

67-447

ABSTRACT

THE DEVELOPMENT OF MODEL TRAINING AND CONTINUING EDUCATION CURRICULUM AND SUPPORTING RATIONALE FOR A CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM SERVING A METROPOLITAN REGION

By

Vernon Eugene Rich

The volume of crime, the failure of crime prevention and rehabilitation, racial unrest and social conflict in the United States have given impetus to the development of a new field of study or discipline being called justice or criminal justice. Awareness of a "criminal justice system" and its apparent failure as a system has led to federal legislation, research, more expenditures and other similar efforts to prevent the failure of the system. Out of these efforts has emerged a gradually increasing concern for the education and training of personnel comprising the system.

This study develops the major curriculum criteria, their supporting rationale and curriculum modules for an organization composed of four criminal justice centers and an institute serving approximately 240 political subdivisions located in the seven county metropolitan area surrounding

and including Detroit, Michigan. The centers are located at community colleges and the institute is located at a major state university. Approximately 18,300 public criminal justice personnel are located in the seven county region and constitute the study population. The development of the centers and institute was treated as an assumption and two centers had come into being by the time of completion of the study.

A major aspect of the problem selected for the study was the need for a theoretical conceptualization of the field or emerging discipline for educational and training purposes. Such a conceptualization was provided by using a Venn diagram. The intercept functions of a Venn diagram schematically depict the influences and overlap of each subsystem upon each other. The intercept feature also formed the basis for the classification scheme needed for the content modules.

Included as a part of the organization, which was assumed to exist for purposes of the study, is a change team composed of change strategists charged with the responsibility of planning, directing and evaluating change brought about directly and indirectly through training and education. The proposed curriculum criteria reflect the constant concern for change and the need for creating a climate in the field or discipline receptive to change.

The study consisted of (1) a census of all personnel in the region followed by a grouping or clustering of similar positions, (2) the selection of twenty-two law enforcement, prosecution, correctional and court agencies using a combination of stratified and judgmental sampling techniques to comprise a sample, (3) the field administering of task listing and task description instruments to obtain detailed descriptions and listings of all tasks performed by criminal justice personnel in the region, (4) the clustering of these tasks into modules that form the basis for the curriculum, and (5) the development of criteria and supporting rationale for designing curricula.

The major products of the study were the theoretical conceptualization of criminal justice education, the taxonomy of personnel positions and the task statements, the curriculum criteria and the supporting rationale for the criteria. A major incidental finding was the surprisingly important role of the private sector in providing security for individuals, private business, associations, schools and other groups in society. Inclusion of the private sector in the model makes it more complex, but much more realistic.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF MODEL TRAINING AND
CONTINUING EDUCATION CURRICULUM AND SUPPORTING
RATIONALE FOR A CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM
SERVING A METROPOLITAN REGION

By

Vernon Eugene Rich

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

College of Education
Department of Administration and Higher Education

1971

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

In addition to the criminal justice agency personnel who graciously contributed time, effort and the benefit of their accumulated experience, the contributions of several others primarily during the eighteen months of the project deserve special mention and an acknowledgment of my appreciation.

Professor Ralph Turner, School of Criminal Justice, provided guidance through five years of graduate studies and served as a criminal justice content specialist on the dissertation guidance committee. During this period, he instilled a deep appreciation for quality in justice and the cross-cultural dimensions of justice.

Professor Russell Kleis, major advisor and dissertation director, provided a high degree of concern for academic excellence and supported it with interest, patience and guidance.

Professors Lawrence Borosage, David Heenan and Lawrence McKune, doctoral committee members, provided program guidance and dissertation critiques that offered the benefit of their professional expertise to the emerging field of criminal justice.

Mr. Glenford Leonard, Director, Public Safety Division of the SouthEast Michigan Council of Governments, provided the opportunity to conduct the study in an atmosphere conducive to innovation. Such an atmosphere has constantly surrounded his professional career.

Professor Art Kingsbury provided imagination, insight and a high degree of willingness to induce change among the criminal justice educators and practitioners who participated in the project. His contributions to the study in the area of security and crime prevention deserve specific acknowledgment.

A special note of thanks must be given to Jane, John, Carol, Mike and Karin for their patience and understanding through the years.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ii
LIST OF TABLES	vi
LIST OF FIGURES	vii
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of Problem	13
Objectives of Study	15
Setting of Study	16
Scope and Limitations of Study	22
Assumptions	24
Significance of Study	26
Definition of Terms	29
Organization of Study	40
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	42
Introduction	42
The Consolidated Federal Law Enforcement Training Center Curriculum Study	43
A Feasibility Study to Create a Training Center for Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice Personnel in the State of Hawaii.	48
The Florida Institute for Law Enforcement	57
Bramshill: England's Police College	58
The Institute for Court Management	59
State Training Standards Councils for Police	64
Considerations of Major Educational Models.	66
The Emerging Concept of Andragogy	72
Literature Synthesis	74

Chapter	Page
III. METHODS AND PROCEDURE	78
Introduction	78
Description of Population	78
The Geographical Region	78
The People of the Region	80
The Region's Criminal Justice Agencies and Their Personnel	80
a. The Crime Control Function and Personnel	81
b. The Prosecution Function and Personnel	93
c. The Courts Function and Personnel	96
d. The Corrections Function and Personnel	101
Method and Procedures	105
The Census	108
The Sample	108
The Instruments	111
Compilation	116
Conclusion	122
IV. PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS	124
Introduction	124
A Conceptual Model of Criminal Justice	125
Summary of Task Statements	130
Model Curriculum Criteria and Rationale	150
The Framework of the Model Curriculum	158
Other Findings	173
V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	177
Introduction	177
Summary of Objectives, Method and Findings.	177
Conclusion	180
Implications	182
SELECT BIBLIOGRAPHY	184
APPENDIX	198

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Police and sheriffs departments by number of part-time and full-time sworn personnel as of 1969 for the 240 political subdivisions comprising the seven-county Detroit Metropolitan Region	16
2. Distribution of Region's criminal justice personnel by county and function	81
3. Distribution of Michigan State Police Officers by Posts in Region One in 1968	91
4. The categorization of police and sheriffs' personnel ranks and titles into groups by major type of work required	94
5. Distribution of police and sheriff's personnel by county and job rank in Region One in 1969	95
6. Region One's prosecution personnel by county and major type of work required, 1969	97
7. A categorization of Region One court personnel into groups by major type of work required	101
8. Region One court personnel by major type of work and county, 1969	102
9. Region One correctional personnel by county and major type of work required, 1969	104
10. The categorization of correctional personnel positions or titles into groups by type of work required	105

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. A general view of the criminal justice system	3
2. Assumed organizational plan for the SouthEast Michigan Criminal Justice Institute and Centers	21
3. Instructional system design developed by the Army Security Agency Training Center and School at Fort Devens, Massachusetts . .	44
4. Instructional system design as revised and used by the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center Curriculum Task Force, Washington, D.C.	45
5. Task listing sheet	112
6. Task description sheet	113
7. Code sheet	114
8. Set relationships used to depict the inter-relationships of a criminal justice curriculum	127

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The demands placed upon the contemporary American criminal justice system are unprecedented in magnitude and complexity. The role of the crime control personnel and, more broadly, the total criminal justice system is becoming increasingly difficult to manage because of the volume of crime, the failure of crime prevention and rehabilitation, racial unrest, and social change within American urban communities. This system complexity is increasing for the personnel of the criminal justice system as we see a desire on the part of society to restrict social control agents from constraining desirable social change while at the same time demanding that law and order under justice be maintained. Such expectations require a near "tight-rope" performance by criminal justice personnel.

America's system of criminal justice is not a true system. It is rather a conglomerate of city, village, township, county, state, and federal social control apparatus used to enforce predominant standards of conduct deemed necessary by legislative or parliamentary majorities to protect individuals and the community. The levels of

competence of the personnel that staff these social control mechanisms range from the inept and incompetent to the skilled and well-educated. Many public and private reports have cited the lack of training and education among the personnel who comprise the composite staff as a primary reason for the outdated and dysfunctional criminal justice "system" we now have serving the public.¹

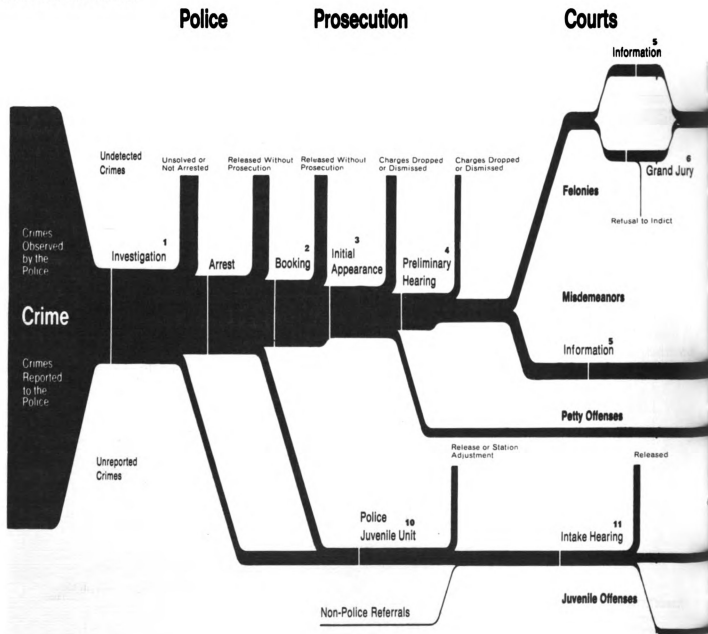
The complexity of the American criminal justice system is suggested by Figure 1, which demonstrates the linear and interdependent relationships between the system's major components--police, prosecution, courts, and corrections. Each of these functional sub-systems has its own distinctive educational and training "standards" for the personnel comprising its staff. For example, lawyers by statute and custom staff prosecution and court agencies; thus, most personnel have a minimum of five and a maximum of generally seven or eight years of formal liberal and professional education and training beyond secondary school. Police forces, on the other extreme, generally are staffed with persons who have no formal education beyond secondary school, a minimal amount of training, and no significant continuing education or in-service training. Correctional personnel

¹Charles B. Saunders, Upgrading the American Police: Education and Training for Better Law Enforcement (Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institution, 1970); and, President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967).

Figure 1. A General Overview of the Criminal
Justice System. (Over)

A general view of The Criminal Justice System

This chart seeks to present a simple yet comprehensive view of the movement of cases through the criminal justice system. Procedures in individual jurisdictions may vary from the pattern shown here. The differing weights of line indicate the relative volumes of cases disposed of at various points in the system, but this is only suggestive since no nationwide data of this sort exists.



1 May continue until trial.

2 Administrative record of arrest. First step at which temporary release on bail may be available.

3 Before magistrate, commissioner, or justice of peace. Formal notice of charge, advice of rights. Bail set. Summary trials for petty offenses usually conducted here without further processing.

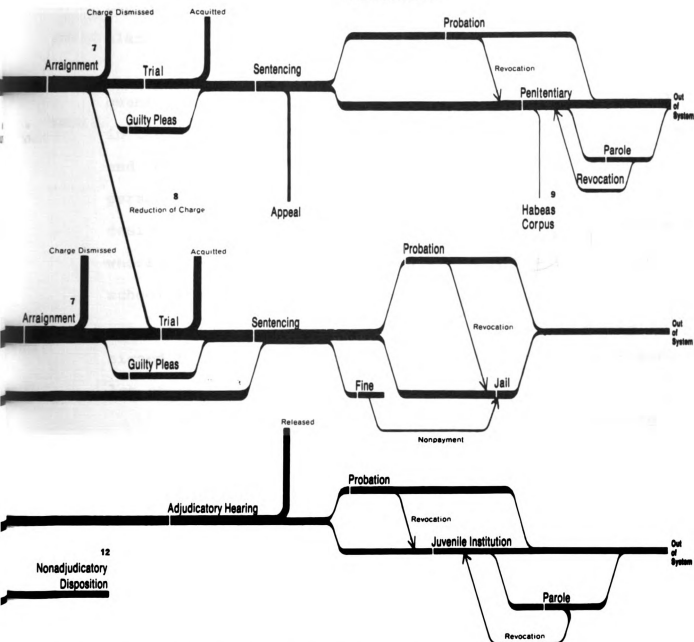
4 Preliminary testing of evidence against defendant. Charge may be reduced. No separate preliminary hearing for misdemeanors in some systems.

5 Charge filed by prosecutor on basis of information submitted by police or citizens. Alternative to grand jury indictment; often used in felonies, almost always in misdemeanors.

6 Reviews whether Government evidence sufficient to justify trial. Some States have no grand jury system; others seldom use it.

Source: The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967), pp. 8-9.

Corrections



7 Appearance for plea; defendant elects trial by judge or jury (if available); counsel for indigent usually appointed here in felonies. Often not at all in other cases.

8 Charge may be reduced at any time prior to trial in return for plea of guilty or for other reasons.

9 Challenge on constitutional grounds to legality of detention. May be sought at any point in process.

10 Police often hold informal hearings, dismiss or adjust many cases without further processing.

11 Probation officer decides desirability of further court action.

12 Welfare agency, social services, counselling, medical care, etc., for cases where adjudicatory handling not needed.

are usually divided into two categories: treatment personnel and custodial personnel. Treatment personnel usually have formal education of four to six years and some degree of on-the-job or intern-type training. Custodial personnel characteristically have a high school diploma or its equivalent with minimal classroom training.

Confusing an understanding of the various types and quantities of training and education possessed by personnel in the criminal justice system is the problem of recruitment and selection programs and standards (especially for police personnel): Police recruitment by virtue of the way it is designed tends to entice and, in fact, does entice applicants who rank primarily in the bottom 25 percent of their high school graduating classes.²

In 1968, Congress enacted and President Johnson signed into law the "Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968." It was designed

to assist state and local governments in reducing the incidence of crime, to increase the effectiveness, fairness, and coordination of law enforcement and criminal justice systems at all levels of government, and for other purposes.³

²Hubert G. Lock, The Detroit Riot of 1967 (Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1969), pp. 150-151.

³The Preamble of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, Public Law 90-351, 90th Congress, June 19, 1968.

This same Act provided for financial grants and loans (forgivable at 25% per year of service to the criminal justice field up to 100%) to students and personnel of the criminal justice system. Other sections of the Act provided for direct block grants to states to provide financial assistance to local units of government to improve the quality of their public service in the area of criminal justice. Top priorities were placed on training in nearly all states.⁴

Congress in the same Act held that crime is essentially a local problem and should be dealt with by the local units of government.

The following is a declaration of the problem as perceived by Congress. It specifies the purposes of the Act:

Congress finds that the high incidence of crime in the United States threatens the peace, the security, and general welfare of the greater safety of the Nation and its citizens. To prevent crime and to insure the greater safety of the people, law enforcement efforts must be better coordinated, intensified, and made more effective at all levels of government.

Congress finds further that crime is essentially a local problem that must be dealt with by State and local governments if it is to be controlled effectively.

It is therefore the declared policy of the Congress to assist State and local governments in

⁴Typical of this nationwide trend to give training needs a high priority was the plan adopted in the Detroit Metropolitan area. The regional planning council for that region recognized the severe need for manpower development programs and requested that 24% of the funds allocated to the region be spent for that purpose.

strengthening and improving law enforcement at every level by national assistance. It is the purpose of this title to (1) encourage States and units of general local government to prepare and adopt comprehensive plans based upon their evaluation of State and local problems of law enforcement; and (2) encourage research and development directed toward the improvement of law enforcement and the development of new methods for the prevention and reduction of crime and the detection and apprehension of criminals.⁵

The high priority placed on training of criminal justice personnel at all levels within each agency is an acknowledgment of the potential impact of training for promoting and implementing the change necessary to meet contemporary needs of the criminal justice system and society. Education of these and future personnel is firmly recognized by the same Act which provides for direct federal assistance to college students preparing for careers in the field.

The amount of federal funds allocated under the Act was \$59 million the first year, and \$268 million for the second year. President Nixon requested \$480 million for the third year and received \$698.4 million. It is anticipated that within the next few years the allocation will exceed \$1 billion annually.

The Act requires that comprehensive plans be developed by local units of government before being eligible to receive action grants. Federal and State administrative directives

⁵Taken from the "Declaration and Purpose" section of Title I--Law Enforcement Assistance of the "Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968," Public Law 90-351, 90th Congress, June 19, 1968.

require regional planning which defines long and short range goals and objectives, action programs, and priorities. The upgrading of criminal justice personnel through training and education is one such goal and probably has the most potential for lowering the crime rate over a long period of time.

To date, the criminal justice agencies of the United States have existed in a non-consolidated, non-systemic, and fragmented fashion with little concern given to the quality of manpower providing services to the public under its auspices. Training programs, both at induction level and continuing, are minimal and provide only the barest essentials. Criminal justice agencies have now reached the point of recognizing that they must recruit, select, and train well-educated manpower and then provide training and education on a continual basis throughout the public career of these criminal justice personnel. The abuses and miscarriages of justice imposed by poorly trained personnel of criminal justice agencies are widely acknowledged and need not be repeated here to provide additional setting for the problem.

The recruitment, selection, education and training of personnel for criminal justice agencies are so interdependent that the problems of each are directly influenced, if not controlled, by the characteristics of the others. For example, poorly qualified personnel generally need a much higher level of training to provide satisfactory job performance while highly qualified personnel generally need

lower levels of training to provide satisfactory performance on the job. Recognizing this interdependency, the educational and training needs of criminal justice personnel are singled out for purposes of this study.

Each of the criminal justice functions has developed independently in terms of its pre-service and post-service education and training pattern. Prosecution and judicial personnel have historically emphasized pre-service legal education except during recent years in which there has been a slowly increasing awareness of the need for minimal in-service training. Legal training has traditionally been provided at the university level following a minimum of two to four years of pre-law liberal arts education. Police and correctional personnel, on the other hand, have generally received no specialized pre-service training. Those who receive training usually receive it after being employed, and they usually receive it at their employer's expense. Further, police and correctional officer training is usually provided by the employer or a group of employers.

The independence of the various functions only compounds the training and education problem. The current training and daily operating procedures of police officers, prosecutors, judges and correctional personnel isolate these functional areas one from the other. Insufficient contact between and among personnel in the different functional areas of the system results in a seriously limited

understanding, within each area, of the roles, problems, failures and successes of those in the other areas of the system, with consequent inefficiency in the use of public resources.

College-level educational programs, both degree and non-degree, have begun to make an impact on the correctional and police functions of criminal justice, but the impact is as yet hardly significant. One police educator describes it:

. . . there have been, and there continue to be, barriers to an optimum relationship between these two great and essential institutions--i.e., universities and law enforcement agencies. As a result of those barriers . . . neither police leadership nor the academic community, nor society as a whole, have been able to realize more than a fraction of the potential benefit.⁶

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice in 1967 was even more blunt:

While considerable progress has been made in recent years on the development of training programs for police officers, the total training effort in this country, when related to the complexity of the law enforcement task, is grossly inadequate.⁷

The Corrections Task Force Report of the same commission stated:

⁶Franklin M. Kreml, "The Role of Colleges and Universities in Police Management," The Police Yearbook, 1966 (Washington, D.C.: International Association of Chiefs of Police, Inc., 1966), p. 34.

⁷The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: The Police (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967) p. 36.

In many areas, corrections remains in the hands of persons without adequate qualifications or training for their tasks. Administrators, even in some cases individual wardens or probation supervisors, are, as noted, often appointed largely on the basis of political considerations. Standards for appointment, and education and training programs to meet them, are badly needed.

At present, the meager training which is available is mostly of an in-service variety. There is need for advanced training in universities.⁸

University level training and educational programs for criminal justice personnel are few in number. Strong feelings exist, both among the personnel of criminal justice agencies and within the universities,⁹ for not working together to meet this need as illustrated by Dr. John Pfiffner:

The academic world is the protagonist [sic] of the police. They have historically been at the opposite end of the spectrum. This polarization occurs because the intellectuals are basically anarchists at heart. They hate authority and are anti-police. Parenthetically, this chasm between these two great socially influential camps is diminishing, due to the professionalism of the police. Not only in the police training academy have great advances been made, but individual officers have raised their level of academic achievement through concerted effort of the university. . . . The police have a legitimate function in the social planning process. By the nature of their responsibilities they are practical sociologists.

⁸Ibid. Task Force Report: Corrections, p. 16.

⁹Peter Lejins, Introducing a Law Enforcement Curriculum at a State University, U.S. Department of Justice, LEAA, National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1970.

The police officer must be trained, his attitudes must be reoriented to consider the social influences he brings about.¹⁰

The lack of or low quality of training and educational programs, both pre-service and in-service, is critical in terms of current efforts to improve our dysfunctional and faltering system of criminal justice. Better training and education are essential foundations for modeling and reshaping our agencies of social control. Few changes in our system can be as effective as recruiting and selecting well-qualified applicants for our criminal justice agencies and providing adequate training to permit high-level job performance.

Statement of Problem

The problem identified for this study is the need to develop a model curriculum and rationale for a manpower development support system designed to serve the criminal justice agencies of a large multi-county metropolitan region. By serving the agencies, it is intended to meet needs of personnel both for performing the job and for growth as individuals; to meet agency and system needs for growth and change; and to insure continual revision, growth and change

¹⁰ Taken from a private interview with Dr. John Pfiffner by Drs. Kenney and Whisenand for publication in Kenneth Coon, et al., "Urban Planning and the Police," Chapter One of John P. Kenney and Paul M. Whisenand, The Environment and Dynamics of Police Administration: Some Considerations (Long Beach: Institute for Police Studies, California State College, 1969), p. 15.

in institutional or agency policy, procedures and practices. The manpower development support system consists of four centers located at four community colleges and coordinated by an institute located at a major university within the metropolitan region. The institute is thus a consortium of major public and non-public universities and colleges within the region.

The support system is organizationally designed to meet the total continuing education and training needs of the local criminal justice agencies within the region. The focus of this study is on the curriculum needed to meet the personnel development needs of the employees, the agencies, and the criminal justice system. Where existing training and educational programs exist, an effort will be made to relate them to the needs of the personnel, the agencies, and the system in order to avoid unnecessary and undesirable duplication.

Essential components of the curriculum design are provisions for inter-functional training, continuing education courses and individualized programming. It is also essential that opportunities for re-cycling be available and that offerings be rather frequently repeated, especially for new employee training.¹¹ Employment of modern educational technology and instructional techniques must also be provided

¹¹This is becoming increasingly important as Michigan, beginning January 1, 1971, required all new police officers to complete an induction level course before they may perform police duties for any political subdivision.

for in the curriculum design.

Objectives of Study

The primary objective of this study was to develop a model curriculum to meet the total personnel development needs of criminal justice agencies serving a large metropolitan region in the United States. It was assumed, as described below, that the organizational support system for a training and continuing education program existed, though it was acknowledged that certain organizational, staffing, and financial changes may be made in the support system depending on the curriculum which is developed. The major criterion for this primary objective was that the curriculum as designed would induce change in the relatively autonomous functions of the criminal justice "system" toward a more synchronized functioning of that system.

Essential instrumental objectives were (1) to identify and define continuing education needs of the criminal justice personnel and agencies are related to

- (a) providing better individual job performance,
- (b) enriching the lives of the personnel as individuals,
- (c) improving the system in terms of its overall goal achievement,

and (2) to develop the rationale and philosophy supporting the model curriculum.

Setting of Study

Fragmentation of political subdivisions in the seven-county metropolitan Detroit area has substantially contributed to the complexity of the training and continuing education needs of criminal justice agencies in the region. Regionalization problems in terms of providing training and educational services for criminal justice personnel would be reduced if only one governmental or political subdivision were involved, but this was not generally considered a desirable alternative by political leaders in the region. Table 1 illustrates the fragmentation phenomenon among the region's police agencies and the relatively high proportion of small agencies.

Table 1. Police and sheriffs departments by number of part-time and full-time sworn personnel as of 1969 for the 240 political subdivisions comprising the seven-county Detroit Metropolitan Region.

Numbers of Political Subdivisions by Numbers and Time of Sworn Personnel									
County	None	Part-Time Only (Villages)	1-5	6- 20	21- 50	51- 100	101- 500	500 +	Total
Livingston	15	1	3	1	1				21
Macomb	9	2	5	3	3	4	2		28
Monroe	15	4	3		1	1			24
Oakland	21	4	7	14	9	3	4		62
St. Clair	19	4	5	2	1	1			32
Washtenaw	15	2	6	2	1	1	1		28
Wayne	5	1	5	7	10	12	4	1	45
Region Totals	99	18	34	29	26	22	11	1	240

Region One in the State of Michigan is a State and Federally recognized planning region¹² and consists of the following seven counties:

Livingston
Macomb
Monroe
Oakland
St. Clair
Washtenaw
Wayne

Region One is also known as the Detroit Metropolitan Region. Its 240 political subdivisions (cities, villages, townships, and counties) in 1970 contained 4,688,712 residents with 1,492,914 of that number located in the city of Detroit. The Detroit holocaust of 1967 remains in the Region's recent history as a grim reminder of the many converging complexities of Metropolitan America of which crime is merely a symptom.¹³ The continually increasing crime

¹²The State of Michigan was divided into 14 planning regions by a 1968 executive order of Governor George Romney. Each region was established considering socio-economic, employment, transportation, etc., factors. These planning region designations were subsequently used to designate planning regions for purposes of the Safe Streets Act.

