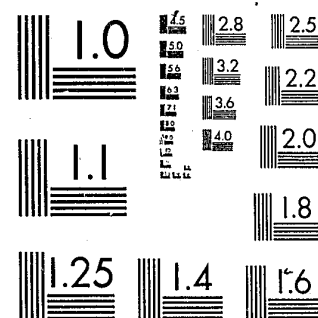


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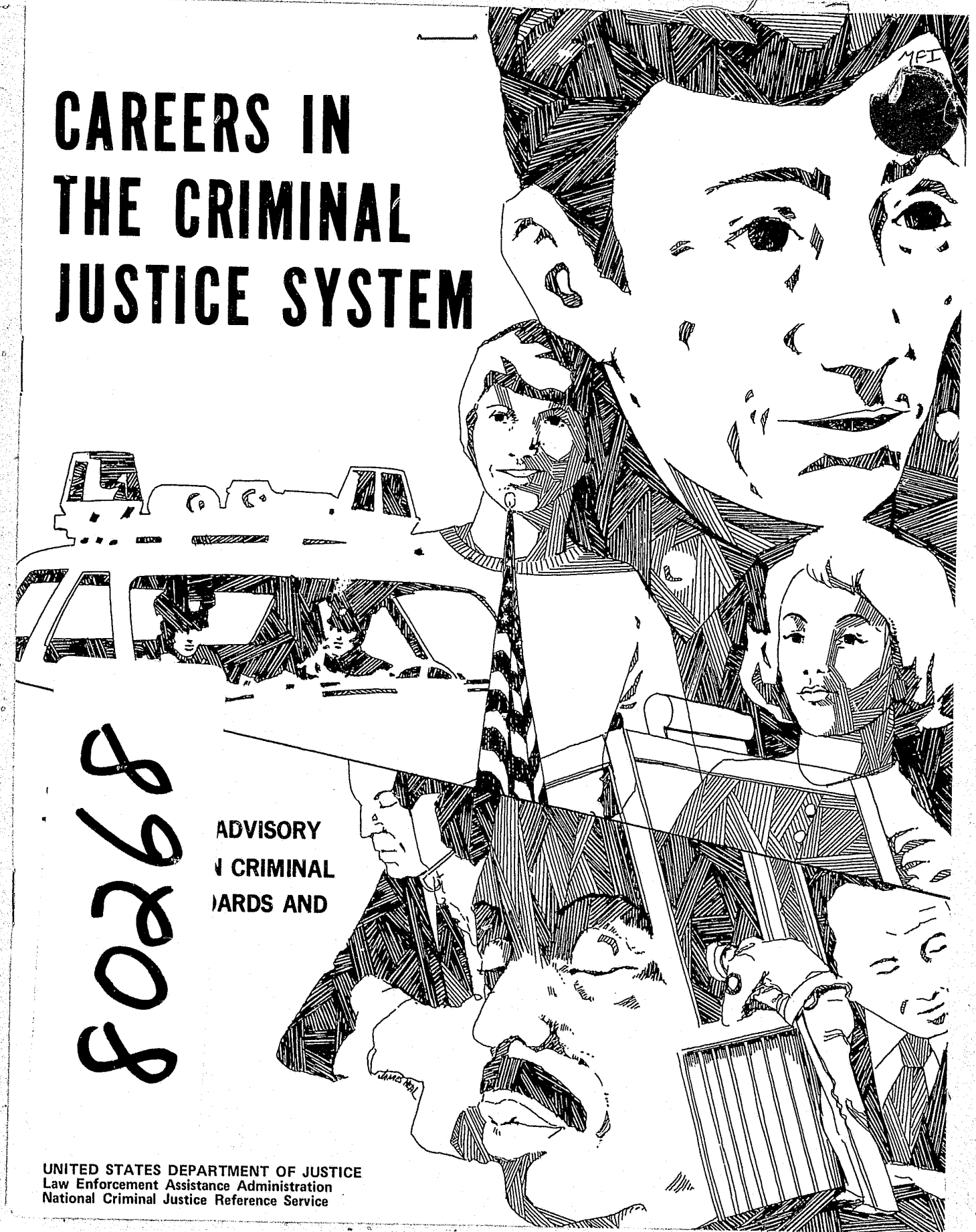
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2/23/82

CAREERS IN THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
National Criminal Justice Reference Service

INTRODUCTION

The following chapters have been reprinted from three volumes, entitled Corrections, Police, and Courts, of the report of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. This major study of the criminal justice system was undertaken for the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration in 1972, and as a result of the Commission's recommendations, many criminal justice agencies have increased their organizational and operational effectiveness.

These chapters address themselves to personnel practices, recruiting, educational requirements, and job descriptions.

Hopefully, this compendium will give the reader sufficient background information on each criminal justice field to assist in possible career selection.

July 1975

U.S. Department of Justice
National Institute of Justice

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Corrections Personnel

Chapter 14

Manpower for Corrections

People are the most effective resource for helping other people. In corrections, as in most other fields, they also are the most underutilized and misappropriated resource.

Manpower problems in corrections include: critical shortage of specialized professional personnel; poor working conditions; and poor allocation of both human and fiscal resources. Women, members of ethnic minorities, ex-offenders, and volunteers are generally underutilized as correctional manpower and in some areas are not used at all.

Problems shared by all areas of corrections—its poor image and conflict among personnel as to its mission—also complicate solution of manpower difficulties.

Manpower problems have been especially crucial because they usually have not been given sufficient recognition by persons responsible for financing and managing corrections. Not until 1965, when Congress passed the Correctional Rehabilitation Study Act, was a major manpower study launched. The results of the study were presented in a summary volume, *A Time to Act*, released in 1969 by the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training.

Originally, the Joint Commission concerned itself with remedies for the manpower shortage in corrections. However, this initial concern gave way to the need to address pertinent issues of utilization and

training of all personnel, old hands as well as recruits.

Since the conclusion of the study in 1969, some of the problems noted there have been intensified, and new ones have surfaced. This chapter will seek to analyze the current situation in corrections as it bears specifically on manpower and to set forth standards by which solutions may be reached. These standards, building in part on the 1969 study, will set out in detail the steps to effective use of correctional manpower.

A HISTORICAL VIEW

Correctional manpower and training programs have developed haphazardly. There has never been a national manpower strategy, and State and local correctional systems have had few, if any, guidelines. From the beginning, persons working in corrections were there largely by chance, not by choice. Most correctional personnel were used then, as now, in large custodial institutions. Prerequisites for employment were low. For much of this century, the usual way to get a job in corrections was through political patronage. Vestiges of that practice remain today.

Institutions were in isolated rural areas where it was difficult to induce professional staff to locate.

Manpower was drawn largely from the local population and thus reflected a rural point of view, out of line with that of most offenders, who came from cities.

Historically, corrections personnel resembled military and law enforcement officers. Correctional staff members were used almost entirely in paramilitary capacities, even in the State "schools" for juveniles and youths. Parole officers were more akin to law enforcement officers than to "helping service" personnel. Many carried guns and wore or carried official badges. Some correctional staff still wear uniforms and have military titles, as they did from the beginning. At least half of all job titles in corrections include the word "officer"—custodial officer, parole officer, probation officer, training officer, and the like.

This identification with the military strongly influenced manpower and training policies and practices. Staff members were promoted up the ranks. They were not to fraternize with the inmates, who were to call them "sir." They conducted inspections and kept merit lists. They were trained in military matters.

In all too many modern correctional institutions, these policies and practices remain. Great conflict is evident as this militaristic system is confronted today by persons urging adoption of modern organizational concepts.

At times, corrections has moved toward rehabilitation. Educational, vocational, and individual and social therapy programs, with attendant staff, have been introduced. As various rehabilitation strategies gained prominence in other fields, they were imported to corrections. The history of correctional management is dotted with treatment fads and cults, among them psychiatric and psychoanalytic programs, religious conversion, Dale Carnegie courses, guided group interaction, transactional analysis, group therapy, psychiatric casework, reality therapy, encounter groups, hypnosis, behavior modification, and operant conditioning. Reviewing staff training programs over the past 30 years is like thumbing through the pages of survey texts in psychology and sociology.

As correctional practice developed haphazardly, so did its goals and philosophy. Every informed observer since Tocqueville has remarked on the confusion and contradictions that exist within the American correctional system. And this confusion has profoundly affected the recruitment and performance of personnel. People who work in corrections—and the public which employs them—are uncertain as to whether the system is supposed to punish lawbreakers or to rehabilitate them, to protect society or to change social conditions, or to do some or all of these things under varying circumstances.

Employees who have no clear concept of their roles—and disagree among themselves as to what their roles should be—are unlikely to perform well or to find satisfaction in their work. This state of affairs can only be made worse as the public holds them increasingly accountable for the failures of the system.

It is difficult to plan staff training programs or to recruit personnel from specialized disciplines when conflict over organizational goals and training mission is the rule, rather than the exception. For years, training has been routine and superficial.

Corrections started with closed, secure institutions, then added field services in the form of probation and parole. In efforts to make the institutions corrective in nature, professionals from education, vocational programs, behavioral sciences, medicine, and psychiatry were recruited. In the rush to professionalize, different correctional agencies have followed the beats of different drummers. Professionalization could not be achieved under these circumstances.

As this report has made clear, corrections is a multifaceted field. There are dehumanizing prisons, overcrowded jails, expensive and excessively staffed reception and diagnostic centers, halfway houses, youth industrial schools, experimental community treatment programs, and field services such as probation and parole. Each of these settings requires several types of personnel, and a variety of ways have been used to prepare staff. Often the programs have operated in conflict, internally as well as with each other.

EMERGING ISSUES THAT AFFECT MANPOWER

Out of the changes taking place within the correctional system and within society as a whole have emerged several issues with profound effects, and potential effects, on correctional manpower.

Disenchantment with Prisons

Although institutions house less than a quarter of all convicted offenders, they employ more than two-thirds of all persons working in corrections, and they spend more than 70 cents of each dollar spent on corrections. This gross maldistribution of human and financial resources has strong implications for a restructuring of the corrections system.

Prisons, jails, and juvenile institutions, which are the focal point of public concern about corrections, have been termed a failure by many authorities. In his address to the National Conference on Corrections at Williamsburg, Va., in December 1971, President Nixon said:

Our prisons are still colleges of crime, and not what they should be—the beginning of a way back to a productive life within the law. . . . Locking up a convict is not enough. We must offer him the keys of education, of rehabilitation, of useful training, of hope—the keys he must have to open the gates to a life of freedom and dignity.¹

This statement reflects the widespread and growing disenchantment with the ability of closed, security-oriented institutions to "change" offenders, a disenchantment shared by the public, corrections officials, and prisoners. Many are asking why a system that shows such poor results should be allowed to continue.

If, as is to be hoped, institutions play a decreasing role in corrections, there will be corresponding shifts in manpower needs. Moreover, the education and training appropriate for the staff of the developing correctional programs will differ sharply from what was needed in the past.

The Move Toward Community-Based Corrections

As noted many times in this report, the community is recognized today as the rightful site and source for most correctional programs. With the closing of traditional institutions, as the juvenile training schools were closed in Massachusetts in 1972, more offenders will be treated in the community. As probation and parole subsidy programs succeed, as they have in California and Washington, correctional action will center increasingly in the offender's home community. As youth service bureaus are established to meet youth problems in urban areas, new patterns of service delivery emerge.

With these shifts toward community programs, new and different manpower demands will develop. Staff now engaged in helping inmates will do so in community settings. New requirements will bring new persons into the field who may help provide a new image for corrections. The image of the staff member oriented to the military and to law enforcement will give way to that of the community correctional worker. He will be armed with different skills. He will not be preoccupied with custody, control, and regimentation but intent on using community resources as the major tool in his rehabilitative mission.

Less than one-third of all correctional staff members presently are employed in community corrections programs, where they serve three-fourths of all offenders. It is estimated that by 1975 more than 80

¹ *We Hold These Truths*, Proceedings of the National Conference on Corrections (Richmond: Virginia State Department of Justice and Crime Prevention, 1972), p. 5.

percent of all offenders will be served in some type of community-based program.² It is mandatory that existing staff be reallocated and additional staff hired to meet the obvious needs of community correctional programs.

Racial Strife

Emergence of racial strife is a major concern in all correctional programs. Television coverage of the prison disturbances of 1971 and 1972 brought the charge of institutional racism directly into the Nation's homes. Such charges are now being made throughout the correctional system, in community programs as well as institutions. Many adult and juvenile programs are faced with explosive racial situations. Staff members in some States spend more hours of training in riot control than in human communications or organizational development.

Minorities are found disproportionately in the ranks of corrections: overrepresented as clients and underrepresented as staff. Unfortunately, there are no reliable national figures on minority group clients in the correctional system. Estimates place the percentage high but vary with geographical regions and urban-rural distribution of the population. For example, in California almost half of the 20,800 inmates are blacks or Chicanos. In the total New York State system, 56 percent of all inmates are blacks or Puerto Ricans. At least one-third of all Federal offenders are members of minority groups.³ American Indians are still being arrested and confined in alarmingly high numbers in both Dakotas, in the Southwest, and in Alaska, as they were in 1967.⁴

In most States, the proportion of minority group members confined is much greater than the proportion of such persons living in the State. Urban jails usually hold disproportionately large numbers of minority group members. In many large Eastern and Central Atlantic cities, 50 to 90 percent of the jail inmates are reported to be black, poor, and without jobs. In jails in the Nation's capital, 90 to 95 percent of the inmates are black. Juvenile institutions in the Southwest detain proportionately far more Chicano youths than are found in the general State population. Illinois confines three times more black youths than whites.⁵ Obviously it is immediately necessary

² Allen F. Breed, statement in *We Hold These Truths*, p. 91.

³ State and Federal data from presentations at the National Conference on Corrections.

⁴ Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, *Differences That Make the Difference* (Washington: JCCMT, 1967).

⁵ Hans W. Mattick, "The Contemporary Jails of the United States: An Unknown and Neglected Area of Justice" in Daniel Glaser, ed., *Handbook of Corrections* (Rand McNally, forthcoming).

to increase the number of correctional personnel who come from minority groups.

Political Activism Among Offenders

Prison inmates, parolees, and ex-offenders are organizing to demand correctional reform and to begin to provide the "ingredient for changing people"—giving of themselves to help each other and their families. Offender organizations are capable of activist efforts, and they are openly testing present policies and practices within the institutions and in the free community. Citizen support for their efforts is growing.

Political organizations are springing up at the local level, but they can be foreseen as a national movement. These challenges are likely to increase. Perhaps no other development has unnerved correctional staff more than politicalization of the offender. Staffs, from wardens down, have been ill-equipped to deal with it. The old training manuals on riot control are totally obsolete in dealing with the sophisticated organizational skills used by many inmate groups.

The first evidence of this politicalization was the prison underground newspaper produced by inmates. In some States, the prison newspapers are not subjected to censorship, and the underground press has surfaced. The content is political in nature, with two primary characteristics: concern with the counterculture (anti-establishment in nature) and racial militancy.

Untapped Manpower Resources

Corrections needs to look at other groups as well as minorities for the additional manpower it needs. More ex-offenders, women, and volunteers should be used. These "new manpower resources," as they are sometimes called, actually are resources that have always been at hand but have not been used effectively by corrections administrators.

While corrections once was an operation to control, hold, survey, and regiment the behavior of its wards, today it is oriented increasingly to behavior modification. When the emphasis was on physical control, physical strength was a primary prerequisite for positions.

This long-cherished tradition has been challenged and is giving way. As the social distance between the keepers and the kept has decreased, a push to utilize once-untapped resources has surfaced.

Utilization of ex-offenders, women, and volunteers will introduce different skills, as well as help change the custodial image of the corrections system.

MANPOWER NEEDS

The changing trends in corrections portend a need for dramatic and immediate change in manpower policy—recruiting and keeping staff, training personnel, and allowing them to participate in program and agency management.

Staff Recruitment

Corrections can offer an attractive future for active, innovative persons. As the image of corrections changes, an effective recruitment service will point out the opportunities awaiting those who want to enter a field involved in dramatic change.

In the past, few wanted to enter this work. Among talented, trained persons, it was a second, third, or last career choice. Today it should rank high as a challenging career possibility.

According to a survey made for the Joint Commission, persons working in corrections feel that they help others; participate in changing a system, making it more responsive to society; find rewarding personal satisfaction; and shape new roles in the changing correctional system.⁶ These rewards should offer more than adequate incentive for entering corrections as a career.

However, the severe personnel shortage that still exists in the field is due in part to corrections' poor public image and in part to the reluctance of some correctional administrators to recruit actively the talented, creative, sensitive, and educated persons needed to meet the challenges of the changing correctional structure.

The Joint Commission found in 1969 that:

Young people are missing from the correctional employment scene. While other vocations have tried to capture the enthusiasm and vitality of the present generation of students, the Joint Commission was unable to uncover any broadscale effort in corrections. Only 26 percent of correctional employees are under 34 years old, a statistic that is particularly disconcerting in view of the fact that juveniles make up about one-third of the total correctional workload and are being referred to correctional agencies at a greater rate than adults. Generation gap problems between workers and young correctional clients will no doubt increase if efforts are not made to recruit young people into the field.⁷

Staff Retention

Once staff are recruited and prove to be capable

⁶ Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, *Corrections 1968: A Climate for Change* (Washington: JCCMT, 1968), p. 33.

⁷ Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, *A Time to Act* (Washington, JCCMT, 1969), p. 31. Publication referred to hereinafter by title.

employees, the system should try to keep them. Corrections has failed in the past to retain many of its highly trained, young, and creative staff members, particularly those who come from minority groups.

An anticipated outcome in the effort to improve corrections personnel systems is a change in the image of the correctional worker—and this image needs changing. A Louis Harris survey in 1968 revealed that both the public and correctional workers themselves had a relatively poor image of corrections and persons working in the field.

In a public opinion poll conducted in California by the Field Research Corporation, corrections fared somewhat better, but the results were hardly encouraging. Thirty-five percent of the adults queried had no impression of the kind of job being done by probation officers, 43 percent as to parole officers, and 42 percent as to correctional officers. Only 2 percent of the adults thought that any of these correctional workers were doing an "extremely good job." The reaction among teenagers was somewhat more favorable. But of all positions in the criminal justice field—district attorneys, judges, police, correctional officers, etc.—teenagers as well as adults felt that the correctional officers were doing the poorest job.

As corrections moves toward community-based programs and the institutions adopt participatory management, the image of personnel working behind bars should change to an image of helping offenders help themselves to return to society successfully.

Staff Education

A critical point in corrections is lack of education among its personnel. The lack of educated manpower in corrections was a primary issue when the Joint Commission conducted its studies from 1966 to 1969. The same issue exists today, relieved only slightly by the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP) and the promise of a National Institute of Corrections.

The need for educated personnel increases with the changes in corrections. Educational standards of the 1960's will not suffice in the 1970's.

Several problems block a simplistic solution to the educational problems of corrections. Correctional programs vary widely, ranging from maximum security incarceration to voluntary drug abuse treatment. Educational requirements for personnel to run these programs overlap in some areas, differ significantly in others. Because of this confusion, development of a core discipline that could prepare a person to work in corrections or the broader criminal justice system has been slow.

Corrections has low status in most academic circles, and most faculty members have not encouraged

students to seek correctional employment. The field generally has been viewed as a confusing array of services, personnel, clients, and settings that befuddle perspective researchers, academicians, and employees.

Improving Educational Programs

To improve education for existing and prospective corrections employees, the Joint Commission made the following recommendations:

1. The undergraduate degree should be the standard educational requirement for entry-level work in probation and parole agencies and for comparable counselor and classification positions in institutions. Preferred areas of specialization should be psychology, sociology, social work, criminology/corrections, criminal justice, education, and public administration.

2. Correctional agencies should adopt a career strategy, allowing persons with high school education or less to enter the field and participate in combined work-study programs to work their way up in the system.

3. Community colleges should expand their programs to provide educational opportunities for correctional personnel.⁸

Some progress has been made toward achieving these recommendations. The bachelor's degree generally is accepted as the minimum degree for a professional position in corrections. Career ladders have been developed in several systems, and LEEP has provided funds and some direction to community colleges.

