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AN EXAMINATION OF THE SELECTION AND TRAINING OF POLICE COMMISSIONERS AND PATROL OFFICER RECRUITS OF THE SWEDISH NATIONAL POLICE FORCE

By

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ABSTRACT

AN EXAMINATION OF THE SELECTION AND TRAINING OF POLICE COMMISSIONERS AND PATROL OFFICER RECRUITS OF THE SWEDISH NATIONAL POLICE FORCE

By

Thomas H. Ackerman

This paper examines strategies employed in the selection and training of police commissioners and patrol recruits in Sweden, which differ substantially from those commonly exercised in the United States. In addition, arguments are presented which address whether the Swedish system offers possible solutions to widely perceived deficiencies in police personnel selection and training strategies implemented in the United States. In Sweden, only practicing attorneys are eligible to hold police commissioner positions, and prior police experience is not required. Those selected complete a 32-month program which includes classroom and practical training. Swedish patrol recruits receive over 5,000 hours of basic training over a 33-month period, with considerable emphasis on the social role of policing. While the Swedish model may not be appropriate for implementation in the United States, some facets are worthy of consideration.

DEDICATION

In memory of my friend and mentor

PAUL S. EMBERT, JR.

whose dedication to law enforcement training
and public service I strive to emulate.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Selection and Training of Police Recruits in the United States

A review of the literature suggests that police agencies in the United States have habitually established and implemented police recruit selection and training standards based on unrealistic interpretations of the police mission. Many studies have shown that police officers spend the vast majority of their time on human service and problem-solving tasks, and very little on actual law enforcement. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967), the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (1968), and the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence (1969) all pointed out that the vast majority of calls for service are unrelated to law enforcement. Many criminal justice scholars have observed that the primary mission of the police is to maintain order and provide needed government and social services (Klockars, 1985; Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux, 1990).

Despite these realities, police agencies frequently portray an inaccurate and unrealistic depiction of police work

and police departments in their attempts to attract qualified candidates to police work. If "successful," such efforts often limit the pool of applicants to those who behold an unrealistic perception of the police role, and are likely to become disenchanted and frustrated with police work (Roberg and Kuykendall, 1990). Instead, an accurate assessment of policing dictates that agencies should actively pursue candidates who possess exceptional communication skills and a sincere interest in community problem-solving (Radelet, 1986; Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux, 1990).

Basic recruit training programs have also been widely criticized as having little relevance to the realities of police work, as basic recruit curricula have failed to adequately train new police officers in methods for dealing with the specific problems they are expected to handle (Goldstein, 1990). In the United States, police recruit training curricula devote nearly 90 percent of training hours to law enforcement competency, and little attention to tasks related to the so-called "social role" of policing (Germann, 1969; Goldstein, 1990; Meadows, 1987).

Many criminal justice scholars have pointed out that courses in sociology, psychology, human relations, and communications better prepare police officers to perform the delicate tasks of policing (Trojanowicz and Dixon, 1974); allow them to perform more effectively, while increasing their personal satisfaction and reducing tension in public encounters (National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice

Standards and Goals, 1973); and are better able to handle emotionally disturbed persons safely, with less probability of injury to themselves and to others (Janus, et al., 1979).

The selection criteria for entry level police officers in Sweden requires a record of high academic achievement in the subjects of Swedish and English language, civics, sociology, psychology, and human-relations coursework completed in high school. The Swedish police recruit training program is designed to prepare police recruits through a curriculum which places emphasis on the performance of actual job tasks, such as counseling and conflict resolution, by devoting particular attention to the study of human behavior and interpersonal communication concepts.

This thesis will examine the selection and training of police recruits in Sweden, with particular emphasis on preparation for the social role of policing, and whether similar policies might be appropriate for implementation in the United States.

Selection and Training of Police Chiefs in the United States

In the United States, most police departments are organized in a bottom-up hierarchy that requires all new entrants to start at the lowest rank and move in a step-by-step fashion up the organizational ladder. Potential leadership qualities are rarely considered in the selection of new recruits, and the bottom-up hierarchy often places

officers in leadership positions who have demonstrated above average skills and abilities as operating police officers - not managers (Carter, Sapp, and Stephens, 1989).

Finally, once appointed to management positions, a substantial percentage of police executives receive no meaningful management training (Stahl and Staufenberger, 1974). Such policies frequently leave police executives ill-prepared to handle the complexities of police administration (Holden, 1986).

The selection and training of police commissioners in Sweden differs significantly from the U.S. profile. Aspiring police commissioner applicants must be law school graduates, and prior law enforcement experience is not required. Once selected, all candidates complete a 32-month training program which includes classroom instruction and practical experience.

This thesis examines the question of whether effective training may allow aspirants lacking any experience in law enforcement to function effectively as police chiefs, and whether such a policy is appropriate for implementation in the United States.

Organization of the Study

This study is organized in ten chapters, as follows:

Chapter I, INTRODUCTION: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM, provides an overview of the problems associated with the selection and training of police chiefs and patrol recruits in

the United States; a brief description of police selection and training strategies utilized in Sweden; the need for the study; and the organization for the study.

Chapter II, REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE, contains a review of criticisms delineated by the Presidential Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967); studies which have examined the nature of policing and the role of police officers in American Society; the disparity that exists between the police role and recruit training curricula; and deficiencies that exist in police command officer selection, promotion and training strategies in the United States.

Chapter III, RESEARCH METHODOLOGY, examines the research design used in conducting this study, as well as a description of methods employed during the execution of field research in Sweden.

Chapter IV, BACKGROUND ON SWEDEN AND THE POLICE, provides a general introduction to the geography and population of Sweden, the police organization, the National Police Board, and the Police College.

Chapter V, SELECTION OF POLICE RECRUITS IN SWEDEN, contains a summary of basic qualification standards, educational requirements, physical requirements, and the application process.

Chapter VI, TRAINING OF POLICE RECRUITS IN SWEDEN, provides an detailed overview of the Police Recruit Training Program curriculum, including classroom instruction, practical experience, theme exercises, problem-solving scenarios,

assignment, and in-service training.

Chapter VII, SELECTION OF POLICE COMMISSIONERS IN SWEDEN, provides a general overview of police commissioner selection criteria, applicants, and appointees.

Chapter VIII, TRAINING OF POLICE COMMISSIONERS IN SWEDEN, examines the Police Commissioner Training Program curriculum, including classroom instruction, practical experience, assignment, and in-service training.

Chapter IX, SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS, contains a synopsis of major findings of the study, and commentary on the nature of conclusions drawn.

Chapter X, IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH, provides recommendations concerning the direction of future research which may provide additional insight into the issues explored in this study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Selection and Training of Police Recruits in the United States

The purpose of this section is not to provide an exhaustive review of police recruit selection and training strategies employed in the United States, but rather to examine: (1) The call for reform outlined by the Presidential Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice in 1967; (2) Studies which have examined the nature of policing and the role of police officers in American society; and, (3) The disparity that exists between the police role and recruit training curricula.

The Call for Reform

Many critics have argued that few meaningful changes have been implemented since the Presidential Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice issued a report, entitled The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society (1967). This comprehensive study examined the evolution of policing in the United States, including techniques for police officer selection, training, promotion and management. This historic

document characterized police agencies as failing to adequately respond to the needs and concerns of the communities and citizens whom they serve, and called for reform of selection and training approaches. While the report credited police agencies for their apparent attempt over the previous 30 years to upgrade the processes for selection and training of police personnel, it criticized the widespread existence of a number of policies and standards which created artificial barriers to employment. Arbitrary standards such as height requirements, education, and credit history were examples of "common sense" selection criteria that did not necessarily have a direct relationship to being a "good" police officer. Rather, such standards excluded large segments of society who, given effective training and supervision, might otherwise have gone on to have successful careers.

Defining the Police Role

Today, nearly 30 years after the release of The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society (1967), the debate continues over the validity of current selection and training methods. While many law enforcement agencies have attempted to gear selection criteria to identify those who will perform well in the police "role" (Benner, 1989), law enforcement appears unable to reach a consensus in defining exactly what the police role is in society. Benner summarized the problem,

as follows:

> The effort to develop "valid" selection procedures is foundering in a quagmire of technical psychometric complexities. These complexities are exacerbated by a more fundamental problem. That is the lack of consensus over what constitutes a "good" police officer. Without this consensus, technical "validity" is irrelevant. The situation is analogous to building something before deciding exactly what "something" is supposed to do. In terms of "building" better police officers, the problem is that it is difficult to obtain consensus on what it (the police officer) should and should not do or should and should not be (1989: 74).

In an attempt to define the role of police officers, many contemporary studies have examined the nature of calls for service to police agencies. As a result, a profile has repeatedly emerged which has characterized the primary police role as one of social work, human service, or peace keeping, as opposed to law enforcement (Banton, 1964; Bittner, 1971; Cumming and Cumming, 1965; Lab, 1984; Meadows, 1987; Misner, 1967; Reiss, 1971; Wilson, 1968). Misner (1967) found that 75 percent of tasks performed by police officers are unrelated to crime control or law enforcement. Lab (1984) studied calls for service to the Charlotte Police Department, and determined that over 80 percent were related to order maintenance or human service. Analysis of calls police for service to the Syracuse Police Department indicated that 68 percent of radio calls were concerned with order maintenance and community service, 22 percent involved information gathering and report writing, and only about 10 percent were related to actual law

enforcement tasks (Wilson, 1968). An earlier study, the Wickersham Commission Report on Police (National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, 1931), declared that "The policeman is no longer the suppressor of crime, but the social worker of the community." Goldstein argued that police officers spend the majority of their time on activities which revolve around the social role of police work, and commented:

> The studies report the large number of hours devoted to handling accidents and illness, injured animals, intoxicated persons, dealing with family disturbances, fights among teenage gangs, noisy gatherings and taking reports. Tremendous significance has been attached to these accounts of police activity because they so directly challenge the stereotype of the police function firmly established in the minds of both the police and the public as consisting primarily of preventing crime and apprehending criminals (1977: 25).

