, 7; police science requirements, 30; area requirements in the humanities life science, physical science and social sciences, 40; and 16 in specific course requirements such as English, orientation, health education, physical education. It was designed so that the student completing this program also satisfied the general education requirements for a bachelor degree in some other field if he decided to continue his education beyond the associate degree level.

There were several off campus programs across the state taught by lawyers and law enforcement people. In addition, there was a certificate program for in-service law enforcement officers who had completed 10 of the law enforcement courses. It was felt that many of the officers in this category would change their plans and move into the degree program.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #118 and 315

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was largely duplicative of other programs but was a needed step towards upgrading local police.

Grant #120

Grantee: Rider College, Trenton, New Jersey

Amount: \$6,369

Dates: February 1967 to July 1967

[This was supplemented later by Grant #247: \$17,626

from September 1967 to June 1968]

Purpose: To implement the first year operation of the degree program.

Summary

To set up the program there were conferences with several other schools such as Rutgers University and Ocean County College which were also involved in degree programming. They also formed the Police Administration Advisory Council which included most of the important people from police departments from the area, and faculty from Rider College. Professor James Stinchcomb was helpful in setting up the curriculum for them. The degree would be an associate one in art and police administration and required 54 credits. There were several changes from the original proposal in the application for the grant, but they were not major ones, and they did not weaken the program.

The program involved some 20 credits in English, government, psychology, and sociology, 14 in administrative courses, and electives, 13 in psychology, sociology, several other courses. The law enforcement major consisted of only 3 or 4 courses that were really police-oriented: the principles of law enforcement I, the principles of law enforcement II, control administration, techniques of criminal investigations. Some of the other courses in the major were criminal law, criminology.

The courses were given mainly in the evening session and most students were part-timers. They had 43 law enforcement majors. They estimated that the number would increase to about 85 in the next

semester.

There were 4 part-time teachers. The report considered the part-time faculty an excellent one, but stated nothing about their training or degrees.

The study suggested that Rider College was influenced somewhat by the Trenton legislature which granted extra pay for policemen attending college.

Rider College had also taken part in a master plan with some of the other schools giving degree programs such as Rutgers University, Ocean County College, Bergen County College, Gloucester College, Cumberland College, and Morris County College. There was a move on to allow the two year associate degree candidate to transfer for work toward a BA or BS or a BBA at the end of the associate program, with no loss of credit.

It is interesting to note that it did not give any credit for police academy work and no plans had been formulated for a graduate degree.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #120 and #247

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

A well done project.

Grant #122

Grantee: University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

Amount: \$13,290

Dates: February 1967 to January 1968

[This was supplemented later by Grant #318: \$21,680

from March 1968 to March 1969.]

Purpose: To develop a two year program in law enforcement.

Summary

The report for this grant has not been received.

This was an interesting program because it was a cooperative arrangement between the University of Iowa and selected two-year colleges. Initially, students would enroll in their local community colleges or junior colleges and complete 34 hours of liberal art credit, 12 hours of law including criminal law, law of evidence, arrest, search and seizure and criminal procedure. There would also be two, one-hour courses in first aid and defense classes. Then the students would attend a 12 week summer session at the University itself and receive three semester hours of instruction each in criminology (a special course developed for this program), criminal investigation, control methods and traffic control. The degree would then be granted by the two year college.

Planning for the program was arranged with the cooperation of the University staff including the department of sociology and the college of education. The curriculum was also discussed with police officers. The college set up a bureau of police scientists with administrative power over the program. This bureau was in constant contact with local law enforcement agencies and seemed to have done a fairly competent job. They decided that the California plan was better than that of the others and a trip was made to St. Louis,

as well, to observe their program.

There was a problem in staffing the courses at the junior colleges because the state requirement was that an instructor in a junior college must have a masters degree; although the law enforcement instructors in the junior colleges had law degrees rather than masters degrees, they were temporarily certified on the basis of their experience. Moreover, there would be exceptions made for those with special experience even if they did not possess a masters degree.

There was a total enrollment of 123 students, 56 full time students, and the rest part-time; of the part-time pupils, 51 were law enforcement officers. The instructors teaching law were all practicing attorneys, and members of reputable law firms; one had just resigned as a special agent of the FBI and had a teaching certificate; one was a lower court judge; and one was a former assistant County attorney.

A summary of the course requirements follows: courses in liberal arts taught at the junior college, 34 hours; courses in law enforcement taught in the junior colleges, 14 semester hours; courses in law enforcement taught at the university summer session, 12 semester hours; making a total of 60 semester hours for the degree.

The degree was an associate of arts degree in law enforcement. The University of Iowa would accept all credits earned in this program for advancement toward a full four year degree. However, they could not apply all the credits towards fulfillment of the requirement in any specific program.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #122 and #318

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

A well organized program with an interesting relationship worked out between the university and the junior college.

Grant #123

Grantee: Omaha Police Department, Omaha, Nebraska

Amount: \$15,000

Dates: February 1967 to July 1967

Purpose: A study of the police-community relations program, pre-service training, and in-service training program, and special training for 300 officers.

Summary

Expansion of recruit program to 9 linear weeks to cover most fundamental areas relevant to patrolman's duties. More advanced procedures to be taught:

In-service training.

Police Manual -- prepared to be used in recruit training.

Training Bulletins -- recruits should be held responsible for all materials within it.

Rigid selection of highly qualified men.

Lengthy probationary period.

Military Training -- to have a department of well disciplined, neat, courteous officers with military bearing and physical conditioning -- drill, inspection for "favorable impression on public."

To enhance the police image and bring the police "more accurately in focus in the eyes of the public."

1. Speaking engagements.
2. The Inspector who was police-community relations coordinator was also in charge of police training to continue emphasis on good police relations techniques.
3. The police appeared on boards and panels working with minority groups.
4. Selected courses for police officers at University of Omaha.
5. Under title of High Education Act 1965 the Omaha Department of Public Safety participated in a program to bring basic training to

selected law enforcement officers and enhanced police image because of its role in this program.

6. Police-cadet program -- those at junior or senior level, the majority in LE and Corrections, were hired on a part-time basis by the city and assigned to work in police stations in cadet status. Cadets received on the job training and also made a contribution that resulted in enhanced prestige of the department.

The cadet program was redesigned to include high school recruits (17-21) who passed the recruit test. These men were allowed 1-4 years before they had to apply for regular police program or resign. They were required to take some University courses.

P.A.L. was reorganized to attract young people. The summer camp program was used to increase favorable contacts between the police and the disadvantaged community. This department felt it was most necessary to correct attitudes among young minority groups.

Special police training was increasingly oriented toward understanding minority problems to give the police an awareness of the "necessity of dealing firmly, courteously, and without any display of prejudicial attitude."

A "ride along" program was initiated to allow young people in high school to ride an eight-hour tour with selected policemen whose car would answer all but the most serious calls. An officer and child would stay in the car, but the officer would explain what and why things were done.

The Omaha police department attempted to develop a code of ethics for the police when dealing with civil disturbances. They hoped to create a press release office to release information to the press and keep it abreast of what was happening.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 123

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The level of this police-community relations program was shown by the fact that it stressed military drill and military bearing instead of behavioral science training for the recruits.

Grant #124

Grantee: Lane County Youth Study Board, Oregon

Amount: \$8,727

Dates: May 1967 to September 1967

Purpose: Particular problems and needs of rural, community-based correctional setting.

### Summary

#### I. Rural Institution:

1. Smaller
  - a. not many resources,
  - b. not much possibility of special assignment to training, and
  - c. not much specialization.
2. Staff Heterogeneity
  - a. in training, background, education;
  - b. training program had to accommodate itself to this difference.
3. Lack of Previous Training Programs
4. Rural Social Systems
  - a. unfamiliarity with problems of rural offenders as part of staff trained in urban setting.
  - b. rural community -- tightly knit, suspicious of strangers.

#### II. Training Process

1. Developmental
2. Operational
3. Administration

This discussion was mainly a textbook description of ideal goals of training, e.g. to maximize effectiveness of each individual and the total correctional organization efforts.

Plan program with involvement of trainees.

Set up training committees.

Establish priorities.

Determine methods such as attending a rural town-meeting.

Define job positions.

III. Trainer should train various levels of administration and staff.

Trainer should train community.

IV. Analysis

1. Workshop
2. Seminar
3. Discussion
4. Summary & Reporting
5. Case materials
6. Field experience

V. Evaluation

Change can be measured in

attitudes  
knowledge  
organization  
behavior

Evaluation

This was merely a textbook discussion and had very little practical value for any training program.

It started out to show the differences and problems of training correctional personnel in rural areas, but ended up in a general unrelated discussion that would not be very helpful to a trainer in a rural setting who wanted specific recommendations.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 124

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes, at the beginning.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The proposal to discuss differences in urban and rural correctional settings and training needs was a good one. The final report never lived up to the responsibility.

Grant #125

Grantee: Inter-American Center, Catholic University of  
Puerto Rico, Ponce, P.R.

Amount: \$32,758

Dates: February 1967 to July 1967

Purpose: A one-month training and orientation course for  
major police officers from cities with minority problems  
related to Puerto Ricans.

Summary

The program aimed to give a "basic appreciation of the language and an 'on the spot' orientation to their cultural patterns." It was believed necessary that the people be visited in their own environment.

The course concentrated on:

1. Language Orientation - to give introductory knowledge of language and gestures that often cause problems in interpretation;
2. Socio-cultural Orientation - lectures on the background of Island and people - effects of social change and migration on people;
3. Field Trip Experience - personal contact with different people - different life styles. It was suggested for further trips that the first visit be to the police department in Puerto Rico so that interested police officials could arrange to ride in police cars there or revisit.

The knowledge gained during this program could be utilized in various ways -- training, community groups in mass media; printed material distributed to police departments; exchange programs. It was recommended that special reduced rate vacations



and tours in Puerto Rico should be arranged for police personnel.

The trip to Puerto Rico enabled the policemen to see the different cultural values there--the slower pace and extra love for children; Puerto Rican demonstrativeness; defense of their honor; body movements; celebrations; gregariousness; large gatherings; consensual unions; and family unions.

As evidenced from reports by various participating officers, the insights gained were invaluable.

During the final week of the course the Chiefs of five of the participating cities attended the sessions and participated in evening round table discussions.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 125

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Partly.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not in my opinion.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. To what extent attitudes or behavior was changed by the trip.

7. Remarks.

It is hardly likely that one short trip would change attitudes firmly implanted by years of occupational experience.

Grant #126

Grantee: City of Pittsburgh, Office of Mayor, Commission on Human Relations

Amount: \$48,598

Dates: February 1967 to February 1968

Purpose: To help reduce tension between police and minority groups in Pittsburgh.

Summary

Five hundred policemen, one-third of the Pittsburgh Police Force, received 24 hours of in-service training in police community relations in six weekly sessions of 3 1/2 hours each. There were 50 officers in each of the ten weekly half-day sessions. Each session had a police group leader. In the latter group were social workers, counselors, probations officers, and community organization workers. Subjects covered were: Policeman as a Professional, Prejudice and Discrimination, Police Problems with Racial Overtones, and Police-Citizen Communication. It covered material from many of the behavioral and social sciences.

The City of Pittsburgh's human relations training program was captioned, "In-Service Training for Effective Police Work in the Changing City." Objectives of the project were:

--to further the professional development of law enforcement personnel, with particular regard to the implications of professionalism in equal protection of the law for all persons, and respect for their rights as persons.

--to provide an opportunity for sharing of points of view between Bureau of Police personnel and residents of the community so that each has some appreciation of the obstacles to the establishment of better police-community relationships and each develops a commitment to overcome these obstacles.

--to give police an opportunity to understand themselves as persons and to evaluate their attitudes and beliefs.

--to help Pittsburgh Police personnel gain an understanding of the historical, social, and economic forces which influence the behavior of socially and economically disadvantaged segments of our society, including racial and other minority groups.

--to provide police personnel with insights into the nature of prejudice and minority group attitudes.

--to aid police in acquiring an appreciation of the Civil Rights Movement, the demonstrations for slum clearance and code enforcement, the picketing to end de facto segregation in the schools, the direct action and protest group efforts to gain entrance for the Negro in certain job markets and employment situations.

--to aid police in gaining a significant understanding of rumor, of the communications system which operates in many low-income neighborhoods, and of the relationship of rumor-spreading to the engendering of riot situations.

--to help police to acquire the skills to meet police situations involving the poor and minority groups with firm objectivity.

--to help police officers to accept integrated situations.

--to facilitate the recognition by police of the role of the various community relations and human development programs in the City of Pittsburgh and to motivate police to make more effective use of the agencies involved in such programs.

--to insure that police recognize their responsibility under federal, state, and local civil rights laws.

Visits to Detroit and Newark, New Jersey to observe their P-C-R programs were helpful. There was good cooperation with several professors from nearby universities.

A very detailed questionnaire evaluation involving change from the pre- to post-training period in knowledge and attitudes was conducted by two professors from the University of Pittsburgh.

The results of the evaluation show that a little more than half changed in a positive direction, but a large minority, 36%, changed in a negative direction. And on several specific issues concerning race relations, the majority of police officers changed in a negative direction.

An important paragraph in the evaluation summarizes those negative results and their implications.

From the point of view of establishing a sensitivity and sympathy in the trainees for liberal, integration goals in the society, the program cannot be viewed as highly successful. A higher proportion changed negatively than changed positively. Apparently, in the process of taking in and assimilating program material relevant to this issue, forces were operating that had a counter-impact on participants. It is difficult to speculate on the nature of these forces. Yet it is possible to think that certain program emphases, lectures or group discussions missed their mark; they back-fired, in effect. Here, obviously, is an area of education that is most difficult to grapple with. It has long been a somewhat nebulous and tricky matter. Clearly, however, new educational devices must continually be sought which will influence deeper sentiments that are internalized within most Americans.

The project director naturally recommended that the course be expanded to 30 hours and be given to the rest of the force.

This project is important because by honest reporting it reveals possible dangers of a police-community relations program that may cause a "boomerang" effect--results just the opposite to project goals.

However, in April 1968, shortly after the training project ended, racial disturbances occurred in Pittsburgh and the police force apparently did a praiseworthy job of containing the disorder with little violence. We ought to conclude that this project had

some beneficial effect influencing the successful operation. This is said not as a hardnosed scientific statement but as a converse of the adverse conclusion that we would draw if the police failed to act as well trained, disciplined professionals during the outbreak.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 126

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes.

7. Remarks.

This is a model project, for it not only reports how it accomplished its funded purpose, but also what the result of that achievement was. Thus, the project had a dual value: 1) its value to the participants as an action project and 2) its value to a much greater audience of social planners, researchers and others interested in running similar programs of achieving certain changes in attitudes among police.

Grant #127

Grantee: John Jay College of Criminal Justice, City University  
of New York

Amount: \$59,000

Dates: February 1967 to August 1968

[This was later supplemented by Grant #290: \$51,300]

Purpose: To establish a graduate degree fellowship program in  
public administration for selected law enforcement officers.

Summary

See report on Grant #162.



Grant #129

Grantee: Southwestern Legal Foundation, Dallas, Texas.

Amount: \$42,548

Dates: April 1967 to March 1969

Purpose: The expansion and regeneration of present short term police in-service courses for command and supervisory personnel.

Summary

The Southwestern Legal Foundation was part of the Southwestern Legal Center at Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas. It was dedicated to the improvement of the administration of justice under law.

In 1957, a division dealing primarily with continuing education of law enforcement personnel was established. Police Departments who wanted to participate in the program could become members of the Southwestern Law Enforcement Institute by making a down payment of between \$100 and \$1,000, based on population. This entitled them to have representation at institutes, seminars and symposiums with no tuition charges. They could send representatives to the annual Southwestern Police Academy and the semi-annual School of Police Science and Super-Division at reduced tuition. They also received published institute proceedings.

The Southwestern Police Academy was the first of the two main training programs to be organized for three months duration to help the states and police departments of the Southwest, who formerly sent their men to the three existing academies--Northwestern University, FBI Academy, and Southern Police Institute. Southwest Institute was formed to replace these and save the departments the money for fare and tuition. The Academy's sessions began in January and concluded in March, with thirty police officers of executive rank.

The curriculum emphasized police management, personnel management, law, public relations and police records, in addition to political science, psychology and sociology.

The School of Police Science and Supervision, the other part of the Institute, was scheduled twice annually for four weeks at a time; it was designed for first-line supervisory officers. In both cases the school enlisted university professors, government officials, attorneys, and technical experts for its faculty. The enrollment in the School of Police Science and Supervision was limited to about thirty-five officers.

Because of the grant, scholarships were made available for enrollment at the Southwest Police Academy and the School of Police Science and Supervision, thus serving the five Southwestern states of Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 129

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

A little.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This is a school project that has been in operation for many years, trying to improve law enforcement. The southwest needs more programs of this sort.

Grant #131

Grantee: Regents of the University of California, Berkeley,  
California.

Amount: \$147,924

Dates: January 1967 to February 1969

Purpose: To do a parole action study

Summary

They proposed to examine the critical factors affecting the success or failure of adult parolees and to formulate changes to increase the parole agency's effectiveness. The researchers would work in close cooperation with the California State Department of Corrections and a national advisory committee of parole experts.

The plan was based upon three research assumptions: 1) In any complex organization planned social change begins with the quest for realistic alternatives. Consequently, the first step was to identify and analyze those features of the system that were important within the administrative control. It was important to know what were the viable alternatives. The second assumption was that change at one level of the social system called for reciprocal change at many other levels. Therefore, it was necessary to study many of the social processes that engaged the upper and middle management of the agency. The

third assumption was that the operation of the social system required an understanding of those social processes that are the de facto and informal relations that exist in the system.

For the first two years of the study they proposed to concentrate on the social processes that might impede the success of parolees, and they intended to find these processes within the agency itself as well as in the community. The second stage would be to propose changes on the basis of their findings, and the third was to help introduce those changes into the parole systems.

The method of the study would be actually to make a cluster of small studies that would examine intensively the operation of the Oakland District office of the Parole and Community Services Division of the California Department of Corrections during the two-year period. In addition to that study in depth they would make comparison studies with other California districts and at least one federal probation and parole regional office. At a later stage three to five state parole agencies would also be studied for the purposes of comparison so that they might generalize the findings that might otherwise apply only to Oakland.

The function of the advisory committee would be to help the study focus on the critical issues for the parole systems,

to advise on the selection of other agencies to be studied, and to aid in disseminating the study findings to the organizations concerned with parole practice. There were some questions which they would attempt to study. The first one was the question of direct parole policy. The second was the operating objectives, how that policy gets translated into action. The third was parole agent operation, since the parole agent is the primary link between the agency and the parolee. The fourth one was the community as the environment for parole operations and the fifth was the social experience of parolees. The advisory committee would be asked to meet for up to six two-day sessions during the two-year period, and the sessions were to be scheduled at points when critical research decisions were to be made or tentative findings were to be evaluated.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 131

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes.

7. Remarks.

This sort of attempt to understand one of the sub-systems of criminal justice should be encouraged and should accompany or precede other projects which intend to influence those subsystems.

Grant #133

Grantee: Missouri Department of Corrections, Jefferson City,  
Missouri

Amount: \$14,208

Dates: March 1967 to November 1967

Purpose: To develop a training program for middle management  
in corrections.

Summary

The plan was to develop this program specifically for middle management to help supervise and develop knowledge, attitudes, and skills appropriate to the supervisory role. The assumption was that although some might have natural supervisory ability, competence in supervision rests upon communicable knowledge which could be effectively taught. The cooperation of the University of Missouri was solicited by two state correctional agencies and an advisory committee established that combined people in corrections and from the university. They designated several consultants to do work at specified levels.

The following steps were planned: 1. to develop a method of surveying the correctional people involved so that their feelings might be considered in the final product, 2, to review literature and similar studies and 3, formulation of the



instrument to gather data. The second part of the program was the collection of data and the identification of training needs; 4. formulation of a comprehensive training program with objectives, content, units of teaching, the learning experiences and methods of evaluation built into it. There were five agencies that were taken into consideration, the Missouri State Penitentiary, the Missouri Training Center for Men, Missouri Intermediate Reformatory, the Fordland Honor Camp, the Division of Prison Farms. A Woman's Penitentiary was not included because it was a unique organization and there were no middle management personnel assigned to it.

Each of the institutions had five major categories of personnel: custodial; maintenance; food service; educational and treatment. They decided to include supervisors from each category in the training program. It was necessary to develop a job description for each major category. It was important to define middle management clearly. One criterion, of course, was that the person must be the supervisor of another employee. This set a lower limit to the range of positions to be included, and the setting of the upper limit was done essentially by the superintendent of each institution. He designated what he considered the middle management persons and those that were the top echelons. One hundred twenty-seven middle

management supervisors in those five agencies in the Department of Corrections and in the Board of Probation and Parole were included in the study.

Two standardized questionnaires were obtained from the Science Research Associates. They were the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire and the Supervisory Index. They were given to correctional personnel in August 1967. The leadership opinion questionnaire measures structure --the tendency to initiate ideas and plans and to direct a group to its organizational goals, and consideration --the degree to which a supervisor emphasizes two-way communication and support. The supervisory index measures his knowledge of human relations, attitude toward management, company policies, and the supervisor's job, as well as attitude towards subordinates. In addition general questionnaires calling for background information and data about the job were given to the respondents.

It turns out that although they were considered middle management these people had a very narrow definition of their jobs, primarily in terms of technical skills. The majority of them although in a profession dedicated to treatment, recognized security as one of the major duties. Supervision of personnel ranked second, supervision of inmates was third, physical maintenance fourth. Health and welfare of inmates was

considered the least important of their obligations.

They listed technical or special skill training appropriate to their present job as the first requirement, and then effective training in supervisory skills. This was noted by somewhat less than one-half of the respondents.

When they were asked to list the difficulties in their jobs the most frequently mentioned was lack of training of subordinates or lack of qualified staff. Another problem encountered often was related to the roles of the institutions which were not widely known, not enforced or too rigid.

In descending order the topics which were desired in the training program by the middle management people were 1) technical or special skills for their present job (68%); 2) more effective supervisory skills in human relations (44%); 3) knowledge about motivation of criminal behavior (22%); 4) strategies for rehabilitation (20%); 5) knowledge and skills which contribute to overall function of the institution (19%); 6) training in administrative skills, coordinating activities and leadership (18%); and 7) public relations (12%). (N = 67) When asked about their feeling in relation to previous training programs the majority said the courses were either too short or too long, not enough training took place, some people did too much talking and some seemed to "know it all."

The consultants began their analysis of the training needs with the bias that disposition of the offender should be guided by the goal of his rehabilitation. At the same time society should be secure from exposure to possible criminal acts by the offender prior to completion of the rehabilitative process. Therefore, they felt that it was important to develop a program which would impart a set of values and attitudes compatible with that objective, as well as the knowledge to facilitate the implementation of the goal.

I have attached a set of the objectives of the training program taken from the report itself. The outline of the planned two week university based institute follows: 1. Overview of the correctional process. 2. Role of the police. 3. Philosophy of criminal law. 4. Probation and classification. 5. 6. 7. The Prison community. 8. Behavior disorders. 9. The custodial function. 10. The treatment function. 11. Parole selection. 12. Post institutional supervision. 13., 14., 15., Organization, structure and behavior. 16., 17., 18. Prison and the community. 19-48 practicum.

Probation and parole had a similar program as follows: 1. An overview of corrections. 2. The prison community. 3. Organization, structure, and behavior. 4. Philosophies of probation and parole. 5. Case conference and teaching method.

6. Behavior modification theory. 7. Social problems, rural-urban. 8. Sensitivity training. 9. Community relationships. 10-15. Practicum.

An evaluation was planned which involved the concepts of feasibility, appeal and informal assessments. An attempt was made to maximize the appeal of the program to the supervisors by day-time scheduling and by allowing for participation in the planning process. At the close of each session there would be an initial verbal evaluation of both the content and method of presentation and a written student evaluation would be systematically elicited. Beyond this general evaluation, further questionnaires and testing would measure the extent to which the knowledge and attitudinal and skills objectives had been achieved. And finally, an informal assessment would be obtained from each instructor after each follow up session in the second stage of the training program.

Appendix to Grant #133; Missouri Department of Corrections.

Objectives of Training

The general objective of this training program was to increase the competence of middle-line supervisors to elicit the most appropriate and efficient effort of their subordinates in the service of organizational goals. This competence must be based upon the following:

1. Knowledge

- a. Understanding of the ultimate objective of the correctional process as primarily rehabilitation of the offender.
- b. Understanding of the correctional process as a continuum that begins with apprehension and ends with successful termination of services, and the role that various personnel, both intramural and extramural, play in this total process.
- c. Understanding of the penal institution as a social system, the interacting forces at work within it, and the behavior of both staff and prisoners as a function of their socio-cultural group identifications, life experiences, and expectations.

- d. Understanding of the pathological behavior most commonly found among prisoners.
- e. Understanding of the custodial function and its relationship to ultimate rehabilitative goals.
- f. Understanding of the intramural treatment function and its relationship to rehabilitative goals.
- g. Understanding of the after-care function and its relationship to rehabilitative goals.
- h. Understanding of the prison as a large organization, having a formal and informal structure, and the conditions that make for organizational effectiveness.
- i. Understanding of relationship of prison to the community, what negatively and positively affects that relationship.

2. Attitudes

- a. Respect for the rehabilitative potential of prisoners.
- b. Acceptance of rehabilitation as the primary and ultimate objective of the correctional process, and a desire to contribute efforts toward that objective.

- c. Respect for team effort in pursuit of the objective, the team in this sense cutting across personnel categories.
- d. Respect for the capacity of subordinates to respond to good supervisory practices.
- e. Self-esteem and professional pride in one's role in the total process.

3. Skills

- a. Ability to apply knowledge and attitudes to the immediate tasks, both anticipated and unanticipated. The aim is to inculcate in each supervisor a frame of reference which will provide him with a guide to his behavior not only in the routine aspects of his job but also in situations for which there may exist neither precedent nor explicit regulation.
- b. Ability to communicate accurately and with confidence.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 133

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Well done.

10th  
405

NI-69-039  
(PART D)

Grant #135

Grantee: Harrisburg Area Community College

Amount: \$24,662

Dates: February 1967 to March 1968

Purpose: A one-month Police Management Institute for 30 chiefs from small cities in four state area.

Summary

Cities with range of 25,000-80,000 population would receive police management training with invitations extended to the police chief or immediate subordinate. The Institute was held in four one-week sessions with three or four-week intervals between each. During the interim between segments, participants were provided with reading and written assignments related to materials to be covered in subsequent sessions of the Institute.

The general aims of the Institute were:

- 1) to increase the administrative effectiveness of the participating police executive,
- 2) to encourage the implementation of proven administrative procedures upon their return to their departments,
- 3) to broaden the intellectual skills and abilities of police executives in attendance,
- 4) to provide an opportunity for participants to critically analyze their present organizational structure and operational procedures,
- 5) to stimulate additional interest in police training and education, and
- 6) to provide an educational opportunity that had never been available in this area.

The Project Director visited other agencies in the United States to observe police management training and received valuable suggestions from them.

All facilities and resources of Harrisburg Area Community College were made available to participants in the Institute. The Municipal Police Administration was used as the text. Great care was exercised in selection, assignment, and coordination of lecturers. The type of instruction combined lecture, conference, seminar, and workshop techniques. In the workshops, the focus was upon a specific aspect of police management function currently being studied by the group. Workshops were utilized particularly when a specific assignment was given.

Between sessions assignments were four book reports, an administrative and organizational evaluation of their departments, and an evaluation of personnel procedures within their departments. The use of programmed learning material proved valuable for both the police officer and general student. Although both programmed text and material were valuable, neither should be given without the other and should be supplemented by class lecture and discussion, according to the participants. All lectures were recorded and then transcribed, and those that were edited by the speakers appeared in a book of readings.

The participants found that the course made them more critical of their departments and eager to implement new techniques that would improve departmental operations. They felt the need for a three-day refresher course within a year. Participants felt that exchange of ideas and establishment of continued dialogue between those of similar interests and problems was valuable.

A Final Evaluation Report on the Police Management Institute concluded that: The goals of the project proposal made for flexibility but negated the likelihood of developing an evaluation based on precise measurement. Objectives should be formulated in more

specific terms. Participants did not give significance to broad statements of goals and generally did not make extensive efforts to relate success of these operations to any careful statement of objectives.

The project evaluator felt that the organization and administration of the institute was thorough and extensive. The interest and needs of the participants were taken into account, and activities were structured to be conducive to effective learning. The workshop approach was extremely appropriate, more direct, provided immediate involvement and was enthusiastically received by participants. The full effectiveness of the workshop activities was achieved only when problem assignments were specific.

The evaluator felt that a single session of one-day appearance of a consultant made for built-in rigidity that militated against the fullest utilization of the workshop approach. The short period precluded deep involvement in specific problems, and a few presentations of consultants revealed inadequate preparation.

The problems of police departments of different sizes required careful planning in terms of balancing of members of the group. It would be necessary to plan for a specific number of sub-groups and bring in sufficient number of participants to fill each sub-group.

It was found that not following through on completed assignments in class-related readings, book reports, prevented the students from giving the materials the attention that would be required to master them.

The use of formalized reading and written assignments discouraged some students who felt threatened by verbal concepts. The evaluator felt that assignments should be limited, that most of them should be confined to institute work shops.

Students tended to measure learning in terms of quantities of note-taking rather than depth of understanding. Students seemed interested in sociological and psychological implications of police management, the "why" of good management, as well as the "how" of good management. There seemed to be a need to emphasize an approach which would seek a balance between these two concerns.

It was recommended that participants plan institute sessions, select topics of consultants, and actually assist in the planning of programs. The role of the learner should be defined at the beginning of the institute's program, and should be to question, to challenge, and to offer constructive criticism.

In the follow-up study several months after the conclusion of the institute, interviews with 11 of 20 who finished the course disclosed that participants were satisfied with the course. And with the passage of time, participants realized they had learned more than they had realized. They established contacts with colleagues exchanged ideas, pooled resources, and drew upon consulting services of specialists whose talents were now more fully appreciated as a result of institute experiences.

As a result of the institute many participants instituted changes in their individual police departments.

The feeling was expressed that the differences among sizes of the departments of the participants was so great that it precluded general discussions. Small police departments would have specific needs.

Although a majority felt that a solid block of time seemed more feasible, four segments of one week each seemed more practical and effective because many could not absent themselves from their duties for a sustained period.

Evaluation

The utilization of an outside evaluator by this project to objectively assess the program of the institute and report his negative findings in this final report pointed to the dedication and sincerity of the grantee. Many of the suggestions for constructive improvement could easily be applied.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #135

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not much.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

To some degree.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The project director made an honest effort to make their conferences a true learning experience rather than a social gathering. They brought in an outside consultant to evaluate the program honestly. This program would get an A for effort.



Grant #137

Grantee: Ohio Peace Officer Training Council and Battelle  
Memorial Institute

Amount: \$34,955

Dates: April 1967 to March 1968

Purpose: To implement improved police training sessions.

Summary

The grantees took a systems approach, quite likely this was the contribution of the Battelle Institute, rather than the Ohio Peace Officer group. It certainly made sense to determine performance requirements for newly appointed officers before developing a training program.

They determined performance requirements by working with experienced police, administered a questionnaire of 155 items to 135 police officers from four local government levels in Ohio. The final set of performance requirements was determined by a frequency test. Each item to be admitted to the final set had to have been performed at least once a day by 60% of the newly appointed officers who answered the questionnaire. Ninety-nine of the 155 tasks met this criterion. The remaining 56 were submitted to a panel of expert police executives. If a majority judged the task important and within the capability of a newly appointed officer, it was also admitted as a final performance requirement. Twenty-one of the 56 met this criterion.

Then a curriculum of 260 hours was drawn up. This is attached to this summary. It was a well designed training program, although far short of the 400 hour minimum course recommended by the President's Crime Commission.

### Evaluation

It was a well designed training program. It gave the new officer an insight into the history of police, his role today, police ethics, the criminal justice system, and civil rights. There were 11 hours of police-community relations discussion, and 16 hours on mob and riot control.

Very little was said about instructor selection. There was an obvious bias in favor of programmed or computer assisted instruction. They did set down some tentative criteria for police training instructors.

1. Demonstrated capability as an effective instructor,
2. some knowledge of the subject matter,
3. willingness to follow lesson plans, and
4. awareness that performance by trainees is related to quality of instruction.

The problem here is once more the status of the Peace Officer Council as well as its programs. As long as it is merely advisory, rather than mandatory, the Council will never be effective. Only when the legislature passes a law making it mandatory for police to have taken the proposed course, will the Council be an effective force for the improvement of Law Enforcement in Ohio.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 137

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

To some extent.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not much.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

It was probably one of the better efforts of State Standards and Training Commissions. But the legislature refused to pass legislation making the standards mandatory, and the commission became merely an advisory body without real power.

Grant #138

Grantee: Flint Police Department, Flint, Michigan

Amount: \$14,171

Dates: March 1967 to March 1968

Purpose: To expand the present police-community relations program.

Summary

The force had 327 officers when the police community relations office was established in January 1968. There were only two full-time employees assigned, and one other patrolman who spent most of his time doing office work.

This project was unusual in that it proposed to create some grass roots leadership within the department by sending eight members of the patrol force who had some indication of latent power of leadership and creativity to four geographical locations in the United States: the west, the east, the south and mid-west. They would go in two-man teams to observe strengths and weaknesses of police community relations programs in police departments in the various areas of the country. Then they would instruct the rest of the force, indicating the kinds of things they saw and what they considered best in the programs.

A professor at the National Center on Police Community Relations at Michigan State University recommended the following police departments as outstanding in the police community relations field: San Francisco Police Department, Berkeley and Oakland, all in California; St. Louis, Missouri; Chicago, Illinois; Winston-Salem, North Carolina; Washington, D.C., in the south; and Rochester, New York; and Newark, New Jersey in the east.

The next step in the plan was to have all patrolmen on the force train more extensively in police community relations to

be conducted during off-duty hours, attendance to be mandatory, with two classes of 2 1/2 hours duration each.

To supplement this, there would be a community involvement program in which the beat officers or the district cruiser officer would visit the community school functions and get to know community people. Subsequently, there would be academic training for selected patrolmen at Michigan State University in the area of police community relations. They were going to hire a professional in the field of police community relations to assist in the program and to teach the officers. As a result of these measures they hoped to improve communications with the community and promote better contact with the community. They wanted to change police and public attitudes for the better and tap community resources.

A patrolman team stayed three or four days in each department. They conducted training classes in police community relations not only for the Flint Police Department, but also for the officers from a nine county area that attended the mid-eastern Michigan Training Academy that was conducted by the Flint Police Headquarters. There were usually 25 officers in a group.

The police community relations bureau had the following objectives: 1.) To project a more positive image of the police, 2.) To reduce crime through greater citizen participation, 3.) To give the police a better understanding of community problems; 4.) To give the community a better understanding of the problems of the police; and 5.) To create that area of communication through conferences between the police and the community, especially community organizations such as civic,

educational, church, and trade.

There were many programs in operation with intrinsic value:

- 1.) The committee on human rights and law enforcement, a kind of coordinating council which took action in special occasions of crises, met every month, or at any time necessary, to solve problems or conditions necessary for the good of the community.
- 2.) The check program -- Citizens Help to Eliminate Crime, in which they cooperated by reporting crime to the police.
- 3.) An elementary school community counselor representative.
- 4.) Elementary school child safety program.
- 5.) Golden glove boxing center.
- 6.) Guided tours of police departments.
- 7.) Meet your policeman program.
- 8.) New liaison program.
- 9.) Police school cadet program.
- 10.) Officer recruiting program.
- 11.) Officer training programs.
- 12.) Policeman of the month program.

In summation this was an active program for a small department and it developed some good ideas in trying to establish and to improve its police-community relations program.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 138

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This program borrowed from many other police departments and although there was fairly good motivation, the project spread itself thin trying to do too much.

Grant #139

Grantee: Rhode Island Department of Social Welfare

Amount: \$12,484

Dates: March 1967 to April 1968

Purpose: To develop a state-wide training program for corrections.

Summary

The Department of Social Welfare as grantee would contract with the University of Rhode Island to carry out the survey of the state's correctional needs and training needs. The project director's responsibility would consist of three consecutive sets of activities: 1) to determine the training needs of Rhode Island's correctional institutions; 2) to design the program; and 3) to draw up a plan to make the program operational.

The agencies in Rhode Island were the Bureau of Probation and Parole, the Adult Correctional Institutions, the Women's Reformatory, the Rhode Island Training School for Boys, and the Rhode Island Training School for Girls. In the past these organizations had had little or no formalized training programs. The specific target groups were professional and non-professional staff, and first line supervisors who were in direct contact with juvenile or adults. There were approximately 383 employees in these categories.



Advisory committees and technical consultants were brought in to help develop the program. In addition, institutes were held for correctional personnel in which they were asked for their projections. Finally, interviews were held with inmates of the correctional institutions to find out what they thought was important.

The first step was to take a personnel survey of the correctional institution. At the series of buzz sessions held at the various institutions a number of training needs were identified: 1. competence in the field of special knowledge; 2. knowledge of people; 3. understanding of the American way of life and the values and philosophy of our country; 4. a knowledge of specific responsibilities; 5. skill of teaching and guidance and communication; 6. the skills of working with people.

The second stage of the training program will be conducted to achieve four objectives: 1. an orientation refresher and intermediate training for employees in the policies and procedures of the Department of Social Welfare; 2. training in the application of practical work situations; 3. improving the quality of job performance; 4. improvement of the career development within the correctional system. To accomplish this they developed several workshops and seminars: 1. Workshop

on communications. 2. Seminar in human relations. 3. Seminar in the offender psychological and psychiatric view. 4. Seminar on the offender sociological view.

A correctional training center was planned and a correctional training coordinator had been appointed.

All this is in the nature of wishful thinking. It would be miraculous if these goals were attained. As a statement of hopes they are fine, but as a realistic plan to improve corrections they are very much like all the others, and probably will go no further.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 139

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Yes.
2. Was the project innovative?  
No.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Not much.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
No.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
No.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
No.
7. Remarks.  
Correctional training programs have to overcome more problems than police training projects. The lack of student motivation is probably the strongest obstacle.

Grant # 141

Grantee: Department of Public Safety, Rochester, New York

Amount: \$14,888

Dates: March 1967 to October 1967

Purpose: To expand the police community relations program in Spanish language training, to create better relations between police and youth, and to develop a TV and radio recruitment program.

Summary

This Spanish language program with 34 officers participating commenced on March 1, 1967. (23 officers completed the course) The course, Spanish 205 - Spanish for Community Workers, at Montore Community College, was instructed by Mr. Jose Dones, a Puerto Rican.

The report stated on page 9 that there was some improvement as the result of this program because four Puerto Ricans filed their applications for the police department, and the officers who took the course were apparently helped enough to be able to understand Spanish and to make better reports and investigations.

The second part of the project was called Special Projects Associate Phase. The problem was that the police department wanted to make better contact with the inner city. It was

pointed out on page 12 of the report that the minority group population in Rochester was approximately 13%, and less than 4% of the force was of minority group background. The problem was that it could not recruit competent minority group candidates for police or even police trainee. Also there was not only a lack of communication between minority youth and police, but also open hostility between the two.

The Special Projects Associate was supposed to meet this need by making contact with the youth in the minority group areas. The man chosen was Mr. Silipini, a former Mr. America, a professional wrestler, using the name of Tony Marino. Apparently, he was not a Negro or minority group member as observable from the picture enclosed in the report, but he did seem to make good contact with boy scout troupes. He also set up a boxing program and wrestling program leading to golden gloves participation.

The third phase of the police community relations program was entitled media development in which there would be radio announcements, and programs describing police functions for both radio and TV. There were three TV tapes of 20 seconds, 30 seconds and 60 seconds geared to police recruitment. The report asserted that it must have been successful because the Rochester police bureau had just concluded a recruitment campaign which proved to be the most successful in twenty years. (486 applicants filed applications with the Civil Service Commission for the police job.) It was felt that this was a result of the

TV video tapes which were shown seven times a day in each of four TV stations for one month as part of the Civil Service operation.

One question which immediately comes to mind, "If the problem was contact with minority youth, probably Negro and Puerto Rican, why did they not choose a Negro or Puerto Rican athlete rather than the man they did choose?" No matter how successful he was it would have made better sense to choose somebody from the minority group itself.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 141

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Why would the most naive person assume that if a white Italian prize fighter conducted a recreation program for youth, then the black population would become more favorably disposed? This project could never be a success if that is the level of the conception behind it.

Grant # 142

Grantee: New York City Police Department and Vera Institute  
of Justice

Amount: \$15,000

Dates: March 1967 to May 1968

Purpose: An analysis of the New York City police-community relations program, and theoretically, a comparison with those in other cities and a development of long-range programs.

Summary

The report that was received covered only the first part of the intended purpose of the grantee. In actuality, it was just a report of the confidential survey of New York City patrolmen developed by the Vera Institute of Justice and the ORC, the Opinion Research Corporation.

The questionnaire developed was given to 1,369 patrolmen broken into many segments such as ethnic background, time experience on the force, major type of duty, kind of post, whether they had good police community relations, average police community relations, or poor police community relations.

The sample was chosen on the basis of every fifth name in each precinct, and then those men were asked if they would volunteer to fill out the questionnaire. If not enough



volunteers were obtained then every fifth name was continued until enough volunteers were obtained. The questionnaire was divided into two parts. In part I, the patrolmen were asked to describe the attitudes of the public, of the people with whom they have had most daily contact, and in part II, the patrolmen were given an opportunity to express their own views and opinions.

The highlights of the study were contained in pages V to XIII. In general, the patrolmen saw themselves as misunderstood by the public; they felt that present community relations programs were of little help in obtaining cooperation between the police and the people and the reason for this distressing situation was due mainly to the policy of permissiveness toward law breakers. They believed that the police would want a more effective and stronger program against law breakers. That leniency on the part of the courts hurt police effectiveness.

In conclusion, there was a high level of dissatisfaction among patrolmen expressed in this questionnaire. They felt they were not getting enough backing from the department, and that they lacked authority to do the job as it should be done. At the same time, they agreed that there was a serious police-community relations problem in New York City and

wanted something done about it, but they were not certain just what. They did suggest, however, that a substantial communications program be radio and television that would reach a wide segment of the public would be effective.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 142

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Possibly for the police.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. How are the police socialized, and how are their ideologies formed?

7. Remarks.

The questionnaire study revealed that N.Y.C. police hold a very low opinion of police-community relations programs. This may be the reason that so many programs have failed.

Grant #143

Grantee: Center for Advanced Studies in Organization  
Science, The University of Wisconsin

Amount: \$105,033

Dates: March 1967 to February 1969

Purpose: To establish two 2-week executive development  
training sessions for correctional administrators  
(25 trainees).

#### Summary

This was a two week institute for top level correctional administrators given by a very prestigious faculty. The curriculum was heavily weighted in the direction of public administration, with an infusion of the behavioral sciences.

The set of readings included articles by Homans, Argyris, Erikson, Gouldner, Bensman, Rosenberg and others. This was the equivalent of an advanced post graduate course in industrial sociology, or theory of organizations.

The attached pages taken from the final report give the details of the curriculum.

How much did the participants absorb in two weeks? It is impossible to say. There is no indication in the final report of any evaluation. This may have been a very effective program, or it may have been a waste of time.

Evaluation - Although the faculty was excellent, the readings very demanding, and the students high level administrators, it is my opinion that this was too difficult an assignment to cover in a two week seminar.

INSTITUTE IN EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT  
FOR CORRECTION SYSTEM ADMINISTRATORS

The Center's continuing work with state mental health systems has brought staff into broad and repeated contacts with state correction systems which frequently are administratively arranged as parallel organizational units within state departments of public welfare or equivalent agencies. Further, certain professional disciplines (e.g., psychiatry, clinical psychology, social work) with which particular Center programs and research activities are concerned, are increasingly participants in the diagnostic and therapeutic activities of correction systems. For some time, officials of state correction systems, and therapeutic professionals working in such systems, have urged the Center to establish and to conduct a program in executive development for correction system administrators similar to that which the Center has conducted, since 1959, for state mental health administrators.

The Center, therefore, has undertaken to conduct a month-long residential Institute in Executive Development for Correction System Administrators. The Institute is scheduled as two separate but integrated two-week units. The initial two Institutes are designed for state directors and deputy directors (or equivalent-level state officials), and other key administrative officials of state correction systems. Subsequently, a similar program of studies will be conducted for wardens and deputies of state prisons, superintendents and deputies of state reformatories and

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training schools, and such other upper-level public correction system officials as are nominated for attendance by principal correction system officials in the various states. Attendance at each Institute will be limited to twenty-five participants in order that a seminar environment may be maintained.