¹³The Detroit riots of 1967 dramatically demonstrated the need for regional cooperation between the suburban political subdivisions and the central city or megacentropolis. During the intervening years since the riot, several of these same suburban communities have experienced racial disturbances and college demonstrations which have reinforced the need for interjurisdictional cooperation and support. For an excellent treatise of regional approaches to metropolitan problems see: John C. Bollens and Henry J. Schmandt, The Metropolis. (New York: Harper and Row, 1965). A specific case study of the metropolitan approach to regionalism is: Harold Kaplan, Urban Political Systems: A Functional Analysis of Metro Toronto. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1967).

rate of the Region also attests to the need for concerted community and national efforts to reduce the urban blight.

Within the Detroit Metropolitan region, hereinafter referred to as "the Region," there are being established four "Centers" and one "Institute." The Centers will be sub-regional, semi-autonomous training and continuing education resource centers located within selected community colleges.¹⁴ Each Center will provide the following services to criminal justice personnel and agencies within the Region:

- (a) A criminal justice library
- (b) Applied educational and training research support
- (c) Career counseling
- (d) Closed circuit television
- (e) Computer access for
 - (1) Gaming-simulation instruction
 - (2) Computer assisted instruction
 - (3) Information retrieval
 - (4) Management and technician instruction
- (f) Training and continuing education courses.

Each center will have a full-time resident staff to coordinate and administer the services. Instructional staff will generally not be maintained at the Centers.

¹⁴The Wayne County Center will be a consortium of four community (public) colleges located in Wayne County and possibly linked to the Wayne State University Division of Urban Extension.

The Institute will be a consortium of universities and colleges in the Region. Its administrative center will be located at one of the major universities, probably Wayne State University. The Center for the Administration of Justice, a part of the Wayne State University College of Law, will be administratively linked to the Institute and will assume responsibility for the Continuing Legal Education Program of the Criminal Justice Institute. The services of the Institute will be

(a) To provide instructional staff for use by the Centers. Approximately 50% of the instructional staff will be full-time teaching professionals and the remaining 50% will be practitioner professionals from the Region on sabbatical leaves from their respective agencies for periods of time ranging from three months to a year in length, to teach, study, and research.

(b) To provide curricular assistance to the Centers. Curriculum, media and other technical personnel will be housed at the Institute to serve the Centers on a need basis.

(c) To provide regional coordination of the training. The Institute will seek to coordinate course scheduling, the use of instructional resources, etc., to maximize potential services to the criminal justice field.

(d) To provide functional area assistance. Coordinators with academic and occupational experience in the various criminal justice functions will be retained to provide

substantive inputs into Center programs.

(e) To develop instructional materials.

(f) To provide regionwide monitoring, evaluation and certification of training and continuing education. The objective of this service is for continual improvement and updating of services.

The Institute and Centers will be operated semi-autonomously with each having a board of directors. Each facility will be operating under a university, or a college, board of trustees, but the board of directors' function is to keep the facilities and curricula responsive to local concerns. Federal financing with 25 percent local match will be used the first two years to initiate the organization. Figure 2 schematically depicts the organizational structure which was assumed for this study.

The "Change Team" noted on Figure 2 was placed on the organizational chart to depict its anticipated major role in the continuing education and training system. The Institute and Centers represent an effort to create change through education in the criminal justice agencies and their personnel by working from within the system. Numerous changes have been advocated for the system from without the system and have not proven to be very successful. Change from within requires acceptance from within the system, thus a change-oriented institution, which is assumed for this study, must begin with accepted practices, customs and biases and

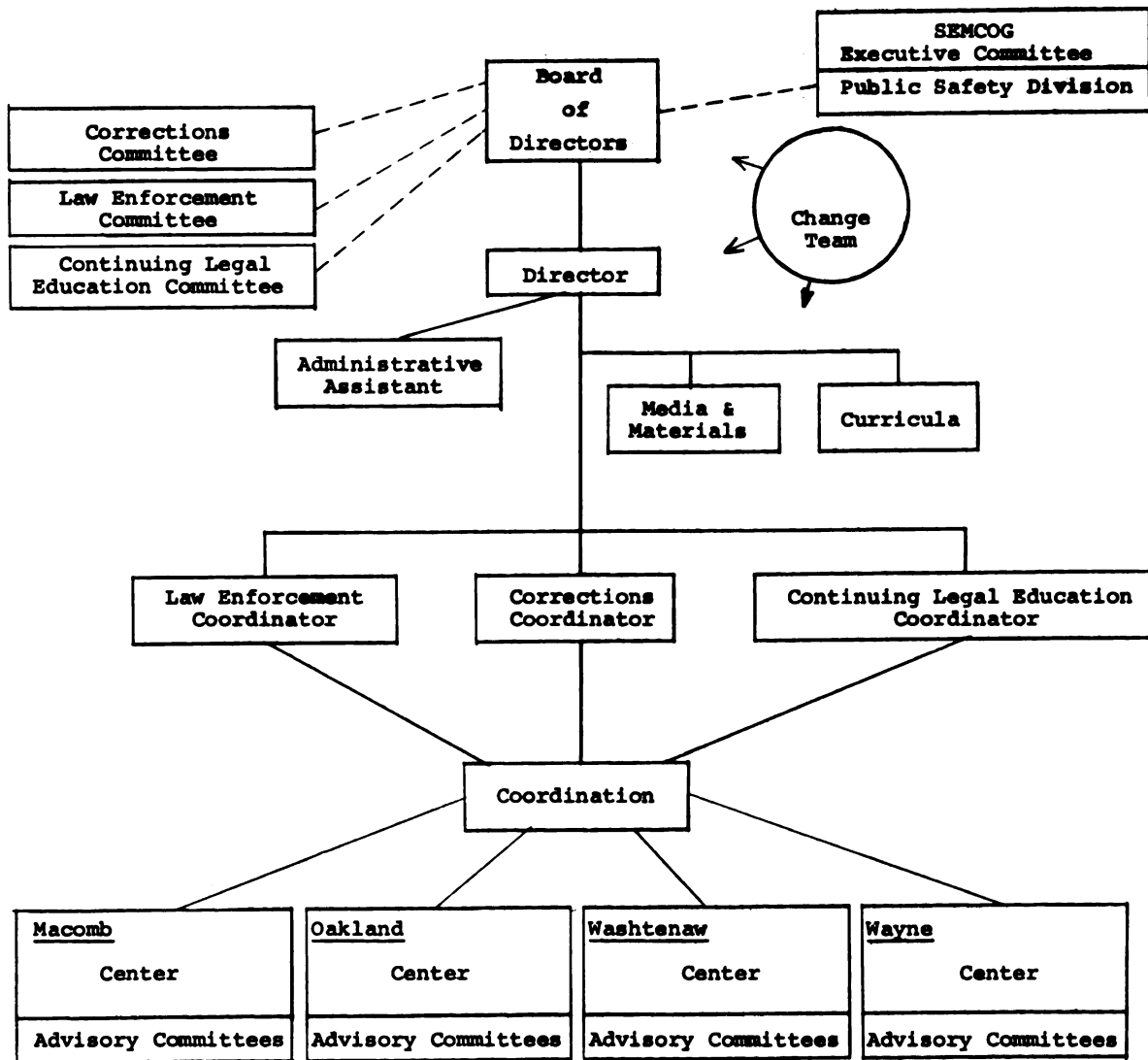


Figure 2. Assumed organizational plan for the SouthEast Michigan Criminal Justice Institute and Centers

work towards a desirable goal. The change team is intended to be comprised of three noted change strategists serving as technical staff to monitor evaluative data and communications essential to provide advisory assistance to staff directing change efforts. Obviously the curriculum will become the primary change device. The change team will structure feed-back mechanisms and constantly evaluate all activities.

Scope and Limitations of Study

The problem selected for this study was essentially a case of curriculum development for personnel development and institutional change.¹⁵ It is a response to a seven-county metropolitan region's need for an integrated plan for continuing education throughout its criminal justice agencies. The problem was and continues to be real, thus, the constraints¹⁶ will not be dealt with in hypothetical

¹⁵ Direct institutional change is not an intended goal of the Institute and Centers, but it is expected that curriculum designs highly conducive to change phenomena from both internal and external sources will greatly facilitate major institutional change, gradually rather than cataclysmically. Two general references on change are: Warren G. Bennis and others, The Planning of Change, 2nd Edition (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969); and Ronald Lippit and others, The Dynamics of Planned Change (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1958).

¹⁶ The political realities existing in the Region were a force acting upon the study and did have impact upon the curricula models, criteria and rationale developed. To precisely identify these political realities is difficult and it is even much more difficult to attempt to quantify their impact upon the curriculum development. Political realities were dealt with in this study just as any other constraint or guiding factor. No efforts were made to conceal or ignore them.

fashion. Certain assumptions were made as a foundation for the study. They provide a framework for the training and education organization, as will be explained.

The diversity and volume of types of personnel in the agencies of criminal justice in the metropolitan Detroit region prevented the making of an exhaustive task-oriented curriculum development study. The curriculum framework was developed, however, as was the rationale and philosophy for its organization, staff, programs, and courses. In the judgment of this investigator the mushrooming field of criminal justice provides insufficient and inadequate curriculum experience from which to draw the needed direction for complete and detailed specification of curriculum content.

Time limitations also dictated the scope of the study. Each of the seven counties was progressing at its own individual rate of speed in becoming involved in the regional effort. Thus, some of the counties were facing curriculum problems while others were just beginning to face the organizational and financial problems of development. Political, inter-agency, interjurisdictional and financial characteristics of each county generally determined its rate of progress toward the regional goal of creating a personnel development capability. The varying rates of progress among counties thus posed another limitation on the study. For purposes of this project, however, the necessary basic

organizational structure was assumed to exist.

It is also important to acknowledge the role of committees, various agency personnel, other planning staff members and various public officials who were active in the development of the Institute and Centers. This study was designed to augment and enhance the efforts of these others to add a curriculum development phase that would not have otherwise been included. By adding a separate curriculum component the total project became a mutually advantageous, shared effort.

Assumptions

1. It was assumed that in a state the size, population, and density of Michigan, the training and continuing education of criminal justice personnel cannot best be done on a local agency basis.¹⁷ This acknowledges that political subdivisions are fragmented and that the majority of them are too small to be able to provide comprehensive training and continuing education services to their own personnel.

2. It was assumed, further, that citizens would prefer that units of local government should provide their own pre-service and in-service training programs or at least be able to have some responsibility in the control and

¹⁷This assumption does not, however, assume nor urge that these small political subdivisions should be amalgamated. Little, if any, economies-of-scale research has been done involving criminal justice services and size of jurisdiction.

direction of such programs which is generally not permitted or feasible if provided by the state.

3. It was assumed that there is a continual, life-long need for training and continuing education for personnel comprising the criminal justice agencies.

4. It was assumed that no constitutionally established form of metropolitan government exists, or is likely in the near future to exist, within the region.¹⁸

5. It was assumed that political subdivision fragmentation is a major problem in terms of systematizing criminal justice services.

6. It was assumed that a region-wide "special service district" would serve as a systematizing vehicle for criminal justice services in much the same way as a metropolitan form of government would do.

7. It was assumed that local, state and federal officials are desirous of the criminal justice system approach to the organization of police, courts, corrections, and prosecution agencies.

8. It was assumed that the organizational framework for providing the training and continuing education programs, which are the objective of this study, has been established and generally defined. This framework, however, is not firmly

¹⁸The SouthEast Michigan Council of Governments was not perceived to be a form of government. It was perceived as being an alternative to a metropolitan form of government or political subdivision consolidation or amalgamation.

entrenched nor so developed that major change cannot be made before the organization and curriculum become operational.

9. The practices, organizational structure, policy and staffing patterns of agencies of criminal justice are far from perfect and they are not likely to improve by themselves. The best route to improvement is to work with the agency administrators and personnel through education for long range improvement.

Significance of Study

If we do not solve what you call the problem of criminal justice, will anything else matter very much?

--Chief Justice Warren Burger¹⁹

Systemically-oriented criminal justice training and continuing education institutions do not exist in the United States.²⁰ As Chief of Police Fred Ferguson, of Covina, California, points out:

. . . in my opinion, no real training program exists which teaches policemen to properly understand and to appreciate the social, economic, ethnic and cultural differences in people and to consciously exercise discretion relative to those differences. . . .

The number one problem in police education and training then, as I see it, is how to properly

¹⁹"Penal Reform: A Crucial Priority," The Wall Street Journal, September 29, 1969, p. 18.

²⁰Bruce Olson, The Study of Law Enforcement Training in the Southeast Michigan Six-County Regions (Detroit, Michigan: Metropolitan Fund, Inc., January, 1968).

teach officers to respect and utilize the cultural differences in people.²¹

Accordingly, no satisfactory model curriculum exists for implementing the criminal justice approach to personnel development.

The entire problem of training, or more broadly-- personnel development--is of major significance nationally. It is recognized as an essential tool for creating and inducing organizational and systemic change. Such potential for achieving the advantages, as well as for creating new problems, is suggested by Schein:

The training itself unleashes some forces within the organization which produce pressures towards change in other parts of the organization, changes which those parts may not be prepared to cope with and interacts with recruitment, selection, and job design. . . .²²

Bienvenn also recognizes the potential of training for change:

In addition to specific job or task effectiveness, the purpose of training becomes one of developing and preserving ability to adapt to change, breadth of knowledge, conceptual understanding, self-motivation, creativity and imagination, self-confidence, and independence in work-- and of instilling in the employee an attitude of confidence and security which permits concentration on superior job performance.²³

²¹Fred Ferguson, "The Number One Problem: What is the Number One Problem in Police Education and Training as You See It?" The Police Chief, August, 1970, p. 16.

²²Op. cit., Schein, p. 41.

²³Bernard J. Bienvenn, New Priorities in Training (New York: American Management, Inc., 1969), p. 81.

Another dimension of the significance of the study is quality. Total and continuous training and education is being recognized as a vital necessity for criminal justice personnel. Few if any programs in existence today are "total" in scope, that is, designed to relate to the trainee's total life and job needs. Further, few programs are continuous or designed to keep the trainee abreast of changes and new developments. Bienvenn²⁴ develops the concept of continuous and total training:

The concept of training, therefore, as held and implemented in many organizations, must give way to the concept of development, or total training. . . . The whole process of training should have total training as its overriding objective, and this concept should be thought of not as a separate phase of training but as playing a significant role in all parts of the process.

The Police Task Force Report²⁵ also identifies the need for total training:

Current training programs, for the most part, prepare an officer to perform police work mechanically, but do not prepare him to understand his community, the police role, or the imperfections of the criminal justice system.

While a liberal education provides the foundation for enlightened leadership, it cannot totally provide the required specialized knowledge of police administration.

²⁴Ibid., p. 80.

²⁵The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: The Police (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967) pp. 138 and 141, respectively.

The demands on administrators, supervisors, or specialists also require advance skills not developed by basic police training and yet, only a few large metropolitan departments provide even a limited amount of executive training. To require vocational training for entry level officers, but not for specialists, supervisors, or administrators within a department, is incongruous.

The vital need to develop a model curriculum and supportive rationale for developing criminal justice personnel is obvious to one viewing the problems of the system and of individual agencies. It is even more obvious when the possibility is considered that the lack of training and education on the part of criminal justice personnel may actually be contributing to many of the current social problems of riots, race relations, student demonstrations and other forms of civil disobedience which are symptomatic of social change.

Definition of Terms

Criminal Justice Systems

"Criminal Justice" during the past decade has come to mean the government system and/or process by which control of deviancy is exercised. It generally includes such services as police, prosecution, courts, corrections, probation, and parole. Prior to the past decade, "criminal justice" usually referred only to the courts which "administered criminal justice," but it is now being viewed as a lineal process for offenders, or in the case of repeat offenders, a cyclical

process. The inter-dependency and inter-relationships of the various functions or processes to each and all others naturally suggest a "systems" approach.

Broadly defined, "Criminal Justice System" refers in the aggregate to those public agencies and officers who are responsible for the fragmented apparatus society uses to enforce the dominant standards of conduct deemed necessary by legislative majorities to protect individuals and various groupings of individuals.²⁶

American Philosophy of Justice

Our system of justice is primarily an adaptation of the English (Anglo-Saxon) system of justice; however, significant differences justify an acknowledgment that there is an American system of justice possessing its own philosophy. The most significant aspect of the American system is the provision for protecting the individual, which is built into the process of determining guilt and imposing punishment. Efficiency and effectiveness are deliberately sacrificed to protect the individual and to preserve local autonomy within the criminal justice system. Authorities generally vary in their opinion of the necessary balance among the rights of

²⁶ Examples of such groupings are the family, the "community," whether it be a city, village, township, parish, county, etc., and the work organization. Each of the groupings given as examples have a certain status in law for promulgating and enforcing group-set standards.

the individual, the powers of local government, and the overall effectiveness of the system and its processes. This aspect of the American philosophy of justice is the foundation of our system. Changes in the system must be scrutinized in light of their potential effect upon this foundation and the "balance" it seeks to maintain.

The President's Commission

In 1965, President Johnson, by Executive Order 11236, established a Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. It was chaired by Attorney General Katzenbach. Several task forces dealing with specific problems or functions of criminal justice were created. These task forces issued reports which are available for public use, and in 1967 the Commission presented its general report to the President, The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society. The report includes recommendations of that blue ribbon committee for reducing the crime problem in America.

Crime Control Act

The Crime Control Act, passed by Congress in 1968, officially titled "Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968," was designed to provide federal aid to local efforts toward: (1) reducing crime on the streets; and (2) improving the criminal justice system. It also created a new office in the Department of Justice entitled the

"Law Enforcement Assistance Administration," commonly referred to as LEAA.

Region One

By Executive Directive Number 1968-1 dated February 12, 1968, Governor Romney divided Michigan into 14 planning and development regions. The Michigan Office of Criminal Justice Programs, under the administration of Governor Milliken, directed that these planning and development regions would be recognized for purposes of criminal justice planning. "Region One" was defined to include Livingston, Macomb, Monroe, Oakland, St. Clair, Washtenaw, and Wayne Counties. The Region has approximately 4.8 million residents in an area of 4,600 square miles. Its political subdivisions are counties, cities, townships, villages and several special purpose service districts created by the Michigan Legislature.

Corrections Function

The corrections function in Michigan is generally considered to be a state responsibility, but very significant county and city correctional efforts exist. The county sheriffs have certain correctional responsibilities along with other police and court responsibilities, and cities exercise major correctional responsibilities. "Corrections" usually refers to detention, punitive, and rehabilitative roles, but the relative predominance of roles varies widely

among units and levels of government, as well as regionally within the State. Probation and parole services are usually considered a part of the corrections function, but they are frequently treated as elements of the court's function within the criminal justice system.

Court's Function

The court's function is the responsibility of the Michigan Judicial System. The 1963 Michigan Constitution created a relatively unified judicial system under the "general superintending control" of the Supreme Court. It must be pointed out, however, that the Michigan Judicial System has many responsibilities and duties beyond its criminal justice obligations.

The state judicial system is composed of the Supreme Court, the courts of appeals, circuit courts, probate courts, Records Court (Detroit), Common Pleas Court (Detroit), district courts, and municipal courts. Court-appointed counsel is considered a part of the court function in Michigan, even though some legal aid and private defender agencies exist. Probation and parole, as previously noted, are frequently considered elements of the court's function although more commonly classified as corrections.

Police Function

Certain policing functions exist at all levels of government whether it be federal, state, county, city, village, township, or special units of government such as a public authority or a state institution. Primary responsibility for policing is reserved to the state, but the responsibility is generally delegated in varying degrees to the local units of government. Counties usually exercise their police authority and responsibilities through the elective office of sheriff. Charter townships are required to provide police services and usually do so by providing a police department of their own or by contracting for police services from another governmental unit (usually the county sheriff). Non-charter townships usually have either (1) no police service, (2) a constable who performs very limited police services, or (3) a contractual arrangement with another governmental unit, depending upon their particular need for police services. City units of government usually have permanent, full-time police departments ranging in size in relation to city population and size. Villages usually provide some type of police service varying from part-time police, volunteer police, or marshals, to small full-time police departments, depending upon the size of the village and its need for police service. County sheriffs and the Michigan State Police have full and original policing authority (by state statutes) within the county and

state, respectively, and provide overlapping and frequently duplicate coverage.

Police services vary widely but usually include crime prevention, the detection of crime by police observation or citizen reports, offense investigation, offender apprehension, and preparation for prosecution. Many other services of a non-criminal nature are also provided by the police.

Prosecution Function

Prosecution is also a responsibility of the executive division of our government. Prosecutions under state or county criminal statutes are handled by the county prosecutor or special prosecutors assigned by the Attorney General's Office at the state level. Most criminal prosecutions occur at the county level and are handled by the county prosecutor, an elected officer of county government. Prosecution under city, village, or township criminal statutes is usually handled by an attorney retained by the responsible unit of government.

Prosecution duties at the county level are fairly uniform in that the prosecutor serves as the people's representative in criminal cases before the courts. The quality and quantity of services provided by prosecutors vary widely depending generally upon the size of the population served. The prosecutor also has duties of a non-criminal nature.

System

"System" refers to a purposeful organization of functions and elements united and ordered to accomplish specific objectives. This organization may consist of several sub-systems and functions which are relatively independent but have certain ties, relationships, or duties to other sub-systems and functions. Each function in turn may be composed of several relatively separate units frequently called elements. In terms of criminal justice, the entire organization of components in the process make up what is referred to here as a "system." It must be emphasized, however, that the system concept, when applied to criminal justice, is relatively new and will require additional definition before practitioner and public acceptance is complete. The term "process" more accurately describes what is being referred to as a "system" of criminal justice.

Urban Area

"Urban Area" refers to those geographical areas populated to the degree that extensive open areas are not frequently found. "Urban area" is generally considered synonymous with the term "metropolitan area," although the latter more precisely refers to a composite of adjoining political subdivisions with a large central city.

A "megapolitan"²⁷ area is a grouping of adjoining metropolitan areas. A "megacentropolis" is the central city in a megapolitan area.

Urban Fringe

The transitional zone between the urban and the rural areas is referred to as the urban fringe. Usually the characteristics of both rural and urban life are found in this transitional area.

Comprehensive Criminal Justice Planning

Currently the United States has no validated models of fully comprehensive planning for crime control. Comprehensive planning objectives should be clear in that plans must consider and represent all aspects of criminal justice administration such as police, courts, corrections, prosecution, citizen action, and crime prevention. Comprehensive planning must also integrate the work of all agencies and levels of government having criminal justice responsibilities in the planning jurisdictions. A properly developed and accepted comprehensive criminal justice plan will provide a framework for action programs and an improved capacity for coordinated regional and local action programs. It must also be realistic, practical, and meaningful. The

²⁷See Bollens and Schmandt, Op.Cit., pp. 37-39, 582-584.

planning process usually includes the following components or steps:

- (1) Identify the problems
- (2) Identify the goals and objectives
- (3) Identify resources
- (4) Develop alternatives for problem solution
- (5) Weigh alternatives and make recommendations
- (6) Establish priorities
- (7) Implement decisions
- (8) Evaluate and revise.

Education and Training

The term "education" is frequently used synonymously with "training" by some authorities, but is generally distinguished by the majority of authorities. For purposes of this report, "education" refers to all purposeful, intentional teaching and learning with a design that prepares individuals to be individuals in a society. Training is that component of education that is intended to prepare individuals to assume certain task-oriented roles in industry, business, public service, the professions or elsewhere. Training is defined to be a part of education, and education encompasses much more than training.

Manpower Development

"Manpower Development" is broader than training and differs from both education and training in terms of

objectives or goals. The objective of public service management and administration is to develop manpower to (1) do specific work-tasks, (2) be prepared for new, additional, and/or higher level job assignments, (3) mature and develop as individuals, and (4) build a stable organization of individuals to serve the public. To achieve these objectives, manpower development involves colleges, universities, employer-operated training programs, and numerous continuing education institutions in all forms of training and education.

MLEOTC

The Michigan Law Enforcement Officers' Training Council was created in 1965 by the Legislature. It administers a voluntary state program which sets police training standards, provides some training programs, and disburses limited state funds for the purpose of police training. In August, 1970, Governor Milliken signed into law amendments which make mandatory six weeks of training for all new police officers in police agencies which employ more than three men. Public police officers are now, for the first time in history, required to be "licensed" by the State of Michigan.

Office of the Criminal Justice Programs

This is the state agency designated by the Governor to allocate funds to local units of government under the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 for the State of Michigan. Primary funding for the Region One training capability is expected to come from this source. Discretionary funding is also available directly from the Department of Justice under the Safe Streets Act of 1968.

Vocational Education and Training

Education and training which is predominantly occupational in orientation is generally deemed to be vocational education. Professional schools are defined to be a form of vocational education for this study. The proportion of instruction devoted to occupational performance in relation to that devoted to liberal studies usually determines whether a course or program of study is deemed to be vocational or not.

Organization of Study

Chapter I is an introduction to the study report. It identifies the problem, its significance and scope, the objectives of the study, assumptions and definitions.

Chapter II is a review of selected literature. The primary sources are reports of significant curriculum design and research efforts. Secondary sources are reference items

concerned with factors which determined or influenced curriculum decisions in the various models employed.

The study design, presented in Chapter III, includes a population description, a task analysis, a personnel classification scheme, and the identification and delineation of significant influence variables.

Chapter IV includes a description of the techniques used to analyze the tasks identified in the personnel sampling phase, a description and explanation of the proposed model curriculum criteria supporting rationale, and other findings incidental to major study objectives.

A summary of the problem, methodology, and findings and the conclusions and implications of the study for the criminal justice system, the training and continuing education field, and other studies is presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The primary sources used to create a foundation for this study are reports of research, studies, and significant field applications in developing curriculum for the criminal justice functions. Secondary sources were reference items focusing on the various factors which determine or influence curriculum development decisions.