Recruit Training Curricula: Conflict with the Police Role

Police recruit training programs have been the subject of criticism for placing too great an emphasis on law enforcement skills training, and too little on human relations proficiency and peace keeping strategies. Despite an abundance of studies that have depicted the police role as one of social service or peace keeping rather than one of crime fighting, police recruit academy curricula continue to emphasize instruction in law enforcement over human relations and problem-solving skills (Germann, 1969; Meadows, 1987). Goldstein observed that recruit training programs emphasize

the teaching of law enforcement skills at the expense of problem-solving strategies, and wrote:

> Although the best current police training programs already include some units in the curriculum that are problem-specific (e.g., sexual assault, spousal abuse, drunk driving), most police training remains generic. It teaches the law, department regulations, and skills (e.g., interrogation, fingerprinting, gathering evidence, conducting investigations, defensive tactics) without much attention to how these might apply to specific problems. That is one major reason why recruit training has so often been criticized as having no relevance to the job. It does not deal realistically with the specific problems police are expected to handle and the methods for dealing with them (1990: 167-168).

Germann (1969) observed that police officers spend approximately 10 percent of their time on actual law enforcement tasks, but receive 90 percent of their training in this area. Meadows (1987) examined state mandated recruit training curricula in 46 states to determine how police entry level training curricula compare with the research findings on the police role, and found that basic recruit training programs place an overwhelming emphasis on crime control, and legal and technical skill instruction. According to Meadows, the mean number of training hours devoted to human relations subject matter is 19, which amounts to only about 5 percent of police recruit curricula. In contrast, training in patrol and investigation, force and weaponry, and legal subjects collectively consume approximately 83 percent of recruit curricula instruction. A summary of data collected by

Meadows, which depicts the number of training hours in each of seven competency areas, is shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

U.S. POLICE RECRUIT TRAINING CURRICULA:
MEAN TRAINING HOURS AND PERCENTAGE RANKINGS

COMPETENCY AREA	MEAN HOURS	PERCENT OF TOTAL
Patrol and Investigation	185	50
Force and Weaponry	64	17
Legal Knowledge	61	16
Administration	20	5
Human Relations	**19**	**5**
Communications	14	4
Criminal Justice System	10	3
TOTALS:	373	100%

Selection and Training of Police Chiefs in the United States

The purpose of this section is to provide a general overview of deficiencies that exist in selection, promotion, and training strategies commonly employed to fill the command ranks of law enforcement agencies in the United States.

Criticism of Selection, Promotion, and Training Strategies: Past and Present

Police chiefs are responsible for planning, organizing, coordinating, and managing the agency's resources, including its personnel. The police chief plays an important role in American law enforcement, both as a sculptor of values and as a creator of philosophy for police agencies. Police chief selection and training strategies, as factors which potentially influence police chiefs and those under their command, have been a particular focus over the last fifty years. The Wickersham Commission Report (1931), the President's Task Force Report (1967), and a number of contemporary studies have concluded that selection, promotion and training methods commonly employed to fill the command ranks of American law enforcement agencies too often result in the placement of administrators who lack the managerial, administrative, and leadership skills necessary to perform effectively. Goldstein summarized the problem concisely, in stating:

> There is no need to dig deeply for an explanation of our failure to develop a reservoir of competent leadership in the police field. This country has tenaciously clung to the concept that leadership of a police agency should be drawn not only from within the police field, but from within the agency, and yet no provisions have been made to assure that police agencies systematically produce people with the requisite qualifications of leadership (1977: 231-232).

Holden (1986) cited four interrelated factors which may be responsible, including the initial selection process, the promotional process, the lack of training for managers, and the reluctance to allow lateral entry of command personnel.

The Promotion Process

Most police departments in the United States are organized in a "bottom-up" hierarchy that requires all new entrants to start at the lowest rank and move in step-by-step fashion up the organizational ladder. Police departments have a formal chain of command, both overall and within the various functional units. The chief of police functions as the chief executive officer, followed by a descending scale of captains, lieutenants, sergeants, and others. Promotion from within is the cornerstone of most police policies (More, 1976). The bottom-up structure endeavors to place officers who have demonstrated above average skills and abilities, into positions of leadership as command officers and police chiefs. Skill as an operating police officer does not, however, insure skill in management (Carter, Sapp and Stephens, 1989; Leonard

and More, 1978; Wilson, 1963). Carter, Sapp and Stephens recognized that skills required of police executives differ from those needed for line positions, and noted:

> It must be recognized that contemporary command personnel are not police officers who also command; they are executives in complex, resource-intensive organizations (1989: 18).

Unfortunately, promotion policies, commonly implemented, often result in the placement of police officers, who lack managerial and administrative skills and abilities, into positions of administration. Since nearly all police administrators are selected from within the ranks of the organization, leadership potential should be considered in the hiring process (Holden, 1986). This factor is rarely considered, however, and the quality of the pool, from which future administrators may be selected, is often limited to those who are expected to perform well as patrol officers - not managers. In addition, the reluctance of police agencies to allow lateral entry has virtually placed a lock on the pool.

The promotion process often includes a combination of factors, including written and oral examinations (often based on written texts and policy manuals), performance evaluations and seniority. While these factors may be fair indicators of one's ability to read and digest information, or to get along with peers and supervisors, they may be poor measures of managerial competence (Holden, 1986; More, 1976; Wilson, 1963)

Management Training

Management and supervisory training can be a major factor in shaping the future of a given agency. Such training can also provide a forum for discussion of issues important to police agencies (Stahl and Staufenberger, 1974), as well as an increased understanding of the various facets of workplace psychology and personnel administration. Unfortunately, a substantial percentage of police executives receive no significant management training (Holden, 1986).

Until very recently, managerial training for law enforcement administrators was virtually non-existent (Holden, 1986). Only a handful of departments in the United States have developed adequate programs to train supervisory and management personnel (Stahl and Staufenberger, 1974). A number of specialized programs have been developed to fulfill command officers' needs, such as the California and Washington Command Colleges, the Law Enforcement Executive Development Seminar, The Texas Law Enforcement Executive Institute, the Florida Department of Law Enforcement Executive Institute, the Senior Management Institute for Police, the Southern Police Institute, the Highway Traffic Institute, and the F.B.I. National Academy (Bennett and Hess, 1992; Carter, Sapp and Stephens, 1989). However, upon examining the number of agencies in the United States that are in a position to take advantage of such training, it appears relatively few are trained through these programs. For example, the F.B.I.

National Academy, perhaps the most prominent of command training programs, trains only 800 middle and upper-level managers per year (Gladis, 1985; Joseph and O'Conner, 1979).

Management training programs should not be viewed as a panacea, however, as such programs in no way guarantee the production of effective leaders (Bock, 1990; More and Wegener, 1990).

Summary

The literature posits a lengthy history of police recruit selection and training strategies geared toward unrealistic interpretations of the police role in American society. Task analysis studies have consistently characterized the primary police role as one of social work, human service, or peace keeping, as opposed to crime control. Police recruit training curricula have invariably emphasized instruction in law enforcement competence, with only minimal attention directed toward human relations and problem-solving skill development.

Deficiencies also exist in the selection, promotion, and training of police command officers in the United States. The bottom-up hierarchy often results in the promotion of officers who have demonstrated particular skills and abilities in non-management positions, often without regard to leadership or management potential. In addition, policies prohibiting lateral entry restrict agencies from pursuing the

best and brightest. To compound the problem, few departments in the United States have developed adequate programs to train supervisory and management personnel.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research design used in conducting this study, as well as a description of methods employed during the execution of field research in Sweden.

Research Design

A veritable mountain of literature has been written by criminal justice scholars concerning personnel selection and training techniques employed by police agencies in the United States. However, scholarly literature concerning police personnel selection and training in Sweden is relatively scarce (Cedermark-Hedberg, 1985), and literature published in English is particularly uncommon. A review of literature concerning the Swedish Police establishment, albeit limited, provided background information on innovative approaches to police personnel selection and training (Ackerman, 1990; Becker and Hjellemo, 1976; Knutsson, Kühlhorn and Reiss, 1979; Rikspolisstyrelsen, 1985; Terrill, 1984).

The Descriptive Research Approach

In consideration of the exploratory nature of this study, the scarcity of literature, and the relative obscurity of the subject matter, the methods and tools embodied in the descriptive research approach, coupled with field study, emerged as the most appropriate methodology.

The value of descriptive research is widely recognized as an effective and productive tool (Babbie, 1989; Hagan, 1982). Descriptive research may be employed as a means for solving a problem or charting a course of action. Best observed the role of descriptive research in providing a framework as the basis for future research, and wrote:

> Descriptive research involves the description, recording, analysis and interpretation of the present nature, composition, or process of phenomenon. The focus is on the prevailing conditions, or how a person, group or thing behaves or functions in the present (1959: 12).

The value of descriptive research as a starting point was further advanced by Borg and Gall, as follows:

> Descriptive studies serve many very important functions within the field of education. Under certain circumstances it is of tremendous value just to merely know what the current state of the activity is. Descriptive research provides us with a starting point and is, therefore, often carried out as a preliminary step to be followed by more rigorous research (1967: 202).

The descriptive approach also appeared best suited for this study in consideration of advantages cited by Van Dalen

(1962), who wrote that descriptive studies often: (1) Provide practical and useful information for planning; (2) Alert educators and trainers to trends and possible future events; and, (3) Facilitate an understanding of what is taking place in areas where processes and practices are continually changing.

In consideration of the needs and advantages heretofore cited, the descriptive approach is utilized in the presentation of the data collected in this study. Because the data are predominately qualitative in nature, a statistical treatment of the findings was not attempted.

Field Research in Sweden

As a means of attaining insight unavailable through literature review and other sources of information, the researcher conducted field research in Sweden over a period of two months, during August and September 1989. In addition to usual and customary preparation, the researcher completed courses of study in Swedish language prior to performing field research.

Field research has been utilized by social scientists for centuries. This technique allows researchers to garner qualitative data and observations not easily reduced to numbers. Babbie recognized the strengths of field research, and wrote:

> By going directly to the social phenomenon under study and observing it as completely as possible, you can develop a deeper and fuller understanding of it. This mode of observation, then, is especially, though not exclusively, appropriate to research topics and social studies that appear to defy simple quantification (1989: 261-262).

Field observations provided the researcher with insight into qualitative aspects of policing (i.e., patrol styles, police-public interaction, attitudes toward training programs, etc.), and police training programs (i.e., teaching methods and styles, realism of field exercises, attention to detail, attitudes toward training programs, etc.).