The Institute will attempt: (1) to provide upper-level executives of correction systems with an understanding of the concepts and practices of modern administration; (2) to broaden participant awareness of the socio-cultural environment in which their administrative systems function and of the various environmental forces which contribute to crime and delinquency; (3) to acquaint such executives with the numerous and complex problems associated with the establishment and maintenance of effective patterns of communication and coordination with other public and private agencies with which liaison is appropriate and/or necessary; and (4) to provide knowledge of the various techniques of organization science which may be employed to realize more effective and efficient utilization of the custodial and therapeutic resources entrusted to these executives as managers of correction agencies and institutions. The Institute will also attempt, throughout the program of residential study, to develop a high level of participant awareness of self and of perceptions by others, both as to managerial style and to interpersonal skills.

To attain these objectives, the Institute will have the following specific goals:

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1. To remove the participant from his work environment and its involvements, and to place him in an atmosphere conducive to critical examination of the field of administration, of his role as a manager of a correction system, and of himself as a person.
2. To provide the participant with an opportunity to study with an expert faculty drawn, nation-wide, from universities, professional associations, correction organizations, and appropriate public agencies.
3. To translate the theories, research findings and literature of the several academic disciplines which constitute the basic substantive strata of the field of correctional administration into practical organizational, administrative and managerial terms directly applicable to the participant's work.
4. To raise challenging questions, to have presented opposing points of view in areas of administrative and correctional methods, and, by these, to stimulate interest in the field of professional correction administration.

The Institute will consist of an integrated series of topics which will undertake (1) an analysis of complex administrative systems in order to identify the organizational components thereof, (2) the identification of areas of organizational conflict and consideration of various administrative methods for the amelioration of such conflicts, (3) a consideration of the etiology and environment and criminal behavior, and (4) an examination and critical analysis of alternative strategies for the effective, efficient and economical realization of the objectives of an enlightened correction system.

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INSTITUTE IN EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT  
FOR CORRECTION SYSTEM ADMINISTRATORS

1967 Commissioners' Program

Spring Unit

June 11 - 23, 1967

LIST OF FACULTY

Thomas S. Carlson  
Associate Director  
Executive Development in Corrections Project  
University of Southern California

Donald R. Cressey  
Professor of Sociology and Chairman of the Dept. of Anthropology  
and Sociology  
University of California, Los Angeles

Lee E. Danielson  
Associate Professor of Industrial Relations  
Graduate School of Business Administration  
The University of Michigan

Gus L. Economos  
Associate Director  
Center for Advanced Study in Organized Science  
The University of Wisconsin

Amitai Etzioni  
Professor, Department of Sociology and Research  
Associate Institute of War and Peace Studies  
Columbia University

Roy G. Francis  
Professor, Department of Sociology and  
Dean, School of Letters and Science  
The University of Wisconsin

Kenneth K. Henning  
Acting Director  
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Robert N. McMurtry  
President  
The McMurtry Company  
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Elmer K. Nelson  
Professor of Public Administration  
University of Southern California



Theodore R. Sarbin  
Professor of Psychology and Criminology  
University of California, Berkeley

Allen R. Solem  
Professor of Management  
School of Business Administration  
University of Minnesota

Frank X. Steggert  
Executive Director  
Community Relations - Social Development Commission in  
Milwaukee County, and  
Senior Consultant  
Center for Advanced Study in Organization Science  
The University of Wisconsin

Alvin F. Zander  
Director of the Research Center for Group Dynamics and  
Professor of Psychology and Educational Psychology  
The University of Michigan

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 143

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

To some degree because it was pitched at a higher level than the average program.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

To some extent.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes, but in the psychology of learning.

7. Remarks.

This seminar was probably beyond the capabilities of the students.

Grant # 144

Grantee: American Foundation Institute of Correction,  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Amount: \$45,000

Dates: March 1967 to February 1968

Purpose: To plan, produce and distribute a 30-minute film  
on jail and the misdemeanor, to be used as a training  
aid for correctional personnel and to stimulate public  
concern and knowledge over correctional problems.

Summary

The foundation had already produced one film, "The Odds Against," and this would be the second. Also, a new series of additional films was proposed with the purpose of stimulating the recruitment and training of men, improving training, and educating the public to become interested in correctional problems. The subjects of the new films would be probation and parole, correctional institutions, coordination and integration in the administration of justice, the rehabilitative function of the correctional officer, techniques of interviewing, probation and parole supervision techniques, group counselling with offenders, vocational training in correctional institutions, and custodial techniques and practices. The anticipated audiences would be custodial personnel, college classes, public groups, and community groups.

Note:

The foundation proposed to create an outstanding advisory committee composed of Myrl Alexander, Director of the Federal Bureau of Prisons; Richard McGee, Administrator of the California Youth and Adult Corrections Agency; Austin McCormick, Executive Director of the Osborn Association; Milton Rector, Director of the NCCD; and Dr. Peter Lejins, Professor of Criminology and Sociology, University of Maryland.

To date three films have been produced:

"The Odds Against" -- an overview of the field of corrections.

"The Price of a Life" -- probation

"The Revolving Door" -- the misdemeanor in courts and jails.

Rental charge is \$15; purchase charge, \$100.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 144

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Films of this type are only training aids. They should not be considered the major training or recruiting resource.

Grant #146

Grantee: Tucson, Arizona Police Department

Amount: \$15,003

Dates: March 1967 to February 1968

Purpose: To develop a police-community relations program including a training program for all supervisory and command personnel and 10 patrolmen. Video-tape of training to be used for entire department.

Summary

The objectives of this program were to:

1. Identify historical development of problems of police-community relations;
2. Show need for police to accept police-community relations concepts;
3. Show benefits of good police-community relations;
4. Give supervisors the skills and knowledge to impart to their subordinates.

Three command officers attended the 13th Annual Police Community Relations Institute at Michigan State University. While there, they asked Dr. Mihanovich of the St. Louis University Department of Sociology and Anthropology to be the project consultant. Dr. Mihanovich and Captain Kessler, the project director, planned a Police-Community Relations Institute of 80 hours duration. The instruction was aimed at about the level of the second year college student because that was the average educational background of the Tucson Police Department.

Two two-week institutes of 80 hours each were planned. The first started January 22, 1968 and the second started February 16, 1968. The plan was to have 35 supervisors at each session. The

response was greater than anticipated; an additional 29 patrolmen and civilians from the Tucson Police Department as well as two representatives from the Fire Department and one from the City Department of Personnel attended.

The first week was intended to build a background of knowledge and information, and the second week was geared to group discussions to develop a set of recommendations.

The curriculum of the institute included:

- Meaning, purpose, function of police-community relations,
- Nature of prejudice and discrimination,
- Principles of intergroup relations,
- Public relations and the police officer,
- The nature of delinquency,
- The young adult offender,
- Group dynamics,
- Civil disobedience,
- The nature of poverty,
- The American Culture,
- The nature and purpose of various civil rights and ethnic groups in Tucson.

The speakers were college professors, members of the clergy, some well-known police administrators, and representatives of community groups.

Most of the report was composed of the actual speeches and lectures.

An evaluation of the program by the participants was generally favorable. Only 2 of 73 responses were negative. Sixty percent said that the institute had changed their thinking about the community in a positive direction.

Major recommendations developed by the Institute were:

1. Fluid patrol -- same man assigned to difficult neighborhoods so that the community knows him personally;
2. Establish an Office of Coordinator of Municipal Services;
3. Store-front offices for police;
4. Identify and develop community leaders;
5. Civilian Board for police -- 50% for, 50% against;
6. Speakers Bureau;
7. Additional manpower;
8. More equipment;
9. Monthly incentive pay for college credits;
10. Evaluate officers' performance by different criterion;
11. Officers to wave to children;
12. More use of media to improve police image;
13. Provide more training for all personnel on ethnic groups, cultural backgrounds;
14. Officers to work in community activities.

#### Evaluation

The program is by now a standard approach to police-community relations training for police. As the report reveals there was a good deal of opposition to the program within the department (see p. 10 of the report.) It is always difficult to measure the effectiveness of these training programs. Yet at this stage we do not know any better method.

There are some over-enthusiastic statements in the lecture material by some of the teachers in this two-week institute, for example, this excerpt is the conclusion of a lecture (see p. 113):

"When you finish this seminar, you will know as much



about inter-human relations and intergroup relations as the university professor who majors in psychology or in sociology. You only have to listen, hear, understand, appreciate and apply; and then you are going to become damned good cops."

It is apparent that this expert has a rather low opinion of university professors, and of the content of psychology and sociology. At the same time he has an exalted opinion of police intelligence and motivation. We can only hope that the participants at the Institute fulfilled the prediction and changed for the better as a result of the two-week training period.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 146

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Only in part.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not much.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The project consultant who shaped the program was too sure that he accomplished the miracle of changing police attitudes toward black people in a favorable direction. There is no proof that this was accomplished.

Grant #148

Grantee: Dayton, Ohio Division of Police

Amount: \$15,000

Dates: March 1967 to October 1967

Purpose: To develop a police-community relations program, including the establishment of a two-man police-community relations unit and also a human relations training program for police personnel.

Summary

The report stated that "we were handicapped in our six months program by two riots in our predominantly Negro west side area, one in June and one in September." A shortage of personnel also was encountered. At one of the riots they organized a youth patrol for 17 young men; and this group grew to 160, and became an important part of their police-community relations program. They held open house allowing the public to see the police buildings. There was a program of school visitation. The police gave speeches and printed coloring books with safety messages for children.

They showed a film on models to older students. For example, more than 900 girls in high school assemblies witnessed that film with such interest that it was a mandate for them to continue the showing in all high schools. They contacted Head Start children, and held meetings with neighborhood councils to improve communication on that level. They addressed civic and service clubs. Additional in-service training was given in the police academy and also at the University of Dayton and Wright State University. There was a curriculum on public

to establish a speakers' bureau. They were able to visit other cities such as Chicago, St. Louis, Los Angeles, and San Diego and compare and learn from other police programs.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 148

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

Only in the sense that it was converted into a program to show films to high school students.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Riots ruined the community relations project. Out of this experience and the need to rely upon youthful leaders to quell the riots, a slightly better relation developed between the police and the black community.

Grant #150

Grantee: South Dakota Division of Criminal Investigation  
and South Dakota Law Enforcement Training Advisory  
Commission

Amount: \$33,838

Dates: September 1966 to February 1968

Purpose: State Law Enforcement Standards and Training

Summary

Unfortunately, instead of the final report of the project, what was submitted was a Law Enforcement Officers Handbook produced by a professor of law at the School of Law at the University of South Dakota. It reviewed briefly some of the various laws and procedures that applied in South Dakota.

The comments relevant to the other police handbooks are pertinent as well to this one. Handbooks are not really valuable as a practical matter. They are not as good as training sessions.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 150

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

If the handbook was all the Commission produced, it was an unqualified failure.

Grant #153

Grantee: Boston Police Department, Boston, Massachusetts

Amount: \$30,200

Dates: March 1967 to July 1967

Purpose: To develop a plan for a communication and information system, to increase the efficiency of report and record keeping operations, and to decide on the best uses and potentials of the data that is available.

#### Summary

The Boston Police Department employed Arthur D. Little, Inc., Cambridge, Massachusetts to assist in this study which concentrated on the information needs of the Boston Police Department, including communications, day-to-day reporting, and the entire system of permanent records. Changes in each of these areas were recommended.

It was suggested that the first major area of changes should be the reporting system. The starting step should be to put incidents into categories according to their importance; field reports were to serve as a primary source of data.

The second area of changes should be records. It was pointed out that the Boston Police Department had an inadequate central records system in which a tremendous amount of time and energy was spent in creating several small record systems;



for example, there were fifty name files. There ought to be a master name file so that all these small files could be done by data processing machinery with a tremendous saving in manpower. The district journal was found to be the most inefficient of all the records systems. It was recommended that it be dropped, even though it seemed to be the record of what was happening in each district from hour to hour. The compilation of a master name file, an index of known offenders, and an index of names found in the journal of ongoing activities was suggested.

The traffic analysis unit incorporates a third component--communications. This includes all the various links of communications, the means by which a citizen requests police services; police cars are dispatched and report back to the dispatcher, administrative information is passed between headquarters and districts, and patrolmen maintain contact with district personnel. The emergency system should be expanded into a three-channel, three-zone dispatching system for headquarters to patrolmen. A pilot program was recommended using open radio emergency call boxes.

The fourth area was command and control of operations. The journal takes too long to be prepared so it is only good after the fact. It was not technically feasible at the present

level of the Boston communication system to make a command and control system which would allow a dispatcher to see at a glance the status of car operations at any time and allow supervisory personnel to know what his cars were doing. This required a computer.

The fifth area was the establishment of a computer facility. The Department was committed to installing an IBM 360/30 computer system for routine processing of data and for responding rapidly to field inquiries about stolen cars, missing persons, warrants and other information. The important point was made that this organization believed a computer system was best employed in controlling field operations, and that rapid response to inquiries was a secondary thing. The task of selecting the appropriate computer tape, files, in-put out-put, display units, etc., and control of operations was complex and deserved a thorough and comprehensive analysis, as did the writing of computer programs. It was recommended that there be a postponement in selecting and installing the computer system until a careful study of the whole area was completed.

The last area in this report was implementation. It suggested that a two-dispatcher, three-channel radio system be installed and the reporting of miscellaneous field incidents by code be instituted. Under command and control it was

recommended that a two-dispatcher system be implemented as soon as possible and plans be made for a three-dispatcher system. It would be expedient to defer the scheduled computer installation until specifications could be prepared for installation. It might be necessary to move in order to make space available for the computer system and the record system.

In the records category it was recommended that a master name file be created and that organizational changes be made. The traffic analysis unit should be shifted to headquarters and be made part of the planning and research division.

Finally, it was suggested that the Bureau of Inspectional Services be given the responsibility and authority to insure that the necessary operations and procedures were applied correctly.

The last part of the report was an estimate of costs. One effective patrol car represented approximately nine man years and \$68,000 per year. It was estimated that there would be a capital outlay of roughly \$1.5 million over a two-year period and after that the annual budget would be increased by approximately \$200,000. The gain provided by this increase in addition to the real control capability would be equivalent to five patrol cars or roughly 45 men released for patrol work which would be a gain of \$350,000 a year. The force size could

be reduced by roughly 50 men. However, another 20 would be required to operate the computer facility; the net gain on the street would be two-plus patrol cars.

This is a sensible revision of an outdated record system. Finally, a research organization has done the unthinkable: it has recommended a postponement of computerization instead of jumping on the bandwagon. I commend Arthur D. Little, Inc. for this. My prediction is that the computer installation will not be postponed.

PAGES 1153 THROUGH 1157 WERE UNAVAILABLE AT TIME OF FILMING.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 153

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes, for the police.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Probably not.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was a superior project worth the \$30,200 investment. Other departments received less for five times the amount of money.

Grant #158

Grantee: University of Montana Law School, Missoula, Montana

Amount: \$20,000

Dates: April 1967 to September 1967

Purpose: To conduct a four-day training institute for Indian tribal judges, to develop a law student criminal justice internship program, to place law students on Indian reservations, to create an ombudsman service for Indians in probation, police, and county prosecutor's offices. This was a proposal, not a final report.

#### Summary

The Federal Government has permitted the judicial system on the reservation to be run by tribal judges with little interference from the outside, except insofar as certain constitutional safeguards must be observed even on the reservation. The tribal courts are traditional and informal. Members can recall instances of defendants sentenced without plea or trial, of witnesses committed to jail because their testimony did not suit the judge, of cases dismissed solely because the defendant was a powerful member of the tribe.

The Montana Indian tribes are making an effort to rid themselves of these abuses and to make their courts fair and

effective. The Bureau of Indian Affairs has done excellent work but is handicapped by its position as general overseer of all Indian affairs. This institute conducted by the Law School will try to help the tribal courts to modernize themselves and to develop ordinances and procedures which will be simple, fair and equitable.

The student internship program will place a substantial cross section of each senior class as trainees in county attorneys' offices in several sections of Montana. It will give the student trainee a full time criminal justice workload and a variety of experience in the system of criminal justice. The students may participate in all phases of the case from preparation of charges all the way through revocation of parole or probation. The students will be associated with men of proven ability and experience who will guide them.

In addition, interns will be placed in the state facilities for detention and rehabilitation of juveniles. The special emphasis will be on probation as an alternative to commitment. There will also be interns placed in the police department. Finally, interns will be placed on the Indian reservations to act as liaison people or ombudsmen.

This is an experimental approach to develop procedures through which the problems of law enforcement and Indian



**CONTINUED**

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relations generally can be improved. The problem is not really the improvement of techniques but the development of confidence in the Indian person as a preliminary to education in law enforcement and in tribal court operation.

The evaluation is built into the project proposal. They will have various members of the agencies in which the interns are placed giving reports on the procedures and the effects of the program, and there will be a composite evaluation by three judges of the United States District Court for Montana.

The significance of the program is that it will improve the administration of criminal justice and of law enforcement. It will provide greater perspective and a necessity for and an advantage of voluntary compliance with the law. It will supplement the objectives of the Law School. The Law School will be providing a service function to the entire legal profession and to the state and it is the start of a search for a solution to the unique problems confronting American Indians. Note that Montana University Law School already has a defender project available in which students from the Law School act as defenders rather than prosecutors in courts.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 158

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes, for a small part of it.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes, for projects concerned with helping the Indians.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. Why does the Indian distrust our criminal justice system?

7. Remarks.

The problem is to convince a hostile Indian group that our criminal justice system is superior to their own.

Grant #159

Grantee: Elizabeth, New Jersey Police Department

Amount: \$15,000

Dates: April 1967 to December 1967

Purpose: To develop a police-community relations program, to establish a two-man police-community relations unit, to interview and survey the segments of the society to determine attitudes and problems for citizens and police, and then to assist in setting up a program for police-community relations unit and police training school. There would also be men detailed to take a course in Spanish and attend Rutgers University for advanced courses in police-community relations.

#### Summary

Elizabeth, New Jersey had an estimated population of 116,000 of which 25% were minority group members. Visits were conducted to five selected police departments: Rochester, New York; New York City; Philadelphia; Chicago; and St. Louis. to observe how their police-community relations programs functioned.

The consultant that was hired to produce the survey was Scientific Resources, Inc. of Union, New Jersey. They prepared a survey of the public and the police on attitudes toward the police department and the problems they faced. Meetings were held with minority group leaders. After the results of the survey were analyzed under the guidance of Scientific Resources, Inc., a series of police citizen training workshops were conducted. There was a six phase human relations training proposal, beginning with the top echelon of the department.

However, at the time of the proposal. The department declined to adopt the consultant's proposal because it would be a drain of manpower; it felt it could not get citizen participation; and the cost would be excessive.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 159

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Nothing was accomplished by this project. The police department resisted the proposals. Later on, Elizabeth, New Jersey was the scene of riots.

Grant #160

Grantee: Oklahoma City, Oklahoma Police Department

Amount: \$14,940

Dates: April 1967 to March 1968

Purpose: To develop a police-community relations program and improve the police image.

Summary

The department instituted a training program for its members in police-community relations. One of the objectives was that police and personnel from many community groups, cooperate and coordinate their efforts to reduce community tensions. Another important objective was to reduce and prevent crime through the joint police-community cooperation and finally, to develop in police officers the appreciation of the human rights of the public.

The instructional program consisted of eight training sessions, each session composed of 20 officers, divided into a real-life case discussion and lecture guided by an experienced police officer and a specialist in human relations. Civil rights leaders were allowed to participate in these classes. For a select group of officers, a police community orientation was held at the Southwest Center for Law Enforcement and Education at the University of Oklahoma during May 1967. In the spring term community relations training for all new officers was included at the recruit school. Seventy new officers participated in the intensive study of human relations problems, and then in June 1967 a police-community relations training and orientation class was scheduled for all high command and metropolitan area chiefs.

The Oklahoma Police Community Relations Institute was held November 10, 1967, sponsored by the Southwest Center for Human Relations Studies and National Conference of Christians and Jews.

A survey of racial attitudes in the Oklahoma City Police Department was prepared by Allen Sacks of the University of Texas. An interesting point was that the data from the test revealed that police saw the police department as being relatively free from prejudice.

Probably the most significant part of the program was a pilot project program undertaken under Captain Sam Watson in which the police (known as project officers) went into assigned areas, usually lower class neighborhoods, to promote understanding, develop communication, and provide guidance. The first step was to survey community needs and activities that would assure immediate involvement with area residents. Each devoted eight hours a week to this problem and apparently the line of communication built by these project officers became an important factor when rumors of a riot started in August 1967. Within 48 hours, over 200 telephone calls of potential danger were channeled into the community relations office.

Some of the project activities were:

"Operation Fly Over" - 1,500 eighth graders who had never flown had the chance to have an airplane flight. Letters from all people involved showed the success of this program.

Athletic Programs - successful in some areas, but in others there was no support.

Health Services - included community clean up campaigns, a mobile x-ray unit, and referral to medical and referral to medical and psychiatric centers.

Counseling - primarily among teenagers; dropouts were encouraged to go to school; jobs were located for unemployed; and occupational training was offered to others.



Dissemination of Information - People were informed of where to go in order to get their complaints heard. Many had previously thought of the police department as synonymous with the city government, and had blamed the police department for community breakdowns.

Police complaints (particularly in regard to distribution of manpower and equipment) were heard in formal and informal discussion. Facts often cleared up resentment. A significant result of the project came when officers shared their new knowledge and understanding with other police personnel not directly involved.

According to the report, statistics could not measure all the project's success. Physical improvements were made, social services extended, and the crime rate dropped in project areas, but most apparent was the improved p-c-r. The initial distrust and suspicion of project officers were replaced by offers of assistance by the community.

Evidently, there was some success from this project. Many social services were extended, and the crime rate dropped in project areas. This may be a case of police manipulation of statistics.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 160

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Not generally.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Possibly. The report claims some success in this direction.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This project may have improved matters somewhat, but it is hard to believe that a slightly better attitude toward the police will seriously reduce the crime rate.

Grant #162

Grantee: School of Criminology, University of California,  
Berkeley, California

Amount: \$65,000

Dates: May 1967 to September 1968

[This was later supplemented by Grant #291: \$51,300.]

Purpose: To establish a graduate degree fellowship program  
leading to a master's degree in criminology for selected  
law enforcement officers.

2. To review this graduate fellowship program  
and similar programs in John Jay College of Criminal  
Justice, New York City (Grant #127); Michigan State  
University School of Police Administration and Public  
Safety (Grant #165).

Summary

This is an evaluation of the Graduate Fellowship Program for Law Enforcement Officers 1967-1968. Three colleges took part in this program--John Jay College of Criminal Justice in New York City, Michigan State University School of Police Administration and Public Safety (now renamed School of Criminal Justice) at East Lansing, Michigan, and the University of California School of Criminology at Berkeley.

I. Objectives of the Program

The OLEA Fellowship program was conceived to be national in scope and to involve the cooperation of three existing programs of graduate instruction in criminology and police administration. The institutions which participated in the Fellowship program were the John Jay College of Criminal Justice in New York City, the School of Police Administration and Public Safety at Michigan State University in East Lansing, and the School of Criminology at the University of California at Berkeley. The overall objective of the Fellowship program was to begin the development of a corps of outstanding police administrators who would be placed on educational leave for one year by their employing agencies, permitting them to be exposed to the latest in ideas, methods, and tools of public administration and organizational management. The assumption was made that the persons selected for the Fellowships would comprise a select group of officers who had already obtained a baccalaureate degree. The Fellowships would allow them to participate in and concentrate on a full-time, twelve-month program of graduate education. One implicit objective of the Fellowship program was to develop a system of prestigious awards to be given annually to promising career police officers who had completed the baccalaureate

degree under their own resources. If the Fellowships could be funded on a continuing basis, it was believed that these awards would become a mark of real distinction in police service across the nation.

Although the specific goals of each of the three participating institutions varied slightly from those of the other institutions, all three of the institutions were agreed upon the following general objectives:

1. To provide an intensive and directed program of advanced study in the fields of criminology and police administration.
2. To provide a directed program of study in organizational behavior, with particular attention being devoted to effecting innovative change in highly structured organizations.
3. To combine a program of directed study with the flexibility to fit the individual needs of the participating Fellows.
4. To focus upon the relevance of democratic policing to the current body of social and behavioral science, knowledge, and experience.
5. To permit the observation and study of on-going systems of police work and criminal justice agencies in the regions surrounding the location of each of the institutions.
6. To provide for the integration of knowledge and experience of allied behavioral disciplines and the application

of this knowledge and experience to contemporary policing responsibilities and problems.

In order to achieve these general objectives, the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance funded a total of thirty Fellowships, ten each at John Jay, Michigan State University, and the University of California. In announcing the establishment of this Fellowship program, the Attorney General of the United States set forth the following qualifications for candidates:

1. Be currently employed by a state or local law enforcement agency at a rank above that of initial appointment.
2. Hold an earned baccalaureate degree.
3. Be not over 40 years of age.

Concerning these requirements, it was felt that these awards should be made only to persons who were currently employed by a public policing agency. (During the first two years of the Fellowship program, the term law enforcement was narrowly construed to mean only policing agencies.) The requirement that the candidate must be currently serving at a rank above that of his (her) initial appointment was intended to limit the granting of the awards to persons who had already shown a potential for being promoted within their own agency. Since this Fellowship program was intended to support graduate

education, the requirement that candidates must possess a baccalaureate degree was an obvious necessity. Finally, restricting the awards to persons who were not over 40 years of age was designed to exclude persons who would be eligible for retirement after the completion of the year of graduate education.

Although the specifications for the awards did not specifically exclude pre-doctoral study, it was the general assumption of the persons who designed the program that the awards would be used principally to support persons in their first year of graduate study. Actually, two Fellows at the University of California already possessed earned masters degrees and the Fellowships permitted them to earn a second masters degree and complete all their course work requirements for the doctor's degree.

## II Chronology

### A. General:

In March, 1967 an announcement of the program was made by Mr. Courtney Evans, the acting director of the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance. An information circular announcing the program was mailed to the heads of police agencies in the United States by the Attorney General. A deadline of

May 1, 1967 was established for the submission of applications. President Donald H. Riddle, then Dean of Faculties at John Jay agreed to assum responsibility for accepting the applications and coordinating the administrative burdens associated with this.

A review committee was established and consisted of the following persons:

Dr. Donald H. Riddle, Dean of Faculties, John Jay College of Criminal Justice.

Professor Arthur F. Brandstatter, Director, School of Police Administration and Public Safety, Michigan State University.

Dean Joseph D. Lohman, School of Criminology, University of California.

Mr. Patrick V. Murphy, Associate Director, Office of Law Enforcement Assistance.

Mr. George O'Connor, International Association of Chiefs of Police.

The review committee met in Washington, D.C. on June 7, 1967 in order to make the selection of awards. By this time, a total of 57 applications had been received by Dean Riddle.

At this meeting, the application of each candidate was reviewed and discussed, and at the conclusion of the meeting



ten candidates had been selected for each of the institutions. In addition, on the assumption that not all candidates would be able to accept the awards, five alternates were selected. Shortly thereafter, Dean Riddle notified each of the selected candidates and alternates of the action of the Review Committee. In his letter of notification, Dean Riddle informed each candidate that he should immediately make formal application to the particular institution to which he had been assigned. It was at this point that each of the cooperating institutions began dealing specifically with the individual Fellows.

Ten fellows were assigned to each college. Two declined for personal reasons and two dropped out of the program later. Twenty-six fellows completed the course satisfactorily.

The OLEA Fellows had to satisfy the graduate curriculum requirements of their particular host institutions. In few cases did the Fellows satisfy only these institutional requirements. Despite some anxiety experienced by Fellows at each of the institutions, the Fellows population at each enrolled in a wide range of course offerings. The "spread" of courses taken by Fellows at each of the three institutions is illustrated graphically on the following tables.

John Jay College of Criminal JusticeNumber Taking course

Police Science	701	"Problems in Police Administration"	
"	710	"Comparative Police Administration"	5
"	9770	"Youth Crime & Delinquency Control"	3
Law	9725	"Constitutional & Criminal Justice"	1
Sociology	715	"Research Design and Methods"	1
"	747	"Analysis of the Social System"	1
Statistics	601	"Social Science Statistics"	8
Government	640	"Public Administration"	8
"	701	"Problems in Public Administration"	8
"	703	"Police & the Community"	3
"	705	"Organizational Theory"	7
"	709	"Political Theory of Law & Order"	3
"	721	"Constitutional Law"	2
"	739	"Political Setting of Public Admin."	8
"	743	"Fiscal Administration"	8
"	791	"Thesis Research"	8

Michigan State University

Police Admini- tration	401	"Case Studies in Law Enforcement and Public Safety--Alcohol Education:"	1
"	453	"Case Analysis and Preventive Programs"	3
"	471	"Criminal Procedure"	5
"	801	"Directed Studies"	33

Michigan State U. Con'td

## Police

Administration	812	"Advanced Law Enforcement & Public Safety Administration"	10
"	815	"Seminar in Criminal Investigation"	9
"	820	"Advanced Police Administration"	9
"	822	"Comparative Law Enforcement Admin."	9
"	823	"Community Relations in the Administration of Justice"	9
"	870	"Administration of Criminal Law"	9
"	875	"Seminar"	9
"	899	"Research"	2
Education	431	"Audio-Visual Education"	3
"	882	"Seminar in Alcohol Education"	8

University of California

Criminology	104A	"The Correctional and Penal System"	1
"	115A-B	"The Criminal Law in Action"	6
"	116	"Constitutional & Procedural Problems In Law Enforcement"	5
"	119	"Ethnic Tension and Conflict in Relation to Law Enforcement"	1
"	123	"Groups, Crowds and Gangs"	1
"	180	"Juvenile Delinquency: Prevention and Control"	1
"	200 A-B-C	"Core Seminar in Criminology"	8
"	267	"Instruments of Discovery in Criminal Research"	1

U. of California Cont'd

<u>Criminology</u>	269	"Research Methods for Students Preparing Theses"	4
"	279	"The Role of Scientific Evidence in the Administration of Justice"	2
"	281	"Latent Function in Law Enforcement and Corrections"	2
"	296 A-B	"Seminar in Correctional Treatment of Offenders"	3
"	298	"OLEA Seminar"	36
"	299	"Independent Study"	19
Psychology	181	"Psychological Problems in Industry"	2
City Planning	298	"Group Studies"	1
Political Science	162	"Public Opinion"	1
"	267 A-B	"Municipal Administration"	4

Although the reports discuss the wide range of courses taken by the Fellows it is equally possible to criticize them for the absence of any minor concentration in other fields such as the humanities, the behavioral, and social sciences. If anything, the narrow range, not the diversity, of courses is revealed by their programs.

This fellowship program is an important new approach to police education. The fellows at John Jay College, some of whom were in my classes, and all of whom I knew, learned a great deal both in class and in interaction with criminal

justice people who were from different parts of the country. All of them were deeply impressed by the seriousness of the undertaking and the honor. Most of them advanced dramatically in their careers after they went home.

III           The success of the Fellowship program is evidence that career police officers with a baccalaureate degree can undertake an intensive program of graduate study, even after an absence of many years from the regimen of study. In many cases, the OLEA Fellows achieved academic records which were superior to other graduate students enrolled in comparable programs at the three host institutions. At the School of Criminology, for example, a higher proportion of OLEA Fellows passed the comprehensive Master's Degree examination than did other categories of graduate students in the School taking the examination in that particular quarter.

Faculty members at each of the host institutions agreed that the presence of a large group of Fellows on their campuses had a positive effect upon other students enrolled in their respective programs. In many cases, the experience and the maturity of these career police officers had a beneficial effect upon other students enrolled in particular classes.

What has been the career history of the OLEA Fellows subsequent to their return to their respective departments?

Actually, conclusions are premature, for the first year of the OLEA Fellowship program did not come to a conclusion until September 1968. Some preliminary impressions can be gained, however. In order to do this, the School of Criminology of the University of California sent a special questionnaire to the twenty-six police officers who participated in the first year of the program. Within six weeks, returns had been received from seventeen of these former Fellows. The data obtained from this questionnaire is, as follows:

	<u>Fellows</u>	
	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Number</u>
The Fellow received a promotion between the time he applied for the Fellowship program and the time of the questionnaire (26 months)	7	41.2
Upon return to his Department, there was a change of assignment	12	70.6
<u>Current assignment:</u>		
Planning Division	4	23.5
Police Academy	3	17.6
Police-Community Relations	1	5.8
Automotive Services Division	1	5.8
Services Division	2	11.7
Office of the Chief	1	5.8
Left policing, per se:	3	17.6
Currently, as least a part of their duties involve teaching in the Police Academy	8	47.0
Currently, as an extra-duty matter, they are teaching in a public junior college, college, or university	5	29.4

Of the three Fellows who left policing, it is interesting to note that they have achieved positions in which they are capable of having long-term impact on police operations and training. The current assignments of these three Fellows are, as follows:

Director of Law Enforcement, State of Maine Law Enforcement Council;

Associate Professor and Head of Department of Law Enforcement, Portland State College, Oregon;

Associate Professor, Department of Law Enforcement and Administration, San Jose State College, California.

At this point, it seems appropriate to make explicit mention of the "multiplier" effect of the OLEA Fellowship Program. Eight of the Fellows who responded to the questionnaire are currently teaching in recruit academies; two are employed full-time as college professors in police administration programs. In addition, five additional Fellows are teaching on a part-time basis in college programs in police administration. These latter institutions are, as follows:

Washington Technical Institute, Washington, D.C.

Rutgers, The State University, Camden, N.J.

Florida Junior College, Jacksonville, Fla.

Chicago City College, Chicago, Ill.

College of San Mateo, San Mateo, California

Consequently, nearly all of the respondents to the questionnaire revealed that either their professional placement or their avocational interests place them in a position to exert influence on the development of new police programs, operational procedures, training methods, etc. The OLEA Fellowship program not only had an impact upon the participating Fellows, themselves, but it also has the potential of having an impact upon a large segment of the American policing apparatus.

On the face of it, this evaluation is a thoroughly objective report. The project directors, however, were both associated intimately with the fellowship program as professors at the University of California, School of Criminology. Mr. Lohman was Dean of the School. Without in any way impugning the integrity of the men who wrote this report, I make the recommendation that OLEA consultants and experts who review projects ought not to have been intimately associated with the project to which they are assigned.

The Michigan State University program included a series of seminars by outstanding experts that seemed to be the high point of the program.



The Seminar Program

One unique feature of the Michigan State University program was the special seminar conducted during the winter term of 1968. \$3,730 were budgeted for this seminar. Briefly stated, the objective of the seminar was to provide an opportunity for the OLEA Fellows to meet as a group under the direction of senior faculty members and discuss problems of current importance to law enforcement. To meet these objectives, it was decided to use the President's Crime Commission Report, "The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society" and accompanying Task Force reports as test material. In addition to this reading assignment, a series of meetings was set up and selected speakers, each competent in his own field of expertise, were invited to lead the discussions.

A schedule of these events follows:

<u>Date</u>	<u>Topic</u>	<u>Participants</u>
January 10, 1968	"Role of Police in a Democratic Society"	Deputy Chief James Fisk, Los Angeles Police Department  Professor Herman Goldstein, Law School, University of Wisc.
January 30, 1968	"The Courts"	Dean Richard Myren School of Criminal Justice, State U. of New York Professor Frank Remington, Law School, U. of Minn.

February 7, 1968	"Drunkenness"	Mr. Peter Hunt, Attorney, Washington, D.C.
February 13, 1968	"Assessment of Crime"	Professor Hans Toch, School of Criminal, State University of N.Y.
February 20, 1968	"Narcotic Addiction and Corrections"	Professor Gil Geis, Sociology Department, California State College at Los Angeles
		Mr. Vincent O'Leary National Council on Crime and Delinquency
February 28, 1968	"Non-Lethal Weapons for Police"	Mr. Joseph Coates, Institute for Defense Analyses
March 7, 1968	"Family Crisis Intervention"	Dr. Morton Bard, Columbia University

The critique of the Michigan State Program by the fellows and the faculty is worth noting. They would apply to all three programs. Generally, in its major outlines each program was strikingly successful. An amazing percentage of the fellows (almost 100%) attained their M.A. degrees in one year, and maintained high academic standards while doing it.

There were certain criticisms that future programs of this type should take into consideration.

Student Critique and Recommendations

- A. An earlier and broader announcement of the program.
- B. Earlier notification of selection.
- C. All selected officers should receive full pay from departments and not be required to work for department while a student.
- D. Greater assistance in finding housing for students.

- E. More orientation to program, earlier involvements of school's director.
- F. Need to have smaller classes to permit seminar discussions.
- G. Most successful single experience was special winter term seminar.
- H. Many desirous of some form of field experience.
- I. Request for courses in supervisory management, personnel management, organizational analysis.
- J. Desire to have more meetings of Fellows.
- K. Make it mandatory that some elective be taken outside the School.
- L. Problem involved in putting OLEA people in with regular students.
- M. Various comments about instructors. Particularly mention an attempt on part of some instructors to turn the course over to students with too much emphasis on presentation.
- N. Poor library facilities.

The above list represents a paraphrasing and possible oversimplification of student evaluation of the Program.

It does include, however, the observations as reported by the students. Possibly some comment or clarification is in order.

A. The School of Police Administration and Public Safety concurs with the students that there should be an earlier announcement of the Program and every effort should be made to insure that law enforcement agencies receiving its notice give it the widest possible circulation within the organization. We are aware of instances wherein this announcement was not circulated much beyond the office of the chief.

B. We agree that the students should be notified at the earliest possible date of their selection.

C. We concur with this recommendation of the student.

D. Michigan State University does have an office which makes available to the student all known information about housing listed with that office. In addition, several members of the faculty personally assisted some students in locating housing.

E. Special orientation meetings were set up for the OLEA Fellows, and the record indicates that this group was given an unusual amount of attention in comparison with the rest of the graduate student body.

H. It is the feeling of the School of Police Administration and Public Safety that at this particular time no useful purpose would be served by putting the students in a field experience setting. This would be merely returning them

to an environment with which they are already familiar. We feel that one objective of the Fellowship Program is to put the students in an environment that is not necessarily familiar and comfortable for them, but will expose them to challenging, stimulating, and different viewpoints. Naturally, if the student is pursuing a particular research project which calls for his working with a law enforcement agency, the School will cooperate in this case.

K. This comment is noteworthy and will be recognized in future programs.

M. and N. We are unable to ascertain the meaning and intent of these comments.

#### Faculty Evaluation

Faculty members of the School of Police Administration and Public Safety had occasion to review periodically the OLEA Program both in formal and informal discussions.

A. When the program was announced, the faculty was in complete agreement that this was a worthwhile effort on the part of OLEA to assist in the upgrading of Law Enforcement Management and Personnel. Experience indicates that all faculty members participated in the program and gave generously of their time in terms of counseling and informal student-teacher contact. Several faculty members provided opportunities for

socializing with the students and their families.

B. Faculty members intimately associated with the special seminar program felt that this was the highlight of the project and recommend strongly that it be continued in future programs. The seminar provided the student with an opportunity to personally meet with nationally recognized experts and discuss problems of vital concern to them. The discussions generated at each seminar meeting were spirited and meaningful. Of particular note was the fact that a number of speakers presented very challenging ideas and unquestionably widened the horizons of the students.

C. A review of the individual courses of study of each student suggests that they were enrolled in an excessive number of Police Administration-type courses as opposed to courses in other areas. Possibly this requires some discussion. The senior faculty members assigned as advisors are people who have had professional law enforcement experience and understandably exhibited some sympathy for the students, who, for the most part, had been away from the academic setting for many years. Naturally, there was a certain amount of apprehension on the part of each student when he contemplated returning to the classroom at the graduate level. One faculty

member feels that in many cases advisors were unconsciously motivated to enroll the student in courses where he probably would have a modicum of comfort with regard to subject matter. This possible error in advising should be corrected in future student programming.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 162 (also #127 and #165)

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Yes.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The fellows should have been enrolled in more diversified courses.



Grant #163

Grantee: Des Moines, Iowa Police Department

Amount: \$14,991

Dates: July 1967 to June 1968

Purpose: To develop a police-community relations program with a special emphasis on juvenile and minority groups.

Summary

This was a rather primitive program for these times. A police-community relations program was set up in the police-community relations unit for seven officers. The assistant coordinator began a week of training, discussions, and experimentation, under the leadership of Miss Harriet White of the National Conference of Christians and Jews in Chicago, Illinois, and Professor Tomlinson of Drake University, a psychology professor. The officers were tested, given Minnesota multiphasic tests, and so on, and were found to be within normal range. Only two were temporarily assigned full time to the program.

A car was assigned, a black and white squad car lettered Police Community Relations on the side, but because of the problem of shortage of vehicles it was used by a superior officer; it made trips to fights, raids, etc.; the police-community relations program earned a bad name from the appearance of the car at these situations.

They set up community workshops, exposition displays, television programs, baseball teams, and a youth program at the YMCA. They opened one store front that was not well received by the public. They made tours of the elementary schools, and of course, cooperated with the Des Moines program in which

introduction to law enforcement was given in the junior high schools. They gave several training courses for the police recruits at the police academy. About 25% of the 360 hours was devoted to training in human relations.

They distributed materials, bought books and films on the subject, and they developed a newsletter in the training bulletin to explain to each officer some of the activities of the police-community relations program and the school counseling program. A blue star home program was instituted in which certain houses were designated with a blue star, and youngsters could go to them in emergencies.

The whole program did not seem strikingly original. It seemed to hit out in all directions, but in most traditional lines. It would not serve as a model for others.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 163

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

We can say that the directors were well meaning, but that is about all. Things fell apart and the project hardly accomplished anything.

Grant #164

Grantee: Peoria, Illinois Police Department

Amount: \$14,969

Dates: April 1967 to March 1968

Purpose: To develop a police-community relations program by a study of present literature, and a survey of the department.

Summary

The Peoria program was honest in that it recognized that some of its parts were not great successes. It recognized early that the minority groups felt that they were discriminated against by the police department and that they felt that its remedies were inadequate.

The population of Peoria was about 130,000, and there were about 13,000 Negroes in the city. The police department had 189 officers, 12 of them Negro.

The first two methods tried were neighborhood police-community relations workshops. They were failures. Although attendance was fair (about 50 persons), interest in the workshops seemed to wane as the summer drew to a close. Some of the subjects discussed were: use of police dogs, citizens' rights and the law, police services, rumor clinic, and crowd control.

Then they started a neighborhood police-community relations program in the Negro area and this was not a success either.

Police officers were hardened in their attitudes toward the community because they thought it was not fair that they should be subjected to criticism and be accused of lack of sincerity in efforts to improve police-community relations.

A field office of community relations was opened in June 1967.

Space was acquired and the office was kept open daily Monday through Friday from 9 to 5. The services of a neighborhood youth corps program were used, but citizens did not utilize this service as much as was expected. There seemed to be continued distrust of the police department and lack of knowledge of the existence of the office.

Finally, they hired as consultant, Dr. Clement Mihanovich, member of the department of sociology and anthropology at St. Louis University. He had worked with the St. Louis metropolitan police department, and he introduced some of the same methods here. He suggested that there should be a survey of citizens' attitudes to discover just what the problems were. It was recommended that policemen be removed from duty in high schools because they projected a bad image, but that instead officers should visit high schools in order to show that policemen could be friends of youth. A helping hand program was started in which certain houses were designated in which people could receive help; they could call the police if anybody suspicious appeared. An Officer Friendly program was inaugurated which provided youngsters with opportunity to have personal contact with a police officer. A crime check program was initiated in which a phone number was installed to receive any calls about a possible crime being committed.

The rest of the program consisted of a series of recommendations rather than anything that actually was implemented.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 164

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This program never made an impact on the community. Apparently the police departments could never prove its credibility to the black people.

Grant #165

Grantee: Michigan State University School of Police Administration  
and Public Safety

Amount: \$58,730

Dates: May 1967 to August 1968

[This was later supplemented by Grant #292: \$51,300]

Purpose: To establish a graduate degree fellowship program  
leading to a master's degree in public administration for  
selected law enforcement officers.

Summary

See report on Grant #162.

Grant #167

Grantee: City of Cincinnati, Ohio

Amount: \$123,712

Dates: March 1967 to June 1969

Purpose: To develop a computer based regional law enforcement information system.

Summary

The acronym for this is Project CLEAR, County Law Enforcement Applied Regionally. The consultant agency was the Division of Data Processing within the Department of Finance in the city of Cincinnati. Ultimately, the project would serve not only Hamilton County, which is the area surrounding Cincinnati, with a combined jurisdiction of 38 police departments, but also would serve a tri-state region of North Kentucky, Southeastern Indiana, and Southwestern Ohio.

Preparation for this project included sending out questionnaires, visiting police record centers, visiting radio communication and teletype centers, holding meetings and discussions with local law enforcement officers and with the Ohio Highway Patrol and the National Crime Information Center of the FBI.

The files that would be available for information were: wanted persons, wanted vehicles, stolen vehicles, stolen auto parts, stolen property and stolen guns. There would be a



criminal history for persons on arrest records, offense reports, traffic accidents, gun registration, aided cases and so on. It would interface with other programs as well.