Introduction

Comprehensive criminal justice training and continuing education curricula do not exist in the United States. Training and continuing education programs and courses for the field, almost without exception, focus on the separate functions of criminal justice--the police, courts, prosecution and corrections. Accordingly, the only curriculum research available, scarce though it may be, is functionally oriented. This study is directed specifically at system-oriented training and continuing education.

The Consolidated Federal Law
Enforcement Training Center
Curriculum Study.¹

In September, 1967, a recommendation by the U.S. Bureau of the Budget led to creation of the Center in which the police personnel of about twenty federal agencies could receive required training in a single, modern training facility designed to meet the agencies' individual and collective needs. A "systems approach" was selected as the most effective and efficient technique of developing curriculum within the Center. The technique was adapted from an instructional system design used by the Army Security Agency Training Center and School at Fort Devens, Massachusetts. The original design is reproduced here as Figure 3. The system design accepted by the Task Force is represented in Figure 4.

The "systems"² approach is oriented toward job needs with emphasis on what material students need to learn to perform specific tasks, what facilities best provide a setting for the necessary training, and what instructional methods and media best instruct the student. The focus is

¹U.S. Civil Service Commission, Bureau of Training, Application of a Systems Approach to Training: A Case Study. Training Systems and Technology Series: No. 11 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1969).

²Two general references to the systems approach are (1) C. West Churchman, The Systems Approach (New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1968), (2) Bela H. Banathy, Institutional Systems (Palo Alto, California: Fearon Publishers, 1968).

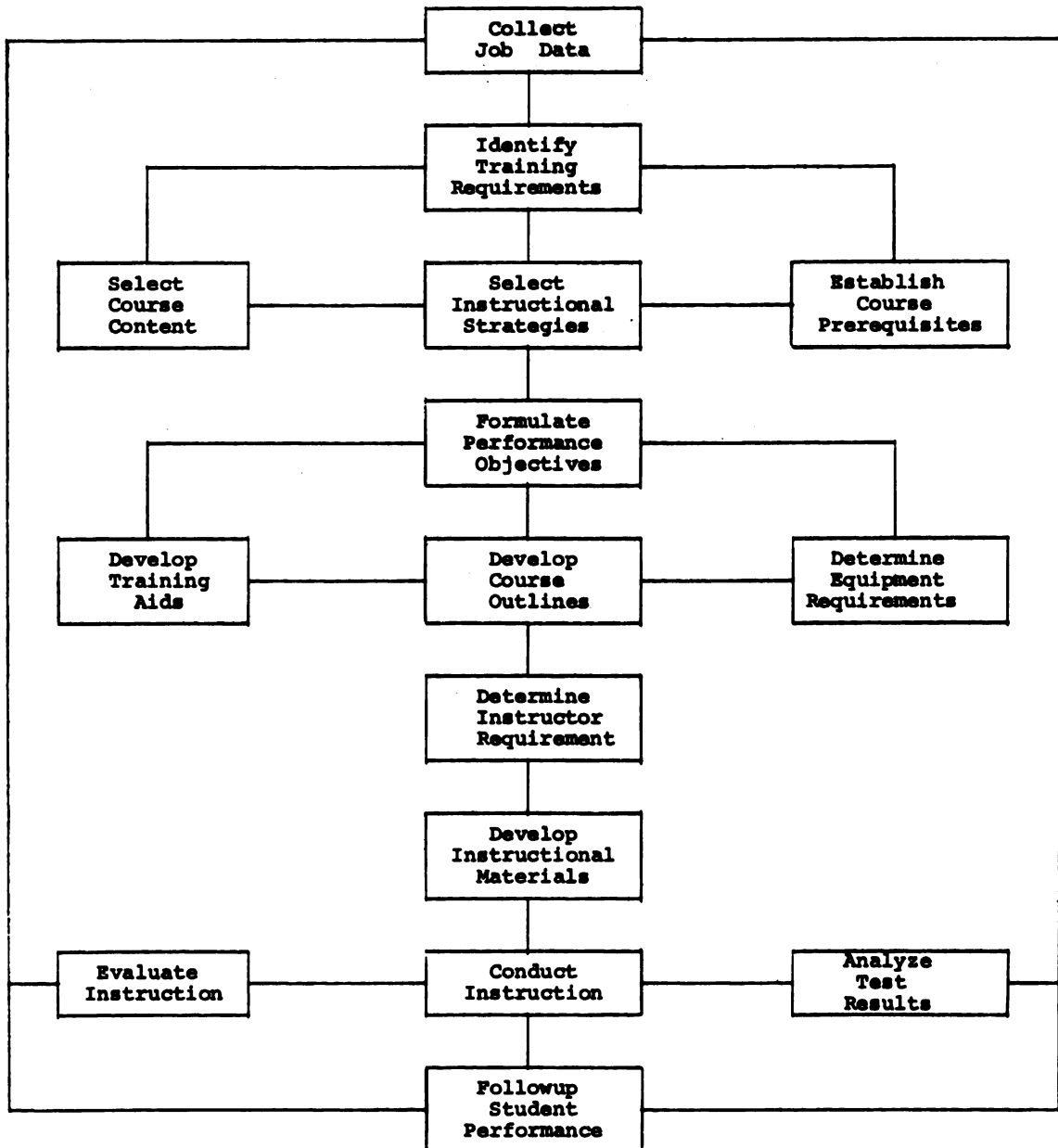


Figure 4. Instructional System Design as revised and used by the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center Curriculum Task Force, Washington, D.C.

Source: U.S. Civil Service Commission, Bureau of Training, Application of a Systems Approach to Training, Training Systems and Technology Series: No. 11 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1969) Exhibit B, p. 7.

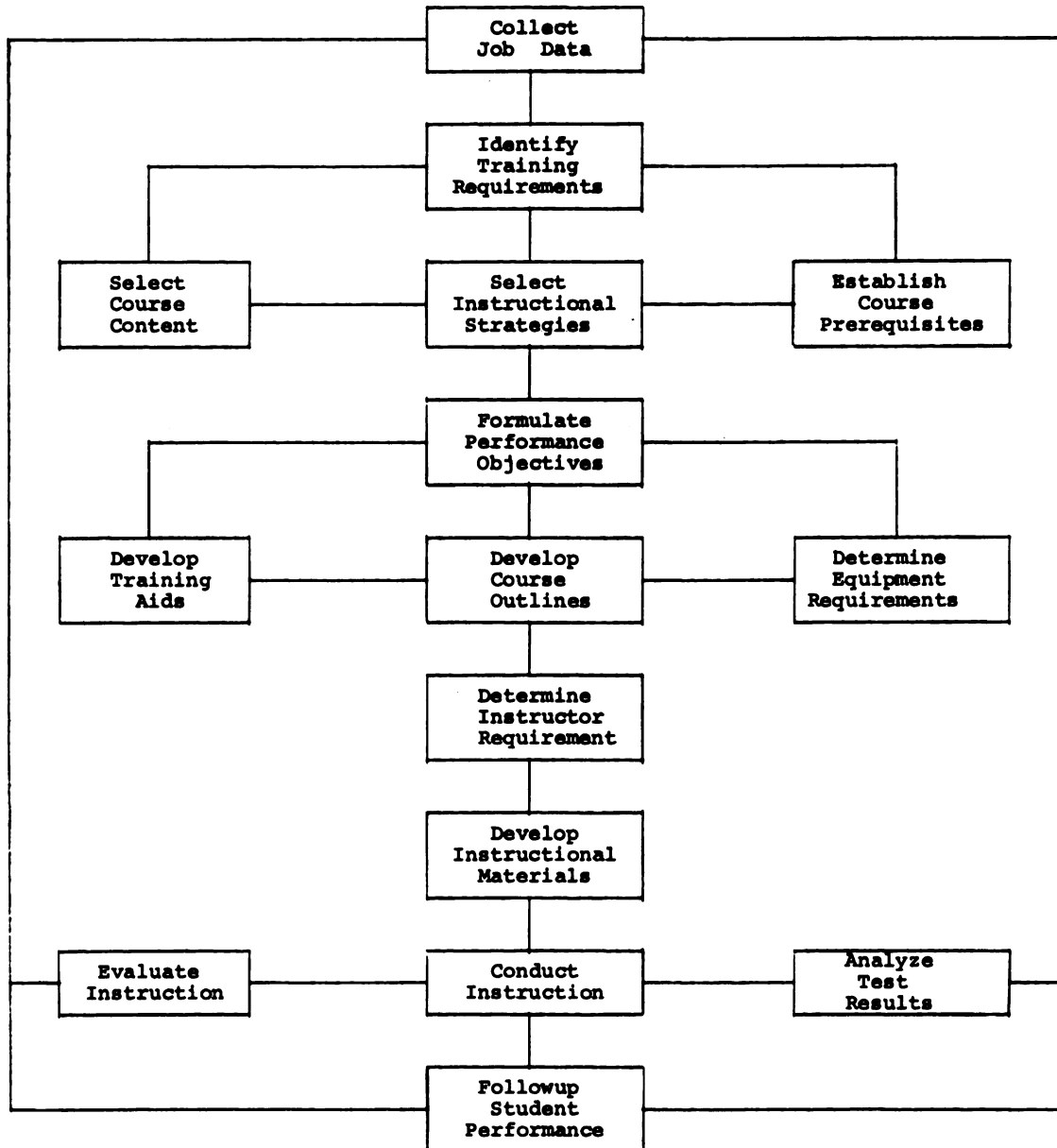


Figure 4. Instructional System Design as revised and used by the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center Curriculum Task Force, Washington, D.C.

Source: U.S. Civil Service Commission, Bureau of Training, Application of a Systems Approach to Training, Training Systems and Technology Series: No. 11 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1969) Exhibit B, p. 7.

on the student and on what he needs to learn. Thus the Task Force examined job tasks of the personnel groups or classifications being studied--patrolmen and investigators. Task descriptions were obtained from experienced personnel and then analyzed and grouped.³

The task descriptions were then examined to determine which tasks should be supported by formal training. The Task Force noted that this step would probably be critical and more complex in large organizations or those organizations in which the initial assignments of new employees vary significantly.⁴ Behaviorally stated terminal performance objectives⁵ were then formulated for each task.

Each terminal objective stated

(1) the specific behavior the trainee is to demonstrate at the end of the training

(2) the specific conditions under which he is to perform

³U.S. Civil Service Commission, Op. Cit., p. 3. The Task Force found that the task descriptions developed during interviews with supervisory personnel for the position being studied were most complete and accurate.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Ibid., p. 1. These objectives describe the behavior the student must be able to demonstrate at the end of the training. They are statements of student performance under actual job conditions and provide criteria by which satisfactory performance can be measured.

A typical example of a terminal performance objective is as follows:

Given a speedgraphic camera and a series of accident scenes and crime scenes under varying conditions of light and locale, the student will be able to take photographs for use as evidence. Eighty percent of the photographs will meet the standards of composition and quality set forth in the Training Guide.

(3) the criteria for determining satisfactory performance.

Groupings of tasks then became necessary for the development of logical instructional patterns. Eventually a hierarchy of job tasks developed. Interim, subordinate, enabling, or intermediate objectives were developed or identified as terminal performance objectives were defined.

Prerequisites were identified and clearly defined for the study as were the knowledge and skills which were to be possessed by the student at the beginning of the training program. The complexity of these prerequisites was a problem for the Task Force as each agency's entrance qualifications varied.

Terminal performance objectives that were not directly derived from or related to a job task description were developed for those non-task-oriented areas of knowledge and skill that must be acquired by the trainee or student. Terms such as "working knowledge," "familiarization," and "appreciation" crept into these non-task-oriented objectives and were difficult to cope with in terms of developing performance criteria.

The last phase of the process was to develop the training course outlines, identifying for each instructional unit the terminal performance objectives, interim objectives, instructional methods, instructional media, and required time for instruction.

The study, although not comprehensive for the law enforcement field nor representative of some of the curriculum research problems in criminal justice training and education, does represent a major step in the field as it is one of the first applications of a "systems approach" to training used for any of the criminal justice functions.

A Feasibility Study to Create
a Training Center for Law
Enforcement and Criminal Justice
Personnel in the State of Hawaii⁶

A study was conducted by the Dillingham Corporation to determine the feasibility of developing a state training academy and resource center for the entire criminal justice system of the State of Hawaii, or, an academy and center operated by and for the Honolulu Police Department. A sub-alternative of the latter alternative was to have a center and academy operated by the Honolulu Police Department for all police agencies in Hawaii. Alternative #1 was generally deemed most appropriate by the consultant as evidenced by the following:

Many aspects of law enforcement and criminal justice education lend themselves to the development of a common core curriculum. The content of the core can include the basic theory and goals

⁶Dillingham Corporation, A Training Center for Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice Personnel: A Feasibility Study. A consultant's study for Chief of Police Francis A. Keala, Honolulu Police Department (Beverly Hills, California, March, 1970).

of a justice system, human relations, and behavioral sciences. The drawing of experiences from all agencies can give personnel a better understanding of the interdependencies of the criminal justice system, illustrating how the various parts fit together. As it becomes more apparent that it is feasible and desirable to develop academic programs with a common core curriculum for all components of the criminal justice system, it will become feasible to partially integrate the training programs of the various criminal justice agencies.⁷

The consultant used as a basis of his study the personnel projections to 1995 of the various criminal justice functions and the total number of training program hours required, based on these projections, to develop a proposed curriculum based on

- (1) current levels of training in Hawaii and other states
- (2) observed trends in program development
- (3) recommendations of the President's Task Force Commission [sic]⁸ and others prominent in the field of law enforcement and criminal justice.⁹

The limitations of the above sources as bases for curriculum decisions were recognized by the consultant as he stipulated that his major concern was with the quantitative aspects of the training problems. He recognized the

⁷Ibid., p. 5.

⁸The proper name is "The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice."

⁹Ibid., p. 18.

need for a thorough curriculum study.

A more definitive statement of training program requirements is needed. Such an undertaking will require an in-depth study of the roles, functions, and tasks of personnel in the criminal justice system, beginning with the police officer. It is recommended that such a project be undertaken and that on-going evaluations of training curriculum be conducted to ensure its relevance. The greater waste in training lies not as much in training methods as in the curriculum content. Whether you teach the wrong lesson by good methods or bad, it is still the wrong lesson. It is still 100% waste.¹⁰

The consultant recommended that the following courses be offered by the proposed Center:¹¹

Police:

1. Basic Recruit Course. The basic recruit training course currently consists of 535 hours and is projected to 640 hours by 1975. Net "in-class" hours as opposed to outdoor training are approximately 415 hours now, projected to 480 hours by 1975. In-class hours are allocated by general subject category as follows:

	<u>Net In-Class Hours</u>	
	<u>Current</u>	<u>1975</u>
Police Administration	64	64
Police Procedures	84	84
Law	93	116
Investigation	44	52
Behavioral Sciences	26	52
Special Police Skills	<u>104</u>	<u>104</u>
	415	480

It is assumed that field experience will be interspersed with recruit training. The President's

¹⁰Ibid., p. 18.

¹¹Ibid., pp. 19-23.

Task Force Report recommends that recruit training be spread over a four to six month period in order to incorporate supervised field training. The blending of field experience with classroom training can be accomplished in several ways: the most appropriate way for recruit programs in Hawaii will depend on budget considerations, manpower needs, and the particular philosophies of those administering the training programs.

2. Special Recruit Course - A. A separate recruit training course for para-professional, community service officers, and other supportive personnel. It has been assumed that by 1980 a significant number of new recruits will be of this category to justify a specially designated course. The delineation of a new level of police officer will relieve other officers of lesser police duties, tap a new manpower resource, and will facilitate special programs as in model neighborhood areas through the use of "safety aides" who are included in this category. A course consisting of 480 net in-class hours is projected to begin by 1980.
3. Special Recruit Course - B. An abbreviated recruit training course for officers with acceptable pre-service education or experience. It is expected that an increasing percentage of new recruits will be of this category and that by 1980 there will be a sufficient number to justify a separate recruit course. A course consisting of 300 net in-class hours is projected to begin by 1980.
4. Police Cadet. The basic course for cadets designed to provide knowledge of police procedures and to promote qualities of leadership and discipline required for police work. It is assumed that this course will be provided prior to the cadet's initial tour of duty and that upon completion of the cadet program the cadet will enter recruit training. This course is projected at 120 hours by 1975.
5. Recruit Refresher. A refresher course for all recruits successfully completing their probationary period. This course is designed to reinforce recruit training, to provide additional training in specialty areas, and to serve as an evaluation

period bridging the transition from recruit to police officer. The course is projected at 120 hours beginning in 1975.

6. Patrol Refresher. An annual refresher course for all officers below the sergeant level. The purpose of this course is to provide a period of intensive inservice training to supplement daily roll call training, to provide special training for officers entering a new phase of police work (such as traffic enforcement and control), and to provide a forum for officers to interact with personnel of other criminal justice agencies. This course is projected at 40 hours per class by 1975, increasing to 80 hours per class by 1980.
7. Police Supervision - A. The initial course for all officers entering a first line supervisory position. For purposes of calculation, this was assumed to include all new sergeants. The course is projected at 80 hours per class for 1975, increasing to 120 hours by 1980.
8. Police Supervision - B. Annual refresher course for all first line supervisory personnel. For purposes of calculation this is meant to include all sergeants and lieutenants. The course is projected at 40 hours per class.
9. Investigators' Training - A. The initial course for all officers entering an investigative position. This is meant to include all new detectives. The course is projected at 120 hours per class by 1975.
10. Investigators' Training - B. A 40 hour annual refresher for all investigative personnel.
11. Police Management - A. Initial course for all newly appointed management personnel, which for purposes of calculation, includes all officers in the ranks of captain and above. This is projected as an 80 hour course to begin by 1975.
12. Police Management - B. An annual refresher course for management personnel. This course is projected at 40 hours per class.

13. Field Trainers - A. A course designed to develop field trainers primarily to work with new recruits during the field experience portion of this training. The purpose of this program is to develop personnel who are equipped to evaluate the new recruit's progress and are more likely to encourage positive attitudes during this critical period of recruit training. This course, consisting of 80 hours, is projected to begin by 1975.
14. Field Trainers - B. An annual refresher course for field trainers. The course is projected at 40 hours per class beginning by 1975.
15. Trainers' Course - A. This course is designed to provide instruction in the development of lesson plans, teaching techniques, use of visual aids, etc., for the non-professional, part-time training staff of the training center. It has been assumed that the permanent training staff will be selected based on their professional ability and experience and will have had sufficient training prior to their appointment. A course consisting of 120 hours per class has been projected to begin by 1975.
16. Trainers' Course - B. An annual refresher course for trainers consisting of 40 hours per class. This course may include refresher training and in-service workshops for permanent as well as part-time training personnel.
17. Other Special and Technical Courses. Provision has been made to accommodate short-term courses ranging from half a day to two weeks in duration. These include the many seminars, institutes, and specific subject lectures which can be expected to occur during the year. These courses are projected to increase by 1995 to about three and one-half times the current level. Currently there are an estimated 45 equivalent training days allocated to these short-term courses. Examples of some of these courses are as follows: a 7-day narcotic school; a 7-day course for the Hawaii State Guard; courses for private security guards; a 1-day breathalyzer course and other specific subject courses for departmental personnel. Provision for other training, such as for reserve officers, is not provided here since it is assumed this training will continue to be provided in the evening hours.

Corrections:

1. Probation and Parole - A. An entry level course for casework staff of the various probation and parole agencies in Hawaii. Also included in this category are institutional counselors of the various correctional facilities. This course is projected at 300 hours to begin before 1975. It is feasible that part of this course can be integrated with police recruit training. It is estimated that up to 25% of this 300-hour course would be common to both police recruit training and probation and parole entry level training.
2. Probation and Parole - B. An annual refresher course for casework and institutional counseling staff of the various corrections agencies and facilities. This course is projected at 40 hours per class by 1975.
3. Detentions - A. A 160-hour entry level course for guards, houseparents and support personnel having contact with inmates in the various correctional facilities of Hawaii. The projected length of this course reflects an assumed expanded role for the detentions employee. This course is projected to begin by 1975.
4. Detentions - B. An annual refresher course for detentions employees consisting of 40 hours per class.
5. Supervisory and Management Training. Probably the most compatible area of integrated training for all criminal justice agencies is at the supervisory and management levels. For this reason, it has been assumed that corrections supervisory and management training will be accommodated in the corresponding courses included in the law enforcement curriculum outline. Percentage factors have been added to those law enforcement course calculations to accommodate the expected numbers of corrections personnel at this level.

Public Prosecutors and Defenders:

1. Prosecutors-Defenders - A. This is seen as two separate entry-level courses, one for public prosecutors and one for public defenders. The

feasibility of conducting at least part of the courses jointly for both prosecutors and defenders should be investigated. The content of the courses could include basic criminalistics, trial procedures as locally applicable, tactical aspects of cases, and evidence. The courses are projected at 120 hours each.

2. Prosecutors-Defenders - B. A periodic refresher course for public prosecutors and defenders. This course is projected at 40 hours per class by 1975.

Courts:

Four 40-hour segments have been allocated for the judiciary. These are designed to include institutes for judges and magistrates as well as inservice training courses for support personnel of the courts including bailiffs, court clerks, etc.

Using estimates and projections from the consultant's reports it appears that the total number of personnel in the criminal justice system of Hawaii approximates 3,000 with police constituting the largest group.

The consultant's report recommends the following staff for the proposed Center:¹²

ADMINISTRATION

Office of the Director	
Director	1
Secretary	$\frac{1}{2}$
	2
Planning, Research & Evaluation	
Research Analyst	1
Clerk	$\frac{1}{2}$
	2
Total Administration	4

¹²Ibid., pp. 41-42.

POLICE TRAINING

Police Training Coordinator	1
Asst. to Coordinator	3
Recruit Class Supervisor	1
Program Assistant	3
Trainers/Instructors	8
Secretary-Clerk	3
Cadet	<u>1</u>
	20

CORRECTIONS TRAINING

Probation & Parole Training Coordinator	1
Detentions Training Coordinator	<u>1</u>
	2

MEDIA CENTER

Media Specialist	1
Librarian	1
Audio-Visual Technician	1
Clerk	1
Graphic Artist	<u>1</u>
	5

SPECIAL TRAINING

Range Officer	1
Sergeant/Trainer	1
Patrolman	1
Gunsmith	<u>1</u>
	4

DORMITORIES

Supervisor	1
------------	---

BUILDINGS & GROUNDS

Superintendent	1
Maintenance/Repairman	2
Janitor/Groundsman	<u>6</u>
	9

TOTAL PERSONNEL	45
-----------------	----

The Florida Institute
for Law Enforcement¹³

In 1965, the Tampa Bay Area Chiefs of Police Association endorsed the creation of an institute at a public junior college (St. Petersburg Junior College) to provide area police executives with assistance in training, research and development. From its inception, the Institute was dedicated to a philosophy of service to the communities served by the junior college in an effort to bridge the gap between the academic community and public service agencies. Admittedly, the courses, programs, etc., were training oriented in the traditional sense during the early days of the Institute, but continual efforts toward revision improved the Institute's services in terms of quantity and quality through the years.

Features of the Institute which indicate movement toward a full service regional facility are correspondence courses to service officers who are unable to attend classes on campus, a teaching crime laboratory, use of a teaching courtroom facility at Stetson University College of Law, varied instructional techniques, an executive development program, and dissemination of numerous training materials and services.

¹³Florida Institute for Law Enforcement, Services of the Florida Institute for Law Enforcement, an undated mimeographed description of services (St. Petersburg, Florida: St. Petersburg Junior College).

The Institute is noted here primarily to illustrate one regional effort to create a continuing education capability in conjunction with a public educational institution to meet the combined personnel development needs of several police organizations.

Bramshill: England's Police College¹⁴

One of the world's foremost continuing education facilities for personnel of a single criminal justice subsystem is located at Bramshill in Hampshire, England. It was created in 1948 and in 1953 moved to its current location. Officers from Commonwealth Nations and England are provided training, basic education, and continuing courses and programs. Arrangements have been made with several universities and colleges for advanced matriculation to degree work. Bramshill Scholarships provide full pay and allowances and assistance with university expenses.

The College provides four courses:

The Senior Command Course - 6 months

The Intermediate Command Course - 3 months

The Inspectors Course - 6 months

The Special Course - 1 year

Of special significance is the Special Course which is comprised of "general studies" (which includes history,

¹⁴Taken from correspondence, program descriptions, and mimeographed materials by the Police College staff.

government, economics, social problems, literature and international affairs), "police studies" (which are essentially the professional development courses), and a brief course of study in civil defense.

The College's philosophy of education is apparent in the breadth and depth of its courses, full time staff, and lecturers. Its instructional staff is drawn from all units of the criminal justice system, university and college staffs, government representatives, and various community group representatives. Of special interest is a comparative examination of the structure, philosophy, and staffing of the United States Federal Bureau of Investigation's National Academy with Bramshill.¹⁵

The Institute for Court Management

The Institute for Court Management, a part of the University of Denver College of Law, has been created as a joint project of the American Bar Association, the American Judicature Society and the Institute of Judicial Administration. The goal of the ICM is to provide court systems and individual courts with personnel who have the following

¹⁵For an excellent description and discussion of the U.S. FBI National Academy see Kenneth Edward Joseph, A Study of the Federal Bureau of Investigation's Contribution to Law Enforcement Training and Education in the United States. (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, College of Education, East Lansing, Michigan, 1970).

qualities and qualifications:¹⁶

1. An understanding of the purpose of the courts and their relationship to other governmental units:
 - a. The relation of the courts to the executive and legislative branches of government.
 - b. The function of the courts in a democratic system of government.
2. An understanding of the basic division of functions between
 - a. the establishment of fundamental court policy, which is the responsibility of judges, legislative bodies, judicial conferences and councils;
 - b. the function of judging, which is the exclusive responsibility of the individual judge; and
 - c. business management, including such things as budgeting, finance, recruitment, training and supervision of supporting personnel, which are functions of the court executive officer.
3. An understanding of the judicial process and the role each of the participants plays:
 - a. The function of the judge, attorneys, the jury, the court clerk, the commissioners, referees, bailiffs, the jury commissioners, and probation officers.
 - b. The phases of all types of law suits--civil, criminal, domestic relations, juvenile, equity, etc.
4. An understanding of the constraints on traditional concepts of management imposed by unique characteristics of the courts and the decision-making process
 - a. by the requirements of the adversary process;
 - b. by the operation of the jury system;

¹⁶The Institute for Court Management, A Management Fellowship Program (Denver: University of Denver, College of Law), pp. 3-4.