Field observations were supplemented by personal interviews with police personnel, as well as police college instructors, administrators, and trainees. Interviewees provided the researcher with in-depth information and perceptions unavailable through casual observation. A description of field research techniques utilized is provided in the following sections:

Police Operations

Prior to conducting field observations at the police college, the researcher sought a point of reference, and a "feel" for the Swedish Police organization and the nature and extent of police operations. In pursuit of this end, site visits were conducted in various regions of the country to observe police operations, including the following:

Falkenberg Police District (population 36,000). Located in the southwestern region of Sweden, the coastal city of Falkenberg is a popular resort area. The police district is staffed by 45 sworn officers. Field study in Falkenberg included interviews with personnel and the observation of operations including roll-call sessions, vehicular patrol, response to calls for service, traffic enforcement, the detective division, immigration refugee camp, jail facilities, and administrative operations.

Ullared Community Police Station. Located in a remote region on the outskirts of the Falkenberg Police District, the Ullared area is known for a discount shopping outlet which receives 3 million visitors per year. The Ullared Community Police Station is staffed by only two officers. Foot patrol and community policing strategies are widely employed in this area. Field study in Ullared included interviews with personnel and the observation of vehicular and foot patrol operations.

Värmland Police District (population 125,000). Located in southwestern Sweden, the Värmland Police District is staffed by 164 sworn officers. Field study in this district included interviews with personnel and the observation of the detective division, commercial

vehicle inspection and enforcement, and administrative operations.

Stockholm Police District (population 670,000). Located on the eastern coast in the south-central region, Stockholm is the capital of Sweden. Police personnel in Stockholm respond to an average of 600-700 calls for service per day. Field study in this district included interviews with personnel and the observation of operations including roll-call sessions, vehicular patrol, foot patrol, response to calls for service, vehicle check-lane functions, dispatch operations, helicopter patrol, and administrative operations.

Arlanda International Airport. Located on the outskirts of Metropolitan Stockholm, Arlanda International is the third busiest airport in Europe, serving 14 million passengers annually. Arlanda is staffed by 275 police employees, including 120 sworn officers and 155 support personnel, (e.g., passport control, security, and clerical personnel). Sworn police personnel receive an average of one week of training for every five calendar weeks (approximately 20 percent of duty hours). Field study at Arlanda included interviews with personnel and the observation of operations including foot patrol, plainclothes

surveillance, security functions, passport control, passenger/baggage inspection, and administrative operations.

Special Forces Unit. Headquartered in Stockholm, the Swedish Police Special Forces Unit responds to approximately 60 incidents per year, including barricaded gunman situations, robberies in progress, bomb threats, fugitive arrests, and other incidents which call for the deployment of special weapons and tactics. Special forces personnel receive approximately eight hours of training per week. Field study included interviews with personnel and the observation of operations including vehicular patrol, response to calls for service, rappelling and firearms training, and administrative operations.

Swedish National Police Board. Field study at the Swedish National Police Board (SNPB) included interviews with various SNPB administrators. Topics of discussion included strategies concerning the administration of daily operations, and planning, budgeting and delivery of various police training programs. (A description of SNPB functions is provided in Chapter IV, Background on Sweden: The Swedish National Police Board).

The Swedish National Police College

The majority of field study related to training programs was conducted on-site at the Swedish National Police College, allowing the researcher to observe a number of classroom lectures and practical exercises. The majority of classroom lectures attended were conducted in Swedish language, although many were presented in English for the benefit of the researcher.

Practical training exercises were observed in the areas of domestic dispute resolution, customer/merchant dispute resolution, encounters with mentally ill or intoxicated persons, first-aid, vehicle driving techniques, airplane crash response strategies, vehicle check-lane exercises, search and arrest raid execution, building search techniques, physical fitness and defensive tactics, interviewing and interrogation, firearms training exercises, radio communications, arrest techniques, and observation skills.

To complement field observations, a total of 73 interviews were conducted with Police College staff and trainees, including members of the Police College administrative staff (N=7), a Recruit Training Program Head Teacher (N=1), full-time instructors (N=9), part-time instructors (N=6), a Police Commissioner Training Program Head Teacher (N=1), trainees attending the Police Commissioner Training Program (N=5), and trainees attending the Police Recruit Training Program (N=44). The identities of those

interviewed shall remain confidential, with the exception of Anna-Lena Randle, who provided an extensive quantity of information in her official capacity as Public Information Director for the Police College.

Summary

This chapter presented a discussion of the research design used in conducting this study, as well as the methods employed during the execution of field study in Sweden. The descriptive research approach was selected, in consideration of the exploratory nature of the study, the scarcity of literature concerning the Swedish police organization, and the relative obscurity of the subject matter.

As a means of attaining insight unavailable through literature review and other sources of information, field study was conducted within various police districts, at the headquarters of the Swedish National Police Board, and on-site at the police college. Site visits to police districts provided the researcher with a frame of reference on the nature and extent of police operations. The majority of field study was carried out at the police college, where a variety of training exercises were observed. Field observations were augmented by personal interviews with police college instructors, administrators and trainees, as well as field personnel located within various police districts.

The descriptive approach was used to obtain, analyze,

and present the findings related to this study. A summary of the data is presented in the Chapters IV through VIII. An analysis of the data, and implications for future research, are presented in Chapters IX and X, respectively.

CHAPTER IV

BACKGROUND ON SWEDEN AND THE POLICE

Sweden in General

Sweden is a sparsely populated country in northern Europe, occupying the eastern portion of the Scandinavian peninsula. In area, Sweden is the fourth largest country in Europe, and is slightly larger than California. The Swedish population numbers approximately 8.6 million, of whom 88 percent are of a homogeneous white ethnic origin. Approximately 90 percent of the population resides in the southern half of the country, of whom about one-third reside in the metropolitan areas of Stockholm, Göteborg, and Malmö.

In Sweden, conscious sociopolitical efforts aimed at achieving a comparatively even distribution of wealth have led to a vast social welfare system. As elsewhere, variations of wealth, income, and social status do exist, however, the variations appear narrower than in many other countries. While living conditions in Sweden are among the best in the world, social problems such as alcoholism, drug abuse, suicide, and criminality are not remarkably better or worse than countries with comparable standards of living (Swedish Institute, 1989).

The Swedish National Police Force

The Swedish police force has been a national agency since 1965. Unlike the fragmented nature of American law enforcement, there are no separate police agencies in Sweden, but rather a unitary and comprehensive police department with duties that, in the United States, have been assigned to state, county and municipal police departments, as well as federal agencies such as the Immigration and Naturalization Service, US Customs Service, Drug Enforcement Administration, Postal Inspection Service, Federal Aviation Administration Security, and US Secret Service. Prior to the implementation of reform efforts in 1965, there were 554 police departments in Sweden, of which 70 percent had fewer than ten officers.

The Swedish police establishment is divided into 24 regional organizations, at the county level, which have administrative jurisdiction over traffic enforcement, police canine operations, narcotics investigations, and other police functions of regional concern. Within each region, the County Administrative Board is responsible for the planning, coordination, and distribution of resources. Resources for large-scale operations are allocated through a process of joint consultation between the County Administrative Board and local police district authorities.

The police force is further divided into 118 local police districts, which vary in geographic size and population. While districts located in Stockholm (population

670,000), Göteborg (pop. 430,000), and Malmö (pop. 230,000) are staffed by more than 1,000 officers, a large number of districts have fewer than 40 officers. In addition to central police stations located in each district, 367 "Community Police Stations" are also staffed nationwide. The total number of sworn personnel is approximately 16,500, with a ratio of approximately 1.9 per 1,000 population.

The international reputation of the Swedish National Police Force is well established, particularly for providing realistic approaches to the problem of maintaining a high level of public satisfaction combined with social order (Becker and Hjellemo, 1976). The Swedish National Police Board, the Police College, and police stations throughout Sweden frequently receive visiting police officials from around the world, and articles appear in foreign journals in praise of the Swedish Police organization (Becker and Hjellemo, 1976).

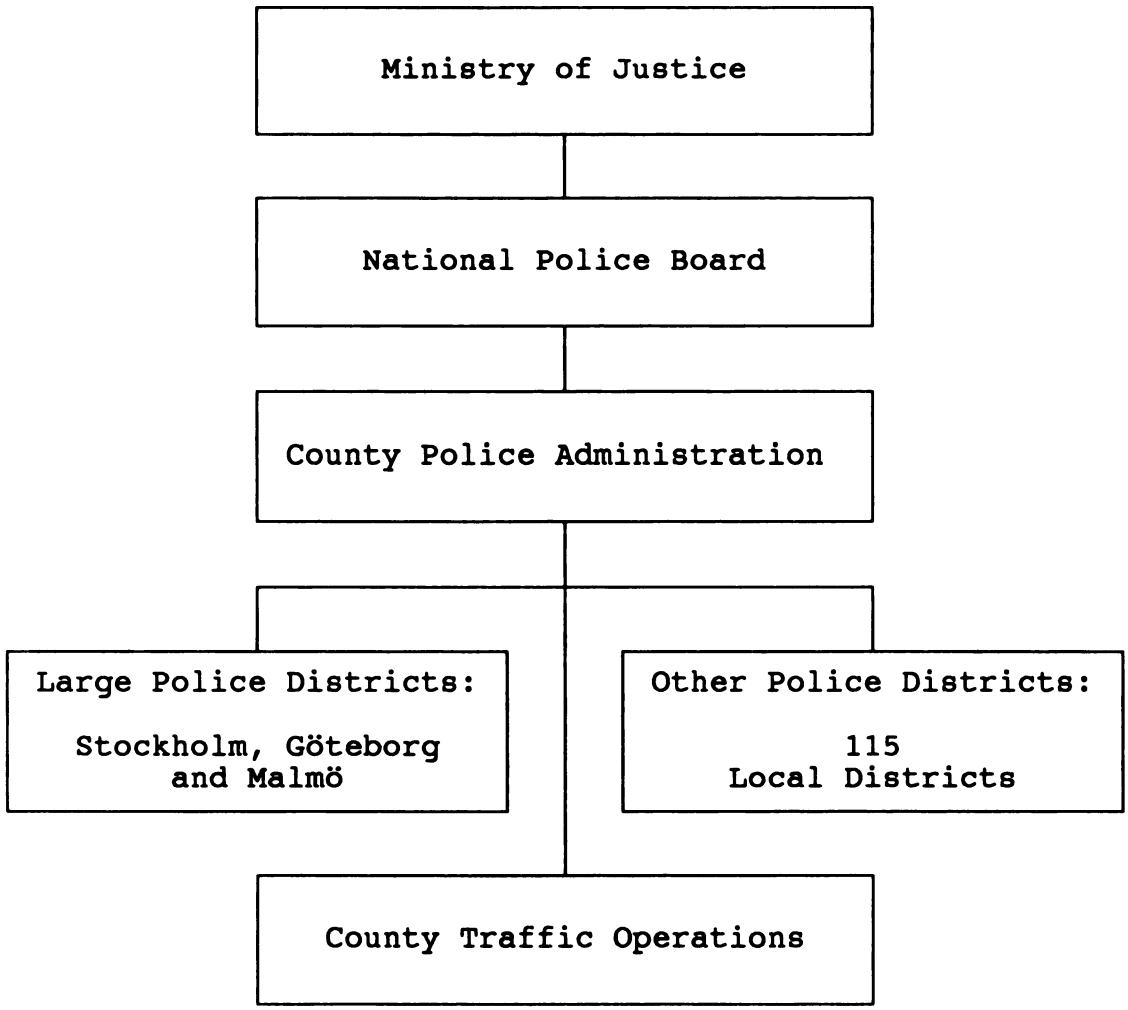
A description of the organization of the Swedish National Police Force is displayed in Figure 4.1.