Also needed is a criminal justice curriculum to unify knowledge in criminology, social control, law, and the administration of justice and corrections. This will require correctional and educational leaders to agree on at least the basic elements of such a curriculum. It should not include the training content and functions that can be handled more appropriately by the subsystems of criminal justice—police, courts, and corrections. The continued involvement of criminal justice practitioners should be maintained to assure that the theoretical content of the curriculum keeps up with rapid developments in the field.

Clues for the development of a criminal justice curriculum can be taken from the graduate schools of criminal justice which have been established at a number of universities around the country in the past decade. These schools generally offer interdisciplinary programs for persons with bachelor's degrees or first professional degrees in social science, law, and related professional fields. Their purpose is to develop a fundamental understanding of basic

⁸ *A Time to Act*, p. 30.

fields in criminal justice, using background materials in supporting disciplines. They provide opportunities for research. In general, they supply the base for professional advancement to positions of policy determination and agency leadership. Further development of such programs is discussed in the Commission's report on The Criminal Justice System.

When the criminal justice curriculum is refined and established, it should include degree offerings from associate of arts through the doctorate. In addition to criminal justice operational personnel, the curriculum should be required of criminal justice planners so they may achieve the knowledge and skills necessary to assist in charting new directions for the system. Finally, the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration and other funding organizations should furnish financial support for continued program development, faculty, student loans and fellowships, and research.

Financial Assistance

The Joint Commission made many recommendations about financial assistance to educational efforts.

Correctional agencies, community colleges, and colleges and universities involved in the education and training of correctional personnel were urged to seek funds from Federal programs concerned with corrections.

Establishment of a comprehensive financial assistance program in an appropriate Federal agency was urged to provide support for persons in or preparing to enter the field of corrections. Such a program should provide scholarships, fellowships, guaranteed loans, research and teaching assistantships, work-study programs, educational opportunity grants for disadvantaged persons, and forgivable loans to help defray costs of college education and provide incentive for further work in the field.

Prior to establishment of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA), educational programs received meager financial support, and large numbers of correctional workers had never taken a college-level course. Some specific problems included these:

1. Criminology and corrections degree programs were developed erratically and frequently were terminated when once-interested faculty left.
2. Social work graduates rarely chose corrections careers, although the Master of Social Work degree was a preferred credential for probation and parole as well as some institutional positions.
3. Sparse, if any, financial assistance in the form of loans or scholarships was available to preservice or inservice personnel.
4. Institutions of higher education rarely pro-

vided more than token assistance to staff development efforts in nearby correctional programs.

The picture has changed considerably since LEAA became operational in late 1968. Thousands of inservice correctional staff have taken advantage of LEEP loans and grants. A smaller number of preservice personnel have participated. The largest number have been line workers studying for an associate of arts degree. After achieving that degree, some have continued work toward the bachelor's degree. Many field service and treatment staff have taken advantage of LEEP loans and grants to pursue master's degrees. Although most LEEP funds at first went to law enforcement staff members, in 1972 the balance was shifting to provide more equitable assistance to correctional manpower.

States are now beginning to consider incentive plans to stimulate correctional employees to undertake relevant academic work. A bill authorizing such a plan was introduced in the Connecticut State legislature in 1971 but failed to pass. When such incentive plans are realized, it will be necessary to insure that personnel departments reclassify on the basis of their recently acquired skills those persons who have undertaken such education.

Staff Development

The Joint Commission survey in 1969 reported a paucity of staff development programs in corrections. Less than 14 percent of any category of workers were participating in an inservice training program at the time of the survey. Most staff training terminated after the orientation effort, and many agencies offered no staff training at all. Only 4 percent of all juvenile agencies and 19 percent of adult agencies had a full-time staff training person.

The quality of training was not measured in that study, but staff ranked it as no more than routine when queried in a Harris survey. At that time, very little Federal funding was provided to support staff development in corrections.

Because educational preparation for various aspects of correctional work is in a confused state, and for most persons in corrections is not even a reality, the importance of staff development cannot be overemphasized. Yet staff development has a very low priority as indicated by lack of commitment of training dollars, training staff, and staff time in most correctional agencies.

An adult correctional institution with a training program that is anything more than a plan on paper is more apt to have training conducted by a correctional sergeant or lieutenant who probably has no background in training methodology or objectives. If he has a program at all, he finds it difficult to get

staff together for training because employees are not or cannot be released during regular working hours and overtime is expensive. Thus the barriers against training are great in adult corrections.

In the juvenile institutions field, training usually is the responsibility of the assistant superintendent who also has little preparation for this function. The end result is meager training with unclear objectives. In the Joint Commission surveys, 49 percent of the juvenile institutions reported that they had no training personnel.

Adult and juvenile field service staff get the most training attention, yet many are not provided ongoing programs. Almost all state-operated agencies have orientation training, but local probation and court services have few staff development programs.

This lack of staff development reflects an attitude of indifference about the services that staff provide to the clients of the system. It also suggests to staff that management feels keeping up with the field has low priority.

National Institute of Corrections

The proposed National Institute of Corrections can help redirect staff development efforts. The impetus for the institute came from the U.S. Department of Justice. In December 1971, the Attorney General proposed establishment of a national corrections academy to serve as a center for correctional learning, research, executive seminars, and development of correctional policy recommendations.

The idea of a national correctional center of this type has been expressed over the years by numerous groups, most recently in 1969 by the Joint Commission, which recommended after 3 years of study:

A network of national, regional, and state training programs should be created to develop programs and materials as well as to provide technical assistance and other supportive aids to correctional agencies. Such centers should have manpower development rather than a limited definition of training as their focus, and should develop close working relationships with colleges and universities as well as with private training organizations. Federal and state funds are urgently required for the development and ongoing support of these centers.⁹

The National Institute of Corrections still is in the planning stage. But the concept is a very important one, and the fact that it has developed to the point of implementation represents a significant step forward.

Purchase of Services

Frequently large salaries are provided to correctional management to hire a psychiatrist, a clinical psychologist, or an education specialist. Corrections should reassess this practice and move toward purchase of services.¹⁰

chase of service from such highly specialized manpower. Contracts for specialists would free funds as well as resolve personnel problems frequently associated with keeping highly trained staff in the traditional organizational system of corrections.

Purchasing the services of highly trained professionals will allow corrections to draw upon the best persons available, rather than having to settle for those persons willing to work full-time within the correctional setting. In addition to specialists commonly associated with corrections, a concentrated effort should be made to secure the services, as needed, of persons skilled at handling intergroup relations, community development, public information, and other activities designed to link the correctional agency more closely with the community.

Participatory Management

An appropriate way to accomplish the needed change in manpower utilization is through participatory management. This concept is new and threatening to many managers, but if corrections is to be changed to meet the realities of the 1970's, innovations are inevitable.

Some correctional systems are already experimenting with participatory management. They are bringing together staff, clients, and managers to plan and operate their new organizations. Each is a part of the organization and should have a stake in making it effective. In the past, most staff and clients were not included in decisionmaking or planning organizational operation. As the reorganization of corrections proceeds, many roles for staff, offenders, and managers will change, forcing new trends in manpower development as well as providing a new view of manpower needs. Daniel Glaser predicts, "Within institutions there will be more collaboration of inmates and staff in management, hence more inmate responsibility and less social difference between staff and inmates."¹⁰

The trends noted portend much for correctional change and reflect dramatic need for changing correctional manpower and training, for both today and the next decade. The example is drawn clearly from higher education. Since 1968, as university administrators began seriously to include students in decisionmaking roles throughout the campus structure, student protest has diminished and student commitment to the system emerged. It is ironic that massive violence shook the campus before the prison yard, but lessons must be learned from this phenomenon. A priority in corrections must be participation in decisionmaking.

¹⁰ "Changes in Corrections during the Next Twenty Years," unpublished paper written for Project STAR, American Justice Institute, p. 61.

tory management sessions in which managers bring staff and inmates together to chart the future course for all of them.

PLANNING TO MEET MANPOWER NEEDS

Most correctional agencies have been too preoccupied with day-to-day staffing problems to attempt systematic long-range planning to meet manpower needs. Sporadic efforts to remedy pressing difficulties through raising wages, reducing workloads, or other piecemeal actions do not get to the heart of the problems with which this chapter has been concerned.

Elements of effective manpower planning are:

- Assessment of manpower needed to meet the agency's goal.

- Redesigning of present jobs on the basis of task analysis.
- Development of methods to recruit additional manpower needed.
- Training and staff development.

These elements must be the responsibility of the State. For only on a statewide basis can real needs for manpower be assessed and measures planned to utilize effectively the manpower now at hand and to secure the additional personnel needed.

Unless there is basic consolidation to eliminate the present balkanization of corrections, it is unrealistic to expect overall manpower planning. But at least each system—institution, probation, parole, etc.—should be working now toward long-range statewide planning to meet manpower needs. Special needs in manpower planning for probation and parole are considered in Chapters 10 and 12.

Standard 14.1

Recruitment of Correctional Staff

Correctional agencies should begin immediately to develop personnel policies and practices that will improve the image of corrections and facilitate the fair and effective selection of the best persons for correctional positions.

To improve the image of corrections, agencies should:

1. Discontinue the use of uniforms.
2. Replace all military titles with names appropriate to the correctional task.
3. Discontinue the use of badges and, except where absolutely necessary, the carrying of weapons.
4. Abolish such military terms as company, mess hall, drill, inspection, and gig list.
5. Abandon regimented behavior in all facilities, both for personnel and for inmates.

In the recruitment of personnel, agencies should:

1. Eliminate all political patronage for staff selection.
2. Eliminate such personnel practices as:
 - a. Unreasonable age or sex restrictions.
 - b. Unreasonable physical restrictions (e.g., height, weight).
 - c. Barriers to hiring physically handicapped.
 - d. Questionable personality tests.
 - e. Legal or administrative barriers to hiring ex-offenders.

f. Unnecessarily long requirements for experience in correctional work.

g. Residency requirements.

3. Actively recruit from minority groups, women, young persons, and prospective indigenous workers, and see that employment announcements reach these groups and the general public.

4. Make a task analysis of each correctional position (to be updated periodically) to determine those tasks, skills, and qualities needed. Testing based solely on these relevant features should be designed to assure that proper qualifications are considered for each position.

5. Use an open system of selection in which any testing device used is related to a specific job and is a practical test of a person's ability to perform that job.

Commentary

The image of corrections as regimented and military in nature is discouraging to the recruitment of the very types of persons most needed. Corrections must abandon the appearances, terminology, and practices that have contributed to this image. These changes will make corrections a more attractive career field to the young, to educated and talented people, to minorities, women, etc.

Many problems must be overcome for the successful recruitment of highly qualified staff. Prospective staff often are driven from this field because of poor personnel policies and practices that select out or repel applicants.

Selection through political patronage results in the accumulation of employees who are poorly qualified or motivated for correctional work. The practice is also discouraging to employees who prepared themselves for correctional careers and who wish to improve the status and effectiveness of the field.

Correctional agencies traditionally have preferred to hire only males of mature age who met rigid and arbitrary requirements as to height and weight and who were free of physical defect. Agencies also have administered personality tests that were not originally designed for correctional recruitment and barred the employment of persons who had ever been arrested or convicted of even the most minor offenses. None of these practices is based upon the realities of correctional work. They have operated effectively to bar persons with skills and talents that can be put to good use in corrections. Instead of closing the doors of corrections to these people, agencies should make an active and enlightened effort to recruit them.

Announcements of positions available rarely get beyond the bulletin board of the State personnel office. They never reach the inner city or other places where qualified persons could apply if they knew about job openings.

Some widely used requirements for jobs in corrections select out applicants because they do not have extensive experience in specific correctional work. This requirement is most widely used for supervisory or administrative positions and results in perpetuation of a questionable seniority system. In many cases it works against bringing into management new employees with new ideas and the courage to champion change rather than perpetuate the status quo.

Residency requirements in this highly mobile society are counterproductive and have been ruled unconstitutional in many cases. Yet they persist in several States as requirements for some correctional positions.

A challenge to unfair testing procedures for employment was upheld in the Supreme Court on March 8, 1971, in the decision regarding *Griggs v. Duke Power Company* (401 U.S. 424, 1971). The court held that selection processes must be specifically job related, culture fair, and validated. Most selection processes used by personnel offices throughout the country, and specifically in corrections, do not meet these standards. To rectify these poor personnel practices, the National Civil Service League proposed the Model Public Personnel Ad-

ministration Law of 1972, which concerns these and other issues.

A task analysis of each job should be required to produce a job-related test. For example, the task analysis approach was used by the Western Interstate Commission on Higher Education for the job of parole agent. Each task was isolated, defined, and related to the total job function. The skills needed were identified, and the appropriate training for each skill proposed. The report on the task analysis outlined the following method:

In order to observe a number of parole agents in the performance of their jobs in a relatively short period a fairly simple approach for the collection of job data is required. It can best be described as a three-step analysis:

- (1) Meet the parole agent and inquire about his background and his personal approach to job performance.
- (2) Observe activities of the agent for a period of time and literally walk or ride with him and even participate in the performance of his task when possible.
- (3) Record the type of task performed, how often he performs it, the duration of the task, and the degree of difficulty involved in performing it.

If such a task analysis were made of each major job in corrections, adequate predictive instruments could be developed to test applicants for job-related skills and knowledge.

Most written tests do little more than assess the applicant's vocabulary and grammar and test his comprehension with rudimentary exercises in logic. They rarely ask job-related questions, and almost none has been validated to determine whether the test actually does select persons whose adequate job performance was predicted by that test.

Careful task analysis in other human service agencies has shown that many tasks traditionally assigned to professional workers can be done, and done well, by persons with less than a college education. Corrections has done very little with reassignment of tasks and restructuring of jobs so that nonprofessional workers can take some of the load now carried by professionals and thus spread scarce professional services. Moreover, many persons with less than a college education can be of special use in corrections, since they understand the problems of offenders who are likewise without higher education.

Recruiting such personnel will help to reverse the racial and sexual discrimination that has occurred in staffing corrections. Recruitment efforts also should be directed toward hiring younger people who are finishing their education and interested in entering corrections as a career. This would reverse the current trend of hiring people who have entered corrections as career of second, third, or last choice.

Consideration should also be given to hiring staff on a part-time basis. Most correctional jobs today are full-time positions. If part-time employment were

available, qualified individuals, particularly women, could be recruited. Part-time employees, properly utilized, could render valuable service in corrections as they do in other social agencies. Part-time staff could be most easily recruited for community-based programs such as probation, where they could ease current workloads and make real contributions as members of the community into which offenders need to be reintegrated.

Recruitment of qualified personnel is restricted by lack of opportunity for lateral entry into the correctional system in many States. While no one would challenge the merits of promotion from within, it is also obvious that oftentimes it is desirable to hire a specially qualified person from another jurisdiction. If lateral entry is forbidden, such hiring is impossible. As the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training pointed out, prohibition of lateral entry is one of the factors that helps make corrections a closed system. Such a system contributes to "a stagnant, rather than a dynamic, work force."

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4. Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training. *Perspectives on Correctional Manpower and Training*. Washington: JCCMT, 1969.
5. Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training. *A Time to Act*. Washington: JCCMT, 1969.
6. National Civil Service League. *The Model Public Personnel Administration Law Proposal*. Washington: NCSL, 1970.
7. Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education. *An Operational Analysis of the Parole Task*. Boulder, Colo.: WICHE, 1969.

Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 14.1.

- 8.4 Juvenile Intake and Detention Personnel Planning.
- 9.6 Staffing Patterns.
- 10.4 Probation Manpower.
- 12.2 Parole Authority Personnel.
- 13.3 Employee-Management Relations.

Standard 14.2

Recruitment from Minority Groups

Correctional agencies should take immediate, affirmative action to recruit and employ minority group individuals (black, Chicano, American Indian, Puerto Rican, and others) for all positions.

1. All job qualifications and hiring policies should be reexamined with the assistance of equal employment specialists from outside the hiring agency. All assumptions (implicit and explicit) in qualifications and policies should be reviewed for demonstrated relationship to successful job performance. Particular attention should be devoted to the meaning and relevance of such criteria as age, educational background, specified experience requirements, physical characteristics, prior criminal record or "good moral character" specifications, and "sensitive job" designations. All arbitrary obstacles to employment should be eliminated.

2. If examinations are deemed necessary, outside assistance should be enlisted to insure that all tests, written and oral, are related significantly to the work to be performed and are not culturally biased.

3. Training programs, more intensive and comprehensive than standard programs, should be designed to replace educational and previous experience requirements. Training programs should be concerned also with improving relationships among culturally diverse staff and clients.

4. Recruitment should involve a community relations effort in areas where the general population does not reflect the ethnic and cultural diversity of the correctional population. Agencies should develop suitable housing, transportation, education, and other arrangements for minority staff, where these factors are such as to discourage their recruitment.

Commentary

The point need not be labored that a correctional population where minority groups are highly over-represented can hardly be well served by a staff that is overwhelmingly white. But most correctional personnel today are white.

In 1969, the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training reported that of the total number of correctional employees (111,000) only 8 percent were blacks, 4 percent Chicanos, and less than 1 percent American Indians, Puerto Ricans, or Orientals. All institution administrators in the adult correctional system were white. Since 1969, some changes have been noted. A few blacks now serve in administrative roles in adult corrections, but their number is greatly disproportionate to the black proportion of the population, let alone the black proportion of the correctional population.

Startlingly small numbers of minority group mem-

bers were found among managers, rehabilitation specialists, and line workers in 1969. It is impossible to state an ideal figure for a national standard in minority recruitment because of the array of programs and the varying number of minority clients and community residents. Judgments need to be made in each case, but the overwhelming evidence is that an imbalance exists and must be remedied.

The qualifications set by State and local personnel offices should be reexamined when there are problems in obtaining minority staff. New criteria might be used, such as years of service in ghetto programs, "self-help" efforts, and community service. The prerequisite of long years in correctional systems may be the least valuable of all requirements. It is certain to eliminate most minority applicants.

Excuses often are given that qualified members of minority groups cannot be found. One State administrator from the Southwestern region told the press recently: "Of the 128 women inmates, 48 are black. There are no Negro matrons on the staff. We simply have no black applicants, or they don't meet the qualifications." Such remarks no longer can go unchallenged.

There are other problems regarding recruitment of minority staff. In the past, those few who were brought into the system felt pressure to become like their white counterparts. By doing so, they suffered an identity crisis with minority offenders. As black, Chicano, and Indian offenders have become politicized, they increasingly have rejected traditional minority staff. Extreme conflict has resulted in some institutions. Black inmates want black staff with whom they can identify. The same is true of Chicano and Indian inmates, probationers, and parolees.

Correctional agencies must become sensitive to this issue. They should abandon policies and practices that weaken identification between members of these groups and launch programs that capitalize on cultural differences as opportunities to improve their programs rather than as problems to contend with.

The need for a role model to admire and emulate undeniable. All youth need heroes. So do adults. Corrections should provide them among its staff, rather than weed them out. Both white and minority staff must be trained to accept this program goal.

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1. *Criminal Justice Universe Conference: Proceedings*. Washington: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, forthcoming.
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3. Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training. *Differences that Make the Difference*. Washington: JCCMT, 1967.
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5. Mattick, Hans W. "The Contemporary Jails of the United States: An Unknown and Neglected Area of Justice," in Daniel Glaser, ed., *Handbook of Corrections*. Chicago: Rand McNally, forthcoming.
6. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. *Task Force Report: Corrections*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1967.
7. *We Hold These Truths*, Proceedings of the National Conference on Corrections. Richmond: Virginia Department of Justice and Crime Prevention, 1972.

Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 14.2.

- 10.4 Probation Manpower.
- 12.8 Manpower (Parole).

Standard 14.3

Employment of Women

Correctional agencies immediately should develop policies and implement practices to recruit and hire more women for all types of positions in corrections, to include the following:

1. Change in correctional agency policy to eliminate discrimination against women for correctional work.
2. Provision for lateral entry to allow immediate placement of women in administrative positions.
3. Development of better criteria for selection of staff for correctional work, removing unreasonable obstacles to employment of women.
4. Assumption by the personnel system of aggressive leadership in giving women a full role in corrections.

Commentary

The Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training pointed out in 1969 that while women make up 40 percent of the national work force, they account for only 12 percent of the correctional work force. The majority of women work in adult and juvenile institutions that are segregated by sex; that is, they usually work in institutions for female offenders. In most State and Federal institutions for males, the only women employees are clerks and secretaries.