- c. by the necessary independence of judges.
- 5. An understanding of how sound financial management applies to the operation of the courts through
 - a. governmental accounting and budgeting;
 - b. the planning element in budgeting; and
 - c. the use of audit procedures and capacities.
- 6. An understanding of the capabilities and costs of modern automation devices and how they may be used in the courts
 - a. in processing and analyzing statistical data in court operations and planning; and
 - b. in docketing and record keeping.
- 7. An understanding of the management and development of personnel and the constraints imposed on personnel management by public personnel systems and union activity. The executive officer should be able
 - a. to develop and administer personnel rules and regulations;
 - b. to develop and evaluate training for employees;
 - c. to operate sound personnel screening and selection processes;
 - d. to make effective use of grievances and discipline procedures; and
 - e. to make effective use of incentive devices in the development of personnel.
- 8. An understanding of the management styles most applicable to the courts, so that the executive officer can
 - a. evaluate supervisory performances and improve its exercise;
 - b. get maximum effort from specialists in the court system; and

- c. relieve the chief judge and committees of the court of all possible administrative burdens in order to permit maximum use of judges' hours for doing judicial work.
9. An understanding of scientific method and its relation to the problem of court management, including
- a. an understanding of the use of experimental techniques in evaluating the effect of changes or proposed changes in method;
 - b. an awareness of the limitations in subjective evaluation of judicial procedures;
 - c. a recognition of the capabilities and limitations of modern social science research techniques as applied to the criminal justice system; and
 - d. an understanding of the need for preparation of relevant data for the purpose of periodic and timely reports in an attractive and effective manner.
10. An appreciation of the need to communicate with the public
- a. in response to individual inquiries;
 - b. through the media; and
 - c. by contacts with educational institutions.

The course is a 26-week mid-career management course designed to prepare court executives for the nation's courts. ICM is foreseen as an institution with high change potential for the judicial system and has been funded by The Ford Foundation with a \$750,000 grant. In conjunction with the National College of State Trial Judges, Reno, Nevada, an additional grant of \$357,000 has been awarded for the study of metropolitan courts throughout the country.¹⁷

¹⁷Correspondence with ICM Executive Director Ernest C. Friesen, Jr., dated September 18, 1970.

The National Academy of Public Administration has provided a panel of distinguished educators, executives and scholars to assist in planning and evaluating the Institute. The ICM is also interdisciplinary oriented in seeking students from the professions of law, public administration, court administration and business administration.

Closely related to development of ICM was the First National Conference on the Judiciary held in Virginia, March 11-14, 1971. Both President Nixon and U.S. Supreme Court Chief Justice Burger clearly indicated that change is evident in our nation's courts. Both indicated support for a national center for state courts and for making education, training, research and change the foundation of the proposed center.

President Nixon, in his speech in Virginia, stressed the need for a coordinated balanced attack on improving the criminal justice system and the results of failing by neglect, default or intent to do so:

Many hardworking, dedicated judges, lawyers, penologists and law enforcement officials are coming to this conclusion: A system of criminal justice that can guarantee neither a speedy trial nor a safe community cannot excuse its failure by pointing to an elaborate system of safeguards for the accused. Justice dictates not only that the innocent man go free, but that the guilty be punished for his crimes.

When the average citizen comes into court as a party or a witness, and he sees that court bogged down and unable to function effectively, he wonders how this was permitted to happen.

Who is to blame? Members of the bench and the bar are not alone responsible for the congestion of justice.¹⁸

He went on to specifically cite training and personnel development for new types of positions as well as for the traditional types in mounting an effort to control crime. He cited the need for para-professionals of all kinds--even judges--and emphasized that change was the guiding theme.

State Training Standards for Police

Currently thirty-three states¹⁹ in the United States have minimum standards laws which provide for minimum training and entrance standards for new police personnel.²⁰ Twenty-six of these states have provisions for mandatory training standards and twenty of these states have provisions for minimal educational requirements, usually a high school education. Practices vary widely among the states depending on many factors such as the form of the enabling state statute, the quality of the professional staff administering the statute, the composition and attitude of the policy-making

¹⁸Taken from a speech by President Richard Nixon at the First National Conference on the Judiciary, State of Virginia, March 11-14, 1971.

¹⁹John J. Thomas, "The State of the Art, 1970," Police Chief, A Special edition devoted to police education and training, (Washington, D.C.: International Association of Chiefs of Police, August, 1970), pp. 63-67.

²⁰Standards are usually set for education, physical condition, mental condition, moral character, age, citizenship and experience.

body provided by the statute, the financial resources available to administer the statute, and the support available from training and higher educational institutions in the state.

The first state to enact statutes providing for minimum standards for police was California in 1958, and during the interim twelve years there has been a constant increase in the number of participating states. Another trend is noticeable in the gradual amending of the enabling statutes to increase the training and educational requirements. This increase in standards has been linked to the rapidly increasing number of law enforcement and criminal justice community college and university degree programs. Some states have begun to consider eliminating many of the artificial distinctions between "education" and "training" and this is foreseen as a significant indicator of an emerging trend toward a new model for criminal justice continuing education.²¹

An ever increasing impetus for the creation, development, and improvement of police training standards is the legal issue: "Is the municipality liable for insufficiently trained police?" Numerous court decisions are occurring, providing a response of "yes" to the legal question. On the surface such a trend addresses itself only to the issue

²¹See Saunders, Op. Cit., chapters four and five, and Warren E. Headlough, Development of Police Training and Education in Florida, LEAA Grant 350 (Tallahassee, Florida: Florida Police Standards Council, 1969).

of whether training and education is "necessary" for the police officer, but some court cases have taken a strong interest in the quality and quantity of training curricula depending, of course, on the issue before the court.²²

Considerations of Major Educational Models

Three major educational models are predominant in United States educational and training institutions. They are the liberal arts model, the vocational model and the professional model. Seldom do these models exist as pure models but instead are found in practice to have characteristics of at least two of the models and frequently all three. Some indication of the opposition among the models and their proponents is provided by Professor Hook:²³

When does a "vocation" become a "profession"? Take the lowly street cleaner on whom the health of our cities depends. Give him civil-service status after rigorous training and examinations, raise his income to that of college professors, provide liberal pension and retirement allowances, bestow upon him the official title of "Social Physician," deck him out in a resplendent dress uniform, and before long his "vocation" will become a "profession" too.

²²For a general discussion of the legal issues posed and a detailed state by state delineation of relatively current case law, see James P. Murphy, Is the Municipality Liable for Insufficiently Trained Police? (Orono, Maine: Bureau of Police Administration, University of Maine, 1968).

²³Sidney Hook, Education for Modern Man (2d ed.; New York: Alfred A Knopf, 1967), p. 199.

The professional education model looms in the forefront as a desirable model upon which to base the emerging field of criminal justice and its functional areas. The American law school is perhaps the best example of the professional education model and is already one of the traditional, well accepted professions. McGrath²⁴ identifies the ideal educational components for the professional man as the following:

1. The broad theoretical instruction basic to proficient practice.
2. The specialized knowledge and technical skills which characterize a given profession and distinguish it from others.
3. The general education outside the vocational field needed by all citizens, regardless of their chosen work, to discharge their civic duties properly and to live an informed and effective personal life.
4. Continuing education, both professional and general, to keep the individual intellectually alive and broadly informed after he discontinues his formal higher education.

The major differences between the professional education model and the vocational education model appears to be social status and a varying degree of liberal education. Professor Hook²⁵ highlights the issue:

²⁴Earl J. McGrath, "The Ideal Education for the Modern Professional Man," in Education for the Professions, The 61st Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education edited by Nelson B. Henry (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1962), pp. 283-284.

²⁵Hook, Op. Cit., pp. 207-208.

Should liberal arts courses be given in addition to the practical courses in vocational education? Or should practical courses be taught in such a way as to introduce historical and social awareness, knowledge of scientific method, and sensitiveness to persons and ethical principles, into consideration of concrete problems? Neither procedure can be laid down as a fixed principle to be followed, although the second is educationally preferable. It depends upon the type of course and the specific subject under study.

The greatest obstacle to this attempt to integrate vocational and liberal education flows from the suspicions of the specialist against introducing anything outside the narrow confines of his specialty. He regards cultural studies in professional schools as a kind of academic boondoggling. It wastes time which in his eyes is already insufficient for the technical matters students should know. The specialist has a natural tendency to view the whole curriculum from the standpoint of his own professional concern.

McGlothlin²⁶ takes a less critical position with respect to the distinction, but still recognizes the almost polar position.

Even though "professional requirements" are a "primary determinant" of the curriculum in professional education, social understanding and competence in leadership are secondary "determinants," and cannot be ignored. Nevertheless, the professional school cannot abdicate its responsibility for providing competence to practice, and remain a professional school.

It is here, of course, that the major conflict over the professional curriculum arises. Its attackers imply that the professional school, by focusing on competence to practice, will

²⁶William J. McGlothlin, The Professional Schools (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964), p. 31.

produce trained robots who can perform set tasks with skill, but who will have little understanding of the significance or relationships of their efforts to human welfare.

McGlothlin urges that balance be sought in professional education institutions by developing practitioners "who are competent, who have social understanding, whose personalities have been molded to their tasks, who have a zest for continued study, and who can interpret and conduct research."²⁷ Imbalance among the above items in professionals' education presents the greatest threat to our democratic education according to Hook.²⁸

Vocational education conceived as job-training represents the greatest threat to democratic education in our time. It is a threat to democracy because it tends to make the job-trained individual conscious only of his technological responsibilities, but not of his social and moral responsibilities. He becomes a specialist in "means" but indifferent to "ends" which are considered the province of another specialist.

The advent of the two-year junior and community colleges has made significant impacts upon vocational and higher education. It suddenly created a forum for including liberal arts studies in programs of vocational education which have traditionally been limited to vocationally oriented courses offered in institutes, private schools, trade schools, etc., and thus were unable to provide

²⁷ Ibid., p. 30.

²⁸ Hook, Op. Cit., p. 201.

liberal arts courses. Two-year colleges have also made it possible for a significantly larger number of Americans to attend college than ever before. The sudden advent of vocationally oriented programs of study for police, correctional, and juvenile delinquency workers as part of the community college movement has greatly contributed to the trend of these vocations toward professionalization.

Apprenticeships for corrections and police personnel have been prevalent during the past several decades; but they are gradually giving way to another phase. This is typical, according to McGlothlin.²⁹

Since professional education often began as "apprenticeship," and even after organization into schools was conducted largely by practitioners in its early stages, the initial emphasis lay upon the transmission of skills found useful in practice. But professional people soon learned that skills unsupported by knowledge are a shaky basis for a professional career.

Many larger corrections and policing agencies have required varying lengths of vocational training in agency operated academies, and only recently have they begun to move toward universities and two-year colleges for broader based education. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement, described earlier, plus the large amounts of federal aid made available through the Safe Streets Act of 1968, have combined to induce local agencies to seek better and

²⁹ McGlothlin, Op. Cit., pp. 45-46.

more professional education for their personnel. The colleges and universities are beginning to respond to this need as models are developing which make such endeavors academically respectable and acceptable to college officials. The federal aid is also a major inducement for the colleges. McGlothlin³⁰ has identified some reluctance by leading educators, however.

Yet some scholars of higher education, like Abraham Flexner and Robert Hutchins, have considered most professional schools as inimical to the university, diverting it from its main tasks by moving it toward "vocationalism."

University and college sponsored or housed professional education has generally required the practitioner to broaden his interests and training. At the same time the profession has required the university to acknowledge the legitimacy of its special requirements. According to Henry,³¹

The university is justified in asking that the professional school emphasize the theoretical foundations of professional practice; that a fundamental body of scholarly knowledge should be the core of professional education and that the acquisition of skills and techniques should be a secondary, if necessary, concern.

The professional school may legitimately expect the university to recognize that

³⁰ Ibid., p. 167.

³¹ Nelson B. Henry, Education for the Professions, the 61st Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1962), p. 259.

knowledge, understanding, and theoretical foundations are not enough for the professional practitioner, for he must also be a master of his craft. It insists that both basic and applied research are worthy of the university.

The professional education model appears to be developing as the major emerging model for the criminal justice functions. Corrections and law enforcement training is evolving toward the professional model from an essentially vocational training or academy model. The major role of university and college academic programs in criminal justice has been to induce evolution of the academy type program to the professional education model. This evolutionary process has also tended to draw the pure academic program towards the professional education model.

The Emerging Concept of Andragogy

Professor Knowles identifies andragogy as an emerging concept which creates a technology for adult learning.³² Literally translated from Greek, andragogy means the art and science of teaching adults or of helping adults learn.³³ The potential impact of this concept is yet unrealized as the field of education slowly gears up to meeting the challenge of mass adult education in a time when society is

³²Malcolm S. Knowles, The Modern Practice of Adult Education: Andragogy versus Pedagogy, (New York: Association Press, 1970), p. 37.

³³Ibid., p. 38.

realizing that the time-span of major cultural evolutions or change is such that it occurs three to four times during the expected life span³⁴ of most adults. Adults can no longer depend on their education as a child and young adult to carry them through life.

Andragogy, the technology of adult learning, thus becomes available to educational personnel to aid them in the continuing education of adults in their various roles as employee, parent, citizen, civic leader, etc. Such is the case with the continuing education of criminal justice personnel.

Knowles identifies four major assumptions of andragogy about the characteristics of the adult learner as he matures:

1. his self-concept moves from one of being a dependent personality toward one of being a self-directing human being;
2. he accumulates a growing reservoir of experience that becomes an increasing resource for learning;
3. his readiness to learn becomes oriented increasingly to the developmental tasks of his social roles; and
4. his time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application, and accordingly his orientation toward learning shifts from

³⁴Irving Lorge, et al., Psychology of Adults, (Washington, D.C.: Adult Education Association of the U.S.A., 1963), pp. 10-14. See particularly the Buhler-Frenkel life span concept.

one of subject-centeredness to one of problem-centeredness.³⁵

Knowles' assumptions have curriculum implications for this study and can easily be translated into imperatives for any educational facility designed to serve adults as learning centers. Andragogy replaces pedagogy, the art and science of helping children to learn, which has substantially contributed to many fallacious practices common to adult education and continuing education today. Training programs have not been an exception and fall into this classification, suffering from using inappropriate pedagogical techniques.

Literature Synthesis

The review of literature has involved a fragmented survey of descriptive material about facilities, institutions and curricula related to criminal justice and its subsystems. Two sections dealt with educational models and the emerging concept of andragogy. This section is an effort to synthesize the major points developed by the literature review into a conceptual foundation for the study.

The public concern for increased standards among criminal justice agencies for their personnel was indicated in those occupations, particularly judges and prosecutors, using law trained personnel. State bar requirements attest

³⁵Ibid., p. 39.

to these standards of competency as does the history of the development of law school curricula throughout the nation. Continuing education in the law area has also been a pioneer in criminal justice education and training. Recently the efforts of the Institute for Court Management have further pioneered the way for trained personnel in the court sub-system of the criminal justice system. Its curriculum, including staff and resource personnel, have been innovative and problem centered, thereby relating well to the judicial personnel supporting creation and development of the Institute.

State standards setting bodies for police personnel have developed nationwide during the past half-decade at a rapid pace clearly indicating a trend to develop state level selection and training standards. This trend has probably contributed more than anything else to the public concern for upgrading law enforcement personnel through education and training. Three major efforts were described and analyzed in this chapter, the Consolidated Federal Law Enforcement Training Center, the Florida Institute for Law Enforcement and England's Police College, focusing on police training and continuing education.

Only one major study was located which dealt with creating a criminal justice facility and curriculum. This was the feasibility study to create a state criminal justice center for the State of Hawaii. Unfortunately, it was

depicted more as a training center housing separate curriculum for the four separate sub-systems--police, courts, correction and prosecution--than as an integrated curriculum.

The three major educational models that have developed through the years in units of higher education were described and analyzed to build a foundation for linking training and education in the future. The three models--liberal arts, vocational and professional--were contrasted in terms of characteristics perceived to be important to the field of criminal justice and its sub-systems independently. The professional education model appeared to be the most desirable model to fashion the curriculum of this study after considering the status of the field in terms of training and education achievements to date, the current state of the body of knowledge constituting criminal justice, the needs of the practitioner agencies and the current status of criminal justice related degree granting college and university programs throughout the nation.

The emerging concept of andragogy and its implications for criminal justice, education and training were described and discussed in creating the foundation for this study. Andragogy is perceived as adult-oriented techniques for aiding learning by adults and allows pedagogical principles of learning and techniques to be discarded. All programming intended for the Centers and Institute will be designed for adults, thus the Centers' and Institute's

activities are perceived as being applications of the adult education and continuing education fields.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURE

Introduction

The objective of this study was to design a model continuing education curriculum to serve the four functions of police, prosecution, courts and corrections which comprise the emerging field of criminal justice. Interim objectives were to (1) identify and define significant influence variables, (2) develop a taxonomy of tasks comprising the criminal justice system, and (3) develop the rationale for the decisions made in constructing the model curriculum. This section describes the population for which the model curriculum was developed, the methods employed in data collection, and the research design and procedures used.

Description of Population

The Geographical Region

The study area is generally described as consisting of seven counties around and including the City of Detroit, Michigan, the nation's fifth largest city. The Region

consists of 240 political subdivisions distributed by type as follows:

Cities	80
Villages	32
Townships	121
Counties	<u>7</u>
Total	240

The cities range in size and type to include Detroit with its 1,512, 893 residents, various sized suburban cities, small suburban and rural villages, sparsely populated rural townships and open farm and park areas. Between 1960 and 1970 the overall increase in population for the region was 13.2%. This single statistic, however, conceals highly significant shifts within the region. The percent of population change by county was as follows:³⁶

Livingston	+54.2
Macomb	+54.1
Monroe	+17.2
Oakland	+31.5
St. Clair	+12.1
Washtenaw	+35.8
Wayne ³⁷	+ .1
Region	+13.2

The Region faces the typical metropolitan problems caused or contributed to by the density and mobility of

³⁶Source: SouthEast Michigan Council of Governments, Population and Occupied Dwelling Units in Southeast Michigan, 1970 (Detroit, Michigan: SEMCOG, 1970).

³⁷The city of Detroit, located within Wayne County, reflects a 9.4 percent decline and the balance of the county reflects an almost equal increase in population for the period 1960-1970 based on 1970 U.S. Census Bureau data.

population: complex, shifting and conflicting land use patterns without design or scheme for desirable growth, heavy industry, overloading of transportation systems, water supply needs, and sewage disposal needs, to name but a few. The Region is 4,593 square miles in land size.

The People of the Region

The 1970 U.S. Census of the Region's population sets the figure at 4,734,508 with Detroit's population at 1,512,893. The Region's population represents all major ethnic and racial groups and is truly a melting pot in the sociological sense. Racial conflict is quite high. Several major incidents of racial conflict have occurred in the past five years with the 1967 Detroit holocaust the most violent. Poverty-related problems in all the Region's large cities are combined with racial problems, and surface in the form of crime and social unrest.

The Region's Criminal Justice Agencies and Their Personnel

The Region's criminal justice personnel are dispersed throughout the Region in proportion, generally, to the population. Table 2 presents this distribution by county and major function. A more detailed description of the agencies and their personnel will be presented later by function.

Defense counsel for persons accused of crime constitute a very important part of the criminal justice system

as they become "officers of the court" when representing a client. They may or may not be paid by the courts. In terms of tasks performed, defense counsel's tasks approximate those of prosecution. For purposes of this study, defense counselors are not tabulated as part of the census of criminal justice personnel, but their role should be firmly recognized and future programming should involve them.

Table 2. Distribution of region's criminal justice personnel by county and function.

County	Police: Sheriff	Prose- cution	Courts	Correc- tions	Total
Livingston	74	3	12	10	99
Macomb	1,222	46	88	112	1,468
Monroe	266	7	47	48	368
Oakland	1,732	50	265	416	2,463
St. Clair	219	7	22	37	285
Washtenaw	495	17	81	94	687
Wayne	11,020	165	1,057	688	12,930
Region	15,028	295	1,572	1,405	18,300

a. The Crime Control Function and Personnel

The crime control function of the Region's criminal justice system is the frequently overlapping and concurrent responsibility of local units of government. Primary responsibility lies with the smallest unit of government--the city, village or township; however, overlapping and

concurrent responsibility is vested in county and state agencies. Local responsibility for controlling crime is generally vested in a public officer or agency known as "the police." The term "police" may be a several thousand man or a twenty man police department, a village marshal, or a volunteer police officer. This "police department" or "police officer," unless elected, is usually responsible to a board or council of elected officials which provides financial resources, establishes crime control policy, and generally exercises executive control either directly to the chief police official or through another public officer such as a mayor, a manager, a commissioner, or a police board.

The following local government agencies, or officers, exercise general crime control responsibilities as well as many non-crime control responsibilities which vary widely between units of government even of the same type:

constable	police department
marshal	department of public safety
police officer	sheriff's department
deputy sheriff	campus police

Although the above officers or agencies are the major agents of crime control for the government, it must be clearly pointed out that certain crime control responsibilities are exercised by private citizens, private security agencies, and other public agencies with narrow or limited crime control

duties. Private citizens have a duty to report crime, to render assistance when directed to by police personnel, and to be witnesses when called upon by the agencies concerned with adjudication. Private security agencies include building watchmen, private guard forces, private investigators, and private police. Public agencies with narrow or limited crime control duties include fire marshals and drug inspectors. Campus or university police are frequently described in the latter category, but the trend is towards considering and empowering them as public general crime control agencies. Several agencies in Region One are private guard forces with limited responsibility.

The crime control function includes investigatory and case preparation responsibilities which have traditionally been exercised by the police, public safety, or sheriff's department. Increasingly, the county prosecutor is assuming more responsibility in this area as investigators are frequently found in larger prosecutors' offices and police executives are verbalizing the need for more and better case coordination and preparation by the prosecutor's office. With increasing frequency in the more heavily populated areas of the region, pressure is being placed on the office of the prosecutor for coordination of case investigation, especially when several political subdivisions are involved in a case.

The crime control function also includes a responsibility to increase the risks and difficulty of committing

a crime. This is more generally described as crime prevention. Much of this responsibility rests with police, public safety, and sheriff's agencies; but a very significant segment of this responsibility resides with private and commercial firms who provide physical security (manpower and hardware) to buildings, homes, and commercial establishments, automobile "anti-crime" devices, and building code requirements which increase risks and difficulty in committing crime. Juvenile delinquency prevention, riot prevention, and organized crime control are also included, and involve many agencies varying in nature from interested community and citizens groups to the police, state agencies, the National Guard, and federal agencies including the military. The major impact of such delineation is the realization that crime control is a responsibility shared by many agencies in varying degrees. This delineation of responsibility should not minimize the role of such basic social control institutions as the family, the neighborhood and community social agencies. For purposes of this study, however, only the formal governmental agencies charged with crime control duties are included in the crime control component of the study population.

County Sheriffs.--By mandate of the Michigan Constitution, each county must elect a sheriff for a four year term of office. The office of sheriff has a history

beginning in England shortly before the year 1000 A.D. The office, in Michigan, was reaffirmed in 1963 by the state's new Constitution. Generally, the sheriff is the sole remaining elected law enforcement official in the United States, and some counties, primarily large metropolitan counties, have begun appointing the sheriff rather than electing him in general elections. A detailed description of the office of sheriff in Michigan is available in The Michigan Sheriff³⁸ written by D. Hale Brake for the Michigan Sheriff's Association, 1960.

The sheriff is a peace officer and has the responsibility and authority to maintain law and order throughout the county and all political subdivisions therein. He is also responsible for enforcing the laws applicable and in effect in the state. Usually each sheriff maintains a uniformed patrol service and an investigative unit varying in size from county to county depending on the County Board of Supervisors' appropriation of funds to maintain such services.

A major responsibility of the sheriff is the maintenance and operation of the county jail, which is essentially a corrections responsibility. Usually emphasis is placed on custody, but in recent years significant rehabilitation efforts have been instituted in some counties.

³⁸D. Hale Brake, The Michigan Sheriff (Lansing: The Michigan Sheriff's Association, 1960).

A state jail inspector representing the State Department of Corrections insures conformance to minimal state standards. City and village prisoners must also be housed in the county jail if so requested, and if commitment is properly authorized.

The sheriff is responsible for executing civil and criminal court orders of a wide variety too numerous to list and describe here. He is also an officer of the circuit court and provides personnel to properly exercise this duty when the court is in session.

Some sheriffs are little more than keepers of the jail and process servers while others provide maximum service in all areas of responsibility. Usually the role of the sheriff decreases as political subdivisions within the county become incorporated and provide their own police service.