The type of hardware sought was decided upon, and inquiries were made from GE, IBM, RCA, and others; but only those three replied. GE's offering was not adequate; and finally, RCA, rather than IBM, was chosen as the best solution to the requirements of this project. It was decided to get the RCA Spectra 70/45. It is a Spectra 70/45 system that is almost identical to the IBM 360/50 system, and RCA offers a seven year purchase plan on a monthly rental basis, prorating the cost of equipment over the seven year period without charging the associated interest costs. The RCA Spectra 70/45 computer was delivered in November, 1967.

The computer center occupies over 11,000 square feet with 3,000 square feet for the computer room itself. It was necessary to improve the communication network -- the teletype, the teletype system, the radio network, and so forth. They were ready to move ahead to develop a system of manpower deployment and assignment, based on a computer-based command and control system.

The design of the computer looked toward a time-sharing system and later a data-sharing system. It would allow such other functions as producing: payroll packages, accounting packages, voter registration and election tabulations, health

information system, property tax accounting, water billing, income tax, court records, and other management needs. There would also be environment information systems on water, distribution, transportation, highways, recreation, library, public utilities, as well as a land information system based on land use, buildings, planning, and a health information system based on public health data. Finally, there would be a people information system for income tax, for education, for manpower employment, for census, for voting, and even for cultural levels.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 167

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was essentially a federal subsidy for local law enforcement. It did not demonstrate anything that was not already known.

Grant # 170

Grantee: Los Angeles Technical Services Corporation together  
with the Los Angeles Police Department, Los Angeles,  
California.

Amount: \$149,625

Dates: April 1967 to May 1968

Purpose: To develop an automated police information system.

Summary

This computer technique would be 1) to develop crime pattern information to match a suspect with a given crime; 2) to make all information readily accessible, if available to the department; 3) to develop rapid inter-agency communication and information flow; and 4) to develop systems for the deployment of the patrol forces on the basis of new ideas and information.

The plan was to develop a computer based natural language process by using a language called SYNTHEX, a computer program that answer English language questions posed to a computer-stored file of English texts. This was used successfully in an experiment designed to test its capability: the teletypewriter at the Los Angeles Police Department was connected by telephone to an IBM Q-32 computer at the Systems Development Corporation (SDC), Santa Monica facility (the consulting firm).

The report was reviewed by the Board of Administration of the Data Service Bureau which reviews and approves applications for data processing equipment for all departments of Los Angeles.

#### Evaluation

The language of this report was devious; ostensibly, it seemed to be a cover-up for the failure of the system to operate properly. At each new stage there was some revision to be made, and a new goal established for the different parts of the computer system. As far as I could see, the only thing that seemed to come along properly was what was termed the automated want/warrant portion of the system, which would allow policemen to find out quickly if a person was wanted on a warrant. It did not seem to be successful in developing any material for deployment of the force or for crime pattern information. All these things were proposed for future implementation but nothing was done that seriously approached the fulfillment of these goals. This project was bogged down in unsolved problems. It was unable to solve them but made a valiant effort to disguise the failure by a detailed report that confused good intentions with actual accomplishment.

The final report was a poor example of pursuing project goals. Project funds were frittered away, and the project was

not taken seriously by the contractor. My evidence for this is gained from the final report itself which indicates an awareness of the paucity of results. It was found expedient to outline the difficulties encountered in carrying out the planned effort and staffing the project and make excuses for the lack of tangible results.

The statement (page 21 of the final report) "Although the originally planned system development effort for this past year exceeded allocated personnel resources available," (i.e. that SDC did not have the people to put on the project) is typical of the style and content of the final report. Again on page 21, "Initial Effort -- This coincides with the Grant period. . . . It was typified by slippages in the accomplishment of planned and scheduled tasks, owing to administrative and resource problems."

The chronology of Phase 1 activities given on pp. 50-56 shows how loosely this project was managed. The formal grant period started April 1, 1967. Actual work did not commence until May 15, 1967. "Starting Jan. 1, 1968 project activities were chiefly devoted to re-evaluation . . . . It was at this juncture that SDC and the Department became fully aware of the administrative, technical, and operational problems . . . ." A project audit team found on January 15, 1968 that the project

was several months behind schedule, and existing staffing and technical problems guaranteed continued schedule slippage.

One gathers from p. 55 that SDC proposed that the SDC Time-Shared Data Management System be used to provide an interim partial capability, but this suggestion was rejected as a task team found it "offered little improvement over current LAPD operations, the cost of the equipment was prohibitive when weighed against the benefits gained, and there was no guarantee that the system would be delivered on schedule." The net result was that an application for continuation of grant #170 was submitted on May 10, 1968.

The original objectives of the project, viz (a) to evaluate computer-based natural language processing in reference to LAPD operations by using SYNTHES, a computer program that answers English-language questions posed to a computer-stored file of English text, and (b) to study pattern analysis and similar computer aids, were not only not achieved but hardly started. The only successful part was the automated want/warrant subsystem which was already considerably advanced at the beginning of the grant period. To summarize, the whole year of the grant produced an application for extension of the grant and little else.

It should be noted that natural language question-

answering computer programs were far from being well developed. A number of organizations around the country (M.I.T., Stanford Research Institute, etc.) along with SDC were doing research in this area. The impression one gets is that SDC was interested in the grant money in order to subsidize its research in natural language question answering programs and considered the specific application to law enforcement as a secondary matter.

The contrast with the St. Louis' Resource Allocation Program is that in St. Louis well developed Operations Research Methodology was applied to the specific tasks of prediction of the volume of calls for service and manpower allocation. Thus the methodology was already proven.

The methodology of natural language question answering remains even at this stage in the research phase and was far from being well developed. Why natural language question answering was deemed necessary for the LAPD rather than using key words and standard information retrieval methodology was not explained. Natural language because of its many ambiguities is not well suited to computer processing. Thus more elaborate programming techniques are needed leading to more involved and complex programs.

In any event, it is interesting to note that SDC's poor performance on this grant did not prevent its being awarded



an additional \$350,000 in this area, recently. Presumably,  
the first grant was written off as a learning phase.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 170

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
No.
2. Was the project innovative?  
No.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Possibly for the future, but it has not reached this stage yet.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
No.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
No.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
Yes. For example, what investigation should be made of the dependability of computer research agencies?
7. Remarks.

This project should not have been awarded an additional \$350,000.

Grant #171

Grantee: New Haven Police Department, New Haven, Connecticut

Amount: \$45,651

Dates: April 1967 to July 1968

Purpose: To develop techniques of using the 1970 census data  
for the improvement of law enforcement.

Summary

The rationale for this project was derived from the report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. In this study the rise in crime was attributed to the areas of low income, physical deterioration, dependency, racial and ethnic concentrations, broken homes, low level of education and educational skill, high unemployment, high proportion of single males, overcrowding, high population density, etc.

It was apparent to the applicants that much of this material is contained in the census data issued every ten years. The Bureau of Census was conducting a pretest of New Haven in 1967 by mail coverage and on a new basis called "block face." Up to this point census data was developed in tracts consisting of several blocks. Currently, it was decided to use each square of four blocks so that there would be four block faces to each block number. Since the faces of the square could be different --

one residential, one industrial -- the police department thought that it would be a very sensible procedure to try to match up the census data for each block with the data on arrests and on accidents, and with the ordinarily acquired internal police data.

The report produced evidence that census data was obtained for many variables such as education, income, overcrowding, substandard housing, racial and ethnic compositions, etc. In addition, it indicated that there was an attempt made to change certain police techniques of recording so that the match between police records and the census data could be facilitated.

Court records were also included in order to obtain as complete a picture of the criminal justice process at work in each block as possible. By feeding this information into a computer it would be possible to predict crimes and allocate patrolmen and radio cars in a more efficient fashion.

The program was called lookupad and was written in cobol language for the IBM 1401 computer. Although programs and tables are laid out, there is no indication that any concrete results have yet been obtained on this project. Moreover, the question of invasion of privacy and the violation of constitutional rights is also involved.

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EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 171

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

It might have.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised? Yes. Are there pieces of information in public records that will help law enforcement predict or prevent crime? And what are the constitutional rights of citizens in these cases?

7. Remarks.

The project was innovative. It failed because the census data is too broad for the purposes the police needed it for.

Grant #172

Grantee: Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training

Amount: \$6,000

Dates: April 1967 to September 1967

Purpose: A three-day seminar in Washington, D.C. on in-service training for Correctional personnel.

### Summary

Experts from government and industry and universities spoke on:

1. An Overview of In-Service Training;
2. Training Methods;
3. Colorado Training Programs;
4. Organizational Arrangements for Training;
5. Evaluation of In-Service Training.

Finally, there was a summary and implications of the seminar.

In general, the papers were merely descriptive and very much like a chapter in any textbook on training or personnel administration.

The first speaker recommended a systems approach and developed a flow chart to represent this in which four rectangles connected by arrows were labeled: Research - Development - Implementation - Evaluation.

He used acronyms such as PERT for Program Evaluation and Review Technique and IPEP for Individualized Preparation for Employment Project. This would not be particularly helpful to any trainer.

The paper on Training Methods went down the whole list of methods such as Lecture, Books, Movies, Case Study, Role Playing, T Groups, Management Games, and many others. Perhaps these might help a trainer in selecting an appropriate method for his special purpose.

The paper on Colorado Training Programs identified the goal of training as "learning a way of coping with the establishment." This might be interpreted as learning to fight the establishment and surely will be resisted by the average conservative administration.

The talk of Evaluation was sensible and informative. The following points were made:

1. All in-service training is evaluated in terms of feasibility, appeal, and informal assessment.
2. Formal evaluation is not warranted when:
  - a. the informal assessment answers the agency's need;
  - b. people in authority have already determined the future of the training program;
  - c. the program has no clear orientation; and
  - d. there is no money or no evaluator available.
3. Evaluation is warranted in all cases where an agency really wants to know how good a job the training is doing so that it can do better, and it is willing to support the evaluation in terms of resources and administrative backing.
4. Measures of Effectiveness of Training:
  - i. opinions of trainees,
  - ii. change in trainees' knowledge,
  - iii. change in trainees' attitudes,
  - iv. predisposition to put the new learning into practice,
  - v. changes in job performance, and
  - vi. effect in the client.

#### Evaluation

Perhaps the most significant paper was the summary by Vincent O'Leary and Ronald Vander Will. They gave facts and



figures about correctional training programs. In a survey of 1100 correctional institutions and agencies:

197 institutions said they had a training program.

137 institutions said they did not have a training program.

Of probation and parole agencies, 359 were positive and 448 were negative.

Therefore of over 1100 systems, more than one-half reported no organized in-service training program at all. This is a dismal picture of the Correctional Training Situation. That is perhaps the most significant contribution of this seminar.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 172

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

A little.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes.

7. Remarks.

There was a system analyst orientation that was somewhat pretentious. The report reflected this view.

Grant #178

Grantee: University of Georgia

Amount: \$13,750

Dates: May 1967 to December 1967

Purpose: To develop a state-wide training program for  
correctional staff.

Summary

Corrections in Georgia was weathering a crisis; low salaries, long hours, heavy work loads, and poorly trained staff characterized the correction scene. Corrections administration was divided among three separate departments: corrections, parole and probation. Each department was operated through an administrative board. Until recently there were no formal training programs in corrections in Georgia. However, in the latter part of 1966 the University of Georgia through Title I of the Higher Education Act developed a series of training institutes and workshops.

There was a need to develop a comprehensive, systematic educational and training plan in corrections. A profile of the Georgia Correctional System personnel was interesting: the age of the Georgia personnel averaged 46 years with no significant trend evident in any group toward employment of younger employees; the mean salary was \$5,135; the

correctional system employees remained in service for a relatively short period of time, four and a half years; fewer than half the employees entered the service with previous experience of a similar nature; the correctional system employees had an average level of education of 11 years; there were no significant trends to predict improvement in the near future and there was little chance or hope of advancement.

Apparently, however, all three departments had given some evidence of interest in training. The University of Georgia in its study broke down the different jobs into their specific duties: custodial personnel, supervised group of inmates, individual supervision, security supervision, and general administrative duties.

For custodial personnel the following areas were mapped out as being important in a training program: 1) An introduction study of needs of individuals, which included study of deviant behavior, self-understanding knowledge of personality, variations among groups and institutional structure; 2) An evaluation of the correctional system itself including the philosophy and mission of the system, the general view of criminal justice, the employee's relation to the corrections institution and the case situation of a prisoner; 3) Communications; 4) Dynamics of human behavior; 5) Personal and cultural norms; 6)

Behavior and mental and physical health; 7) Influence of groups on behavior; 8) Change and the learning process; 9) Resources within the community and within the correctional system.

For the probation and parole officers a similar plan was offered: 1) Introduction; 2) Concepts of the correctional system; 3) Communication; 4) Dynamics of human behavior; 5) Personal and cultural norms; 6) Mental and physical health influence on behavior; 7) Influence of groups on behavior; 8) Change and the learning process; 9) Resources.

Then there had to be skill training. The supplement to this preparation would be: 1) Interviewing; 2) The referral process; 3) Recording; 4) Other areas of skills training such as caseload management, official behavior, training others, etc.

And finally, for the probation and parole officer there would have to be some additional material on narcotics addiction, alcoholism, marital problems, guidance for employment, and organization of the community.

Following are programs that may possibly be utilized in the course of instruction: the area school programs in the State Department of Education that provide vocational technical education; the division of leadership services, a research

coordinating unit; the adult education program; the Georgia Educational Development Program; the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation, State Department of Labor; the Youth Opportunity Centers; the Neighborhood Service Centers; the University System of Georgia; private colleges; and the Atlanta Federal Penitentiary.

Some of the recommendations that developed from the study were that 1) training at the orientation or introduction level should be incorporated into the training plan for correctional personnel; 2) there should be instruction in basic areas of human behavior and specific emphasis on deviant behavior; 3) training sessions should be conducted on the level of participants. They also recommended that 1) T group sessions and programmed instruction methods be used rather than the lecture method purely; 2) training programs should be developed on a regional as well as local basis; 3) circuit rider techniques should be implemented; 4) the correctional system and the State Merit System should develop a promotional structure with full opportunity for advancement; 5) there should be training and counseling techniques to cope with deviant social functioning; 6) training in the social sciences should be conducted by qualified practitioners and college faculties; 7) methods used in police science programs should be incorporated into

the correctional training program; 8) at least three training officers should be permanently employed by the Department of Corrections; 9) an intern and recruitment program should be developed in the university system with placement in the three correctional agencies; 10) there should be a degree program in corrections; 11) a committee should be established to examine the application of current programs and new programs to the correctional field; 12) there should be modern instructional methods such as slides, sounds projection, teaching machines, T group, role playing, and other new developments in training.

Joint training in the three departments is immediately feasible and practical; therefore, departments should offer scholarships and provide leave for personnel to participate in college programs, and there should also be specialized short courses or institutes for various categories of personnel such as wardens, administrators, and training personnel.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 178

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Partially.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

After it starts operation.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The proposal for a correctional degree program and the close involvement of correction and the university were two rather innovative proposals.



Grant #180

Grantee: Salt Lake City Police Department, Salt Lake City, Utah

Amount: \$28,913

Dates: June 1967 to September 1968

Purpose: A comprehensive crime-prevention program and rapport between police and community.

Summary

The Prevention Unit concentrated on eight objectives during its 16 months in action:

- 1) In-service training of Youth Bureau Officers and other interested police;
- 2) Counseling - for family as a unit; parents; children; combinations;
- 3) Establishment of walk-in clinic centers to handle crises;
- 4) Elementary school involvement - teachers, principal, school social worker - to identify pre-delinquents and counseling; also efforts to curb exhibitionism problems;
- 5) Environmental troubles - effort to get entire community involved in crime and delinquency prevention - involved community groups in action projects - older teens, younger teens, parents, church and businessmen were most successful;
- 6) Consultant to the community - written material, conferences, speaking engagements;
- 7) Information gathering trips - concern with youth and community relations divisions - established communication between police departments and juvenile divisions - crime prevention programs;
- 8) Advisory Council - minority groups, church and other agencies - to guide, advise, counsel, to unite all agencies in

their effort to avoid overlap, to open channels, to reach mutual solutions;

8b) Businessmen Executive Council - to involve businesses and industries - establish film library, to offer funds for police officer training in special courses, job assistance for disadvantaged.

Verbal and secondary feedback revealed that officers were losing interest in the evening classes. There was a need for new and stimulating curriculum.

Counseling was effective in the majority of cases. Problems were solved. Short term counseling of first offenders and pre-delinquent youth helped without necessity of arrest and referrals to juvenile court. Only 10.3% of pre-delinquent and first offenders counseled became repeaters or failures. Counseling was beneficial. Walk-in services provided more comprehensive police protection and assistance. Referrals from school of children to Prevention Unit indicated that relationships had improved between the school and the Prevention Unit. More effort in schools was exerted to identify pre-delinquent children. Children and parents should show improvement. The Prevention Unit was able to reach children and refer them for medical treatment. Teachers were encouraged to notice behavioral problems. School was alerted to dangers and prevention of falling prey to molestation. Police image improved.

The groups under a Coordinating Council were effective in setting up projects. The mutual exchange of services and suggestions between police and community was a good thing. Communications between departments enhanced understanding and insights. Police

benefitted from programs and procedures of other departments. This enhanced communications with strategic community organizations and utilized their resources.

In June 1968, the Unit was expanded and made into separate divisions under the Chief of Police called Crime Prevention and Community Relations Division. Counseling of juveniles was handled by the Youth Bureau; although adults were still handled by the new division, mostly at strategically located Crime Prevention Centers. One of their main functions was counseling and referring people with problems. Additional clinic facilities (walk-in) were formed.

Additional sub-goals were:

- 1) Downtown Preventive Foot Patrol,
- 2) Crime Prevention Centers,
- 3) Division Training,
- 4) Athletic Leagues.

The Project saw crime as a community problem whose elimination must involve efforts of the entire community. The establishment of an entire police division to carry out and expand initial efforts was a favorable sign. However, city officials did not see the need for continued services of civilian personnel paid by federal funds.

As of September 30 they were unemployed -- a "drastic blow" to the potential of the prevention units since 2 major goals of the new division, Crime Prevention Centers and Division Training, were in the initial stages of development.

The Chief of Police retained a member of the Unit as a Research and Planning Specialist to the police department in order to obtain additional city, state, and federal support to provide

a more comprehensive city-wide plan for crime prevention and control; to coordinate efforts of the police department with local agencies and community; and to improve crime prevention and law enforcement in the state.

Evaluation

The employment of civilian personnel in positions of some authority was innovative but the city sabotaged the program by ending the payments.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 180

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not much.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes, into the political problem of relations among police departments, cities, and the federal government.

7. Remarks.

If they actually reduced recidivism of first offenders to 10.3%, they accomplished a miracle. This statistic makes me suspect their report.

Grant # 181

Grantee: Metropolitan State College, Denver, Colorado

Amount: \$9,923

Dates: May 1967 to October 1967

[This was supplemented later by Grant #278: \$25,000  
from November 1967 to November 1968 for the first year  
of operation]

Purpose: To develop a two- and four-year degree program.

Summary

The Metropolitan State College received inquiries from local law enforcement leaders to determine if and when a collegiate program in law enforcement might be available in the new college. Shortly after that Denver was declared one of the model cities. The College contacted other police science programs in various states for guidelines, curriculum, and information. It inquired of local law enforcement specialists and they gathered information from the Peace Officers Association for Training. In addition, an advisory committee was set up of local law enforcement people to counsel the college in its attempts to organize the program. Carleton Reed was hired as the project director.

An interesting statement in the report pointed out that the advisory committee emphasized the belief that a college based degree program in police science or law enforcement should successfully merge and co-mingle the practical and applied aspects of law enforcement work with the theoretical concepts of law, criminology, psychology and other social sciences. It had been the goal of their program to carry out this philosophy.

When they had problems they called in as a consultant Dr. Joseph

Lohman, Dean of the School of Criminology of the University of California. Lohman was impressed with the course and said that it represented the liberal arts section of the college better than most police science courses.

Some additional police science courses have been replaced by others which the report labels in-depth concept courses, such as: criminal justice under social structure, the criminal self, criminal careers and law enforcement, criminal gangs and organized crime and the political process.

There had been great difficulty in recruiting; salaries were low; transportation was difficult. Besides the director, Professor Reed, there were part-time teachers from the Denver Police Department teaching the other courses. All the part-time teachers were either college graduates, or possessed a combination of education plus experience to constitute equivalency for the baccalaureate degree.

Since the Metropolitan State College did not have permanent quarters it had to rent facilities and conducted some courses at the Denver Police academy. The two year program for an associate in applied science in police science took 93 quarter hours in which there was a fair sprinkling of social science, humanities, mathematics, English and health education. The bachelor of science in law enforcement and police science went to 182 to 184 quarter hours of credit in the four year course and also seemed to be fairly general in scope, especially for the first two years. There were 114 students in the program including 12 females.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 181 and #278

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Comparatively speaking, yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This program at least differs from the IACP model. Again, it would be valuable to follow the careers of policemen graduating from both this and the IACP programs to determine whether either one makes a substantial difference.



Grant #183

Grantee: College of the Virgin Islands, St. Thomas, V.I.

Amount: \$11,165

Dates: May 1967 to October 1967

Purpose: To form a Police Science and Administration Program at the College of the Virgin Islands, aimed primarily at the Law Enforcement Personnel of the Department of Public Safety.

#### Summary

Until recently, high school graduation was not required for the primarily native personnel of the police force. Because of this lack, special basic skill courses were offered to help about forty persons to complete high school requirements. It was designed not only to provide a base for future education, but also to prepare students with positive interaction with various citizens. The curriculum aimed to be a well-rounded exposure for the student whether he went for an associate degree or for a B.A.

The program was prepared to accept all qualified high school graduates who wanted to make law enforcement their careers. A plan was adopted for a Police Cadet Program for those who would later become full-time students in the Police Science and Administration Program.

To assist those interested in a career in law enforcement an up-to-date library was established, community and media support were enlisted, and a workbook of criminal statutes was made available to students for study and permanent reference.

College was a new concept in the Virgin Islands. The University of Puerto Rico, which was 40 water miles away, was

the nearest institution of higher learning.

Initial goals of the Associate Arts Degree Program were:

1.) Develop Appropriate Curriculum.

Other University currciulums were used as a guide. It was flexible and gave considerations to general education requirements so that students could transfer to four-year colleges if desired. Technical instruction was also given.

2.) Survey of Possible In-Service Students.

The Department of Public Safety conducted a survey which pointed to an important question: "Could a suitable enrollment be maintained for a reasonable period of time?" Of the 105 officers only 54% had high school diplomas. The plan aimed at bringing the 46% up to high school equivalency through the Department of Education's Adult Education Program.

3.) Rapport Established with Local Department and Community.

The Commissioner suggested the possibility of released time for 20 officers per year. Local officials agreed that recruits and others be urged to enroll in Police Science and Administrative courses at the college, and those who were doing work for the associate degree would receive preference for promotions. Recruits would have to have completed their high school work and indicate their willingness to continue their education. A statement about the program was issued and distributed.

An advisory Council for Police Science and Administration was appointed:

- 1) The former Commissioner of Public Safety (a former FBI agent)
- 2) The present Commissioner of Public Safety
- 3) Two highly respected lawyers (one a woman)
- 4) The present ranking agent for the FBI of the islands

A committee was set up from the college staff to select a director. About 120 Police Science Schools and Police Organizations were told of the opening. Experience, practical experience, possession of a Master's Degree, and flexibility to adjust to the unusual situation in the Virgin Islands were considered in his selection. He taught "Introduction to Law Enforcement" 12 hours a week at both islands (St. Croix and St. Thomas) two days a week. During the developmental phase the director recruited part-time instructors, organized a curriculum, wrote course descriptions and outlines, chose books and bibliographies, and built libraries. He also popularized the program through the press and public appearances.

About 118 in-service students enrolled in "Introduction to Law Enforcement." The second quarter, 64 students registered, and for the third, 71 students registered.

When the actual school year began, a group of part-time instructors assisted the director in a variety of courses.

In the summer a 30-hour teacher training course was given in St. Thomas and St. Croix. Twenty-five Department of Public Safety personnel passed the requirements. After the first year, the college changed from the quarter system to the semester system and 134 students entered.

A Police Science Instructor's Handbook was prepared. A catalogue of requirements for the program and course descriptions was distributed. A survey of 196 universities and colleges which offered Police Science Degree was completed, dealing with the granting of credit for work done at non-accredited institutes. A Criminal Law Handbook was published, adapted from the director's syllabus and manuscript designed for his use in Pasadena City

College; written in collaboration with another professor.

Goal Accomplishments:

Those students without high school graduation and those who failed the English and math skills test necessary for admission to the program had to enroll in the skills courses. A special tutorial service was also available to those who had difficulty in writing.. Upon completion of these skills courses the student received no credits, but was allowed to go on to a more advanced course offered for credit. Having passed a high school equivalency exam a student could have all credits for other than skill subjects placed on his academic record.

Of the 58 department personnel who needed high school diplomas only 10 registered for skills courses. Others transferred to take only Police Science courses. The familiar reasons for not taking skills courses were:

- 1) conflicting assignments,
- 2) conflicting schedules with Police Science subjects, and
- 3) fear of classroom competition.

The goal of enabling students to complete high school equivalency requirements through pre-college courses was not as successful as hoped. Scheduling was difficult because of the necessity to accommodate both full and part-time law enforcement personnel.

It was foreseen that many in-service students, especially those without high school education, would not be interested in college work toward the Degree. To keep this group motivated, a certificate in law enforcement was initiated. For this

program it was necessary to choose and plan courses relevant to the needs of the islands as well as being academically relevant. A student would receive a certificate after he completed about one-half the credits for a degree.

The nucleus of a library was established in St. Croix and St. Thomas.

#### Organization

The director and secretary comprised the project task force with the director of continuing education acting in a close and supporting role. The chairman of the division of the social sciences had limited responsibility in curriculum planning although he supported the project as drawn up.

#### Difficulties

Because of the late date of the grant acceptance, there was not enough time for the director to orient himself to the community's customs, traditions and needs before he began teaching.

And the geography of the Virgin Islands is unique -- there is one unit of government responsible for law enforcement in areas separated by great bodies of water. In the attempt to take courses to the student, there were problems -- lack of personnel and costs involved in travel expenses for the instructors.

Recruiting full or part-time instructors was a tremendous problem. The Virgin Islands had low salaries and a high cost of living. Only a few of the qualified teachers had time for extracurricular activities.

Another problem was the shift changes for in-service students. Police administrators did not realize that shift schedules had to

allow in-service personnel to take advantage of available education.

#### Successes

The prime target was the personnel of the Department of Public Safety -- who responded well to it, from the Governor's office down through the ranks. Private and public information media cooperated.

When the two-year degree program was initiated, 134 students attended the 221 class offerings -- 109 were in-service and the other 25 were pre-service.

Law enforcement personnel were no exception to the general rule that those who could afford it went to the mainland for their education. In addition, high ranking department personnel often subscribed to "paperback" advertised correspondence schools and diploma mills setting a trend their subordinates would follow. In-service personnel could not see the sense of pre-entry requirements of other liberal arts and science classes. Many prospective students felt that these programs would not last.

#### Recommendations

The College of the Virgin Islands has recently accepted an important leadership role in police education and training for the Caribbean area. The Police Science and Administration Program provides a firm foundation for the improvement of police services, and, as well, a solid base on which to build programs to provide better social control in an era of change and dynamic progress.

Ordered liberty is essential for effective social, political, and economic progress, and the police form the primary institution

dedicated to preserving the security of both community and individual citizen.

The closeness of Cuba to the areas served by the College of the Virgin Islands poses very real threats of communist infiltration and contraband smuggling. The Caribbean police must be ever alert, and a quality police service forms an essential first line of defense.

The nature of modern society requires much more than a technical approach to police work. Police work is people work -- and the greater the understanding of human behavior by the police, the better the service. Even though science and technology contribute much to police work, and will continue to do so, there is an overriding need to make the behavioral sciences operational.

The college is the primary institution to provide resources in the behavioral sciences and in applied technology. Mobilization of these resources through the Police Science and Administration Program is a practical method of updating the effectiveness of criminal justice operations. The college should:

1. Start planning immediately for the development of a Baccalaureate Degree in Criminal Justice or Criminology.
2. As the program grows and expands consideration should be given to making it a department and changing the title to "Department of Criminal Justice", or Department of Criminology.
3. The Associate of Arts Degree then should be limited to the tool and technique courses in law enforcement as soon as the Baccalaureate Degree is introduced.
4. Upper division courses should include the present course in Administration and organization, now lower division, and should also involve courses in Police Supervision, Police-Community relations, etc.

5. An Internship Program should be initiated for all Criminal Justice Services.

6. A broadly based academic curriculum similar in nature to the requirements for the Associate of Arts Degree should be developed for the Baccalaureate Degree. Emphasis should be on the social sciences and government.

7. Placement of the Department should be given serious attention, and, at all costs, it should remain within the social science area. The program should be recognized as behavioral in nature and as an integral part of the broad educational program of the college.

8. The program should never be conceived as a narrow, limited, specialized, occupational-technical-vocational-deadend area. Such courses as Introduction to Law Enforcement, Police Community Relations, Criminal Law, Seminar in Police Problems, may well become excellent service courses for other disciplines, i.e., journalism, education, sociology, social welfare, psychology, political science, and public administration.

9. As the program is expanded to include the Baccalaureate Degree, the Criminal Justice or Criminology faculty will grow. At least one member of the faculty should be qualified to teach the "tool and technique" courses in lower division and coordinate training of working police.

10. In order to upgrade training, a closer coordination with the Police Academy would be advantageous to both the college and the Department of Public Safety. The resources of the college become directly available to the police service in a practical and tangible manner. Faculty members from the behavioral, physical and biological sciences may be used for special lectures,



and the administrative "know-how" of the college can be beneficial in the areas of curriculum planning, class scheduling, and program evaluation. It must be remembered at all times, that the Police Academy provides a training program. Its purpose is to train police officers, thus it is differentiated from the academic program which purpose is to educate Criminal Justice professionals.

11. Revise the present Advisory Council, it is presently top heavy with local government department heads - and college faculty. Consideration should be given to bringing in lay members of the community and a representative of the clergy.

12. Serious consideration should be given to providing the Director with two full-time assistants, one for St. Thomas, and one for St. Croix. This would give the program needed impetus at this stage.

"The office of Law Enforcement Assistance, United States Department of Justice, has made a substantial contribution to the improvement of the Caribbean Criminal Justice system by underwriting the installation of this program and can well expand its support with full expectations for fruitful results. Due to the strategic location, geographically, this program can be developed into a primary institution for the upgrading of Criminal Justice Agencies, throughout the Caribbean."\*

\* Dr. A.C. Germann, Professor of Criminology, California State College, Long Beach, California.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 183

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes, in the Virgin Islands.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was an important step forward for the Virgin Islands Police Force. They should upgrade the educational level. They don't have a police-community relations problem since most of the police force is native.

Grant #186

Grantee: Oak Park Police Department

Amount: \$20,052

Dates: June 1967 to May 1968

Purpose: To establish a police-community relations team of policemen in many Chicago suburbs and staff service by the National Conference of Christians and Jews.

Summary

Twenty-seven chiefs of police were involved in the project. The community began to create police-community relations committees. Citizens were contacted; workshops were scheduled; houses were designated in the suburbs where meetings were held between citizens and policemen in order to create a more friendly police image.

Area meetings took place once a month so that police and citizens could discuss problems of mutual interest. A youth center was established to help youth. A dialogue was started between the people and the police.

Although the title offered the promise of a suburban police-community relations program, it did not emerge as particularly innovative or distinguishable from urban programs.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 186

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was an unorganized program by police in the suburban areas of Chicago. It did not accomplish its aims.

Grant #187

Grantee: Michigan Association of Chiefs of Police and the  
Michigan Civil Rights Commission, Detroit, Michigan

Amount: \$14,999

Dates: June 1967 to November 1967

Purpose: A state-wide demonstration to recruit, counsel, and  
place 1,000 officers on Michigan police forces, preferably  
500 minority group members and 500 white police officers.

Summary

A Board of Directors (staff and administrators) was established for the project. A great deal of advertising, bus posters, news articles, prominent TV actors Bill Cosby and Robert Culp (who spoke at certain recruitment drives), TV spots, and thousands of pamphlets were utilized to publicize their efforts.

Local police recruitment counselors were employed, and a project referral office was established to accept inquiries, applications, and department referrals and to follow up with assistance from the Michigan Employment Security Commission. The applications of those who met the minimum requirements were sent to the state police who mailed a letter to the applicant urging him to take the written test. Of 371 applications received, almost 89% of them were ultimately rejected. Ninety-three, because they didn't respond when contacted by the police department or the recruitment project; sixty-nine who had previously applied, had either failed or been disqualified; and the others for various other reasons.

At the halfway mark, the project had a severe setback because of the civil disorders of July 1967. The project Board

felt that the original goal of 1,000 new officers was unrealistic for a project such as this with limited funds and staff.

Although the project did not accomplish its goals it was felt that some chiefs had become more sensitive to the need for minority group policemen. In turn, it helped the minority group population understand that it was wanted by some departments. The project as a whole stimulated police recruitment in the state to some degree. For example, most police departments had a larger number of inquiries during the life of the project than they usually would. In 1967, Detroit 3,996 applicants, 47% were Negroes. This was the largest total they ever had. A survey of 25 departments in January 1968 revealed that in 1968, 90 Negroes and 4 Latin American officers were hired which was also a record.

It was noted that the project's efforts were confined to recruitment. There was no attempt made to examine or evaluate police standards and police selection procedures. It was a judgment of the Board that police community relations programs were needed in many Michigan cities before any recruitment effort could be effective.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 187

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

It was a public relations campaign that failed. There was nothing that it did for the improvement of the police. It should not take credit for the larger proportion of Negro applicants to the Detroit police force. Other causes are responsible for this rush on applications.

Grant #188

Grantee: Riverside County Sheriff's Department, Riverside,  
California

Amount: \$12,936

Dates: June 1967 to January 1968

Purpose: To develop a police-community relations program for  
all 14 law enforcement agencies in the county.

Summary

This grant included five phases:

1. To train the sheriffs and chiefs of police and their assistants in police community relations and to standardize policy among them.
2. To train law enforcement personnel for three days consisting of 21 hours of course work in community relations.
3. An evaluation by the sheriff and chiefs of police of the needs and accomplishments of (1) and (2) above.
4. Establishing police community relations council and citizens advisory committee.
5. A county-wide attitude survey.

The teaching methods included lectures, small group discussion, video tapes, role playing, and movies.

There was some gross understatement in the narrative explanation accompanying slides of the Watts Riots. For example, the narrator says of the scene of a fire during the Watts Riots: "You have heard the expression, 'Nothing is permanent except change.' These are some of the changes. You are more than a witness. You are directing the change and you are directed by the change."

Although the comment seemed rather insipid, there was the



problem of "losing" a police audience if you developed the implications of controversial material that placed them in a bad light.

This was a fair course, much better than no training at all. However, the question remains; "How much change is induced by these short workshops?"

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EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 188

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Just how to change police attitudes toward black people.

7. Remarks.

The report of this project made some unwarranted conclusions about its success.

Grant #189

Grantee: University of Guam

Amount: \$13,950

Dates: September 1967 to September 1968

- Purpose:
- 1) To create a continuing program, granting an Associate in Arts degree in Police Science and Law Enforcement;
  - 2) To increase prestige, efficiency, and technical knowledge of police personnel;
  - 3) To provide an opportunity for continued in-service education and training to civilian and military personnel who desire to advance;
  - 4) To develop empirical methods of training and teaching in a situation of conflicting cultures which might serve as a model;
  - 5) To publicize the availability of the program throughout the Western Pacific to attract various ethnic and cultural group students to the program and to create interest in law enforcement.

#### Summary

An advisor, John Kenney, an authority in the field and a professor of Criminology, arrived September 3, 1967. He was valuable not only for his suggestions, but also from a public relations standpoint --newspaper coverage, frequent press interviews and addresses.

An Associate in Arts degree in Police Science was offered upon completion of 60 units of study with an average of C or

better. Eighteen of the required units had to be in specific law enforcement subjects. To those who completed these latter courses with an average of C or better, a certificate in Law Enforcement was awarded. The "certificate program" appealed to many students who were not college material or who did not wish to complete the requirements for a college degree, and also encouraged part-time students to improve their technical knowledge through in-service training.

#### The Police Academy

Part of the program was a ten-week police academy course conducted by the University in cooperation with the Department of Public Safety for the training of recruits to the Department. Three of these academies were held for newly recruited firemen, guards, conservation officers, etc., as well as police officers.

The Director of the University program also served as co-director of the Police Academy along with the training officer of the Department. The program met the standards set by the California Commission of Peace Officer Training and Standards and also those of the New York Municipal Police League.

#### Student Projection

During the period of the report, 63 police officers attended classes offered under the program with fifteen candidates for a degree. A number of the in-service police students claimed

that they wanted to see if they could do well in taking all police courses, and after receiving a certificate would decide if they would formally apply to the University for a degree.

Of the 50 trained recruits scheduled to graduate from the police academies by the fall of 1968, it was estimated that about one half would begin the police program in the University. All courses at the University were paid for by the Department of Public Safety as part of its in-service training program and were scheduled in the evening at the University and at the Air Base.

#### Staff

The program staff consisted only of the director, who coordinated the program, taught all classes at the University, two hours a day teaching at the police academy, and five hours a week devoted to academy administration and training, in addition to acting as Special Advisor to the Governor's Commission. He had all these responsibilities mainly because the University could not find a qualified assistant. However, an assistant and administrative assistant were hired to assist the Director for the coming year.

#### Publicity and Public Relations

Handled by the Director, a program brochure was compiled

and distributed to all high school counselors. The Director went to "career days" at high schools, talked to clubs, and appeared on TV and panel discussion.

#### Cooperation With Local Agencies

Governmental, business, and civic groups, all gave excellent support. In fact, many of the part-time instructors at the police academies were from governmental agencies and served without compensation. Various guest lecturers also appeared at courses voluntarily. One women's civic organization offered a scholarship to any high school graduate who needed financial assistance to participate in the program. (Moreover, all Trust Territory students were already on scholarships and the first two years of college were free to all Guamians; therefore, no one had qualified yet.)

#### Future Potential of Student Enrollment

A Department of Defense ruling that men could start their enlistment period if they become policemen had stimulated police interest among military personnel. Also, the Guam Legislature increased the pay scale of all Department of Public Safety members. This improved recruiting and also attracted a number of ex-servicemen as well as high school students interested in police careers. (However, they could not enroll until they were 21 years old.)



An estimation suggested that the student enrollment in the second year of the program would double the first, and that more students were expected from the Trust Territory.

#### Program Problems

Although English was the official language and was used in the class, students reverted to Chamurro or their native dialect when they returned home. The University gave required English courses and held clinics for those who could not pass the English entrance exam. The officers working on a degree usually had little trouble with English, but the majority of the others failed an English exam given as part of the program. It was predicted that by recruiting better students and encouraging others to take basic English, the problem would gradually be solved.

Mainland instructors found it difficult to make the transition to teaching students to whom English and American culture were not "homeground." It was necessary to make the students believe that questions were of positive value and not a sign of stupidity.

Constant repetition of the basics, frequent oral quizzes, and training aids were helpful. Utilizing visual training aids were invaluable, enabling the student from another culture to visualize things alien to him.

There was a need for a simple basic text on law enforcement for those to whom English was a second language or whose education was not very high. Lectures had to explain the text, and assigned reading was rarely done. Hopefully, a new text full of pictures would help.

According to the report, the first year was successful because of the following accomplishments:

1. More prestige and efficiency of the police function was reflected by the local legislature's provision of a pay raise;
2. The main goal--a degree program at the University of Guam-- had been carried out;
3. Teaching methods and use of training aids had improved;
4. The Department of Public Safety established a policy which would give course work taken at the University favorable consideration in promotions.

Although the attempt to attract high school graduates and other non-police personnel to the program in the first year had been disappointing, better results were expected in the future. It took some time for many of the Guamians to realize the cultural importance and desirability of a police career.

For the second year plans had been formulated for the addition of Upper Level courses in order to offer a Bachelors in Police Science within two years.

CONTINUED

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The majority of funds for the University of Guam were from Guam Federal support. Since Guam's economy was military-supported, there was no large industrial complex to provide a tax base for education.

Not only did the rising crime statistics emphasize the need for upgrading law enforcement in Guam, but it also showed the Guamians that they were not forgotten by the United States.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 189

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Probably not.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Considering the distance from our mainland and the lack of resources on the island of Guam, this was a good project.

Grant #190

Grantee: Alexandria, Virginia Police Department

Amount: \$55,960

Dates: April 1967 to March 1968

Purpose: Executive Development Training for 120 command and middle management police officers from the Washington and Baltimore area.

### Summary

American University and the Alexandria Police Department sponsored the program at the Blue Ridge Club, Harper's Ferry, West Virginia. It consisted of two one-week sessions, each separated by one month in which the student went back to his job and tried to apply the lessons he learned.

The objective of the program was to impart sound management principles, develop familiarity with management literature, provide opportunity for interchange of ideas with colleagues, and stimulate improvement and innovation.

The program was originally tailored for the U.S. Treasury Department, but it was modified slightly to adjust to the law enforcement group.

The subjects of the seminar were: The Executive Task; Roles of the Manager; Executive Decision Making; System Approach; and Automation and Technology. The techniques of teaching were lectures by professors from American University, group discussions, book reports, and case histories. At the end of the second session a certificate of attendance was awarded.

### Evaluation

There is no doubt that there is a need for training and development of middle and top administration in all the agencies of criminal justice. It seems, however, that it is too much to expect

that serious improvement will occur merely as a result of short seminars offering a few managerial and public administration courses. Something more is needed.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 190

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

One wonders whether a drop in the ocean will make much difference.



Grant # 191

Grantee: Connecticut Municipal Police Training Council

Amount: \$29,834

Dates: May 1967 to April 1969

Purpose: To conduct twelve seminars of six weeks each on criminal law for 600 police officers of the State of Connecticut. Emphasis was to be given to Connecticut and Federal Court decisions.

Summary

The Council contracted with Arnold Markle, the Chief Prosecuting Attorney for New Haven County and Leander Gray, the assistant Chief Prosecuting Attorney. The classes were conducted one night per week for three hours each at Yale Law School. If an officer missed two or more classes he failed to graduate. Upon graduation the officer received a diploma. One retraining seminar was held midway through the grant.

Every major and most small police departments were represented in the student body, a total of 83 departments and 614 men.

The course content was a thorough review of criminal law and its application to police work. For example:

Bill of Rights  
Probable Cause  
How to testify in court  
How to draw up affidavits  
Obtaining evidence  
Search and seizure  
Obtaining consent  
Burden of proof  
Entrapment  
Criminal Discovery

Chain of custody  
Electronic equipment--eavesdropping  
Confessions  
Interrogation  
Supreme Court Cases:  
Escobedo, Miranda, Gault, etc.  
Researching a case  
How to read memoranda of law  
Other subjects when raised for discussion

The project director (Markle) wrote 69 memoranda of law covering new decisions and controversial areas of law and mailed them to graduates. In addition, he prepared training aids, guides to action and lists of do's and don'ts.

According to the evaluation from questionnaires sent to the students, the response was enthusiastic.

This was an excellent program; one of the few where there was real cooperation between two different agencies of criminal justice, police and representatives of the courts. The Chief Prosecuting Attorney's position and prestige added an element of charisma and credibility so that his police students responded to the course material much more sympathetically. The fact that the classes were held in Yale Law School with its hallowed tradition was another guarantee of success. There were additional benefits in the lines of communication in the classroom so that problems that could never be brought up in court could be discussed here.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 191

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Perhaps.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Well done. It illustrates the great potential for police-prosecutor-court rapprochement through OLEA grant money.

Grant #194

Grantee: Oregon State Board of Control and the Oregon State  
System of Higher Education

Amount: \$14,980

Dates: June 1967 to May 1968

Purpose: To develop a state-wide training program in  
corrections.

Summary

In 1965 the Oregon legislature established a Corrections division. There were two adult correctional institutions, the Oregon State Penitentiary and the Oregon State Correctional Institution. The Oregon Probation and Parole Program was under the direct administration of the Governor's Office functioning within the structure of a Board of Parole and Probation.

The application for the grant expressed an intention to move forward toward a treatment emphasis in corrections rather than a punishment emphasis. In developing the training program within Oregon the primary goals were: 1. To produce a maximum change in staff attitudes, skills, and understanding so as to develop more effective corrections. 2. To build upon present programs and strength to reinforce the continuity of operations. 3. To develop participation of the staff in training process at all stages to increase their commitment to training. 4. To

be primarily relevant to the particular training needs of the Oregon Correctional Study. One further important goal of the research and planning phase was to determine the priority of training needs.

The report stated that too often training of any sort is considered useful and this may, in fact, act as a screen in determining what the real training needs are. Such training may be worse than no training at all. To establish base line information the project coordinator collected data from the three main correctional settings. The four basic sources of information were existing training programs descriptions, job specifications and descriptions, personnel background schedules, and questionnaires of job problems, and training suggestions.