The Swedish National Police Board

The governing body of the Swedish police establishment is the *Rikspolisstyrelsen* (Swedish National Police Board), which operates under the direction of the Swedish Ministry of Justice. The SNPB, located in Stockholm, is responsible for central police administration, planning, research, training,

Figure 4.1

ORGANIZATION OF THE SWEDISH NATIONAL POLICE FORCE



and other support functions. The SNPB has long been noted for its attempts at improving the quality of recruitment and training for its personnel (Terrill, 1984).

The SNPB is governed by a body of eight members, appointed by the federal government, all of whom are members of the Swedish Parliament. The chairman of the SNPB holds the position of National Police Commissioner. Regional and local operations are supervised by county and district police commissions, with each headed by a police commissioner. District police commissioners are charged with the day-to-day operation of local police districts.

The Swedish National Police College

Both the Police Commissioner Training Program and Police Recruit Training Program are administered by the *Polishögskolan* (Swedish National Police College), a central training facility which also administers approximately 100 in-service training programs for officers at all levels of the police organization. Regional and local police training is also conducted off-site, at various locations throughout the country.

The Police College is located in Ulriksdal, near Stockholm. The layout of the facility resembles a small college campus, with over 40 buildings situated in a wooded area. Among the facilities are an administration building, three classroom buildings, a library, indoor and outdoor firearms facilities, two gymnasiums, a paved area and skid-pan for vehicle and traffic training, a central stores facility, an assembly hall, a building for communications and computer

training, and a mock city square which is often used for role-playing exercises.

The full-time faculty consists of police officers serving temporary assignments (not to exceed five years), and various specialists in their respective disciplines, such as psychologists, psychiatrists, and physical fitness instructors.

CHAPTER V

SELECTION OF POLICE RECRUITS IN SWEDEN

The following is a summary of basic qualification standards, educational requirements, physical requirements, and the application process for entry level police officers in Sweden (A. L. Randle, personal communication, August 31, 1989; Rikspolisstyrelsen, 1985, 1988, 1989c; Terrill, 1984):

Basic Qualification Standards

Qualification standards are determined by the SNPB, and are similar to those common among municipal police agencies in the United States. Basic requirements include Swedish citizenship, possession of a valid drivers license, no more than a minimal record of traffic violations, and no convictions for any serious criminal offenses. Applicants must have reached their 20th birthday during the year in which they begin recruit training, demonstrate ability to type at least 300 characters in three minutes (without errors), and must have gained at least one year of meaningful employment experience.

Educational Requirements

Educational requirements include graduation from an upper secondary school, with above average standing. (In addition to basic curricula, Swedish upper secondary schools provide vocational concentrations with specialized courses related to various occupational fields.) In addition, applicants must have a record of high academic achievement in the subjects of Swedish and English language, civics, sociology, psychology, and human-relations coursework to be considered for employment. Academically, these requirements are essentially the same as those required for admission to Swedish universities.

Physical Requirements

Physical requirements include a "build suitable for police work" (loosely defined as height proportionate to body weight), visual acuity (minor correction to 20/20 is acceptable), normal color vision, normal hearing, and the ability to swim at least 200 meters.

Application Process

The application process is also similar to those commonly exercised in the United States. To begin the process, aspirants submit written applications to local district police commissioners. Applications are then

forwarded to the SNPB for review, to ensure that applicants meet minimum standards required for advancement to the next stage. The remainder of the process includes a written examination, background investigations, oral interviews, a medical examination including diagnostic tests, and physical fitness evaluations. Patrol officer recruits are appointed from eligibility lists maintained by the SNPB.

The SNPB normally receives approximately 3,000 applications annually. Typically, fewer than one-half of applicants meet formal criteria. In recent years, approximately 600 candidates per year have been selected to enter recruit training. Positions have been open to female applicants since 1971. Since approximately 1975, the appointment of female recruits has ranged from 25 to 30 percent of total appointments (Cedermark-Hedberg, 1985; A. L. Randle, personal communication, August 31, 1989).

CHAPTER VI

TRAINING OF POLICE RECRUITS IN SWEDEN

The Swedish Police Recruit Training Program is administered by the Swedish National Police College, and provides a total of over 5,000 hours of classroom instruction, theme exercises, and practical experience. The program is presented in three phases over a 33-month period (Rikspolisstyrelsen, 1985, 1987, 1988, 1989a, 1989b, 1989c). A summary of training contact hours is shown in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1

SUMMARY OF SWEDISH POLICE RECRUIT TRAINING CURRICULUM: TRAINING HOURS

COURSE	CLASSROOM HOURS	PRACTICAL HOURS	TOTAL HOURS
BASIC COURSE I	1,108	492	1,600
PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE	0	2,730	2,730
BASIC COURSE II	342	365	707
TOTALS:	1,450	3,587	5,037

Phase I: Classroom Instruction (40 weeks)

The initial phase involves ten months of coursework at the police college. The course, entitled *Grundkurs I* (Basic Course I), includes instruction in five general subject areas, as follows:

(1) Police Skills, including topics such as uniformed patrol techniques, traffic law and enforcement, motor vehicle accident investigation, vehicle operation and technology, radio communications, mechanics of arrest, computer operation, ethics, police supervision, weapons, criminal investigation, illegal drugs, surveillance, evidence, forensic medicine, crime prevention, Swedish language, English language, and emergency medical treatment;

(2) General Law, including topics such as legal principles, criminal law, criminal procedure, civil law, and the court system;

(3) Physical Skills, including topics such as physical fitness and conditioning, defensive tactics, swimming and life-saving, and personal health care;

(4) Social and Behavioral Sciences, including topics such as sociology, psychology, psychiatry, interaction with mentally ill or retarded persons, homosexuality, death notification, crisis intervention, conflict resolution,

group behavior, and stress management; and,

(5) Human Relations, including topics such as conflict resolution, group behavior, social problems, morality development, witness psychology, and youth culture.

Basic Course I provides 1,600 hours of classroom and practical training, amounting to nearly one-third of the 33-month curriculum overall. A general outline of the curriculum presented in Basic Course I is shown in Table 6.2.

Entering recruits are divided into classes of approximately 20 students, and are assigned to a *Polissuperintendent* (Head Teacher) who coordinates the training provided in this phase. The head teacher also delivers the majority of the lecture material, although lecturers such as police commissioners, psychologists, college/university professors, physicians, prosecuting attorneys, defensive tactics experts, immigration inspectors, and journalists are called upon to present material in their respective disciplines.

The majority of instruction is conducted in a typical classroom environment. Recruits are seated at several conference style tables, and stow their course materials in individual lockers located within each classroom. Lectures are sometimes supplemented with field trips to facilities which may offer additional insight into criminal justice operations, such as the National Police Board headquarters, police stations, and court facilities.

Table 6.2

GENERAL OUTLINE OF SWEDISH POLICE RECRUIT TRAINING CURRICULUM: BASIC COURSE I

SUBJECT AREA	CLASSROOM HOURS	PRACTICAL HOURS	TOTAL HOURS
GENERAL INFORMATION AND RULES:	34	0	34
POLICE SKILLS:	744	173	917
Uniform Duty	(140)	(32)	(172)
Weapons	(48)	(12)	(60)
Communications/Computers	(42)	(12)	(54)
Traffic	(212)	(53)	(265)
First-Aid	(36)	(10)	(46)
Criminal Investigation	(140)	(32)	(172)
Forensic Medicine	(52)	(16)	(68)
English Language	(26)	(0)	(26)
Swedish Language	(48)	(6)	(54)
LEGAL SUBJECTS:	154	46	200
Legal Principles	(34)	(10)	(44)
Criminal Law	(90)	(24)	(114)
Civil Law	(30)	(12)	(42)
PHYSICAL FITNESS & SELF DEFENSE:	10	136	146
SOCIAL SCIENCES:	132	36	168
Sociology	(66)	(18)	(84)
Psychology and Psychiatry	(66)	(18)	(84)
HUMANITIES:	34	4	38
THEME EXERCISES:	0	97	97
TOTALS:	1,108	492	1,600

Of the 1,600 hours of instruction presented in Basic Course I, more than 10 percent (168 hours) is allocated to the subjects of psychology, psychiatry and sociology. A summary of instruction presented in psychology and psychiatry is shown in Table 6.3.

Phase one is designed to provide a general theoretical framework to the many facets of police duty, the criminal justice system, legal principles, human behavior and social problems, and to prepare recruits for the second phase of training.

Phase II: Practical Experience (18 months)

The second phase, known as *Praktik* (Practical Experience), begins immediately after the completion of Basic Course I, and continues for a period of 18 months. Recruits enter this phase with full law enforcement authority, including the authority to carry firearms. This phase allows recruits to apply what they have learned in classroom instruction; provides them with "hands-on" experience in patrol duty, criminal investigation, and social work; and provides a foundation for the coursework encountered in phase III. A general outline of the practical phase is shown in Table 6.4.