Discrimination against women as employees in correctional institutions for males has had serious implications for other correctional roles. The traditional tendency of corrections to select its managers and administrators from the ranks of institutional personnel (i.e., working up from guard to administrator), combined with the fact that the number of institutions for males is much larger than the number of institutions for females, has meant that women have been effectively eliminated from management and administrative positions. The few women correctional administrators serve only as wardens of female institutions.

The time is long overdue for a careful inspection of the assumptions and biases that have barred women from most positions in corrections. Correctional agencies must take a careful look at the tasks to be performed for each occupational category in their system to see if sex alone constitutes a bona fide occupational qualification.

In interpreting the prohibition against discrimination on the basis of sex in Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the courts have given force to the guidelines of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission of the Civil Service Commission. The Commission has put forth these guidelines:

The Commission will find that the following situations do not warrant the application of the bona fide occupational qualification exception: (1) the refusal to hire a woman because of her sex based on assumptions of the comparative employment characteristics of women in general, (2) the refusal to hire an individual based on stereotyped characterizations of the sexes.

Thus the principle of nondiscrimination recognizes that persons must be considered on the basis of individual capabilities and not on the basis of any stereotyped characteristics attributed to particular groups. In the area of corrections employment, the guidelines as specified by the commission should be given considerable weight.

These guidelines make clear that women should be hired for virtually any position in corrections. However, given the current situation in most institutions, sex may be a consideration in making certain assignments.

Serious objections to implementing this standard are anticipated. Prejudices run deep, particularly in the adult institutional field. Correctional administrators must take a strong leadership role in seeing that policies, practices, and attitudes are changed substantially. Corrections must become an equal opportunity employer.

References

1. *Criminal Justice Universe Conference: Pro-*

ceedings. Washington: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, forthcoming.

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3. Glaser, Daniel. "Changes in Corrections During the Next Twenty Years." Unpublished paper prepared for Project STAR, American Justice Institute, 1971.

4. *We Hold These Truths*, Proceedings of the National Conference on Corrections. Richmond: Virginia Department of Justice and Crime Prevention, 1972. (See particularly the presentation by William Nagel.)

Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 14.3.

- 8.4 Juvenile Intake and Detention Personnel Planning.
- 9.6 Staffing Patterns.
- 10.4 Probation Manpower.
- 11.6 Women in Major Institutions.
- 12.2 Parole Authority Personnel.
- 16.5 Recruiting and Retaining Professional Personnel.

Standard 14.4

Employment of Ex-Offenders

Correctional agencies should take immediate and affirmative action to recruit and employ capable and qualified ex-offenders in correctional roles.

1. Policies and practices restricting the hiring of ex-offenders should be reviewed and, where found unreasonable, eliminated or changed.

2. Agencies not only should open their doors to the recruitment of ex-offenders but also should actively seek qualified applicants.

3. Training programs should be developed to prepare ex-offenders to work in various correctional positions, and career development should be extended to them so they can advance in the system.

Commentary

Ex-offenders have knowledge of corrections and, like members of minority groups, often have rapport with the offender population that gives them special value as correctional employees. They have been through the mill and understand its effects on the individual.

In the past, innumerable laws have barred correctional agencies from hiring persons with felony convictions or even arrest records. While some States still have these legal barriers to the employment of offenders and ex-offenders, the greatest obstacles come through agency policy. In 1969, fully

half of all correctional personnel interviewed in a survey for the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training objected to hiring ex-offenders as full-time correctional workers. The Commission report stated:

In light of the increasing emphasis being placed on service roles in American society, it is imperative that governmental agencies in general and correctional organizations in particular reassess their policies, practices and attitudes toward hiring of offenders and ex-offenders.

The success of the New Careers program has given support to this effort. New York, California, Washington, Illinois, and other States pioneered in the use of offenders and ex-offenders in correctional work. As participatory management of the correctional system becomes a reality, more offenders will find roles in corrections. That main ingredient in corrections—people helping people—should be expanded to include the recipients of the service in helping capacities.

This program is high-risk but potentially high-gain. The Joint Commission sounded the caution:

Opening up of governmental systems as an employment prospect for offenders and ex-offenders brings with it a certain amount of risk. The public, as well as the hiring agencies, should be prepared for the fact that some will not work well as correctional employees. The same is true, however, of the general population from which corrections

now recruits its personnel. The fear of failure should not cause governmental units to discriminate in hiring against those with criminal records. . . . Correctional agencies and other governmental units have a clear responsibility to set a pattern for less discriminatory employment practices in regard to offenders and ex-offenders.

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3. Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training. *Perspectives on Correctional Manpower and Training*. Washington: JCCMT, 1969.
4. Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower

and Training. *A Time to Act*. Washington: JCCMT, 1969.

5. Norman, Sherwood. *The Youth Service Bureau: A Key to Delinquency Prevention*. New York: National Council on Crime and Delinquency, 1972.

6. *We Hold These Truths*, Proceedings of the National Conference on Corrections. Richmond: Virginia Department of Justice and Crime Prevention, 1972.

Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 14.4.

2.10 Retention and Restoration of Rights.

10.4 Probation Manpower.

12.8 Manpower (Parole).

16.17 Collateral Consequences of a Criminal Conviction.

Standard 14.5

Employment of Volunteers

Correctional agencies immediately should begin to recruit and use volunteers from all ranks of life as a valuable additional resource in correctional programs and operations, as follows:

1. Volunteers should be recruited from the ranks of minority groups, the poor, inner-city residents, ex-offenders who can serve as success models, and professionals who can bring special expertise to the field.
2. Training should be provided volunteers to give them an understanding of the needs and lifestyles common among offenders and to acquaint them with the objectives and problems of corrections.
3. A paid volunteer coordinator should be provided for efficient program operation.
4. Administrators should plan for and bring about full participation of volunteers in their programs; volunteers should be included in organizational development efforts.
5. Insurance plans should be available to protect the volunteer from any mishaps experienced during participation in the program.
6. Monetary rewards and honorary recognition should be given to volunteers making exceptional contribution to an agency.

Commentary

Probation actually began as a voluntary service in the mid-19th century, but since that time, corrections has used volunteers sparingly. In 1968 slightly less than one-half of the correctional agencies in the United States reported the use of volunteers. The Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training found that the attitude of correctional personnel toward the use of volunteers depended heavily on their own experience with volunteer workers. In programs where volunteers have been used, paid employees feel that they have made a significant contribution and would like to see more of them. Where volunteers have not been used, employees are far from enthusiastic about starting to use them.

Volunteers have come largely from the well-educated middle class. These volunteers do contribute greatly to the field, but their lifestyle differs sharply from that of the members of minority groups who make up a large segment of the offender population—individuals who are poor, undereducated, and unskilled. This disparity suggests the need for two types of programs. On the one hand, recruiting of volunteers should be intensified among minority

groups, the poor, and inner-city residents. On the other, training must be developed to give the traditional volunteer exposure to and understanding of lifestyles common among offender groups.

It must be remembered that volunteers can contribute much more than their services to correctional programs. Many of those now working as volunteers are "gatekeepers" in the community, persons who can help offenders and ex-offenders secure jobs, schooling, and recreation. Perhaps their greatest contribution to corrections lies in demonstrating that offenders are people who can become useful contributors to the community, people with whom it is a satisfaction to work. In sum, the volunteer can serve as a bridge between corrections and the free community, a bridge which is sorely needed.

Volunteers require supervision, direction, and guidance, just as other correctional employees do, and paid staff should be provided to manage their programs and activities. The development of volunteer programs, as well as other correctional programs, should be planned with the assistance of volunteers, who have a variety of expertise to offer.

Because volunteers may be involved in a wide variety of program activities with offenders, both in the community and in institutions, insurance coverage should be provided for them. Also, some funds should be budgeted to provide tangible rewards and a variety of means of honorary recognition for volunteers whose performances are particularly valuable.

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4. National Clearinghouse for Volunteers in Courts. *Newsletter*. Ivan Scheier, ed. Boulder, Colo. (Produced in cooperation with the Boulder, Colo., County Court.)
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6. *We Hold These Truths*, Proceedings of the National Conference on Corrections. Richmond: Virginia Department of Justice and Crime Prevention, 1972.

Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 14.5.

- 7.3 Corrections' Responsibility for Citizen Involvement.
- 8.4 Juvenile Intake and Detention Personnel Planning.
- 12.8 Manpower (Parole).

Standard 14.6

Personnel Practices for Retaining Staff

Correctional agencies should immediately reexamine and revise personnel practices to create a favorable organizational climate and eliminate legitimate causes of employee dissatisfaction in order to retain capable staff. Policies should be developed that would provide:

1. Salaries for all personnel that are competitive with other parts of the criminal justice system as well as with comparable occupation groups of the private sector of the local economy. An annual cost-of-living adjustment should be mandatory.
2. Opportunities for staff advancement within the system. The system also should be opened to provide opportunities for lateral entry and promotional mobility within jurisdictions and across jurisdictional lines.
3. Elimination of excessive and unnecessary paperwork and chains of command that are too rigidly structured and bureaucratic in function, with the objective of facilitating communication and decisionmaking so as to encourage innovation and initiative.
4. Appropriate recognition for jobs well done.
5. Workload distribution and schedules based on flexible staffing arrangements. Size of the workload should be only one determinant. Also to be included should be such others as nature of cases, team assignments, and the needs of offenders and the community.

6. A criminal justice career pension system to include investment in an annuity and equity system for each correctional worker. The system should permit movement within elements of the criminal justice system and from one corrections agency to another without loss of benefits.

Commentary

A survey conducted by the Joint Commission Correctional Manpower and Training examined employee satisfaction as well as dissatisfaction.

While generally positive about their jobs, correctional employees point out a significant number of causes for dissatisfaction. The most commonly expressed grievance is that there is "too much work." Excessive caseloads and general working conditions contribute to a feeling of "too much to do and too little time to do it." There is considerable concern over the inadequacies of the correctional system—that is, a keen awareness that the system fails for far too many offenders.

Significant numbers of correctional employees see disorganization and lack of communication within and between agencies as detracting from job satisfaction. Lack of sufficient staff and financial resources, and too much agency-created red tape are frequently mentioned.

Half of all correctional employees feel they do not have much freedom in doing their jobs. In a national climate of increasing concern with self-determination, it is imperative for corrections to open up its internal operations and

provide freedom of operation for its employees, thus paving the way for more active and meaningful achievement of their goal.

Low pay is a common complaint throughout the system. There are abundant examples of salaries near the poverty line as defined by the Federal Government, and some salaries below that level. Many correctional employees have to hold two jobs to make ends meet.

Such a situation is obviously self-defeating. Correctional systems which hope to retain capable workers will see to it that salaries are competitive with those of comparable occupational groups in the State and are adjusted annually to meet changes in the cost of living. The personnel divisions of some State correctional systems now make annual salary surveys for this purpose.

Opportunities for advancement are essential to good job performance in any organization. The manager who wishes to make the best use of his employees will be on the alert to spot those who have experience and/or skills (or could acquire them with proper training) to fill openings above their current level.

Sometimes, however, particularly in professional positions and in top management, the man most qualified to fill a vacancy (and possibly quite willing to do so) cannot be hired because the system has no provision for lateral entry. This is one aspect of the closed system that characterizes corrections as a field. Corrections should be opened up to permit entry from other jurisdictions and other elements of the criminal justice system.

Corrections is characterized by an excessively large line complement—guards, probation officers, parole officers, etc.—whose very numbers make advancement slow and difficult. Career ladders need to be structured to provide opportunities for capable employees to advance in their personal careers and to make greater contribution in keeping with their abilities.

The excessive number of line workers in corrections also creates an organizational atmosphere in which too many labor in obscurity. Correctional administrators should establish a system for seeking out and identifying high-quality performance and providing a range of devices for recognition of this performance—monetary awards, pay increases, letters of commendation, membership on planning and management committees of various kinds, participation in national conferences, and the like.

Workload standards are important in planning manpower needs and utilization. The creative use of manpower has never been a characteristic of the corrections field in general. Large custodial staffs

walk the cell blocks, sit in gun towers, and search inmates. Their jobs are routine and boring, frequently resulting in cynicism about the entire system and particularly about the men and women in their care.

On the other hand, persons in institutional treatment roles are few in number, carry excessive caseloads, and are required to handle enormous amounts of paperwork and duplicative report writing. In field offices, staff members carry very heavy caseloads, and clerical duties take much of their time. As noted in Chapters 10 and 12, caseload standards have been set by different bodies, but no agreement has emerged.

Several recommendations on workload distribution are in order.

Correctional agencies should experiment with workload determinants to arrive at an effective ratio of staff to offenders. Ratios in the past have been based on numbers. Complexity of cases, capability of staff, geographic location of cases, and nature of case assignments are other determinants to be considered.

Assignment of staff to offenders on an individual basis should not necessarily be considered the best method.

A promising alternative is the team assignment, which brings to bear talents from caseworkers, psychologists, teachers, offenders, volunteers, and community workers. A team might be assigned to an area of the city where many probation and parole cases are found, or to an institutional unit or college.

Experimentation is needed to compare cases having no formal supervision with those having varying amounts and kinds of supervision. There is mounting evidence that some persons do better in corrections if they are not supervised by traditional staff. More study is needed. If this evidence is borne out, staff could be reassigned to other tasks such as job finding, community organization, client advocacy, and social action programs.

Institutional caseloads should be established to make maximum use of teams including counselors, line officers, offenders, volunteers, and community-based staff.

Vested rights in pension systems too often inhibit employees from moving from a correctional agency where they may have worked several years. To encourage mobility and the exchange of personnel between elements of the criminal justice system and correctional agencies, a pension system should be developed that would permit benefits to accompany the employee from one agency to another. Correctional administrators therefore should support Federal legislation and an interstate compact that would establish a system of this kind.

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9. Washington Board of Prison Terms and Parole. *Parole Supervision Study*. Olympia: 1972.

Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 14.6.

- 8.4 Juvenile Intake and Detention Personnel Planning.
- 9.6 Staffing Patterns.
- 10.4 Probation Manpower.
- 12.8 Manpower (Parole).
- 13.3 Employee-Management Relations.
- 16.1 Comprehensive Correctional Legislation.
- 16.5 Recruiting and Retaining Professional Personnel.

Standard 14.7

Participatory Management

Correctional agencies should adopt immediately a program of participatory management in which everyone involved—managers, staff, and offenders—shares in identifying problems, finding mutually agreeable solutions, setting goals and objectives, defining new roles for participants, and evaluating effectiveness of these processes.

This program should include the following:

1. Training and development sessions to prepare managers, staff, and offenders for their new roles in organizational development.
2. An ongoing evaluation process to determine progress toward participatory management and role changes of managers, staff, and offenders.
3. A procedure for the participation of other elements of the criminal justice system in long-range planning for the correctional system.
4. A change of manpower utilization from traditional roles to those in keeping with new management and correctional concepts.

Commentary

The aim of participatory management is to give all persons in the organization a stake in its direction, operation, and outcome. This concept is gaining support in practice. First, all those affected by the organization (prison, community-based facility, train-

ing school) join in training and development sessions to prepare for involvement in the system. Mutual problems are identified, and plans are made to resolve the problems and set goals and objectives. All roles are redefined to accomplish the newly stated organizational goals. Responsibility for role fulfillment is fixed, and results are measured over a period.

Participatory management can best be defined operationally by describing its specific objectives:

1. To create an open, problem-solving climate throughout an organization.
2. To supplement the authority, associated with role or status with the authority or knowledge of competence.
3. To locate decisionmaking and problem-solving responsibilities as close to information sources as possible.
4. To build trust among individuals and groups within the organization.
5. To maximize collaborative efforts.
6. To increase the level of personal enthusiasm and satisfaction in the organization.
7. To increase the level of individual and group responsibility in planning and implementation.
8. To increase self-control and self-direction for persons within the organization.
9. To increase the incidence of confrontation of organizational problems, both within and among

groups, in contrast to "sweeping problems under the rug."

In short, participatory management is a planned effort to change an obstructing organization into one in which individuals may pursue their own and the organization's needs and objectives simultaneously.

When such a process is set in motion in a correctional facility, some immediate results may include elected inmate councils, diminished cleavage between custody and treatment staff, inmate-operated community facilities, and new roles for line staff.

One large-scale experiment with participatory management has been conducted at the Women's Treatment Center in Purdy, Washington. The results are encouraging.

- Managers find their jobs shifting to a coordinating and facilitating function.
- Line staff undergo role shifts. They find less need for emphasis on custody and greater need for counseling skills and inclusion in self-help programs.
- Professional staff are freed to work directly with inmates having special needs or to provide assistance to staff and inmates in their new roles.
- Inmates develop self-government, self-help programs, and roles as aides and community liaison.

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Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 14.7.

- 7.1 Development Plan for Community-Based Alternatives to Confinement.
- 9.1 Total System Planning.
- 10.2 Service to Probationers.
- 11.2 Modification of Existing Institutions.
- 12.6 Community Services for Parolees.
- 13.2 Planning and Organization.
- 15.1 State Correctional Information Systems.
- 15.5 Evaluating the Performance of the Correctional System.
- 16.14 Community-Based Treatment Programs.

Standard 14.8

Redistribution of Correctional Manpower Resources to Community-Based Programs

Correctional and other agencies, in implementing the recommendations of Chapters 7 and 11 for reducing the use of major institutions and increasing the use of community resources for correctional purposes, should undertake immediate cooperative studies to determine proper redistribution of manpower from institutional to community-based programs. This plan should include the following:

1. Development of a statewide correctional manpower profile including appropriate data on each worker.
2. Proposals for retraining staff relocated by institutional closures.
3. A process of updating information on program effectiveness and needed role changes for correctional staff working in community-based programs.
4. Methods for formal, official corrections to cooperate effectively with informal and private correctional efforts found increasingly in the community. Both should develop collaboratively rather than competitively.

Commentary

Most correctional resources—dollars, manpower, and attention—have been invested in traditional institutional services outside the mainstream of urban life. As indicated throughout this report, the trend

now is away from isolating the offender in large, rural prisons and toward treatment near his home. There are major obstacles to full implementation of this change, however, not the least of which are the tremendous implications for correctional personnel.

As stated earlier, the majority of correctional personnel are now, and have been in the past, employed in institutions. Given the size, physical characteristics, and predominant institutional attitudes toward offenders, most of these staff have been trained and rewarded for a custody and control orientation. In addition, correctional staff have generally had a predominantly rural background and, in many cases, a lifestyle that has been heavily centered around institutional life. Thus, a dual problem is presented in switching to community-based corrections: a change in job function and a change in community of orientation.

Obviously, current staff cannot be dismissed and replaced by new staff. Nor can it be assumed that simply relocating and changing job descriptions will solve the problem. Correctional agencies that have made major shifts from institutional corrections to community corrections have learned this lesson the hard way. When insufficient attention has been given to staffing in effecting these major program changes, problems have resulted. In some cases institutional staff have been notified only days or weeks before

the institution in which they had been working was closed. Naturally, the persons so affected have been angered, and some have become vigorous opponents of such moves. Such opposition may serve to slow or halt further implementation of community corrections. Thus lack of adequate anticipatory planning and retraining for staff may block program change.

Too often advocates of reform have concentrated solely on the political and social change strategies necessary to convince administrators and funders to change their priorities and emphasize community corrections programs. However, by the time agreement is reached on the desirability of moving toward such a change, in one sense it is already too late to begin thinking about the problems that will result from existing staff.

It is of critical importance for correctional administrators to acknowledge the changes in the wind and begin preparing for them immediately. The first step required is to gather an overall picture of current personnel, including data on education, training, and experience. Such a statewide correctional manpower profile can then be used in conjunction with other information as long-range planning is done. Such material can serve as a basis for developing comprehensive plans for retraining staff, both for those already relocated and in anticipation of future manpower requirements.

Much of this training will take the form of introducing correctional personnel to a new role—that of broker, resource manager, change agent, etc.—that will be required in community corrections. If training precedes actual relocation, consideration should be given to using rotating assignments as, for example, moving a group of institutional staff into the community with a cohort of parolees and later returning the staff to another institutional shift. Such a project is now being tried in California. Another possibility would involve utilizing institutional staff in expanded roles, such as carrying the functions of release planning and employment placement assistance from the institution into the community. Thus, personnel may adopt more fluid assignments so that “institutional staff” may have responsibilities that require working in the community on a part-time basis. Many variations are possible, but it is important that adequate provisions are made for giving those undergoing training an opportunity to utilize and expand their new skills.