The questionnaires were completed at the institutions by the staff. The major problems as determined by correctional managers, specialists, case managers, group supervisors, technical, and service personnel were: 1. insufficient staff training, inadequate employment of inmates, poor interdepartmental coordination, inadequate facilities and equipment, staff shortage, inefficient informational systems, inmate security, lack of rehabilitative emphasis, lack of knowledge of inmate behavior, poor supervisor-line communications and unsatisfactory working conditions.

In addition, consultants were called in from the Oregon College of Education and Oregon State University from various correctional agencies, and professors and experts from outside the state as well.

This resource committee was used for advice, and the training system was established with the following goals: 1. to develop staff knowledge, skills attitudes and behavior in order that the correctional program objectives could be met. As part of this program the report recommended the establishment of an institute in management training at which they would study the American Correctional Association's principles, discuss the National Council on Crime and Delinquency Study, study the OLEA operational proposals, and hold a joint institute of correctional divisions, parole, and probation. 2. to develop training coordinators and help them to become professional trainers, to contribute to their knowledge of learning theory, curriculum development, methods of presentation, training resources, evaluative procedures, and supervisor training. 3. to prepare the supervisory staff to develop training skills so that they would train their subordinates and others where appropriate. 4. to phase the operational staff into the master training program. Finally they planned to develop training committees to study and identify clusters of needs common to all the categories of correctional people.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 194

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Not directly.

7. Remarks.

Well done.

Grant #195

Grantee: Chicago Police Department

Amount: \$150,477

Dates: July 1967 to June 1969

Purpose: To develop a research and systems analysis unit and to test its ability to solve problems of field operations with a computer. This was a proposal, not a final report.

#### Summary

This was loosely called an operations research and systems analysis project with the general purpose of improving operations, but especially to develop improved strategies of personnel allocation. A subordinate goal of the project was to develop an in-house research and development capability within the department as a product of the program. The grantee hoped to develop a model which would be useful for other police agencies as well. The group in charge would be a task force within the Chicago Police Department assisted by technical experts and consultants from outside the department.

Some of the resources which they would use were the following reports: 1) A Patrol-District Allocations which would enable administrators to make gross estimates of work loads in specific areas for the distribution of the patrol force.



2) Patrol Division and Detective Division operations reports which would provide data to the division supervisors and commanders of what was being accomplished in the street at all levels. 3) A thirteen-period year for comparable data. This was a development in which the Chicago Police Department divided a police year into thirteen periods of exactly four weeks each, allowing a more scientific and valid comparison of periods from year to year without trying to make adjustments for weekends and holidays. 4) The Computer Application. The Chicago Police Force used an IBM 14N system with five magnetic tape drives, direct access disk storage for 56 million characters, and twelve teller processing terminals. This operation was established in 1962. There were plans to install a third generation computer with the capability of the IBM 360/40 or the RCA 70/45-G.

The following systems of statistical reports were available for the Chicago study: 1. crime statistics; 2. arrest and juvenile arrest data; 3. work load reports; 4. operations reports; 5. traffic accident reports and traffic citations; 6. automotive cost accounting; 7. finance reports, payroll and personnel files; 8. hot desk which gave access to computer files containing data on wanted persons and stolen vehicles.

The Chicago Police Department maintained a close relation

with a well known research facility, the Illinois Institute of Technology Research Institute which did scientific surveys, operations research, systems analysis work. It had assisted the Department previously.

The general goal, of course, would be the allocation of personnel and the effectiveness of the allocation as well as the cost benefit derived from this allocation. But there were some subsidiary types of research that were being proposed as a possible outgrowth of this program: 1. Examination of the value of different kinds of information counterterated by the Department. 2. The problem of handling the maximum number of telephone requests and a study of the queuing of citizen complaint phone calls. 3. A possible research effort would be made into the feasibility of sampling techniques in operations which might yield certain probabilities for successful operations under different conditions. 4. Determination of value of the MO file in criminal investigation. It might be possible to improve the MO through computer analysis of the cases that came to the attention of the department as well as reports based on those cases. 5. An attempt to establish criteria for measuring effectiveness beyond the accepted ones such as crime and clearance rates, accidents rates, response time to calls, arrest rates and community attitudes. 6.

Implementation of the techniques that would best fulfill the goals of deriving the most effective service from the distribution of the available personnel. In other words, various techniques of patrol and deployment of personnel would be tried, and their effectiveness would be studied. 7. The question of debriefing experienced policemen or interviewing experienced policemen to draw out further factors beyond those which appear in his reports. 8. Determination of the optimum ratio of vehicles and officers for various problem areas of the precinct.

#### Remarks

It is interesting to note that in the reprint of a recent paper\* from the St. Louis Police Department appears a reference to a report\*\* by the Operations Research Task Force. This may very well be a report on the work performed under Grant #195. According to the paper by Frese and Heller, part of this report was concerned with auto theft: "The Operations Research Task Force of the Chicago Police Department conducted a study of burglary and auto theft in Chicago's Twentieth District. They

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\* R. Frese and N. B. Heller, "Measuring Auto Theft and the Effectiveness of Auto Theft Control Programs," paper presented at the 38th National Meeting of O.R.S.A., Detroit, October 28-30, 1970.

\*\* Operations Research Task Force, Chicago P.D., Allocation of Resources in the Chicago Police Department, November 1969

assembled and analyzed data on the growth and seasonal cycles of auto theft, and estimated that 25 percent of the autos stolen were stolen with the key left in the ignition."

Two mathematical models for preventive patrol allocation are discussed in the same report, one is based on Koopman's search theory, the other is based on the assumption that the crime rate is inversely proportional to the number of patrolmen in the district. Neither of these models have been validated experimentally.

Clearly Grant #195 has given the Chicago Police Department a chance to think about the problems it should try to understand better, and to that extent the grant has accomplished part of its purpose. It might be helpful for Chicago to borrow from the experiences of the St. Louis police department. This project is attempting to accomplish too many things and to use too many sources of data; however, if it narrowed its focus its chances of success would be increased.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #195

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Not within the OLEA grant period.
2. Was the project innovative?  
Yes, to the extent that it proposed to develop an in-house team of computer experts.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Only for law enforcement.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
It may when it starts to work.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
No.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
Yes. Can police officers become computer experts?
7. Remarks.  
This project was not up to the level of the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department computer project.

Grant #196

Grantee : New Jersey Department of Institutes and Agencies

Amount: \$15,000

Dates: July 1967 to June 1968

Purpose: To develop a correctional training program in collaboration with Rutgers University founded on rehabilitative attitudes and the training of personnel as change agents within the correctional system.

Summary

The final report consisted mainly of a curriculum guide prefaced by a two-page summary (attached). The curriculum reflected the standard ideas in correction and the behavioral sciences. It was an excellent set of correctional lesson plans. Nevertheless, there is always the nagging suspicion that correctional personnel, like law enforcement officers, have been exposed to these ideas, or similar ones, so many times that they develop resistance to this type of material.

## INTRODUCTION\*

This curriculum guide is a product of the developmental phase of a State-wide in-service training program for correctional personnel. It was developed through a federal grant received from the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance in July, 1967. The grant, extending for a period of one year, emphasized the development of a training curriculum focused on rehabilitative attitudes, and the training of personnel as change agents within the correctional system.

The Division of Correction and Parole, State of New Jersey, was interested in developing such a program though it has operated training programs for a number of years. Previous efforts have admittedly been stronger in custody and control aspects than in the area of rehabilitation. Training for community based personnel (probation and parole) has been carried out separately from the institution although identical methods and techniques pertain in many areas. This has had the effect of artificially separating functions and segmenting the correction process to the detriment of long-range treatment goals.

During the first-stage of the project four models were developed for correctional training, an orientation and refresher course for supervisory personnel, and a similar set for line personnel. These models are the result of two pilot training programs held during the year, a training survey, and a study of existing training programs for correctional personnel in New Jersey.

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\*Final Report - Project #196.

The model courses are structured to maintain a logical continuum from the theoretical aspects of causality, through motivation, the dynamics of behavior, and the implications of the correctional process. It is hoped that this knowledge will orient the trainee to the perception of the offender, and thus alter attitudes and behavior in terms of a treatment approach to the client.

The curriculum is client oriented involving three main phases:

- A. Theory in-put sessions - To provide a theoretical framework in order to make meaningful facts, speculations, and research findings.
- B. Task oriented sessions - To make meaningful connections between information imparted and application to work problems.
- C. Process oriented sessions - Based on the use of case studies in order to increase knowledge, skills, and techniques in working with both the client and the line employee who deals with the client.

Instructors involved in the various courses should be aware of the composition of the trainee group in terms of educational background, and they must be able to relate the major principles of adult learning. New theories regarding the discipline of adult learning, and experiences from past training programs indicate major distinctions from the principles advanced for effective teaching of children and youths. Instructors therefore, might reflect on some of the principles outlined by Professor Malcolm S. Knowles of Boston University:

- A. "Adults enter a learning activity with an image of themselves as self-directing, responsible



- 3 -

grown-ups, not as immature, dependent learners. They resist situations in which they are treated with disrespect." Therefore, if the trainees help to conduct their own learning experience they will learn more than if they are passive recipients.

- B. "Adults enter a learning activity with more experience than youth. They have more to contribute to the activity and have a broader basis to relate new learning." Therefore, if instructors consider those teaching methods and techniques which build on and make use of the experience of learners they will produce the greatest learning.
- C. "Adults enter a learning activity with more intentions to apply learning to life problems, than youth. Adults require practical results from learning." Therefore, trainees will perceive learning experiences that are built around work problems; learning must appear relevant to those conditions.

It should suffice to state that the curriculum guide is a functional tool, and is to be used only as a guideline for instructors. It was not intended to inhibit individual skills and creativity, but was established as a base upon which the instructor may build toward maximizing the learning experiences of trainees. The guide will be used in the second stage of the project and it is hoped that even if partially successful, it will have met some of the needs for more effective training models.

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Nevertheless, there is always the nagging suspicion that correctional personnel, like law enforcement officers, have been exposed to these ideas, or similar ones, so many times that they develop resistance to this type of material.

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The Division of Correction and Parole, State of New Jersey, was interested in developing such a program though it has operated training programs for a number of years. Previous efforts have admittedly been stronger in custody and control aspects than in the area of rehabilitation. Training for community based personnel (probation and parole) has been carried out separately from the institution although identical methods and techniques pertain in many areas. This has had the effect of artificially separating functions and segmenting the correction process to the detriment of long-range treatment goals.

During the first-stage of the project four models were developed for correctional training, an orientation and refresher course for supervisory personnel, and a similar set for line personnel. These models are the result of two pilot

training programs held during the year, a training survey, and a study of existing training programs for correctional personnel in New Jersey.

The model courses are structured to maintain a logical continuum from the theoretical aspects of causality, through motivation, the dynamics of behavior, and the implications of the correctional process. It is hoped that this knowledge will orient the trainee to the perception of the offender, and thus alter attitudes and behavior in terms of a treatment approach to the client.

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Instructors involved in the various courses should be aware of the composition of the trainee group in terms of educational background, and they must be able to relate the major principles of adult learning. New theories regarding the discipline of adult learning, and experiences from past training programs indicate major distinctions from the principles advanced for effective teaching of children and youths. Instructors therefore, might reflect on some of the principles outlined by Professor Malcolm S. Knowles of Boston University:

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- B. "Adults enter a learning activity with more experience than youth. They have more to contribute to the activity and have a broader basis to relate new learning." Therefore, if instructors consider those teaching methods and techniques which build on and make use of the experience of learners they will produce the greatest learning.

C. "Adults enter a learning activity with more intentions to apply learning to life problems, than youth. Adults require practical results from learning." Therefore, trainees will perceive learning experiences that are built around work problems; learning must appear relevant to those conditions.

It should suffice to state that the curriculum guide is a functional tool, and is to be used only as a guideline for instructors. It was not intended to inhibit individual skills and creativity, but was established as a base upon which the instructor may build toward maximizing the learning experiences of trainees. The guide will be used in the second stage of the project and it is hoped that even if partially successful, it will have met some of the needs for more effective training models.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 196

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not much.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Possibly.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was one of the better correctional training projects that are very difficult to evaluate.

Grant #198 (See #22)

Grantee: Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department

Amount: \$39,366

Dates: Supplements grant #22 ending 2/29/68

Purpose: Demonstration in routine police patrol by helicopter.



Grant # 199

Grantee: New York State Identification and Intelligence System

Amount: \$17,000

Dates: July 1967 to June 1968

Purpose: To develop an automated personal appearance data and identification system using close circuit audio-video network and computerized storage and retrieval.

Summary

The proposal for an automatic personal appearance system (APPADS) consisted of the following: a computer processed data base of personal description data; a closed circuit color T.V. network to transmit the voice and picture of a person when he was booked; a file for cataloguing the voice and the appearance; and finally the development of techniques to assist in the identification of unknown suspects using the above material as data.

The proposal arose from knowledge that there was at that time an inadequate description method so that a person was unable to describe a suspect properly. In addition, there was not any agreement as to what was adequate description for identification purposes and there was no universal method of cataloguing or classifying facial elements. There was very little standardization of picture qualities in pictures of

suspects, and there was no use made of voice and motion that would enhance the recall process of a witness. Finally, there was a lack of training in interviewing a witness so that the description was frequently poor for this reason.

To remedy these weaknesses NYSIIS proposed to do the following: 1) Develop a standardized family of descriptors that would facilitate the rapid and reliable identification of perpetrators of criminal acts; 2) Develop stereotyped and sub-sets of facial elements that would enable classification of individual features of a person photographed; 3) Develop a standardized scientific witness interviewing technique which would elicit witness response in terms of common denominators; 4) Develop a scientific witness evaluation technique which would permit some assessment of the probable reliability of the witnesses recall capabilities; 5) Develop a standardized scientifically designed suspect interrogation technique. The object of this technique would be to elicit more effective information within the framework of the Miranda Case.

There were several phases to their approach. The first was a psychological study 1) to determine what witnesses actually saw and how they described what they saw, and what was the effect of emotional stress of physical influences on witnesses' recall; 2) to ascertain the effects of introducing

voice or emotion stimuli in obtaining witnesses descriptions; 3) to develop a scientific interrogative procedure for law enforcement personnel to improve its effectiveness; 4) to develop a hierarchy of descriptors of the sort the average untrained witness usually noticed most frequently; 5) to establish confidence levels for each descriptor, especially with respect to variations in light, color, motion, and so forth; 6) to determine a set of descriptors which could be standardized in order to build a data base for the computer around these descriptors.

The second phase of the program would be anthropometric. The purpose of this phase would be to determine the sets of features together with their variations that would be used, and to develop a set of three-dimensional bust-type figures against which photographs might be compared feature by feature. The stereotypes would serve as bases to catalogue and refer the variations in the special feature. Finally, there would be an attempt by research and development to develop a new personal appearance system.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 199

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Partially. The model has not yet been placed in operation.
2. Was the project innovative?  
Yes.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
It may have in the future if it should ever become operational.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
No, but it may in the future.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
Possibly.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
Yes. What are the most significant cues for recognition of a suspect?
7. Remarks.

Grant #201

Grantee: New York Post Graduate Center for Mental Health

Amount: \$28,710

Dates: September 1967 to August 1968

Purpose: To train personnel for the treatment of narcotics offenders in the New York City Department of Corrections.

Summary

The purpose of this project was to train corrections personnel to deal with the growing population of narcotics offenders. They needed special information and special attitudes to understand and to help rehabilitate narcotics offenders. The specific goals of the project were 1) to enhance the knowledge of corrections personnel with regard to drug addiction and the drug addict, 2) to develop sensitivity among the participants toward both themselves and the inmates, 3) to demonstrate a type of in-service training procedure that would be feasible for adoption by other corrections facilities, and 4) to evaluate the effect of the program on the participating personnel.

The participants in this program were the personnel of the New York City Department of Corrections, recruited among members of the Mental Health staff, uniform force and volunteers, plus certain interested persons from community agencies.

Ninety four persons registered in this project. Thirty five were members of the uniform force of the Department of Corrections, twenty one were members of the mental health division, consisting of psychiatrists, psychologists and psychiatric social workers. Fifteen were members of the rehabilitation division consisting of physicians, counselors, caseworkers and administrative personnel and twenty three were representatives of community agencies.

The participants were informed that they were to receive a certificate for their participation in the program. There were three types of teaching techniques. The first was formal lectures by leaders in the field. The second was small group discussion and interaction experiments, and the third was round table discussions. The lecture method was used to impart information whereas the other two methods were used to modify attitudes and perceptions of the people in the program.

The lectures were divided into four main categories: A. The community and narcotics addiction; B. Law enforcement and the addict; C. Theoretical aspects of narcotics addiction, and D. Rehabilitation of the narcotic addicts. Leaders in each area were used as lecturers. For example, the first lecturer was Dr. Efren Ramirez, the coordinator of addiction services in New York City.

The total population was divided into several small groups and the group leaders were trained psycho-analysts who had group therapy training, as well as experience in the field of drug addiction. Apparently, the round table discussions were more powerful than the group discussions for eliciting self-awareness and confrontation tactics.

For purposes of evaluation the population was divided into two parts, the P group for participants, and the D group for those who discontinued. Several tests were given to members of each group and a comparison was made. The whole program consisted of nineteen sessions. The following tests were used to evaluate the effects of the program: 1) The Cohen-Struening Opinions About Drug Addiction scale, 2) The Gould Dynamics of Drug Addiction scale, and 3) The Ratings scale filled out by leaders of the discussion group rating each group member on the same dimensions that are included in the psychological tests that were given. The dimensions tapped by the psychological tests were authoritarianism, social restrictiveness, benevolence, mental hygiene ideology, and interpersonal etiology.

Although the report tried to develop differences before and after, and also between the two groups, the data that it records discloses that there was almost no difference before and after, or between the two groups. Therefore, one of the

original purposes of the program which was to change attitudes was obviously not accomplished. Hopefully this project aimed to engender a more informed personnel, but whether the participants learned anything from the lectures is not known because there was no testing of the amount of learning derived from the lectures.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 201

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Yes, in teaching new methods. No, in changing attitude.
2. Was the project innovative?  
Yes. It was one of the few OLEA projects concerned at all with narcotics.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Not much.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
No.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
No.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
Yes. Why were there negative results when so many expert psychologists were involved?
7. Remarks.

Grant #204

Grantee: New York State Police

Amount: \$24,181

Dates: June 1967 to August 1967

Purpose: To develop and distribute a police handbook to all police officers in New York State except those in New York City.

### Summary

This handbook was a compilation based on the New York State Penal Law (new in 1967) and contained guidance and instruction on police operations and topics of importance to police.

New York State revised its penal law so drastically that when it took effect on September 1, 1967, policemen did not know the new law and were incapable of enforcing it.

Therefore, it was important that some information, training, and course material be provided as quickly as possible. This handbook filled the gap. It pulled together many laws and procedures and arranged them under proper headings such as:

Arrests, Accidents, Animals, Elections, Hotels, Report Writing, Physicians, Stolen Property, and of course the usual crime classifications.

The policeman had a quick guide to help him work out solutions to many of the problem situations that occurred in the course of the daily work.

### Evaluation

Ordinarily, a police handbook is not as effective as it seems in the abstract. A policeman cannot refer to it when he is actually involved in pressing police incidents. He has no time, no opportunity, and it may be embarrassing for him to have to refer to a book to see what he should do. On patrol, his time is better

spent observing the conditions on the beat. A handbook then serves as an auxiliary study aid to a course of training. It may also be used effectively to help promote study. But, in view of the emergency situation caused by the new penal law that called for immediate dissemination of the 1967 law to the police of the state, this project was important and worthwhile.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 204

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Funding the publication of handbooks should be given one of the lowest priorities for funding. Experience tells us that handbooks have only slight impact on organizations. In this project, if the handbooks had been supplemented by lecture their value would have been greatly enhanced.

Grant #205

Grantee: City of Detroit and the Mayor's Committee for  
Human Resources Development

Amount: \$58,067

Dates: June 1967 to December 1967

Purpose: For training police officers in community relations skills, to increase understanding of minority groups, handling of protest demonstrations, field and arrest procedures.

#### Summary

Although this project was included under education and training in the grant and contract book put out by the OLEA, it was actually police-community relations.

This was an in-service training program based mainly on lectures by college teachers covering various aspects of human relations. And then it was further augmented by breaking the police people into groups of six or so and having group discussions. The primary emphasis of the program according to the report itself was supposed to be behavioral change, and attitude change was secondary.

However, before the program began, each participant filled out a questionnaire. At the end of his program he completed the same questionnaire, and then comparisons were made to see if there was change. In general, there was a very small amount of change and some of the claims were rather questionable.

On page 33 of the evaluation there were some reports of the manner in which patrolmen evaluated the program after they had taken it. Their evaluation was in terms of the kind of preparation the speakers showed, the understandability of the program, and

whether they would recommend it to others. It is questionable whether these criteria are really marks of the program's success. On page 32 of the evaluation the report revealed that only one out of 15 attitude sub-scales toward minority groups changed for the better. Was this success? And another question arises: "If the emphasis was to be on behavioral change, what criteria were set up for analyzing behavioral change rather than concentrating on the attitude change?"

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 205

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The real purpose of this program was to produce a behavioral change in policemen so that they would act better toward the black people. Soon the project goal was forgotten and they were substituting the term attitude change for behavioral change.

Grant #207 (See #44)

Grantee: Department of Anthropology and Sociology, Rice  
University, Houston, Texas

Amount: \$8,333

Dates: Supplements Grant #44 ending 8/31/67

Purpose: Testing of measurement technique to determine  
community tensions and violence potential in selected  
Houston neighborhoods.



Grant #210

Grantee: St. Paul, Minnesota Police Department with St. Thomas College

Amount: \$14,818

Dates: July 1967 to June 1968

Purpose: To develop a police community relations program and a p-c-r training program for 25 officers, in conjunction with St. Thomas College.

Summary

Twenty-five police officers were given a course of 50 class hours staffed by instructors from the Management Center of the College of St. Thomas. On the conclusion of the course, a storefront police office, a satellite station, was established in a target area of St. Paul, densely populated, 80% black, with the highest crime rate, lowest income, and the most open hostility to the police.

Since the office was in a building also used for social services, child day care, adult education, etc., it made it easier for people of the community to just come in to visit and talk. Citizens could ask for advice about personal and community problems on a seven-day week, 24-hour basis.

Police officers also met with young people on street corners, discussed racism, black hostility, black power with them. Officers visited pool halls, talked and shot pool with young men. They visited community schools, and often lectured classes of community youth organization.

A questionnaire pertaining to the effectiveness of the police-community relations program was sent out randomly to 178 residents and 191 heads of agencies, churches, schools, clubs, and

organizations. In addition, 42 interviews were conducted by a team of three men with community leaders, businessmen, educators, and students. Each item on the questionnaire and interviews is itemized in this report with detailed summaries of question by each of the staff members.

### Evaluation

The use of interviews and detailed comments are an interesting device for appraisal of the effectiveness of the police community office. However, 52 responses of a total of 369 questionnaires does not seem an adequate return.

Emphasis on youth contacts is important because young people are so openly hostile to the establishment and the police in particular. In an actual test of police-community relations very little rapport seems to have been established. Bands of black youths broke windows and did considerable damage after a community dance. Community leaders refused to help, claiming they had no control over young people. Their allegiance was with the youths. After the disorder there was considerable hostility on both sides.

Basically, the idea of a storefront sub-station is a good one. It is in theory a symbol of good will and an obvious way to establish a friendly contact between the police and the community. In practice it does not work out.

An interesting recommendation (A-11) of the program is that the goal should be the elimination of the specialized Police-Community Relations Unit. Foot patrolmen who know everyone intimately on post would carry on the police community program.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 210

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

Somewhat.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Just the old question of why police community relations projects fail so dismally with lower class black youth.

7. Remarks.

On paper it was a good program. In practice it did not accomplish much.

Grant #211

Grantee: Wisconsin State University at Platteville

Amount: \$14,942

Dates: September 1967 to June 1968

Purposes: To develop a two- and four-year police science program.

Summary

The department of Political Science had conducted some police training seminars in 1966 and became interested in the possibilities of a program in police administration. In 1966, that department proposed to offer two programs--the first, a Bachelor of Science Degree with a major in Police Administration, and the second was a six-year program leading to a combined Bachelor of Science, J.D. degree. The programs were designed to give students a liberal education plus a broad understanding of the methodologies, problems, and sciences of law enforcement.

The J.D. program would have to be pursued at the University of Wisconsin Law School. It amounted to a further specialization in government and sociology combined with seven hours of law courses.

In addition, they proposed a two-year certificate program that could be terminal or completely transferable to a four-year degree program.

Only the four-year Baccalaureate Degree program was approved by the university and is now in operation.

The Institute of Police Science and Administration was given departmental status in February 1969 as a separate department in the School of Arts and Sciences. It planned to add a major in Industrial Security to meet the needs of students in the Industrial and Business Programs on campus.

In 1968, 125 on-campus students enrolled in the Police Science Program and 26 off-campus students. It increased in the spring of 1969 to 149 and 31. There were 46 majors in the spring term. Police students would be allowed to start the program in any of the nine state universities offering police science two-year programs. They anticipated 550 students in the 1969-70 year.

There were some subordinate goals--an internship program was created successfully, but the goal of developing innovative training techniques was never attained. The report submitted as an excuse, the lack of funds. It was more likely, however, to be the lack of knowledge.

They had trouble staffing the program with well qualified teachers, which might have been attributable to the small budget. In addition to the project directors, there were two law enforcement specialists. The department of political

science shared some of its teachers with the Institute.

The evaluation of the project in the final report was rather weak.

This police science program started out with rather unrealistic ideals for a combined B.S.-J.D. degree program that in actuality never had a chance to succeed. It did not plan its faculty recruiting policy well enough to keep pace, and it is headed for serious problems unless the state offers financial assistance.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 211

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes, in some ways.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This project may be a casualty of the haste in which these programs were established.

Grant #214

Grantee: New Hampshire State Prison, Concord, New Hampshire

Amount: \$9,076

Dates: July 1967 to December 1967

Purpose: To develop a state-wide training program for  
correctional staffs.

Summary

There were three institutions that dealt with the correction of adult offenders in New Hampshire. They were the New Hampshire State Prison, the Probation Department, and the Parole Department. The State Industrial School was also included in the training program because of its proximity to the others.

The total number of persons affected by the program was 239. In the prison and in the Industrial School, the custodial personnel were usually high school graduates or had experience equivalent to high school education. The employees of the prison other than the custodial officers were almost all high school graduates. About 20% of the Industrial School staff were college graduates. Therefore, most of the target population had been away from classroom situations for a long time and they were not motivated to attend the school.

There have been eight planning sessions led by outstanding personnel administrators of the parole, the probation, the



Industrial School, the University of New Hampshire, the Board of Prison Trustees and a judge of the New Hampshire Supreme Court. They utilized as consultants Professors Jeremiah Shalloo and Albert Morris, both of whom are well known penologists.

Several pilot institutes were scheduled and from questionnaires given to the participants a great many suggestions were elicited that could help in the training program. The training plan provided for 18 sessions of instruction once a week, each one to last two hours. The sessions would take place in the evenings to allow for more participation. There would be 28 instructors for the 18-week session and there would be a small group discussion at many sessions. Films and tapes would be used where appropriate. Role playing would also be utilized. The subjects of the sessions would be:

The Past and Future of Corrections

The Inmate Community

An Inquiry Into Attitude Formation and Motivations

Classification and Probation Reports

The Treatment Process

Probation Reports

Inmate Programs

Individual and Group Therapy and Counseling

Techniques of Counseling

Supervision vs. Surveillance

Role of the Treatment Specialist in Corrections

How to Handle the Offender

Probation

The Difficult Offender

Parole

The Court, Criminal Code, and Law Enforcement Agency

New Developing Trends in Sentencing, Probation, and Parole

Research in Contemporary Corrections

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 214

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Yes.
2. Was the project innovative?  
No.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Not much.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
No.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
No.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
No.
7. Remarks.  
This was a routine unimaginative correctional training program.

Grant #221

Grantee: Pennsylvania Crime Commission

Amount: \$25,000

Dates: July 1967 to June 1968

Purpose: A preliminary overview and analysis of crime and criminal justice in Pennsylvania.

Summary

The first task was to "focus on the facts of crime and to develop clear insight into its dimensions." The individual citizen was the most concerned about personal attack. Pennsylvania had a relatively low crime rate for a state; but it was increasing at the same rate as the United States. From 1960 to 1967, the rate of reported violent crime against persons increased by 31%.

Only one out of nine reported burglaries resulted in a conviction. There was a growing percentage of youth crime, attended by more violence. From 1966 to 1967, crime in rural areas increased more rapidly than in metropolitan areas. Crime was also increasing in suburban areas. Alcohol offenses and traffic violations accounted for a large proportion of the criminal burden.

Organized crime in Pennsylvania from gambling alone grossed about \$2 billion a year. There were five branch offices of the national crime industry operating from the state. Suggestions offered were: to reassign non-criminal justice freer for crime, to redesign the system of justice to cope with individual offenses.

The criminal justice system was the only line of defense between criminal and citizen. It could be divided into three parts: police, courts, and correction. Approximately 22% of reported crimes were cleared by arrest. The criminal justice system in the state was experiencing serious difficulty. Professional criminals and members

of the crime syndicate were skillful at avoiding arrest, and if caught, frequently got off lightly. Of all the jury cases in Pennsylvania, only about one-half resulted in convictions. Operation of courts was severely inefficient, due to understaffing and lack of effective administration. The state was also not very effective in rehabilitating criminals. There were no individual rehabilitation programs and professional staffs for treatment in correctional institutions. Jails were old and very bleak, with very few special facilities for women and juveniles. Education, vocational training, medicine and counseling had just been introduced.

Is the System fair? National experts say "no" because it discriminates against the poor and the ignorant. The nominal bail law was not used extensively; in Philadelphia more than two-thirds of all prisoners were unconvicted persons awaiting court action. A study in Philadelphia showed that when defendants were detained prior to trial only 18% avoided conviction, 49% of those free on bail were acquitted.

The Pennsylvania Justice System was said to be "outdated, overburdened, fragmented and unorganized, unplanned, under-capitalized, dehumanizing, too political and too often outflanked by organized and professional crime." But Pennsylvania has many invaluable resources which would help in reforming the system; they have good, dedicated people, effective leadership, capabilities and professionalism are on the upgrade. There have been constitutional revisions which will help reduce the fragmentation of the system. There is now heavy emphasis on fast and immediate progress in the field of corrections; new programs of rehabilitation for children have been introduced. Alternatives have been provided to reduce the attraction of crime to juvenile. Federal incentives and spending

and there is interdisciplinary assistance, i.e. The AMA study of alcoholism as a disease.

Four fundamental goals for the criminal justice system in Pennsylvania were stated:

- 1) Provide swift, decisive, and fair justice.
- 2) Assure rights of victims and witnesses.
- 3) Guarantee human rights (improvement of rehabilitation facilities).
- 4) Activate citizen interest.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 221

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Possibly.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes.

7. Remarks.

It did survey the problems of crime and criminal justice in Pennsylvania. It ended by corroborating the well-known fact that the criminal justice system is failing and crime is succeeding. Its remedies and suggestions are wishful thinking rather than true answers to the problem.

Grant #222

Grantee: The Center for Law Enforcement and Corrections  
in Pennsylvania State University, University Park,  
Pennsylvania

Amount: \$14,970.

Dates: August 1967 to April 1968

Purpose: To develop a state-wide training program for  
correctional staff.

Summary

The Pennsylvania State University was assisted by the Advisory Committee to the Center for Law Enforcement and Corrections. The Advisory Committee was made up of a number of prominent people in the field of criminal justice in Pennsylvania. The sub-committee for the Pennsylvania Adult Correctional Training Institutes, the faculty of the Pennsylvania State University Center for Law Enforcement and Corrections, and the College of Human Development also took part in this project.

The purpose of the project was to develop: 1. goals, 2. priorities in terms of training and theory, 3. content and subject matter, 4. methods of communication. They planned two major workshops--the first to involve about 20 administrators to develop policy guidelines, the second to



include about 30 managers whose task it would be to refine further the policy guidelines into operational directives.

A questionnaire was sent out prior to the workshops, and tabulations from the questionnaire were put into the conferences at appropriate times to assist the participants. The conference was set up to disseminate information, collect information and produce group reports. It was also designed to permit executives and managers of the governmental agencies to interact and to come to grips with their shared problems.

The workshops were held in January and February 1968 at the Center for Law Enforcement and Corrections of Penn State. Many techniques were used. The participants were divided into task groups, T groups, psycho-drams, instrumented groups, management games, dyadic programming and diagnostic data task group. The atmosphere was that of a retreat, cutting the participants off from day-to-day duties. Fatigue and frustration were purposely developed by long complex schedules running into the late evening hours. Competition between groups was encouraged. Tight time schedules were given and no way of knowing the progress of the other groups was allowed. Reward and reinforcement for completed tasks were obtained by immediate feedback of group accomplishment.

At the end of the conference a group photo, a framed certificate and a copy of the completed and signed group reports were presented to each participant at the closing banquet.

Rigorous specifications of sub-goals kept the task assignments challenging. Interest and enthusiasm were maintained by a variety of presentations including motion pictures, video tapes, games, and nationally acclaimed resource consultants and speakers. Each task group reduced its deliberations to written resolutions. The recommendations were then presented verbally to the total assembly, and then finally, the written reports were merged by the conference faculty into a composite statement.

This report was typed and reproduced so that immediate feedback was made available to the participants. The merged documents became the basis for future deliberations and the rough draft of the final conference document. After unanimity was obtained the modified document was re-typed and signatures of all participants were obtained. Thus the final report was completed and distributed at the closing banquet. A copy of the major recommendations and findings of the conference is appended to this report.

Pennsylvania Adult Correctional Training (P.A.C.T.) Institutes\*

MERGED REPORT ON GOALS FOR CORRECTIONAL TRAINING

The major goal of corrections is the protection of society by providing secure and humane custody and control of the offender; and by preparing him to re-enter (or remain) in the community as a law-abiding and productive citizen.

Objectives for correctional staff development must be consistent with this major correctional goal. These are:

- A. Training staff to be knowledgeable about the role of their agency or institution in the continuum of the administration of justice system...specifically, the criminal law, law enforcement, the judiciary, correctional agencies and institutions, parole, probation, and other agencies which provide services for offenders (e.g., vocational rehabilitation and mental health);
- B. Training staff to be knowledgeable about the function, philosophy, and responsibility of his particular institution or agency;
- C. Training staff to be knowledgeable about the specific

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programs and services provided by the agency or institution of which he is a part;

- D. Training staff to be knowledgeable about the specific role and responsibility of the positions they occupy;
- E. Training staff to be knowledgeable about and understanding of the offenders whom they serve and for whom they are responsible;
- F. Training staff to be knowledgeable about the impact of interpersonal relationships;
- G. Training staff to be knowledgeable about the ways by which to correctly utilize the services of community agencies on behalf of their clients;
- H. Training staff to be knowledgeable about the role and responsibility of correctional personnel to participate in the education of the public in problems relating to corrections and the administration of criminal justice. The foregoing basic training should be given to all staff.

Additional concentrated training should be provided for staff consistent for the special positions they occupy. Staff development training must be commensurate with realistic standards, as well as professional performance requirements.

MERGED REPORT ON TRAINING NEEDS IN CORRECTIONS

Training needs emerge from an analysis of goals as heretofore set forth in Section 1. These needs can be met through three training strategies:

A. Pre-entry training. This education should be at a level consistent with the job expectations and entry requirements.

B. Post-entry indoctrination training for corrections and the administration of justice. (This basic training program would be universally provided for all staff whether service or professional since pre-entry training and education comes from a variety of inputs, some of which do not incorporate either justice concepts or content).

C. Special staff development training designed to raise staff at all levels and in all functions to their maximum potential. Specific staff development programs can be organized on an inter-agency basis and can cut across the various sectors of the administration of justice, including law enforcement, intramural and extramural correctional services including interdisciplinary team training.

At the present time there are fragmented offerings of correctional and law enforcement -- related programs for staff development. There needs to be a significant effort

attempt to coordinate such efforts through the development of a master plan which includes periodic evaluation.

Specifically, the high priority correctional staff development needs are:

A. Organized and coordinated training programs for all personnel working in the correctional field to be carried out on a regional basis.

B. Training which will overcome the present deficiencies of correctional workers' knowledge about their own rehabilitation programs and the resources of related social agencies.

C. Programs which increasingly will utilize the merged talents of various agencies and universities in the training of staff both on campus and in the agency setting.

D. Staff development programs must have built in rewards and advantages for those staff to undertake and complete such additional training.

Two major blocks are seen as preventing the realization of the unmet staff development needs listed above. These are:

1. Lack of sufficient funds to subsidize the training and hiring competent training staff.

2. Lack of replacement personnel to man critical services

during times that personnel in training are on extended absences for such programs.

Many justice agencies are too small to employ any training personnel. Resources that a small agency can afford for training must be merged with other agencies if needs are to be met at all. Massive training subsidies will be needed to bring small agencies up to minimal standards.

Educational institutions should be encouraged to develop meaningful and appropriate materials tailored for correctional and allied social agencies. Subsidies to underwrite such ongoing programs are vital.

MERGED REPORT ON CONTENT OF CORRECTIONAL TRAINING

The content of training programs should be compatible with agencies' philosophies which in turn should be consistent with cultural and social beliefs in a democratic society. Course material, therefore, should include skills, techniques, and attitudes in dealing with both offenders and correctional employees as individuals. Such knowledge should develop empathy for others. Additionally, the legal rights of offenders, and the trainees' responsibility and obligations regarding the use of power and authority should be included in training for workers in the administration of justice system. Such training should insure the development of a philosophy compatible with the ethical and moral thinking within the specific agency and the society it services.

Content materials should be functional for all the personnel being trained and individual agencies should participate in the development of course content commensurate with the needs of agency personnel. The concept of evaluation must be incorporated in course materials so that the agency will be capable of periodically determining whether the programs of instruction are as effective as they should be. Whenever it appears that they are not meeting the needs



of agency personnel, changes should be made.

Consistent with the above, specific courses would include:

1. the dynamics of human behavior;
2. the impact of environment on individuals;
3. social agencies which work with correctional clientele (e.g., public welfare, vocational rehabilitation, mental health);
4. criminal law and procedures which relate to corrections;
5. socio-cultural determinants of behavior;
6. communications skills (verbal and written);
7. skills in interpersonal relationships (particularly those dealing with hostility, aggression and authority);
8. public relations and community information;
9. problem-solving techniques (e.g., matrix system of ad hoc committees);
10. professional disciplines which work with offenders (psychiatry, psychology, sociology, medicine, social work, etc.)
11. case management;
12. correctional research (program evaluation and performance prediction);
13. correctional administration.

The above list is illustrative and in no sense comprehensive. Training programs should maximize the connection between knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary in the trainees' work performance.

MERGED REPORT ON METHODS FOR CORRECTIONAL TRAINING

Guidelines to achieve the training objectives stated previously in this report are as follows:

A. Effective training programs should involve maximum trainee participation;

B. The selection of training programs should include the right combination of methods for the knowledge, skills, and attitudes to be taught;

C. In the selection of methods, consideration should be given to the needs, functions, and positions of trainees in their organizations as well as their degree of sophistication;

D. Methods used should be evaluated for their contribution toward learning, not solely for the demonstration of a new technique;

E. Methods should be varied in order to stimulate learning and reduce monotony (e.g., audio-visual devices, programmed instruction, etc.);

F. On the job training can be a valuable component of an effective training program. Superiors should reinforce training by providing constructive guidance and recognition for improved performance;

G. Actual agency problems and case materials should be utilized for training purposes whenever possible.

Specific techniques which have been useful in training include demonstrations of group interaction, laboratory methods ("T" Group, instrumented group), management games, role playing, psycho-drama, etc.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 222

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes. In the variety of techniques to keep the interest of students.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Some.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Possibly.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This project used group dynamics techniques to stimulate the participants. However, the results of the group workshops were not very innovative.

Grant #223

Grantee: University of Nevada, Reno, Nevada.

Amount: \$14,594

Dates: July 1967 to April 1968

Purpose: To develop a state-wide training program for  
correctional employees.

Summary

A committee consisting of the warden of the prison, the Director of Probation and Parole for the State of Nevada, a member of the sociology department of the University of Nevada, and the Director of Continuing Education of the University of Nevada met to discuss the needs of the in-service training for correctional personnel in Nevada. At that time the training program in corrections was minimal.

Nevada did not have a centralized correctional program. Each area of correction was carried out by an individual operation. The Nevada State Prison System incorporated a maximum security system, an Honors Camps, a Women's Prison, and a Juvenile Corrections Area. The Department of Probation and Parole was a state-wide operation under the direction of its own administrator.

One of the problems was that the population of Nevada was concentrated in two small areas and the rest was dispersed over great distances; institutions were sometimes hundreds of miles apart. Therefore, it was difficult to establish a central location for training.

As a result of the grant several changes occurred. The project group sent out questionnaires and interviewed many of the correctional people in order to determine staff resources and areas of need. The warden published a police guide to support in-service training programs and staff involvement. A \$4,000 budget was established for training, and in December 1967 an in-service training program was officially inaugurated. A policy making it mandatory for new employees to attend an orientation program became official in January 1968. And finally, there were plans to establish an in-service training library.

Pilot programs were begun at the Nevada Girls Training Center, Nevada State Prison, Spring Mountain Youth Camp Las Vegas. These consisted of eight professional, technical training projects. There was an attempt made in these courses to orient correctional personnel to the fundamental principles of correctional and behavioral concepts and methodology. In addition, there were a series of workshops to develop writing skills, and techniques in supervision and in race relations. The program sought to make wider use of staff within the agency, to provide the in-service training, and to foster exchange of personnel between agencies for in-service training. From 83 to 100 correctional personnel attended these sessions each week. A certificate of accomplishment was prepared to be

awarded upon completion of the courses, and a copy of this was sent to the State Personnel Agency.

Fifteen days of workshops were planned with the Nevada State Personnel Department for in-service training of personnel. The course, offered on a voluntary attendance basis, were: Correctional Development, 21 hours; Crime and the Community, 21 hours; Groups as Factors in Crime, 42 hours; Supervision-Leadership, 21 hours; The Offender and the Community, 21 hours; Basic Theory of Crime Causation, 21 hours; Social Problems, 21 hours. A proposal for implementation and continuation of the program was made.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 223

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Yes.
2. Was the project innovative?  
No.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Little.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
No.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
No.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
No.
7. Remarks.  
Considering that there was little or no correctional training in Nevada, this project was worthwhile.

Grants #224 and #335

Grantee: National Council on Crime and Delinquency

Amount: \$83,688

Dates: August 1967 to June 1968

Purpose: To establish a national Correctional Information Center to include dissemination, consultation, and training resources.

Summary

In cooperation with the American Correctional Association, the Federal Bureau of Prisons, and the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, the NCCD fulfilled its goal of becoming a Correctional Training Resource Center.

NCCD collected a mass of information on training and coded it for quick retrieval. In addition to the usual mailing lists, the NCCD published a Newsletter and a resource packet, and through these means had a wide dissemination in correctional agencies and throughout the criminal justice system.

NCCD conducted conferences on training and provided consultation services: It was available to answer all inquiries! It surveyed correctional agencies and stimulated important correctional projects such as state-wide surveys, developing training curricula, closed T.V. programs, etc.

This project was of great benefit to corrections. It helped to establish lines of communication among agencies in different parts of the country: It disseminated news of innovative procedures. The Newsletter was held in high repute across the country.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 224 and #335

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

In a limited way.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Dissemination projects such as this are needed badly if research findings are not to be lost. The project was well done.

Grant #227

Grantee: Institute for the Study of Crime and Delinquency  
in Sacramento, California

Amount: \$160,218

Dates: August 1967 to July 1968

Purpose: To plan for probation services in a model community  
correctional program for misdemeanors and felony offenders.

Summary

This report dealt with the misdemeanor probation program. The goals of this program were 1) to provide the lower court with adequate pre-sentence information through use of a short form probation report; 2) to provide case work services to persons placed on probation; and 3) to provide case manager and after care services to offenders sentenced to jail. There would be several benefits from this program if it worked successfully. The short form probation misdemeanor report would solve the great information and manpower gaps. It would provide the judge with verified information quickly, perhaps the same day: It would provide the judges with many sentencing alternatives when previously he had few. There would be a chance to do research on the basis of this new form and procedure.

While the project would only deal with misdemeanors, the lessons learned would surely be applicable to juvenile

delinquents and felony offenders as well. The project was designed as a prototype not only for California but also for the rest of the country as well. The fundamental basis for this program was really an imitation of the Manhattan Bail Project in New York which was instituted under the Vera Foundation.

The appendix shows the short form that was proposed. The categories that would be checked on the short form were family ties, employment, residence, time and area of current residence, arrest and crime record, health, education, and military service. Each category had a recommended score based upon whether it is positive or negative. The defendant must be recommended for probation if he received a total of five to ten points, and he must be recommended for a suspended sentence if he received a total of eleven to fifteen points.