Table 6.3

GENERAL OUTLINE OF PSYCHOLOGY AND PSYCHIATRY CURRICULUM: BASIC COURSE I

I. GENERAL ETHICS IN THE POLICE ROLE

(A) Introduction to the Police Role
(B) Human Attitudes, Morals, Ethics and Values
(C) Men and Women in Police Work

II. GROUP PSYCHOLOGY

(A) Group Processes
(B) Roles, Norms, and Role Conflict
(C) Leadership
(D) Feed-Back
(E) Self Awareness

III. CRISIS INTERVENTION

(A) Characteristics of Psychiatric Disturbances/Crisis
(B) Events Which Trigger Psychiatric Crisis
(C) Death Notification
(D) s of Psychiatric Crisis
(E) Defense Mechanisms
(F) The Police Crisis Support Function
(G) Family Disturbances, Spouse Assault, Child Abuse, Rape, Incest, Child Sexual Abuse

IV. STRESS IN POLICE WORK

(A) Stress Awareness
(B) Hazards of Stress in Police Work: Selected Problems
(C) Police Officers as Victims
(D) Coping Mechanisms: The John Wayne Syndrome
(E) Families of Police Officers
(F) Over-Building Police Support Groups
(G) Alcoholism

(Table Continues)

Table 6.3 (Continued)

V. PSYCHIATRY

(A) Significance of Early Life Events upon Development
(B) Neurosis
(C) Treatment Referrals to Outside Agencies
(D) Stress Experienced by Immigrants

VI. PSYCHOLOGICAL PERCEPTIONS AND WITNESS PSYCHOLOGY

(A) Witness Statements
(B) Perception of the World Around Us
(C) Personal Misconceptions
(D) Prejudice and Discrimination
(E) Police Contact With Immigrants

VII. INTERVIEWING WITNESSES

(A) Interviewing as a Team
(B) Witness Misconceptions
(C) Factors Which Influence Interpretations
(D) Stress, Memory and Forgetfulness
(E) Defense Mechanisms During Interrogation
(F) Expectations and Prejudices
(G) Formulation of Questions
(H) Interviewing Children
(I) False Admissions and Confessions

VIII. SPECIAL SUBJECTS

(A) Handicapper Information
(B) Mentally Retarded Persons
(C) Homosexuality

IX. COMMUNICATION, CONFLICT RESOLUTION

(A) Group Behavior
(B) Aggressiveness and Violence
(C) Conflict Resolution
(D) Police Role in Conflict Resolution
(E) Communication: Verbal, Non-Verbal and Symbolic
(F) Listening

Table 6.4

GENERAL OUTLINE OF SWEDISH POLICE RECRUIT TRAINING CURRICULUM: PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE

SUBJECT AREA	CLASSROOM HOURS	PRACTICAL HOURS	TOTAL HOURS
UNIFORMED PATROL DUTY	0	910	910
CRIMINAL INVESTIGATION	0	910	910
SOCIAL WORK	0	910	910
TOTALS:	0	2,730	2,730

To begin the practical phase, recruits normally return to their respective home districts (subject to availability) to perform uniformed patrol duty for a period of six months. During this segment, recruits patrol their police districts in marked police vehicles under the guidance of experienced patrol officers and supervisors. Recruits perform a wide range of tasks, such as responding to calls for service, investigating incidents, preparing written reports, and traffic enforcement. The patrol duty segment provides recruits with their first taste of uniformed police duty, as well as a frame of reference for their approaching tours of duty in the investigations division, and the coursework

encountered during Phase III.

After completing the patrol duty segment, recruits are assigned to the detective division, where they perform investigative tasks in a plain-clothes capacity over a period of six months. Tasks carried out are equally divided among three branches of the detective division, including the general investigations section, crime squad, and the youth squad. This segment allows recruits to observe and assist investigators as they conduct investigations, process evidence, prepare cases for prosecution, testify in court, and coordinate activities with other divisions of the police force.

During the final segment of the practical phase, recruits perform "social work" for a period of six months. At this stage, recruits participate in a variety of assignments with public service agencies, such as geriatric nursing homes, psychiatric care facilities, alcohol and drug treatment programs, ambulance operations, hospital emergency room facilities, youth gang programs, suicide prevention centers, and unemployment programs. This experience combines both observation and participation, and exposes recruits to a variety of social problems and crisis situations. The social work segment is designed to provide a heightened awareness of those struggling with difficult situations and environments, and is believed to aid in the development of problem-solving skills.

To avoid placing recruits in compromising positions,

which could easily be encountered during the social work segment of Phase II, recruits are required to surrender their weapons and police credentials at the beginning of this segment, and are forbidden to take law enforcement action or disclose information to the police force concerning criminal activity either observed or discussed. Not surprisingly, many recruits find it difficult to withhold action or information under these circumstances, especially when in close contact with drug abusers and youth gangs.

Phase III: Classroom Instruction (20 weeks)

Having completed the practical phase, recruits return to the police college for Phase III, known as *Grundkurs II* (Basic Course II) for a period of five months. During this phase, recruits are expected to apply knowledge and experience gained in Phases I & II. Subjects studied in this phase are essentially the same as those encountered in Basic Course I, although in greater depth. In addition, subject matter concerning management principles and civil rights issues are introduced. Recruits will also explore issues related to youth culture, such as drug and alcohol abuse, peer pressure, youth gangs, and teen violence. The emphasis during this phase shifts from classroom to practical training, which amounts to more than one-half of the Basic Course II curriculum. A general outline of the curriculum presented in Basic Course II is shown in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5

GENERAL OUTLINE OF SWEDISH POLICE RECRUIT TRAINING CURRICULUM: BASIC COURSE II

SUBJECT AREA	CLASSROOM HOURS	PRACTICAL HOURS	TOTAL HOURS
GENERAL INFORMATION AND RULES:	34	0	34
POLICE SKILLS:	172	70	242
Uniform Duty	(10)	(4)	(14)
Weapons	(8)	(22)	(30)
Communications/Computers	(30)	(6)	(36)
Traffic	(9)	(25)	(34)
Criminal Investigation	(40)	(4)	(44)
English Language	(20)	(0)	(20)
Swedish Language	(25)	(0)	(25)
Management Principles	(30)	(9)	(39)
LEGAL SUBJECTS:	68	18	86
Criminal Law	(48)	(10)	(58)
Civil Law	(20)	(8)	(28)
PHYSICAL FITNESS & SELF DEFENSE:	8	20	28
SOCIAL SCIENCES:	53	15	68
Sociology	(18)	(4)	(22)
Psychology and Psychiatry	(20)	(6)	(26)
Youth Culture	(15)	(5)	(20)
THEME EXERCISES:	0	242	242
INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION:	8	8	16
TOTALS:	342	365	707

Theme Exercises

Theme exercises normally consist of detailed reenactments of criminal incidents or emergency situations. These exercises require extensive planning and preparation, and last anywhere from several hours to five days. In addition to providing recruits with the opportunity to practice law enforcement and emergency response skills, theme exercises are designed to condition recruits to manage stress during critical incidents, and provide a heightened awareness of supervision and leadership strategies, physical and mental perceptions, and interpersonal communication competence.

In Basic Course I, theme exercises are held in three scenarios, consuming a total of 97 hours. Recruits receive classroom instruction in the subject areas to be addressed prior to participating in theme exercises. Both the preliminary instruction and the execution of the exercises are coordinated by staff psychologists, physical education instructors, and police commanders.

One particular theme exercise allows patrol officer recruits and command officers to work jointly to solve an organizational problem. Commanders participating in such exercises do so in conjunction with command officer training programs operating concurrently at the Police College. These segments provide recruits and commanders with the opportunity to exchange ideas on problem-solving strategies related to issues such as job stress, management techniques, training

methods, and disciplinary measures.

During Basic Course II, theme exercises take on additional emphasis, amounting to approximately one third (242 hours) of the 20-week course. These exercises emphasize incident response strategies, allowing recruits to experience the stress associated with difficult decisions under less than ideal circumstances. In addition, theme exercises presented during Basic Course II are designed to provide an awareness of the rationale behind strategies and orders implemented by command officers in difficult situations, where a wide variety of variables may be taken into consideration.

For example, during an exercise which is based on an actual incident, recruits encounter armed subjects barricaded in a vacant house following a bank robbery. This exercise is carried out over a period of five days, during which the scenario is explained, response strategies are debated and determined, the house is approached, suspects are encountered, written reports are submitted, and the exercise is evaluated. The essential elements of the exercise occur in the following sequence:

1. Instructors provide participants with parameters of the exercise, and details of the incident.

2. The participants meet to discuss strategies for approaching the house and apprehending the suspects.

3. A team of "observers" approach the house in an attempt to identify the number and location of suspects, and relay their findings to a response team nearby.

4. Officers on the response team carefully approach the house, armed with automatic weapons and wearing body armor and gas masks.

5. Officers make unsuccessful attempts to talk the suspects out of the house, then fire several rounds of authentic tear gas through windows.

6. As officers make entry, one officer sustains "gunshot wounds," and oozes blood (which is simulated with professional props). Only the wounded officer is aware of the impending shooting.

7. An ambulance is summoned, then arrives on the scene with emergency lights and siren activated. The injured officer is rushed away from the scene.

8. A commander at the scene later reports that the injured officer is in critical condition, and is expected to die.

9. A minister arrives at the scene and counsels the officers.

10. A large contingent from the media arrives at the

scene, fully equipped with cameras and recording devices, seeking interviews.

11. The suspects are captured and transported to a police station.

12. A press conference is held at the scene for members of the media.

13. A debriefing is held at the scene for the response team.

14. The entire exercise is evaluated in the classroom.

The realism of this exercise may be most appreciated upon examining the faces of the participants, where the stress, fear, and exhaustion of the 10-hour ordeal is clearly visible. Many recruits stated the exercise was so well staged that, at times, they lost sight of reality. As a result of the physical and emotional demands placed on participants, trainees and instructors commonly have difficulty sleeping on the evening the exercise is completed. Many instructors commented that this scenario continues to be an emotional experience, despite having participated in it many times. According to one instructor, this scenario is intended to provide a lesson in psychology, and is designed to pose questions to the recruits, such as, "Who will you go home to?," and "How will you deal with the stress?"