Experimenting with new roles for correctional staff can also serve a valuable function in developing effective relationships with private correctional efforts in the community. Administrators should realize that beginning to work with community agencies and representatives should not wait until a complete transition to community corrections is achieved. In

order to plan effectively for new manpower needs, it is necessary to work with community agencies to learn what services are presently available, what could be done by community groups, and what the critical roles to be filled by correctional personnel will be.

As new manpower programs and assignments are implemented, evaluation components should be included, at least on a sample basis, that will provide feedback on actual services performed, additional services needed, problems encountered, etc., as a basis for continuing planning and training.

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Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 14.8.

- 7.1 Development Plan for Community-Based Alternatives to Confinement.
- 9.1 Total System Planning.
- 10.2 Services to Probationers.

- 11.2 Modification of Existing Institutions.
- 12.6 Community Services for Parolees.
- 13.2 Planning and Organization.
- 15.1 State Correctional Information Systems.
- 15.5 Evaluating the Performance of the Correctional System.
- 16.14 Community-Based Treatment Programs.

Standard 14.9

Coordinated State Plan for Criminal Justice Education

Each State should establish by 1975 a State plan for coordinating criminal justice education to assure a sound academic continuum from an associate of arts through graduate studies in criminal justice, to allocate education resources to sections of the State with defined needs, and to work toward proper placement of persons completing these programs.

1. Where a State higher education coordinating agency exists, it should be utilized to formulate and implement the plan.

2. Educational leaders, State planners, and criminal justice staff members should meet to chart current and future statewide distribution and location of academic programs, based on proven needs and resources.

3. Award of Law Enforcement Education Program funds should be based on a sound educational plan.

4. Preservice graduates of criminal justice education programs should be assisted in finding proper employment.

Each unified State correctional system should ensure that proper incentives are provided for participation in higher education programs.

1. Inservice graduates of criminal justice education programs should be aided in proper job advancement or reassignment.

2. Rewards (either increased salary or new work assignments) should be provided to encourage inservice staff to pursue these educational opportunities.

Commentary

Higher education for correctional personnel has posed two kinds of problems: the availability and correlation of educational programs; and recognition of work done by individuals who complete such programs. Obviously, higher education has the major responsibility for planning educational programs in criminal justice as in other fields, and some universities have taken the lead in establishing graduate criminal justice programs, as noted in the narrative of this chapter. But the State correctional agency must take responsibility for pointing out the special needs of its personnel to the education coordinating body.

With Law Enforcement Education Program loans and grants, many correctional personnel have been able to pursue academic studies. But colleges and universities have developed their programs independently of each other, and thus great divergence prevails. A correctional officer completing an associate of arts program at a local community col-

lege may not be able to enter a 4-year college and find a curriculum relevant to his needs. Furthermore, many of his course credits may not be transferable.

Even if he does pursue advanced degrees, most personnel systems have failed to respond positively to this personal staff development. Many have refused to redesign the job to take advantage of the new skills or to pay the person appropriately for his new abilities. Thus there is little incentive to do college-level work, and the correctional agencies are defeating their own attempts to secure better-trained personnel.

A plan was introduced in the Connecticut State Legislature in 1971 to provide financial incentive to correctional employees to pursue relevant academic work. The bill failed to pass.

While such a plan may not be feasible in some States, it is unrealistic to expect employees to do college-level work, frequently on their own time and money, unless they can see the possibility of official recognition of their efforts.

More detailed information on developing a State plan for coordinating criminal justice education is provided in the Commission's report on The Criminal Justice System.

References

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encourage correctional employees to continue their education."

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Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 14.9.

10.4 Probation Manpower.

12.8 Manpower (Parole).

13.3 Employee-Management Relations.

16.5 Recruiting and Retaining Professional Personnel.

Standard 14.10

Intern and Work-Study Programs

Correctional agencies should immediately begin to plan, support, and implement internship and work-study programs to attract students to corrections as a career and improve the relationship between educational institutions and the field of practice.

These programs should include the following:

1. Recruitment efforts concentrating on minority groups, women, and socially concerned students.
2. Careful linking between the academic component, work assignments, and practical experiences for the students.
3. Collaborative planning for program objectives and execution agreeable to university faculty, student interns, and agency staff.
4. Evaluation of each program.
5. Realistic pay for students.
6. Followup with participating students to encourage entrance into correctional work.

Commentary

Young people are the targets of the internship and work-study programs now being offered in a number of social service fields. For purposes of this standard, internship can be defined as a period of practice in a clinical setting after a student has completed specific academic preparation, usually at the

graduate level. As he works to gain proficiency in special skills, he is usually supervised by a qualified professional. An example is an internship in clinical psychology for correctional work.

Work-study programs now being conducted in the correctional field are typically offered jointly by a college or university and one or more institutions of the State's correctional system. Under the pattern developed by the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, undergraduates who have some interest in a career in corrections have a brief orientation, lecture, and study period on the campus during the summer and then go to an institution to do paid work under supervision. They continue study under supervision from the campus. These programs introduce students to the field under real-life circumstances, so that they can confirm or reject it as a career choice on the basis of experience.

Summer work-study programs have been the means of recruiting young people to a field that badly needs them. Of special interest are programs which recruit women and members of minority groups.

While intern and summer work-study programs are not new in other fields, they have been used sparingly in most adult correctional settings. Prison reform recently has gained popularity on the college campuses. Students are looking for ways to confront corrections—to cause changes. Often this search ends in angry rhetoric, further alienating the young

from the criminal justice system. Through internship and work-study programs students can participate in correctional practice and reform at the grass-roots—in prisons and juvenile institutions and in probation and parole services.

In 1972 the National Manpower Development Assistance Program of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration gave top priority to internships in correctional settings in its newly adopted intern program. This movement can achieve valuable results in familiarizing students with corrections. It can serve both as a recruitment technique and as preparation for the role of concerned citizen.

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3. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Manpower Development Assistance Division. *Report on Internship Program*. Washington: 1972.

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5. Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education. *Summer Work-Study Programs*. Boulder, Colo.: WICHE, 1970.

Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 14.10.

- 7.2 Marshalling and Coordinating Community Resources.
- 10.4 Probation Manpower.
- 12.8 Manpower (Parole).
- 16.5 Recruiting and Retaining Professional Personnel.

Police Personnel

Standard 13.1

General Police Recruiting

Every police agency should insure the availability of qualified applicants to fill police officer vacancies by aggressively recruiting applicants when qualified candidates are not readily available.

1. The police agency should administer its own recruitment program.

a. The agency should assign to specialized recruitment activities employees who are thoroughly familiar with the policies and procedures of the agency and with the ideals and practices of professional law enforcement;

b. Agencies without the expertise to recruit police applicants successfully should seek expertise from the central personnel agency at the appropriate level of State or local government, or form cooperative personnel systems with other police agencies that are likely to benefit from such an association: every police agency, however, should retain administrative control of its recruitment activities.

2. The police agency should direct recruitment exclusively toward attracting the best qualified candidates. In so doing it:

a. Should make college-educated applicants the primary targets of all recruitment efforts.

b. Should concentrate recruitment resources according to the agency's need for personnel from varied ethnic backgrounds.

3. Residency should be eliminated as a preemployment requirement.

4. The police agency should provide application and testing procedures at decentralized locations in order to facilitate the applicant's access to the selection process.

a. The initial application form should be a short, simple record of the minimum information necessary to initiate the selection process.

5. The police agency should allow for the completion of minor routine requirements, such as obtaining a valid driver's license, after the initial application but before employment.

6. The police agency, through various incentives, should involve all agency personnel in the recruitment and selection process.

7. The police agency should seek professional assistance—such as that available in advertising, media, and public relations firms—to research and develop increasingly effective recruitment methods.

8. The police agency should evaluate the effectiveness of all recruitment methods continually so that successful methods may be emphasized and unsuccessful ones discarded.

Commentary

The recruitment and selection of personnel for the police service is a basic responsibility of management. This responsibility can no more be farmed out to other government agencies than can management's responsibility to organize, plan, or budget. To do so is to abdicate a management function that is crucial to the proper operation of any organization.

Recruiting efforts should be staffed as well as administered by the police agency itself. The police will be more efficient than outsiders as recruiters because the police are strongly motivated to recruit and select the most qualified candidates for police service. Also, police personnel have a better understanding of the requirements and demands of the law enforcement profession. Throughout the country there have been successful recruiting efforts staffed by police personnel; the recruitment programs of Overland Park, Kans., Kansas City, Mo., and Des Moines, Iowa, are examples.

Successful recruiting efforts require that only qualified personnel be assigned to recruitment positions. Not all police officers have the knowledge, personality, and ability to speak in public that are needed to be an effective recruiter. In its 1971 recommendations to the Commonwealth of Massachusetts regarding the recruitment of police officers, Bio Dynamics Inc. encouraged the use of police personnel but stipulated that they be trained for this particular function rather than assigned on a random basis.

The Cincinnati Police Department, making extensive use of police officers in its recruitment efforts, has established a training program for recruiters. Course material includes staff notes, department bulletins, the *Crime Control Digest*, and instructions on personnel and public speaking policies of the department.

While larger departments such as Cincinnati need a full-time recruiting staff, smaller agencies hiring just a few officers each year do not. This does not preclude police involvement in recruitment activities. Overland Park, Kans., a 60-man department with fluctuating demands for new personnel, assigns qualified officers to occasional recruiting on a part-time or overtime basis. Smaller agencies may also combine resources to mount recruitment campaigns as needed.

Central personnel agencies can be helpful in the selection of police officers. Such agencies through the years develop a high degree of expertise in recruiting and selecting personnel for other government agencies. In fact, the police rely on in-house resources for recruitment more than most other

government agencies. In Phoenix, Ariz., for example, the police department is the only city agency with its own personnel bureau. Normally, as pointed out by O. W. Wilson in *Police Planning*, the proper role of the central personnel agency is to provide high-caliber technical assistance to the police. The development, scheduling, and supervision of tests, examinations, and other processes are often handled best by a central personnel agency.

Nevertheless, the ultimate authority and responsibility for the recruitment and selection of police personnel must remain with the police agency.

Standards

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice in 1967 emphasized the desirability of setting higher educational standards for persons entering police service. Initially, this position was widely criticized. Subsequent events, however, have demonstrated how enlightened this view is.

Higher education is a feasible requirement because the level of education in the American population has risen steadily. American police agencies have relied on the high school diploma as a selection standard for approximately 25 years. Relatively few agencies have raised this standard despite the fact that during the past decade the percentage of adults who have completed high school rose from 43 percent to 60 percent. The percentage of high school graduates going on to college now exceeds 50 percent.

The American Bar Association, in *The Urban Police Function*, discussed the high school diploma as a selection standard in an era of increasing educational achievement and concluded that police forces are being drawn from the third educational and social quartile (below the top 50 percent and above the lower 25 percent). In short, to continue the practice of selecting individuals who lack a college education is to select personnel from the undereducated minority of the American population.

Through the years, many authoritative sources have encouraged higher education requirements for the police. Among them are the International Association of Chiefs of Police, the American Bar Association, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, and many noted police administrators. Their position has been based on the conviction gained through experience in the criminal justice system that those entrusted with the protection of our constitutional rights must possess an understanding of human behavior and a knowledge of the social, political, and economic environment.

In recent years concrete evidence has been developed that firmly supports this belief. A 1972 Rand Corporation study of the New York Police Department—*Police Background Characteristics and Performance*—revealed that college-educated police officers were rated as superior performers and received fewer civilian complaints. Similarly, a 1968 study of the Chicago Police Department—*Psychological Assessment of Patrolman Qualifications*—revealed that the highest rated group of tenured officers had achieved significantly higher levels of education than had those rated lower.

Minority Recruitment

Few police agencies consciously exclude or discourage minority group members from their ranks. On the other hand, few police agencies conscientiously and aggressively recruit minority group members into the police service. Many agencies, furthermore, may unconsciously discourage entry into the police service by their unfavorable treatment of applicants or incumbent minority personnel.

Affirmative action, which is required of police agencies as well as most other employers, demands aggressively seeking out and recruiting members of minority groups that are substantially represented in the community. For example, if the police agency serves a community with several Mexican-Americans or persons of Oriental extraction, recruiting efforts should be intensified in the neighborhoods where these minority members reside. Standard 13.3 contains an in-depth discussion of minority recruiting standards to guide agencies in securing personnel from varied ethnic backgrounds.

Residency Requirements

The primary concern of police agencies should be the quality rather than the residency of police personnel. Artificial preemployment residency requirements limit the number of applicants from which qualified candidates may be selected.

The legality of preemployment residency requirements is questionable. A Minnesota case, *Carter v. Gallagher*, 452 F. 2d 315 (1971), attacked the legitimacy of the Minnesota Veteran's Preference Law. This law gave preference for government jobs to those who had lived in Minnesota prior to entering the military service or had lived in Minnesota for a period of at least 5 years after military service. It was alleged that the residency requirement discriminated against veterans who, although otherwise qualified, had not lived within the State for the required period of time.

The court found no compelling State interest in the residency requirement and further found that

the requirement was inconsistent with the equal protection clause of the 14th amendment. The practice was ordered discontinued. This decision casts doubt on the constitutionality of any preemployment residency requirement (*IACP Public Safety Labor Reporter*, March 1972).

Once a police officer has accepted employment, however, the value of his living within the community in which he works should not be overlooked or underestimated. Mutual understanding between the officer and other citizens results from the officer's assuming an active private role in addition to his professional role in the community. This rapport, in turn, helps the officer understand local problems and needs, while destroying the false and damaging stereotyped image many people have of their police. Such understanding develops when police officers become, for example, scout leaders or members of such groups as PTA, Optimists, or Kiwanis.

In any situation in which there is a good reason, such as an economic one, for an officer's not living within the community where he works, he should be required to live within a reasonable distance of it. At a minimum the "reasonableness" should be predicated upon time necessary to respond to an emergency call.

Decentralized Application and Test Procedures

Police agencies today must compete with the private sector to attract qualified employees. Agencies must take the promotional appeal and application process to the potential employee, particularly in the case of college and minority recruiting.

Many police agencies provide decentralized application and testing processes both within and outside the jurisdiction. The Baltimore Police Department actively recruits outside its own jurisdiction and allows applicant processing at the point of initial contact. This department also provides applicant testing at its district stations.

Overland Park, Kans., has a department serving 90,000 persons; it recruits out-of-state applicants by sending the test forms to a local principal, professor, doctor, or other professional who administers the test and mails it back to the department, unscored. Lakewood, Colo., also recruits nationally by sending recruiting teams throughout the country to administer written and oral examinations near the applicant's home.

These agencies are willing to bear the added expense and difficulty of providing decentralized applicant processing because they are committed to employing qualified personnel and have been successful in their efforts.

Detailed, lengthy applications actually can become a barrier to recruitment. A candidate normally cannot recall readily all the information required by a detailed questionnaire and will keep the application form to complete at a later date. Many of these applications may be lost or ignored, so the agency has no record of the applicant.

Perhaps the most efficient method of recording the initial application is to note all essential information about the applicant on a simple 8- by 5-inch card. From these data the applicant can be contacted later about testing and other processing.

Another reason for a simple initial application form is that a large percentage of applicants fail the written and oral tests; therefore, there is no need to record detailed personal information until the character investigation begins.

Completion of Minor Requirements

Requiring a candidate to show evidence of all basic qualifications at the time of initial application should be avoided because it unnecessarily delays the induction of qualified candidates. Applicants who are deficient in such minor requirements as the possession of a driver's license should be processed routinely if it appears likely that they will be able to complete the requirement prior to employment. Such a policy is a positive effort to remove barriers to those seeking police employment.

Recruitment Incentives

One of the most effective recruiting techniques is to involve all agency personnel in recruitment activities by providing incentives for their participation. The benefits of such a program are twofold: More personnel become involved in recruiting than could be assigned specifically to such duties by the agency and, because of their professional interest, officers generally recruit better qualified candidates.

Departments throughout the country have discovered the effectiveness of this technique. In 1970, the Dallas Police Department reported that 15 percent of all appointed officers were referred by police personnel not assigned to recruitment duties. In 1971-72 during a particularly intense recruitment campaign in Kansas City, Mo., approximately 61 percent of new appointees were referred by police personnel not assigned to recruitment duties.

The key to successfully involving line personnel in recruitment activities is to provide a significant incentive. The Kansas City Police Department pays an officer \$75 for every successful candidate he refers to the agency. St. Louis, Mo., provides a bonus in the form of 5 extra days off, as does the Baltimore, Md., Police Department.

Professional Assistance

Many agencies have found advertising to be highly productive in recruitment campaigns. The use of advertising should be undertaken only with advice of professionals who best know how to make effective use of the media. Since advertising is the most expensive form of recruiting, one cannot afford to diminish its effectiveness through poor planning.

The Honolulu, Hawaii, Police Department's recruitment campaign of 1970-71 made excellent use of professional assistance. An advertising agency volunteered to plan the use of television, radio, newspaper, and other recruiting techniques, and the number of applications skyrocketed.

The Kansas City, Mo., Police Department found inexpensive non-prime-time radio spots to be a poor investment. The spot recruitment messages reached a limited audience. Although more expensive initially, the purchase of prime time is more effective in the long run because more potential recruits are reached.

Although expertise in advertising and public relations is not common within a police agency, it is usually available within the community, often on a voluntary, public service basis.

Evaluating Recruitment

Various proven recruitment techniques are discussed throughout this chapter. A technique that is successful in one jurisdiction, however, will not necessarily be as productive in another. Police agencies should approach the recruitment of personnel with the idea of developing and using techniques and procedures that will satisfy their particular needs. Therefore, police agencies should establish a method to monitor the recruitment program in order to determine which techniques are productive. Applicants should be queried as to how they were attracted to the police service and the particular agencies in which they work. Methods that attract a larger percentage of the total applicants should be bolstered and the less successful ones deemphasized or eliminated.

References

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9. Wilson, O. W., and Roy McLaren. *Police Administration*. New York: McGraw Hill, 1972.

Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 13.1:

- 9.2(2) Selection for Specialized Assignment.
- 10.1(9) Assignment of Civilian Police Personnel.
- 10.2(1)(a)(2)(a) Selection and Assignment of Reserve Police Officers.
- 13.2 College Recruiting.
- 13.3 Minority Recruiting.
- 13.4 State Mandated Minimum Standards for the Selection of Police Officers.
- 13.6(1)(2) Employment of Women.
- 17.4(2) Administration of Promotions and Advancements.
- Recommendation 13.1 Job-Related Ability and Personality Inventory Tests for Police Applicants.

Standard 13.2

College Recruiting

Every police agency that does not have a sufficient number of qualified applicants having appropriate college backgrounds to fill police officer vacancies as they occur should immediately implement a specialized recruitment program to satisfy this need.

1. The police agency should establish permanent liaison with:

a. Placement officers and career counselors in colleges and universities within a 50-mile radius of the police agency.

b. Faculty members and heads of departments that provide a curriculum specifically designed to prepare students for the police service.

2. The police agency should implement a police student worker program that provides part-time employment for college students between the ages of 17 and 25 who have shown a sincere interest in a law enforcement career. Police student workers:

a. Should be full-time students carrying a study load of at least 12 units per semester and should work for the police agency no more than 20 hours per week; during school vacations, full-time employment may be appropriate.

b. Should meet the same physical, mental, and character standards required of police officers; appropriate and reasonable exceptions may be made for height and weight in relation to age.

c. Should be assigned duties that prepare them for their future responsibilities as regular police officers; student workers, however, should not have the authority of a regular police officer or be authorized to carry firearms.

d. Should, after earning a baccalaureate degree, continue in the cadet program until a vacancy occurs on the regular police force.

e. Should continue in the cadet program for the period of time required to earn the baccalaureate degree, if by age 25 they are 1 academic year away from earning the degree.

3. The police agency should compete actively with other governmental and private sector employers in recruitment efforts at nearby colleges and universities. The opportunity for a police officer to perform a valuable social service, and the opportunity for a progressive career, should be emphasized in college recruiting.

Commentary

While the general level of education has risen dramatically, the education standards of the police service have remained relatively static, with the majority of police agencies requiring no more than a high school education. At this time, 60 percent of

the adult population and 80 percent of the population between the ages of 20 and 29 have completed at least a high school education. Sixty percent of high school graduates now go on to college, and it is anticipated that by 1979, 65 percent will pursue a college degree.