There were three categories of persons involved in the program: the regular probation officers who would do a great deal of the case load supervision; the case managers who apparently would work with the prisoner in the prison; and the aides from the community who would be phased in to do work in the program. The final stage would be dissemination of results through publications, lectures, and the news media.

The report justified its expansion of services to

misdemeanants who were not then receiving any probations services by showing that the different counties in California had relatively a similar problem even though in some counties such as San Joaquin there was a very low rate of placing criminals on probation (only 25 percent were recommended for probation). In the other counties, on the average, there were more than twice as many (more than 50 percent) recommended for probation. In spite of this drop and the unique quality of San Joaquin, its social problems and recidivism rate remained approximately the same. Evidently, mere punitive and retributive attitudes and refusal to place on probation did not mean that you had a safer city.

The significant contribution of this program was that it emphasized the community resources and the community responsibility for the rehabilitation of prisoners rather than permitting them to stagnate inside a prison. The thrust in modern probation is to get the prisoner out into the community as quickly as possible, and that was what this program aimed to do.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 227

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

In part.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes.

7. Remarks.

Results did not seem to reflect the size of the investment.



Grant #228

Grantee: Mississippi Crime Commission, University of Mississippi

Amount: \$25,000

Dates: September 1967 to September 1968

Purpose: The Commission aimed to study the crime situation and suggest ways of upgrading law enforcement and criminal law administration.

### Summary

The Commission was not authorized to investigate any special case or to enforce any law. It was to make studies, propose procedures and legislation, and report to the Governor in an advisory capacity. Five committees were organized whose members worked without personal compensation.

Problems of effective law enforcement in Mississippi included:

- 1) lack of adequate training -- especially in small cities,
- 2) lack of standards of education and qualification,
- 3) low salaries,
- 4) failure of less populated cities to get enough police officers for their numbers,
- 5) and lack of knowledge about coping with riots and civil disorders.

About 700 would be graduated within the year from the Mississippi Law Enforcement Officers Training Academy, but enrollment there was still voluntary. The FBI agreed to establish several series of schools at 20 to 30 locations so that the schools would be convenient to all Law Enforcement offices. Several junior colleges would cooperate and might offer two-year academic courses in Law Enforcement.

One problem had been that the existing laws provided civil service jobs for police officials only if they had been in that

county for at least three years. This prevented the enlistment of applicants from out of state. Another problem was the lack of any requirement that criminal record systems be established by each sheriff to provide records for successors.

Since the problem of public indifference to crime was a major one, the Mississippi Crime Commission's project aimed to realert and reeducate the public about its responsibilities -- to report violations, knowledge about whereabouts of criminals, to serve as a witness, and to willingly serve as a juror. It developed:

- 1) Press program.
- 2) Speakers' program.
- 3) Junior College program.

Community leaders gathered at the college to see a program about the crime problem and the need for cooperation in fighting it. A chairman was appointed to organize community programs.

Those who committed civil disturbances should know that they could not escape with impunity. Decisive action was needed at the start of street disturbances.

News media coverage should be appraised. Objectivity and balance were needed so as not to celebrate "hatemongers".

Since religion served as a redemptive function, it was related to law enforcement. "Recognition of the authority of God was the first step toward recognition of temporal authority." "The criminal must experience a feeling of 'forgiveness', and must believe a man can be 'born again' to a new life in order to be rehabilitated." " . . . a society . . . disturbed about its crime might well examine the religious strength, because this would well be the cause. And an increase in genuine religious

commitment might well be the cure." The Church, Cathedral, and Synagogue should emphasize the importance of law.

The "total treatment" scheme met the most problems in its community aspect -- because of negative attitudes towards alcoholics and the lack of facilities. To try to minimize this, many health and welfare agencies were invited to the Center for a tour and orientation followed up by personnel contacts between center and community people. Some agencies said they were "not really equipped to work with the public intoxicant." However, the community effort did reveal a core of facilities and staff persons in a variety of agencies to serve as effective referral centers for the alcoholic discharged from the Center.

As the Center's work became more known, university students were placed there. Several national and international persons inquired about the Center's operation.

The Planning and Research Division of the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department compiled and analyzed data about the Center's impact on the Police Department, the City Courts, and the Medium Security Institute (work base comparing 1967 data with 1966).

The Mississippi Crime Commission recommended:

- 1) in relation to police and public safety, that the highway patrol authority continue to permit the additional powers and duties for the highway safety patrol which were granted in 1964;

- 2) that local and county government units provide funds so that all municipal and county law enforcement officers could take the prescribed course at the Mississippi Law Enforcement Officers Training Academy;

that the constables should be required to attend the Mississippi Law Enforcement Officers Training Academy.

There were recommendations for a central identification and information bureau, and that uniform crime report forms be established.

Under Corrections, the recommendations were that steps be taken to provide that a prisoner not released on parole be conditionally released under supervision during a period of statutory good time. In Corrections it endorsed adequate salaries, a merit system, police service education, better recruitment, in-service training, and technical guidance to improve the correction system.

For the Juvenile System it advocated: the improvement of the training schools in all aspects; to determine the basic population data of juvenile offenders in Mississippi; to enact the following laws: compulsory school attendance for children up to age 16; the revision of the present law so that juvenile offenders would not lose their citizenship by a felony record; and that vocational training should be made available at junior and senior high schools. It proposed also that half-way houses and small groups in camp settings to help the rehabilitation of youngsters should be instituted.

For the state probation and parole board it recommended that all employees of the parole board should be placed on a merit system, some parolees should be paroled unconditionally, and that each juvenile district should be given a full time probation officer. For wardens and jailers, it recommended that (1) there should be a training institute for wardens, jailers, guards, and other officials; (2) there should be a practical set of

3) that the Law Enforcement personnel attend some of the FBI schools; and

4) that junior colleges be encouraged to offer two-year academic courses in law enforcement and that the University of Mississippi academic course leading to a degree of Bachelor of Police Administration be endorsed;

5) that law enforcement personnel and administration be upgraded by upgrading salaries;

6) that a ratio of at least two police officers for each 1,000 population in cities be maintained;

7) that there should be contract law enforcement programs between county and municipal governmental bodies.

The recommendation for a committee on police standards to establish minimum qualifications and require periodic training under approved instructors demanded some attention. The recommendation for the minimum qualifications for a police officer were the following: Age 21 to 35; Education, high school or equivalent; Height, 5'7"; Weight, 140 lbs. minimum; Eyes, 20-40 correctable to 20-20 with glasses; and Physical Condition, must be free of deformities or injuries which would interfere with normal movement. In addition, the applicant must be of good moral character, have a good family background and a well adjusted personality and pass a written examination given by the Civil Service Board.

There were recommendations that a criminal record system be established in the Sheriff's Office and that the Sheriff's Deputies be required to receive training at the Mississippi Law Enforcement Officers Training Academy. It was also proposed that constables correct qualities in the Office of Constable, and

standards for correction and maintenance of county and municipal jails; and (3) there should be an improvement in the salary scale for jailers and wardens.

As far as criminal law administration the crime commission made the following recommendations that: (1) there should be a law to provide for pre-trial conferences in criminal cases; (2) judges should be allowed to provide reasonable sums for mileage and subsistence for witnesses when convinced that justice requires it; (3) lectures and instructions should be given at least four times a year to all students in the seventh and subsequent grades of the public schools to teach respect for and obedience to law. The Crime Commission recommended that when counsel was provided for an indigent, the burden be placed on the taxpayers instead of the Bar Association. And it concurred that there should be a public defender system on a county basis instead of a judicial district basis.

Because the Commission was convinced that the services of a well equipped criminal laboratory staffed by trained and competent personnel was an effective tool in the war against crime, it recommended uniform basic requirements for laboratory personnel, better salaries, and that the chief technician be required to have a B.S. degree in Physical or Police Science and three years of practical experience.

The Crime Commission advocated a series of sweeping changes in the coroner system so that the coroner could examine bodies and impanel coroner's juries. There should be a school or training course for coroners.

In relation to drugs the Crime Commission proposed that strong action should be taken in the area of drug abuse to protect

teenagers through education and strict law enforcement. The final recommendation of the Crime Commission was to make the Crime Commission a permanent commission authorized and created by the legislature instead of a mere appointment by the governor without salary.

Evaluation

For Mississippi this was a sign of progress. Very few of these proposals will ever be implemented, but the mere fact that the Commission was able to present them is a good sign.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 228

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

There was a need for a study of this type. But there is no evidence that any of the data and recommendations of this Commission actually did improve law enforcement in Mississippi.



Grant # 231

Grantee: Fargo, North Dakota Police Department

Amount: \$14,963

Dates: September 1967 to August 1968

Purpose: To establish a planning and research unit to study organization, promotion, education, and police-community relations.

### Summary

The Administrator of the research unit was sent to Michigan State University for a two-week workshop in February 1968. Michigan State University assigned a consultant, Mr. Wayne Harnewics, to assist the Fargo Police Department research unit on the study of organization and control.

The consultant's report offered suggestions such as the establishment of a Central Records Bureau, but it did not disclose how this was to be accomplished.

The chief's report stated that the major goal of the research unit was the study of any problems of law enforcement referred by the chief to the Bureau. Generally, the purpose was to "upgrade the department, improve its efficiency, and increase its effectiveness."

A series of reports of surveys and studies by the research unit is attached to the report. They are:

1. The Harnewicz Report on Recommended Changes in Command and Control
2. Promotional Study
3. Study of Bicycle Thefts
4. Communication Tabulation form
5. Personnel Evaluation
6. Manpower study
7. Annual Report

Evaluation

Most of these reports ended with a set of recommendations that were still being studied by the police chief.

Although the research unit accomplished little that is startling in impact, it is a step in the right direction. Any organization needs a planning and research unit.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 231

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This project is likely to have very minimal impact on either the department or on the problem of crime. Someone should question whether small departments really can put to any substantial use a planning and research unit.

Grant #235

Grantee: Village of Edina, Minnesota.

Amount: \$52,770

Dates: July 1967 to June 1969

Purpose: To develop a system of random police car patrol to reduce response time and increase probability of prevention and apprehension.

Summary

Edina, a small community of 40,000 people with an area of approximately 16 square miles, located adjacent to Minneapolis, supported a police department of 38 members. Although small, this department could be considered rather modern and progressive because it had connections with the North Star Research and Development Institute, an independent scientific research organization which conducted scientific research into the physical, biological, social, and engineering sciences on a contract basis. North Star had permission to use the University of Minnesota's numerical analysis center's computer, Control Data CDC 6600.

The research project aimed to increase the effectiveness of the Edina Police Force by using scientific techniques in selecting patrol assignments for the radio cars. The first step in this project was to develop a series of patrol "blocks"

**CONTINUED**

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covering the entire village. These blocks were, ideally, exactly equal in "crime potential." Although they might be of different dimensions and probably different areas they would be determined on the basis of the history of requests for police services, as well as actual police operations and other factors constantly updated such as new residential, or road construction.

The report stated that according to probability theory, if the assignments of patrol cars to the patrol blocks were made on a purely random basis, then the time required for a police officer to respond to a call would be reduced to a minimum.

The program of research was divided into three phases: a study phase; an experimental phase; and an evaluation phase. The goal of phase one would be to develop a system to divide a community into the patrol blocks of equal crime potential and from this to develop a random system of patrol block selection. The experimental phase would be a full scale trial of the random patrol concept. The final phase would be a comparison of the results of the control group operating under traditional techniques and the random patrol group operating under the new allocation plan.

Assuming the mathematical and statistical validity of

the hypothesis that the purely random assignment would work for a minimum response time if all blocks were given exactly equal crime potential, then it was apparent that the primary problem here was to establish patrol blocks of equal crime potential. Its report stated: "the only practical method to determine crime potential was to analyze the police reports of past years, and classify each report for location, time, and date, and then to weigh each call on its seriousness. The reports should be evaluated for monthly or yearly trends, the changes in the community should be introduced into the classification system in some manner. Because of the many variables and quantity of data, the task of determining the areas of equal crime potential is staggering; without the use of modern data processing techniques, it would be impossible." The above quotation came from pp. 3-4 of the application. It was obvious that the problem was in the projection of the crime reports of the past year to the present year in order to determine the equal potential for crime in the patrol blocks.

The experimental stage of the program would be a comparison between radio cars that patrol in the conventional manner and the random patrol radio cars. The final phase would involve averaging time responses for all calls in the patrol area and the random patrol area and then comparing them. There were

some other tasks planned for the final phase. The first would be generalizing the random patrol technique to make it suitable for use by other cities. The second was the training of key personnel to continue the random patrol techniques without outside assistance. And the third was to publish the project results in police journals to give other police departments the benefit of the research. The above report was taken from an application for the grant, not a final report; therefore the final results are unknown.

#### Evaluation

This project had tremendous theoretical difficulties to overcome, especially in scientifically establishing the equipotential crime blocks. Even if it could be done, moreover, this would probably be inapplicable to any larger community where one traffic jam could throw off the fine theoretical approach that would only work in a near vacuum.

This grant provided a contrast to the Resource Allocation Project #39 of St. Louis. Recall that St. Louis developed and tested a model for incoming calls and SYMAPS for the actual and predicted occurrence of crime before considering alternate ways of allocating patrol units and beats.

It was claimed that limited experiments performed in 1961 in Edina showed that the number of burglaries in the



randomly patrolled areas during the period of experimentation dropped by 35%. As was noted in connection with the St. Louis study such figures of increases or decreases in crime may or may not be attributable to the techniques used for crime prevention. At the least, the context of the level of such crimes experienced by other areas in the community should be provided and discussed.

It was stated in the grant application that "the task of determining areas of equal crime potential is staggering..." but the grant application revealed little evidence that much thought had been given to this crucial first step. The application stated (pp. 3-4): "The only practical method to determine crime potential is to analyze the police reports of past years, and classify each report regarding location, time, and date, and then to weight each call on its seriousness. The reports should be evaluated for monthly or yearly trends, the changes in the community should be introduced into the classification system in some manner." It goes on to say, "A digital computer program should be developed that will permit evaluation of the vast amounts of data and provide the capability of continued updating to handle trends and changes in the system. Solution of the computer program will provide the necessary information to develop a series of

patrol areas that are equal in crime potential for a given period of time."

The crucial point of how the crime potential areas would actually be determined was not further developed. Actually, the idea of having equi-potential areas which had equal probabilities of being occupied by patrol units could probably be tried out in St. Louis since Pauly areas could be put together to form equi-potential areas. The contour version of SYMAP is similar in spirit. But by considering a dynamic model for incoming calls by Pauly area, and being able to do a good job of prediction, St. Louis was able to tackle the problem of designing patrol beats on the basis of the "fine structure" of the crime picture.

It would be most interesting to find out what progress was achieved by Project #235 during the two-year period of the grant.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 235

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
No.
2. Was the project innovative?  
Yes, as a theoretical exercise, not as a demonstration project.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Yes, in a negative way. It reinforced the feeling that theory and experiment were not valuable.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
No.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
No.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
No.
7. Remarks.  
Although it failed, OLEA was probably justified in taking the risk and funding the project.

Grant #236

Grantee: Detroit Police Department and Wayne State University

Amount: \$111,804

Dates: July 1967 to June 1968

Purpose: To demonstrate an operations research program with the analysis of the total department mission, resource allocation, and human factors in field operations and equipment utilization.

#### Summary

The first major project was the resource allocation program. To make it operational this project group restricted it to the system of receiving a call, the screening of calls by the police department, the dispatch of a patrol unit, the arrival of the unit at the scene, and concluding with the unit being available for another call. The purpose was to find out if they could improve radio car response to calls, and whether they could improve the screening process so that so many calls would not have to be answered by the radio cars.

In 1968 the Detroit Police Department recorded over 1,027,000 calls for assistance and 580,000 were responded to by advice or referral to other agencies. After analysis of the response function, the group found that police response means more than sending a radio car. It also includes the

giving of advice, the making of referrals, giving first aid, and investigating crime and so on. From this analysis it is apparent that if more responses could be shifted to the giving of advice rather than sending a radio car, a major reduction in the time spent and the difficulty of handling each call would be accomplished. (Note: Of the one million plus calls received above, only 166,000 or 16% of them were crime related.)

The test district of three precincts, 10, 11 and 12 was set up and within this district the additional information components of prediction areas (Pauly blocks) was added to the coding program. This is in reference to a computer study done by the St. Louis Police Department in which they used Pauly blocks for the development of a series of tracts with a great deal of police information attached to them.

The communications center was analyzed and found to be one of the most vital segments of the police department in that it had the potential of developing relevant information for analysis, planning, and control of departmental activity. Consequently, the development of the information base was made the top priority of the Detroit Police Department. Some of the specific objectives of the research were: 1) to reduce the departmental response time to a call for assistance; 2) to reduce the time that patrol cars were out of service on calls;

3) to provide alternate means of handling incidents other than the dispatch of a radio car; and 4) to improve the standard pattern of response among patrol cars.

The Detroit Police Department had a complaint desk which received calls for emergency assistance from any part of the city. Since it was called a complaint desk for immediate police action, the acronym for it was IMPACT BOARD. This board could stack calls and hold them waiting in case all officers at the switchboard were busy at the time the call arrived. The complaint desk sent a run ticket to the dispatcher who sent a radio car to answer the call.

Several possible solutions were suggested: The first was to increase the number of patrol cars. This was considered to be an unsatisfactory solution since there was no way of measuring the activity and efficiency of the patrols. The second was resource allocation which meant more efficient utilization of manpower through the analysis of the patrol's work load. The third was to reduce the number of runs. This was the one that they had been concentrating on by screening the calls and then sending cars only to the more important ones. During 1968, runs were reduced by 300,000 using this screening procedure. And the fourth solution was the increased ability to handle calls. This also called for a study to determine

the time required by the controls and the ways of shortening the time.

In order to develop an intelligent system of decision making, the project group felt that they initially had to develop a model of the whole department and a model of the dispatch system. In our opinion this model is somewhat too abstract and does not lend itself readily to reduction into practical and operational decisions. The view of the police department is that of a command control post requiring a command system to allocate resources, an information system for the allocation of resources, a supply of resources and a weapons system, and finally a system providing for the maintenance of services and supply to the other three systems.

In developing the department model they made several assumptions. The first is that the police department's position in organization and influence within the structure of the city government determines what the department can do and what it cannot do and also determines its goals. The second is that the police department has information which describes the systems being controlled and their environments. This information is represented in an image which determines what such a system can do or what is thought it can do. The third is that acceptance of these assumptions implies the existence of

problems. The main purpose of a command and control system (police department) is to identify and solve such problems. The fourth assumption is that the command control system (police department) is basically an information processing system.

Our opinion is that from these assumptions and from this model there is not much that any operational person or commanding officer could do to improve his system. The police departments already know that information is important and that it is wise to develop good records and good sources of information. The model here does not seem to help that purpose.

Another great area of operations improvement was the reporting and documentation project. Apparently, after going through the whole record system of the Detroit Police Department, they decided that there ought to be some changes. Modifications had to be instituted so that the forms could be more easily computerized. Another innovation planned was to have a plotter -- a man who plots the location of all radio cars so that when a call is received the dispatcher would know immediately what car is nearest the scene, and dispatch that one.

One other phase of the operations improvement project was to better the police radio car. In this respect there were a



few recommendations for the use of regular production model cars; small inexpensive items now available at little or no extra cost; items that require development; and items that would require future research.

The recommendations were as follows:

1. For those items that would take immediate effect, there should be the following items installed on the radio cars: winter snow tires, disk brakes, rear window defogger, outside rear view mirror on the right hand side, a disconnect dome, light door switch, remote control door lock, switch to turn off brake lights and back-up lights, a fire extinguisher in the trunk, disconnect door lock button from inside door handle.

2. Items that would require further development were a front seat area package which was based upon human engineering principles. The package would consist of a scientifically designed seat, a center console of a flashlight, ticket book, radio, reports, riot guns, hand spotlight, hot sheet, and a writing surface. There should also be a center overhead console of radio control, siren control, revolving light controls, an overhead bar with prisoner detention screen, and possibly a swing-away mike. This would be the patrolman's office. In addition, there would be a rechargeable spotlight

power steering, air conditioning, remote electronic control of traffic signals, push bumpers, plastic rain capes, and, because patrolmen usually do not use their seatbelts, restraining devices.

3. Areas of future research would call for new types of police vehicles, human engineering for police, roof package and data collection on police vehicles to achieve standard specifications to be used by police departments.

4. The possibility of a vehicular teleprinter project which would incorporate a variety of information including stolen and recovered cars, wanted persons, answers to inquiries, dispatch runs, and written messages.

As an experience, a mobile teleprinter was installed in two radio cars and used for 24 hours per day for 21 consecutive days. During this study period more than 5,000 messages were sent with an average error rate of .17 erros per 1,000 teleprinter functions. This error rate appeared to be acceptable for law enforcement needs. A questionnaire was distributed to the men in those cars. The patrolmen preferred the teleprinter information in special cases only, such as a thirty minute summary of stolen and recovered cars and also to print-out wanted persons, vehicles and describing incidents. Less than one-half of the officers indicated a desire to have all

teletype messages received by teleprinter. The storage of the teleprinter information was a problem as well. It could not be established that arrests were made on the basis of the teleprinter information. The conclusion to this part of the study was nebulous and indicated that more data was required.

The last part of the operations improvement project was to evaluate the effect of a portable radio carried by the police officer on patrol. The acronym is PREP for personal radio equipped police. Although this program was started in the fall of 1965, the project group decided to improve it. The changes proposed were to simplify the controls, to develop a belt clip for the radio, to develop a combination speaker-microphone-antenna, and the speaker-microphone attachment to the uniform.

Their original concept target was 99% transmission reliability in 90% of the city area. They did get 94% transmission efficiency in the area. Our criticism of this project is that the improvements were not very substantial or significant in the functioning of the Detroit Police Department. It was "human engineering" that seemed to forget policemen were also human.

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EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 236

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes, for the police.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. Which is more important, the machine or the human being?

7. Remarks.

This project became so involved in operations research that they forgot they were dealing with human beings. Their suggestions for changing radio cars totally ignores the human factor.

Grant #240 (See #80)

Grantee: Eastern Kentucky University, Richmond, Kentucky

Amount: \$14,993

Dates: 9/1/67 to 6/30/68

Purpose: Second stage funding of grant #80 to develop  
legislation for state-wide standards and training.

Grant #241 and #317

Grantee: Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Illinois

Amount: \$209,800

Dates: September 1967 to August 1968

Purpose: To develop a national training institute for correctional staff training officers, to prepare the material and workshops for correction, and to use trainees and graduate assistants in a 45-state program.

Summary

This was a continuation of grant No. 41 given to the Southern Illinois University at Carbondale in which it administered a pilot training program for correctional staff trainers (correctional teachers).

This was a nine-week program bringing together training officers from a number of mid-western states. Each one received instruction for seven weeks and then had a two week period in which they practiced teaching. From that experience the University learned how to improve the program and these grants were made in response to an application from the University for an improved institute. The new institute was an eight-week series. The first five weeks included small-team learning experiences and group lectures. There were to

be two weeks of practice teaching and one week during which administrators from the home institute or agency participated. Preparation was made for a total enrollment of 20. In addition, for several weeks two correctional officers from each parent institution were scheduled for attendance, and during the final week administrators from the home institution were present.

Three institutes were planned. The goals were to improve the training officer and to give him experience in teaching, coordinating, participating. A second effort was directed toward the middle and upper level management supervisor and administrator whose support and encouragement was necessary for a good training program, and a third was toward developing a pool of trained correctional officers.

The evaluation built into the project was in several forms. First was a critical analysis of each individual by fellow trainers and assessment by project staff and review by the operations analyst.

The mornings were devoted to learning, the afternoons were designated for laboratory sessions and to small group meetings in which the training officer participant met daily with a team leader who was a member of the Southern Illinois University faculty. Evenings were taken up by audio-visual



learning experiences and supplementary programs. The individual training officers were asked to keep an accurate record of their reaction to all phases of the entire program.

As time passed, the focus shifted mainly to the technology of lesson preparation. Each participant was required to prepare his material for a two-week training session in which he would perform as a teacher and actually develop his own teaching materials. In the last week when the administrators of the parent institutions were brought in, they listened to their training officers and observed them teaching. Each instructor was given a critique not only by fellow training officers, but also by his own administrators.

One unusual feature of this program was the incorporation of graduate students, later called research assistants, as aides to the program. They were chosen mainly from the Social Sciences, from the College of Education, the Rehabilitation Institute, the Design Department and the Department of Government in the Southern Illinois University. The research assistants performed various tasks, such as: developing training media, doing research in bibliography, teaching, scoring, and interpreting the evaluation instruments, acting as discussants, aiding in registration, serving as coordinators for conferences, and preparing written lecture notes and summaries.

A great mass of training material was developed. Each of the three institutes chose their best material and compiled it into a loose-leaf collection in three volumes entitled "Tools for Trainers." Volume I was entitled "Training Topics," Volume II "Resources for Training," and Volume III "Lesson Plans." This last contained more than a dozen lesson plans illustrative of the many approaches that might be useful in presenting subject matter in corrections.

In addition, the institutes developed two presentations of visual aid films, "Alternatives to Incarceration" and "The Development of Corrections," in a format of 100 slides which provided a visual summary of 200 years of changing patterns and programs in corrections.

Other procedures of the institute included: Designing and Developing the Training Unit, an illustrated manual teaching the training officer techniques of contingency reinforcement in correctional training; Project LEAP, a 16 mm. film focusing on training experiences in the series of institutes, and Readings in Training, a series of articles on correctional training.

To determine the effects of training institutes upon the participants a questionnaire developed by Thurstone was administered to measure the attitude change along a continuum from

punitiveness to rehabilitation. The score is the median of the scale values of all those items with which he agrees.

The project directors developed two hypotheses about the attitudes of the participants: 1) Training officers (students at the institute) as well as their correctional officer students were more punitive before they participated in the institute than after they had participated. In one institute there was a very small shift from punitiveness toward rehabilitation. The first hypothesis was not supported by the data. 2) The second hypothesis was that correctional officers were more punitive than training officers. Even here this hypotheses was not clearly supported. In explanation of the failure of the two hypotheses, the project report states that these were carefully selected men and self-selected men who came to the institute with attitudes that were already developed toward rehabilitation and therefore would not show much change as a result of an eight-week institute.

Note to the above: The training officers practiced their technique of teaching with a class composed of students who were correctional officers sent for that purpose from many institutions. The psychological tests to measure change of attitude were administered before and after they participated in the institute.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 241 and #317

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

In some ways.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Very slight.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The project lost some force and value by attempting to do too much.

Grant #242

Grantee: School of Police Administration and Public Safety,

Michigan State University

Amount: \$126,929

Dates: September 1967 to August 1968

Purpose: Assistance to medium-sized midwestern police agencies in eleven states in planning and research: consultative services, four training workshops with 15-20 departments in each, and field placement of eight interns.

Summary

In an effort to stimulate interest in police planning and research and to aid in the development of such activities in medium-sized midwestern police agencies, the School of Police Administration and Public Safety, Michigan State University, undertook a program of consultation, direct assistance, and training.

Some eighty eligible police agencies in eleven midwestern states were invited to participate, and over forty departments expressed an interest in doing so. A staff member was then dispatched to each of these organizations to ascertain their needs, and where appropriate, to arrange for their participation. During these site visits staff members also attempted to provide the consultative advice deemed necessary for the development of sound planning and

research programs. Such stays became routine over the period of the grant, and topics such as the nature and structure of the planning and research function, staffing, the selection of trainees, the techniques of planning and research and priorities for departmental planning were commonly discussed.

The second phase of the program was training. Early in the grant, a planning session was held at the School. Further, during November and December, 1967, various staff members made field trips to obtain appropriate training materials. These efforts, along with continuous staff activity, resulted in the development of a two-week course entitled "The Techniques of Planning and Research." This course was twice offered by the School in Lansing, Michigan on February 12-23, 1968 and April 1-12, 1968. A total of forty individuals from 36 jurisdictions attended these offerings.

After experiencing an extended delay due to a number of administrative problems, the direct assistance phase of the program was initiated in February, 1968. This activity assumed a very specific form. Graduate student interns were assigned to police agencies to and in the completion of specific planning and research projects. By September,

sixteen cities in ten states had received assistance for extended periods of time. The assignments varied in length from one week to two and one-half months and the interns dealt with such issues as manpower deployment, the development of departmental manuals, and general organizational analysis.

As part of the staff's overall incultative and training missions, a series of "Planning and Research Training Bulletins" were prepared during the summer of 1968. Copies were distributed to all participating agencies in August.

#### Evaluation

The project was a qualified success and possibly a qualified failure. The efforts at change obviously resulted in a visible realignment of municipal police management in a number of jurisdictions. Quantitatively, more medium-sized midwestern police agencies have either initiated new planning and research programs, or improved existing programs. A limited number of individuals received skills training in planning and research, and they will certainly condition the state of the art. Further, the staff observed several organizations which aggressively grasped this opportunity and adopted positive and progressive planning and research programs. These departments have taken advantage of every

phase of the project, and there is no doubt that many of their recent administrative innovations are a direct product of this effort.

Against this, too few departments performed in this manner. Development in the majority of participating departments was spotty and some thirty-odd eligible organizations exercised their option to not participate at all.

Only 36 jurisdictions of the possible 80 attended the training sessions.

Finally a close reading of the report shows that only 16 cities or 16 police departments were willing to cooperate out of the possible 80. This is a very low proportion of 20%. It may be that departments resented brash young graduate assistants telling old-time police officers what to do.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 242

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Only in part.

2. Was the project innovative?

Not the way it developed.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

A little for the police.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The project started out fairly well but somewhere it lost momentum and ended without attaining any important success.

Grant #243 (See #117)

Grantee: Lorain County Community College, Lorain, Ohio

Amount: \$24,926

Dates: 9/1/67 to 6/30/68

Purpose: Second stage funding of grant #117 for first year  
operation of degree program.

Grant #244 (See #77)

Grantee: Richmond Professional Institute, Richmond, Virginia

Amount: \$25,000

Dates: 9/1/67 to 8/31/68

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #77 for 1st-year  
operation of degree program.

Grant #245 (see #58)

Grantee: University System of Georgia

Amount: \$75,000

Dates: 9/1/67 to 8/31/68

Purpose: Second stage funding of grant #58 for first year  
operation of degree program.

Grant #247 (See #120)

Grantee: Rider College, Trenton, New Jersey

Amount: \$17,626

Dates: 9/1/67 to 6/30/68

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #120 for first year  
operation of degree program.

Grant #248 (See #57)

Grantee: Memphis State University

Amount: \$24,964

Dates: 9/1/67 to 8/31/68

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #57 for 1st-year  
operation of degree program.

Grant #249 (See #105)

Grantee: University of Nevada at Reno

Amount: \$22,360

Dates: 9/1/67 to 6/30/68

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #105 for first  
year operations.

Grant # 250 (See #78)

Grantee: University of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii

Amount: \$75,000

Dates: 9/1/67 to 8/31/68

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #78 for first year  
operation of degree program.



Grant #251 (See #111)

Grantee: University of Iowa, Iowa City

Amount: \$21,680

Dates: 3/15/68 to 3/14/69

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #122 for 1st-year  
operation of degree program.

Grant #252 (See #59)

Grantee: Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Amount: \$24,998

Dates: 9/1/67 to 8/31/68

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #59 for 1st-year  
operation of degree program.

Grant #255

Grantee: Peoria Police Department, Peoria, Illinois

Amount: \$ 14,997

Dates: October 1967 to September 1968

Purpose: To establish a planning and research unit to study crowd control policies, records and communication; implementation of National Crime Commission Report.

Summary

The planning and research unit was directly responsible to the Superintendent of Police and the Director of Public Safety in the chain of command. The staff consisted of a full-time coordinator, an assistant, and several part-time personnel.

The office was established with the goal to absorb some of the work of the administrative offices in the area of planning and research. Planning and research was considered a "two-way street"-- the unit submitted suggestions for the department's acceptance and the department referred special problems to the unit. Having cooperation from department personnel, especially command officers, was very important for the unit's success.

The planning and research functions were:

1. to effect methods and formulate plans which when placed into practical use, would stimulate and promote individual professionalism among department personnel.
2. to present theoretical and scientific data to department administrators to raise the general level of department competency.
3. while considering ways to up-grade the department, plans would also be geared to the citizens of the city.

Some of the included duties were policy and procedure review; preparation of manuals, directives and other publications; gathering statistics; establishing training methods; and compiling and

insuring the accuracy of the budget, etc.

Other officers cooperated: the City of Peoria Planning Office supplied large amounts of statistical data and maps. Contact with these offices and agencies created valuable mutual relationships.

Because program study was a major job, the city established a new office in the City Hall. The inter-Government Affairs Officer in charge was to become aware of the needs of the various agencies and to know the relevant state and federal programs to meet the needs. If a program was undertaken, he, as Inter-Government Coordinator, was responsible for communications between the granter and grantee. He also helped maintain favorable working relationships among the involved officers. This was one example of the city's cooperation in meeting the goals.

Goal 1: was to review crowd control policies: knowledge, training, and planning.

Planning should realize the differences among various group disturbances and planning and research should guide decisions about the extent of force and equipment to be used. As the President's Commission noted, the tactics chosen at the beginning might well be the crucial factor in riot control.

Project 1: The planning and research unit initiated plans and procedures to be used in different collective disorders.

Meetings were scheduled with agencies that could be affected by various types of disturbances. Other meetings were held to get the aid of agencies that could help in some of these disturbances. Plans were made so that Public Utilities would be protected in times of public disturbance. Personnel was also receiving training in riot prevention and control.

Goal 2: was to study the present system of records and communications to determine efficiency and possibilities of coordination and pooling of certain of these services.

Considerations were the involved relevance of data supplied, use of IBM etc., and the possibility of integrating communications network with the reporting system and the system of statistics.

Planning and research could suggest ways to coordinate some of the department's records and identifications and communications functions with those of the area's small police forces. An improved metropolitan "crime bulletin" might be useful.

Project 1: New Radio Dispatch Card

A "Communications Division Complaint Form" replaced the old "Radio Dispatch Card," after the planning and research unit studied forms of other police departments. The new form had a list of "activity categories." Each duty a patrolling officer performed in a day was checked on the form whose limited categories were adequate for its function.

The "Communications Division Complaint Form" recorded details of a call requesting service. This form was presented to the radio dispatcher so that a police cruiser could get the information. The radio dispatcher recorded (checking the appropriate activity category) the transmissions it received from a police vehicle. This form was easily filled out and designed to include necessary information.

Project 2: Study of Various Types of Report Forms

The block-type format was considered the most useful. Spaces were left for specific, asked for, information. There was no room for supplemental, narrative information. Special attention was given to a form which had in the same general location, the information needed by the records division so that the data would be relatively

easy to extract for the Records and Identification Division case files.

The coordinator visited various other departments to study their forms.

Some areas to be considered were:

- (1) report production,
- (2) choosing and designing report forms to contain information of value to several offices, and
- (3) determining the number of different types of report forms necessary to be accurate, complete and concise.

Goal 3: was to analyze office procedures, paper flow, etc. to determine ways to simplify work, improve flow of important information and coordination with other departments of city government.

Project 1: Operation "Crime Check"

This new system encouraged citizens to offer information spontaneously that would be useful to the police department. Recruited citizens received "Operation Crime Check" identification cards which explained how to properly report a crime. The phone number they used was available only to crime check people. It was a direct line to the complaint officer and calls might remain anonymous although names were preferred. As a result of the program more specific relevant information was received.

Project 2: Multi-Purpose Intra-Department Communication Form -- designed and adapted.

These forms could be used as a directive, memorandum or any other type of communication by checking the category. The forms had serial numbers so that they were individualized and readily accessible.

Goal 4: was to disseminate procedural directives governing department commanding personnel in dealing with certain problems. The PCR prepared the directives and had them approved by the Superintendent of Police.

Goal 5: was to assess the remaining problems resulting from the political annexation of 20 square miles to the existing fifteen and the increase of population from 103,000 to 130,000.

Project 1: To use census data to scientifically distribute and deploy officers to police districts on the basis of need.

Considerations were:

- (1) employment status of people in district,
- (2) population of each police district,
- (3) average education level,
- (4) economic status, and
- (5) general living conditions.

It was conceivable that the planning and research unit would arrange to change police district boundaries so that they would coincide with the Census Tracts. This would help to make the census information more useful.

Project 2: A comprehensive manpower survey was completed to see the adequacy of the present manpower in coping with increasing crime and meeting community demand. Data processing facilities and a data-processing consultant were utilized.

In order to speculate about future manpower needs a time survey was recorded by each officer -- a "Daily Activity Sheet" -- to help discover whether each officer spent his time wisely and advantageously and whether he was assigned where he was needed most.

The study revealed that the officers were spending their time advantageously. It was realized that the men could be reassigned more advantageously, and officers were assigned to those hours which showed the greatest need for coverage. Other questions about the relevancy and adequacy of job position and number of officers in the position were answered by other data. "Response Time", the amount of time required for an officer to arrive at the home of a caller, was taken into consideration.

As a result some changes were made, for example, more officers were transferred to on the street duty, the number of supervisory personnel was increased, and there was an addition of more civilian police operators.

In presenting the report to the City Council, visual aides were used most effectively. The visual aides appeared later as pictures in the newspaper. The Council voted unanimously to authorize funds for all the planning and research unit's requests.

Goal 6: was to focus on some of the President's Commission's general observations and recommend implementation technique to the superintendent.

Project 1: Certain ordinances extracted from the Code of Peoria and arranged in manual form so as to be readily available for reference purposes were distributed to encourage individual professionalism as the officer became aware of them. The manual would be used later as instructional material during in-service training programs.

Project 2: Report-writing guide sheets were distributed to personnel. Pamphlets suggested methods for describing a comprehensive investigation.

Project 3: Publications by the planning and research unit.

The Manual of Classifications, for example, described the categories and classifications used in department reports. It would help establish uniformity in classification, cut down in time spent correcting incorrect reports, and be useful to officers as they filled out their reports. The manual would later be useful in training new officers.

Another publication for officers was the the "Table of Laws Relating to Motor Vehicles--City and State." This could be



used as a training manual and as a reference source.

Goal 7: was to study the physical facilities of the police headquarters to determine proper usage, adequacy and long-range needs.

Project 1: It was found there was a shortage of floor space necessary to accommodate employees and equipment. The City Council accepted a bid to improve the facility by adding room. The planning and research unit helped determine the actual needs.

Goal 8: was to study the advantages and disadvantages of using female personnel. Not enough time was given to this goal.

Goal 9: was to revise the 10-year old department Manual of Rules.

Project 1: A new manual was being undertaken by the key people in the whole department to state departmental regulations and procedures and to establish the degree of performance expected. Other department manuals were being studied. Suggestions were being taken from the officers. The manual would be in looseleaf form so that it could be revised if necessary.

Goal 10: was to survey the role and performance of the police department under the Illinois Juvenile Court Act - January 1, 1966.

In the grant period no work was completed on this goal. However, in the near future a member of the planning and research staff would be a part of the newly formed Planning Commission which would apply for money under the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act. If assistance was granted, the Commission expected to research the relationship between the courts and the police department.

Recommendations:

- 1) The police department should consider using civilian personnel for intersection traffic control in order to free other officers.

(A City Traffic Engineer should be consulted.)

- 2) Completion of the manual to be given priority. When it is completed,

classes should be held to familiarize employees with its contents.

- 3) The establishment of a Central Inventory System to more efficiently account for the physical properties of the police department.
- 4) The establishment of a new reporting system.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 255

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not much.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was a typical planning and research unit, hard working, unimaginative, and dependable. The unit put out a mass of work, most of it probably ignored by the chief.

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(PART E)

Grant #256

Grantee: South Carolina Department of Corrections

Amount: \$42,977

Dates: September 1967 to August 1968

Purpose: To bring professional training material to 250 correctional officers via the South Carolina Educational Television Center.

Summary

Tape I, Inmate Personality, aimed to teach the student how to recognize and identify various sociological, psychological types of inmates. The officer should accept the criminal as an individual. The officer's daily contact with inmates was the most important part of their rehabilitation.

Tape II, Officer-Inmate Relationship, had as its objective to summarize the dangers officers should guard against inmate relationships that might cause the officers to be ineffective. The film showed in historical perspective the change in role from guard to corrections officer. In the modern prison, the correctional officers' role includes responsibility for treatment and custody. The film script stressed that although rehabilitation is the goal, custody is still required. Consistent fair treatment and adherence to rules will prevent informal and formal relationships from being contradictory. The granting of special favors has a negative effect in the long run.

In order to have the prison simulate the conditions inmates will face after release, regimentation should be kept at a minimum. The relationship with prison staff should be like relationship to the outside. The primary thought should be to maintain security and control and to assist the inmate in preparing for the day he will again be free.

The purpose of Tape III was to teach the student to know the fundamental purposes of counseling and to be able to use basic techniques in a counseling situation including rapport and empathy. It stated that an effective officer should be friendly, concerned, firm, and fair. It described how the officers could give orders, supervise work, administer reprimands and offer guidance without antagonism or resentment.

The emphasis was on security, custody, and control in Tape IV. It aimed to teach the officer the importance of proper custodial procedures and how custody was in itself a rehabilitative factor. Shakedown, search, and precautionary procedures with supervision and transporting of inmates were included on the tape.

In the comparison of maximum, medium, and minimum security, control proved to be most difficult in maximum security. There seemed to be opportunity for establishment of good officer-inmate relationship in medium security. The control in minimum security was more relaxed.

Tape V offered a review of the previous four.

#### Evaluation

The final narrative report of Project View and Do reads like a manual. It would have been interesting to find out how this training material influenced the 250 correctional officers who viewed the tapes. It was mentioned that a test or control group would be selected, both groups to be pre-tested on subject material and then post-tested. Test groups would be taught subject material using conventional methods. No place in this study evaluated test scores, or the effectiveness of the teaching method. There was also mention made of training officers, who

were to view each tape, review tape objectives and provide instruction. There was also to be workbook instruction and follow-up classroom work. No comments were made in the final narrative report on how these techniques were applied.

Naturally, the taped material was of educational value, but the tapes in summary appeared as a lecture series or syllabus of instruction. There was no indication of how this material was conveyed to the group of correctional officers. How did the correctional officers react to the tapes? Was there any discussion? Project View and Do required more emphasis on the View and Do. It was wishful thinking to expect significant change from a passive viewing of educational tapes.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 256

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The project seemed interesting and potentially influential. But, again, there is little concrete feedback to determine what its influences were, if any.



Grant #257

Grantee: Pennsylvania Board of Probation and Parole

Amount: \$63,042

Dates: August 1967 to November 1968

Purpose: Resocialization of the paroled non-aggressive  
predatory offender.

Summary

Offense group of Burglary-Larceny-Robbery-Forgery revealed the highest recidivistic rates for commission of same type of crime.

The duration of the project was fifteen months:

- 1 month -- general orientation of personnel; and
- 12-month demonstration period which consisted of  
intensive supervision and accumulation of  
resource data, and writing of final report;
- 2 months following termination analysis of data.

There was an Action-Research program to determine if intensive supervision in conjunction with specialized programs could be effective in changing the failure rate of the paroled non-aggressive predatory offender. The project was designed to demonstrate that:

1. Intensive and specialized supervision technique could be effective in changing parole failure rates,
2. The use of community facilities and special services would produce a higher degree of rehabilitation,

3. Certain dynamics of individual and group behavior could be isolated, studied, and utilized in parole process.

The treatment and control group were randomly selected and drawn from the total population of 144 parolees and special probation cases. The site for the implementation of the project was the Allentown District Office of Pennsylvania Board of Probation-Parole.

Total Approach of Demonstration Project

1. Parole Agents: Each agent was to have a caseload of fewer than 30 parolees and probationers to maintain intensive supervision and surveillance; He would look for and interpret various behavior characteristics; He would take positive preventive action when signs noted; He would develop a more positive belief in prevention and treatment and utilization of specialized services immediately available within design of project.

2. A psychiatrist (director of the project) and a psychologist were assigned to the project.

3. Live-in facilities, a place to help parolee adjust to society, employed rehabilitated individuals as directors and counselors.

4. Non-psychiatric group sessions.

During the course of the project a tremendous amount of data was accumulated and evaluated, 15,000 pieces of information

were gathered. At present a research team is continuing to evaluate the data.

Tentative Conclusions from the Project

1. Small case loads did not necessarily reduce recidivism.
2. Increased use of psychiatric, psychological, and community services did not give statistical evidence of reduction in recidivism.
3. Treatment group differed from control group in important background variables that had the potentiality of influencing the overall results of the project. Background variables definitely play an important role in success or failure of parolees.
4. There was a greater amount of recidivism in treatment group.
5. Control group had fewer offenses than treatment group.
6. There were more technical violations in treatment group.
7. Group therapy session aided in reduction of recidivism during therapy, but not necessarily following termination of therapy sessions.
8. A continual record of debt payment was significant in successful maintenance of parole. All agents should be instructed in finances and economics so that they could instruct parolees in their striving for financial solvency.