Sheriffs have a very long list of miscellaneous responsibilities charged to them other than those related to criminal justice and for this reason should not be considered wholly within the criminal justice system. A very strong statewide association of sheriffs exists in Michigan and should not be overlooked as a cohesive force among sheriffs.

Each of the seven counties in Region One has a sheriff's department located at the county seat with some having sub-stations in distant parts of the county to provide better services to the citizens. As elected officials,

sheriffs are responsible to the voters of their respective counties; however, a certain amount of control is exercised over the sheriffs by the county boards of supervisors. By controlling fiscal appropriations to the sheriffs, the boards are able to indirectly, if not directly, provide a form of executive control. Direct responsibility to the voters and fiscal control by the boards of supervisors requires the sheriffs to maintain a level of political responsiveness not observed in other law enforcement agencies.

City Police.--The eighty-two cities in Region One provide police services to their residents. They vary in size from one or two police personnel to the approximately 5,000-man Detroit Police Department. Several types of agencies exist to provide police service and all of them are responsible either directly or indirectly to a city council or board elected by voters. The city charter generally delineates executive control for the police agency. A police chief or public safety director may answer directly to the mayor or council president, a city manager, a police commission or board, a police commissioner, or the city council as a whole.

Nine departments of public safety, excluding universities, exist in Region One. Usually these departments have a broader scope of duties than do police departments. Frequently, fire protection services are also included.

City police agencies are generally organized using a semi-militaristic model of organization and rank structure among personnel. City police departments of 1 to 20 sworn officers do not usually specialize or provide for any organizational division of work. All personnel are usually assigned to a single division and each is expected to respond to any call for police service. Some differentiation among assignments may be used when length of service or experience is perceived as a relevant factor in assigning work to personnel. Bureaus, divisions, and specialization of work duties begin to appear as police departments approach or exceed the 20 man mark. Only in the largest city--Detroit--does size of jurisdiction become a factor in the geographical organization and in this case precincts are used.

Township Police.--Township police services take many forms among the Region's 121 townships. The rural townships may have from one to four elected or appointed constables, a part-time or volunteer township police officer, a "special" deputy sheriff in residence working on an "on-call" basis, a "regular" deputy sheriff paid by the township, or any combination of these officers. Urban fringe, suburban, or the more heavily populated townships usually provide one or more of the above forms of policing or, in the alternative, contract with a city, village or the county sheriff to provide a certain level and type of police service. Charter

townships usually have a full-time township police department. In some instances they may rely on deputy sheriff's commissions for full policing authority or contract with another policital subdivision for a certain level and type of police service.

Responsibility for policing rests with the township board which determines the form and qunatity of police service which it will provide or which it will obtain from other political subdivisions. Townships providing no police service from other political subdivisions are provided varying levels of services by the county sheriff and the Michigan State Police without direct costs to the township residents.

Village Police.--Policing of the Region's thirty-one villages is almost as varied as the policing pattern of townships in terms of organizational models. Generally, however, villages have broader and more comprehensive policing authority than do townships. Village councils or boards may provide for and establish police forces and appoint police officers as they deem necessary to preserve law and order in their villages. The village president, depending on the village charter and/or ordinances, is usually responsible for the police force, but in most vil-lages the council itself maintains close supervision of police policy and direction.

Some villages rely on the sheriff for policing assistance. They frequently have someone in the village appointed as a deputy sheriff to provide on-call service. Some villages provide police services by contracting with other political subdivisions.

Several villages rely upon volunteer police services which may vary from loosely to highly organized. The loosely structured volunteer forces operate quite informally while the highly structured volunteer forces call for definite work schedules, training of the volunteers, and usually good equipment. An excellent example of this latter type is the Franklin Village Police Department.

State Agencies.--Many state agencies provide varying levels of crime control services to the Region, and must be considered a part of the local crime control effort. They are not, however, included as part of the study population. District Two of the Michigan State Police is wholly within the Region. It includes "Posts" at nine locations as enumerated in Table 3.

Parts of Oakland and Washtenaw Counties are serviced by "Posts" in neighboring "Districts." The Michigan State Police provide full enforcement services for complaints involving violations, and may perform duties as "peace officers" in all political subdivisions in the Region.

The Michigan State Police are also very active in Region One in providing the following specialist services:

fire marshal, traffic safety, criminal intelligence, crime laboratory, vehicle inspection, fingerprint identification, civil disobedience intelligence, subversive activity, and major case investigations.

Table 3. Distribution of Michigan State Police officers by Posts in Region One in 1968.

Post	1968 Personnel Strength
Detroit District Office	40
Detroit Post	28
Romeo Post	21
St. Clair Post	24
Warren Post	24
Flat Rock Post	35
Ypsilanti Post	38
Pontiac Post	38
Erie Post	<u>30</u>
Total	278

Source: Based on data supplied by the Michigan State Police Office of Planning and Research.

The Michigan State Police Department is a semi-militaristic style organization responsible to the Governor for the maintenance of law and order within the state. It is a "Department" within the state's organizational scheme and receives its annual operating revenue by appropriations from the Legislature, as do other state departments. State

Headquarters are located in East Lansing with a district headquarters in Detroit. A captain serves as District Two (Detroit) Commander and sergeants serve as Post Commanders throughout the District.

The Organized Crime Commission of the Department of Attorney General is headquartered in Lansing, but maintains offices in the Detroit area. An ex-Detroit police commander is currently chief investigator for the Commission. The Commission's work is directed toward mounting and coordinating a statewide effort against organized crime under the Attorney General.

The Michigan Liquor Control Commission, headquartered in Lansing, has district offices in the Detroit area and provides direct assistance to local crime control agencies and personnel. The Commission is located in the Department of Commerce, and is responsible thereto. Although the activities of the Commission in the area of law enforcement are quite important to crime control, it serves another major role. This Commission rebates 85 percent of the proceeds of the liquor retailers' license fees to the political subdivision where the licensed establishment is located. The rebate is to be spent by the law enforcement agency for enforcing the liquor control act within the jurisdiction.

The Investigations Division of the Department of Licensing and Regulation maintains offices in Lansing and the Detroit area to investigate complaints, violations, etc.,

involving professional practitioners licensed in the State of Michigan. A significant number of these investigations involve the abuse of narcotics and dangerous drugs; thus this unit works very closely with local and other state officials to assist local crime control efforts.

Crime Control Personnel.--The personnel of police and sheriffs' agencies in the Region are grouped as shown in Table 4 and the number of personnel by county and group or level as defined in Table 4 is given in Table 5. Some personnel positions are difficult to classify because of the lack of standardization and duties that fit under two or more criminal justice functions. A sheriff, for example, is both a law enforcement officer and a correctional officer, as are his employees.

b. The Prosecution Function and Personnel

State criminal statute violations are prosecuted by the county prosecutor in each county. Prosecutors are elected on partisan ballots for four-year terms. As prosecutors, they are the chief law enforcement officers of their respective counties. They also act as general attorneys for other county officials.

Each city, village, and township may retain an attorney to prosecute local ordinance violations and to act as attorney on civil matters. These positions are appropriate

Table 4. The categorization of police and sheriff's personnel ranks and titles into groups by major type of work required.

Type of Work	Ranks or Titles
Administration	Chief, Sheriff, Commissioner, Deputy Chief, Undersheriff, Director, Superintendent
Command	Inspector, Captain, Lieutenant, Detective Captain
Supervisory	Sergeant, Corporal, Detective Sergeant
Specialist	Detective, Youth Officers, Traffic Officers, Criminalist
Entry	Patrolman, Deputy, Policewoman, Public Safety Officer
Auxiliary/Reserve	Patrolman, Reserve Officer, Special Deputy
Miscellaneous	Civilians, Clerks, Dispatcher, Matron, Cadet, Drivers Licence Examiner, Teletype Operator, Laboratory Technician

Table 5. Distribution of police and sheriffs' personnel by county and job rank in Region One in 1969.

County	Rank Group							
	Admini- stration	Command	Super- visory	Specialist	Entry	Auxiliary/ Reserve	Miscel- laneous	Total
Livingston	6	--	2	2	36	28	--	74
Macomb	28	47	98	61	494	397	97	1,222
Monroe	7	12	15	--	95	111	26	266
Oakland	45	79	162	58	732	432	224	1,732
St. Clair	9	8	10	10	84	85	13	219
Washtenaw	10	23	54	7	212	107	82	495
Wayne	71	405	989	581	5,187	2,546	1,241	11,020
Region	176	574	1,330	719	6,840	3,706	1,683	15,028

and may be permanent, full time, part-time, on a retainer basis, or any combination of these methods.

In Region One, each of the counties has a county prosecutor and at least one assistant prosecutor. Table 6 depicts the distribution of prosecutors and staff by major personnel groupings. The "administrative" group includes the elected prosecutor and deputy or chief assistant prosecutor. The "supervisory" group includes all personnel who are primarily supervisors. The "specialist" group includes assistant prosecutors, investigators, tax examiners, organized crime prosecutors and investigators, etc. Four law student interns are listed as miscellaneous for Oakland County.

c. The Courts Function and Personnel

Region One courts function as part of the Michigan Judicial System as provided by the 1963 Michigan Constitution. There is little significant regional identity of the courts as they function within the criminal justice system. The primary political subdivision identity is by county. The Supreme Court is located in Lansing, the state capital, and is the administrative "head" of the system. Wayne County, which includes Detroit, constitutes District I of the Court of Appeals and the remaining six counties in Region One are included in Court of Appeals District II.

Table 6. Region One's prosecution personnel by county and major type of work required, 1969.

Type of Work	Living- ston	Macomb	Monroe	Oakland	St. Clair	Wash- tenaw	Wayne	Region
Administrative	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	14
Supervisory	0	1	0	3	0	0	5	9
Specialist	0	28	3	29	3	10	107	180
Miscellaneous	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	4
Clerical	<u>1</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>50</u>	<u>87</u>
Total	3	46	7	50	7	17	164	294

Each county in the Region has a Circuit Court with one or more judges as follows:

Livingston	1
Macomb	7
Monroe	2
Oakland	9
St. Clair	2
Washtenaw	3
Wayne	<u>27</u>
Total in Region	51

Each county in the Region has a Probate Court with one or more judges as follows:

Livingston	1
Macomb	2
Monroe	1
Oakland	3
St. Clair	1
Washtenaw	2
Wayne	<u>6</u>
Total in Region	16

The City of Detroit has 16 judges in its Recorders Court which has original and exclusive jurisdiction for all state traffic violations and City of Detroit ordinance violations. The Common Pleas Court in Detroit has nine judges. This court handles civil cases involving sums up

to \$1,000, and has jurisdiction of criminal arraignments and examinations that are not regularly handled by other courts in the county or city. Forty-seven District Court judges are dispersed throughout Region One. Twenty-nine cities have municipal courts with a total of 47 judges.

Circuit Court Functions.--Circuit Courts are courts of general jurisdiction which have responsibility for all actions except those given other courts. They have original jurisdiction in all criminal felony cases as well as an extensive list of civil law responsibilities. Judges are elected at general elections for six-year terms of office.

Probate Court Functions.--Each county has one to six probate judges who handle matters pertaining to wills and estates, adoption, guardianship, mental hospital commitments and delinquent, neglected or abandoned children and youth. Usually a juvenile home, a probation department, and a juvenile officer's unit are parts of the probate court. Judges are elected in general elections for six-year terms on a non-partisan ballot.

Recorders Court.--This court has jurisdiction over all criminal and condemnation cases arising within Detroit. It provides seven-days-a-week service, operates a bail bond bureau, conducts arraignments, issues warrants and processes various writs. It also operates one of the nation's largest

and oldest adult probation units, a youth probation division, a domestic relations division, and a psychiatric clinic.

Common Pleas Court.--The Common Pleas Court exists in only one of the counties, Wayne. It has jurisdiction of criminal arraignments and examinations in all cases outside Detroit but within Wayne county which are not handled by other District or Municipal Courts. The Court also has extensive civil law responsibilities.

District Courts.--District Courts have exclusive jurisdiction of all cases of civil litigation involving sums up to \$3,000; jurisdiction of all criminal cases involving misdemeanors; the arraignment, setting, and acceptance of bail; and the conducting of preliminary examinations in felony cases. Judges for this Court are elected on a non-partisan ballot for six-year terms. Magistrates may be appointed by the District Court judge to exercise certain judicial functions.

Municipal Courts.--These courts function essentially as District Courts within a certain city. Their jurisdiction in civil cases is limited to those involving amounts not in excess of \$1,500.

Court Personnel.--The personnel of the Region's courts may usefully be categorized in five work groups as presented in Table 7.

Table 7. A categorization of Region One court personnel into groups by major type of work required.

Type of Work	Title
Judicial	Judge, Referee, Magistrate, Court Administrator
Supervisory	Supervisor
Specialist	Psychiatrist, Counselor, Legal Secretary, Court Recorder, Tax Examiner, Investigator, Attorney
Clerical	Secretary, Typist, File Clerk, Receptionist, Docket Clerk, Warrant Clerk
Miscellaneous	Telephone Operator, Key Punch Operator

The number of personnel by county and group is given in Table 8. Some positions are difficult to classify into groups because of the lack of standardization and duties that fit under two or more criminal justice functions.

d. The Corrections Function and Personnel

The corrections function of the criminal justice system has come under attack during recent years to such a degree that major organizational changes appear likely in the near future. Corrections has not been treated as a separate and distinct function as have the police or courts. Instead, correctional responsibilities can be found under the police and sheriff's agencies (the county and city jails)

Table 8. Region One court personnel by major type of work and county, 1969.

Type of Work	Living- ston	Macomb	Monroe	Oakland	St. Clair	Wash- tenaw	Wayne	Region
Administrative	6	30	13	57	8	12	109	235
Supervisory	0	0	1	4	0	1	26	32
Specialist	4	27	12	176	7	26	349	601
Clerical	2	88	21	79	7	42	562	801
Miscellaneous	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	9
Total	12	145	47	316	22	81	1,055	1,678

and the courts (probation and other limited treatment services). Michigan is moving toward a state-controlled correctional system. Numerous correctional services are performed within Region One and they are controlled by local units of Government in gradually reducing amounts.

Each county maintains a county jail under its sheriff. Cities and villages have the authority to maintain jails and detention facilities, but failure to conform to state standards has resulted in many of them being closed. The largest city correctional facility is the Detroit House of Corrections.

Numerous youth facilities are available throughout the Region and include detention, treatment, home, and after-care type institutions--all generally considered a part of corrections. Extensive court services for the youth in these facilities intertwine the corrections functions quite closely with the courts.

Table 9 presents the number of correctional personnel employed by local units of government in Region One. The data are somewhat misleading, especially for county and city jails, as the personnel of these institutions frequently perform primarily police or non-correctional functions with only incidental corrections duties. Effort was made here to avoid double counting of criminal justice personnel with dual responsibilities for policing and corrections in sheriff's departments. Correctional personnel were grouped by type of work as given in Table 10.

Table 9. Region One correctional personnel by county and major type of work required, 1969.

Type of Work	Living- ston	Macomb	Monroe	Oak- land	St. Clair	Wash- tenaw	Wayne	DeHo Co	Region
Administrative	1	1	1	1	1	2	15	6	28
Supervisory	0	7	3	2	1	5	10	13	41
Specialist	6	31	15	103	9	54	346	17	581
Custody	3	66	6	22	25	9	0	111	242
Clerical	1	3	0	3	1	0	10	15	33
Miscellaneous	0	5	24	285	0	24	125	19	482
Total	11	113	49	416	37	94	506	181	1,407

Table 10. The categorization of correctional personnel positions or titles into groups by type of work required.

Type of Work	Personnel Positions or Titles
Administrative	Sheriff, Jail Administrator, Chief Probation Officer, Senior Parole Officer, Superintendent, Deputy Superintendent
Supervisory	Desk Sergeants, Custody Sergeants and Lieutenants
Specialist	Parole Officer, Psychologist, Counselor, Teacher, Caseworker, Stenographer, Accountant, Bookkeeper, Personnel Officer, Nurse, Physician
Custody	Jailer, Deputy, Women Attendants
Clerical	Records Officer, Secretary, Clerk, Typist
Miscellaneous	Kitchen Personnel, Volunteers, Maintenance, Equipment Operators, Telephone Operators

Method and Procedures

The concept of curriculum engineering connotes a systemic approach to curriculum development. According to Beauchamp,⁴ curriculum development involves three functions: (1) to produce a curriculum; (2) to implement the curriculum; and (3) to appraise the effectiveness of the curriculum and the curriculum system. This study undertook the first

⁴George A. Beauchamp, Curriculum Theory. Second Edition (Willmette, Illinois: The Kagg Press, 1968), pp. 108-109.

function of curriculum development by proposing a curriculum and supporting rationale.

Throughout Beauchamp's work he makes reference to curriculum proposing, implementation, evaluation and revision as each being essential for any successful curriculum system. Thus, the proposing of a curriculum should be viewed as simply the first step in the system. Equally important is the process used to develop the curriculum, for it is essential to the success of the subsequent curriculum engineering phases that all interest groups involved in the later phases be involved or at least have input into the first phase. Without a high degree of integration among the functions, the system will not be operable, or at best, will be short-lived.

The method used for this action research study consisted of a census of criminal justice personnel in the Region and an exploratory and descriptive survey into the continuing educational needs of the personnel comprising the criminal justice agencies of the seven-county Detroit (Michigan) Region. The results of this census and survey were then used to design a system-change oriented curriculum for four personnel development Centers and an Institute. In some respects, the research design used is simply the first and hypothesis-building step of a long-range experiment to induce organizational, personnel and system change in what could now be described as a federation of local

criminal justice agencies in a major metropolitan region.

Procedurally, the first phase of the study was to identify objectives. These objectives were stated earlier along with some of the constraints and criteria which operated to guide the study. It was clearly recognized that the resulting curriculum must be firmly grounded in a philosophical foundation or rationale.

Phase two was identified as the position-task analysis phase. This was facilitated by employment of a field instrument designed to elicit complete position and task descriptions of selected agencies' personnel positions throughout the Region.

Phase three was the identification of curriculum modules using the data developed from phase two and the constraints and criteria identified in phase one which, along with the mechanism for providing the programs, courses, seminars, etc., constitute the proposed model curriculum.

A preliminary phase, not considered a part of the study design, although it was considered an integral first step for the study, consisted of a census of all criminal justice personnel in the seven-county Region employed by a unit of local government located within the Region. As a part of the census, all personnel were identified by their parent agency, the local unit of government to which attached, and a general job classification and description.

The data collection process consisted of four steps: (1) taking the census; (2) determining the universe and selecting the sample; (3) developing the field instrument to be used for collecting task descriptions; and (4) compiling and analyzing the position and task descriptions.

The Census

The census required a telephone or in-person contact with a staff or administration representative of each criminal justice agency located in the Region as previously defined. A delineation of all personnel in the agency by title and description was obtained from the agency representative. Usually this information was readily available in printed form from the agency and, if not, it was verbally described to the researcher and recorded by him.

The results of the census were presented in the earlier sections of this chapter where the population was described. The census was the basis for selecting the sample.

The Sample

The sample for this study was selected using a combination of stratified and judgmental sampling techniques. Stratification was achieved on the basis of agency size and population of the communities served. Geographical and random sampling were deemed not to be relevant techniques for this study.

The universe of criminal justice was divided into the four traditional sub-systems of police (and sheriffs), judicial, prosecution and corrections. Juvenile services were considered as being reflected in each of the four sub-systems and to separate them as a sub-system would not be reflective of current organizational structure.

The police sample was drawn to meet the following specifications:

1. A police agency with part-time officers only
2. A small police agency with 2-5 full-time officers
3. A medium-sized police agency with 25-100 full-time officers
4. A large police agency with over 500 full-time officers
5. A sheriff's department of 10-50 full-time officers.

The prosecution sample consisted of two of the seven county prosecutors' offices in the Region and one city attorney's office which acts as a prosecutor of city ordinance violations carrying criminal or quasi-criminal sanctions. As the duties of prosecutors are defined by statute, one small and one large county prosecutor's office were used.

Judicial duties and tasks are prescribed by state statute and do not significantly vary in terms of the tasks performed. Obviously, case loads, frequency of occurrence of cases, administrative structures, size of support staff, etc., vary based on size of court, but the tasks performed are deemed consistent for this study. The courts comprising

the sample were a circuit court, a probate court, a district court, a municipal court of a medium sized city, Common Pleas Court and Records Court. The latter two courts are unique to Detroit; hence, a medium-sized municipal court was selected to represent the suburban cities outside of Detroit.

The correctional agencies comprising the sample were a large correctional institution, the county jail of the sheriff's office selected under the police sample, a large city's jail, a juvenile detention facility, an adult probation agency, an adult parole agency, a juvenile aftercare facility, and a city probation department.

Recognizing that some of the agencies are actually counted twice, the total number of agencies in the sample were twenty-two. The double-counting occurred in that the sheriff's agency used as a police agency was also used as a correctional agency. The large city jail agency was actually a part of the agency listed as the large police agency. The two juvenile agencies were also administratively under the probate court and all were listed in the sample as separate agencies.

Administrators of all agencies selected for the sample were assured of anonymity for their agreement to cooperate in the data collection. Agency identification was not deemed essential to achieve research objectives nor were the characteristics of individual respondents,

which would have provided easy identification.

All agencies selected for the study participated in it and extended full cooperation. All regular full-time and regular part-time and volunteer personnel were utilized. This excluded project personnel on a temporary basis, seasonal employees and special employees (informers and informants) of police, sheriff's and prosecution agencies.

The Instruments

The instruments used to collect task listings and descriptions are reproduced here as Figures 5, 6 and 7. Figure 5 is a Task Listing Sheet used to list all tasks performed as a regular duty of each position in each agency selected for the sample. A formal position description was obtained wherever available and most agencies were able to provide a complete set of formal position descriptions. The tasks were listed as identified without any concern for sequence. A minor problem was encountered in deciding what was a task as opposed to a sub-task. This problem became minimal as the experience of the investigator broadened.

The "Frequency of Performance," "Importance," and "Learning Difficulty" columns were of no practical utility due primarily to the lack of standardization of terms and practices in the field. To collect more than simply a task

TASK LISTING SHEET

AGENCY _____

POSITION TITLE _____ NUMBER IN AGENCY _____

POSITION DESCRIPTION: [] Attached, [] On back of form

SOURCE _____ BY _____

#	TASK	FREQUENCY OF PERFORMANCE	IMPORTANCE	LEARNING DIFFICULTY
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				
11				
12				
13				
14				
15				
16				
17				
18				
19				
20				
21				

Figure 5. Task listing sheet.

TASK DESCRIPTION SHEET

AGENCY _____ POSITION TITLE _____

TASK _____

#	STEPS IN PERFORMING THE TASK	TYPE OF PERFORMANCE	LEARNING DIFFICULTY
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			
11			
12			
13			
14			
15			
16			

COMMENTS :

Figure 6. Task description sheet.

CODE SHEET

FREQUENCY OF PERFORMANCE

- 1 = More than once daily
 - 2 = Less than once daily, but more often than once weekly
 - 3 = Less than once weekly, but more often than once monthly
 - 4 = Less than once monthly
 - 5 = Variable
-

IMPORTANCE

- 1 = Essential/Mandatory
 - 2 = Important
 - 3 = Helpful
-

LEARNING DIFFICULTY

- 1 = Easy
 - 2 = Moderate
 - 3 = Difficult
 - 4 = Very Difficult
-

TYPE OF PERFORMANCE

- 1 = Recall
 - 2 = Manipulation
 - 3 = Discrimination
 - 4 = Problem Solving
 - 5 = Communication
- V = Verbal
W = Written

Figure 7. Code sheet.

list and description would have made the data collection too long and would have produced unreliable data without a more highly structural code and definitions. Field testing of the terms, definitions, etc., may have helped.

Figure 6 is a Task Description Sheet by which the important or major steps of each task were identified and listed. The "Type of Performance" column was intended to permit identification of what was required of the employee to provide the several task steps. The terms provided on the code sheet were considered objective, but the complexity and variety of tasks found to be performed in the numerous criminal justice positions made this segment of the research design too time-consuming and a hindrance to obtaining detailed and complete task lists and descriptions. This item was dropped during the data collection phase as it did not significantly contribute to the data need to create a base for the curriculum design. The deletion was deemed to be of no consequence to the study.

Figure 7 is a code sheet designed to permit some degree of standardization in listing and describing tasks for Figures 5 and 6, but the additional detail provided for by the code was of no value for this study. Such detail will be essential for continuation studies refining the proposed curriculum. Figures 5, 6 and 7 were adapted from the works of Mager and Beach,⁵ and the Interagency Steering

⁵Robert F. Mager and Kenneth M. Beach, Jr., Developing Vocational Instruction (Palo Alto, California: Fearon Publishers, 1967), pp. 7-24.

Committee which designed the curriculum for the Consolidated Federal Law Enforcement Training Center⁶ described earlier. The Interagency Steering Committee had also indicated difficulty in collecting the data sought by their study, and they, too, had dropped the effort to standardize data because of the lack of standardization in the field. Some of the Steering Committee's original field instruments were obtained from that Committee and examined. They revealed meaningless responses to this item.

Compilation

Data compilation for the census consisted of a listing of each unit of government's criminal justice agencies, using the agency name as given and the position titles as given by the responding official. After the data were collected, common titles and generic group names were derived and defined. All positions were then allocated among the classification of positions into job groups. The various groups and their definitions are reported earlier in this chapter.