Twenty years ago the high school diploma was a significant educational achievement; it is not today. To continue recruiting at this level of education is to invite mediocrity; it may lead to the detrimental belief that almost anyone can be a policeman.

The police service must recruit and employ the caliber of personnel that are now found within our colleges and universities, those (personnel) possessing intellectual curiosity, analytical ability, articulateness, and a capacity to relate the events of the day to the social, political, and historical context in which they occur. (*The Urban Police Function*, American Bar Association tentative draft on standards for criminal justice, 1972).

The benefits of inducting personnel with higher levels of academic achievement are appreciable. A 1972 Rand Corporation study on police performance in New York indicates that college-educated officers are superior performers and the subject of fewer citizen complaints; a 1968 Chicago study reveals that college-educated officers are generally rated higher by supervisors. Ventura, Calif., which requires a 4-year college education of its recruits, has reported quicker response times, fewer citizen complaints, and a measurable reduction in the crime rate. It seems reasonable to believe that such benefits would be enjoyed throughout the Nation if educational standards for police officers were raised.

Police agencies must take a positive approach toward recruiting college-educated applicants and convince students that law enforcement is ready for the college-educated cop.

The numerous police agencies that have raised their educational standards to the college level have done so without suffering the dire consequences of restricted recruiting and high personnel turnover so often predicted. Ventura, Calif.—one of 32 agencies in California requiring some level of college achievement—recently received applications from 85 college graduates for a single vacancy. This was accomplished without any special recruiting efforts.

College Counselors and Placement Officers

A technique to attract college graduates that is used by the private sector—as well as other governmental agencies—is to list job opportunities with college and university placement officers. To pro-

vide a flow of referrals from the colleges, agencies must maintain a continuing liaison with college placement offices, keeping them apprised of current opportunities.

Maintaining liaison with individual faculty members is another productive approach that is commonly employed by agencies of the Federal Government and has proved productive on the local level. The Ventura, Calif., Police Department depends entirely on referrals from colleges and universities for applicants.

Police Student Worker Programs

Police student worker programs serve the dual purpose of maintaining an applicant's interest in law enforcement after high school graduation and recruiting applicants with a college background.

Potential police officers may lose their interest in law enforcement in the years between high school graduation and employment eligibility, which comes usually at 21 years of age. Employment with a police agency will in many cases nurture a student's interest.

The success of police student worker programs in actually bringing college-educated candidates into the police service is undeniable. Nassau County, N.Y., reports that 70 percent of its student workers eventually enter the department as sworn officers. The coordinator of a student worker program in a large west coast city feels that he could fill all of his department's manpower needs with college-educated personnel if he were given a free hand at hiring student workers.

In view of the higher level of education recommended in chapter 15 of this report, it is anticipated that the maximum age permitted for student workers should be at least 25. A youth entering college immediately after graduation from high school is unlikely to be 21 years old or younger. The maximum age limit must allow later entry into student worker programs for youths who enter the military service or seek other employment upon completion of high school.

Because student worker programs are primarily designed to attract college-educated persons into the police service, it is important that student workers be employed part-time and devote their greatest effort toward school. Full-time employment during vacation periods is appropriate in order to keep people from dropping out of the program.

The recruitment aspect of these programs makes it imperative that student workers meet the qualifications for regular police officers, with reasonable exceptions to educational and physical standards. Because the purpose of the program is to maintain

the interest of college students, the only educational requirement should be that the student worker actually pursue a college degree in a suitable subject area. Minor exceptions to the physical requirements of height, and weight in relation to height, may be appropriate for a youth who at the time of application has not reached his full growth.

One of the most crucial aspects of a student worker program is the nature of the duties assigned. Too many mundane and routine duties may destroy any interest in law enforcement, particularly in a bright college student. Assigning regular police duties of a sensitive or dangerous nature has other drawbacks. Assignments that not only maintain a student worker's interest, but train him for future responsibility as a police officer, are best. The use of these personnel in radio dispatching, report taking, traffic control, subpoena service, and non-contact jail duty is reported throughout the country. These assignments are interesting and informative to the student worker and are also beneficial in releasing regular police officers from these duties.

It is important to remember, however, that student workers are not trained police officers and therefore never should be armed or given dangerous assignments. They should always be closely supervised.

Campus Recruiting

Private sector employers and civilian and military agencies of the Federal Government customarily go to college and university campuses to recruit college graduates. Police agencies must also be willing to travel to campuses to establish personal contact with those they seek.

Many college students have a false conception of the function of the police in modern society. Students, like many other citizens, have little contact with the police other than negative traffic encounters. Therefore, the police role must be explained adequately and put into proper perspective. College students should be made aware that a police career can offer an opportunity to perform a worthwhile service for their fellow man. This is particularly true of the increasing number of students who are majoring in the humanities and social sciences and are not so committed to a particular career as those majoring in the hard sciences or applied arts.

Joseph Kimble, in *Police Selection*, pointed out that many college students are unaware of the varied, interesting, and challenging assignments

and career opportunities that exist within the police service; that many police agencies have starting salaries above what a college graduate can normally expect; and that a midlevel police manager frequently makes more than a college professor. The opportunity of advancement from patrolman to chief of police within an agency should be emphasized.

Young men and women with histories of academic achievement naturally are interested in a progressive career in which they can look forward to promotions based on ability rather than seniority. For this reason it is advantageous to use as college recruiters younger officers who are above the entry level because they share interests and experiences in common with college students and are more likely to project the desired image.

References

1. American Bar Association Project on Standards for Criminal Justice. *Standards Relating to the Urban Police Function*, tentative draft. March 1972.
2. Cohen, Bernard, and Jan M. Chaihen. *Police Background Characteristics and Performance: Summary*. New York: Rand Institute, May 1972.
3. Kimble, Joseph. "Recruitment," in Richard Blum (ed.), *Police Selection*. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1964.
4. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Population Characteristics, Educational Attainment*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, March 1971.

Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 13.2:

- 10.2(1)(a)(2)(a) Selection and Assignment of Reserve Police Officers.
- 13.1 General Police Recruiting.
- 13.3 Minority Recruiting.
- 13.4 State Mandated Minimum Standards for the Selection of Police Officers.
- 13.6(1)(2) Employment of Women.
- 15.1 Educational Standards for the Selection of Police Personnel.
- Recommendation 13.1 Job-Related Ability and Personality Inventory Tests for Police Applicants.

Standard 13.3

Minority Recruiting

Every police agency immediately should insure that it presents no artificial or arbitrary barriers—cultural or institutional—to discourage qualified individuals from seeking employment or from being employed as police officers.

1. Every police agency should engage in positive efforts to employ ethnic minority group members. When a substantial ethnic minority population resides within the jurisdiction, the police agency should take affirmative action to achieve a ratio of minority group employees in approximate proportion to the makeup of the population.

2. Every police agency seeking to employ members of an ethnic minority group should direct recruitment efforts toward attracting large numbers of minority applicants. In establishing selection standards for recruitment, special abilities such as the ability to speak a foreign language, strength and agility, or any other compensating factor should be taken into consideration in addition to height and weight requirements.

3. Every police agency seeking to employ qualified ethnic minority members should research, develop, and implement specialized minority recruitment methods. These methods should include:

- a. Assignment of minority police officers to the specialized recruitment efforts;
- b. Liaison with local minority community

leaders to emphasize police sincerity and encourage referral of minority applicants to the police agency;

c. Recruitment advertising and other material that depict minority group police personnel performing the police function;

d. Active cooperation of the minority media as well as the general media in minority recruitment efforts;

e. Emphasis on the community service aspect of police work; and

f. Regular personal contact with the minority applicant from initial application to final determination of employability.

4. Every police chief executive should insure that hiring, assignment, and promotion policies and practices do not discriminate against minority group members.

5. Every police agency should evaluate continually the effectiveness of specialized minority recruitment methods so that successful methods are emphasized and unsuccessful ones discarded.

Commentary

Increasing emphasis must be placed on recruiting qualified blacks as police officers in communities with black residents. In communities with

Mexican-American residents, there is a need to seek qualified Mexican-Americans. This standard, however, is not limited to any one ethnic minority group. Whenever there is a substantial ethnic minority population in any jurisdiction, no matter what the ethnic group may be, the police service can be improved by employing qualified members of that group. Every police agency should adhere to the principle that the police are the people and the people are the police. When qualified minority group members do not enter the police service by whatever procedure is in effect, the guidelines in this standard should be implemented for active recruitment of such persons.

The need for minority police officers has been stated repeatedly. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice pointed out that to police a minority community with only white police officers can be misinterpreted as an attempt to maintain an unpopular status quo rather than to maintain the civil peace. Clearly, the image of an army of occupation is one that the police must avoid. The Commission further stated that minority officers can break down prejudice and stereotypes in the minds of majority officers, and that minority officers are better able to police a minority community because of their familiarity with the culture. Other benefits mentioned are reduced resentment on the part of citizens and, in some cases, the officer's ability to speak a foreign language.

The 1968 National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders concluded that, in controlling civil disorders in Detroit, integrated Army troops performed better than less integrated National Guard troops. The Commission recommended increased recruitment of minority group police officers.

Proportionate Employment of Ethnic Minorities

Although the need to employ minorities as police officers may be obvious, their employment in many instances has not been appreciable despite the best intentions and diligent efforts of many police administrators. A survey of 28 police agencies conducted by the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders graphically illustrates the underrepresentation of minorities in the police service. The median figure for black sworn personnel was 6 percent; the median figure for the black population was 24 percent. In no case was the proportion of blacks in the police agency equal to the proportion in the population. A 1972 study of police recruitment and selection showed a similar disparity in minority representation within Massachusetts law enforcement agencies. (*A Study and Refinement of*

the Police Recruitment and Selection System, Commonwealth of Massachusetts, Bio Dynamics Inc., 1972).

Statistics from throughout the country indicate that this underrepresentation is due in part to the fact that a greater percentage of minority applicants fail to meet police selection standards. This is not surprising, since minorities are traditionally disadvantaged, both culturally and educationally.

But in view of the need for minority police officers to foster better community relations and increase police effectiveness, police administrators not only should recruit minorities, but also should insure that unwarranted cultural bias is eliminated from the selection process.

Any reluctance on the part of police administrators to employ minority police officers is being overcome by Federal courts, which have established a solid record of eliminating cultural bias in the selection process and demanding preferential minority employment to rectify the effects of past discrimination. In most cases, preferential recruiting and hiring is directed toward approximating the minority composition of the community within the employee ranks.

Court Cases

A model case in point is *Carter v. Gallagher*, 452 F.2d 315 (1971), which alleged discrimination in the hiring procedures of the Minneapolis Fire Department. The court found that certain selection requirements were in fact discriminatory and were not job-related. The Eighth Circuit Court of Appeals ordered the city to rectify the situation. The court held in part that the fire department must hire one minority group member for every three whites employed until 20 minority group members are hired. A similar decision requiring preferential hiring was recently handed down in Philadelphia.

In *Allen v. Mobile*, 331 F. Supp. 1134 (1971), a suit alleging discrimination in assignment and promotion policies was brought against Mobile, Ala. Discrimination against black officers was found in the manner in which personnel were assigned and promoted. The court ordered the city to consult with black leaders in developing recruitment programs, and to direct advertising and promotion toward the black community. All advertising was to state that the City of Mobile is an equal opportunity employer. This order was handed down even though employment discrimination was not an issue in the original suit.

It is far wiser for police administrators to seek out aggressively and employ qualified members of

minority groups than to await the dictates of a court. Police administrators should seize the initiative in minority hiring.

Several recruitment techniques and programs have been particularly effective in attracting minorities. Police agencies seeking to recruit minorities should consider techniques described below and should develop techniques appropriate for their own particular needs.

However, the employment of persons from all ethnic groups within the community should be a recruitment goal, not a personnel policy governing the hiring of police personnel. Primary consideration should be given to employing the best qualified candidates available, regardless of ethnic background. The ethnic makeup of a community should be viewed as a guide for recruitment policies and procedures, not as a basis for quota hiring. If recruitment procedures fail to attract minority candidates from whom qualified applicants can be selected, there may be a need for new recruitment techniques; selection procedures should remain the same, however.

Selecting Qualified Minority Applicants

Although the employment of minorities in jurisdictions with minority communities is essential, the employment of minority group police officers without regard to their qualifications weakens an agency. Standards for the selection of police officers should be applied across the board without regard to race or ethnic origin.

Such a policy, however, presents problems. Some minorities suffer cultural and educational disadvantages, and are disqualified at a greater rate. The unusually high disqualification rate may extend into other areas.

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice pointed out that seemingly innocuous standards, traditional in the selection of police officers, may bear little relation to the requirements of the position and yet tend to disqualify minority applicants. Overly stringent standards regarding physical health are examples. Often persons from disadvantaged minority groups have been unable to afford the same level of medical care as those from other segments of the population, and they suffer corresponding deficiencies.

Police agencies should analyze what police officers really do, and set standards accordingly. It is conceivable that many physical standards might well be downgraded slightly, as some agencies have done with vision and dental requirements. Perhaps higher standards of education will impose an additional adverse effect on minority recruitment. But the disqualification of candidates

should be done validly, not arbitrarily or capriciously.

In order to hire minority group members as police officers, police agencies must attract large numbers of minority applicants in anticipation of their unusually high attrition rate; additionally, they should apply compensating factors to expand the number of minorities that are employable. Compensating factors allow any applicant who does not meet one qualification, but excels in another, to be employed because the area of qualification outweighs the deficiency. A variety of compensating factors may be used.

In using compensating factors, the police agency must emphasize those elements of police work that are most important to it. O. W. Wilson, in *Police Planning*, suggests that one who excels in physical stature can be considered to have overcome an educational deficiency. In light of the modern police mission, however, education is far more important than physical size. A superior level of educational achievement should outweigh a physical deficiency.

Certain minimum qualifications—including moral character, mental ability, and psychological health—must be met directly rather than by compensation. Deficiencies in such requirements as height, weight, or vision may be compensated for by an unusual language skill, leadership experience, or education in excess of minimum requirements. Each agency must develop a policy on compensating factors tailored to its own purposes, but should insure that each candidate is hired only after it has been determined that he is qualified to be a police officer.

Special Recruitment Methods

In recruiting minority applicants, it is often necessary to overcome a distrust of the police. Minority recruiters can establish rapport with their audience and demonstrate that police agencies want and need minority personnel. The minority recruiters are more familiar with minority community attitudes; this facilitates communication. The use of minority recruiters has been successful across the country, particularly in Phoenix, Ariz.; Washington, D.C.; Kansas City, Mo.; New York, N.Y.; and Detroit, Mich.

Minority officers should not be assigned to recruitment duties arbitrarily. These officers should have the same training and qualifications as any other recruiter. Qualifications include articulateness, in-depth knowledge of the police profession and the individual agency, and a high degree of motivation.

The cooperation of minority community leaders and civic organizations is helpful in disseminating recruitment materials and providing opportunities

for recruiters to address groups of potential applicants. Community leaders themselves, if convinced of the sincerity of the police in recruiting minorities, may become active recruiters by referring applicants. The 1971 Rand Corporation report on minority recruiting in New York City recommended increasing the use of community leaders and civic organizations.

Depicting minority group police personnel in TV, billboards, and newspaper advertisements demonstrates that there is a role for minorities in police work. The Detroit Police Department has developed an effective series of newspaper, poster, and billboard advertisements.

Having identified a target population of one or more ethnic minorities, police must seek to attract them to the police service through communication. Washington, D.C., Detroit, New York, and other cities, have successfully used minority-oriented media. Overreliance on minority media can be unproductive, however. The Rand Institute study on minority recruiting in New York reported that the general media in the city were at least as productive in attracting minorities as minority media.

The Rand study found that the relatively high starting salaries and job security of many police agencies, while undoubtedly of some interest to all applicants, were not the primary interests of minority applicants. Rand discovered that minority applicants were motivated first by an "opportunity to maintain law and order;" second, by the "feeling that comes from helping people;" and third, by "fringe benefits and job security." Majority applicants were motivated by fringe benefits, job security, and pay, in that order.

Motivation

In any recruitment campaign, it is important to identify, then emphasize, what factors will motivate potential applicants.

Retaining minority applicants who display the basic qualifications for police work is just as important as attracting qualified minority applicants in the first place. The Rand Institute's study revealed that after the initial testing, most attrition of candidates was caused by a lack of motivation to follow through on the selection procedures during the lengthy processing. At the time of the Rand study, it took the New York Police Department up to 17 months to process each applicant. The Rand researchers did find that minority applicants who had voluntarily dropped out of the selection process responded positively to personal contact by the researchers. Rand recommended not only accelerating the selection process, but instituting personal con-

tacts between police department personnel officers and minority applicants in order to sustain the applicants' interest in a police career during the selection process.

Such a system should not be considered too burdensome in light of the potential results. A bi-weekly phone call or letter to the applicant apprising him of his status assures him of the police agency's sincere interest in employing him if he is found to be qualified. This procedure helps overcome minority apprehensions about their acceptance in law enforcement positions. These apprehensions contribute to the high dropout rate.

Discrimination

The number of minority applicants will not increase much if discrimination continues in the assignment and promotion of personnel within the agency. It is the total police image that will influence minority interest in police careers.

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice identified a history of racist personnel policies within a few certain police agencies. These policies limited black officers' authority to make arrests and restricted them to working only in minority neighborhoods. The policies also restrained black officers from working with whites or in specialist assignments. It is hoped that these policies have been abolished and will never be reinstituted.

Minority officers are not second-class police officers; they should be selected by the same basic standards as all other officers and should therefore compete on an equal basis for every assignment. They should be deployed in minority neighborhoods but not restricted to working there; they should be allowed to work with all other officers and not forbidden to work with other minority officers.

If minorities are hindered from advancing to supervision, management, and administration, they are less likely to respond to recruitment. A National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders survey in 1967 revealed marked racial disproportions in supervisory personnel: One of every 26 black police officers was a sergeant; the ratio for whites was one in 12. One of every 114 black officers was a lieutenant; the white ratio was one in 26. One in every 235 was a captain; the white ratio was one in 53.

As with employment qualifications, it may well be that minority officers are discriminated against by promotion standards that are not valid in the first place. Therefore, police administrators should identify the attributes of supervisors, managers, and administrators, and develop valid standards for the selection of personnel for promotion, in hopes of eliminating any bias.

It should be noted that the Equal Employment Opportunities Commission guidelines for hiring apply equally to the selection of personnel for special assignment and promotion.

Evaluation of Minority Recruitment

Seeking out and hiring the most qualified minority group members is a goal that should be reached through special minority recruitment programs, not through preferential or quota hiring. The specific hiring goal should be determined by comparing the minority makeup of the community with the minority composition of the police agency. Then an estimate should be made of the number of minority applicants necessary to achieve this goal within a reasonable period of time. Finally, specific recruitment techniques known to attract minority applicants should be applied. These techniques should be used in preference to general recruitment techniques, and emphasized or discarded on the basis of their proven effectiveness.

In 1971 the Detroit Police Department found that it had 13 percent minority personnel compared with a community population of 44 percent minority group members. It was determined that if the department continued its annual hiring ratio of 20 percent minorities, it would never approach an ethnic makeup reflecting that of the community. Over half of the police officers hired would have to be from minority groups to achieve an ethnic balance by 1980. The precise number of minority applicants that would be needed each month to reach the ultimate goal was established by simple calculation based on the disqualification rate of minority applicants. Recruitment efforts known to attract minority applicants were then emphasized in preference to general recruitment techniques.

If these special techniques are successful in attracting minority applicants, Detroit will continue to use them; if not, they will be replaced by other techniques. The relative success of recruitment techniques can only be determined by monitoring the program.

It should be noted that certain recruitment

techniques are being emphasized in Detroit, no one is being hired on a preferential basis. The best qualified applicants are hired first, regardless of their ethnic background. If an insufficient number of minority persons apply, Detroit will engage in different or more intense recruitment efforts only, and not in preferential hiring.

References

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2. National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders. *Report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, March 1968.
3. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.
4. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. *Task Force Report: The Police*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.
5. Wilson, O. W. *Police Planning*. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1972.
6. *Allen v. Mobile*, 331 F. Supp. 1134 (1971).
7. *Carter v. Gallagher*, 452 F. 2d 315 (1971).

Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 13.3:

- 1.7(1) News Media Relations.
- 10.1(9) Assignment of Civilian Police Personnel.
- 10.2(1a)(2a) Selection and Assignment of Reserve Police Officers.
- 13.1 General Police Recruiting.
- 13.4 State Mandated Minimum Standards for the Selection of Police Officers.
- 13.6(1)(2) Employment of Women.
- Recommendation 13.1 Job-Related Ability and Personality Inventory Tests for Police Applicants.

Standard 13.4

State Mandated Minimum Standards for the Selection of Police Officers

Every State, by 1975, should enact legislation establishing a State commission empowered to develop and enforce State minimum mandatory standards for the selection of police officers. This legislation should provide that the commission represent local government.

1. The majority of this commission should be composed of representatives of local law enforcement agencies to insure responsiveness to local needs. Police practitioners, other members of the criminal justice system, and local government officials should be selected as commission members for a fixed term.

2. This commission should insure that standards are met by inspecting for local compliance, and certifying as competent to exercise police authority, only those police officers who have met the mandated standards. The commission should establish minimum standards for:

a. Age, with consideration given to lowering the present minimum age of 21 and to establishing a maximum recruitment age that reflects the physical demands placed upon a police officer and the retirement liability of police agencies;

b. Physical health, strength, stature, and ability, with consideration given to the physical demands of police work;

c. Character, with consideration given to the responsibilities of police officers and the need

for public trust and confidence in police personnel;

d. Personality profile, with consideration given to the need for personnel who are psychologically healthy and capable of enduring emotional stress; and

e. Education, with consideration given to the mental skills and knowledge necessary to perform the police function properly.

3. The commission should establish minimum standards that incorporate compensating factors such as education, language skills, or experience in excess of that required if such factors can overcome minor deficiencies in physical requirements such as age, height, or weight.

4. Every State should provide sufficient funds to enable this commission:

a. To employ a full-time executive director and a staff large enough to carry out the basic duties of the commission; and

b. To meet periodically.

Commentary

The call for State commissions empowered to set selection standards for the police service is not new. The concept dates back at least as far as a

1952 American Bar Association Model Police Council Act. In 1959, New York and California accepted the concept and established State commissions, both of which have proved successful. To date, a total of 35 States have passed the necessary legislation and established commissions empowered to set police selection and training standards. Most are modeled after the 1966 International Association of Chiefs of Police Model Police Standards Council Act and establish mandatory standards.

The benefits of such a commission are obvious in the upgrading of the personnel inducted into the police service and in assuring the public of the professional character of their police.

Commission Membership

Although such commissions operate on the State level, they should not usurp local control of local law enforcement but should assist local enforcement agencies in their progress toward professionalism. The makeup of commissions should, and in most cases does, assure the commission's responsiveness to the needs of local law enforcement. Some States require by legislation that the chief State prosecutorial officer be on the commission, but generally membership consists of local representatives including elected officials, law enforcement practitioners, and other members of the criminal justice system. The emphasis on local law enforcement representation is clearly justifiable. Who knows the problems and needs of local law enforcement better than local police executives themselves?

Certification and Minimum Standards

The International Association of Chiefs of Police survey (*The State of the Art 1970*) on police selection and training reveals that 25 of the 33 States that have such commissions mandate local compliance with the State standards. For effectiveness alone, mandatory compliance with State standards is appropriate. States should empower the commissions to inspect for compliance with the standards and certify only the police officers who meet them. Failure of an individual to meet State standards should deny him employment as a police officer.

State commissions should address a wide range of standards and selection procedures to insure the selection of qualified police personnel. Each applicant must be measured in all dimensions, including mental ability, social skills, character, psychological health, as well as physical health, fitness, and stature. Prior to setting standards, commissions should define precisely the jobs to be filled and then establish standards that will aid in selecting

those who will do the job best. Careful analysis may reveal areas in which a slight departure from accepted police standards would be proper.

For example, it is debatable whether or not the minimum age for becoming a police officer should be 21 years. Several departments have lowered the age requirement to 19 or 20 and have not suffered negative results. In view of the educational standards called for elsewhere in this report, however, it may be impractical to lower the requirement below the traditional age of 21.

Realistic physical standards are sorely needed in many police agencies today. The unduly burdensome requirement of 20/20 vision has been successfully abandoned by a number of police agencies for more realistic standards, such as 20/70 with an acceptable level of correction through eyeglasses. Physical strength standards cannot be abandoned: cops still have to slug it out in back alleys, chase fleet-footed burglars, and physically disarm dangerous persons.

Compensating Factors

Minimum standards, set to insure selection of qualified police personnel, should never be allowed to disqualify arbitrarily those who are suited for police work. Compensating factors help to diminish this possibility by allowing applicants who are slightly deficient in one qualification, but excel in another qualification, to be employed. Such qualifications as moral character, mental ability, and psychological health, must be satisfied directly rather than by compensation. However, it is reasonable to compensate for minor deficiencies in height, weight, or other physical conditions with special language skills, leadership experience, or education.

At least one major metropolitan police agency has met with considerable success in the use of a selection policy that provides for the consideration of compensating factors. Since July 1971, this agency has employed nearly 100 highly qualified individuals who otherwise would have failed the selection process because of minor deficiencies in physical standards. These police candidates overcame their deficiencies in a variety of ways—including having earned a bachelors degree in a related field, prior police experience in an agency with comparable standards, experience in the armed forces as a commissioned officer, evidence of exceptional physical development combined with a background of achievement in contact sports or military skills, and through special skills such as bilingual ability.

It should be noted, however, that this agency recognizes the physical elements of police work and allows only such compensating factors to apply to

individuals whose general qualifications are within predetermined parameters to which no exceptions can be made.

Sufficient Funding

The effectiveness of a State commission governing the selection of police officers will depend upon proper representation of membership, proper staffing and funding, and the reasonableness of its standards. To accomplish its goals, the commission must have a competent staff to perform research, make recommendations, and inspect for compliance. A full-time staff is necessary for the proper execution of commission responsibilities.

Funding to support the staff and compensate commission members is also important. Commissions may be funded directly from the State general fund or through a penalty assessment on criminal fines, as in California. The source of funding, however, is not as critical as the level of financial support.

References

1. Kassoff, Norman C. "A Model Police Stand-

ards Council Act," *Police Chief*, August 1967.
2. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. *Task Force Report: The Police*. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

3. Thomas, John J. "The State of the Art," *Police Chief*, August 1970.

Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 13.4:

- 9.2 Selection for Specialized Assignment.
- 10.2(1a)(2a) Selection and Assignment of Reserve Police Officers.
- 13.2(2)(b) College Recruiting.
- 13.5 The Selection Process.
- 17.3 Personnel Evaluation for Promotion and Advancement.
- 20.1(1) Entry-Level Physical and Psychological Examinations.
- Recommendation 13.1 Job-Related Ability and Personality Inventory Tests for Police Applicants.

Standard 13.5

The Selection Process

Every police agency immediately should employ a formal process for the selection of qualified police applicants. This process should include a written test of mental ability or aptitude, an oral interview, a physical examination, a psychological examination, and an in-depth background investigation.

1. Every police agency should measure applicants' mental ability through the use of job-related ability or aptitude tests rather than general aptitude tests. These job-related ability tests should meet the requirements of Federal Equal Employment Opportunities Commission guidelines.

2. Every police agency, by 1975, should retain the services of a qualified psychiatrist or psychologist to conduct psychological testing of police applicants in order to screen out those who have mental disorders or are emotionally unfit for police work.

3. Every police agency should use the results of psychological testing as a positive predictor of later performance within the police service only when scientific research establishes the validity and reliability of such a predictor.

4. Every police agency should conduct an in-depth background investigation of every police applicant before employment. The policies and procedures governing these investigations at least should insure that:

a. To the extent practicable, investigations are based upon personal interviews with all persons who have valuable knowledge of the applicant;

b. The polygraph examination is used where appropriate, but is not allowed to substitute for a field investigation;

c. The rejection of police applicants is job related; and

d. Police applicants are not disqualified on the basis of arrest or conviction records alone, without consideration of circumstances and disposition.

5. Every police agency should insure that no more than 8 weeks pass from the time of initial application to final determination of employability; that applicants are promptly notified of the results of each major step in the selection process; and that the selection process is cost effective.

6. Every police agency should direct, into other temporary employment within the agency, qualified police applicants who because of a lack of vacancies cannot be employed immediately in the position for which they have applied.

Commentary

Certain traditional selection methods may affect adversely the induction of some applicants, while

ineffectively identifying qualified candidates. Examples may be found in the discussion of minority recruitment (13.3). While the mental demands of police work are unquestionably severe, the measurement of mental suitability frequently disqualifies a disproportionate number of minorities, while its accuracy in predicting job performance is highly questionable.

IQ and other aptitude tests are among such questionable mental measurements. Although police agencies use IQ scores as an arbitrary cutoff point for police applicants (O. W. Wilson recommends a minimum IQ of 112), the relationship between IQ and job performance is not constant. A 1968 Chicago study, *Psychological Assessment of Patrolman Qualifications in Relation to Field Performance*, concluded that at least an average level of intelligence is needed to perform the police function but, beyond that, measurements are questionable.

Under the Extension Act of 1972 (Public Law 92-261) the authority of the Federal Equal Employment Opportunity Commission was extended to cover the employment practices of State and local government agencies. For all practical purposes, Federal courts have adopted the mental ability testing guidelines of the EEOC in the adjudication of civil rights cases alleging employment discrimination.

The EEOC guidelines prohibit the use of any test that adversely affects the hiring of classes of persons protected by the Civil Rights Act unless the test has been validated and evidences a high degree of utility, and suitable alternative tests are unavailable (Federal Register, *EEOC Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures*, 1970). Validation requires proof that the test will predict job performance or will detect important elements of work behavior connected to the job for which the candidates are being evaluated. Unfortunately, most written tests of mental ability, particularly IQ tests, have not been validated.

Police agencies that use unvalidated tests of mental ability or aptitude are liable to court action brought by the U.S. Department of Justice. A finding of discriminatory testing may lead to the court's ordering preferential hiring. Police administrators should retain the management of their own hiring practices by insuring that the selection procedures are legal. Rather than abandoning all formal tests of mental ability, an agency should validate current selection devices or replace them, if they cannot be validated, with some more appropriate technique.

Psychological Screening

Police officers are subject to great emotional stress, and they are placed in positions of trust. For these reasons, they should be very carefully screened to preclude the employment of those who are emotionally unstable, brutal, or who suffer any form of emotional illness. A growing number of police agencies have turned to psychological screening to eliminate those who are emotionally or otherwise unfit for the police service.

Charles Saunders, in *Upgrading the American Police*, reported in 1970 that approximately 25 percent of police agencies used such techniques. A 1971 survey by the International Association of Chiefs of Police revealed that 46 percent of city agencies, 40 percent of county agencies, and 26 percent of State agencies polled used such methods. A dramatic decline in disciplinary hearings within the Pittsburgh Police Department since 1966 is attributed to the implementation of psychological screening in the selection of police officers.

The current usefulness of psychological techniques, however, is limited to the elimination of those who are grossly unfit for the police service. Current psychological techniques lack the validity necessary to support any refined prediction of the level of future performance or success within the police organization. Deborah Ann Kent and Dr. Terry Eisenberg, point out in *Police Chief*, February 1972, that the validity and reliability of job performance predictions based upon psychological techniques have always been tied unduly to performance in training rather than street performance as a police officer.

Background or character investigations often result in the discovery of unacceptable behavior patterns and personality traits that would deter an applicant from performing satisfactorily as a police officer. A 1972 New York City Rand Institute study revealed that background investigations were a valid tool for prediction performance. (*Police Background Characteristics and Performance: Summary*).

The background investigation, however, is only one of several techniques used to gain insight into an applicant's suitability. Dr. James Rankin, a noted police psychiatric consultant, states that there is a high degree of correlation and mutual support between background investigations and the psychological screening of police applicants. Both are directed toward an overall evaluation of past behavior and existing personality traits, as well as the potential for unacceptable behavior.

Unfavorable information acquired through an investigation can be significant or insignificant, qualifying or disqualifying, based on an applicant's level

of emotional health as revealed through psychological testing and interviews. Similarly, background investigations serve as a tool to evaluate questionable attitudes discovered through psychological examinations.

Psychological techniques are, however, independent of background investigations in a great number of cases. Severe emotional disabilities or mental illness may be discovered through psychological screening even though it is not evident from an examination of past behavior. This is particularly true of younger applicants who have not been subjected to pressure and emotional stress significant enough to manifest symptoms of emotional disorders in their regular conduct.

There is some evidence that the validity of predicting job performance may be established soon. A 1968 Chicago study (*Psychological Assessment of Patrolman Qualifications in Relation to Field Performance*) took the initial steps in that direction. But it emphasized that results of the study applied only to that agency and could not be applied elsewhere without extensive research within the individual agency.

Police administrators and others within the criminal justice system suggest that there are not enough good psychiatrists and psychologists to go around. A number of behavioral scientists also share this view. Some courts and correctional institutions have difficulty obtaining competent psychological assistance. There may not be enough competent, qualified people to perform this screening for the police.

The success of psychological testing of police applicants depends heavily on the behavioral scientist who conducts the tests. He should possess a doctoral degree in a recognized behavioral science, earned from an accredited institution; have wide professional and practical experience; and understand the role of the police officer. A behavioral scientist who does not agree with the role of the police officer—as defined by the governing body and the police chief executive—should have no part in the selection process.

The police chief executive should select the behavioral scientist who conducts the psychological testing. His selection should be based on demonstrated qualifications and performance.

Background Investigation

The need for public trust, respect, and confidence in the police service, and the responsibilities entrusted to police officers, preclude employment of the dishonest, the immature, the lazy, the immoral, or the unreliable.

A background investigation permits the sys-

tematic collection and evaluation of data concerning an applicant's prior life including information concerning his educational history, work record, physical and emotional health, character, and integrity. Jewell Ross, in *Police Selection*, states that the purpose of a background or character investigation is threefold: to learn how a candidate has behaved under a wide variety of circumstances (and from this to base a prediction concerning future performance as a policeman), to verify all statements made by a candidate in his application, and to prevent the police agency from hiring a person who will prove unqualified. This avoids the damage that both the department and the individual suffer when he must be separated from the service.

The utility of background investigations is verified by a 1972 Rand Institute study of the New York Police Department, *Police Background Characteristics and Performance*, which concludes in part:

The data showed that the strongest predictors of later performance are derivable from quantitative measures reflecting the subject's primary behavior and experiences as observed over a period of time. These include employment and military disciplinary actions, repeated appearances in civil court, education . . . The police department's background investigators are successful at weighing the information available to them at the time of application and arriving at an overall rating having predictive validity.

At least one study points out that the background investigation is not discriminatory. This study conducted by Rand Corporation (*Minority Recruiting in the New York City Police Department*) states:

During the personal character investigation by the police department, there are no significant differences among blacks, whites, and Puerto Ricans in the proportion appointed or rejected.

The use of background investigations as a vital part of the selection process has gained widespread acceptance within the police service. The Houston Police Department relies on the background investigation, rather than any testing device, as a means of determining stability and suitability for employment.

An adequate background investigation should be quite comprehensive, covering at least family data, education, employment, medical and military history, residences, organizations and affiliations, references, credit record, and police record. Such data should be collected and evaluated prior to hiring a police candidate; this avoids the disruption of activities and the embarrassment that result from hiring someone who subsequently is found to have been unqualified for the job.

As far as practicable, information concerning a

police applicant should be gathered through personal interviews with persons who have knowledge of his activities. These persons should include his family, teachers, friends, neighbors, employers, supervisors, coworkers, and landlords.

Correspondence by mail is an inferior technique for gathering background data. Background investigators should not only strive to verify information already known about the candidate, but should seek to discover new information through investigating leads developed during interviews or examination of records. Such leads are not readily developed through written correspondence or third person contacts.

Thorough investigation may involve considerable traveling, particularly in the case of out-of-town applicants. Investigators' travels should be limited—perhaps to a 500-mile radius or within the State. Investigation of candidates who have lived outside that area may be conducted by other police agencies through reciprocal arrangements. Agencies in Dallas, Tex.; Houston, Tex.; Miami, Fla.; Honolulu, Hawaii; and Los Angeles, Calif., have agreed to reciprocal investigations on a regular basis.

The use of the polygraph as an investigative tool should be encouraged but should not replace background investigations. The polygraph may discover hidden facts concerning an individual's current or past life, but cannot provide such qualitative information as an individual's reputation as a worker, or his ability to interact satisfactorily with others.

Although the background investigation is vital and should carry as much, if not more, weight than any other phase of the selection process, information developed from this investigation should be weighed carefully. Grounds for the disqualification of a candidate should be related to the job for which he is being considered.

Disqualification based solely on arrest records, without information on the disposition of the arrests, has already been tested in a suit brought before the Illinois Fair Employment Practices Commission (*Oats v. City of Cairo*, Charge NOL95-46, October 29, 1971). A black police applicant alleged discrimination on the ground that he had been rejected because of arrests although the facts and the disposition of the arrests were not disqualifying and the agency would have hired the applicant if they had been ascertained.

Sequence of Selection Procedures

The 1971 Rand Institute New York study on minority recruitment revealed that nearly 60 percent of those applicants who successfully passed the preliminary written screening simply failed to appear for the subsequent medical or background

investigations. Rand attributed part of the attrition to discouragement caused when applicants were not notified of test results for more than 2 months; the entire selection process took 17 months. At a time of fierce competition for the best human resources, such attrition is detrimental to the police service.

The answer to this problem may well lie in processing candidates speedily and promptly apprising them of their status before they become committed to another career. Quicker processing is practicable, as shown by a time lapse from application to appointment of 3-6 weeks in Chicago, Ill., 5-6 weeks in Philadelphia, Pa., and 2-6 weeks in St. Louis, Mo.

The selection of police personnel is an expensive process that uses much manpower to hire a few qualified candidates. Police agencies should attempt to conserve resources by processing candidates in a cost-effective sequence. Some screening procedures cost considerably less than others, yet are likelier to eliminate a large percentage of the unfit. Savings are effected when written and oral tests are given prior to the more expensive steps such as background investigations, which are less likely to disqualify a candidate.

Interim Employment

Once a police agency has identified a qualified police applicant, it should make every effort to assure his eventual entry into that agency. When budgets are strained and the agency has its full personnel complement, it is not always possible to offer immediate employment to qualified applicants. Therefore, there is a danger of losing the applicant to another police agency or to another career with prospects for immediate employment. One possible solution is to employ such personnel in a position other than police officer. With emphasis on the greater use of civilian personnel to perform tasks formerly assigned to police officers, it may be possible to hire the applicant temporarily in such a capacity. Police student worker programs offer another alternative. One large agency has gone so far as to employ such persons as auto mechanics and garage attendants until a vacancy in the agency is available.

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Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 13.5:

- 9.2 Selection for Specialized Assignment.
- 10.2(1a)(2a) Selection and Assignment of Reserve Police Officers.
- 13.2(2) College Recruiting.
- 13.4 State Mandated Minimum Standards for the Selection of Police Officers.
- 13.6(1)(2) Employment of Women.
- 17.3 Personnel Evaluation for Promotion and Advancement.
- 20.1 Entry-Level Physical and Psychological Examinations.
- Recommendation 13.1 Job-Related Ability and Personality Inventory Tests for Police Applicants.
- Recommendation 13.2 Development and Validation of Selection Scoring System.

Standard 13.6

Employment of Women

Every police agency should immediately insure that there exists no agency policy that discourages qualified women from seeking employment as sworn or civilian personnel or prevents them from realizing their full employment potential. Every police agency should:

1. Institute selection procedures to facilitate the employment of women; no agency, however, should alter selection standards solely to employ female personnel;
2. Insure that recruitment, selection, training, and salary policies neither favor nor discriminate against women;
3. Provide career paths for women allowing each individual to attain a position classification commensurate with her particular degree of experience, skill, and ability; and
4. Immediately abolish all separate organizational entities composed solely of policewomen except those which are identified by function or objective, such as a female jail facility within a multi-unit police organization.

Commentary

The role of women in the police service has been based largely upon traditional and often outmoded ideas. Some misconceptions concerning the female's ability to perform certain "masculine" tasks

have been dispelled as a result of changing social attitudes. The police service should keep abreast of social patterns and legal requirements by reassessing the function of women in the police field. Police administrators must determine whether expansion of the woman's role will further the cause of efficient police service.