9. An important finding was that the unreality of parole rules as presently conceived and enforced did little to rehabilitate a parolee and might actually contribute to his recidivism.

10. If an individual was considered safe to live in society, such living should be under the rules and mores presently accepted. Any rules, regulations foreign to society in which parolee will live and work will create antagonism, loss of self respect, and create anxiety and rebellion leading to commission of technical violations and new crimes.

#### Evaluation

Although most of the hypotheses were disproved, this study was of value:

1. A vast amount of information concerning parolees previously believed to be true was shown to be highly questionable.

2. Specific information on "How to Initiate a Resocialization Project" might be of use to other resource individuals. The forms and procedures utilized in the project were available to others, i.e., research schedules, special report forms, detailed descriptions of the duties of all concerned with project, and special procedures for conducting the valuable non-psychiatric group counseling sessions.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 257

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
No.
2. Was the project innovative?  
Yes.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Yes. Except that it failed.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
No.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
Yes, as a model of design.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
Yes, many in the field of probation and parole.
7. Remarks.  
Although this project failed to attain its goal, it was a fine project that raises many questions for future research.

Grant #259

Grantee: Governmental Research Center of the University of Kansas  
Lawrence, Kansas

Amount: \$143,538

Dates: August 1967 to July 1969

Purpose: To formulate and implement a state-wide system of instruction and training to help meet the needs of Kansas law enforcement agencies at all levels, and to expand those training programs already in existence.

Summary

The program aimed to determine through research, professional inquiry, and personal contact, what type and scope of law enforcement training was required to provide the people of Kansas with the desired level of law enforcement protection. It planned to formulate and promulgate a series of training curricula that would realize the desired training objectives, and to obtain a professional staff to administer the training program; to actually provide the program of training to the maximumly feasible number of law enforcement personnel, at an adequate professional training site; and, as its final objective, it would evaluate the results of the training program in terms of achieved goals, needed improvement, and practical applicability.

During 1968 the Center staff conducted three Basic Police Training Schools of 120 hours each. The courses were: general law enforcement subjects, police skills and procedures, and legal issues. Representatives of law enforcement agencies taught the scope of their respective jurisdiction, courses in behavioral studies and problems faced by police officers in dealing with people, first aid, marksmanship training, and law enforcement code of ethics. Day time instruction was supplemented by night classes. Use was made of training films, practice sessions, small group discussions in a "live-in" school situation.

The Administrator Training Program consisted of three seminars on police administration subjects. The content of these seminars was geared toward chief administrators, commanding officers, and line supervisory personnel. A three-day riot control seminar included a forum on Police-Press Relations. The Police Management School emphasized police organization, planning, budgeting, and community relations. Administrative personnel attended and participated in panel discussions, individual conferences, and small group discussions. The third program presented for police administrative officials stressed personnel problems, recruiting, control and inspection, community relations in "Police Administration Seminar."

A two-week course for School for Police Supervisors, with 70 hours of classroom instruction covered the entire scope of the duties and responsibilities of the typical police supervisor, and emphasized communications. In-service training courses were conducted throughout the year.

The School of Criminal Investigation included crimes against persons and crimes against property. The Traffic Investigation School included classes in traffic investigation, hit and run accidents, methods of traffic enforcement, safety precautions in highway engineering, traffic records, and uniform traffic code.

The Sheriffs Orientation School was an 80-hour course which stressed budgeting, bookkeeping, personnel management, administrative procedures, civil processes.

An evaluation questionnaire was used for each training school to evaluate officers' reactions to specific programs, to determine the degree of efficiency and performance of the instructors, to determine the effectiveness of the training as measured by the

trainee, and to determine ways in which to improve the overall training program. Field interviews with the immediate supervisors of graduates of the schools were employed to ascertain the needs and results of the police training program.

Professional program planning committees drew up curricula for the schools. The committees were authorities in various phases of law enforcement.

Guest speakers were outstanding in legal profession, sociology, psychology, and anthropology.

Mandatory training legislation was passed in July 1969. All law enforcement officers employed after July 1, 1969 would be required to complete a 120-hour law enforcement basic training course to be conducted by the governmental research Center of the University of Kansas. The courses offered in the basic police schools would be of value in the planning and administration of the training course for recruits.

#### Evaluation

During the period of the grant it was unfortunate that larger groups of officers were unable to participate in the Basic Police Schools, since there had been such a lack of training in Kansas to that point.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 259

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes, in Kansas.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The level of training in Kansas was so low that the project filled a great need. In absolute terms a recruit training course of 120 hours is too short.

Grant #263

Grantee: Arkansas Law Enforcement Officers Association

Amount: 13,622

Dates: October 1967 to April 1968

Purpose: To establish a State Law Enforcement Standards and Training Commission and to prepare legislation for a state-wide system of recruiting and training police officers.

Summary

Apparently, the grantee acted in place of a State Commission. It surveyed the system of law enforcement in Arkansas and found that the 4,000 law enforcement officers in Arkansas had a very poor image, low salary scale, and little job security. Arkansas had about one-half the police manpower strength of the average system in the United States.

The grantee sent out proposals for a model training act as recommended by the President's Crime Commission. The Arkansas Association of Chiefs of Police considered the standards too high, so they were modified.

The standards for appointment as a police officer suggested by the grantee were:

Age: 21 minimum

Weight: 160 minimum

Height: 6'6" maximum

Education: High school or equivalency diploma  
and an IQ of 100.

Good moral character

The training program for the police was set at 150 hours rather than the 400 hours recommended by the Presidential Crime Commission.

The bill was prepared for the legislature and it would have made these standards mandatory. However, it was rejected and a substitute bill making compliance voluntary was submitted. Theoretically there will be incentives to induce compliance.

The act also contained a section establishing a Law Enforcement Standards and Training Council.

It is not clear from the report whether or not the act was passed.

This grantee received further funding under grant #365 to continue its program. However, we did not receive the final report on that grant. The comments made on other Standards Commissions are applicable here. Unless the standards are made mandatory there will be little improvement outside the major cities.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 263

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. The question of how much political control affects the level of the police.

7. Remarks.

State standards without legislation making the standards mandatory are rather useless.

Grant #264 (See #36)

Grantee: United Planning Organization, Washington, D.C.

Amount: \$84,991

Dates: Supplements Grant #264 ending 9/30/68.

Purpose: Establishment of Citizens Information Service,  
providing screening, referral, and follow-up services  
to people with domestic, social, legal, and financial  
problems formerly taken to U.S. Attorney's Office.

Grant #269 (See #112)

Grantee: Jefferson State Junior College, Birmingham, Alabama

Amount: \$22,791

Dates: 10/1/67 to 9/30/68

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #112 for first  
year operation of degree program.

Grant #270

Grantee: University of Arkansas Law School, Fayetteville, Arkansas

Amount: \$53,335

Dates: November 1967 to April 1969

Purpose: To develop an instructors' manual and handbook of criminal procedure for instruction of and study by police officers. The focus was to help small metropolitan and rural police departments.

Summary

The aim of the authors was properly circumscribed and restricted to topics that might prove useful in day to day procedural problems. The author was a U.S. Attorney, a defense attorney, and a law professor. He consulted with police and court officials and was assisted by a staff of consultants. The manual would be distributed to all Arkansas police officers. A monthly newsletter would be published giving highlights of important cases and legislation. An important offshoot of this project was the establishment of a Criminal Procedure Institute at the University of Arkansas by the Arkansas General Assembly.

The following areas of criminal law and procedure were covered:

1. Pre-trial Publicity
2. Preservation of Demonstrative Evidence
3. Entrapment
4. The Law of Arrest
5. Stop and Frisk
6. The Miranda Warnings
7. Search Warrants
8. Search of Vehicles

9. Search and Seizure
10. Line Up Procedures
11. Police Report Writing
12. Bail Procedure

### Evaluation

This manual filled the need for a dependable, concise guide to legal questions that might arise in the course of a police officer's daily work. For this limited purpose, it was very good. However, the chapter on the Law of Arrest illustrated one of the drawbacks that was inherent in manuals of this type. There were 183 footnotes in the 60-page chapter. Many of them came after a short statement such as:

"Courts will not protest officers who execute legal warrants in an unreasonable manner." 166 (p. 111 of report)

". . . consent for a search is freely given, such consent is a complete defense." 169 (p. 112 of report)

In the above quotations the crux was the word unreasonable in the first and freely given in the second. Volumes could be written illustrating and interpreting the pitfalls in the application of these words to specific police incidents. There was very little of such vital material offered in the book.

To balance this presentation which was weighted toward a legal interpretation the instructor should have not only a wide knowledge of the case law on the subjects taught, but he should have police experience himself. In lieu of that, he might team with an instructor who was a policeman. Only then could the law be translated into case histories that would have impact upon a class of policemen.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 270

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Only in part.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

A legal handbook is of some value but not very much. Policemen do not have the opportunity to refer to it when they are involved in serious incidents.

Grant #272

Grantee: Governor's Commission on Crime and Justice,  
Atlanta, Georgia

Amount: \$25,000

Dates: November 1967 to October 1968

Purpose: The Commission would research, analyze, and develop a comprehensive course of action for improved law enforcement and criminal justice administration in the state of Georgia.

Summary

The Governor's Commission on Crime and Justice was created by executive order of Governor Maddox on July 7, 1967. The goal of the Commission was to evaluate existing policies and programs in crime detection and prevention and control, pardon and parole and correction, at all levels of government.

Five general committees were set up: one on crime and needed legislation; one on law enforcement; one on juvenile delinquency; one on courts probations, pardon, parole and correction; and one on alcoholism and dangerous drugs. Surveys in the state of Georgia were made, and recommendations were made to handle the problems which appeared.

It is interesting that the Commission was concerned with liquor laws in Georgia, especially the Revenue Tax Act of 1937 and 1938 which allowed the citizens of a county to determine whether liquor would be sold or not in the county. Georgia is a mixture of wet counties where liquor is permitted to be sold and dry counties where it is prohibited. Thirty of the 159 counties in Georgia are wet, and they contain 38% of the civilian population. The remaining 121 counties are dry. The consumption of liquor is approximately 2 1/2 times the average for the United

States, and from their calculations the Commission determined that the dry counties consumed twice as much liquor as the wet counties. The problem of illicit moonshiners was a big one in Georgia. Georgia was the biggest producer of moonshine in the country. Thirty-one percent of the illicit distilleries in the southeast were in Georgia. This created loss of revenue, corruption of officials, and a serious law enforcement problem. It is also to be noted that approximately one-third of all crimes in the United States are connected with alcoholism. This probably is related to the rise of the Georgia crime rate which has increased 89% since 1960 with only a 10% increase in population.

The recommendations were not only for the problem of liquor, but also for crime in general. The main one was that there should be a central criminal and statistical information center and that all departments should be required to report statistics to it. The Commission also proposed that the budget be implemented for a Department of Public Safety in the state, that a single fingerprint system be established for the State of Georgia, that there be a merger among the 528 local, county, and sheriff, law enforcement agencies to occur upon the favorable referendum of the communities involved.

With respect to law enforcement the Commission found that a very small percentage of Georgia law enforcement agencies kept adequate records and few submitted statistics on arrest to the FBI. Lack of funds was a primary problem, and perhaps more than anything else this was a deterrent to the development of better facilities and better training programs.

The personnel in law enforcement had an average of five

years of service and an average educational achievement of 11.3 years, the average age was 37.3 years. Law enforcement salaries were too low, and did not reflect the cost of living in the area served by the Department. In most agencies there were no formal criteria for promotion of officers. Only a small percentage of law enforcement agencies participated in any training and there was a high rate of turnover in law enforcement agencies. The Commission also found and recommended that there be a public relations program for the police to improve the image of, and elevate the public esteem for, the police officer, and there should be continual indoctrination and training of personnel along these lines. There should be emphasis on contacts with youth of the community, between youth and the police especially.

The second problem was police personnel security for which it required an internal investigation unit in medium and large sized departments to make sure that the men did not take graft and become corrupt. The state crime laboratory should be improved and utilized. A Ph.D. should become the ultimate assistant director of the laboratory. There should be psychologists and criminalists employed to help with the work of the laboratory to enable the laboratory to expand and to establish two more branches within the state. An important recommendation was that a central department of justice be established to supervise and coordinate the state's 528 separate police agencies.

The Commission took a look at the juvenile courts in Georgia and found them to be unsatisfactory in general, a patchwork with overlapping service and poor communication. It recommended the enactment of a uniform juvenile court act to centralize procedures. It proposed also a state system of juvenile probation

to guarantee uniform standards and strengthen services. It wanted the program to reduce unemployment, to provide employment for youth, to implement the kindergarten program, and to reduce dropouts. To do this, the Commission suggested a 12-month school system which would help reduce juvenile delinquency. It advocated, in addition, that the state school introduce courses on social studies starting with the first grade and include the value of law and the effect on the citizen. High schools should have a program for educating the students in crime and its punishment. The Commission recommended that state regional detention centers and local detention centers should be provided staff and resources to extend diagnostic and social services for children, and finally there should be half-way houses and group homes for children.

The picture in the court system in Georgia was equally poor. There was no supervisory administrative power in the highest appellate court. There was no program of training or standards for recruitment, promotion, or compensation of court personnel. There was no statistical data bank to provide facts. Therefore, it proposed the unification of all courts into one judicial department with administrative control over circuit and state levels. It was of the opinion that sentencing by jury in non-capital cases, which was practised in Georgia, ought to be abolished and that there should be regular judicial institutes at which judges met to discuss sentencing standards. It recommended that a way be established for a defendant to appeal an excessive sentence. The Commission also advocated that immunity be granted to witnesses to assure that they would testify. Pertaining to

the courts, the Commission suggested that: 1.) Bail Reform statutes patterned after the Manhattan Bail Project (Vera) be instituted and passed by the legislature, 2.) an increase of 25 probation and parole officers, and 3.) the State Board of Pardon and Parole be merged with the State Board of Probation.

For prisons the recommendations were that: 1.) the State Board of Corrections be changed into an advisory body only and that the Director of the State Department of Corrections be given complete authority for the departmental operations; 2.) there would be a professional staffing of the reception and diagnostic center; 3.) there would be a classification of offenders; 4.) there should be a review of the procedure for awarding good time to prisoners; 5.) there should be a relentless upgrading of staff through recruitment, training, and evaluation; 6.) education and vocational training should be given.

The Commission devoted a large amount of thought to the problem of alcoholism which was, as mentioned above, such a serious problem in Georgia, accounting for more than half the arrests a year. Recommendations were that: 1.) there should be programs to treat alcoholics as sick persons rather than criminals; 2.) laws should be changed so that drunkenness itself would not be a criminal offense; 3.) there should be educational programs for the prevention, treatment, and control of alcoholism; and 4.) there should be an increase in professional persons and agencies for treating and rehabilitating alcoholics.

The drug problem was not so important in Georgia, but it proposed that there be an educational program, especially in high schools to warn young people about the dangers of drugs, and that police and law enforcement officers in Georgia be sent to a training school on narcotics.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 272

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Only in part.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

A little.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes.

7. Remarks.

It was a survey that spotlighted the many problems of crime and criminal justice in Georgia. However it did not accomplish the second phase of improving the system.

Grant #275

Grantee: Alachua County Sheriff's Office, Gainesville, Florida

Amount: \$44,569

Dates: November 1967 to October 1968

Purpose: Inmate and Community Services unit for juveniles and adults in county jail.

Summary

Counseling and guidance by professional workers academically prepared; seven Florida University graduate students saw two inmates twice a week. Thirty-three inmates were seen for an average of seven interviews. There would be questionnaire studies of those receiving counseling and a comparison would be made between them and a control group not receiving counseling. No evaluation has been received. Report concluded that objectives were attained, but this seems doubtful since there was no real evaluation.

Basic education remedial instruction -- a continuation of school for juvenile inmates was not yet started. There was some remedial instruction through cooperation of Santa Fe Junior College - classes in civics and American history. One hundred and five inmates were registered for the educational program, one received his equivalency. Not enough inmates registered for vocational education courses conducted with the cooperation of Santa Fe Junior College. Only one individual signed up for the work-release program.

Community services to inmate families after release of the inmates were extended. In seven instances inmates asked for this service.

Two lectures by experts were scheduled for in-service education for the staff of the sheriff's office, "Personality



Characteristics of Deviant Behavior," and "Current Attitudes and Treatment of Offenders and Law Enforcement's Reaction."

As part of a preventive youth program, counseling with youth and parents was instituted in one high school.

Three control jails were to measure recidivism rates. There was also to be research on attitude scales.

#### Evaluation

This program did not accomplish anything significant. The problem was that it tried to do everything and thus did nothing.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 275

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Possibly.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes.

7. Remarks.

It was innovative in the South to involve college students in the correctional rehabilitation process. But apparently the inmates and the prison administrators refused to cooperate, so there was little impact.

Grant #277

Grantee: Tampa, Florida, Police Department

Amount: \$14,560

Dates: November 1967 to June 1968

Purpose: To develop a police-community relations program, especially including participation in police work by youth in high delinquency areas.

Summary

The police-community relations program was planned jointly by the police department and the Commission of Community Relations to bridge the gap in communications and understanding between the police and the community. The coordinator of the program visited other states to observe how other police departments were operating their programs. The plan was to develop youth group programs where juvenile delinquency rates were high and develop an adult aide program in areas of high crime in which persons not meeting the rigid police requirements were allowed an opportunity to participate constructively in police work. There were neighborhood service centers, and neighborhood aides.

This group tried to set up a youth police aide program to utilize youth who did not meet the rigid standards to become police officers in order to have them patrol their own

their own communities. There was opposition because of the adverse publicity given to a similar group of young men who had been called on to restore law and order during a riot in June 1967: These were the well known Tampa White Hats.

After being cited by the Governor of Florida for their part in restoring order some of these young men were later arrested and convicted of felony crimes, and therefore, there was a lot of resentment.

When the departments of San Francisco, Los Angeles, and St. Louis were visited, it was found that all the programs were much the same except that the Tampa programs were on a much smaller scale and that St. Louis had storefront centers.

Tampa developed some newspaper outlets with regular news articles on police-community relations meetings, and four 15-minute TV programs. There were police-community relations lectures given at elementary schools, junior high schools, and high schools. There were safety and entertainment movie film programs. Traffic law classes were organized. The responsibility for the operation of the police athletic league was transferred to the police-community relations section. This gave them responsibility for the athletic activity of youths from 6 to 20 years.

The police-community relations section was delegated responsibility for developing the police component of a local model cities program. They built a 19-foot house trailer as a mobile police-community relations office equipped with telephone, public address system, movie projector, etc. They developed a community service office program as an entry system into the police department for men 17 to 20 who wanted to become policemen.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 277

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was similar to existing programs in other cities.

Grant #278 (See #181)

Grantee: Metropolitan State College, Denver, Colorado

Amount: \$25,000

Dates: 11/1/67 to 11/30/68

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #181 for first year  
operation of degree program.

Grant #279

Grantee: West Virginia University

Amount: \$15,000

Dates: January 1968 to June 1968

Purpose: To develop a state-wide training program for  
correctional staffs in collaboration with the Governor's  
Committee on Crime, Delinquency, and Correctional Agencies.

Summary

The Division of Correction in West Virginia was not established until March 1965, and it was not until March 1966 that the Division began to operate with qualified staff. The specific task of this West Virginia Division of Corrections was the establishment of a comprehensive rehabilitation and treatment program designed to return the public offender to society, and to live peaceably, at the earliest possible date.

The first step was to appoint a Policy Advisory Council. The second was to involve people from West Virginia University, especially from the College of Human Resources and Education. After the OLEA grant was received a college advisory committee was appointed to assist with the determining of basic policy and assist in evaluating major activities, developing a training design and survey materials for use by each institution, and to estimate costs, then to develop solutions to overcome problems.



Prior to 1966 there was little or no training for probation and parole officers, and there was an in-service program for custodial officers. There had been a lack of communication between the agencies in corrections in West Virginia.

The initial step of the project staff was to survey each of the nineteen colleges and two universities to determine whether they would be interested in working in cooperation with the project group to develop training programs. Five colleges and two universities agreed to cooperate.

A questionnaire was constructed and sent to the different correctional agencies to secure background data on personnel and training programs and interest in cooperative training programs. A pilot institute was planned and conducted in June 1968 for one week. This personnel training institute was devoted to the discussion of the development of modern corrections by showing slides and films dealing with the history of prisons. A former prisoner presented a description of the prisoner's view and developed discussions with participants. Teachers from the university contributed some general criminological theory, a discussion of counseling and psycho-therapy, the theories of treatment and current legal developments with relation to the public offender, and a question of due process in the review of probation and parole decisions. A discussion

of the contemporary theories of crime and treatment was presented by Dr. Ball of West Virginia University in which he demonstrated that the theories were mainly urban centered and probably did not apply to the folk sub-culture. In all probability, the delinquent sub-cultures in the Appalachian groups might not be consistent with traditional theory. Finally, there was discussion of the psychology of the offender with computerized profiles of the prisoners utilized as a foundation for classification. To conclude there were case studies and panel discussions.

As a result of these early stages there were six goals designed for implementation: 1. Establishment of permanent correctional training institutes; 2. The modification of in-service training programs; 3. Extension courses for correctional personnel; 4. Degree programs for correctional personnel; 5. Procurement of civil service status for West Virginia correctional personnel and the founding of a regional crime and correctional research and training center at West Virginia University.

The report did not indicate how far the project had proceeded in fulfilling these goals. However, they did call an inter-agency conference composed of university people and supervisors of agencies involved in corrections. This conference developed a comprehensive training program for correction personnel

to enhance the effectiveness of efforts towards rehabilitation and the offender. It outlined the subjects that were to be included in any curriculum given to correctional personnel. A copy of that outline is attached to this report.

Appendix to Grant #279; West Virginia University

I. Development of a theoretical base of understanding

A. The offender

1. Psycho-social-cultural-economic-educational factor

B. The agencies

1. Philosophy
2. Objectives
3. Policies and procedures

C. Community

1. Attitudes-Positive and negative effects
2. Resources-available and needed
3. Agency-community relations
4. Public education

D. Current Services (availability utilization)

E. Potentials for inter-agency cooperation

II. Knowledge

A. Behavior

1. Personality dynamics
  - a. Drives
2. Emotional disorders

B. Law

1. Criminal et al.

2. Incarceration

3. Court decisions (state, district and federal court)

C. Social milieu aspects

1. Social stratification

a. Group and individual realistic mobility  
(stresses of upward mobility)

2. Norms (deviancy)

a. Deviant behavior

b. Appalachian culture

3. Prison culture

4. Delinquent sub-culture

D. Human relations

1. Interpersonal relationships

a. Staff-offender

b. Offender-offender

E. Leadership

1. With the offender

III. Skills

A. Information gathering

1. Interviewing

a. Establishing rapport

b. Practicing self-control

2. Whole-man concept

B. Communication

1. Effective report writing
2. Effective listening
3. Body language
4. Terminology

C. Coordination of services

1. Community organization
2. Case conference

D. Therapeutic techniques

1. Counseling
  - a. Individual
  - b. Group
  - c. Family
2. Selective discipline

E. Preventive techniques

1. Recognition of potential problems
2. Taking appropriate coordinated action
  - a. Fostering the provision of broad community services e.g. appropriate recreation as a prevention
3. Early case findings

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 279

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The training seemed well planned and diversified.

Grant #282

Grantee: Ohio Crime Commission, Columbus, Ohio

Amount: \$25,000

Dates: December 1967 to November 1968

Purpose: To establish a 25 member commission research, to analyze and develop a comprehensive course of action for improved law enforcement and criminal justice administration.

Summary

The governor established the Ohio Crime Commission and within the crime commission several subcommittees were set up: (1) a committee on problems of crime, (2) a law enforcement committee, (3) a criminal justice committee, (4) a corrections committee, and (5) a science and technology committee.

The Commission reviewed the whole problem of crime and criminal justice in Ohio, avoiding, as it stated, the larger social questions. The various areas of its study encompassed the problems of crime in Ohio, law enforcement, criminal justice, corrections, science and technology, and the role of the state. Subsequently, it recommended legislation in each of these areas to improve the problem.

In its survey of crime in Ohio it found a tremendous



increase, for example, 30% from 1966 to 1967, whereas the national increase was only 16%. Its second discovery was that there had been very little dependable reporting of statistics of crime in Ohio: fewer than 35% of law enforcement agencies in Ohio submitted reports to the FBI. The Commission recommended that a uniform crime reporting system be instituted and maintained at the state level of government; it developed a copy of a uniform criminal statistics act which would serve as a guideline for a bureau or office of criminal statistics. It further suggested close cooperation with the Uniform Crime Reporting Section of the FBI for the exchange of statistics.

The juvenile crime situation was also serious in Ohio, probably reflecting the national picture in which there had been an increase of 60% in juvenile crime from 1960 to 1967. The recidivist rate among juveniles was about 70% nationally, and similarly in Ohio.

The Commission proposed a revision of the juvenile court statutes providing flexibility of treatment for juveniles. It recommended that certain occupations listed as dangerous for children be opened for employment of children so that it might be a deterrent to juvenile crime.

The Commission was deeply disturbed by the problem of

the hostile attitudes of juveniles toward the police. Using the work of Dr. Robert Portune of Cincinnati at the junior high school level, and the work of Dr. Walter Reckless of Ohio State University at the 6th and 7th grade level as a guide for the approach to police juvenile attitudes, the Commission recommended the programs of these two experts to the Department of Education. The Commission also suggested that there should be an amendment requiring an addition to the curriculum of the public schools in the following area: "a study of the role of law and law enforcement in modern society." This amendment, coupled with an intelligent execution of the precepts involved, could be the single most important option that the Commission could endorse in the long-range prevention of crime in Ohio.

In reviewing the drug and narcotic problem the Commission noted that the present narcotic laws seemed to be effective in Ohio, but that there were no valid statistics upon which they could base recommendations for change. There was some question as to whether the marihuana laws were too severe in that they were now included within the category of narcotic drugs. Consequently, it was more difficult for policemen to convict a youthful drug offender who was caught experimenting with marihuana because of the reluctance to charge him with

a felony. It recommended to the Department of Education the mandatory instruction in schools of the harmful effects of narcotics. To the Commission, this was an urgent necessity because of the information that there was an expanding traffic in marihuana in Ohio.

In its attempt to investigate organized crime, the Commission felt itself hampered because of its lack of real authority and the isolation of interest on the part of local officials and their concern with problems of their own respective jurisdiction. It sanctioned the establishment of a state authority that should be given sufficient power and jurisdiction to deal with federal and local authorities in combating organized crime. The research group also proposed an extension of the federal laws on wiretapping to Ohio so that the state might use court-controlled wiretapping to obtain evidence in the investigation of organized crime.

Its survey of the problem of drunkenness and alcohol disclosed that 36% of the total criminal non-traffic arrests were made for drunkenness and related offenses (disorderly conduct and vagrancy). The Commission recommended that alternative approaches for handling problems of public drunkenness be developed, especially those which treated drunkenness as a public health problem. It should include emergency care

units for the treatment of intoxicated persons and provide adequate aftercare resources. Experimentation and new approaches should be encouraged and when improvements in treatment facilities permitted, the laws punishing drunkenness as a crime should be amended so that drunkenness itself would not constitute a criminal offense.

The Commission looked into the control of firearms and proposed that a legislative committee undertake a full study of the necessity for the controlling the possession of firearms by the individual citizen. It also recommended that no person convicted of an offense who had a gun in his possession should be placed on probation. The Commission suggested that private investigating agencies be licensed as an aid to public law enforcement.

The research group surveyed the law enforcement agencies and found that Ohio had 991 agencies and 15,663 law enforcement officers, including university police. The Commission recommended qualifications for sheriffs: minimum age of 25 to 60, high school diploma or the equivalent, and four years of general law enforcement experience.

With the cooperation and assistance of the Ohio Peace Officer Training Council the Commission studied the problem of training academies for law enforcement, and proposed that

there should be a centrally located Law Enforcement Training Academy operated by the state and that the present course should be increased to 400 hours of approximately 10 weeks duration.

It recommended better recruiting procedures, obtaining higher salaries, attracting sufficient number of applicants, getting a proper testing procedure, and introducing a cadet program which helped so much with police-community relations. It proposed that a police science degree program be established at Universities at which some credit be given for the centrally located police academy curriculum.

In its evaluation of the field of criminal justice and the courts, the Commission was unable to satisfy its questions about the problem of delay. The problem was that sometimes the delay was actually requested by the defendant, and he was not really complaining about it. The Commission suggested that there be an institute established for training judges with particular emphasis on sentencing procedure and the use of probationary information. It further recommended a raise in salary for prosecuting attorneys; the establishment of an Office of Chief Medical Examiner headed by a skilled pathologist, licensed to practice medicine in Ohio; and bail bond reform.

It is interesting that whereas in other states the recommendation usually was to increase the possibility of a defendant being released on his own recognizance, here they included that and then went in the other direction endorsing preventive detention for dangerous defendants. A dangerous defendant would be defined as a defendant about whom the court had probable cause to believe that he would commit a serious crime or felony while on release pending trial.

#### Evaluation

It is interesting to note that the Ohio Commission anticipated the recent Federal law authorizing preventive detention of dangerous defendants. With all the work of this Commission, the political situation was such that they were shunted aside when they tried to investigate organized crime.

**CONTINUED**

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EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 282

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Yes.
2. Was the project innovative?  
Yes.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Yes. It surveyed and recommended changes in the state system.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
Not likely.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
Only of other state committee projects.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
Yes.
7. Remarks.  
This was one of the more active state committees in criminal justice.



Grant #284 (See #93)

Grantee: St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department

Amount: \$79,850

Dates: Supplements Grant #93 ending 10/31/67

Purpose: Detoxification facility for persons taken into  
police custody for drunkenness.

Grant #285 (See #94)

Grantee: University of Mississippi

Amount: \$24,952

Dates: 21/1/67 to 11/30/68

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #94 for 1st-year  
operation of degree program.

Grant #290 (See #127)

Grantee: John Jay College of Criminal Justice, New York City

Amount: \$51,300

Dates: Supplements Grant #127 ending 8/31/68

Purpose: Fellowship support for selected law enforcement  
officers for graduate study leading to masters degrees  
in public administration.

Grant #291 (See #162)

Grantee: University of California

Amount: \$51,300

Dates: Supplements Grant #162 ending 9/30/68

Purpose: Fellowship support for selected law enforcement  
officers for graduate study leading to master's degree  
in Criminology.

Grant #292 (See #165)

Grantee: School of Police Administration and Public Safety,

Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan

Amount: \$51,300

Dates: Supplements Grant #165 ending 8/31/68

Purpose: Fellowship support for selected law enforcement  
officers for graduate study leading to master's degree  
in police administration.

Grant #293 (See #85)

Grantee: Harvard Law School

Amount: \$11,121

Dates: 12/21/67 to 9/30/68

Purpose: Continuation of demonstration in use of senior law students as prosecutors in minor criminal cases with supplementary course instruction and expanded involvement in jury trials.

Grant #294

Grantee: Scottsdale, Arizona, Police Department

Amount: \$14,811

Dates: February 1968 to January 1969

Purpose: To establish a planning and research unit to study needs, priorities, and procedures in planning, research, and selected activities.

Summary

The report described the City of Scottsdale, a suburb of Phoenix, with a population of 70,000 and a police force of 80, of which 14 are civilians. The chief had 22 years of experience with the Los Angeles Police Department and a B.A. in Public Administration. He had been involved in creating a four-year police science degree course at California State College at Long Beach. He recruited experienced officers from the FBI, the New York City Police Department, and the Phoenix Police Department for major official positions under his department.

The Planning and Control Unit established under this grant included the chief, a lieutenant, a sergeant, a patrolman, a civilian director, and two secretaries.

The responsibilities included planning, research, budget, personnel, and forms control. To accomplish its goals the

following was instituted:

1. Hiring of the Scottsdale police department,
2. Demonstration of planning within Scottsdale police department,
3. Survey and report of police planning in other departments,
4. Recommendation and implementation of planning,
5. Final report.

Visits were made to the following police departments:

Los Angeles, Oakland, Berkeley, Inglewood (California) and Phoenix, Tempe, and Arizona Department of Public Safety (Arizona).

The study recommended the formation of a permanent unit for research and planning. This unit was to be given control of budget, forms, records, and inspections as well. The responsibility of the research unit would include advanced planning, administrative staff studies, preparation of department orders and memos.

The planning unit accomplished the following as a demonstration of its effectiveness:

1. Installation of a Crime Information Center with a direct link to the National Crime Information Center of the FBI.
2. The Director of Planning helped to formulate the mandatory Arizona Law Enforcement Training Curriculum.



3. Preparation of a departmental police manual with rules, policies, and procedures for the guidance of members of the force.

Evaluation

This seems to be a progressive department whose chief really made a sincere attempt to recruit and hire well qualified men for his important positions. The planning unit has not yet accomplished much, but with competent personnel and the encouragement of the chief, it probably will be a successful, significant addition to this small, suburban department.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 294

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Yes.
2. Was the project innovative?  
No.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Not much.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
No.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
No.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
None.
7. Remarks.  
In spite of the rather negative tone of this evaluation sheet, police planning and research units are an improvement to law enforcement.

1464

Grant #295 (See #73)

Grantee: Tucson Police Department

Amount: \$16,600

Dates: 1/1/68 to 6/30/68

Purpose: Continuation, with phasing to self-financed basis

and completion of university evaluation, of school

resource officer program involving police officers

assigned to junior high schools for counselling, patrol,

safety education, and juvenile officer duties.

Grant #297 (See #121)

Grantee: Tarrant County Junior College District, Fort Worth,  
Texas

Amount: \$22,500

Dates: 12/31/67 to 12/30/68

Purpose: Second stage funding of grant #121 for 1st-year  
operation of degree program.

1966

Grant #299 (See #116)

Grantee: Southern Oregon College, Ashland, Oregon

Amount: \$22,500

Dates: 1/1/68 to 12/31/68

Purpose: Second stage funding of grant #116 for first year  
operation of degree program.

1467

Grant #303 (See #178)

Grantee: Institute of Government, University of Georgia

Amount: \$30,000

Dates: 2/1/68 to 1/31/69

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #178 for development of statewide training program for correctional staffs.

1468

Grant #304

Grantee: Research Foundation of the State University of  
New York at Buffalo

Amount: \$13,837

Dates: February 1968 to April 1969

Purpose: To plan and operate a training program for  
correctional officers in collaboration with the Erie  
County Penitentiary. The work was done under the  
auspices of the Buffalo School of Social Welfare and  
under the Division of Continuing Education.

Summary

The objective was to begin a university-level training  
program for the custodial staff in the areas of behavioral  
and social science that would be essential in the comprehensive  
prisoner rehabilitation project. A derivative goal that would  
be accomplished through the superior training for the  
correctional officers would be to give prisoners an increased  
self-status, better education and more skills, thereby reducing  
the crime rate and lowering costs.

There were three phases to the design of the project: 1)  
Curriculum development. Courses would include concepts in  
sociology, psychology, social psychology and psychiatry as well  
as theories of change, penology and prison administration, and

courses dealing with the role of the custodial staff and the rehabilitation situation. A total of six courses of 15 weeks each to be given one per semester for three years was developed. The first two courses, Individual and Society, and Culture and Personality, were to be offered the first year. The concept was that these courses would change the function of the keepers from chiefly custodial duties to duties that reflected a rehabilitation orientation. 2) The second phase of the design was program evaluation. The third section was visit and consultation.

At the request of OLEA the project personnel had to augment its previous research with a three-month intensive study of current methods and procedures of training and rehabilitation of prisoners done by other agencies. They visited law enforcement penology and rehabilitative agencies located in New York and Washington, D.C. They visited penal institutions that had specialized or intensive experience with some aspects of the proposed program. And they visited recognized leaders in penology and correctional officer training.

In addition to this, an Advisory Committee was appointed; the Dean of the School of Social Welfare at State University of New York at Buffalo, President of the Buffalo Chamber of Commerce, the Superintendent of the Erie County Penitentiary, the Commissioner of the New York State Department of Corrections and representatives from community agencies.



Sixty correctional officers were enrolled in each course. Teaching methods included discussions with consultants, films, slides, case histories, theoretical material, a reference to many books and social science reprints. The university professors involved in teaching had an understanding of the operation of the prison, and they had considerable exposure, prior to their selection, to recent penal methods. One of the problems that was avoided this way was what the report termed the "egghead" image.

The project evaluator administered a test to the correctional officers developed by Amitai Etzioni in which three types of power are hypothesized, normative, remunerative, and coercive. The test makes statements based on each one of these concepts of power. Usually, the coercive statement is the one that is supposed to be most punitive, and the normative statement is the one that is supposed to be most liberal or rehabilitative. This test was given to the correctional officers before they took the course, and then repeated about one year after they had taken two courses. A slight movement away from coercive power was noted which implied a movement toward rehabilitation. The second noticeable change was a movement away from the normative type of power toward a pragmatic type of power.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 304

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Slight.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Its evaluative instrument might be used elsewhere.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Regarding the usefulness of the evaluative instrument, yes.

7. Remarks.

Well done, given the small size of the grant.

Grant #307

Grantee: Los Angeles Police Department, Los Angeles, California

Amount: \$14,938

Dates: February 1968 to January 1969

Purpose: To develop police-community relations program in two phases, the first including study of other human relations programs and research of existing materials.

Summary

1. Utilized police personnel as conference leaders.
2. Sent 16 officers of different ranks to 14 cities for visits of 1-3 days. Surveyed police facilities, studies of training programs, conversations with chiefs, working policement, observation of technological advances and special programs, street interviews with community persons. On return made oral report.
3. Since Family Crisis Study revealed widespread involvement of officers in family disturbance and mentally ill calls, a department psychologist designed a course to assist in handling of family type crises and calls involving mental illness to increase the individual officer's capabilities in this area. By cooperating with L.A. County Department of Mental Health, the Police Department would be able to transport mental patient to receiving psychiatric unit and thus release officers for other duties.
4. Police Community Group Discussions were held in community with recruit officer in order that he could gain insight into community of different races, culture, ethnic background, living conditions, etc. Panel discussions on role of police in the community. Visits were made to homes of minority community in order to gain greater understanding of heritage and customs of the residents.

5. Police officer and community workshops to promote community participation in training of police officers. Los Angeles police department conducted series of Community Relations conferences to explore methods to involve both police officers and community in department's Community Relations Program.

Comments

Since excellent and specific community relations conference goals were listed in addenda there should be more utilization of these specific recommendations for a community relations philosophy in the Lieutenant's School Syllabus. More than 7 hours of a total of 120 should be devoted to Police Community Relations. (Syllabus is included in addenda.) Because of importance of family crisis calls as revealed by family crisis study in this report, some specific training in this area should be included.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #307

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not much.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This program had many fine objectives. The New York City Family Crisis Unit was a great success and it seemed that the Los Angeles Police Force would emulate them. However, they did not include any training of this type in their program. Only 7 hours of instruction were given to police lieutenants. This was too little.

12/75

Grant #308

Grantee: University of Iowa

Amount: \$14,383

Dates: February 1968 to January 1969

Purpose: To provide in-service training to correctional personnel and to measure the impact of this training.

Summary

The training goal was divided into the following ten specific subgoals:

1. To provide a general background for the understanding of human behavior.

Means: Introductory Sociology Course.

Introductory Psychology Course.

2. To provide knowledge concerning the nature and scope of the crime problem and of contemporary views of criminal etiology.

Means: Training session lectures and discussions.

Independent study.

3. To develop an increased awareness of the essential features of the correctional process.

Means: Training session lectures and discussions dealing with legal philosophy and offender rights, bases for decision-making, effects of correctional decision-making, and alternatives to incarceration.

Independent study.

4. To improve communication and conceptual skills.

Means: Communication Skills Course.

Introductory Sociology Course.

Introductory Psychology Course.

Principles of Organization and Management Course.

5. To increase knowledge of the nature of offenders and their backgrounds.

Means: Training session.

Independent study material.

6. To reduce the basis for conflict between custody and treatment staff by increasing awareness and appreciation of the role that non-treatment personnel play in the rehabilitation process and by increasing awareness for actions taken by treatment personnel.

Means: Training sessions.

Mixing of personnel of different levels and ideologies in training sessions.

7. To improve communication and contacts across levels of the administrative hierarchy.

Means: Mixing of personnel in training sessions, particularly in group discussions.

8. To increase communications between prison and probation and parole staffs.

Means: Mixing prison personnel with probation and parole personnel in training sessions, particularly in group discussions.

9. To provide background and skills for promotion to supervisory positions.

Means: Training sessions.

Communication Skills Course.

Principles of Organization and Management Course.

10. To increase professional identification and pride.

Means: Training sessions.

Formal course work.

Independent study.

Contact with a variety of correctional personnel in training sessions.

In practical terms the training program was intended to develop a two-year certification program for probation, parole, non-professional, and non-administrative correctional institutional personnel. The program was divided into two components: an intensive training component and a supplemental component which would be spread out over a two-year period. The latter component was dropped for lack of funds, and the intensive training component might also have had to have been drastically curtailed if it were not for the generosity of



the Department of Sociology and Anthropology which maintained the directors' salaries while they gave one-half of their teaching time to the project.

The program was not a degree program although the course work could be applied towards a degree. It was designed "to provide what are perceived as the basic minimum requisites for effective participation in the correctional process and to influence the development of a professional self-concept among correctional workers."\*

The intensive training was conducted at two adult male and one adult female correctional institutions. A total of 100 persons received training. The list below indicates the type of institutional personnel trained.

Anamosa:

- 1 Storekeeper
- 1 Correctional Captain
- 1 Correctional Lieutenant
- 11 Correctional Officers
- 2 Food Supervisors
- 1 Master Barber
- 1 Painter
- 1 Special Therapist
- 1 Vocational School Teacher
- 2 Building and Grounds Foremen
- 6 Industries Superintendents

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\* John R. Stratton and Robert M. Terry, Final Report: Grant #305 Statewide In-Service Training Program for Correctional Personnel, (unpublished paper, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, University of Iowa, 1969), p. 4.

Fort Madison:

- 1 Correctional Captain
- 2 Correctional Lieutenants
- 21 Correctional Officers
- 1 Master Plumber
- 1 Special Therapist
- 2 Vocational School Teachers
- 3 Industries Foremen
- 2 Industries Superintendents

Rockwell City:

- 1 Cottage Director
- 2 Cottage Supervisors
- 1 Storekeeper
- 1 Special Therapist
- 1 Attendant
- 1 Assistant Food Supervisor
- 1 Vocational Teacher
- 1 Secretary

The second goal of the project, "to measure the impact of the training," was accomplished by testing through specially developed instruments for changes in attitudes among the trainees. No measures of changes in the trainees' behavior or of influence they had on the operation of their institutions were attempted; nor was there an effort to measure "impact" in terms of changes in quality of interpersonal relationships with clients. A control group of institutional employees who did not participate in the training was used in the evaluation.

The evaluation showed that most participants found the training interesting, useful, and well organized, and that they would like more such training. The instrument used to

measure attitude was composed of 77 items including Srole's scale of alienation and several other items. Very few statistically significant changes in attitudes were found. There were negligible changes in allienation, free will versus determinism, and job satisfaction. When some change was noticeable, however, it was headed in the expected direction.

#### Evaluation

##### Strengths:

The training program was very good; it was very well organized and presented. Most trainees felt that the materials were interesting and put in simple language. Better communications were established between correctional workers on different levels such as fields, institutions and between institutional personnel.

##### Weaknesses:

There was no role-playing or reverse role-playing. Sessions were held one afternoon each week for ten weeks. This worked against trainees concentrating better, compared with the carrying on of the training on a block basis. Not enough visual aids were used. Trainees felt that more inmates or successfully adjusted ex-offenders should be used in training, particularly in role-playing. Depending on the

trainee some said that the material was "over my head" and others said it was "too rudimentary." The training setting at Anamosa was not good. There was no air conditioning, the chairs were hard and the acoustics were bad. However it must be emphasized that on an overall basis, the weaknesses were far overshadowed by the strengths.

#### Methods Used:

Training was delivered primarily through lectures and discussions. There was a good give and take. Trainees said they could ask all of the questions necessary and that they benefited from the frequent discussions. The use of a variety of experts from the field was excellent. Independent study took place during the training period. While some visual aids were used, more could have been utilized. The mixing of the various personnel from different levels and areas of the field was a very sound approach.

#### Innovations:

In the adult field the mixing of personnel as described earlier was probably an innovation, at least for Iowa. Likewise with the panel of inmates. Utilizing the panel of instructors from different walks of life added to the training program considerably.

#### Potential:

This training approach has great potential, as evidenced

by the way Iowa has already moved ahead in improving the second year's training program and now is starting the third phase with more improvements. Most correctional systems have four camps. They are field personnel and within the institution, custody, professional staff and inmates. This type of a training program seemingly is best suited to reduce the gap between these "camps" and help bring about a team approach.

#### Results:

Some of the results have already been outlined above. Improved communications on all levels certainly were brought about. A reduction in staff conflicts is bound to result. Knowledge of the offender and correctional process was certainly a morale booster.