Some difficulty was experienced with personnel in some agencies who performed tasks in two or even three different work categories. An example of this is a small

⁶U.S. Civil Service Commission, Bureau of Training, Application of a Systems Approach to Training: A Case Study, Training Systems and Technology Series: No. 11. (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1969).

community police chief who was an administrator, a supervisor and even performed patrolman tasks as a daily or regular part of his job. The same problem was experienced with the judge of a small circuit court. He performed the tasks that would have been spread among several persons in a large circuit court, or more particularly, Records Court, which was included in the sample.

The data used to identify and define continuing education needs of criminal justice personnel in order to (1) insure better job performance, (2) enrich the lives of the personnel as individuals, and (3) improve the system in terms of goal achievement, have consisted of descriptive task statements. These task statements were obtained from several sources. No effort was made to quantify them as to frequency of performance, relative importance, potential importance if not performed or improperly performed, or as to variations in agency size. Such quantification would have allowed greater precision in curriculum construction, but it would have exceeded the practical limits of time and other resources for this study as discussed in an earlier section of this chapter.

The task statements are expressed in the form of action verbs and direct objects, each designating something done by agency personnel as an officially sanctioned task or, in the composite, a job description or personnel classification. Use of the term "classification" suggests a

classification scheme or taxonomy, but no such ordering device has previously been developed and none was developed in this project. Political subdivision fragmentation, lack of coordination between criminal justice agencies and job description schemes not oriented toward education have each contributed to the lack of any scheme or taxonomy which would most effectively facilitate curriculum construction. It was therefore necessary to devise a system for gathering and ordering data on work-related needs for education.

Task statements were obtained from the following sources:

1. Interviews and Observations
2. Work Records
3. Ordinances and Statutes
4. Policy and Procedural Manuals
5. Job Descriptions
6. Existing Training Curricula
7. Problem Identification

Quality considerations became important to derive meaningful task statements that reflected the criteria calling for enriching the lives of the personnel as individuals and improving the system. To "enrich" and "improve" imply quality consideration; thus, many task descriptions include relative terms which place emphasis upon the quality of performance of a task rather than mere performance. Such statements should not be taken to mean that quality is not implied in other task statements. It is assumed that the total curriculum is concerned with quality, but that some tasks, such as those related to race relations, are of particular significance at the present time in

history because of the quality of performance or manner in which they are being performed.

The task statements were then grouped or clustered on the basis of similarity of tasks and the job level to which the tasks were usually assigned. A grouping of clusters was then developed recognizing rank structuring, job descriptions, and agency customs. The tasks were arranged into the following groups:

1. Management
2. Supervisory
3. Line
4. Staff
5. Para-professional

Although the groups are broad, they allow curriculum programming to begin with common concerns based upon similarities in organizational level and character of work performed, rather than to initiate a curriculum organized according to traditional sub-system lines of police, prosecution, courts, and corrections and then subdivided by authority, tasks or rank related titles.

To create a common foundation for the descriptive task statements in this chapter, the following functional definitions were employed:

1. Management Function Personnel

The management personnel in an agency are those with primary responsibility and authority by charter, statute, ordinance, election or executive directive for achieving

the organizational mission. These personnel, within the limits of that mission, determine agency policy, allocate financial resources, implement policy, and manage and direct subordinate organizational units. Frequently, the size of the organization will permit distinctions between top management and middle-management.

2. Supervisory Function Personnel

These personnel in an agency are directly responsible to management for seeing that tasks are performed according to whatever criteria are utilized in the agency. Normally, each supervisor is responsible for three to nine line, specialist or other personnel, depending on the nature of the duties, type of personnel, or other factors.

3. Line Function Personnel

These personnel perform the tasks which constitute the reason for the existence of the organization or agency. They are distinguished from specialist or professional staff personnel in that line personnel provide the primary service of the agency and the specialists or professionals provide special supporting services to assist the line personnel. This does not suggest that line personnel are not or may not be professionals.

4. Staff Function Personnel

These personnel serve as staff support for line personnel and are specialists in the services they perform. They generally do not directly provide the primary services

of the organization or agency. These personnel may be licensed or certified or possess other indicia of their special skill, knowledge, etc.

5. Para-Professional Personnel

These personnel serve in a limited fashion to augment all or some of the other functions of the organization. Their qualifications, remuneration, authority, responsibility, work hours, etc., indicate their major role is to augment, reinforce or temporarily substitute as the regular employee.

Although the major focus was upon the descriptive task statements, a constant concern for judgmental criteria and values was maintained. Innumerable conflicts were noted. Conflicts are most commonly indicated by the racial strife, public concern for street crime, prison unrest, juvenile delinquency and the divisions among the public as to how these problems should be solved or controlled.

To translate task statements into curriculum plans necessarily involves some subjective interpretations, analyses, and classification of these values. Negative consequences, however, can be minimized by designing a flexible curriculum that permits choices among values and judgments for the agency administrator or the personnel requesting the continuing education. They can then emphasize values according to their situations or the composition of their programs.

A taxonomy of task statements was then used to guide development of the model curriculum criteria. The taxonomy served to provide the content base needed for the curriculum.

The rationale of the criteria is stated in the form of principles as they are central to the framework upon which the curriculum is developed. They should be viewed more as propositions than as principles, however, until they have been validated by experience and future research.

The task statements are reported in cluster format by major groupings. These groups when combined comprise the functions listed and described above. The very diverse tasks, services, etc., performed by agency personnel in the criminal justice system make grouping difficult, requiring arbitrary decisions with few guiding criteria. Secondly, many personnel encountered in the data gathering process do not fit into one functional category. This problem is minimized, however, by identifying them by work tasks only.

Conclusion

This chapter has detailed the methods and procedures used in executing the study. The study population was described in terms of its geographical characteristics, the residents of the Region and its criminal justice agencies. Each of the major sub-systems of criminal justice--the police, courts, corrections, and prosecution--were identified

and described utilizing the results of a census of the agencies conducted as a preliminary step of the research design.

A sample of twenty-two agencies was drawn using a combination of stratified and judgmental sampling techniques. Task listings and descriptions were then collected for all positions within each of the sample agencies using a standardized collection format. Data compilation consisted of developing taxonomies to provide a basis for clustering similar tasks and giving some structure to the educational needs thus identified. These needs were then reflected by small subject matter units termed modules for this study.

Curriculum criteria and supporting rationale were developed to provide philosophical direction to any programming that develops from this study. Equally important, the criteria and rationale tend to further identify the value judgments that guided task clustering and module identification.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Introduction

As noted in earlier discussions, the product of this study, i.e., the proposed criteria and curriculum, poses hypotheses for additional study and experimentation. It is, in essence, one phase in the development of curriculum theory for the emerging discipline of criminal justice. Certain findings reported herein, but unanticipated at the beginning, have implications for reshaping criminal justice conceptually and for promoting much additional and vitally needed research.

This chapter will present: (1) a conceptual model of criminal justice functions using set theory principles, (2) a taxonomy of task statements using a system, subsystem, function, and element hierarchy, (3) criteria and supporting rationale for a model curriculum, (4) the framework or modules for the model curriculum, and (5) other findings that resulted from the study.

A Conceptual Model of Criminal Justice

As a basis for the proposed criteria and curriculum which resulted from this study, it is essential to report the model used to conceptualize criminal justice as an emerging discipline for educational purposes. During the course of developing the criteria for curriculum design, it became evident that the term criminal justice, though previously defined, lacked a meaningful conceptual framework for continuing education purposes. It was further evident that criminal justice was being shaped and re-shaped by the Congress, administrators of the Safe Streets Act, numerous private foundations' financial influences, innovative local programming, state legislatures and the Supreme Court.

To contend that criminal justice was simply an aggregate of the contributions of various agencies was not adequate. Also, it was not simply the combined services of the police, prosecution, courts and corrections. It became necessary to conceive of criminal justice as consisting of three sub-systems that interrelate and are complementary to each other in-so-far-as the Constitutional provisions for check-and-balance or the separation of powers will allow. Those three sub-systems are:

1. The Crime Control Sub-System,
2. The Adjudication Sub-System, and

3. The Habilitation Sub-System.

Figure 8, in schematic form, represents the criminal justice system. It indicates the degree of interdependence found among the task statements (when grouped by sub-systems). In terms of set theory, each circle represents one of the system's sub-systems in the total universe defined to be the environment in which the system operates. Each sub-system (A, B and C) intertwines or intersects with each other sub-system separately and jointly. The area in each sub-system not intersecting with another sub-system represents the tasks that are unique to that sub-system. The intersection of A, B and C represent areas in which the curriculum model can make its most significant contributions, for this area of programming is generally lacking in the study region. Curriculum programming in these areas (the intersect of A, B and C) should be very productive in terms of inducing system and sub-system integration and the changes required for most effective operation within the system as a whole.

The criminal justice system model depicted by set theory in Figure 18 is education oriented, but has unexplored potential for accurately depicting the system in terms of its operational characteristics, also. The intersects are of prime theoretical and operational importance and have implications for future research and practice. Much of the problem of lack of coordination in

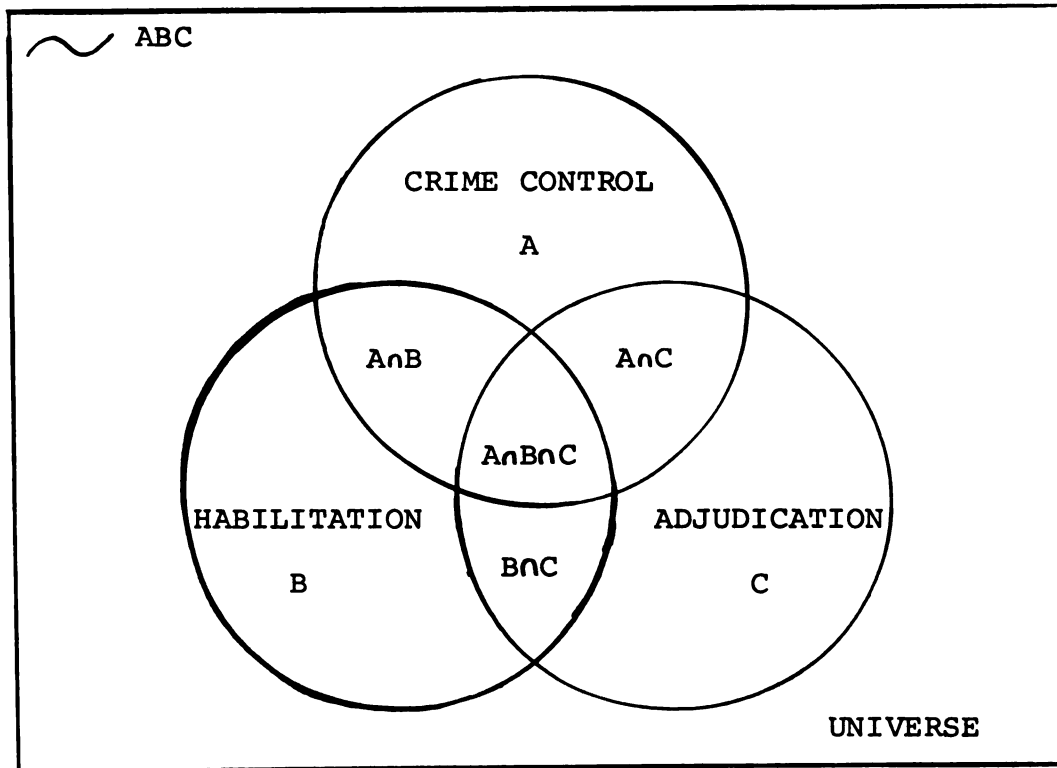


Fig. 8.--Set relationships depicting the functional inter-relationships of a criminal justice system.

- Legend: Universe = The universe of functions.
 ABC = All tasks except A, B and C.
 A = Crime Control sub-system with its unique training requirements.
 B = Habilitation sub-system with its unique training requirements.
 C = Adjudication sub-system with its unique training requirements.
 A B = Tasks common to Crime Control and Habilitation and amenable to shared training.
 B C = Tasks common to Habilitation and Adjudication and amenable to shared training.
 A C = Tasks common to Crime Control and Adjudication and amenable to shared training.
 A B C = Tasks common to all Criminal Justice Sub-systems and most essential and amenable to integrated continuing education.

the criminal justice system today may be attributed to the failure of public officials and administrators to recognize the overlapping of services, responsibilities, training and education suggested by the interest areas of Figure 8, especially where all three sub-systems intersect with all others.

The curriculum model proposed by this study will be based upon the criminal justice system model proposed here. References to the model will be made by using the functional area and intersect symbols.

Another possible sub-system was considered for inclusion in the models but it was rejected from consideration in the present study. It was the legislative sub-system. The legislative bodies of local, state and federal levels of government create laws, or, in more abstract terms, establish normative consensus. Other parts or institutions of society create norms¹ and should be included in our criminal justice system, but were excluded as not manageable within the scope of this study.

Attention was also given to isolating another sub-system, Crime Prevention, defined as the anticipation, recognition, and appraisal of a crime risk and the

¹Such institutions are the family, the Church, the courts (case law) and public administrators (administrative decisions or rulings). These are similar to the legislative component of government in that they operate to establish policy or standardize norms.

initiation of action to remove or reduce it. In terms of change strategies, a separate sub-system designation may become tactically wise, but, it is the opinion of this investigator that crime prevention must be seen as an integral component of crime control and must be treated as such if it is to assume its proper role in criminal justice. Accordingly, crime prevention is included as a part of the Crime Control Sub-System.

One of the incidental findings reported at the end of this chapter is the surprisingly important role of the private sector in providing security from acts of crime for homes, individuals, school, business, industry, the community, and public transit and housing authorities. The inclusion of the personnel providing these services in the crime control sub-system doubles the original number. The combined number of personnel approximate 800,000 individuals in the United States, or 1 out of every 250 persons in the entire population and 1 of every 100 in the civilian work force.² These crime related security personnel (both public and private) directly cost approximately \$8 billion.³ This does not include the direct loss from acts of crime. Such a figure in 1969 represented a \$40 per capita cost or 0.85% of the U. S. Gross National Product.

²Based on 1969 U. S. Census and U. S. Department of Labor Statistics.

³Based on a study by the Rand Corporation to be completed in late 1971. Figures are approximate.

By including the private sector's role in crime prevention and security, the model is made more complex, but much more realistic in terms of goal achievement--that of crime control or minimizing crime. The term "environmental security" has been coined to refer to this joint public-private concern for crime.

Summary of Task Statements

This section reports the grouping and clustering of task statements. Each statement keys off from an action verb carefully selected to depict how the task is performed in the field. Frequently, conflicts were noted between what was actually done in the organization by the person performing a task and what the supervisor, manual, or verbal description specified for the task. This point applies primarily to the action verb rather than the direct object, although some variation was noted here, also.

Several task statements could be sub-divided into other task statements, but an effort was made to avoid unnecessarily detailed delineation of the tasks. The guiding criterion was whether the delineation was necessary for relating the task to training within the curriculum framework.

TOTAL SYSTEM
MANAGEMENT FUNCTION

A. TOP MANAGEMENT

RECRUITS and ORGANIZES Executive Staff	IDENTIFIES Program Priorities
DEFINES Organizational Mission	MAKES Decisions
STRUCTURES Organizational Goals	MAINTAINS a Leadership Style
PROMOTES Organization's Public Relations	UTILIZES Consultants
FORMULATES Policy	PARTICIPATES in Meetings
PROMOTES Intra-System Coordination	BARGAINS with Employee Groups
DEVELOPS Management Personnel	DELEGATES Responsibility
PROMOTES Executive Leadership Role	DELEGATES Authority
PROVIDES Long-Range Planning Direction	DEVELOPS Power Base of Subordinates
IDENTIFIES Desirable Changes	COORDINATES Major Organizational Units
TRANSLATES Mission and Goals to Organizational Structure	ASSESSES Morale and Motivation
SEEKS Funds	MAINTAINS Press Relations
DETERMINES Evaluation Criteria	PROMOTES Community Relations
CONCEPTUALIZES Development and Growth	NEGOTIATES Funding
TRANSLATES Environmental Changes to Organizational Needs	MAXIMIZES Political Power Base
MAINTAINS Organizational Credibility and Good Will	KEEPS Knowledge Base Current

RESOLVES Internal Conflicts

MAINTAINS Communication
Channels with Sub-
ordinates

CONDUCTS Staff Meetings

B. MID-MANAGEMENT

ORGANIZES to Achieve Objectives
or Goal

PROMOTES Community Rela-
tions

DEVELOPS Program Objectives

ORGANIZES Volunteers/
Para-Professionals

RECOMMENDS Policy Changes

PROMOTES Public Relations

DISSEMINATES Information on
Policy

IDENTIFIES Potential Prob-
lems, Conflicts

DEVELOPS a Personal Power
Base

COMMUNICATES with Top
Management

PROVIDES Task Level Supervision

MAINTAINS Inter-Agency
Relations

ASSIGNS Personnel to Jobs and
Positions

EXERCISES Fiscal Control

DELEGATES Authority

COORDINATES Staff Efforts

EVALUATES Personnel Performance

COORDINATES Functions

MAKES Expenditures

ALLOCATES Resources

DEVELOPS Work Schedule

DISCIPLINES Personnel

RECRUITS Personnel

RESOLVES Problems and
Conflicts

SELECTS Personnel

PARTICIPATES in Collec-
tive Bargaining

CONSULTS Appropriate Experts

DEVELOPS Applications
for Outside Funds

TOTAL SYSTEM
SUPERVISION FUNCTION

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

MAKES Decisions	ENFORCES Agency Standards of Conduct
MAINTAINS Performance Records	INSPECTS Equipment
INSPECTS Personnel	INVESTIGATES Complaints against Personnel
CORRECTS Undesirable Behavior	

SUPPORT SKILLS

MAKES Decisions	PROMOTES Inter-Group Relationships
SPEAKS to Interested Groups	LEADS Subordinates

PERSONNEL DEVELOPMENT

SCHEDULES On-Job Training	REPRESENTS Management to Subordinates
INDOCTRINATES New Personnel	INSTRUCTS in Training Programs
COUNSELS Personnel	CONDUCTS Roll-Call Train- ing

MOTIVATION

INITIATES Management Attention to Good Work	ENCOURAGES Quality Task Performance
INSTILLS Confidence in Subordi- nates	

FIELD OPERATIONS

SUPERVISES Field Situations

MAKES Field Decisions

REPORTS Personnel Absences

SERVES as Field Unit for
Specific TaskPERFORMS Line Tasks When
Necessary

SETS and ACCEPTS Bond

ASSIGNS Work Details

PLANS Day-to-Day Produc-
tion

MONITORS Hourly Events

INITIATES Corrective
Action on the Spot

IMPLEMENTS Policy Decisions

ADVISES Citizens of Law

COMMUNICATION

BRIEFS Personnel

MAINTAINS Contact with
ManagementCOLLECTS and TRANSMITS Criminal
IntelligenceMONITORS Contact with
SubordinatesRECORDSMONITORS Records Initiated
BelowINITIATES Supervisory
Records

ANALYZES Crime Data Summaries

INITIATES Unit Work
Summaries

ADJUDICATION SUB-SYSTEMLINE FUNCTIONA. PROSECUTION AND DEFENSE

INITIATES Case Records	CHECKS Record of Accused
DETERMINES Completeness of Case	INTERVIEWS Parties to Offense
EXAMINES Evidence	DECIDES Whether to Re-commend Warrant
REVIEWS Decisions with Supervisor	INITIATES Warrant Requests
SUBPOENAS Witnesses	EXAMINES and CROSS-EXAMINES Witnesses
MAKES Motions	APPEALS on Motion Rulings
PARTICIPATES in Pre-Trial Conference	DETERMINES Trial Strategy
NEGOTIATES with Counterpart	EXAMINES Prospective Jurors
FILES Appeals	ARGUES Appeals
DETERMINES Probable Cause for Search Warrants	AUTHORIZES Search Warrants
TAKES Depositions	CONDUCTS Legal Research
INVESTIGATES Cases	WRITES Reports
ISSUES Emergency Mental Hospital Commitments	REPRESENTS Clients in Probate Hearings

B. COURT

EXECUTES Complaints	EXAMINES Witnesses
EXAMINES Evidence	SWEARS Witnesses
INITIATES Court Record	ISSUES Warrants

COURT (cont.)

INPUTS Warrants to Computer Bank	ARRAIGNS Persons Arrested
PROVIDES Formal Notice to Defendants	ADVISES Defendants of Rights
DETERMINES Counsel Representation	DETERMINES Probable Cause of Offense
DETERMINES Probable Cause by Defendant	DETERMINES Bond or Custody
DETERMINES Ability to Stand Trial	PROVIDES Examination on Charge
PREPARES Transcripts	HEARS Motions
HEARS Appeals on Motion	HANDLES Pre-Trial Conference
REVIEWS Pre-Trial Conference Results	CONVENES Trial Court
MAINTAINS Court Procedure	DECIDES on Oral Motion
IMPANELS Jury	MANAGES Juries
DETERMINES Guilt or Innocence	ADVISES Jury of Relevant Law
DETERMINES Need for Psychiatric Examination	ASSIGNS Pre-Sentence Investigation
CONSIDERS Pre-Sentence Reports	SENTENCES Convicted Defendants
DETERMINES Probable Cause for Search Warrants	EXAMINES Affiants for Search Warrants
ISSUES Search Warrants	CONDUCTS Legal Research
ISSUES Court Orders	PROCESSES Motions for Appeal
ASSIGNS Appellate Counsel	CERTIFIES Court Record for Appeal

COURT (cont.)

APPROVES Foster Care for
Juveniles

DETERMINES Guardian Ad
Litem

SUPERVISES Friend of the Court

ORDERS and INTERPRETS
Psychological Examina-
tions

APPOINTS Juvenile Referees

COMMITTS to State Mental
Institutions

MAKES Institutional Commitments

TERMINATES Probation/
Parole

CRIME CONTROL SUB-SYSTEMLINE FUNCTIONCRIME PREVENTION

PROVIDES Conspicuous Patrol	HANDLES Dogs (K-9)
REDUCES Crime Conditions	NEUTRALIZES Domestic Conflicts
INDUCES Crime Awareness	MINIMIZES Crime Loss
PREVENTS Criminal Acts	EDUCATES the Public
CONDUCTS Field Inquiries	DISCERNS Out-of-the-Ordinary Conditions
CONFRONTS Potential Crime Perpetrators	PROMOTES Favorable Police Image
WORKS with Juvenile Groups and Schools	PROVIDES Criminal Intelligence to Superiors
UNDERSTANDS Crime Causation	SENSITIZES Self to Cross-Cultural Strains
MAINTAINS Familiarity with Assigned Beat, etc.	

CASE CONSTRUCTION & PRESENTATION

SUPPLEMENTS Case Investigation	CONDUCTS Lineups
INTERVIEWS Persons	EXERCISES Discretion
ADVISES of Legal Rights	CONDUCTS Raids
CONSULTS with Prosecutor	CHECKS Leads
TESTIFIES in Court	BUILDS Rapport with Individuals
MAINTAINS Chain-of-Custody for Evidence	UTILIZES Information Banks

CASE CONSTRUCTION &
PRESENTATION (cont.)SEEKS Expert Analysis of
Evidence

MAKES Arrests

CONDUCTS Searches

SEEKS Court Processes

COOPERATES with other
Agencies

TAKES Confessions

WORKS Undercover

EMERGENCY & DISASTER SERVICES

INITIATES Alarms to Residents

ASSISTS Fire Department
Personnel

PROVIDES Rescue Services

MAINTAINS Civil Defense
ReadinessCOMPLAINT INVESTIGATIONPROVIDES Immediate Response to
Complaints

NEUTRALIZES Incidents

MAINTAINS Readiness to Respond
to all Incidents

ASSESSES Distress Situations

ORGANIZES and DIRECTS Remedial
Action

DOCUMENTS Action

INTERVIEWS Persons

ADVISES Parties of Legal Rights

SAFEGUARDS Evidence

TAKES Photographs

MAKES Sketches

INTERPRETS Evidence

ASSISTS Coroner

INVESTIGATES Applicants'
BackgroundMAKES Referrals to
Federal Agencies

LOCATES Missing Persons

MAKES Prompt and Effec-
tive Decisions

EXHIBITS Mature Judgment

INITIATES Action

RESTRAINS Persons

FINGERPRINTS Persons

EXECUTION OF COURT PROCESSES

MAKES Arrests

SEIZES Property

TRANSFERS Prisoners

MONITORS Wiretaps

MAINTAINS Peace

CONDUCTS Searches

INVENTORIES Property

MAINTAINS Custody of
Property and PersonsMAKES Returns on Pro-
cessesHAZARD REDUCTION

RESPONDS to Calls, Alarms, etc.

ASSESSSES Hazards

CONTROLS Crowds

MAINTAINS Relationship with
Support Services

IDENTIFIES Assistance Needs

PREVENTS Strike Conflicts

RECOGNIZES Hazardous
Situations

SECURES Hazardous Areas

ORGANIZES Hazard Reduc-
tion or EliminationADVISES Appropriate Of-
ficials, Individuals,
etc.MONITORS and IDENTIFIES
Radiation HazardsPHYSICAL SECURITY

IDENTIFIES Crime Hazards

ISSUES Summonses

ENLISTS Voluntary Reduction of
Hazards

PROVIDES School Security

MAINTAINS Document
SecurityIDENTIFIES Fire and
Safety Hazards

INSPECTS Buildings

CREATES Public Awareness
of Crime Hazards

PHYSICAL SECURITY (cont.)INSTRUCTS Public Information
ClassesGUARDS Buildings, Shop-
ping Centers, Busi-
nesses, etc.