As early as 1845, the public recognized that women perform certain police functions better than men. Two matrons were employed at The Tombs prison in New York City to process female prisoners. During the next 4 decades, the practice of using prison matrons became widespread. Just prior to the turn of the century, a movement to employ women as regular police officers gained support among several social action groups. This movement culminated in the hiring of the first regularly rated policewoman by the Los Angeles Police Department in 1910.

By the end of World War I, more than 220 cities employed policewomen. One of the major reasons for this relatively rapid acceptance of female peace officers was the change in the public's view of the police function. The use of women coincided with the newly accepted tenets of citizen protection and crime prevention, instead of exclusive concentration on the enforcement of laws and the detection of criminal behavior.

In 1922, the International Association of Chiefs of Police acknowledged that women were essential to police work and offered standards for the qualification, selection, and training of policewomen. The IACP outlined duties that were essentially preventive in nature and concentrated on the areas of juvenile delinquency, female criminality, family crises, runaways, missing persons, and sex offenses. Although the IACP stressed the use of women as a preventive force and cautioned against their making arrests, the recognition given to the woman's role provided momentum to women's drive for a permanent niche in the police service.

Traditional Role

Despite initial progress, policewomen have tended to be frozen into the traditional role bestowed upon their predecessors many years ago. The 6,000 policewomen in this country comprise approximately 2 percent of the sworn police population. Yet, a nationwide survey conducted by the International City Management Association in 1970 revealed that they constitute from 14.5 percent (in cities of 100,000-250,000) to 36.3 percent (in cities over one million) of the sworn personnel in juvenile units. Most of the others work as matrons, sex crime investigators, and clerical personnel.

Many agencies have attempted, some successfully, to exclude women altogether by quota systems, discriminatory hiring, and promotional policies. One department maintained a fixed quota for policewomen positions for 15 years and that quota was increased only recently. Additionally, in this department female officers are not eligible to take the examination for corporal, the first promotional level available for patrolmen. Only within the last 5 years have many agencies allowed women to take supervisory examinations. In many agencies substantial numbers of policewomen are assigned to clerical duties.

For the most part, women have not attempted to correct such situations. A notable exception was a policewoman who won a suit against the New York City Police Commission in 1963 that enabled her to take a promotional examination for sergeant. Despite her victory, other women have been reluctant to seek judicial resolutions except in isolated instances.

However, it is time for police agencies to anticipate such challenges to the status quo and to initiate measures to prevent judicial mandates which may seriously hamper effectiveness. The Supreme Court in *Griggs v. Duke Power Company*, 401 U.S. 424 (1970) held employment selection criteria processes must be nondiscriminating, specifically

job-related, and validated. On March 21, 1972, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission was empowered to enforce Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as it applies to discrimination against women. The dominant principle of that law is that all jobs must be open to both men and women unless it can be proved that sex "is a bonafide occupational qualification necessary to the normal operation of that particular business or enterprise."

On March 22, 1972, the Senate approved the Equal Rights Amendment to the Constitution which prohibits denial of equal rights on the basis of sex. If ratified by three-fourths of the States, this amendment will become law. Although the ultimate impact of such a law remains unclear, its significance for police agencies would probably be determined by the interim progress each agency made in promoting employment opportunities for women.

Selection Procedures

Probably the most critical determination for any police agency to make in providing for the employment of women is the establishment of its selection criteria. Some agencies have required that women have more education than male applicants. Prior to 1969, Washington, D.C.'s Metropolitan Police Department required that women applicants possess a college degree, while men needed only a high school diploma. Before 1965, the Miami, Fla., Police Department had a similar selection procedure. The rationale was: "If we have so few positions, why not take the best?" However, legal decisions now prohibit this practice.

The Washington, D.C., Metropolitan Police Department now requires that men and women have the same qualifications with the exception that women are allowed a lower minimum weight. In effect, this means that women who are 5 feet 7 inches tall and possess all other qualifications can compete with men for police vacancies. This process has been carried a step further in St. Petersburg, Fla., which has eliminated the classification of policewoman in its public safety agency. As of July 11, 1972, anyone, including women, who meets the requirements and successfully proceeds through the selection process is eligible for appointment to the position of "policeman."

Because most police work requires physical strength and agility, agencies must not establish criteria that will result in the hiring of police officers unable to perform police duties. Agency hiring standards should not be altered to employ women at the cost of reduced physical effectiveness of individual police officers. Nor can police agencies continue to maintain different hiring qualifications

for men and women without discriminating against one group or the other.

Therefore, each agency must establish criteria that will facilitate the employment of both men and women without restricting its capability to carry out its function. Recently the Federal Government has moved in this direction. In December 1971, the Secret Service administered the oath of office to five women, the first in the 106-year history of the agency. On July 17, 1972, FBI Acting Director L. Patrick Gray III swore in the Nation's first female FBI agents. These historic occurrences indicate that the time is ripe for a reevaluation of the employment standards for women throughout the police service.

Abolition of Discriminatory Policies

Although restructuring selection criteria will facilitate the entrance of qualified women into the police service, other inequities must also be removed for an agency to derive maximum benefit from its policewomen. Very few agencies actively recruit women. They seek to perpetuate quotas which have been established for years.

The performance of woman recruits in some agencies indicates that a relaxation of such quota systems may be in order. While the average IQ scores of male recruits dropped from 107 to 93 on the New York Police Department between 1962 and 1969, the 1966 class of female recruits recorded the highest average score, 111, during that period. In a recent coeducational Miami, Fla., recruit class, a woman was given the most outstanding recruit award.

Washington, D.C.'s Metropolitan Police Department is now hiring 100 additional female officers in an effort to evaluate their effectiveness in patrol duties.

Training

Some agencies have neglected training of female personnel. Many conduct separate training classes for female personnel which are geared toward the investigative rather than the line functions of police work. Female recruits in Washington, D.C., have complained that instructors in certain courses have advised women to skip field-related classes because they would never have occasion to use the information. Women are also excused from the qualifying examination in physical fitness and passed automatically. These exemptions tend to perpetuate the image of "weakness" of female officers, to promote an overprotective attitude on the part of male officers, and are, in fact, as discriminatory against male officers as they are against female officers.

The Dallas, Tex., Police Department now includes 1 month of patrol observation with a training officer as part of its training course for female officers, a practice initiated by Chief Frank Dyson in 1971. At its inception, this program almost had disastrous results because the male training officers were not informed in advance of their obligations, the public was not prepared to accept the women, and some staff personnel were unaware of the new program. Consequently, there was an initial lack of uniformity in the patrol experience gained by the women, and the agency was criticized by some. This example illustrates the need for careful planning and adequate publicity in a venture of this nature.

Compensation

A recent development in Detroit, Mich., suggests the need to compensate policewomen specifically for the duties they perform when their promotional opportunities are limited. Five Detroit policewomen filed a complaint with the Michigan Civil Rights Commission alleging that their salaries were not commensurate with those of their male counterparts. These women claimed that their duties are those of detective sergeants who receive \$14,470 a year, yet they are being paid patrolmen's salaries of \$12,750.

Representative Career Paths

If women are to assume a role in the mainstream of police service, it is imperative that career development opportunities be made available to them. In most agencies, the limited scope of a police-woman's duties has precluded her elevation above the basic position classification. Notable exceptions exist, for the most part, where an agency's organization includes a separate women's division or bureau. In such cases, women are elevated within this organizational branch as supervisors or administrators of female personnel only.

In most agencies, promotions are predicated upon an officer's experience, knowledge, and ability as determined through an examination process. Regardless of abilities, women have been unable or unwilling to compete successfully in this process. Their duties have not been conducive to the attainment of comprehensive knowledge or experience in police work, especially in basic line functions. Since they cannot normally qualify for those positions which require such a background, some agencies have systematically excluded them from the promotional processes. This picture is gradually changing in some agencies. The Dallas, Tex., and

Miami, Fla., Police Departments have opened promotional examinations to women.

Probably the most innovative promotional policy has been instituted in Washington, D.C., where the Metropolitan Police Department maintains only one promotional list, which includes male and female officers. When a vacancy occurs, the next eligible person is elevated, regardless of sex.

One of the major barriers to women seeking careers as police officers is the practice of placing policewomen in specialized assignments upon completion of their training period. As a result, they do not gain broad-based experience in all phases of police work, especially in the area of patrol. Such specialization has become a double-edged sword. Many experienced policewomen have cultivated a certain pride in their status and are reluctant to relinquish it. Instead of earning their positions, they have been awarded them on the basis of sex. Conversely, younger female officers view assignments to patrol and other line functions as challenging experiences. These officers view the expansion of the woman's role as a necessity for advancement within the service.

After completing academy training, a Miami, Fla., policewoman is assigned to a field training officer in patrol, or to an experienced accident investigator. After demonstrating her abilities in patrol, she may be assigned as a regular partner to a male officer. Women are not assigned to one-person patrol units, but with adequate training, are utilized as single unit accident investigators. It is reported that the program has been initially effective, although it is still too soon to evaluate its overall impact. There is optimism about broadening the policewoman's role in Miami; the agency believes that policewomen can be valuable in patrol service functions related to family crisis situations, dependent children, emergency medical services, and social service referrals.

In 1968, Indianapolis, Ind., assigned two women to a patrol car without benefit of special training or preparation. These women learned the intricacies of patrol as they worked and in effect trained themselves. Initially assigned only routine calls, they eventually gained the experience and knowledge available only in the field. The women have proved their worth by their performance in the field and have gradually gained acceptance within the ranks. In February 1970, two more policewomen were assigned to patrol; presently, eight women perform uniformed patrol functions. The program appears to have withstood the test of time and has gained approval of male officers, the public, and the agency staff.

Expansion of Women's Duties

There is, of course, much resistance to expansion of the woman's role from practitioners at every level within the police service. Many believe that police work requires a degree of strength and physical ability greater than that possessed by most women.

The Los Angeles, Calif. Police Chief recognizes that women can perform some jobs better than men, and suggests that few women have the strength to perform many of the difficult tasks that are required of patrol officers. The same argument may apply to professional football players. Therefore, he argues, the lumping of both sexes into the patrolman classification, while retaining separate physical standards for women, will limit deployment flexibility since they cannot be used interchangeably.

The personnel director of a police department in Illinois points out that "if we allow the shorter and lighter women to become patrol officers and they do well, then there is no reason why we shouldn't allow shorter and lighter men." For that reason, some contend, physical standards should not be altered to bring women into the service. But if standards are not altered, the only women entering the police service will be recruited from the larger women, who represent 3.5 percent of the eligible female population. Statistics show that of U.S. women between the ages of 18 and 34, over 96 percent are shorter than 5 feet 8 inches, and 98 percent weigh less than 140 pounds.

Some women within the police service also express varying degrees of skepticism relative to a woman's ability to handle patrol assignments. One woman, assigned to uniformed patrol in Washington, D.C., was injured in an altercation involving police officers and an unruly crowd of 200 people on her fourth night on patrol. She regards her experience as a predictable part of her job, although she admits that "most of the guys are quite apprehensive about women being on the street, but ever since the fight, they don't worry about me at all." Others are not so philosophical. Another Washington policewoman tendered her resignation after her second night in the field, and another expressed her concern that policemen will get hurt because of their concern for the safety of female partners.

The Los Angeles, Calif., Sheriff's Department, which employs more female deputies than any other agency in the country, launched a program in 1972 using women in patrol, investigation, and traffic enforcement. However, the sheriff emphasized the experimental nature of the plan: "I'm somewhat skeptical about the performance of women in all patrol functions but I'm willing to try . . ."

Another problem that concerns police administrators is the ability of women to supervise male officers. The commissioner of the Philadelphia Police Department feels that all female supervisors should be assigned to the Juvenile Aid Division where they will supervise only policewomen. Some supervisors express the feeling that specific women supervisors are too lenient with their men, do not have the respect of patrolmen, and fail to get voluntary compliance from subordinates.

Some police officials claim deployment of women limits their command flexibility. Social, domestic, and disciplinary problems are anticipated as a result of "coeducational cop cars" by those who oppose the practice.

Organizational Segregation of Women

One reason for the limited scope of a police-woman's duties in many agencies is the existence of a separate women's bureau or division. The major argument against separate women's bureaus is the resulting inefficiency. A policewoman must be loaned from her division for a normally routine task, such as monitoring an interview, searching a female, or calming a distraught child.

If the assignment is of greater magnitude or involves a tactical operation, she is rarely included in the planning stages of the assignment. This can turn out to be very dangerous. The policewoman, unaware of the complete picture, is sometimes left with little or no back-up and must take unnecessary risks. On the other hand, inadequate planning may result in shoddy investigations or foiled arrests due to overconcern for the female decoy's safety.

The trend toward deemphasizing women's bureaus has also been due to limitations in job opportunities available to women under the system. In 1966, the President's Commission on Crime in the District of Columbia stated:

The Woman's Bureau performs duties not ordinarily interpreted as part of the police function. It engages in investigations—which are social welfare responsibilities and should be conducted by representatives of the welfare agencies—Policewomen possess special education, training, and abilities which can be utilized to a greater extent in achieving police objectives.

In 1967, the woman's bureau in Washington was disbanded and the number of policewomen has since tripled. The Metropolitan Police Department is now able to recruit women with diversified, rather than specific, job interests.

Proponents of this organizational structure, many of whom are women, feel that such a system allows women to concentrate their unique abilities on the

service and protection aspects of police work, especially in relation to women and children. Sergeant Mavis Wessen of the Women's Protective Division in Portland, Ore., claims that policemen do not consider protective work police work and seem unwilling to participate. Others advocate exclusive female partnerships and female supervision of policewomen.

The separate women's bureau is usually supported by men because it prevents competition for assignments between men and women and assures policemen of male supervision. It further frees the male officer from duties he considers to be more social work than police work. Female advocates of the system usually are assured of keeping their specialized positions and do not feel as if they are merely being "tolerated" by male partners. These women have resigned themselves to the limited promotional opportunities inherent in this system.

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Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 13.6:

- 10.1 Assignment of Civilian Police Personnel.
- 13.1 General Police Recruiting.
- 13.2 College Recruiting.
- 13.3 Minority Recruiting.
- 13.4 State Mandated Minimum Standards for the Selection of Police Officers.
- 13.5 The Selection Process.
- 17.4(2) Administration of Promotions and Advancements.
- Recommendation 13.1 Job-Related Ability and Personality Inventory Tests for Police Applicants.
- Recommendation 13.2 Development and Validation of a Selection Scoring System.

Courts and Prosecutor Personnel

Standard 9.3

Local and Regional Trial Court Administrators

Each trial court with five or more judges (and where justified by caseload, courts with fewer judges) should have a full-time local trial court administrator. Trial courts with caseloads too small to justify a full-time trial court administrator should combine into administrative regions and have a regional court administrator. Local trial court administrators and regional court administrators should be appointed by the State court administrator.

The functions of local and regional court administrators should include the following:

1. Implementation of policies set by the State court administrator;
2. Assistance to the State court administrator in setting statewide policies;
3. Preparation and submission of the budget for the court or courts with which he is concerned;
4. Recruiting, hiring, training, evaluating, and monitoring personnel of the court or courts with which he is concerned;
5. Management of space, equipment, and facilities of the court or courts with which he is concerned;
6. Dissemination of information concerning the court or courts with which he is concerned;
7. Procurement of supplies and services for the court or courts with which he is concerned;

8. Custody and disbursement of funds for the court or courts with which he is concerned;

9. Preparation of reports concerning the court or courts with which he is concerned;

10. Juror management;

11. Study and improvement of caseload, time standards, and calendaring; and

12. Research and development of effective methods of court functioning, especially the mechanization and computerization of court operations.

The local and regional court administrators should discharge their functions within the guidelines set by the State court administrator.

Commentary

A court administrator should be selected on the basis of special qualifications. The complex and unique environment of the courts requires the skills of a person who understands courts and their role in the general work of public administration. The court administrator will not be effective as an expeditor and coordinator of the diverse elements of the criminal justice system if he cannot understand and accept his role. The survey conducted by a Courts Task Force consultant suggests that greater efforts might be made to recruit professional admin-

istrators specifically trained for court administration.

The role of the court administrator is a difficult one. The judges are the ultimate managers of the system. The administrator can accomplish his function only if the judges support his activity and respect him as a specialized professional whose skills in his area exceed their own.

The survey conducted by the Commission indicated that only 11 percent of the trial court administrators contacted were selected by the judges of the trial court or courts they served or by a delegate or committee of those judges. The Commission believes, however, that efficient statewide coordination of court administration requires that the local and regional trial court administrators be selected by, and subject to the supervision of, the State court administrator. The standard therefore recommends that he have this authority.

The court administrator does not deal with many persons as a supervisor. His authority to order things done is limited. The ability to persuade persons to cooperate is the basic skill required. His job is to establish a broad sphere of influence over the many agencies that have an impact on the effectiveness of the courts.

Many specialized tasks must be performed if a trial court is to run smoothly. No one person can master all of the skills necessary. Court reporters, courtroom clerks, legal secretaries, probation officers, police officers, and lawyers are all necessary to the operation of a trial court. The ability to understand and recognize these unique and often rare skills is necessary to operate effectively within the courts.

Selection of the court administrator should be based on his:

1. Knowledge of the justice system;
2. Attitude toward public service;
3. Understanding of modern management technology;
4. Demonstrated human relations skills; and
5. Appreciation of the role of the court administrator.

The duties of a trial court administrator will be discussed separately.

Recruitment, Selection, Training, and Removal of Nonjudicial Personnel

The court administrator should be responsible for the appointment, removal, selection, and training of all nonjudicial personnel employed by the court, except the personal staffs of judges. Court personnel should not be part of civil service systems or similar programs covering all State employees. Rather, the

State court system should have its own personnel program under the general direction of the State court administrator and, within statewide guidelines, administered by local court administrators. The administrator should affirmatively seek to recruit personnel from all segments of the population served by the court.

In the event the budget cannot support a separate personnel staff responsive to the courts, personnel technicians from the executive branch should be detailed to duty in the courts to perform the personnel duties under the direction and supervision of the court administrator, until additional funding permits the addition of those personnel to the court payroll.

Duties Relating to Financial Operations

The court administrator should have responsibility for fiscal management of the trial court. The duties relating to fiscal management should be delegated to a fiscal officer for the management of the financial matters of the court system. This fiscal officer should not be a decisionmaker, but rather a staff assistant to the court administrator to provide professional guidance in all matters relating to budgeting and financial operations. The fiscal officer should brief the court administrator and presiding judge periodically on the status of appropriations and the management of the budget.

The fiscal officer should be required to provide the professional fiscal management services on a planned basis to avoid crisis management of fiscal affairs. This could be accomplished through the preparation of an annual budget plan and a quarterly budget execution review, which would permit the administrator or presiding judge to determine if the goals of the plan have been or will be met and where funds could be reprogrammed or reallocated to meet the needs of the court yet remain within the legal requirements governing appropriate funds.

Relationships with Judges and Presiding Judges

The court administrator should have a close professional relationship with the presiding judge, the board of judges, and the individual judges of the trial court. This relationship will assist the court administrator in the daily management of the business affairs of the court. The Commission's survey suggests that virtually all present court administrators have been able to develop such relationships.

The court administrator should attend all meetings of the board of judges and serve as its secretary in order to be aware of all administrative policy matters being considered by the judges. The mem-

bership of the court administrator on the board of judges, in an ex officio capacity, will encourage a positive working relationship with all judges of the court in matters relating to the management of non-judicial affairs.

Information Activities

The court administrator should be the public information officer for the trial court he serves. The duties of this position may be delegated to another individual professionally trained in the information field, but the ultimate responsibility should rest with the court administrator.

Because of his relationship with the judges, the court administrator will be aware of all policy decisions relating to the operations of the court and, therefore, is in an ideal position to respond to members of the press, the bar, and the public. This firsthand knowledge of policy and procedures could be transmitted to an appointed officer for prompt response to the press, bar, and public on all requests for information.

Space and Facilities Management

The court administrator should have authority to manage the space and facilities utilized for the operations of the court. This duty could be delegated to subordinate nonjudicial employees under the direction of the court administrator. The individual selected to manage space and facilities should have either professional training or experience in space and facilities management.