Another interesting theme exercise involves the

simulation of a plane crash in a residential neighborhood. This exercise requires participants to perform the roles of radio dispatchers, patrol officers, detectives, commanders, helicopter pilots, K-9 units, firefighters and ambulance technicians.

Unlike the bank robbery scenario, which takes place outdoors, this exercise is implemented entirely indoors. "Building #16," the site of this exercise, is equipped with sophisticated communications and video equipment, a mock police station, a television studio, and fifteen classrooms. Recruits are distributed throughout the building depending upon their respective roles. Instructors monitor and coordinate the exercise from a command center, which is equipped with closed circuit television. To provide feedback and aid in evaluation, the exercise is recorded on video tape. To assure technical accuracy, classroom instruction and assistance in coordination of the exercise is provided by fire department personnel.

Communication between participants is achieved with portable police radios. To add a dimension of realism, communication equipment is augmented with background sound effects provided on audio cassette tape (e.g., police vehicle sirens, helicopter noise, dogs barking in K-9 vehicles). The exercise is followed by a short debriefing and several hours of in-depth evaluation. Participants are evaluated on their response strategies, communication proficiency, application of laws, and coordination of services with fire department,

emergency medical personnel, and utility crews. The main thrust of this exercise centers around the development of teamwork concepts.

Problem-Solving Scenarios

Much of the practical training, designed to prepare recruits for the social role of policing, is carried out in the *Lagtorget* ("Law Square") facility. Law Square is situated on a few acres of the Police College campus, and consists of a group of seven buildings resembling a small commerce center. The buildings are fully furnished, and include a post office, liquor store, restaurant, grocery store, newsstand, bank, and apartments. The pavement is marked with standard traffic lanes, crosswalks and sidewalks, which also aids in the execution of traffic training exercises such as vehicle stops and check-lane scenarios.

A wide variety of exercises are performed in Law Square, although a common theme involves dispatching police recruits to settle disputes or provide assistance. Examples of mock scenarios include incidents involving intoxicated individuals, disputes between customers and merchants, noise complaints, domestic or neighborhood disputes, motorist assists, or teenage gatherings. The roles of private citizens (e.g., customers, combatants, bystanders, etc.) are nearly always performed by the trainees, who alternate between character roles and responding officers. Role players are often

outfitted with appropriate costumes, makeup, and props such as ragged clothing, alcoholic beverage containers, simulated wounds and blood, weapons, and medical information cards.

Instructors of problem-solving scenario exercises are normally veteran patrol officers who take a temporary leave of absence (one or two days at a time) from regular police duty. These instructors are often assisted by permanent staff, such as psychologists or nurses, who may offer their particular expertise depending upon the nature of the scenarios.

The purpose of these exercises commonly revolves around handling uncooperative persons and difficult situations, applying knowledge and techniques learned in theoretical coursework concerning interpersonal communications and psychology, the application and enforcement of the law, and an appreciation for the motivations behind the creation of applicable laws. The emphasis of these exercises is on problem solving, as opposed to law enforcement, whenever feasible.

Assignment and In-Service Training

Recruits must successfully complete each of the basic training phases to be guaranteed permanent employment. Assignment locations are dependent upon prevailing manpower levels. New officers are normally assigned to uniformed patrol duty, after which they may apply for assignments to specialized units, such as the traffic section, neighborhood

policing, canine unit, investigations division, or special forces. Competition for special assignments is rigorous and promotion is largely based on seniority (Cedermark-Hedberg, 1985; Becker and Hjellemo, 1976).

Officers attend in-service training courses on a sporadic basis. In-service training is most often conducted at the local or regional level, and addresses subjects such as marine patrol, defensive tactics, firearms, investigative techniques, surveillance, interviewing techniques, social work, and motor vehicle accident investigation. Promotions are normally followed by 15 weeks of training at the National Police College, where subject matter is geared to the particular position obtained.

CHAPTER VII

SELECTION OF POLICE COMMISSIONERS IN SWEDEN

Selection Criteria

The selection process for Swedish police commissioners differs substantially from the U.S. profile. Rather than seeking candidates who have demonstrated above average skills and abilities as operating police officers, the Swedish National Police Force recruits candidates with exceptional legal knowledge and leadership skills, and then provides them with substantial classroom and practical training (Rikspolisstyrelsen, 1988, 1989b, 1989c).

In addition to basic qualifications (e.g., Swedish citizenship, a valid drivers license, good moral character), aspiring police commissioner applicants must be law school graduates. An exceptional academic record and distinguished service to the legal profession are essential prerequisites.

As a result of these selection criteria, the majority of appointees have been selected from outside of the police organization. In recent years, however, the number of police officers who have completed law school and applied for police commissioner posts has been increasing. The number and frequency of candidates selected to staff the (approximately)

300 police commissioner posts varies depending upon retirement, manpower levels, financial and other considerations. In recent years, approximately 70 percent of appointees have had no prior law enforcement experience.

CHAPTER VIII

TRAINING OF POLICE COMMISSIONERS IN SWEDEN

The Police Commissioner Training Program is administered by the Swedish National Police College. The basic format of the program has changed little since its inception in 1971. The course content, however, is constantly updated to reflect contemporary needs. A general outline of the Swedish Police Commissioner Training Program, which is offered in three phases over a 32-month period, is illustrated in Table 8.1.

Phase I: Classroom Instruction (8 weeks)

The initial phase involves two months of coursework at the Swedish National Police College. The course, entitled *"Polischefskurs I"* (Police Commissioner Course I), includes instruction in six general subject areas: Fundamentals of Police Duty, Police Administration, Physical Fitness and Defensive Tactics, Immigration Law and Investigations, Work-place Psychology, and Planning, Research & Analysis of Police Operations.

Entering candidates are divided into classes of approximately 20 students, and are assigned to a *Polissuperintendent* (Head Teacher) who coordinates the

Table 8.1

GENERAL OUTLINE OF SWEDISH POLICE COMMISSIONER TRAINING PROGRAM

PHASE I:	POLICE COMMISSIONER COURSE I	(8 Weeks)
	Fundamentals of Police Duty	
	Fundamentals of Police Administration	
	Planning, Research, and Analysis of Police Operations	
	Physical Fitness and Defensive Tactics	
	Immigration Law and Investigations	
	Workplace Psychology	
PHASE II:	PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE AND TRAINING	(26 Months)
	Local Police District: 8 Months	
	County Police Commission: 1 Month	
	County Court: 1 Month	
	District Court: 12 Months	
	Prosecutor's Office: 4 Months	
PHASE III:	POLICE COMMISSIONER COURSE II	(16 Weeks)
	Fundamentals of Police Duty	
	Fundamentals of Police Administration	
	Planning, Research, and Analysis of Police Operations	
	Physical Fitness and Defensive Tactics	
	Immigration Law and Investigations	
	Workplace Psychology	
	Management Development	
	Financial Administration	
	First-Aid	

classroom phases of the training program. Normally, the head teacher takes a leave of absence from regular duty as a *Kommissarie* (Precinct Commander) while serving at the police college. At the completion of the initial coursework phase, the head teacher returns to regular duty. Once the candidates have completed the practical phase, the head teacher returns to the police college for Police Commissioner Course II. The head teacher delivers the majority of the lecture material, although additional lecturers, such as police commissioners, psychologists, professors, physicians, prosecuting attorneys, defensive tactics experts, and immigration inspectors are called upon to present material in their respective fields of expertise.

The majority of instruction is conducted in a single classroom, which candidates report to each weekday. Candidates are seated in a "U" shaped formation so as to promote free face-to-face exchange of ideas and comments. Classroom training is sometimes supplemented with field trips to facilities which may offer additional insight to criminal justice operations, such as the SNPB Headquarters, various police stations, refugee camps, and court facilities. The purpose of Course I is to provide a general introduction to the many facets of police duty and administration, and to prepare the candidates for the second phase of training.

Phase II: Practical Experience (26 months)

The second phase, known as *Praktik* (Practical Experience), begins immediately after the completion of Course I, and continues for a period of 26 months. During this phase of the program, the candidates receive significant "hands-on" experience within the criminal justice system, which is designed to prepare them for the day-to-day responsibilities of a police commissioner. Phase II also provides a foundation for the coursework encountered in Phase III (Police Commissioner Course II).

To begin the practical phase, the candidates return to their respective home districts (subject to availability) where they spend eight months at a local district police station assisting the police commissioner with administrative responsibilities. The candidates will be exposed to many facets of the daily operation of the police district, and perform many of the duties of the police commissioner, under the commissioner's direction. This segment of the training program comprises nearly one-third of the practical phase, and fully one-quarter of the training program overall.

Immediately following the practical phase, the candidates are assigned to each of 24 County Police Commissioners' Offices for a period of one month. These organizations are operated by the County Police Commissioner and the County Administrative Board. County police officials have supervisory control over a variety of operations conducted by

the local districts.

Among the functions carried out at the county level are planning, the allocation of resources between police districts located within the county (including police personnel), the coordination of operations conducted jointly by local police districts, and the implementation of regional activities including traffic enforcement, narcotics investigations, marine patrol, and police dog services. The purpose of training administered at this level is to provide insight into the variety of functions and challenges faced by the regional police operative.

The remainder of the practical phase involves hands-on experience and training within the court system. The candidates spend a total of 17 months in this segment of the program, which includes one month at the county court, one year at the district court, and four months in the prosecutor's office. During this segment, the candidates are exposed to many facets of court system operations, as they assist administrative personnel, prosecuting attorneys, and judges with their daily work. During their assignment to the Office of the Public Prosecutor, the candidates perform the duties of an assistant prosecuting attorney. This assignment allows the candidates to review criminal cases and make decisions concerning the issuance of arrest warrants, filing applications for detention orders, prosecuting those charged with criminal offenses, or initiating diversion programs.

Phase III: Classroom Instruction (16 weeks)

Upon completing the practical phase, the candidates return to the police college for *Polischefskurs II* (Police Commissioner Course II), where they receive additional classroom training over a period of four months. In addition to supplemental coursework in subjects introduced in Police Commissioner Course I, instruction in management development, financial administration, and first-aid are also introduced.