ISSUES Warnings

PROVIDES Access Control

PROTECTS Persons

SECURES Election Facili-
tiesTRAFFIC CONTROL

DIRECTS Traffic

ENFORCES Parking Regula-
tions

ISSUES Violation Notices

INTERVIEWS Witnesses

INVESTIGATES Accidents

PREPARES Formal State-
ments

ASSESES Traffic Accidents

EVALUATES Accident Damage

INITIATES Reports

CLEARS Accident Scenes

RE-CONSTRUCTS Accidents

CONTROLS Crowds

MAKES Arrests

IDENTIFIES Assistance
Needs

ASSESES Traffic Flow

ISSUES Warnings

PROTECTS Accident Scene

USES Roadblocks

RENDERS First Aid

PROVIDES Escorts

SEEKS Ambulance and Medical
SupportUSES Channelization De-
vicesOPERATES Electrical Control
DevicesPROVIDES School Crossing
ServicesPUBLIC INFORMATION & SERVICE

PROVIDES Information to Citizens

ADVISES Other Government
Service Agencies

PUBLIC INFORMATION & SERVICE (cont.)

BRIEFS Press Members	PROVIDES Road and Traffic Conditions
EXPLAINS Laws	ACTS as a Civil Defense Agent
REFERS to Other Criminal Justice Agencies	PROVIDES Traffic Safety Education
PARTICIPATES in Ceremonies	

REGULATORY SERVICES

INSPECTS Buildings and other Regulated Places	LICENSES Taxis, Bicycles, Vendors, Etc.
INSPECTS Citizens' Weapons	ENFORCES Health Regulations
INSPECTS Licenses	WEIGHS Vehicles
INSPECTS Vehicles	GIVES Drivers' License Road Tests

CROWD CONTROL

PARTICIPATES in Planning	USES Offense Equipment
EXECUTES Assigned Task(s)	RESTORES Equilibrium to Social Groups
MAINTAINS Good Public Relations	ASSESSES Confrontations
IDENTIFIES Confrontation Organization	TRANSMITS Intelligence to Supervisor
ISOLATES Designated Individuals	EXERCISES Discretion in Use of Force
RESTRAINS Individuals	DISPERSES Groups
INITIATES De-escalation Techniques	USES Protective Equipment

ANIMAL CONTROL

INSPECTS Animals

NEUTRALIZES Dangerous
Animals

RESTRAINS Animals

EXERCISES Health Measures

RECORDS INITIATION

KEEPS Daily Activity Records

INITIATES Complaint Re-
ports and Supplements

BOOKS Prisoners

BONDS Violators

MAINTAINS Surveillance Logs

MAINTAINS Communications
LogsSUPPORT SKILLS

USES Weapons

DRIVES Marked and Un-
marked Autos

MAKES Rapid Decisions

DRIVES Motorcycles

DRIVES Pursuit Vehicles

RIDES and MAINTAINS
Horses

PROVIDES Jail Service

OPERATES Fixed Wing Air-
craftPROVIDES Field Training of
New Personnel

OPERATES Helicopters

ENDURES Monotony

DRIVES Rescue and Ambu-
lance Units

MAINTAINS Objectivity

USES and SERVICES Weapons

ENDURES Abuse

INTERPRETS Law

EXERCISES Discretion Based
on Law and PolicyINFLUENCES Others' Be-
havior

OPERATES Cameras

OPERATES Recorders

EXERCISES First Aid

EXHIBITS High Personal
Integrity

SUPPORT SKILLS (cont.)

MAINTAINS a Balanced
Personal Perspective

MAINTAINS a Self-Assured
Bearing

INDOCTRINATES New Officers

UNDERSTANDS Tort Liability
of Actions

USES Scuba

UNDERSTANDS Mental Problems

OBSERVES and REPORTS Events

OPERATES Communication Equip-
ment

SEARCHES Crime Scenes

USES Psychology

LISTENS to Others

ASSISTS Child Deliveries

TOLERATES Stress

ADAPTS Easily to New
People, Places, Etc.

USES a Typewriter

SWIMS Under Handicaps

MAINTAINS Physical Fit-
ness

TAKES Notes

WRITES or DICTATES
Reports

MAKES Fingerprint Iden-
tifications

USES Identi-kit

SPEAKS to Persons,
Crowds, Etc.

ADJUSTS to Situational
Factors

APPLIES Standards of
Ethics

HABILITATION SUB-SYSTEMLINE FUNCTIONPAROLE

INTERVIEWS Parolees	UTILIZES Community Resources
INTERVIEWS Contacts of Parolees	FUNCTIONS as "Arm" of the Court
INITIATES Records	INTERPRETS Parole to the Public
COUNSELS Parolee and Relatives	MANAGES Caseloads
ARRANGES Parole Revocations	ESTABLISHES Relationship with Community
MAINTAINS Relationship with Crime Control Personnel	IDENTIFIES Referral Resources
ASSISTS with Employment	SOLVES Practical Problems
ENFORCES Rules	PROVIDES Educational or Training Assistance
ARRANGES Temporary Detention	SUPERVISES Para-Professionals

PROBATION

PERFORMS Pre-Sentence Investigation	UTILIZES Community Resources
RECOMMENDS Disposition Plans	FUNCTIONS as Extension of Court
WRITES Reports	INTERPRETS Community "Standards"
ASSISTS with Employment	INTERPRETS Probation to the Public
INTERVIEWS Client	MANAGES Caseloads

PROBATION (cont.)

COUNSELS Client	IDENTIFIES Referral Resources
IDENTIFIES Probation Violations	SOLVES Problems of Client
ENFORCES Rules	SUPERVISES Para-Professionals
APPLIES for Petitions (Juvenile)	

INSTITUTIONAL CUSTODY

RECEIVES Inmates	ADMINISTERS First Aid
CHECKS Commitment Credentials	INVESTIGATES Accidents
SEARCHES Inmates	SEARCHES for Evidence
SUPERVISES Inmates	COLLECTS Evidence
MONITORS Groups of Inmates	TESTIFIES about Incidents
EXERCISES Disciplinary Control	MAINTAINS Equipment
INSPECTS for Contraband	PROMOTES Good Public Relations
COUNSELS Inmates	ESCORTS Visitors
RECEIVES Grievances	ESCORTS Inmates
CENSORS Mail	INITIATES Reports
OPERATES Security Devices	INTERPRETS Rules and Policies
INSPECTS Security Devices	SHAPES Inmate Attitudes
MAINTAINS Facility Security	MAINTAINS Attitude of Fairness
SUPERVISES Inmate visits	IDENTIFIES Out-of-Ordinary Circumstances
TRANSPORTS Prisoners	DEMONSTRATES Impartiality
SUPERVISES Work Performance	MAINTAINS Personal Integrity

INSTITUTIONAL CUSTODY (cont.)

PREVENTS Fighting	INSTILLS Self-Respect
RESTRAINS Inmates	FILES Charges Against Inmates
HANDLES Emergencies	PREVENTS Escape Efforts
MAKES Arrests	NEUTRALIZES Group Disorders
EXERCISES Sensitivity to Morale, Rumor, Etc.	SUPERVISES Trustees
PREVENTS Trouble	USES Riot Equipment
SUPERVISES Recreational Activities	USES Firearms
HANDLES Alcoholics	HANDLES Drug Abusers
SECURES Potential Suicides	HANDLES Mental Patients
RECOGNIZES Diabetics	RECOGNIZES Epilepsy

INSTITUTIONAL AND DIAGNOSTIC TREATMENT

ASSESSES Inmate Needs	DETERMINES Treatment Program
INTERVIEWS Inmates	INITIATES Records
ANALYZES Records	ARRANGES Psychiatric Services
DETERMINES Educational Needs	FACILITATES Participation in Religious Activities
IDENTIFIES Personality Disorders	IDENTIFIES Mental Problems
IDENTIFIES Potential Suicides	IDENTIFIES Physical Illnesses
PROVIDES Education Programs	PROVIDES Recreational Activities
PLANS Programs, Activities, Services	

TOTAL SYSTEMSSTAFF FUNCTION

FILES Records	MAINTAINS Files
TYPES Records	INSTITUTES Records
ROUTES Records	ANSWERS Telephone
MICROFILMS Records	PROCESSES Court Orders, Legal Processes, Etc.
MAINTAINS Accounts	PROCESSES Fines
HANDLES Mail	MAINTAINS Dockets
RECEIVES Clients	MAKES Appointments
SCHEDULES Hearings, Trials, Etc.	TAKES Dictation
TRANSCRIBES Dictation	RECEIVES and RECEIPTS Money
PROVIDES Legal Secretarial Services	RECORDS Court Testimony
DISPATCHES Personnel	RECEIVES Client Inquiry
TRAINS Personnel	HANDLES Emergency Dis- patches
COLLECTS Data	MANIPULATES Data
PREPARES Transcripts	TESTS Equipment
WRITES Applications for Funds	ASSESSES Problems
RESOLVES Problems	EVALUATES Field Actions
ISSUES Equipment and Supplies	PURCHASES Material
PROCESSES Payroll	TESTS Personnel and Applicants
INTERVIEWS Personnel and Applicants	ORIENTS Personnel

CONDUCTS Applied Research

PROMOTES Public Relations

CALCULATES Sentences

ADMINISTERS Oaths

COLLECTS Fees

Task statements were not developed for the following staff positions because their special training and education requirements which are generally provided for in existing institutions, or because the low number of the positions in the Region prohibit offering courses and programs for the given specialization.

Physician

Meat Cutter

Dentist

Occupational Therapist

Psychiatrist

Seamstress

Psychologist

Farmer

Teacher

Chaplain

Accountant

Employment Specialist

Posting Machine Operator

Custodial Personnel

Keypuncher

Machinist

Printer

Radio Maintenance

Auto Repairman

Band Director

Nurse

EDP Equipment Operator

Cook

Computer Programmer

Baker

Model Curriculum Criteria and Rationale

Curriculum criteria are value judgments which, when accepted, become universals or generalized truths and serve as standards or benchmarks against which curricula may be developed and evaluated. It is the purpose of this section to identify the value considerations or criteria and their supporting rationale used to produce the specifics of curriculum design reported in the next section. These criteria are presented in the form of declarative statements followed by supporting rationale.

The Curriculum Should Be Student Centered

The traditional and predominant practice among personnel development programs in criminal justice agencies is process or content oriented. It is essential that the curriculum, which in its broader context includes instruction, staffing, testing, counseling, class composition, and evaluation, be oriented to the individual worker-student.

a. Instruction. Instead of building the instructional unit around subject matter and a paired instructor based on subject matter competency, instruction should be focused on the learning needs of the student(s) paired with instructional staff who are learning facilitators.

Instructional units should be constructed as learning modules representing integrated and sequenced learning sets that allow individualization of each student's program and requires prescribed competency achievement for progression in that program. Formal and informal learning activities should be available utilizing multi-media resources and scheduling that accommodates the full-range of a student's needs including job and family considerations.

b. Staffing. Staff for the Center and Institute should be of two basic types--facilitators and resource specialists. Facilitators defined to be specialists in learning are administrators, staff supervisors, curriculum specialists, testing specialists, counseling specialists, media specialists, and learning coordinators who coordinate the learning activities of the students. Resource specialists are those persons with subject matter competence used as resource individuals for the students. The primary focus will be on learning, not on instruction.

c. Testing. Testing services should be readily available to assist students in the assessment of their competencies and learning progress. It is viewed as an integral component of counseling, individualized learning, and student grouping. Testing also provides the foundation for an evaluation component in the curriculum.

d. Counseling. The heart of any individualized learning program, or, more broadly, any institution that individualizes its curriculum, is a counseling capability to assist learners to assess learning needs, learning progress, learning problems, etc., on an in-depth personal basis. A better term could probably be selected to identify this function to avoid any negative treatment or remedial connotation, but this is not identified as essential at this time. The major purpose of a good counseling service is to match individuals or homogeneous groups with continuing education program elements that meet their needs.

e. Class Composition. Many learning activities will continue to be offered on a group basis where group composition will be essential for the success of the learning activity. Accordingly, counseling and testing will be used to effectively group learning activities into modules that consider the group's characteristics in terms of learning ability. The rigidity of traditional class groupings will be reduced or removed to minimize the problems of frequency-of-offerings. These problems have traditionally plagued agency administrators faced with pre-service and in-service training requirements associated with recruiting and hiring new personnel.

f. Evaluation. For student-oriented curriculum to be successful, evaluation of the curriculum must be

similarly oriented. Under an instruction-oriented curriculum, evaluation was usually based on an absolute scale and students were graded or evaluated only on the basis of what they knew at the end of a teaching or instructional unit in terms of the absolute standards. A student-oriented curriculum will focus on what the student actually learns from the beginning (or entry) point of the module to the ending (or exit) point. This does not preclude the requiring of fixed standards of performance. It does assume that different workers will achieve those standards at differing rates and, perhaps, by differing learning processes.

The Curriculum Should Be Relevant To Job Performance

Learning modules should be designed giving attention to the tasks actually performed by the students as a part of their jobs. The skills, attitudes, values, and knowledge needed for each task should be identified to allow more efficient structuring of learning activities and subsequent evaluation. Care should be exercised, however, to not overlook the needs of the student as an individual in society, or, put another way, to make sure that the individual's personal learnings which are essential for job success and as a citizen are not overlooked.

The Curriculum Should Be Change-Oriented

- a. To keep the curriculum dynamic, a key administrator should be appointed with primary responsibility to see that an atmosphere of change, innovation and experimentation exists in the organization and in the learning situation.

The central prominence of such a responsibility accompanied by adequate authority should clearly indicate the importance of this role in keeping both the organization and the curriculum dynamic and responsive to the needs of local criminal justice agencies and their personnel.

- b. A life-long learning desire should be instilled in every worker-student as an objective of every program in the curriculum. Accordingly, the institution should reflect means for the worker-student to achieve that goal.

The curriculum should be designed to encourage instructors, counselors and other staff to develop the program as an educative environment and to instill in all criminal justice personnel participating in the programs an appreciation and desire for continued learning. This criterion also implies that the Institute and Centers should, along with the agencies, provide the means for the continuing education of the personnel in and out of the classrooms.

- c. An educational and training research component staffed by professional researchers should systematically provide for evaluating program effectiveness and curriculum innovation and keeping students change conscious.

Professional researchers with training in the dissemination of innovations, change techniques, etc., should be utilized for determining program effectiveness in terms of job performance. Such a staff should also have responsibility for the criteria and techniques designed to keep the curriculum and instruction dynamic. Inherent in this point is that a concern should be maintained by staff for acclimating students to the constant dissemination of ideas, change and evaluation within their organizations or work environment.

- d. At least 10% of the programming should be of the "trailblazer" or experimental type to keep the curriculum dynamic.

To keep the curriculum dynamic and improvement-oriented, a constant atmosphere of experimentation, innovation and change should be maintained. By requiring that at least 10% of all programming be of an experimental nature, the research staff is provided with some direct involvement in the curriculum. This will provide a means for field testing new ideas, teaching techniques, instructional media, evaluation techniques, etc.

Curriculum Design Should Allow For the
Progressive Development of Continuing
Education Programming Towards A Uni-
fied, Professional Model of Education

This criterion asserts that the professional educational model is the most desirable model for guiding the

development of the curriculum in this field. Obviously, all segments of the curriculum will not be acceptable to all agency administrators. During the development period especially, provision should be made for a broad range of types of programming with progressive movement towards unifying the curriculum as experimentation and curriculum research guide such development. This gradual evolution towards a professional education model must also involve university and college programs related to criminal justice.

The Curriculum Should Be System-Oriented

To allow for progressive change towards a unified system of criminal justice in keeping with democratic principles of justice, the curriculum should be system-oriented. Utilizing the interfacing suggested by the set theory model of the criminal justice system reported earlier, this criterion suggests a gradual, progressive change toward joint programming between the sub-systems of criminal justice.

The similarity of the listings and clustering of task statements reported earlier demonstrate the degree of commonality among sub-systems.

At Least 25% of All Programming
Should Be In The Behavioral
Science Content Area

Recognizing the void currently existing in most agency sponsored training programs, this criterion calls for a strong orientation to the behavioral sciences. This is deemed to be critical since criminal justice deals primarily with human behavior. The minimal figure of 25% will undoubtedly be raised as learning techniques, materials and evaluation techniques become adapted to the content areas and as field acceptance increases. The behavioral sciences are defined to include psychology, sociology, communications, history, economics and criminology as being most relevant.

The Curriculum Should
Be Goal-Oriented

All programming should be sub-divided into learning modules properly sequenced to permit all learning activities to be oriented toward the achievement of objectives and goals. Such structuring will encourage staff and user-agency administrators to begin giving some attention to the precise identification of what is deemed desirable and undesirable. Obviously, good testing, research, evaluation and counseling services will facilitate implementation of this criterion.

The Curriculum Should Build On The Experience Of The Students

Learners homogeneously grouped on the basis of their general type-of-work categories should be able to better relate to problems confronted in the learning situations. Adult problem-oriented learning is likely to be most productive when learners can use their own experiences and the experiences of others who face similar problems in different settings to assist them. By utilizing the learners' intra-agency and inter-agency experiences, job relevancy also tends to be more easily observable.

The Framework of the Model Curriculum

The proposed curriculum model was developed using the criteria listed in Section C and the task statements listed in Section B. Realistically, however, it reflects value judgments of this investigator, political realities observed in Region One and the State of Michigan and implementation strategies selected to facilitate acceptance of the curriculum by criminal justice personnel, agency administrators, elected officials, university and community college officials and other interest groups.

As noted earlier, a curriculum as presented in this section is incomplete without a description of the staff, instructors, instructional techniques, and resource material and the learning activities. Each helps

to determine the ultimate success of the entire educational and training effort and each must be assumed to exist in reasonable quantity and quality as described in the previous Section on model criteria.

All learning may be divided into three groups--cognitive, affective and motor-skills. Learning activities may involve a single group, any two groups, or all three, and are defined as follows:⁴

Cognitive--that learning which deals with the recall or recognition of knowledge.

Affective--that learning which deals with changes in interest, attitudes, emotions, biases and values, and the development of appreciations and adequate adjustment.

Psycho-Motor--that learning which deals with intellectual, muscular or motor skills, some manipulation of ideas, material and objects, or some act which requires rational or neuromuscular coordination. Generally, the development of abilities and skills.

The use of such groupings for learning activities allows the development of a taxonomy to classify, label and structure a hierarchy of subject matter and learning goals or objectives. It also allows curriculum personnel and researchers to seek a higher order of quantification and concept definition needed to improve curriculum applications and research. Although such precision is beyond

⁴Benjamin S. Bloom, Ed., Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Education Goals (New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1956), pp. 7-8.

the realm of this study, the potential of such groupings and taxonomies is recognized for subsequent refinement of the curriculum framework proposed here.

The major curriculum program areas and sub-programs which form the skeleton of the curriculum are as follows:

PROGRAM AREA I. SUB-SYSTEM PROFESSIONALIZATION

SUB-PROGRAM A-CRIME CONTROL

SUB-PROGRAM B-HABILITATION

SUB-PROGRAM C-ADJUDICATION

PROGRAM AREA II. HUMAN, BEHAVIORAL & SOCIAL SCIENCES

PROGRAM AREA III. LEGAL

PROGRAM AREA IV. INVESTIGATION AND CRIMINALISTICS

PROGRAM AREA V. SKILLS

SUB-PROGRAM A-PHYSICAL CONDITIONING

SUB-PROGRAM B-WEAPONRY

SUB-PROGRAM C-PRACTICUM

SUB-PROGRAM D-STAFF SUPPORT

SUB-PROGRAM E-OTHER

PROGRAM AREA VI. SUPERVISION

PROGRAM AREA VII. MANAGEMENT

PROGRAM AREA I. SUB-SYSTEM PROFESSIONALIZATION

Each of the sub-systems of criminal justice have tasks that are unique to that sub-system. Schematically, those tasks are depicted as the areas labeled A, B and C in Figure 8. Programming in this area is identified as the professional training and education unique to the respective sub-system and does not overlap with the other sub-systems or program areas.

PROGRAM AREA II. HUMAN, BEHAVIORAL & SOCIAL SCIENCES

This program area includes material from sociology, psychology, human relations, communications, social work, history, criminology, anthropology and the other disciplines and fields of study concerned with group and human behavior. Generally, the programming involves material having job-utility, but a certain amount of conceptual or theoretical material is required as a foundation. A relatively large percentage of the programming in this area should be experimental and innovative in an effort to meet job needs.

PROGRAM AREA III. LEGAL

Law is an essential programming area for nearly all training and education in criminal justice. Historically, law has been the foundation of criminal justice; but it is gradually lessening its central prominence in favor of the increasing acceptance and utilization of the behavioral sciences. Law is undoubtedly one of the major program areas depicted by A B C in Figure 8. The rate of change in case and statutory law and its concomitant effect on the criminal justice sub-system suggests that this program area will be a major continuing education area simply in keeping all personnel current.

PROGRAM AREA IV. INVESTIGATION AND CRIMINALISTICS

The content of this program area is common to several positions in all three sub-systems. It reflects the body of knowledge essential for personnel seeking to determine the facts of an event, act, omission, case history, etc. It also includes that area of investigation, evidence analysis, testimony, etc., requiring specialized and expert scientific knowledge to handle.

PROGRAM AREA V. SKILLS

The Skills Program Area groups learning that is skills-oriented and is concerned with the actual doing or performance of a task or skill. Cognitive and affective learning should also be a part of the programming in this area, but the major focus is upon the acquiring, improvement or maintenance of skills. Problem solving and logical thinking, as skills, are included in this program area.

PROGRAM AREA VI. SUPERVISION

This program area includes programming designed for personnel supervising other personnel. Obviously, it draws heavily from Program Area II. The commonality of educational needs among supervisors across all agencies of criminal justice permits a high percentage of programming

that may be designed for all supervisors regardless of which part of the criminal justice system they are from.

PROGRAM AREA VII. MANAGEMENT

The management program is depicted as one of the areas reflected by the A B C section of Figure 8. It should serve to induce organizational change and create a systems approach to criminal justice by coordinating management training and education among all the sub-systems of criminal justice.

The framework of the curriculum is constructed by small instructional units called modules. These modules are minimally described using descriptive labels generally acceptable and understood by the personnel of criminal justice agencies. No effort was made to define the amount of time to be spent on each module as this factor will vary significantly among the Centers and Institute depending on instructional technique, composition and definition of each module's subject matter, type and quality of instructional staff, characteristics of participating students, etc.

The modules listed do not reflect an instructional format. It may be a seminar, a lecture class, a workshop, a simulated case or game, a discussion group, etc., and it is expected that the instructional format will be varied to allow for experimentation and change.

The curriculum framework presented is change-oriented as it attempts to cross the traditional sub-systems of police, courts, prosecution, corrections and security to allow for cross-training and education among the total criminal justice system. Only the first program area retains any degree of separation among the sub-systems by recognizing that some training and education needs to be separated by the sub-systems. This is conceptually indicated by Figure 8.

I. PROGRAM AREA - SUB-SYSTEM PROFESSIONALIZATION

A. Crime Control⁵

Boat and Water Safety

Crime Analysis

Domestic and Civil Conflicts

Drug Abusers and Alcoholics

Family Crisis Intervention

Hazards Identification and Reduction

Intelligence Coordination

Internal Affairs Investigation

Prisoner Processing

Surveillances, Stake-outs and Raids

⁵The State of Michigan has promulgated a 256-hour curriculum required of all new police officers--See Appendix A. It should be recognized as a separate course or program for crime control personnel.