#### Recommendations:

Iowa has already implemented a major recommendation, namely holding the training during one week instead of ten afternoons spread out over ten weeks. In future training they should consider using experienced prison and correctional personnel from other states for training. This was suggested by a number of the trainees. They also suggested smaller training classes to bring about better group discussions. Role-playing and reverse role-playing can be very effectively used. Inmates and ex-offenders can be used very successfully

in role-playing. Trainees felt that they needed more information on drugs. Whereas institutional personnel for this training program came from one institution there should be a mixing of staff from various correctional institutions. More material should be presented on law enforcement. Top management problems should be considered. More visual aids should be used.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 308

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?  
Yes.
2. Was the project innovative?  
No.
3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?  
Only for corrections.
4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?  
There is no way to measure this.
5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?  
Yes. Our consultants chose this as a very good example of a state-wide training program.
6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?  
No.
7. Remarks.  
This was one of the better correctional training projects.

Grant #310

Grantee: Gainesville Police Department, Gainesville, Florida

Amount: \$14,962

Dates: May 1968 to April 1969

Purpose: To establish a planning and research unit (PRU) within the Gainesville Police Department which would conduct a comprehensive study of the department.

#### Summary

The study involved a survey of many aspects of the department's operations including: problems of management, organization, manpower, evaluation of and improvement of police services and of community relations as well as of financing police operations. Many specific recommendations for changes and innovations were made in the four-part final report. Three manuals regarding field reporting, the communications center, and the department's organization were written.

#### Evaluation

Evaluating the Gainesville's PRU again raises the distinction made by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice between "limited" and "expanded" PRUs (my wording), between PRU's that focus exclusively upon the analysis and improvement of internal operating and managerial procedures and those that include the continual review of practices and formulation of policies relating to crime control. (Task Force on Police p.27)

Gainesville's project was very successful as a "limited" PRU. It thoroughly examined the department and made specific, concrete recommendations. Many of these recommendations were sound and should improve the department's operations. Some of them, however, belabor the obvious, deal with trivia and are superficial. Some merely will perpetuate myths and false measures of effectiveness.



By and large the report is bland, uninventive, and unimaginative. Its major value is highly particularistic, viz., it will help the Gainesville police department up-date its practices by adapting some of the currently accepted police procedures. As long as these procedures themselves are in need of fundamental criticism and revision the wisdom of perpetuating them is open to question. One also wonders whether with 40,000 law enforcement agencies in the United States most of which are in need of similar up-dating -- LEAA can afford to give them the funds to do what they should be doing on their own budgets. As a demonstration project showing that PRU's can be helpful in this up-dating process, Gainesville, however, is a good example.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 310

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The trouble with planning and research units in police departments is that most of them are limited by policy and lack of talent to make trivial studies of little import. They shy away from the more serious questions.

Grant #311

Grantee: Louisiana State University

Amount: \$15,000

Dates: March 1968 to October 1968

Purpose: To develop a state-wide program of training for corrections.

Summary

The report reviewed the history of corrections in Louisiana, the movement from prisons as a place of brutality to the present pressure from industry which objected to penal institutions that might be engaged in competitive enterprise.

The present Department of Corrections in Louisiana was created by the Legislative Act 192 of 1968. A Director of Corrections was appointed by the Governor of Louisiana and was to be a qualified person although he did not have to be a resident of the state.

The Department of Corrections in Louisiana had direct supervision over all adult and juvenile criminals who had been sentenced to prison for any crime. As of December 1968 Louisiana prisons housed approximately 5,500 prisoners as inmates. There was a Louisiana State Penitentiary for adults, the Louisiana Correctional and Industrial School for first offenders, the women's prison, the State Industrial School

for Colored Youths (an institution for juveniles), State Industrial School for Girls (juvenile), and a Louisiana Training Institute for Boys (juvenile). In 1960 the Division of Probation and Parole was established within the Department of Corrections with a Parole Board appointed by the Governor.

The survey project was conducted with forms devised by University of Georgia and the University of Missouri. These were sent out to probation and parole and other correctional people to develop a schedule of needs (what the personnel thought they needed most in training and what they thought training programs should include).

A five-day institute was prepared for probation and parole officers. The subjects of the curriculum included: interviewing, counseling and case analysis, duties, rights, limitations of probation and parole officers, court relations with probation and parole, leadership, techniques of arrest, human behavior and personality disorders, narcotics, investigations for probation and parole, out of state problems and inter-state compacts, the future of probation and parole, inter-agency cooperation, community resources, and the evaluation of the career development program.

Twenty-six probation and parole officers attended and received certificates. A pilot school was set up with 40

hours of actual classroom work scheduled. It was to be organized and presented at the middle management level. Twenty-six attended and 25 completed the program and received certificates.

The courses given to the correctional officers and supervisors at the management level were Theories of Crime and Causation, Counseling and Guidance, Principles of Leadership, Personality Disorders, History of Corrections, Principles of Supervision, Legal Issues for Correctional Officers, Public Relations, Classification, Treatment and Education, Drugs and Narcotics, Omnibus Crime Bill, Personnel Management, Human Relations, Custodial Processes, Communications (oral and written), Introduction to Modern Management and finally a critique and examination.

The report analyzed their project and stated that although the personnel taking the school courses were very enthusiastic there were certain problems that were encountered. There was not a proper response to the questionnaire study in the survey, and it was difficult to obtain instructors with the required background and knowledge.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 311

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

It used someone else as a model.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The project seemed to have been pursued with less diligence and imagination than others.

Grant #313; this was an extension of grant #52.

Grantee: University of Cincinnati with the Cincinnati  
Division of Police, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Amount: \$5,000

Dates: March 1968 to February 1969

Purpose: To develop and test a curriculum of materials for  
junior high school social studies classes, to assist  
adolescents in understanding law enforcement concepts,  
and to give recruits specialized training in understanding  
the adolescent at the police academy in five test cities:  
Cincinnati, Tampa, Nashville, Lansing, and Rochester.  
The goal was to reach 5,000 participant students and  
to complete intensive evaluation studies.

#### Summary

The curriculum units were the World of Rules, the World  
of Games and the World of Laws. These were part of a special  
curriculum introduced into the on-going social studies classes  
of junior high school at different grade levels. The ATP  
Scale -- the Attitude Toward Police Scale, developed in 1965  
by Professor Robert Portune of the Department of Secondary  
Education, University of Cincinnati, was used to evaluate the  
attitude of the adolescents toward police officers. It was  
given before and after the program. It is a Likert-type scale

with a reliability of 90. Another scale, an Attitude Toward Authority Scale was developed by Mr. Vernon Thomas, an instructor in education at the University of Cincinnati and this was also given to students.

There were some important differences between the experimental group and the control group in Cincinnati. The experimental group was usually the basic group or the low ability group because all basic students were required to take civics, in which the law enforcement course was given. There was a certain stigma attached to a low ability course of this kind. Rarely did a middle or high ability group take civics. Thus, the control subjects were consistently students of higher ability from a higher socio-economic level, and usually white. This might account for some of the differences in the scale.

There were about 612 experimental students and 252 controls in the study in Cincinnati. Before the course began the experimental group and the control group took the attitude scale, and after the six-week program they took it again, although only the experimental group received the program. Apparently, there was more improvement in attitude toward the police on the part of the experimental group than in the control group. On the other hand, for attitudes toward authority, especially toward the home, there was more improvement in the control group than



there was in the experimental group.

One other problem is that the report states that the improvement was significantly greater, but it does not reveal whether the improvement was significant to the .05 or .01 degree. Just to say "significantly greater" in a statistical sense may not be significant at all without that specific statistical property.

This study ought to be examined more closely because it is different from the others, and certainly the area of youth and police is very important.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 313

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Hard to say.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Probably not.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. How far education extends into the control of youthful behavior.

7. Remarks.

This was the continuation of project 52 and both of them were superior to the ordinary run of OLEA projects.

Grant #315 (See #118)

Grantee: Weber State College, Ogden, Utah

Amount: \$22,490

Dates: 5/15/68 to 5/14/69

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #118 for first year  
operation of degree program.

Grant #318 (See #122)

Grantee: University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

Amount: \$21,680

Dates: 3/15/68 to 3/14/69

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #111 for first  
year operation of degree program.

1498

Grant #319 (See #24)

Grantee: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education,  
Boulder, Colorado

Amount: \$12,490

Dates: 3/1/68 to 10/31/68

Purpose: Continuation of university-based seminars for  
correctional staff, faculty summer placements in cor-  
rectional institutions on locally financed basis (3-5  
states), and consultation in 13 western states.

Grant #320 (See #102)

Grantee: Boston University Law School

Amount: \$18,687

Dates: Supplements grant #102 ending 1/1/68

Purpose: Continuation of demonstration in use of senior law students as prosecutors in minor criminal cases with supplementary course instruction and wide participation through felony trial stage re preliminary hearing cases.

Grant #321 (See #167)

Grantee: City of Cincinnati

Amount: \$124,545

Dates: 7/1/68 to 6/30/69

Purpose: Implementation support for computer-based regional information system serving law enforcement agencies in Hamilton County and environs--to involve installation of "real time" files, officer activity analysis, and crime reporting capabilities.

Grant #322

Grantee: Rochester Department of Public Safety, Rochester, New York

Amount: \$47,064

Dates: April 1968 to December 1968

Purpose: To improve the quality of tactical communications service of a medium-size city and to serve as a model study for police agencies of similar size and scope.

### Summary

The first objective was realized by dividing the communications function of a medium-sized city into seven areas, studying each area and making recommendations for improved operations within each area. The second objective was achieved by conducting a questionnaire survey of police personnel responsible for communications functions in two additional medium-size cities to determine whether the recommendations did in fact have general applicability.

### Evaluation

The Rochester Police Tactical Communication System Study (RPTCSS) was a thoughtful, well designed, and well conducted study within the confines of the problem as it was defined by the researchers. The communications function was divided into seven major areas:

(1) complaint board evaluation; (2) complaint board traffic; (3) radio traffic analysis; (4) radio transmission analysis; (5) facility, equipment and workplace layout; (6) elements of tactical communications training and (7) new and improved devices. Each area is examined in detail

The findings and recommendations from the evaluation of the handling of complaints (area 1) are of general interest and applicability and, if implemented, should improve the quality and feasibility of police-public interactions at this high-exposure interface. These findings together with those of a department survey



provided a sound basis for the subsequent discussions of the workplace layout and the training (areas 5 & 6). The survey of the 30 policemen regarding their opinions on the function and efficiency of the tactical communications system has both general relevance and immediate practical import. The studies of radio traffic and of complaint board traffic are helpful mathematical analyses of capacity and demand. Good use is made in them of the path-breaking work in this area by the Presidential Crime Commission's Task Force on Technology & Science. Many of the study's recommendations are based on sound and explicit information and legitimate police operational philosophy. Also, much of the data gathered to provide the bases for these recommendations are original and of general interest.

The study transcended the immediate limits of the host department not only in its survey of the two other medium-size departments but also in the results of most of the other subsections of the study. This general applicability gave the study a greater value by allowing it to serve as a model for other departments and justifies its being funded as a demonstration project.

The faults of the study were both internal and external (relative to the limits they set on the problem; and even the limits themselves are questionable.) The study proclaimed itself a "systems analysis". But, one can question whether the "system" as they saw it was the right system or more accurately, the proper subsystem.

The systems analyst defines the boundaries of his unit of study while recognizing that that "system" is a part of a larger system and may contain within it other smaller systems. The tactical communications system of a police department is actually a subsystem of a larger system for manpower deployment. A study of

that subsystem should not neglect its interface with this larger system (as it was neglected by this study). This is not to suggest an endless regress to larger and should be considered for future funding. Of course, it would produce a different sort of information, i.e., police values. But, this would certainly be valuable for policy decisions.

Another criticism of this study is its occasional lapses into sheer unsubstantiated opinion and dogmatism which because of the context carried the weight of a scientific conclusion. For example, after an otherwise balanced and cautious discussion of the merits of installing voice privacy devices (speech scramblers) in which the authors gave vent to their underlying pro-hardware-for-police sentiments and recommended that if just a few criminals started monitoring police radios, scramblers (at a cost of not less than \$500 per car) should be installed. This section of the report also illustrated how the hardware people played on police secrecy and defensiveness to buy expensive equipment. In illustrating why scramblers might be useful the authors gave an example of a radio communication between a police car and a dispatcher. The communication would put the department in a bad light because in it an officer is confused about an address and appears very inefficient in responding to a call.

The authors of the report write that this particular selection "is admittedly an extreme case, but it serves to illustrate the point." (A VIII-3) One wonders what the point is. Is it to reduce crime or cover up confusion, inefficiency and embarrassment-generating visibility? If the authors were really selling crime reduction and not greater bureaucratic secrecy, why didn't they attempt to

determine how many criminals do monitor police radios as part of their crime plan; and what proportion of the crime problem this constitutes; and whether the \$500 per car might be used advantageously elsewhere?

This type of disguised salesmanship unsupported by evidence should not determine future police appropriations in this area. There is a definite need for fundamental cost-benefit analysis by neutral researchers.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 322

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Some.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The report was good as long as it stayed with the data. When it expressed opinions it was useless and erroneous.

Grant #323 (See #214)

Grantee: Hew Hampshire State Prison, Concord, New Hampshire

Amount: \$19,551

Dates: 4/1/68 to 3/31/69

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #214 for development  
of statewide training program for correctional staffs.

1507

Grant #324 (See #133)

Grantee: Missouri Department of Corrections, Jefferson  
City, Missouri

Amount: \$14,093

Dates: 4/1/68 to 3/31/69

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #133 for development  
of statewide training program for correctional staffs.

Grant #326 (See #183)

Grantee: College of the Virgin Islands, St. Thomas, Virgin  
Islands

Amount: \$22,500

Dates: 9/1/67 to 8/31/68

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #077 for first year  
operation of degree program.

1509

Grant #328 (See #72)

Grantee: Commission on Crime, Delinquency and Criminal  
Administration, Lansing, Michigan

Amount: \$25,000

Dates: 4/1/68-3/31/69

Purpose: Continuation funding for second year of commission  
activities.



Grant #331

Grantee: Cincinnati Division of Police, Cincinnati, Ohio

Amount: \$13,905

Dates: May 1968 to March 1969

Purpose: To train 138 police supervisors of the Cincinnati Police Division.

Summary

The Department of Psychology of Xavier University cooperated in this program; its chairman Dr. V. Bielrauskas was project coordinator. Training sessions consisted of group workshops for three days for 25-30 supervisors at a time. Only policemen (not members of the community) participated in the workshops which were modifications of T-group, sensitivity training models.

Three goals of the training sessions were:

1. To help participants become more efficient in interpersonal relations at home, in peer relations, in community relations;
2. To develop a better understanding of the policeman's role in contemporary society and to become acquainted with behavioral science techniques used in communication and leadership;
3. To become personally involved in peer problems in Cincinnati through the experience of problem solving and preparation of recommendations.

To reach these goals certain measurement techniques were instituted to examine the effectiveness of the program.

Description of Training Procedures during Three-Day Workshop

During the first two days an attempt was made to relax the

participants. Exercises and lectures focused on normal aspects of personality, i.e. what is right not wrong, how it feels to be ourselves, non-threatening ways to establish a group, acceptance of personality limitations, emphasis of positive assests of personality, etc. By the third day, the coordinator felt that the group was ready for a more threatening subject, the lecture on psychology of prejudice.

#### Evaluation of the program

The author claimed that pre and post workshop surveys of attitudes of police officers changed statistically significantly in a favorable direction towards minority groups, especially black people.

The second phase of the program was a questionnaire study of 300 members of the community (225 white, 75 black) and of the police in the Cincinnati Division of Police.

Black people were less positive toward police than white respondents. Males were less positive than females. One of the principal criticisms was that people did not know the policemen personally.

Black respondents felt that police were slow to respond to calls, and that the police had a negative attitude toward people in the area.

The police questionnaire revealed that police had a high opinion of their job, but low opinions of youth and of Negroes.

The new men had less hostile attitudes toward Negroes. The group of policemen with 2-6 years of service were the most hostile toward Negroes.

Evaluation

The project was well conceived, but like most other studies involving T-group sessions, the results were ambiguous, and could be interpreted in many contradictory fashions. Then there is the theoretical question of whether attitude change really stimulates behavioral change.

The author asserted that pre and post workshop surveys of attitudes of police officers changed statistically significantly in a favorable direction towards minority groups, especially black people. In answer to skeptics who doubted such optimistic results, the director suggested that even if the participants only developed a better facility to answer questions, then they must have developed more sensitivity to the problems of community relations.

This is an extremely weak argument. Rather than proving that more sensitivity was engendered, it seems to have proved that the participants learned more jargon and they may have been as hardened and as cynical as before.

An informal suggestion made to the Chief of Police by the Project Coordinator resulted in a desirable change in instruction for police recruits. This change resulted because the director of the study discovered that when he administered the same attitude survey to regular police officers and police recruits, police recruits had statistically significant more positive attitudes toward minority groups than policemen who had been on duty 2-5 years. However, recruits received on the job training after completing their studies at the Police Academy by patrolmen coaches, men who had been on the police force from 2-5 years. As a result of bringing the observation to the attention of the

Chief of Police, young Cincinnati patrolmen cannot be trained by policemen on the force less than 6 years.

The project director also recommended that it was more important to change the attitudes of the upper echelons because then the rank and file would fall in line, and that parallel programs should be sponsored for the blacks and other members of the community.

The questionnaire developed many interesting leads that should have been followed through.

The director concluded that the program "provides support for the hypothesis that positive changes in interpersonal relations can be produced by intensive short-term programs." This conclusion is unsupported by the evidence.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 331

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. How to change police attitudes.

7. Remarks.

The report writer claimed too much credit for success in changing attitudes. To do this he interpreted an essentially unfavorable development as a positive accomplishment.

Grant #334 (See #95)

Grantee: Oregon Advisory Board on Police Standards and Training,  
Salem, Oregon

Amount: \$25,000

Dates: 5/1/68 to 4/30/69

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #95 to expand  
training and certification.

Grant #344 (See #166)

Grantee: University of Missouri, St. Louis

Amount: \$21,482

Dates: 5/1/68 to 4/30/69

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #166 for first year  
operation of degree program.

Grant #348

Grantee: University of California at Los Angeles

Amount: \$80,414

Dates: May 1968 to June 1969

Purpose: To produce two 30-minute training films for parole agents.

Summary

The Motion Picture Division at UCLA met with the Director of the California Department of Corrections to discuss the possibility of producing a training film on parole. The policy of UCLA was to produce films only when the project was proposed and carried out by students. Three students were assigned to work with parole agents and were introduced to all phases of parole work. Each of the three was responsible for bringing in an idea for a film.

The potential benefits of the film would be:

1. personnel training,
2. college student education,
3. resources for more effective treatment of inmates and parolees,
4. orientation and counseling for families, employers, and others involved in the lives of parolees,
5. and general public information and understanding.

Finally, two plans were produced on a budget of approximately \$1,000 a running minute.

The first plan was "Crisis" - a series of vignettes:

1. An interview between the parole officer and the parolee;
2. A Mother's tirade against a parolee officer;
3. Confrontation between policeman and the mother;
4. Addict's Cop-out;
5. Husband-Wife conflict.



The second film was "I'd Rather be a Blind Man." This showed the parole agent group working as a team to solve the problems of the parolees and also reviewed the attitudes of the parolees.

Both films were shown to parole staff, prison administrative staff, Department of Correction personnel, etc. The films drew complimentary letters. However, the letter from the Director of the California Department of Corrections raised some negative points.

1. The parole staff was against the showing of "Crisis" to inmates because it portrayed too many mistakes by parole agents.
2. Some agents thought the film was repetitive, too long, and hard to hear.
3. There was some concern over the possible distorted picture of the racial balance between agents and parolees.

#### Evaluation

Films as a training device are a mixed blessing. Their greatest impact ordinarily comes from the discussion that ensues when the film is stopped periodically.

However, films belong in the arsenal of teaching instruments. If they are seen as an instrument for teaching, rather than the end itself, a training film can be justified. For a non-profit organization, UCLA seemed to have been charging an excessively high amount for the production of these films. However, we consulted with Mr. George Lindsey, writer-producer of the show Perspective of WRC-TV, Washington, D.C. about the cost and he felt it was reasonable.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 348

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No, except for the original script.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Grant #349 (See #139)

Grantee: Rhode Island Department of Social Welfare, Providence, Rhode Island

Amount: \$25,185

Dates: 4/17/68 to 3/16/69

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #139, implementation of statewide program for correctional staffs.

Grant # 350

Grantee: Florida Police Standards Council

Amount: \$15,000

Dates: May 1968 to October 1968

Purpose: To develop an educational in-service program for law enforcement via 18 degree programs in the state.

Summary

The Florida Police Standards Council was created by law in 1967 to promulgate standards for recruitment and training of police officers in Florida. Their standards were made mandatory. They established a 200-hour minimum training standards course for all police officers. Candidates for police service had to be 21 years old, a citizen of the United States, a high school graduate or equivalent, and of good moral character. The council certified a total of 38 recruit training schools and police academies and 791 law enforcement instructors. Almost 2,000 police officers had completed the 200 hour training course and had received certificates.

This grant was to be used to plan and to implement further education of the police in a series of two-year programs.

In Florida there were 335 city police departments with a total of 6,331 full time municipal police officers. Only 30 departments serviced populations in excess of 25,000. There

were 27 junior colleges in Florida and 18 of them had police science programs at the associate degree level. In addition, Florida State University and Florida Atlantic University had four-year baccalaureate law enforcement programs.

The Council recommended, and the junior colleges agreed, to conform to the requirements of the LEAA Law Enforcement Education Program Manual of 1969 which required a certain minimum of courses that would be transferable from a two-year to a four-year college law enforcement degree program.

They agreed to set up a core of nine areas amounting to 27 credits that would be uniform in each school and some of which would be transferable. Thus they complied with regulations of LEAA, and followed the standards suggested by the American Association of Junior Colleges which were endorsed by IACP. These nine areas were:

- Introduction to Law Enforcement
- Criminal Investigation
- Criminal Law
- Police Administration and Organization
- Introduction to Criminalistics
- Criminal Evidence and Procedure
- Traffic Administration
- Deviant Behavior
- Police Operations

Finally, the Council recommended a police management course of 80 hours that would later be expanded to 120 and 240 hours.

Was this a good program? The answer must be yes. Just compare the standards of appointment today with those of 25 years ago. In 1944, Gunnar Myrdal described police recruitment standards in the South in this way: "Almost anyone on the outside of the penitentiary who weighs enough and is not blind or crippled can be considered a police candidate."\* Law enforcement in the South has come a long way since then, and programs such as this one are mainly responsible for the improvement.

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\*Gunnar Myrdal, An American Dilemma (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944), pp. 538-539.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 350

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Probably will have.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Although it was noninnovative, it was a firm step toward a higher caliber of law enforcement.

Grant #351

Grantee: South Carolina Department of Corrections

Amount: \$13,545

Dates: May 1968 to December 1968

Purpose: Development of state-wide training program for correctional staff with the cooperation of the University of South Carolina and State Probation, Parole and Pardon Board.

Summary

South Carolina had no unified training program. Each agency had its own in-service program with no communication or cooperation with others. Heavy workloads and scarcity of staff made training a minor function. Training officers had full time staff duties, and training was just an extra burden for them.

Up to 1963 the South Carolina Correctional System promised a bleak future -- loose discipline, wide open gambling, an inmate hierarchy built upon graft, cruel punishments such as big irons and chains.

Since then, under the guidance of aggressive directors, conditions have improved considerably. There has been separation of young offenders from older prisoners, small facilities, pre-release concept, work release, diagnostic testing, etc.

The profile of the South Carolina correctional worker was determined by a survey of 257 line and supervisory officers. The mean age at employment was 41 and one-half years, the mean educational level, 10.3 years. The average length of service was 4 years, and 57% had high school diplomas while 15% had some college.

The average correctional officer received a lecture by the training officer and recieved a Manual to study on his own time,



and then went to work. He was given a yellow epaulet marking him as a novice.

South Carolina still had chain gangs in most of the 46 counties, and conditions were as liveable as they were 100 years ago.

The probation services claimed a very high rate of success -- 83 1/2% for probationers and 76.9% for parolees. (This seemed incredible for such a backward department.)

A pilot training course was conducted. An institute was held for all agencies of the Criminal Justice field to meet and survey training needs.

There was a proposal for a future training program in South Carolina that would offer hope of improvement.

#### Evaluation

This report by the project director, evinced a sense of candor, bitterness, and idealism. He revealed the unpleasant truth about the South Carolina Correctional System and recommended a sound educational program which was too optimistic given the lack of educational background characteristics of the personnel in the system. But he presented a very strong case for the urgency of doing something immediately to improve and update the correctional system in South Carolina.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 351

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Partially.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

It sounds like the project could have used more financial and morale support.

Grant #353

Grantee: South Bend, Indiana Police Department

Amount: \$15,000

Dates: June 1968 to May 1969

Purpose: To expand the police-community relations program.

Summary

The South Bend Police Department set up a police-community relations bureau in December 1967 headed by Captain Worlf and assisted by four sergeants. Captain Wolf had studied at the Michigan State University School of Police Administration and Public Safety. He established four goals: (1) to produce greater public cooperation with the police department; (2) to reduce racial tension in that community; (3) to create closer cooperation between police and other community agencies; and (4) to give more attention to delinquency prone youth and juvenile offenders.

The report stated that the summer of 1968 was quiet in South Bend and one of the reasons for this that the citizens themselves accepted was that the PCR unit did good work during that summer. When the PCR unit was organized, it was not accepted either by the members of the police department, nor by the citizens who were skeptical. But soon conditions changed, and several programs were initiated. The first one was "Crime Alert" in which people were encouraged to report any possibility of crime to the police department through a special crime alert number. They did not have to give their names. Many thousands of calls were received, and many good arrests were made.

Another successful program was the teaching of Afro-American History to the new recruits of the South Bend Police Department and several other law agencies at the South Bend Police Academy. Professors from the University of Notre Dame and Saint Mary's College helped in this project. Also, the PCR worked closely with a number of agencies including Citizens' Fair Housing Committee, Urban League, NAACP, Human Relations Commission, etc.

Another program was a softball series in which the policemen played ball against black youths and on the teeshirts the statement "blue isn't bad" was the PCR's answer to "black is beautiful". Apparently, this had a rather humorous and beneficial effect on the relations.

There were many panels set up on the role of the police in a period of transition, the politics of confrontation, and civil rights. There were in-service training courses in human relations.

A mobile office was utilized to set up headquarters within minutes in an area of possible disorder. This mobile unit was especially designed to suit the needs of the PCR staff for field work. In the opinion of the report writer, the mobile unit had a distinct advantage over a storefront headquarters in that it could be moved quickly to any area in the city. The mobile unit was used to help fill the gap between community and police by moving it around to receive complaints from the citizens.

Another aspect of the program was a community radio watch in which 300 people -- drivers of vehicles -- had two-way radio equipment and reported to the South Bend Police if they saw anything suspicious or criminal. There was also a rumor control project to check out rumors, with a headquarters where telephones

were manned from 10:00 A.M. to 10:00 P.M. It was planned to operate this center on a 24-hour basis, seven days a week, but it had been phased out because the public's response had not been what was expected.

This program impressed me as a typical well rounded program -- nothing unusual, but yet a fairly intelligent approach to the problems of police today.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 353

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

In part.

2. Was the project innovative?

Somewhat.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not much.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. Will teaching Afro history reduce prejudice?

7. Remarks.

The assumption is made that teaching recruits African history will reduce their prejudice. It seems to me that there is no basis for this belief.

Grant # 355

Grantee: Oregon State Board of Control (for the Oregon Crime Control Coordinating Council), Salem, Oregon

Amount: \$24,923

Dates: May 1968 to August 1969

Purpose: A twenty-member council to research, analyze and develop a comprehensive course of action for improved law enforcement and criminal justice administration in the state.

Summary

The Oregon Crime Control Coordinating Council was created in 1967 by the Oregon Legislature. It was established as a section of the Corrections Division, an arm of the Oregon State Board of Control, made up of the Governor, the Secretary of State, and the State Treasurer. The members of the Council included the Governor, the Attorney General, some members of the State Legislature, State Police Superintendent, Corrections Division Administrator, the Chairman of the Board of Parole and Probation, the Warden of the Penitentiary, the County Sheriff, the City Police Chief, juvenile directors, district attorneys, and judges.

The duties of the Council were to assist the Governor in developing the planning and carrying out of a long range crime and delinquency prevention program for Oregon, to advise and assist local community and citizen groups in their local crime and delinquency prevention programs, to assist in establishing a clearing house for crime and delinquency prevention programs, and finally to conduct supervised conferences and educational programs.

The primary goals established at its organizational meeting in November 1967 were to develop a public education

program in order to develop support for law and order. This goal was to be achieved by 1) promoting special law and order programs in public schools, 2) the organization of local crime control councils and development of material for use by the news media such as "Support your Local Police," "Protect Yourself and Your Property," "Become Involved in Preventing Crime," "Volunteer for Police Reserves," 3) the development of a citizen's citation reward for supporters of law enforcement.

The secondary goals included task force studies of crime and delinquency problems combined with the development of plans to solve these problems. The lack of staff prevented adequate preparation to meet these goals, and the staff effort was cut short by the termination of the OLEA grant six months after the staff was employed.

The Council scheduled a state-wide conference with the theme "Law education in the community, Co-partners in crime prevention." It also carried out a project to develop riot control training schools for the city, county, and state police; and there were training sessions for sniper control.

The council's principal activity was the planning of a law and order program to be incorporated into the public schools' curriculum.



Grant #364

Grantee: Milwaukee Police Department

Amount: \$95,025

Dates: June 1968 to May 1969

Purpose: To test a mobile radio teleprinter and design a model system of mobile teletype.

Summary

There were three parts to this study: (1) Field test, (2) Operations Research Analysis, and (3) Propagation Analysis to evaluate the fading characteristics.

The report stated that the best way to determine the utility of mobile teleprinters would be to install them in a sample of police cars from different departments and see how they would work. But since the Milwaukee department was unable to do this because of lack of money, the teleprinters were used only in its department.

There was a normal delay of 270 seconds in the referral of a call from the Complaint operator to the District. Mobile teleprinters would only reduce this by 23 seconds. This was not enough to justify installation.

The report found that it was not clear how mobile teleprinters could contribute to increased apprehension in many crimes such as larceny and burglary.

The mobile teleprinters would not result in improved

accuracy, reduction of delay, etc. in Milwaukee.

Evaluation

It seemed then that recommendations for use of teleprinters in other cities were rather lukewarm. At this stage, the mobile teleprinter is not a significant improvement.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 355

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes, in some ways.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The project seems to have spread itself a little thin and attempted to achieve too much. OLEA's monitor would have done well to have helped the project pursue in depth one or two of its several purposes.

Grant #357 (See #222)

Grantee: Center for Law Enforcement and Corrections, Pennsylv-  
vania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania

Amount: \$29,312

Dates: 4/1/68 to 3/31/69

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #222, implementation  
of statewide training program for correctional staffs.

Grant #359 (See #168)

Grantee: Youth Studies Center, University of Southern California,  
Los Angeles

Amount: \$96,259

Dates: 4/1/68 to 12/31/68

Purpose: Refinement and testing of the mathematical model  
of the probation process (SIMBAD) developed under  
Grant #168, designed to help probation officers select  
best treatment for delinquent youths.

Grant #360

Grantee: Department of Corrections, Washington, D.C.

Amount: \$5,000

Dates: June 1968 to October 1968 (extended to June 1969)

Purpose: To develop a district-wide training program for correctional personnel.

Summary

The grantee surveyed Washington, D.C. and found that there were 660 correctional officers dealing with a daily inmate population of 3,000. An additional 140 service employees supervised inmate work activities. Fewer than 50 staff treatment members were available for education, counseling, and recreation. The survey found that 86% of the correction officers had at least 12 years of schooling and 85% of them had expressed willingness to attend courses on their own time.

The goals of the training were 1) to give skills and information to make the staff more effective, 2) to provide understanding of the system and the various roles of correction personnel, 3) to provide knowledge of the rehabilitation process and to maximize their contribution to that process.

The training program was divided into a pre-service, an in-service, and a college-training area.

a) Pre-service training for new officers would consist of:

general orientation, department history and philosophy, responsibilities of the correctional staff, confrontation with inmates, the inmate role, the treatment process.

b) The in-service training would consist of workshops, seminars, field trips to parolees' houses, courts, etc.

Officers would spend a day in lockup. (This was later amended to spending a day with a prisoner.)

c) The college program through arrangements with colleges in the area would be a certificate program of 38 credits mainly in the behavioral and social sciences or an associate in science degree program of 90 credits. The incentive for attending college would be points awarded toward promotion.

There was also a group work training program for selected probation and parole officers.

The evaluation would be the analysis of changes in behavior, attitudes and knowledge of the students. However, the report concluded at this point and did not give any evaluation.

In general, the program seemed to offer an intelligent approach to correctional training. At least in its rationale it was a cut above the average correctional program of OLEA.

The project group was wise in realizing that for the training program to have meaningful impact, it would have to project an image of prestige and status.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 360

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Well done within its financial limitations.



Grant #361 (See #69)

Grantee: Minnesota State Planning Agency, St. Paul

Amount: \$25,000

Dates: 5/15/68 to 5/14/69

Purpose: Continuation funding for 2nd year of commission  
activities.

Grant # 362 (See #224)

Grantee: National Council on Crime and Delinquency

Amount: \$3,990

Dates: 6/1/68 to 10/31/68

Purpose: Provision of Criminal Justice Planning Resource

Center information services to state, local organizations  
concerned with criminal justice planning.

Grant #364

Grantee: Milwaukee Police Department

Amount: \$95,025

Dates: June 1968 to May 1969

Purpose: To test a mobile radio teleprinter and design  
a model system of mobile teletype.

Summary

There were three parts to this study: 1) Field test,  
2) operations research analysis, and 3) propagation analysis  
to evaluate the fading characteristics.

The report stated that the best way to determine the  
utility of mobile teleprinters would be to install them in  
a sample of police cars from different departments and see how  
they would work. But since the Milwaukee department was  
unable to do this because of lack of money, the teleprinters  
were used only in its department.

There was a normal delay of 270 seconds in the referral  
of a call from the complaint operator to the district.  
Mobile teleprinters would only reduce this by 23 seconds.  
This was not enough to justify installation.

The report found that it was not clear how mobile tele-  
printers could contribute to increased apprehension in many  
crimes such as larceny and burglary.

The mobile teleprinters would not result in improved accuracy, reduction of delay, etc. in Milwaukee.

Evaluation

It seemed then that recommendations for use of teleprinters in other cities were rather lukewarm. At this stage, the mobile teleprinter is not a significant improvement.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 364

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

In a negative sense. Gadgetry will not solve law enforcement problems.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The project failed.

Grant #365 (See #263)

Grantee: Arkansas Law Enforcement Standards and Training  
Council, Little Rock, Arkansas

Amount: \$19,807

Dates: 6/2/68 to 6/1/69

Purpose: Second stage funding of Grant #263 to implement  
training required by law and develop legislation re-  
quiring incentive system.

Grant # 66-1

Grantee: Stanford Research Institute

Amount: \$78,024

Dates: December 20, 1965 to July 15, 1966.

Purpose: Study of characteristics of adult and juvenile offenders in the District of Columbia.

Summary

Purpose and Achievement: This study was undertaken by the Stanford Research Institute (SRI) in order to supply the President's Commission on Crime in the District of Columbia with reliable and accurate information about adult criminals and juvenile offenders in the District which would help the Commission recommend programs for the reduction of crime.

The information to be supplied was a description of stratified (by felony type) random samples of convicted adult felons and active juvenile offenders in the District during the Fiscal Year 1965. The description of the active juvenile offender was in terms of personal background and offense history. In addition, the study included an analysis of juvenile contacts reported by the Youth Aid Division of the Metropolitan Police Department; the preparation of juvenile delinquency rates; and an examination of the socio-economic correlates of juvenile delinquency in the District.

The adult felon was described in terms of his personal background, the current offense, and prior criminal history.

The entire project was conducted in fewer than five months.

### Evaluation

The project succeeded in compiling the information it intended to obtain. However, this does not mean that the project was necessarily a success--except in a narrow methodological sense of doing what it set out to do. The real test of the value of this or any project that collects data is whether the data are useful. That is, do they amount to "information" or are they simply an assortment of facts? To be "informative" they must tell us something we did not already know. Otherwise, they are either non-sensical or redundant. What is more, if the data are informative one must ask a second question, viz., "How informative?"

The SRI study was expertly and rigorously done. Their presentation is clear, their sampling techniques appropriate and their statistical analysis sophisticated. The only real question one might have about the study is, "How useful will it be?" This question can only be answered by examining specifically what the D.C. Crime Commission does with the report. As a general contribution to the literature on crime



**CONTINUED**

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and delinquency it is more redundant than informative.

One interesting finding that has not been seized upon is that they found juvenile delinquency in Washington, D.C. to be inversely related to the density of population in the home. This is in conflict with traditional theory that relates delinquency positively to the number of people in the home. So far, nothing has been done to further investigate this important finding.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 66-1

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Unknown.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Unknown.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes.

7. Remarks.

Very professionally done.

Grant #66-2

Grantee: Bureau of Social Science Research

Amount: \$48,118

Dates: January 1966 to July 1967

[This was supplemented later by Grant #67-11: \$61,925]

Purpose: To study the incidence of crime and attitudes toward crime and police in Washington, D.C.

### Summary

The source of data was a probability sample of households. The project staff interviewed adults in three Washington, D.C. police precincts. In the sample there were 291 cases, mainly Negro (85%).

The respondents held moderate income white collar or service jobs and were long-term residents of city.

Self reports pertaining to victimization indicated a rate of crime several times greater than that officially reported (possibly 10 times as great). Approximately 40% of incidents were not reported to police.

### Respondents' Attitudes Toward Crime and Law Enforcement

Generally, safety was a major concern. They wanted better police protection, stricter law enforcement, and more severe penalties.

Attitudes toward police were in the main favorable, although there was some ambivalence here.

Contacts with police were more in social context than in official ones. They did believe generally that Negroes frequently encountered mistreatment from police.

### Evaluation

Studies of this kind are always valuable. This one had good

methodological standards. Its findings nonetheless, may not be representative of Washington, D.C. as a whole. There were not enough lower class black people, or white respondents of all classes.

A paer based on this report was published in the Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, November 1967.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 66-2

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes.

7. Remarks.

It was one of the most rigorously designed research projects funded by OLEA. It was closely patterned after a similar national survey by N.O.R.C.

Grant #66-7 (See 67-32)

Grantee: Institute for Defense Analyses

Amount: \$23,443

Dates: 4/29/66 to 9/30/67

Purpose: First National Symposium on Law Enforcement  
Science and Technology, March 1967, Chicago, for  
scientists, engineers, law enforcement officials.

Grants #66-9; #67-29; #68-35

Grantee: Law Enforcement Science and Technology Center of  
the Illinois Institute of Technology Research Institute

Amount: \$61,231

Dates: 4/29/66 to \_\_\_\_\_ [not given]

Purpose: First and Second National Symposia on Law Enforcement and Technology

Summary

Purpose and Accomplishment: The First National Symposium on Law Enforcement Science and Technology was held with the objective of stimulating the application of science and technology to criminal justice by "providing an annual professional forum for exchange of ideas and information, identifying the relevant capabilities of science and technology, fostering communication between the criminal justice and scientific and engineering communities, and publication of proceedings."\*

The Symposium was announced six months in advance and drew substantial interest from the diverse groups involved.

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\*IIT Research Institute, Final Report on First National Symposium on Law Enforcement Science and Technology (Unpublished report, Illinois Institute of Technology Research Institute, undated), pp. 3 and 4.



Over 1,000 people attended and 164 papers were presented at the three-day affair. Prominent political, scholastic, scientific, and engineering figures attended. Many of the papers were published in a very large book entitled Law Enforcement Science and Technology, Volume I.

The response to the first Symposium was so enthusiastic and the benefit derived from it was felt to be so great that a second Symposium was funded. It likewise drew substantial interest. Half of the attendance of this meeting came from local, state and federal agencies and the other half from scientific, technical and industrial organizations.

More specifically 40% of the attendees were from private industry and only 10% were from colleges and universities. There were only half as many papers submitted to this Symposium as there were to the first; and there were 150 less in attendance (although some of this was due to withdrawals because of civil disorders which occurred just prior to the meeting). \*

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\* S.I. Cohn, ed., Law Enforcement Science and Technology II (Chicago: Illinois Institute of Technology Research Institute, 1969), page number not given.

The papers delivered at this meeting were also published, as a second volume in the series. The categories in which the papers were organized in this volume are:

Plenary-Riot Prevention

Riot Prevention and Control

Communications

Corrections

Criminology

Criminalistics

Fingerprints

Information Storage and Retrieval

Police Management and Operations

Alarms and Surveillance \*

Evaluation

These two symposia have served several valuable purposes and perhaps a few disagreeable ones as well.

Interdisciplinary endeavors are not new to social scientists, especially the modern criminologists whose very identity is built upon an interdisciplinary basis. But, the particular kind of bridging that these symposia attempted to accomplish, namely, between social science and engineering,

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\* Ibid.

and physical (chemical, mechanical, electrical, etc.) science and engineering is one that is neither common nor easily accomplished. There are strong ideological forces in the social science community against contributing to the growing technocracy and to the subjugation of human freedom and spontaneity to the role of machines. Also, there exists strong norms against doing "practical" research as opposed to theoretical research. Rewards within the academic pecking order are often higher for the theoretical researcher than for the investigator of specific, practical problems. On the other hand, the practical, specific, immediate problem is the bread and butter of the engineering world.

In addition to these ideological differences there are substantial differences in methodology and conceptualization that separate these disciplines.

Given these differences it was not surprising finding IITRI report in its analysis of the first meeting that "at times during the Symposium, it was noted that interdisciplinary exchange of ideas was somewhat lacking."\* A glance

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\*IITRI, Final Report, p. 24.

at the table of contents of either of the two published volumes supports this observation. Other than the fact that members of these two broadly defined disciplines attended the same meeting and had their papers published in the same volume, there is very little evidence of interdisciplinary collaboration. Of course, having failed to achieve this goal the first time around is hardly a discredit.

The experience of these symposia parallel that of OLEA regarding the intermingling of the "hard" and "soft" sciences. Both found that the two do not tend to mix. Rather, they separate out into their distinctive disciplines. This finding should be the starting point for similar efforts in the future. If a mutually beneficial mixture is to be achieved more than merely bringing the two together should be done. Organizers of symposia and administrators of research programs that hope to achieve a truly interdisciplinary effort will have to "force" the integration, the blend, by some more efficacious means than mere publication of proceedings.

Aside from the interdisciplinary hopes, the two symposia and their published products represent definite successes in providing a channel for focusing diverse technical interests in the field of criminal justice.

They represent a focusing force more than a generating force. The heavy representation of private industry in these symposia suggests that the real generating force is the potential source of funds.

The meetings also seem to have served as a political and psychological force. The appearance at these meetings of such political notables as Mayor Daley of Chicago and U.S. Senator Edward Kennedy--especially in contrast to the absence of political interest in the annual meetings of traditional professional anti-crime groups as the American Correctional Association, National Council on Crime and Delinquency, and the American Criminological Society--might be interpreted to mean that the public's hope for law and order is being pinned to the successful application of technology to these problems. However, if this does happen and the public--which is already misled regarding the extent and effectiveness of police use of science and technology--has its hopes falsely aroused, a very disagreeable reaction will eventually set in.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 66-9, #67-29, #68-35

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Possibly.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. What proportion of cases can actually benefit from the application of science and technology?

7. Remarks.

Law enforcement has not yet been inundated by the application of science and technology. It would be well for law enforcement to understand that its greatest problems will not be solved by science and technology; in fact they may be aggravated.

Grants #66-100, #67-21, #68-41

Grantee: Federal Bureau of Investigation

Amounts and Dates: \$97,000 (#66-100) January 1966

\$406,197 (#67-21) September 1967

\$295,000 (#68-41) July 1967 to June 1968

Purpose: To study feasibility of a computerized National Crime Information Center. To install and test it. To expand it to state and local police agencies.

#### Summary

The Institute for Telecommunication Sciences, Boulder, Colorado, was selected for the design of the system. An advisory committee of 40 local and state law enforcement officials assisted.

The following files were agreed upon:

1. Stolen vehicles and parts, and vehicles used in felonies
2. Stolen and missing guns
3. Stolen property with identifiable serial numbers
4. Extraditable wanted persons.

The criteria for choosing the above files were:

1. They would meet immediate needs of police
2. They were readily adaptable to computer storage
3. They could be used by all developing police computer systems.

At the start, 15 local and state agencies were chosen as a test.

Technical aspects

The FBI installed a new IBM 360/40 computer and model 2702 unit permitting 62 remote terminals to be connected.

The FBI technicians wrote the NCIC programs.