Police Commissioner Course II is designed to reinforce what was learned in the previous coursework and practical phases, and to introduce more advanced subject matter. The introduction of management development and financial administration instruction is withheld until Course II, to allow candidates to become familiar with related concepts and tasks during the practical phase.

Assignment and In-Service Training:

Upon successfully completing the 32-month training program, candidates are assigned to one of 118 local police districts, where they serve as *Polis Intendent* (Assistant Police Commissioner). This position is third in command in the rank structure at the district level. Exceptional performance may later qualify individuals for promotion to *Polisöverintendent* (Deputy Police Commissioner), and finally to *Polismästare* (Police Commissioner). The promotion process

may also require the commissioners to relocate to other districts.

Throughout the course of their careers, police commissioners have the opportunity to attend various in-service training courses and conferences, which may last anywhere from a few hours to several weeks. These programs are offered at the National Police College, or at regional or local facilities. More than three-quarters of in-service training is offered at the local level.

Approximately six years after completing Police Commissioner Course II, the commissioners return to the National Police College for a three-month training program, entitled *Polischefskurs III* (Police Commissioner Course III). This course is essentially an advanced version of Courses I and II, with greater emphasis on management principles.

After completing Course III, commissioners complete one month of practical training and service at the SNPB headquarters, in Stockholm. During this segment, commissioners are introduced to the functions of the SNPB, such as the overall administration of the police force, personnel administration, coordination of information and activities with Interpol, or acquiring police equipment such as vehicles, police radios, weapons, uniforms, and traffic-control equipment. Commissioners may also assist in the establishment of police policies, procedures, or regulations concerning police operations. This experience provides exposure to police operations at the national level, thereby

providing the final link in their training and involvement in the police organization as a whole.

CHAPTER IX

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Selection and Training of Police Recruits in Sweden

Entry-level qualification standards, physical requirements, and application procedures utilized in Sweden are similar to those commonly found in the United States (Gaines, Southerland, & Angell, 1991; Sheehan & Cordner, 1989; Swanson, Territo & Taylor, 1988). The Swedish standard requiring high school completion is similar to policies in effect in approximately 86 percent of American police agencies (Carter, Sapp & Stephens, 1989). The Swedish policy requiring a record of high academic achievement in the subjects of Swedish and English language, civics, sociology, psychology, and human-relations coursework to be considered for employment is, perhaps, more purposeful. According to police college personnel, this criteria was formulated in recognition of the role of police officers as peace keepers and problem solvers, and requiring high academic achievement in these subjects is thought to increase the probability of selecting recruits who will understand and apply interpersonal communication and human relations concepts when interacting with the public

(A.L. Randle, personal communication; August 31, 1989). In recognition of this policy, it appears the Swedish Police establishment may have a more realistic interpretation of the police role.

With this in mind, requiring a record of high academic achievement in language arts, social science, psychology, and human behavior appears worthy of serious consideration. When combined with psychological screening, which is common in the United States (Hargrave & Brewer, 1986; Hooker, 1988) and curiously absent in the Swedish system, this approach may provide a more meaningful assessment of applicants and their likelihood of success in policing. Conversely, such a policy may exclude applicants who lack sufficient grades in these subjects, but might have gone on to perform well as police officers anyway. To evaluate the validity of this requirement, additional research to examine possible relationships between grades earned and job performance should be undertaken.

Training presented in Basic Courses I and II provides over 2,300 hours of classroom and practical training, which amounts to nearly one-half of the program overall. In addition to usual instruction in areas such as police skills, criminal law, physical fitness and self defense, Swedish recruits receive 274 hours of instruction in social science and human relations subjects, including 110 hours in psychology and psychiatry. In comparison, American recruits are required to complete an average of only 19 hours of human

relations training (Meadows, 1989).

Courses in the social and behavioral sciences, such as those presented in the Swedish recruit training program, are believed to better prepare police officers to perform the delicate tasks of policing. This argument was advanced by Earle, who wrote:

> Preparation of the police force today and tomorrow necessitates both training and education; ability to read and write, physical health, skill in self-defense, authority to subdue and shoot, no matter how diligently executed are not enough to protect the community against the hazards of crime and delinquency. Police need knowledge of themselves and others they deal with (1967: 78).

Training to promote understanding of the emotional needs of those who summon police to intervene in conflict situations is an important aspect of the Swedish program. A study by Janus, Bess, Cadden & Greenwald (1979) concluded that police officers benefit from courses in psychology and psychiatry, as officers trained in these areas are more able to handle disturbed persons safely, with less probability of injury to themselves and private citizens. An argument advanced by Janus, et al, that officers benefit from a heightened awareness of mental illness is summarized, as follows:

> "Police officers, by developing awareness of mental illness seem to develop empathy with, and can relate more comfortably to mental patients and citizens who are in stress situations (1979: 31).

Training police officers to deal with persons suffering from emotional illnesses is of vital importance, as police

officers are often the first to come in contact with and observe acute emotional distress, long before patients are seen by psychologists, psychiatrists, or hospital staff. Training in behavioral sciences often allows officers to furnish treatment providers with accurate assessments of bizarre behavior, which has often subsided by the time patients have arrived for treatment (Janus, et al., 1979).

The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals also recognized the benefits of instruction in these areas, and remarked:

> "New police officers take courses in sociology, psychology, and related subjects in order to gain understanding of human values and problems. This knowledge makes the policeman more effective, increases his personal satisfaction, and reduces tension in public encounters (1973: 394).

Of particular interest in the Swedish program is the 18-month practical phase, particularly the segment which includes 910 hours of exposure to social welfare and service agencies. In this segment, exposure to social problems and crisis situations is designed to prepare recruits for encounters with citizens in difficult or emotionally charged situations, to familiarize recruits with the functions and limitations of these agencies, and to aid in the development of problem-solving skills through a more intimate understanding of social problems. This approach has also been recognized by the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, in citing a similar program operating on a smaller

scale in Oakland, California:

> Oakland conducts many of its community awareness programs at community locations with public representatives. Each recruit learns the problems involved in seeking help from government and community organizations by seeking help himself and by working 1 day with a local social service agency (1973: 395).

While techniques similar to those introduced in the Swedish program have been utilized in the United States for at least twenty years, the 910 hour commitment integrated into the Swedish curriculum sets it apart from American programs. The National Advisory Commission (1973) remarked, however, that such approaches are "often expensive, time-consuming, and fraught with administrative headaches."

Problem-solving scenarios conducted in Swedish recruit training are also geared to prepare officers for encounters with citizens in difficult or emotionally charged situations. These exercises are carried out with much attention to detail, and are very realistic. Similar scenarios conducted in Minneapolis received favorable reviews from the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1973). In Minneapolis, recruits were placed in controlled confrontations in the community with selected representatives. The results were positive, both from the standpoint of the police department as well as from members of the community, as reported by the Commission:

> The local community has accepted the agency's sincerity in its attempt to develop new police officers rather than indoctrinate them. Many trainees said the experiences prepared them for their tasks better than any lecture. None of the 100 men from these classes receiving this training has had any public complaint alleging improper treatment lodged against him (1973: 395).

Placing trainees in the roles of private citizens during problem-solving scenarios appears to be an effective method of increasing awareness. Many recruits stated they gained a fresh perspective on how it feels to be involved in incidents requiring police intervention. Nearly all those interviewed expected their experiences in problem-solving scenarios to be helpful when responding to disputes and assistance calls in the field.

Among the most interesting aspects of the Swedish police recruit training program are the elaborate theme exercises. The realism and attention to detail of the reenactments of criminal incidents and emergency situations is quite impressive. The focus on stress management and the appreciation for supervision and leadership strategies should allow recruits to better understand and respond to critical incidents in the field. Of particular interest is the exercise which allows recruits and command officers to work jointly to solve an organizational problem. Recruits and commanders alike have given overwhelmingly positive evaluations of this exercise, frequently citing the benefits of a free exchange of opinions without inherent pressures often associated with on-the-job interactions. Recruits, in

particular, favor this approach, as many find it easier to offer criticism of their commanders in a training environment than during encounters in the field.

In summary, police recruit selection and training strategies implemented by the Swedish Police appear to be based on realistic interpretations of the police role. The basic recruit training program has been carefully designed to prepare recruits for the human service role of law enforcement, as well as the law enforcement function. While it appears likely that virtually all of the social role training strategies implemented in the Swedish program have been executed by police agencies in the United States at one time or another, the difference lies in the *emphasis* on these strategies. Simply stated, the Swedish program allocates 1,284 hours to the study of social and behavioral sciences, which amounts to 25 percent of the curriculum overall. In comparison, American recruit training programs merely dabble in these disciplines, requiring a mean of only 19 hours in human relations training, which amounts to 5 percent overall.

To suggest the importation of the Swedish training program to the United States would be unrealistic, however. First, and perhaps foremost, any training program lasting 33 months and consuming over 5,000 hours would be enormously expensive, and beyond the means of practically all law enforcement agencies in the United States. Unlike Sweden, the United States has neither a national police force nor the proportionate tax base created by a social welfare state. In

addition, it is highly unlikely that American law enforcement agencies would be willing to make such a lengthy time commitment to the training of police personnel. On the other hand, in consideration of court judgements levied in lawsuits against police for employing excessive force or failing to provide adequate training, American police agencies must decide whether to pay now - or to pay later. In the Rodney King case, for example, the direct judgement amounted to $3.8 million, and indirect costs to the City of Los Angeles may have reached the tens of millions of dollars. These funds could have paid for a great deal of training. Proactive approaches, including training programs designed to better equip officers to respond to emotionally charged incidents, are likely to reduce the frequency of injuries to the police and public, while also curtailing exposure to civil liability.

Many aspects of the Swedish system are worthy of implementation. For example, role playing scenarios, which stress dispute resolution, should be given particular attention in police recruit training programs, as should training related to the subjects of psychology, psychiatry, human relations, and crisis intervention. While one could argue that instruction in these subjects is available to American criminal justice students in college prior to employment, research by Carter, Sapp & Stephens (1989) found that only about 14 percent of police departments in the United States require educational achievement beyond high school. Recognition of these facts, however, also tends to support the

argument that police officers should be college educated.