It is essential that the management of space and facilities for court operations be controlled by the court administrator. The administrator, with his knowledge of the internal operations of the court, can best determine the most appropriate utilization of space for the proper functioning of the court. In addition, the administrator may budget for lease or construction of a new facility to support court operation because he is also the statutory fiscal officer charged with the financial management of the court system.

Court Reporters

Court reporters should be under the supervision of the court administrator. He should make assignments on a scheduled basis to support the needs of the court. At no time should court reporters be assigned exclusively to one judge. An administrative center or division for the day-to-day management of court-reporter operations and personnel manage-

ment of individual court reporters should be established. This would insure that the requirements of each judge are met and that transcripts required either by the court, bar, or the public are furnished on a timely basis. The court administrator should be alert to the use of new technology for the production of transcripts, such as multitrack sound recorders, video tape, or computerized transcription. (See Standard 11.1.) The administrator should consider the use of court-paid transcription typists for the preparation of transcripts from audio tapes required for records of the court and in cases where the audio tape would not be an acceptable record for appeal. He also should prescribe rules, practices, and procedures pertaining to fees for transcripts.

The use of audio tapes to record the proceedings in high-volume courts is a cost-saving device particularly useful in traffic cases where there is little likelihood that an appeal will be taken. The audio-recording device, supported by transcription typists, also can be used to provide transcripts when required to the court or the bar. Transcription typists, when not preparing transcripts from audio tapes, can be used to prepare official transcripts from dictated notes of official court reports; this would speed the appellate process.

Published rules, procedures, and schedule of fees relating to transcripts are essential. The bar, the public, and the court reporters always should have access to current rules governing court reporters and fees. The court administrator should be responsible for providing these rules.

Management of Nonjudicial Personnel

The court administrator should have responsibility for all personnel management activities of the court. He should develop and publish, with the approval of the presiding judge, the rules and regulations, classification standards, and rules for handling employee grievances necessary for the smooth operation and management of nonjudicial personnel. Existing personnel rules or policy of the executive branch should not be used; rules responsive to court needs should be developed.

The establishment of a uniform personnel policy for all nonjudicial employees is essential. The policy should include:

1. Standardized recruitment policies and procedures;
2. Establishment of an incentive award program;
3. Standardized grievance procedure;
4. Establishment of an Equal Employment Opportunity program;
5. Policy and procedures for the administration of discipline;

6. Establishment of in-service training programs, and specialized training programs conducted by agencies of the executive branch and local colleges and universities; and

7. Standardization of classification procedures.

The court administrator should insure that orientation programs for new employees are established and conducted. Provisions should be made for support of orientation and in-service training programs through the use of adequate training aids and other materials. In addition, court administrators should develop manpower utilization and work measurement procedures to provide a logical basis for the establishment of nonjudicial positions.

References

1. Chandler, Henry P.; Edward B. McConnell; and Leland L. Tolman (as reported by Eleanor R. Batson). "Administering Courts—Federal State and Local," *Journal of the American Judicature Society*, Vol. 42 (June 1958).

2. Chandler, Henry P. "Direction of the Administration of Trial Courts," in *Federal Rules Decisions*, Vol. 21 (1957).

3. Chandler, Henry P. "The Winds of Change in Federal Judicial Administration," *Journal of the American Judicature Society*, Vol. 46 (April 1963).

4. Friesen, Ernest; Edward C. Gallas; and Neta M. Gallas. *Managing the Courts*. Indianapolis: Bobbs Merrill Company, 1971.

5. Tolman, Leland L. "Court Administration: Housekeeping for the Judiciary," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Vol. 328 (March 1960).

Related Standards

The following standard may be applicable in implementing Standard 9.3:

9.2 Presiding Judge of the Trial Court

Assistant prosecutors should, for the same reasons that prosecutors should, devote their full efforts to the duties of their office. In order to implement this standard, the salary levels in many offices will have to be raised. If highly qualified and competent personnel are to be attracted to careers in the administration of criminal justice, assistant prosecutors should be compensated at a level comparable to that received by their counterparts in private practice. Within the budget allocation, the prosecutor should be free to establish salary schedules based on his evaluation of the quality and experience of his staff.

The budget should provide for adequate annual increases sufficient to make the position of assistant prosecutor attractive as a full-time career opportunity. As a minimum requirement, the annual salary increases for assistant prosecutors should be similar to those granted by local law firms of comparable size for at least the first 5 years of service. This is identical to the recommendation made in Chapter 13, concerning salaries for defender attorneys. (See Standard 13.11.) Retention of assistant prosecutors for at least 5 years would represent a substantial increase in the average length of service.

In determining comparable levels of pay, the prosecutor should develop, or encourage State and local bar associations to develop, surveys of the salaries of attorney associates in private firms falling within the jurisdiction of the prosecutor's office. Median or average salaries may be an acceptable benchmark.

Job security, such as that which would be provided by making the position of assistant prosecutor a civil service position or its equivalent, might facilitate the hiring of qualified young lawyers. However, since the prosecutor needs freedom of action in personnel matters to build a qualified staff, and in light of the professional relationships of a prosecutor's office, the Commission concluded that assistant prosecutors should not have the same protection as civil service employees. Indeed, the prosecutor, as a public official, is responsible for the performance of his staff, and he must be given authority over personnel commensurate with that responsibility. The Commission arrived at the same conclusion regarding defender attorneys. (See Standard 13.10.)

It is difficult to establish precise workload standards for prosecutors' offices. This standard does not attempt to set the number of cases each assistant should be assigned in 1 year, but only recommends

that assistants not be assigned more cases than they can prepare properly. Proper preparation includes interviewing all prosecution witnesses prior to trial, conducting supplemental investigations when necessary, and conducting the necessary legal research.

This standard does recommend that two assistant prosecutors be assigned to an office's trial division for each judge who spends his entire judicial time disposing of felony cases. In many situations, this would mean that two attorneys should be assigned to each courtroom in the trial court's criminal division. Where there are no such divisions, the standard would require that an estimate be made of judicial time devoted to felony disposition and of the time each judge spends performing trial tasks. From this it will be possible to calculate the number of equivalents to judges spending full time on the trial of felony cases. The trial division, in this case, should have two attorneys for each equivalent to a full-time judge. Experience of members of the Commission and its Courts Task Force indicates that this is a minimum number necessary for efficient courtroom performance. This assignment policy will permit one assistant to prepare his cases while the other is trying his. If possible, these assistants should be given 1 day prior to trial to prepare their cases.

The Commission could not assemble sufficient data to enable it to form firm conclusions regarding other aspects of the staffing of prosecutors' offices.

References

1. Clinton, John, and Samuel Hester. "A Survey of Student Prosecutor Programs in the United States," *Prosecutor*, Vol. 7 (January-February 1971).
2. Koblenz, Michael E. "The Student Prosecutor Program in Prince George's County, Maryland," *Prosecutor*, Vol. 7 (July-August 1971).

Related Standards

The following standards may be applicable in implementing Standard 12.2:

7.3 Judicial Compensation

13.10 Selection and Retention of Attorney Staff Members

13.11 Salaries for Defender Attorneys

Standard 12.3

Supporting Staff and Facilities

The office of the prosecutor should have a supporting staff comparable to that of similar-size private law firms. Prosecutors whose offices serve metropolitan jurisdictions should appoint an office manager with the responsibility for program planning and budget management, procurement of equipment and supplies, and selection and supervision of nonlegal personnel. Paraprofessionals should be utilized for law-related tasks that do not require prosecutorial experience and training. There should be adequate secretarial help for all staff attorneys. Special efforts should be made to recruit members of the supporting staff from all segments of the community served by the office.

The office of the prosecutor should have physical facilities comparable to those of similar-size private law firms. There should be at least one conference room and one lounge for staff attorneys, and a public waiting area separate from the offices of the staff.

The prosecutor and his staff should have immediate access to a library sufficiently extensive to fulfill the research needs of the office. Staff attorneys should be supplied with personal copies of books, such as the State criminal code, needed for their day-to-day duties.

The basic library available to a prosecutor's office should include the following: the annotated laws

of the State, the State code of criminal procedure, the municipal code, the United States code annotated, the State appellate reports, the U.S. Supreme Court reports, Federal courts of appeals and district court reports, citators covering all reports and statutes in the library, digests for State and Federal cases, a legal reference work digesting State law, a legal reference work digesting law in general, a form book of approved jury charges, legal treatises on evidence and criminal law, criminal law and U.S. Supreme Court case reporters published weekly, looseleaf services related to criminal law, and, if available, an index to the State appellate brief bank.

Commentary

Public agencies that fund prosecutors' offices too often fail to provide the minimum funding necessary for adequate supporting staffs. This practice requires attorneys to devote an unnecessarily large portion of their time to clerical and other nonlegal tasks. This results in a highly inefficient operation. Given the crucial role of the prosecutor's office in the administration of the criminal justice system, such inefficiency cannot be tolerated.

An assistant prosecutor is a valuable resource. He should not be required to do tasks that could be ac-

complished by a paraprofessional at a lower cost to the public. This standard therefore recommends the employment of paraprofessionals who can be assigned to work under the supervision and direction of an attorney on tasks such as calendaring of cases, witness control, administration of special programs (such as diversion or screening), gathering and analyzing statistics, systems analysis and planning, drafting standard legal pleadings, and assisting lawyers in legal research.

Competent secretaries are essential to the operation of successful law offices, and some private firms employ three or more secretaries for every attorney. Realities of public funding do not permit such a secretarial staff for a prosecutor's office. But one secretary for every two attorneys is likely to be the minimum secretarial staff essential to efficient functioning of the office. Secretaries are essential to prosecutors in preparing legal documents, memoranda, briefs and miscellaneous correspondence, a function particularly important at the present time due to the increasing complexity of criminal cases.

Prosecutors' offices that serve metropolitan jurisdictions have large support staffs requiring daily supervision. The prosecutors' offices in Los Angeles, Calif., and Brooklyn, N.Y., for example, have clerical staffs numbering 391 and 155 respectively. (*Report on Proceedings, Recommendations, and Statistics of the NDAA Metropolitan Prosecutors' Conference* 44 (1971).) Moreover, large prosecutors' offices have supply and budget needs requiring constant attention. It is a misallocation of resources to require the prosecutor or an assistant prosecutor to handle personally the daily problems of office management.

This standard accepts the recommendation made by the NDAA Metropolitan Prosecutors Conference and requires the prosecutor to appoint an office manager. "The person performing in this capacity would have the primary responsibility in the area of budget, equipment, hiring and firing of non-attorney personnel, and in general providing the wherewithal for the successful operation of a large law office. It would be his function to relieve the district attorney of the time-consuming and tedious task of personally handling the day-to-day problems of office management." (*Report on Proceedings, Recommendations and Statistics of the NDAA Metropolitan Prosecutors' Conference* 26 (1971).)

The prosecutor is a representative of the community he serves. In order to maintain his credibility and good working relations among all groups within the community, the prosecutor should make every effort to insure that positions on his staff are open to all ethnic and racial groups in his community.

Facilities

Since the prosecutor is one of the most important officials in the criminal justice system, the office of the prosecutor should have physical facilities in keeping with the dignity and responsibility of the position. Prosecutors and their staffs must have privacy to prepare their cases and to discuss the problems of their offices without outside interruption. Moreover, prosecutors and their assistants must deal with highly personal and confidential problems brought to them by the police and citizens. Frank discussions are possible only in privacy. The office atmosphere should be one where the police and the public are assured that assistant prosecutors are giving them their undivided attention. Furthermore, if members of the public observe a physical environment that is not consistent with professionalism and the dignity of the office of prosecutor, then respect for law enforcement is bound to be lessened.

The size of prosecutors' offices should be ample; 180 square feet has been suggested as the minimum size necessary for an attorney to function efficiently. (American Bar Association Advisory Committee on Economics of Law Practice, *The Lawyers Handbook* 8 (1962). As in any other law firm, the prosecutor's office should have at least one conference room, a lounge for the professional staff, and a separate public waiting room.

Too many prosecutors' offices lack the necessary funding to utilize modern office equipment. Since the bulk of the prosecutors' legal work requires the processing of forms, briefs, and memoranda, modern office equipment is necessary to process this paper flow efficiently. Prosecutors should not have to draft complaints in longhand; dictation equipment should be available to expedite such processes. The installation of magnetic card or tape typewriters and copying machines may increase dramatically the production of the clerical staff. Messenger service time and expense could be significantly reduced with the installation of telecopiers. Retrieval of records can be facilitated by the installation of properly designed microfilm and microfiche retrieval systems. Calculators and adding machines should be utilized to develop statistical systems for prosecutors' offices.

Finally, where feasible, automated data processing systems should be provided to support many of the prosecutor's functions. One example of such a system is the Prosecutor's Management Information System (PROMIS), which has been installed in the United States Attorney's Office for the District of Columbia. (See *System Overview and Report Formats for PROMIS (Prosecutor's Management Information System) A Computer Based System for the United States Attorney's Office for the District of*

Columbia Government Office of Crime Analysis (1971.)

Ready access to a complete library is essential to the effective operation of all prosecutors' offices, including those offices that have no appellate court practice. All prosecutors' offices are required to prepare legal memoranda for trial litigation, to determine whether certain acts constitute crimes under the State's penal code, and to provide legal opinions to the public and the police. These functions require legal research.

The library is of obvious importance to the prosecutor's effective functioning, and the standard recommends a library similar to that which should be at the disposal of any trial lawyer practicing in the criminal law field. The list is the same as that recommended for a defender office in Standard 13.14.

In some States and units of local government, there is a move towards centralized library services. In such jurisdictions, the prosecutor should determine if these services could be utilized to supply and maintain the necessary library materials.

One person on the staff should be assigned the responsibility of maintaining the library. This responsibility can be assigned to a secretary or to a paraprofessional who should be directly responsible to a senior attorney for the performance of these duties. A staff attorney, however, should be responsible for determining whether new research materials are needed.

Certain source materials, such as the State penal code, often are needed by assistant prosecutors in

the courtroom. This standard requires that an annotated copy of the State criminal code be supplied to each assistant prosecutor.

When automated legal research is available in the jurisdiction, a remote terminal, consisting of a viewing screen and printout equipment, should be located in the prosecutors' offices for ready use by the staff. (See Standard 11.2.)

References

1. American Bar Association Advisory Committee on Economics of Law Practice. *The Lawyer's Handbook*. St. Paul: West Publishing Company, 1962.
2. *Report on Proceedings, Recommendations, and Statistics of the NDAA Metropolitan Prosecutors' Conference*. Chicago: National District Attorneys Association, 1971.
3. *Systems Overview and Report Formats for PROMIS. A Computer Based System for the United States Attorney's Office for the District of Columbia Government Office of Crime Analysis*. Unpublished, 1971.

Related Standards

The following standard may be applicable in implementing Standard 12.3:

- 13.14 Supporting Personnel and Facilities

Standard 12.5

Education of Professional Personnel

Education programs should be utilized to assure that prosecutors and their assistants have the highest possible professional competence. All newly appointed or elected prosecutors should attend prosecutors' training courses prior to taking office, and in-house training programs for new assistant prosecutors should be available in all metropolitan prosecution offices. All prosecutors and assistants should attend a formal prosecutors' training course each year, in addition to the regular in-house training.

Commentary

The traditional assumption that any licensed attorney is capable of handling any type of case is no longer valid, as indicated by increasing specialization within the legal profession. While performance of the prosecution function requires the same high degree of skill and knowledge as other specialized areas of law, "the legal training of a prosecutor is generally limited to his legal education and whatever courtroom experience he has had. While this may meet the need for the courtroom and trial aspects of the job, it does not necessarily prepare the man for his administrative and law enforcement functions." (President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Ad-

ministration of Justice, *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society* 148 (1967).) This standard recommends that the need for specialized training be met by introductory training sessions for new assistant prosecutors, continuing educational programs within local offices, and formal educational programs of wider scope than purely locally based programs.

Newly elected or appointed prosecutors should be required to attend a formal prosecutors' training course. Training courses for prosecutors have been developed by the National District Attorneys Association, the Practising Law Institute, the Northwestern University Law School, and the National College of District Attorneys. New prosecutors need training in the techniques of office management, court administration, and the administration of criminal justice.

New assistant prosecutors, who are rarely prepared by law school experience to undertake the responsibilities of their position, also should be given a basic orientation course by their own office before beginning their duties. This program should familiarize the new assistant with office structure, procedures and policies, the local court system, and the operation of the police agencies. It should last approximately 1 week. Responsibility for developing and implementing the orientation program should be assigned to an experienced assistant prosecutor.

In-service Training

This standard also requires prosecutors to establish a regular in-service training program. The program should include seminars on such subjects as the law of search and seizure, confessions, substantive criminal law, exercise of prosecutorial discretion, and trial strategy. An effort should be made to impart to prosecuting attorneys a deeper understanding of the criminal justice system and the needs it is designed to serve.

The office seminars are not intended to supplant the attendance by assistants at formal training programs outside of the office, but are to complement such programs as those mentioned above. This standard recommends that all prosecutors and their assistants enroll in formal training courses each year.

Some of the tasks recommended in this standard could be performed appropriately by the State-level entity recommended in Standard 12.4. The yearly training courses, for example, might well be offered by the State-level entity itself. Other functions must or should be performed by local offices, although the State-level agency could provide assistance in developing and maintaining such programs. The in-house training programs, for example, could involve local meetings using material supplied by the State-level agency.

Related Standards

The following standard may be applicable in implementing Standard 12.5:

13.16 Training and Education of Defenders

Standard 12.6

Filing Procedures and Statistical Systems

The prosecutor's office should have a file control system capable of locating any case file in not more than 30 minutes after demand, and a statistical system, either automated or manual, sufficient to permit the prosecutor to evaluate and monitor the performance of his office.

Commentary

A prosecutor's office is a complex operation necessitating sound management practices. The importance of a well designed file-control system needs no documentation. The case file is the only record the prosecutor has for the litigation of criminal cases. The misplacing of files can result in the continuance or outright dismissal of serious criminal charges because the prosecutor is not prepared. Thus, prosecutors and their staffs must take special precautions to preserve the accuracy, completeness, and accessibility of all case files.

This standard requires all prosecutors to establish file control systems with the capability of locating any case file within 30 minutes of demand. This capability can be attained by establishing a central limited-access file room with accountability among professional and clerical personnel for file entries, and the utilization of cross-indexing and locator cards. A

senior clerical staff member should be assigned responsibility over the file control operation, but the prosecutor himself must actively support and enforce the file control policies of his office.

A records retention and disposal plan should be an important feature of records management systems for prosecutors' offices. Unneeded files, which occupy valuable space, should be retired to a record-storage center. Horizontal files and microfilm can be utilized for the retention of old case files and to conserve space.

Court- or police-based statistical systems do not necessarily meet the needs of prosecutors. A well-designed statistical system could help prosecutors achieve improvements in the following areas:

Resource Allocation—assignment of scarce manpower in the prosecutor's office to criminal cases in a manner that will lead to maximum effectiveness of prosecution based on the importance of the cases and their urgency for trial;

Operational Processing—automatic notification of police officers, lay witnesses, expert witnesses, defendants, and defense attorneys of the date, time, and place of all required court appearances, and the automatic generation of lists of cases scheduled for special hearing . . . ;

Management Control—monitoring of administrative and scheduling problems in the orderly and timely prosecution of criminal cases;

Research and Analysis—the means to identify trends in criminal activity and to assess the effectiveness of prose-

cution policies and the means to perform studies of special issues such as plea bargaining; and

Interagency Coordination—automatic generation of reports to the police department, the court, the bail agency, the chemist, and the corrections department on the status and disposition of cases to assist in scheduling and coordinating actions relating to the court system. (Hamilton, *Modern Management for the Prosecutor*, 7 *Prosecutor* 437 (1971).)

Since the prosecutor is a vital link in any criminal justice information system, his statistical system not only should satisfy his operational and planning requirements, but also should be capable of integration with other criminal justice information systems.

Factors to be considered by the prosecutor in evaluating and monitoring the performance of his staff might include the number of cases disposed of per part per day, the number of cases disposed of per assistant district attorney, the number of calen-

dared cases disposed of, the number of appearances per case and the duration of the cases, the reasons for adjournments, the number of cases requiring multiple calendar calls, and the reasons for multiple calendar calls.

References

1. Hamilton, William A. "Modern Management for the Prosecutor," *Prosecutor*, Vol. 7 (November-December 1971).

Related Standards

The following standard may be applicable in implementing Standard 12.6:

- 9.4 Caseflow Management