Western Union installed communication lines between NCIC and local agencies.

In January 1967 the NCIC started to operate at a maximum of two hours a day. By May 1967 all the fifteen test agencies were plugged in. By the end of 1967 the NCIC was operating 22 hours per day. For the most part, the local agencies were using ASR Model 35 teletype units of IBM 1050 units.

St. Louis, New York and California interfaced with this system by their own computers. In California a patrolman can have access to the FBI file information in 90 seconds.

Results at the end of 1967

24 states, Washington, D.C., and Royal Canadian Mounted Police were connected to NCIC.

There were in storage 360,000 records of:

- 134,000 stolen vehicles
- 32,000 stolen plates
- 50,000 articles of stolen property
- 126,000 wanted guns
- 18,000 wanted persons.



There were 10,320 daily transactions.

The number of positive responses was 45 a day.

In May 1967 the Advisory Committee passed a resolution to keep control of the NCIC information in police hands because of the element of confidentiality.

At this time, 1970, all 50 states with the exception of Alaska were connected. Hawaii is connected by way of satellite.

#### Evaluation

This is probably the single most expensive project amounting to \$800,000. However, it is an inevitable development if there is to be a central national repository of police information. Apparently, the program is a success and the FBI and police agencies are satisfied.

However, it should be used to develop further innovative uses. As it now stands the amount of information and benefit derived from a little quicker access to information such as license plates and cars is hardly worth \$800,000. It must be remembered that the large departments have their own records that cover local information, and they are easily accessible. In small departments the delay is caused by local communication difficulties and these will still exist, even though the FBI can deliver an answer to a request in ten seconds.

Therefore, this project will be justified on a cost-benefit basis when the amount of usable information is expanded in the future.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 66-100

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

Possibly.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. A cost benefit analysis is indicated.

7. Remarks.

This is an inevitable development. Computerization and central information dossiers can be helpful in the fight on crime. They can also be dangerous in the intimidation of our citizenry.

Grant #67-11 (See #66-2)

Grantee: Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., Washington, D.C.

Amount: \$61,925

Dates: Supplements grant #66-2 ending 7/15/67

Purpose: Study of incidence of crime (reported and unreported) in D.C. through public survey techniques, including sampling of citizen attitudes toward crime and the police.

Grant #67-21 (See #66-100)

Grantee: Federal Bureau of Investigation, U.S. Department  
of Justice, Washington, D.C.

Amount: \$406,197

Dates: 9/1/66 to 8/31/67

Purpose: One-year test of computer-assisted coast-to-coast  
information network linking 15 local and state law  
enforcement agencies with National Crime Information  
Center. Information on fugitives, stolen cars, and  
property. Grant will help finance agencies' initial  
installation costs.

Grant #67-22

Grantee: Norman Pomrenke

Amount: \$710

Dates: January 1967

Purpose: To study Police Management Training in eight southern states.

#### Summary

This was a preliminary study of Police Management Training in Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee.

#### Evaluation

The study was a one-man job by the Assistant Director of the Institute of Government, University of North California.

It was certainly money well spent. There were some studies that cost OLEA 60 times as much which did not cover the field as well, or accomplish the original goals.

The study revealed that the South was in dire need of police training, and that the well established training centers could not expand quickly enough to remedy the situation.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #67-22

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No, a survey is not innovative, but it was valuable because it was needed.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not as a whole.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was a one-man job accomplished at very little cost to OLEA. The final report was valuable as a basis for establishing police training centers in the South.

Grant #67-23

Grantee: OLEA

Amount: \$4,540

Dates: January 1967 to February 1967

Purpose: Conference on Police Management Training for OLEA grantees.

Summary

This was a conference held in February 1967 to review the impact of the police management training conferences sponsored by OLEA. Some of the principal projects were #11 offered by the Academy of Police Science at Harvard Business School. It was a three-week course attended by police chiefs from the 40 largest cities; #79, a three-week Police Executive Development Program given by IACP at the University of Georgia; #53, a Police Management Institute offered by the Institute of Government of the University of North Carolina in five one-week sessions; #75, a Police Executive Development Program at the Florida Institute for Law Enforcement, St. Petersburg Junior College which was a very long program of 253 hours of classroom and individual instruction..

Eleven topics were subjects of discussion:

1. Formulating Program Objectives
2. Program Content
3. Research
4. Training Methods
5. Adjustment to Group Differences
6. Recruitment and Selection
7. Executive Development and Career Planning
8. Evaluation
9. Follow-up and Continuation

## 10. Local, Regional, National Programs

## 11. Communication of Program Experience

Some interesting questions and recommendations resulted that ought to be the basis for additional research and conferences.

1. The research for standards that may be guides for future conferences.

2. Content ought not to be limited to the police frame of reference.

3. The need for research into a profile of chiefs of police and functions of law enforcement administrators.

4. The need for gearing conferences at different levels for different ranks and groups of participants.

5. Evaluation as an important but elusive problem. The discovery that there was no proven method of evaluating executive development programs. There was, however, the possibility of using outside evaluators.

### Evaluation

This was a conference among the professors and directors of the police training programs. There should have been participation at some point by the police who were students at the previous conference to get a cross-fertilization of ideas. The net import of the conference was that there is little hard evidence to prove the benefits of police management and executive development courses. In large cities at least most police officers in preparation for promotion have been exposed to management training and concepts of career development.

The need here is for a conference that will plan innovative management courses with a type of evaluation over a longer range



of time, that will establish what participants do or do not gain from such institutes.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 67-23

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

A little.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

Any conference of OLEA grantees to discuss their work is a valuable project.

Grant #67-26

Grantee: Federal Bureau of Investigation

Amount: \$8,000

Dates: April 1967

Purpose: Publication of the FBI riot manual, Prevention and Control of Mobs and Riots.

Summary

There were so few riot control guides for law enforcement agencies that this was a necessary and important publication. It covered all phases of riot control:

The Law,

Analysis of a Riot,

Police Role,

Crowd Control,

Planning, Organizing and Training for Riot Control,

Police Operation Before, During, and After a Riot,

Assistance by National Guard.

Evaluation

This was essentially a guide for police developed by analogy with the Army manuals. The National Riot Commission found that no strategy or tactic was completely successful, so that some of the recommendations in this manual may be more wishful thinking than realistic.

The second chapter was simplistic. Under "Contributing Factors Leading to Civil Disorders" the report included a section on basic rights and needs (and aspirations), which listed five needs or aspirations: independence, justice, wealth, recognition, and self esteem.

No scholar in the behavioral sciences would accept this naive schedule of needs. If the view of human nature is in error, the application may be wrong. This may be a small point, but the view of human nature is certainly important in developing a philosophy of riot control.

There were some recommendations that might need reconsideration. The manual stated:

"Regardless of the tactics the mob employs, the best resource of the police commander initially is the rapid and impressive display of police power and resolve. This is the Show of Force." (p.87)

On the other hand the officer in charge is admonished "Never Bluff!" (p. 87). Shortly thereafter the report continues:

"The basic rule, when applying force, is to use only the minimum force necessary to effectively control the situation." (p. 89)

Is not the impressive display of force a bluff when the commander intends to use only minimum force? And there have been many demonstrations where the show of force by the police produced the confrontation and violence that it was supposed to avoid.

This manual is valuable, but now needs revision on the basis of several years of new experience with riots.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #67-26

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Not even for law enforcement.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. Why could not the FBI produce a better manual or method of teaching police departments riot control?

7. Remarks.

There are new developments in riots and riot control that make the FBI's manual old-fashioned.

Grant #67-28

Grantee: University of Maryland

Amount: \$14,000

Dates: May 1967 to June 1967

Purpose: To hold conference on Police Science Degree Programs  
for recipients of Police Science Degree planning grants.

Summary

An important element in any OLEA assistance program was the exchange of ideas and experience among grantees. To provide an opportunity for such interchange among the Directors of Police Science Degree Development Projects, OLEA sponsored the Conference on Development of Degree Programs in Police Science. Meetings were held at the University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland, on June 8-9, 1967. Through lectures, the 54 participants were able to share the experience of knowledgeable people in the field of police education. In informal seminars, conferees explored methods of formulating and carrying out effective police science degree programs.

This report presented some of the key areas of program interest. Included was an address by Arthur F. Brandstatter, Director of Michigan State University's School of Police Administration and Public Safety, on the history of police education in the United States. The late Joseph D. Lohman, Dean of the School of Criminology of the University of California at Berkeley, spoke on the challenges facing colleges and universities in providing meaningful education for police.

Accounts of three discussion groups were also included. In these discussions, attention was focused on curriculum

development, relations between colleges and the police community, and the role and obligation of a police science degree program.

The information and suggestions contained in this report could provide a useful tool for those involved in police education.

At this conference more questions were raised than answered, but perhaps for that very reason, it was valuable. It may mean that there will be a stop to the proliferation of police science degree programs without the proper planning.

Representative Anderson called attention to the implications of the massive increase in loans and scholarships for law enforcement students under the then only proposed Law Enforcement Education Act. One of the relevant purposes was to improve college programs in law enforcement and corrections.

A. F. Brandstatter discussed the history of law enforcement education, tracing it back to August Vollmer who established police science courses at the University of California before World War I. He said, "In summary, organizational arrangements, teaching or duty loads, educational preparation, scope of offerings, scholarly association, and the adequacy of library materials are important factors to be considered in developing a quality educational program. If police education is to achieve the stature it seeks in the academic community, it must be considered as a part of the criminal justice process . . . ."

Joseph Lohman called attention to the "myths to which we are subscribing in the education, recruitment, and deployment of the personnel of our system of criminal justice, and in the tasks to which we assign them."



He meant by this, in particular, the smug belief that law enforcement and corrections are experimenting and innovating when in reality, all we are doing is housekeeping and warehousing the problem. Another fundamental myth is belief in the local community as a copy of the New England village. This is no longer true. The local community has become part of the great city.

Another myth of importance is the belief that the "single most important variable affecting the kind and amount of crime is the police function."

The problems that must be faced are the fact that from "one-third to as much as one-half of the law enforcement and correctional personnel are without any formal education or training in their chosen occupations." Secondly, there are not enough people specifically trained for the technical specialties in the field. In the third place, there is the increasing polarity between the police and the courts.

He concluded, "The Collegiate contribution to the education of the police must not be corrupted by a pedestrian emphasis upon gadgets and gimmicks or prosaic exercise of routine and training, for the colleges in their development of police science programs must see themselves as a new public force that can provide a new kind of dialogue."

President Donald Riddle of John Jay College saw the basic problem to be the ambiguity of the definition of the police role. Until a clear role has been established we cannot answer this series of related questions.

1. Which way should institutions beginning police science programs go?

2. What does a police officer need in the way of education?

Does he need technical education; or does he need a general education, including a heavy emphasis on psychology, sociology, and administration?

3. Is the program to be a transfer or a terminal one?

Professor C. Robert Guthrie of Long Beach State College advanced proposals for various types of police science programs, although there was no discussion of the issues he raised.

Most of the other speakers summarized the earlier remarks and working committees considered the following questions.

1. How should the police science program fit into the framework of the college or university?

2. Does the police science program have a responsibility to make its expertise available to the practitioner for problem solving purposes? Should the police science professor serve as a consultant to the police executive?

3. Should the police science program be promoted among police practitioners? If so, how may such promotion be undertaken?

4. Should the police science program establish standards for student admission that are peculiar to the police science program, such as mental, moral, and physical standards?

Answers to the four questions were hammered out by discussion groups.

The groups would not recommend a specific academic housing for a police science program but they were unanimous in indicated an absolute necessity for locating the program at an academic institution.

The group thought that police science professors should help the practitioner and act as consultant.

There was a majority that felt that the police science program should be promoted among police practitioners to encourage them to join the program.

In answer to the fourth question the decision was that police science programs ought not to assume the responsibility of screening students to meet police departments standards. However, students should be counselled so that they understand that they do not meet such requirements in case they want to become policemen.

#### Evaluation

Conferences such as this are necessary and productive even when there is disagreement on proposals. This should be followed by a joint conference among police professors and practitioners to get the cross fertilization of ideas from both sides. This might help to alleviate a problem that was brought out in several of the presentations, and that is the suspicion that many police practitioners harbor toward the academic community and toward police science programs within the university.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 67-28

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes. Conferences for grantees are worthwhile.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes.

7. Remarks.

OLEA should have scheduled more conferences of this type.

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Grant #67-29 (See #66-9)

Grantee: ITT Research Institute, Chicago

Amount: \$8,772

Dates: Supplements Grant #66-9 ending 9/30/67

Purpose: First National Symposium on Law Enforcement  
Science and Technology, March 1967, Chicago, for  
scientists, engineers, law enforcement officials  
(1,000 participants).

Grant #67-30

Grantee: University Research Corporation

Amount: \$23,000

Dates: May 15, 1967

Purpose: To conduct a three-day training session and technical assistance conference for 40-60 police officers from departments with OLEA sponsored police community relations programs.

Summary

The conference was held June 19-21, 1967 at a midtown hotel in Washington, D.C. Twenty-nine police officials and five civilians from 28 police departments attended.

The conference staff consisted of five full-time and eight part-time resource people. Three OLEA officials and three from University Research Corporation were also present to assist.

The objectives were:

1. To provide grantees with information about p-c-r programs -- issues, goals, alternatives, and problems;
2. To provide a forum for exchange of ideas and use of consultants;
3. To create awareness of the advantages of working together over a common problem;
4. To offer new insights into human behavior;
5. To suggest alternate strategies for p-c-r units.

Preparations included questionnaire surveys, field visits, and consultation with experts.

Certain patterns of interest emerged from the questionnaire data.

1. The necessity for improved communication between police

and public. Especially riot-prone youth.

2. The strategy for coping with the hostility or indifference of command and other personnel toward p-c-r work.

The final agenda included relations between p-c-r units and other elements of the police department, the organization of p-c-r training, effective contact with key community groups, the development and evaluation of programs for hard-to-reach troubles over youth.

The presentation was a combination of lecture, small group discussion, and workshops of about 12 members each.

The evaluation consisted of a brief questionnaire completed by the participants and a questionnaire to take the opinions of the resource people as well.

Some of the conclusions and recommendations of the conference were:

1. There was no ideal p-c-r program.
2. P-C-R units were the essence of law enforcement.
3. P-C-R units should not operate in isolation from the rest of the department, nor should they build an empire for themselves.
4. Members of the force who reduce community tension should be rewarded.
5. There may be resistance on the force to p-c-r training.
6. It was difficult for police to reach grass-roots community.
7. The only way to gain the public confidence was to eliminate police brutality, corruption, and discrimination in living.
8. There way some ambivalence toward the use of youthful

paraprofessionals to assist in p-c-r.

9. The participants expressed the belief that the resource people were hostile toward the police and their problems.

10. Police needed help in evaluating programs.

As a result of this conference, it was recommended that future conferences be held with the following guidelines:

1. Conferences should be sharply focused on a limited number of key topics.

2. The conference should avoid too much theorizing.

3. The relevant activities of selected police departments should be the core material for discussion.

4. Later sessions should focus on evaluation of programs discussed earlier.

#### Evaluation

This conference was superior to most of the others. Serious matters were discussed; controversial topics were considered. Criticism as well as praise was placed before the conference. The report was candid.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 67-30

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes, for the police.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

Yes.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. About police-community relations.

7. Remarks.

The OLEA should have had many more conferences of this type for OLEA grantees.

Grant #67-32

Grantee: Institute for Defense Analyses, Washington, D.C.

Amount: \$38,200

Dates: [not listed]

Purpose: To develop a computer model of the Washington, D.C.

District Court for processing felonies. The model known as Courtsim will simulate the actual operations of the court. It may be used for testing and improving the court system without the necessity of interfering with the actual court proceedings.

Summary

This was a supplemental grant to a very large project awarded to the Institute for Defense Analyses to study the potential application of science and technology to law enforcement and criminal justice.

For model building, the necessary ingredients are a description, collection and analysis of data. Therefore the project staff studied:

1. The organization, the structure, the proceedings of the Washington District Court.
2. Data relating to felony cases --the time intervals and delays between various stages.
3. The third phase was the actual work on the development of the model.

In 1965 there were 6,300 adults arrested for felony in Washington, D.C., but only 1,603 of them came before the court for trial proceedings. The median time between arrest and trial disposition was 5.5 months. In non-trial cases, the time until disposition was 4.5 months.

The President's Crime Commission Task Force recommended a maximum interval of 4 months. It was found that in 50% of the cases the time period was within the recommended time limits at all pre-arraignment stages, except the time between the preliminary hearing and the indictment.

The Courtsim model used the IBM General Purpose Systems Simulator (GPSS). A flow chart was prepared. A five-hour day was chosen for the model.

Three types of statistics were generated by the computer analysis: (1) queueing data --number of cases and time spent awaiting; (2) processing units --utilization and average time; (3) time required to move to selected stages --percentiles, means, and standard deviations of the elapsed time.

The five-week period of delay waiting for the return of an indictment was identified as the bottleneck. When this was reduced to scales by simulation, not in reality, the times were much improved.

They introduced various changes into the simulated model

with a projected load of 440 cases for trial. The reduction in the waiting period for the indictment reduced the time of the complete process by 25%.

If the requirement that all motions had to be filed and heard within 17 days (in addition to the Grand Jury change cited above) was introduced, the total time of the case was reduced from 5 months to 3 months.

The project group found it difficult to obtain data and recommended that jackets of court papers be coded to give better data such as:

1. Length of time defendant took at each stage
2. Number of witnesses on case
3. Dates of each stage
4. All present information as well.

They recommended the following changes on the basis of their analysis:

1. The U.S. Commissioner's Office for the processing of felony defendants.
2. Reduce the time between preliminary hearing or presentment and return of indictment by at least two weeks.
3. An intensive data collection effort.
4. Extend the use of the Courtsim model.

#### Evaluation

1. This Courtsim model did not work properly under certain conditions; however, the report is not clear as to how and why this occurred. (p. 15 of report.)
2. There was no necessity for a computer model to determine that a reduction of delay in certain stages of the case would result in a reduction of the total time.
3. The recommendations that more judges and clerical help be added are already well known. If this is what the computer can tell us, then why use the computer?
4. There was no indication that the grantee knew the real nature of the court process. It is a place of conflict and compromise, bargaining and threat. The motion, the delays, the technical procedures are used by lawyers on both sides to accomplish specific goals. Nothing in the Courtsim seems to be aware of this dynamic pattern. A machine approach is too simplistic.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 67-32

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

In theory but not in practice.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. How much of the delay in court procedures is actually an inevitable part of our adversary system?

7. Remarks.

This project did not come to grips with the legal problems involved. They did not consider the possibility that delay might be strategic ploys in the lawyers repertoire.

Grant #68-36

Grantee: International Association of Chiefs of Police

Amount: \$252,000

Dates: August 1967 to February 1969

Purpose: To develop sight sound film strips for training  
small police departments employing 100 or fewer.

#### Summary

The cost of the package was \$5.12. The agency paid \$2.60;  
OLEA paid the rest.

The films were shown: 5,808 to recruits; 12,611 to in-  
service; and 3,122 to public groups.

The subjects were:

1. Felony in Progress
2. Searching a person arrested
3. Principles of Investigation
4. Traffic Violator
5. Rescue Breathing
6. Crime Scene procedures
7. Testifying in Court
8. Directing Traffice
9. Field Inquiry
10. Felony arrest
11. Crime and its prevention
12. Safe driving techniques

#### Evaluation

In September 1967 a memorandum, brochure, and application  
for financial aid from OLEA were mailed to all potential police  
agencies that might desire to participate in this program. The

response was enthusiastic. The agencies stated that the package would be used mainly for in-service training, then recruit training, and last in public lectures.

Apparently, the Sight Sound Training was used fairly successfully because 92% of the agencies reported that they would continue in the program if it was extended. The majority of films were rated as good.

Any training improvement for small departments across the country is worthwhile.



EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #68-36

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

A little.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

\$252,000 was a very large sum for the production of these film strips. The mere expression of willingness to use the strips is not the same as actually using them, or the same as improving law enforcement.

Grant #68-37

Grantee: International Association of Chiefs of Police

Amount: \$328,500

Dates: November 1967 to June 1968

Purpose: Planning, organization, and presentation of training conferences on prevention and control of civil disturbances for police chiefs, mayors, city managers, and key command personnel. These were planned as one-week institutes in ten regions for personnel of 100 large cities.

#### Summary

The project resulted in a manual on riot control equipment which is summarized here. The manual had the goals of providing the Department of Justice with data for the distribution of riot control material to local law enforcement agencies, and of preparing a manual for the use of chemical agents.

The grantee surveyed 114 major cities and five major counties and 96 responded. The survey found that 41% of police departments had no C.S. (mace) available. However, in 21 larger cities, from 500,000 upward, there was a very high percentage of departments that had C.S. In cities that had recent riots, there were gas masks for about 50% of the members of the force.

#### Contents of the Manual

The manual described the main types of riot control agents:

CS mace

CN tear gas (older type)

DM nauseating agent

Chemical grenades for use against crowds

Masks

Decontaminants

The manual also contained a review of tactics to be used in controlling demonstrations on and off campuses. It also advised departments on how to train members of the force to use chemical agents and learn how to inculcate knowledge of tactics to be used. It also gave the legal aspects of the use of chemical agents.

#### Evaluation

The tactics in general were based on army tactics. The manual was not replete with ideological assumptions, which is an element in its favor. It did emphasize that the most important factor was a clear statement of policy by the top administrators.

In general the OLEA program was so remiss in this area that almost any training is better than none.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #68-37

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

Yes. One of the few to concern itself with riot control.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

Yes.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

Yes. What strategy is most successful in police response to civil disorders?

7. Remarks.

Because OLEA neglected this phase of the law enforcement spectrum, this project was worthwhile.

Grant #68-39

Grantee: National League of Cities

Amount: \$1,113

Dates: October 1967 to November 1967

Purpose: A study of inter-local jurisdictions and their relations and agreements for coordination of efforts in civil disorder emergencies.

Summary

This was a rather weak report that discussed in very general terms the resources and authority of City, State and Metropolitan governments in responding to civil disorders.

The report reiterated what already was known to all authorities:

The Mayors of cities are in charge of municipal agencies and take direct action.

Governors have access to:

County Law Enforcement Officers

State Police

And under proper conditions, The National Guard

There are also Emergency Powers:

Martial Law

Declaration of State of Emergency

Emergency Curfew

This report adds nothing to our knowledge nor does it assist in the prevention and control of riots.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 68-39

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes, to a very superficial extent.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No. It reiterated the obvious.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was a poor study. Not one new element was uncovered.

Grant #68-41 (See #66-100)

Grantee: Federal Bureau of Investigation

Amount: \$295,000

Dates: 7/1/67 to 6/30/68

Purpose: Continuation and expansion of test effort on computer-assisted coast-to-coast information network linking local and state law enforcement agencies with National Crime Information Center. Information on fugitives, stolen cars, and property, plus other files in development.

Grant #68-43

Grantee: The Franklin Institute Research Laboratories

Amount: \$18,000

Dates: February 1968 to April 1968

Purpose: Study and meeting of representatives of communications industry and public agencies to consider single emergency telephone numbers throughout the United States.

Summary

The conference, on November 18, 1968, decided that there should be two telephone numbers, one for the police department, and one for the fire department, to be posted on all public telephone coin boxes. The coin boxes should be able to reach the department without the insertion of a coin. In addition, all calls should be automatically identified as to location and telephone numbers.

It was pointed out that as far back as 1917 the city of Norfolk, Virginia had one number for police, one for fire. Also Japan is almost completely on that two number system and by 1970 the entire system will be automated.

The number 911 was discarded because the telephone companies did not have the technical capability to work out the problems this would entail. They considered other numbers such as 333, 666, 999, 000. The number 000 seemed most likely



to satisfy the requirements. The conference called attention to the need for more receiving and dispatch centers.

Actually, nothing was decided and there was a need for further conferences.

Although a single number seems an attractive device in order that people in need can get through to police, the introduction of such a number increases the number of calls so much that police department facilities, already overloaded, would not be able to handle this extra load.

A more sensible approach would be to consider techniques for police departments like the St. Louis Police Department that handles the overload by "stacking" calls and assigning special cars to answer service calls.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant # 68-43

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

No.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

The conference ended indecisively by recommending another conference.

Grant #68-44

Grantee: International Association of Chiefs of Police

Amount: \$9,500

Dates: May 1968 to October 1969

Purpose: A survey of telecommunications in 25 largest cities (and states) to aid federal government in determining whether telecommunications assistance is needed during severe civil disorder.

#### Summary

A questionnaire was distributed to 25 largest cities and their states. Then a conference was held on the subjects: Results of Questionnaire and Recommendation of Other Studies.

The questionnaire was returned by 16 of 25 cities and 11 of 17 states.

1. 14 of 16 cities reported integrated emergency communication plans were now available.
2. Most had established a central command facility. Only 6 could establish a field command post.
3. There was a need for some portable radio equipment, more telephone lines, more teletype, etc.
4. Present capabilities in communication were inadequate in the face of civil disorders.
5. There was a need for a separate protected communications link for intelligence personnel.
6. There was a need for more frequencies and channels.
7. There was a need for security.

#### Evaluation

Surveys such as this are necessary and valuable.

EVALUATION SHEET

Grant #68-44

1. Was the project plan substantially followed?

Yes.

2. Was the project innovative?

No.

3. Is it likely that the project had an impact on the criminal justice system?

No.

4. Is it likely that the project had a part in reducing or preventing crime?

No.

5. Would the project serve as a basis for similar projects?

No.

6. Were questions or leads for further research raised?

No.

7. Remarks.

This was a straight forward questionnaire study that gathered data for the conference audience to work with.

## APPENDIX

Letter Accompanying the Questionnaire

Dear \_\_\_\_\_

The Law Enforcement Assistance Administration of the Department of Justice has authorized the Georgetown University Law Center-Institute of Criminal Law and Procedure to assess the programs of the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance (OLEA).

The result of this study may be used by LEAA to develop guidelines for the allocation of funds to various agencies in the criminal justice system.

Since you were associated with the project to which the questionnaire is directed, your answers and opinions will be of great value to us.

The Institute requests your cooperation in completing the attached questionnaire and returning it to us in the enclosed self-addressed envelope. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Arthur Niederhoffer  
Research Director

Attachment

General Questionnaire sent to all Grantees

OLEA PROJECT # \_\_\_\_\_ TYPE \_\_\_\_\_

All the information needed in this questionnaire can be provided by a check or a brief comment in the proper space. Where an item lists several possible alternatives, please check as many as apply.

1. What was the principal goal of the project?

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

2. Is the project terminated?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

3. Were the funds granted by OLEA sufficient to fulfill the project goals?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

4. Obtaining personnel for the project was

- a. Difficult \_\_\_\_\_
- b. easy \_\_\_\_\_
- c. neither difficult or easy \_\_\_\_\_

5. Were members of the faculty of a college or university involved in this project

- a. at planning stage \_\_\_\_\_
- b. at implementation stage \_\_\_\_\_
- c. at evaluation stage \_\_\_\_\_
- d. only as consultants \_\_\_\_\_

6. Was the contribution of the advisory committee

- a. important \_\_\_\_\_
- b. negligible \_\_\_\_\_
- c. neither a or b \_\_\_\_\_

7. What agency or agencies of criminal justice does the principal grantee (or grantees) represent?

- a. police \_\_\_\_\_
- b. probation-parole \_\_\_\_\_
- c. courts \_\_\_\_\_
- d. correction \_\_\_\_\_
- e. prosecution or defense such as D.A.'s or public defenders \_\_\_\_\_
- f. criminal justice research agencies \_\_\_\_\_
- g. university groups \_\_\_\_\_
- h. Other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

8. Please check the agencies of criminal justice other than the grantee that were involved in this project. The involvement should be substantial. For this purpose do not include advisory committees.

- a. police \_\_\_\_\_
- b. probation-parole \_\_\_\_\_
- c. courts \_\_\_\_\_
- d. corrections \_\_\_\_\_
- e. prosecutor or defense such as D.A., defenders, etc. \_\_\_\_\_
- f. criminal justice research agencies \_\_\_\_\_
- g. university group \_\_\_\_\_
- h. Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

9. Were minority group community representatives involved in this project in a substantial capacity?

- a. at planning stage \_\_\_\_\_
- b. at implementation stage \_\_\_\_\_
- c. at evaluation stage \_\_\_\_\_
- d. as consultants \_\_\_\_\_

10. Was the contribution of this project to the field of criminal justice

- a. of great value \_\_\_\_\_
- b. of limited value \_\_\_\_\_
- c. of no value \_\_\_\_\_

11. What was the major contribution or accomplishment?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

12. Was the response of the subjects

- a. enthusiastic \_\_\_\_\_
- b. lukewarm \_\_\_\_\_
- c. negative \_\_\_\_\_

13. Was the contribution of the consultants

- a. extremely helpful \_\_\_\_\_
- b. helpful \_\_\_\_\_
- c. negligible \_\_\_\_\_

14. The evaluation of the project was assigned to

- a. a member of the project team \_\_\_\_\_
- b. a representative from a similar type of criminal justice agency \_\_\_\_\_
- c. an outside group \_\_\_\_\_
- d. a university research group \_\_\_\_\_
- e. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

15. Did your project continue after the termination date of the grant

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

16. The new project or the project continuing after the termination date was funded by

- a. OLEA \_\_\_\_\_
- b. LEAA \_\_\_\_\_
- c. State Criminal Justice Planning Agency \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Your own agency \_\_\_\_\_
- e. Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_



17. How long after the termination of the original project did the present project get under way

- a. 0-6 months \_\_\_\_\_
- b. 6 months - 1 year \_\_\_\_\_
- c. 1-2 years \_\_\_\_\_

18. As a result of the original project were there any

- a. publications \_\_\_\_\_
- b. articles \_\_\_\_\_
- c. books \_\_\_\_\_
- d. newspaper reports \_\_\_\_\_

Please describe \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

19. Were any other OLEA projects helpful to you in your project

- a. in planning \_\_\_\_\_
- b. in implementation \_\_\_\_\_
- c. in evaluation \_\_\_\_\_
- d. none \_\_\_\_\_

20. If you checked a, b, or c, please list the projects that were helpful to you.

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

20. Briefly list the changes or differences between the plan in the application and the completed project.

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

21. Guidance and cooperation from OLEA staff was

- a. generously granted \_\_\_\_\_
- b. difficult to obtain \_\_\_\_\_
- c. neither a nor b \_\_\_\_\_

22. The dissemination of the results and reports of your project by OLEA to criminal justice agencies across the nation was

- a. very thorough \_\_\_\_\_
- b. merely adequate \_\_\_\_\_
- c. inadequate \_\_\_\_\_
- d. no knowledge \_\_\_\_\_

23. The major difficulties in this project were due to (please check as many of the following items as are applicable)

- a. lack of money \_\_\_\_\_
- b. lack of proper space \_\_\_\_\_
- c. lack of competent personnel \_\_\_\_\_
- d. political interference \_\_\_\_\_
- e. lack of cooperation \_\_\_\_\_
- f. lack of community interest \_\_\_\_\_
- g. problems of bureaucracy \_\_\_\_\_
- h. clash of personalities \_\_\_\_\_
- i. other - please specify \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
Your name (please print)

\_\_\_\_\_  
Position

\_\_\_\_\_  
Agency or Affiliation

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

Additional Page for Police Department Planning and  
Research Units

A

24. Please give the total number of personnel in your police department. \_\_\_\_\_
25. Please list the three most important projects the Planning and Research Unit has conducted within 1970.  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
26. How many persons are assigned to the unit? \_\_\_\_\_
27. Does the unit  
a. develop projects on its own initiative \_\_\_\_\_  
b. work only on projects assigned to it by the top administrators \_\_\_\_\_
28. What special qualifications are required for appointment to the unit? \_\_\_\_\_
29. Are any non-police personnel with special qualifications employed by the unit?  
Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_  
If yes. please give number and description of background  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
30. Does the unit work in cooperation with a college, university, or research organization?  
a. College of runiversity Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_  
b. Outside research organization Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

## 31. The unit

- a. needs more highly trained personnel Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_  
b. needs help from a college or university Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_  
c. is doing a good job without a or b Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

32. The planning and research unit should concentrate on  
(please check as many as are applicable)

- a. theoretical research \_\_\_\_\_  
b. long range problems \_\_\_\_\_  
c. immediate problems \_\_\_\_\_  
d. problems affecting only the police \_\_\_\_\_  
e. problems that may be broad enough to involve \_\_\_\_\_  
the whole community \_\_\_\_\_  
f. only those problems assigned to it by higher  
authority \_\_\_\_\_

Additional Pages for Correctional Training  
Projects

B-1

24. The correctional in-service training project should be
- a. taught by personnel from your agency \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. taught by professionals from other agencies \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. taught by faculty from college or university \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. taught by inmates \_\_\_\_\_
25. The best plan for such training is
- a. separate program in each agency
  - b. regional center to be responsible for training
  - c. training center at nearby university
26. The method of teaching that you would recommend is  
(please check as many of the following as are applicable)
- a. lecture plus discussion \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. lecture alone \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. films and visual aids \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. seminars \_\_\_\_\_
  - e. field observation \_\_\_\_\_
  - f. sensitivity-training type of class \_\_\_\_\_
  - g. discussion of assigned cases and readings \_\_\_\_\_
  - h. examples of actual practice \_\_\_\_\_
  - i. classroom simulation of practice \_\_\_\_\_
27. What educational background do you consider a proper qualification for correctional training officers?
- a. **B.A.** \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. Masters Degree \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. Ph.D. Degree \_\_\_\_\_
28. What field of study is the most suitable background for the training officer as preparation for teaching correctional personnel?
- a. corrections \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. social work \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. sociology \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. psychology \_\_\_\_\_
  - e. public administration \_\_\_\_\_
  - f. Humanities \_\_\_\_\_

B-2

29. What four groups in corrections need training most?

- a. diagnostic staff \_\_\_\_\_
- b. probation-parole \_\_\_\_\_
- c. custodial staff \_\_\_\_\_
- d. staff concerned with youth or juvenile inmates \_\_\_\_\_
- e. research-planning \_\_\_\_\_
- f. supervisory \_\_\_\_\_
- g. middle management \_\_\_\_\_
- h. top administrators \_\_\_\_\_
- i. training staff \_\_\_\_\_

30. What are the six most important areas that should be included in the training programs?

- a. Philosophy of Corrections \_\_\_\_\_
- b. History of Corrections \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Characteristics of Offenders \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Techniques of Controlling Inmates \_\_\_\_\_
- e. New Developments in Corrections \_\_\_\_\_
- f. The Role of Corrections in the Criminal Justice System \_\_\_\_\_
- g. Cooperation with other agencies \_\_\_\_\_
- h. Legal Aspects of Corrections \_\_\_\_\_
- i. Civil Rights of Offenders \_\_\_\_\_
- j. Research Methods \_\_\_\_\_
- k. Social Sciences \_\_\_\_\_
- l. Behavioral Sciences \_\_\_\_\_
- m. Humanities \_\_\_\_\_
- n. Criminology \_\_\_\_\_
- o. Juvenile Delinquency \_\_\_\_\_
- p. Public Administration \_\_\_\_\_

31. The training program should be

- a. Short term workshops or institutes \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Series of lectures on selected topics from time to time \_\_\_\_\_
- c. A continuing permanent program \_\_\_\_\_
- d. A degree program with college credit \_\_\_\_\_

32. The evaluation of the program should be conducted by

- a. participants in the program \_\_\_\_\_
- b. the agency research staff \_\_\_\_\_
- c. outside group \_\_\_\_\_
- d. none \_\_\_\_\_

33. The literature pertinent to a good correctional training program is
- a. excellent \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. adequate \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. inadequate \_\_\_\_\_
34. What educational level would you advocate for correctional personnel?
- a. 2 years high school \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. High School diploma \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. College degree \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. Masters degree \_\_\_\_\_
35. What are your recommendations to improve the field of corrections? \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_

Additional Page for State Planning Committees in Criminal  
Administration

C

24. Briefly describe the changes brought about by your program:

- a. Change in law \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Change in practice \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Change in attitudes \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Change in agencies or institutions \_\_\_\_\_
- e. Change in policy \_\_\_\_\_

25. When the State Planning Agency was established under LEAA after 1968, and replaced your committee, did the leadership of the new agency:

- a. hire any of the personnel of your committee? Yes\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_  
If yes, how many and in what capacity? \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Confer with members of your committee \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Take over, or continue your program \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Use the same advisory committees \_\_\_\_\_
- e. Use the same consultants \_\_\_\_\_

26. Approximately what proportion of your program was devoted to each of the following criminal justice agencies?

- a. police and law enforcement \_\_\_\_\_
- b. courts \_\_\_\_\_
- c. probation and parole \_\_\_\_\_
- d. corrections -- adult \_\_\_\_\_
- e. corrections -- juvenile \_\_\_\_\_
- f. criminal justice research organizations \_\_\_\_\_
- g. university centers interested in the field \_\_\_\_\_
- h. legal defender agencies \_\_\_\_\_



Additional Page for Computer Related Projects

D

24. The next great advances in police law enforcement will most likely be the result of the application of computers to the solution of police problems. Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_
25. The state of the art in computer theory and practice is such that given time and money, computer experts at the present time could develop:
- a. solutions to most police system problems \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. simulation models of the entire police department and its work \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. prediction models \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. programs that will predict the occurrence of crimes with respect to type, time and place, to enable better crime prevention work by police \_\_\_\_\_
  - e. measurements of police efficiency both at the system level and at the individual level \_\_\_\_\_
  - f. new concepts and theories of police work \_\_\_\_\_
26. It would be feasible in large police departments to develop a team of policemen capable of doing computer research.
- Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_
27. The cost of a computer system for a criminal justice agency:
- a. is excessive considering the benefits \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. is moderate considering the benefits \_\_\_\_\_
28. A computer system in a police department would probably:
- a. create a feeling of confidence among policemen \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. create a feeling of alienation among policemen \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. create little difference in their response \_\_\_\_\_
29. A computer system in a police department:
- a. would require extensive training for police so that they might be capable of benefiting from it \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. would not require extensive training \_\_\_\_\_

Additional Page for Law Enforcement Operations Improvement Programs

E

24. In which of the following aspects of law enforcement did your program have its greatest impact? (please check as many of the following as are applicable)

- a. police mobility \_\_\_\_\_
- b. police-community relations \_\_\_\_\_
- c. attitude of policemen \_\_\_\_\_
- d. command control and supervision \_\_\_\_\_
- e. training \_\_\_\_\_
- f. crime prevention \_\_\_\_\_
- g. police communication \_\_\_\_\_

25. What criteria did you use to evaluate the effectiveness of your new procedure? \_\_\_\_\_

26. In response to this change in procedure did the police:

- a. Cooperate voluntarily \_\_\_\_\_
- b. resist the change \_\_\_\_\_
- c. show some apathy toward the change \_\_\_\_\_

27. Is this change adaptable for general use by all departments?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

If yes, briefly describe the possible adaptations \_\_\_\_\_

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

Additional Page for Police-Community Relations Programs

F

24. Did you model your police-community relations program after that of some other police department? Yes \_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_

If yes, which police department program was your model?

\_\_\_\_\_

25. Does your police department have a specialized Police-Community Relations Unit? Yes \_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_

26. How many personnel are attached to this Unit? \_\_\_\_\_

27. Does the Unit:

- a. have one comprehensive program \_\_\_\_\_  
b. have many separate plans \_\_\_\_\_

28. About what percent of the total police community relations program or programs is devoted to:

- a. the police force itself  
b. the community in general  
c. specific groups within the community, as follows:  
(please check as many of the following as are applicable)
- |                          |                              |
|--------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. youth _____           | 5. junior high schools _____ |
| 2. minority groups _____ | 6. elementary schools _____  |
| 3. colleges _____        | 7. business people _____     |
| 4. high schools _____    | 8. home owners _____         |

29. Does the community relations unit utilize the resources of a college or university? Yes \_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_

If yes, indicate in what way:

- a. faculty as experts, instructors, or lecturers \_\_\_\_\_  
b. research programs \_\_\_\_\_  
c. evaluation of the unit's program \_\_\_\_\_  
d. planning the program \_\_\_\_\_  
e. students as participants \_\_\_\_\_

30. What criteria do you use to evaluate your programs?
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_

31. Please give a definition of police-community relations that would be consistent with the police community relations program of your department \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_

Additional Pages for Police Science Degree Programs

G

24. The police science degree program should be:
- a. taught by regular college faculty \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. taught by professional policemen \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. taught by those who combine a and b \_\_\_\_\_
25. The best method of teaching police science programs:  
(please check as many of the following as are applicable)
- a. lecture \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. lecture plus discussion \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. films and visual aids \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. computerized instruction \_\_\_\_\_
  - e. discussion of assigned cases and readings \_\_\_\_\_
  - f. classroom simulation of actual practice \_\_\_\_\_
  - g. field observation \_\_\_\_\_
  - h. sensitivity-type class \_\_\_\_\_
  - i. seminar \_\_\_\_\_
26. What educational background do you consider most suitable for teachers in such a program:
- a. B.A. \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. M.A. \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. Ph.D. \_\_\_\_\_
27. What field of concentration is most suitable as a background for such a teacher?
- a. police science \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. criminal justice \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. public administration \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. Sociology \_\_\_\_\_
  - e. Psychology \_\_\_\_\_
  - f. social work \_\_\_\_\_
  - g. humanities \_\_\_\_\_
28. What degree of experience in police work do you consider most suitable for such a teacher?
- a. none \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. a short period \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. at least five years \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. at least ten years \_\_\_\_\_

29. Should the degree program be controlled or administered by:
  - a. the police department \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. the college \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. a combination of a and b \_\_\_\_\_
30. The most needed degree program at the present time is:
  - a. a 3 year certificate \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. a 4 year degree program \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. a masters degree program \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. a Ph.D. program \_\_\_\_\_
31. The police science degree program at some level ought to be:
  - a. voluntary \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. required for admission to force \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. required as qualification for promotion \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. required for all members of the police agency \_\_\_\_\_
32. Teachers who are qualified to teach in such a program are:
  - a. easy to obtain \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. difficult to obtain \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. neither a nor b \_\_\_\_\_
33. Degree programs ought not to teach practical or applied courses; these courses should be taught at the police academy. Yes \_\_\_\_\_  
No \_\_\_\_\_
34. Police recruit training ought to be taken over by the college that provides the agency with its degree program:
  - a. to some extent \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. to a large extent \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. all \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. not at all \_\_\_\_\_
35. The literature in the field of police science is:
  - a. excellent \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. adequate \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. inadequate \_\_\_\_\_

36. An associate degree in Police Science should be the minimum requirement for:
- a. appointment to a police force \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. as special assignment within the police force such as detective or youth work \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. promotion to higher rank within the police force \_\_\_\_\_
37. The major problems in the field of police science are the lack of:  
(please check as many of the following as are applicable)
- a. competent teachers \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. well-developed police science degree programs \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. facilities for mounting such programs \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. interest among policemen \_\_\_\_\_
  - e. well-defined subject matter \_\_\_\_\_
  - f. college level literature \_\_\_\_\_
  - g. money \_\_\_\_\_
  - h. support by police department administrators \_\_\_\_\_
38. What are the important areas that should be included in police science degree programs? (please check as many of the following as are applicable)
- a. philosophy of police work \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. history of police \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. human behavior \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. characteristics of offenders \_\_\_\_\_
  - e. new developments in police work \_\_\_\_\_
  - f. techniques of control \_\_\_\_\_
  - g. role of police in the criminal justice system \_\_\_\_\_
  - h. civil rights \_\_\_\_\_
  - i. legal aspects of police work \_\_\_\_\_
  - j. changing role of police \_\_\_\_\_
  - k. police-community relations \_\_\_\_\_
  - l. research methods \_\_\_\_\_
  - m. public administration \_\_\_\_\_
  - n. social sciences \_\_\_\_\_
  - o. behavioral sciences \_\_\_\_\_
  - p. humanities \_\_\_\_\_
  - q. criminology \_\_\_\_\_
  - r. juvenile delinquency \_\_\_\_\_

39. Evaluation of the program should be undertaken by:

- a. participants in the program \_\_\_\_\_
- b. research staff of the college or police department concerned \_\_\_\_\_
- c. outside research group \_\_\_\_\_

40. About how many students were in the program in the academic year of 1969-1970? \_\_\_\_\_

41. About how many students are expected to register for the program in Fall 1970? \_\_\_\_\_

Additional Page for State Law Enforcement Standards and  
Training Commissions

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24. As a result of your efforts were law enforcement standards established for:

a. recruitment	Yes _____	No _____
b. appointment	Yes _____	No _____
c. promotion	Yes _____	No _____
d. training	Yes _____	No _____

25. Were these standards:

a. local	Yes _____	No _____
b. state wide	Yes _____	No _____
c. voluntary	Yes _____	No _____

26. Did the State Legislature pass a law making your recommended standards a legal requirement for all police candidates?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

27. About how many departments in your state have adopted these standards? \_\_\_\_\_

28. How do candidates meet the requirements? \_\_\_\_\_

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



**END**