The potential benefits of exposure to social service agencies, albeit on a smaller scale than those in operation in Sweden, should also be explored. Observations of the Swedish approach, as well as similar programs in the United States, suggest that both police officers and members of the citizenry can realize substantial benefit from these programs. In consideration of the relative scarcity of such programs in the United States, agencies should be encouraged to experiment with similar strategies and, ideally, criminal justice researchers should respond by providing their resources to evaluate the effectiveness of such programs.

Selection and Training of of Police Commissioners in Sweden

The selection process endeavors to identify bright individuals who possess leadership and management skills. In having the option of selecting the candidates externally, the organization widens the pool of potential candidates substantially. This policy enables the SNPB to select promising prospects who have already established themselves as legal professionals, and have demonstrated leadership abilities. A possible benefit to selecting candidates externally is that these individuals may offer fresh and, perhaps, innovative approaches to the organization and its complexities.

Providing the coursework at a central facility allows

candidates from districts nationwide to meet, exchange ideas and socialize with one another. Such an arrangement is believed to result in camaraderie and future cooperation (A.L. Randle, personal communication; September 18, 1989).

The initial coursework at the Police College provides a general introduction to police duty and administration, much of which is similar to basic police management programs offered in the United States. The addition, however, of the segment concerning the fundamentals of police operations is necessary to provide inexperienced candidates with an understanding of the elements of police patrol and responses to calls for service.

The practical phase of the Swedish training program endeavors to provide a wide range of practical knowledge and experience. The initial eight-month segment, during which candidates perform managerial tasks under the watchful eye of local police commissioners, is not unlike methods employed in the United States, albeit under different circumstances. In similar fashion, command officers in the United States, such as police captains, precinct commanders and deputy chiefs, perform managerial duties under the direction of superior officers during daily operations, although not in the context of formal training programs. A more formal approach is necessary in the Swedish system as the majority of police commissioner candidates have no police supervisory experience.

The remaining 17 months of the practical phase bears no resemblance to command officer training programs offered in

the United States. This segment introduces candidates to the inner workings of the court system by firsthand involvement as a fundamental cog in the machinery. Of particular interest is the four-month assignment to the position of assistant prosecuting attorney. Such experience is likely to provide a unique perspective of the manners in which criminal cases proceed through the court system, including the variety of decisions which must be reached in the process. When coupled with the instruction obtained in law school, this training should be of great value, particularly as it relates to the formation of police policies, procedures, rules and orders. This experience should also result in a number of personal contacts throughout the court system, which may later prove advantageous in forging working relationships.

The practice of candidates returning to the Police College for Police Commissioner Course II following the practical phase allows for the exchange of information concerning their respective experiences and challenges, and for the reinforcement of concepts learned in both the practical phase and Course I. In addition, the candidates are more likely to understand and place into context the advanced subjects offered in Course II, in particular the management development and financial administration courses, having been exposed to these matters in actual practice.

During the course of this study, interviews were conducted with dozens of Swedish police officers, of all ranks. While many officers voiced freely their complaints

about police work and the police organization, very few expressed opinions that requiring a law degree of police commissioner applicants was inappropriate, and nearly all characterized police commissioners as hard working, competent and effective.

For example, in Falkenberg, where approximately one-half of the officers were interviewed, the police commissioner received a unanimous approval rating. These officers spoke of their district as having a high level of morale, and many described their commissioner (who had no police experience prior to entry into the police commissioner training program) as an effective and innovative leader. Officers assigned to patrol duty in the Stockholm district were not quite as favorable, although the vast majority of those interviewed supported commissioner selection criteria and characterized their commissioners as good performers. Nationwide, the majority of officers interviewed believed that the ideal combination of schooling and experience is a law school education *and* several years of police experience prior to entry into the police commissioner training program. While the results of these informal inquiries suggest that the SNPB policy of appointing only law school graduates and providing substantial training appears to have served Sweden well, empirical research would be necessary to measure the performance of police commissioners more reliably.

One cannot ignore, however, that inherent disadvantages may be present in the Swedish model. First, in requiring

prospective candidates to possess a law degree, the organization automatically excludes those who have performed well as operating police officers, and might have gone on to succeed as police commissioners. Such a policy may also have a negative impact on morale, as officers may be disheartened in knowing that without a law degree, they cannot progress beyond the rank of *Kommissarie* [Precinct Commander]. After reaching this rank, the "carrot in front of the donkey" may disappear, and along with it the motivation to perform at maximum capability.

Another issue which deserves closer examination is the *validity* of the law degree requirement. In other words, is there any evidence which suggests that *lawyers* make better police commissioners? Do those who have completed a law school education necessarily perform better than those who have studied other disciplines, such as business administration, public administration, or the social sciences? To evaluate the law degree standard, task analysis studies should be performed to identify the nature and extent of activities performed by police commissioners, and empirical research which measures relationships between legal education and job performance should be undertaken.

The policy of requiring police chiefs to complete a law school education is unusual by U.S. standards. While the public is likely to support the concept of police chiefs sending themselves through law school, it is less likely that taxpayers will be willing to pay for it. To require police

chiefs to have law degrees would raise another interesting question: Are we willing to turn over yet another government entity to attorneys? This concept is almost certainly more palatable to Swedes than Americans, as Sweden has not experienced the civil litigation crisis which has plagued the United States in recent years, and Swedes have a relatively favorable opinion of attorneys and the legal profession (Becker and Hjellemo, 1976).

In addition, questions of whether individuals with no background in law enforcement possess sufficient knowledge of the police organization cannot be ignored. While it is clear that the Police College provides a strong theoretical background and practical training, the saying, "There is no substitute for experience," is worthy of consideration. The ability of the Swedish training program to address and compensate for lack of experience may be critical to the success of aspiring police commissioners, and it appears that the substantial practical phase was designed with this in mind.

To suggest that the Swedish model be implemented in the United states would be unrealistic. The fragmented nature of American law enforcement, with thousands of federal, state and municipal agencies of various sizes, needs and resources, would make such an expensive and time consuming program impractical. Some of the concepts embodied in the Swedish model are worthy of consideration, however.

Selecting command officers externally, including those

with no law enforcement experience, is an intriguing concept. Advocates of the Swedish model might suggest that, given proper training and practical experience, those who have succeeded as leaders in the professional arena may also provide effective leadership in a law enforcement environment. Such an argument would contradict conventional wisdom that administrative and supervisory police experience is the key to successful police management, as suggested by Parker, who stated:

> It is mandatory that the chief administrative officer of the police department be a person with an extensive administrative and supervisory background. The chief will be ultimately responsible for the preparation of the police department budget and the overall direction that the department takes. Such responsibility demands significant administrative experience. The chief must be able to call on a vast storehouse of supervisory skills (1982: 42).

Mandatory training and retraining for police executives is also worthy of consideration. While a number of command colleges and institutes in the United States currently provide executive development programs, the practice of requiring law enforcement executives to attend is unusual. As a result, relatively few are fortunate enough to reap the benefits of these programs. While the fragmented nature of American law enforcement would make a national policy on executive development impractical, individual agencies should periodically evaluate their training policies and priorities, weigh the potential benefits of management training, and give

prime consideration to training programs which enhance the professionalism of chief executives.

CHAPTER X

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The objective of this study is: (1) To identify specific problems related to the selection and training of law enforcement personnel in the United States; (2) To provide a basic description and analysis of Swedish police personnel selection and training models; (3) To assess the applicability of policies implemented in the Swedish system to law enforcement agencies in the United States; and, (4) To serve as a preliminary step to be followed by more rigorous research.

The absence of empirical research related to the Swedish model would appear to weaken proclamations surrounding the apparent successes of Swedish strategies, or those calling for the implementation of such policies in the United States. In addition, the vast differences in the sociopolitical systems, as well as considerations related to racial and ethnic make-up of the two nations should not be ignored. In other words, in addition to arguments cited in Chapter IX, Sweden and the United States are worlds apart, and generalizations based upon approaches which have been successful in Sweden may have no relevance or applicability in the United States.

This, however, should not preclude further research on the Swedish model. Empirical research to measure relationships between Swedish selection and training strategies, and variables such as citizen satisfaction with the police, fear of crime, victimization rates, police personnel performance ratings, the application of force, the nature and frequency of citizen complaints, or job task analysis, should be undertaken in an attempt to assess the effectiveness of Swedish police personnel selection and training programs.

In the United States, studies which have examined the nature of calls for police service have made it abundantly clear that police officers devote far more effort to social service than to all other functions. Additional research should attempt to identify and evaluate entry level selection and training strategies which place an emphasis on human relations skills and training, or other approaches which have been specifically tailored to enhance the abilities of police officers to exercise proficiency in the social role of policing. Such research findings could be directed toward the implementation of policies designed to reduce or eliminate the disparity that exists between training curricula and the true nature of policing, and to staff American police agencies with personnel who will serve their communities in a more safe, effective, and professional manner.

The issues surrounding police executive selection and training strategies have, unfortunately, received far less

attention than those concerning line personnel. As a starting point, task analysis studies could provide useful data which could assist in the identification and development of particular skills which are beneficial to police managers. Such data should also prove particularly valuable in the formation of training programs tailored to the development of police management skills, while also providing a foundation for further research.

Is it possible, or likely, that those who have established proven track records of proficiency in leadership, management, financial administration, social service, or public affairs, although lacking experience in law enforcement, may also demonstrate proficiency in leading American law enforcement agencies if provided with sufficient training and organizational support? This question shall remain unanswered unless police agencies are willing to assume the risks associated with such innovative, uncharted undertakings.

Police personnel selection and training strategies, as factors which will have a direct influence on the future of American law enforcement agencies, should continue to be a particular focus as law enforcement heads into the twenty-first century. To take full advantage of opportunities to produce meaningful change, however, law enforcement practitioners and researchers must acknowledge that many solutions to problems facing law enforcement agencies are likely to be discovered beyond American borders. In addition,

police agencies must recognize that the future of American law enforcement will present unforseen challenges to which the application of "traditional" strategies may be ineffective. In response, police agencies must be encouraged: (1) To explore non-traditional approaches to embrace the dynamics of these challenges; (2) To reward those who succeed in the application of innovative strategies; and, (3) To provide encouragement - not discouragement - those who fail in their endeavors to produce positive change.

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