Team Policing

Traffic Accident Investigations

Traffic Accident Reconstruction

Traffic Control

B. Habilitation

Arrest, Search and Seizure Techniques

Classification Personnel Induction

Community Based Treatment

Counseling

Drug Abusers and Alcoholics

Habilitation by Security Personnel

Para-Professional Orientation

Parole Officer Induction

Probation Officer Induction

C. Adjudication

Bonding Practices

Court Management

Criminal Court Processes

Evidence Analysis-Expert Testimony

Evidence Procedure and Analysis

Grand Jury Management

Jury Management

Juvenile Adjudication

New Judge Induction

New Prosecutor Induction

Pre-Trial Conferences

Pre-Trial Hearings

Problems of Civil Disorders

Prosecution Management

Sentencing Practices

Trial Practices

II. PROGRAM AREA - HUMAN, BEHAVIOR & SOCIAL SCIENCES

Behavioral Aspects of Investigation

Change and Innovation

Communications-Dissemination and Utilization

Comparative Political Systems

Conflict De-escalation Techniques

Counseling

Crime Patterns in the Local Environment

Criminal Deviation and Conformity

Cross-Cultural Relations

Ethics and Professional Responsibility

Field Decision Making

History of Criminal Justice

Local Community Resources

Local Government

The Nature of Crime

Personality Analysis

Politics, the Political Process and Criminal
Justice

Psychology of Conflict and Stress
Research Evaluation
The Social Psychology of Group Behavior
Staff Decision Making

III. PROGRAM AREA - LEGAL

Administrative Law
Admissions and Confessions
Arrest, Search and Seizure
Civil Disorder Law
Civil Law
Constitutional Law and Due Process
Court Procedures
Family and Child Law
Federal Law
Labor-Management Law
Law and Syndicated Crime
Law Foundation and Social Dynamics
Law of Evidence
Liquor Law
Ordinances
Policy and Discretion in Law
Statutory Law
Traffic Law and Regulations

IV. PROGRAM AREA - INVESTIGATION AND CRIMINALISTICS

Applicant Investigation

Case Reporting and Preparation

Collection, Identification and Preservation
of Evidence

Crime Scene Search

Crimes Against Persons

Crimes Against Property

Crimes Against Public Morals

Criminalistics

Criminalistics for Non-Criminalists

Evidence Technician

The Expert Witness

Fingerprint Classification and Searching

Fingerprinting and Personal Identification

Interviewing

Moot Investigation

Note Taking

Photography

Pre-Release Investigation

Pre-Sentence Investigation

Principles of Investigation

Probabilities in Evidence

Sources of Information

Syndicated Crime

V. PROGRAM AREA - SKILLS

A. Physical Conditioning

Crowd Control
Defensive Tactics
Disarming and Control Techniques
Group Exercises-Calisthenics
Offense Tactics
Swimming
Unit Tactics

B. Weaponry

Automatic Weapons Use
Baton Use
Discretionary Use of Force
Firearms Maintenance
Gas Use
Judgment Firing
Night Weaponry
Non-Lethal Firearms Use
Revolver Use
Rifle Use
Shotgun Use
Special Weapons and Tactics (SWAT) Teams

C. Practicum

Crime Control Gaming

Cross Sub-System Practicum
Court Management Gaming
Field Practicum
First Aid
Management Practicum
Mental Hospital Visit
Moot Court
Morgue Visit
Para-Professional Practicum
Practicum Instruction
Raids, Search, Frisk and Seizure
Rescue Services
Riot Control

D. Staff Support

Account Clerk
Bookkeeping
Budgeting
Communications (Police)
Court Clerk
Court Transcription
Grant Application Submission
Personnel Testing and Evaluation
Principles of Andragogy
Purchasing
Records and Record Management

Secretary

Teaching Aids

Typing

E. Other

Building Security

Campus Security

Commercial Establishment Security

Commercial Pilot

Correctional Facility Security

Emergency Vehicle Operation

First Aid

Helicopter Pilot

Horsemanship

Jail Security

Lifesaving

Motor Scooter Operation

Motorcycle Operation

Personal Communications Skills

Private Pilot

Radio Repair

Rescue Swimming

SCUBA

VI. PROGRAM AREA - SUPERVISION

Decision Making

Human Relations in Supervision

Leadership Development
 Manpower Allocation
 Performance Control
 Personnel Counseling
 Personnel Development
 Planning, Research and Development
 Property Control
 Records and Records Management
 Supervising Civil Disorders
 Supervising Crowd Control
 Supervising Professionals

VII. PROGRAM AREA - MANAGEMENT

Collective Bargaining
 Community and Political Relations
 Conflict Resolution
 Decision Making
 Executive Development
 Field Command and Control
 Fiscal Control
 Implementation
 Management Budgeting
 Manpower Allocation
 Meeting Management
 Organizational Theory and Analysis
 Planning, Research and Development

Policy Determination

Selecting Management Personnel

Staff and Work Unit Coordination

Other Findings

This project has provided an excellent forum for viewing the traditionally separate sub-systems of courts, prosecution, corrections and police as a system. The impetus provided by the project design requiring a coordinated and system-oriented curriculum encouraged viewing the system from a different perspective than usual. Thus, in addition to the major findings of the study reported earlier in this chapter, several incidental findings were identified and are reported in this section.

In striving for efficiency in the justice system, there is a continuous awareness of costs and the return in benefits for those costs. In searching for the best training and education curriculum for criminal justice personnel, it becomes easy to overlook the central focus on justice. The primary reason the criminal justice system exists is to allow society to strike a balance between the interests of society, the wrong-doer, and the wronged. To strike this balance is not easy and cannot be done by a rigid formula. It requires personnel in all functions and sub-systems of justice to have an understanding, an appreciation for, and a personal conviction about that

which is just and equal. The numerous interviews and observations of practice revealed a wide disparity between sub-systems, between agencies of the same type within a sub-system and between personnel within an agency. Such disparity indicates foundation level problems in our legal system and justice organizations, the magnitude of which is not easily identifiable from a study of this nature.

A second incidental finding was that performance standards varied sharply between communities. Performance standards of justice personnel seemed to vary according to community size and the degree of heterogeneity of the community. The quality of performance expected of small, rural community justice personnel was not too unlike that of the very large community, but for communities between approximately 50,000 and 100,000 in population, community concern for standards appeared to be much higher. This concern for performance standards was assessed on the basis of concern reflected during personal interviews of community leaders and officials, and criminal justice personnel; organizational controls established within criminal justice agencies to direct and guide personnel performance; and, the description of the tasks performed by justice personnel.

A third incidental finding was that almost without exception the agencies visited and observed were plagued with in-breeding. There was characteristically little

contact with the other agencies and sub-systems of criminal justice, an almost over-powering resistance to new ideas, very little experimentation with new techniques, a parochial view of education and research, and a pre-occupation with the process of justice rather than justice as the goal.

As described early in this chapter, a fourth un-anticipated finding of this study was the similarity between the private and public security field and the police sub-system. Crime control, as defined in this chapter, includes the tasks performed by both private and public agencies concerned with protecting private and public property, persons, institutions, etc., from acts of crime. The realization of the impact of the private justice system on the public crime problem and public security suggests that it might reasonably be included in the overall criminal justice system and utilize the training and education facilities available to public personnel.

A fifth incidental finding is the realization of the diversity of tasks performed by the various agencies from community to community. This was particularly true of police agencies. Tasks performed by criminal justice personnel in some communities were performed by private enterprise in others. Communities also seemed to vary in terms of priorities among tasks, with the most noticeable differences appearing to exist between counties and cities

or villages, although no specific effort was made to quantify priorities or priority differences in the study.

Agencies could easily be categorized into enforcement oriented departments as compared to service and security oriented departments. The same distinctions could be made, though less sharply, for probation and parole agencies; but it could not be made for the courts and prosecution due probably to the size of sample.

These incidental findings to the study, though, identified as "other findings," were reflected in the curriculum construction and the criteria formulation. They also pose some questions worthy of examination for further research.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is (1) to summarize the study's objectives, the methods used to conduct the study, and the curriculum and supporting rationale which were the results or findings of the study, (2) to identify the primary and secondary conclusions of the study, and (3) to recognize the implications of the results for future research efforts, the emerging criminal justice discipline, and the field of adult, continuing and higher education.

Summary of Objectives, Method and Findings

The primary objective of this study was to develop a model curriculum to meet the total training and continuing education needs of criminal justice personnel and agencies serving a large multi-jurisdictional metropolitan region in the United States. The major criterion established for this objective was that the model curriculum be change-oriented towards developing an integrated criminal justice "system" in the target metropolitan region.

The secondary or interim objectives were (1) to identify and define training and continuing education needs of the criminal justice personnel and agencies to (a) provide better job performance, (b) enrich the lives of the personnel as individuals, and (c) improve the system in terms of goal achievement; and (2) to develop the rationale and philosophy supporting the model curriculum. These secondary objectives were viewed as instrumental to the achievement of the primary objective.

Extensive interviews, participation in planning committees' deliberations, review of work records, study of ordinances and statutes defining duties, reviewing policy and procedures manuals, analyzing job descriptions and examining training curricula were the methods used for compiling lists of tasks and task descriptions. From these lists were developed "clusters" or groupings of related tasks. Criteria were developed (these criteria are reflected in the supporting rationale) to guide this clustering process. The value judgments of numerous police executives, judges, prosecutors, correctional administrators and lay community leaders were reflected in these clustering criteria.

No effort was made to quantify needs reflected by the task descriptions due to the nature and complexity of the anticipated regional system or organization. Major attention was given to seeing that all training and continuing

education needs were provided for in the curriculum. The amount of time per course, seminar and program is expected to be developed and adjusted based on experimentation, scheduling considerations, student and agency demands, course credit, and related factors.

The findings are in the form of a list of curriculum modules designed to service all of the 240 political subdivisions of the seven-county region. The proposed Centers and the Institute, operating as an integrated system, will need to determine what each should offer in terms of student and agency demand, financial resources, the availability of facilities and equipment, and the balance of needs throughout the region as these become apparent in the course of the coordination efforts of the Institute.

Equally important to the actual curriculum is the supporting rationale. Conceptualization of the model was shaped by the value judgments which produced the task clustering and the curriculum modules. Actually, the curriculum is generalized to a degree that it would probably fit any large region with one or more central or urban core cities. The necessity for this generalization was dictated by the diversity of the communities in the study area and the extreme range found in the tasks or jobs comprising the criminal justice system of the region.

Conclusion

When this study began some eighteen months ago, there was no regional training available on a regularly scheduled basis. Continuing professional education programs for criminal justice personnel were unheard of except for a few occasional seminars and special topic offerings of the law schools and state bar association. Pre-professional educational programming was a little more common due to the numerous educational institutions in the study area. The region contained the only three law schools in Michigan, but little concern was given by the law schools to those subject matter areas dealing with criminal justice. LEEP, the Law Enforcement Education Program which has provided significant financial aid and inducement to pre-service and in-service criminal justice personnel, can be credited with sparking the interest in education reflected now in the number of criminal justice personnel seeking professional degrees in the region.

During the period while this study has been under way, the organizational structure for implementing the curriculum has been developed and partially implemented. This companion project has greatly assisted this investigator by providing motivation to the persons being interviewed, by illustrating needs for the curriculum study and, in part, by providing for the implementation of the proposed curriculum.

The curriculum proposed as the result of this study can meet the training and continuing education needs of individuals and agencies which comprise the criminal justice system in the study region. It is not a panacea to resolve all training and educational problems, but it is the starting point for experimentation. An essential feature of the proposed model curriculum is the built-in provision for change and a continuing effort to keep the system dynamic. Indicative of the central prominence of this need for constant change is the recommendation that a "Vice President for Change" be appointed. He would be cloaked with the same authority as other key administrative personnel who direct "foundation" level organizational functions essential for the life of the organization.

Based on the principle that a curriculum should be predicated upon or derived from the purpose and function of the participants, the following terminal objectives were achieved as study conclusions:

1. The development of a function-oriented classification scheme for grouping task performance statements which identified training and continuing education needs
2. The identification of criteria for model curriculum development for the four Centers and Institute which constitute the organization for offering the learning programs
3. The presentation of supportive rationale for the criteria and model curriculum
4. The proposal of a model curriculum in the form of subject modules for programs, courses, seminars, and other units of the system.

Implications

Based upon the exploratory nature of the study and its focus upon the proposing of a curriculum as its outcome, the following recommendations or suggestions for additional inquiry and research are posed:

1. Additional conceptualization of the emerging discipline of criminal justice, perhaps using set theory relationships, is needed. Such modeling should seek the validation of fundamental principles which, when combined with other principles, will encourage and permit theory construction.
2. Programs and courses identified with training needs common to personnel in differing functional areas, as represented by the four intersect areas in Figure 8, should be the subject of separate curriculum studies in an effort to increase their impact on inducing desirable agency change.
3. This study should be continued, but needs to be broken down into more manageable segments. Quantification techniques should be developed to begin to add an element of precision not achieved in this study. Also, experimental designs should be considered to allow the development of predictive principles and to identify cause and effect relationships.
4. Due to the high similarity of task descriptions identified between private security personnel and police personnel, feasibility studies should be made to determine whether cross-training or co-training is desirable. Such a possibility offers potentially high economy-of-scale benefits not possible by the current independent approach. It may also greatly improve private and public efforts to reduce crime and increase security of the person, the home, the business and the community in a more economical manner.
5. Immediate efforts should be made to determine the feasibility of combining a liberal arts college education with professional training as a condition of pre-entrance licensing for employment in career criminal justice positions. Additional standards requiring continuous, life-long learning related to professional plateaus should be explored.

6. A separate study needs to be made of the criteria proposed by this study and possibly others not yet identified. These criteria need to be carefully examined and evaluated in light of local community and agency needs. Obviously, the field of criminal justice is changing rapidly and the criteria guiding curriculum design will need to reflect these changes.
7. Additional research efforts should be made to precisely identify the variation of tasks performed by the several criminal justice agencies from community to community. Size of community appears to be the most significant variable. Other variables should be examined to determine their relationship to community organization for criminal justice.
8. Basic research needs to be done to determine the impact of the various media today (especially television) on citizen perception of criminal justice problems and services and of crime in general. An additional dimension of such media research would be an examination of the perception by criminal justice personnel of their own roles as influenced by varying exposures to the various media.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

I. BOOKS

A. CURRICULUM

Anderson, Dan W., et al. Strategies of Curriculum Development. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965.

Bloom, Benjamin S., Ed. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals. Handbook I--Cognitive Domain. New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1956.

Doll, Ronald C. Curriculum Improvement: Decision Making and Process. Second Edition. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1970.

Gardner, John W. Self-Renewal: The Individual and the Innovative Society. New York: Harper and Row, 1963.

Griswold, A. Whitney. Liberal Education and the Democratic Ideal. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1959.

Kibler, Robert J., et al. Behavioral Objectives and Instruction. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1970.

Krathwohl, David R., et al. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals. Handbook II--Affective Domain. New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1964.

Mager, Robert F. and Kenneth M. Beach, Jr. Developing Vocational Instruction. Palo Alto, California: Fearon Publishers, 1967.

Manlove, Donald C. and David W. Beggs, III. Flexible Scheduling. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Press, 1965.

Parker, J. Cecil and Louis J. Rubin. Process as Content: Curriculum Design and the Application of Knowledge. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1966.

Petrequin, Gaynor. Individual Learning through Modular-Flexible Programming. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1968.

Searles, John E. A System for Instruction. Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Company, 1967.

Venable, Tom C. Philosophical Foundations of the Curriculum. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1967.

B. EDUCATION, TRAINING AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

Argyris, Chris. Integrating the Individual and the Organization. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1964.

Bass, Bernard M. and James A. Vaughan. Training in Industry: The Management of Learning. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., 1966.

Bergevin, Paul. A Philosophy for Adult Education. New York: The Seabury Press, 1967.

Beinvenu, Bernard J. New Priorities in Training. New York: American Management Association, Inc., 1969.

Blocker, Clyde E. The Two-Year College: A Social Synthesis. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965.

Brennan, James J. and Donald W. Olmsted. Police Work with Delinquents: Analysis of a Training Program. East Lansing, Michigan: Social Science Research Bureau, Michigan State University, 1965.

Clark, Burton R. Educating the Expert Society. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1962.

Craig, Robert L. and Lester R. Bittel, eds. Training and Development Handbook. American Society for Training and Development. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967.

David, Henry. Education and Manpower. A Report by the National Manpower Council. New York: Columbia University Press, 1960.

DePhillips, Frank A., William M. Berliner, and James J. Cribbin. Management of Training Programs. Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1960.

Dyer, John. Ivory Towers in the Market Place. New York: The Bobbs-Merrill Co. Inc., 1956.

Education and World Affairs, Inc. The Professional School and World Affairs. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1967.

Frost, Thomas M. A Forward Look in Police Education. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1959.

Fryer, Douglas H., Mortimer R. Feinberg, and Sheldon S. Zalkind. Developing People in Industry. New York: Harper & Bros., 1956.

Galf, Jerry G., et al. The Cluster College. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers, 1970.

Gammage, Allen Z. Police Training in the United States. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1963.

Glaser, Robert, ed. Training Research and Education. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1965.

Gross, Edward and Paul V. Grambsch. University Goals and Academic Power. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1968.

Haber, David and Julius Cohen, eds. The Law School of Tomorrow: The Projection of an Ideal. New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University Press, 1968.

Henry, Nelson B. The Integration of Educational Experiences. The 57th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1958.

Henry, Nelson B. Education for the Professions. The 61st Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1962.

Hirsch, Werner Z., et al. Inventing Education for the Future. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1967.

Hook, Sidney. Education for Modern Man. Second Edition. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1967.

- Knowles, Malcolm S. Higher Adult Education in the United States. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1969.
- Knowles, Malcolm S. The Modern Practice of Adult Education: Andragogy Versus Pedagogy. New York: Association Press, 1970.
- McGlothlin, William J. The Professional Schools. New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964.
- Proctor, John H. and William M. Thornton. Training: A Handbook for Line Managers. New York: American Management Association, 1961.
- Prosser, Charles A. and Thomas H. Quigley. Vocational Education in a Democracy. Revised Edition. Chicago: American Technical Society, 1950.
- Saunders, Charles B. Upgrading the American Police: Education and Training for Better Law Enforcement. Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institution, 1970.
- Shaw, Nathan C., ed. Administration of Continuing Education. Washington, D.C.: National Association for Public School Adult Education, 1969.
- Thornton, James W., Jr. The Community Junior College. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960.
- Van Doren, Mark. Liberal Education. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1943.
- Venn, Grant. Man, Education and Work. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1964.
- Watson, Goodwin, ed. Concepts for Social Change. National Training Laboratories, N.E.A. Washington, D.C., 1967.

C. CRIMINAL JUSTICE

- Banton, Michael. The Policeman in the Community. New York: Basic Books, 1965.
- Berkley, George E. The Democratic Policeman. Boston: Beacon Press, 1969.

- Blumberg, Abraham S. Criminal Justice. Chicago: Quadrangle Books, 1967.
- Bordua, David J., ed. The Police: Six Sociological Essays. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1967.
- Chapman, Samuel G. The Police Heritage in England and America: A Developmental Survey. East Lansing, Michigan: Institute for Community Development and Services, 1963.
- Fosdick, Raymond B. European Police Systems. New York: The Century Co., 1915.
- Lee, Captain W. L. Melville. A History of Police in England. London: Methuen & Co., Ltd., 1901.
- Locke, Hubert G. The Detroit Riot of 1967. Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1969.
- Marshall, Geoffrey. Police and Government. London: Methuen & Co., Ltd., 1965.
- Martin, J. P. and Gail Wilson. The Police: A Study in Manpower. Published on behalf of the Institute of Criminology, Cambridge, England, by Heinemann Educational Books, Ltd., London, 1969.
- Quinney, Richard. Crime and Justice in Society. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1969.
- Skolnick, Jerome H. Justice without Trial: Law Enforcement in Democratic Society. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966.
- Smith, Bruce. Police Systems in the United States. Second Edition. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960.
- Wilson, James Q. "The Police and Their Problems: A Theory." Edited by Carl J. Friedrich and Seymour E. Harris. Public Policy, XII. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1963.
- Wilson, James Q. Varieties of Police Behavior: The Management of Law and Order in Eight Communities. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1968.

D. SYSTEMS AND CHANGE

- Banathy, Bela H. Institutional Systems. Palo Alto, Calif.: Fearon Publishers, 1968.
- Bennis, Warren G., et al. The Planning of Change. 2nd Edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969.
- Bennis, Warren G. Changing Organizations. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966.
- Churchman, C. West. The Systems Approach. New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1968.
- Coser, Lewis A. The Functions of Social Conflict. Glencoe, New York: Free Press, 1956.
- Etzioni, Amitoi, ed. Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961.
- Hartley, Harry J. Educational Planning-Programming-Budgeting: A Systems Approach. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968.
- Havelock, Ronald G. Planning for Innovation. Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1971.
- Kahn, Robert L., et al. Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1964.
- Lippitt, Ronald, et al. The Dynamics of Planned Change. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1958.
- Rogers, Everett M. Diffusion of Innovations. New York: The Free Press, 1962.
- Thompson, Victor A. Bureaucracy and Innovation. University, Alabama: University of Alabama Press, 1969.

E. GENERAL REFERENCES

- Andrews, Kenneth R. The Effectiveness of University Management Development Programs. Boston: Harvard University, 1966.

- Barker, Sir Ernest. Social Contract: Essays by Locke, Hume, and Rousseau. New York: Oxford University Press, 1947.
- Insko, Chester A. Theories of Attitude Change. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967.
- Katz, Daniel and Robert L. Kahn. The Social Psychology of Organization. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1966.
- Klotsche, J. Martin. The Urban University. New York: Harper & Row, 1966.
- Likert, Rensis. The Human Organization: Its Management and Value. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967.
- Maslow, Abraham H. Toward a Psychology of Being. Princeton, New Jersey: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1962.
- Mosher, Frederick C. Democracy and the Public Service. New York: Oxford University Press, 1968.
- Parsons, Talcott, ed. Max Weber: The Theory of Social and Economic Organizations. New York: Oxford University Press, 1947.
- Peter, Laurence J. and Raymond Hull. The Peter Principle. New York: William Morrow and Co., Inc., 1969.
- Roszak, Theodore. The Dissenting Academy. New York: Random House, 1967.
- Schein, Edgar H. Organizational Psychology. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965.

II. PERIODICALS

- Bordua, David J. and Reiss, Albert J., Jr. "Command, Control and Charisma: Reflections on Police Bureaucracy," The American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 72 (July, 1966), pp. 68-76.
- Education-Training Marketing Report. A Weekly Newsletter. Washington, D.C.: E.F. Shelley and Co., Inc., 1730 Rhode Island Avenue, N.W.
- Gardner, John W. "How to Prevent Organizational Dry Rot," Harper's Magazine, Vol. 10 (October, 1965), pp. 20-26.

- Hodge, Robert W.; Siegel, Paul M.; and Rossi, Peter H. "Occupational Prestige in the United States, 1925-1963," American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 70 (November, 1964), pp. 290-292.
- Honey, John C. "Education for Public Service: Challenge to the Universities," Journal of Higher Education, pp. 297-310.
- Honey, John C. "A Report: Higher Education for Public Service," Public Administration Review, Vol. 27 (November, 1967), pp. 294-321.
- International Association of Chiefs of Police. Criminal Justice Education and Training. Washington, D.C.: IACP, Education and Training Section, Spring, 1970.
- Jarmel, Eli. "The New Jersey Skills Training Course," Journal of Legal Education, Vol. 17 (November, 1965), pp. 432-438.
- Kreml, Franklin M. "The Role of Colleges and Universities in Police Management," The Police Yearbook, 1966. Washington, D.C.: International Association of Chiefs of Police, Inc., 1966, pp. 34-42.
- Lefler, Robert A. "Seminars for Appellate Judges," Judicature, Vol. 52 (June-July, 1968), pp. 12-17.
- Litwak, E. "Models of Bureaucracy Which Permit Conflicts," American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 67 (September, 1961), pp. 177-184.
- Morris, Albert. "What is the Role of the Community in the Development of Police Systems?" Correctional Research Bulletin No. 19, November, 1969. Boston: Correctional Association.
- O'Connell, Kenneth J. "Continuing Legal Education for the Judiciary," Journal of Legal Education, Vol. 16 (November, 1964), pp. 405-415.
- Ohliger, John. "Integrating Continuing Education," Journal of Higher Education, Vol. 40 (November, 1969), pp. 555-562.
- Raffel, Burton. "Continuing Legal Education: The Need and the Reason," Journal of Legal Education, Vol. 13 (January, 1960), pp. 76-82.

- Riddle, Donald H. "The Emerging Field of Criminal Justice," The Police Chief, Vol. 37 (August, 1970), pp. 18-21.
- Robinson, Russell D. "University Roles in Adult Education," Adult Leadership, Vol. 15 (June, 1966), pp. 34-36, 50.
- Roebuck, Julian and Zelhart, Paul. "The Problem of Educating the Correctional Practitioner," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, Vol. 56 (March, 1965), pp. 45-53.
- Rosenberg, Maurice. "Judging Goes to College," American Bar Association Journal, Vol. 52 (April, 1966), pp. 342-345.
- Rotella, Salvatore G. and McCann, Robert E. "Law Enforcement Education in Chicago," The Police Chief, Vol. 37 (August, 1970), pp. 52-53.
- Stinchcombe, A. H. "Institutions of Privacy in the Determination of Police Administrative Practices," American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 69 (September, 1963), pp. 150-160.
- Stinchcomb, James D. "Impact of the Junior College on Law Enforcement Education," Junior College Journal, Vol. 37 (March, 1967), pp. 44-46.

III. REPORTS

- Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations. Metro-politan America: Challenge to Federalism. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966.
- Bard, Morton. Training Police as Specialists in Family Crisis Intervention. U.S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970.
- Button, Bernard R., et al. Final Report-Specialty Survey of the Security Police Career Field (3 vols.). Lackland Military Training Center. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Commerce, 1969.

- Campbell, James S., et al. Law and Order Reconsidered. A staff report of the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.
- Committee on Personnel Standards and Training. Correction Officers Training Guide. Washington, D.C.: The American Correctional Association, N.D. (post 1962).
- Ford Foundation. A More Effective Arm. A report on a Police Development Fund, newly established by the Ford Foundation. New York: The Ford Foundation, 1970.
- Galvin, John J. and Kraski, Loren. Manpower and Training in Correctional Institutions. Staff report of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training. College Park, Maryland: American Correctional Association, December, 1969.
- Headlough, Warren E. Development of Police Training and Education in Florida. LEAA Grant 350 Project Report. Tallahassee, Florida: Florida Police Standards Council, 1969.
- Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training. Perspectives on Correctional Manpower and Training. College Park, Maryland: American Correctional Association, January, 1970.
- Lejins, Peter P. Introducing a Law Enforcement Curriculum at a State University. U.S. Department of Justice, LEAA, National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, July, 1970, pp. 42-43.
- Kenney, John P. and Whisenhand, Paul M., eds. The Environment and Dynamics of Police Administration: Some Considerations. Long Beach: Institute for Police Studies, California State College, 1969.
- Kleis, Russell J. An Area Approach to Continuing Education. Educational Service Series, Number 16. East Lansing, Michigan: College of Education, Michigan State University, August, 1967.
- Macagnoni, Virginia. Social Dimensions of the Self as an Open System: A Curriculum Design-Strategies for Implementation. Gainesville, Florida: The Florida Educational Research and Development Council, Summer, 1969.

Murphy, James P. Is the Municipality Liable for Insufficiently Trained Police? Orano, Maine: Bureau of Public Administration, University of Maine, 1968.

National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence. To Establish Justice, To Insure Domestic Tranquility. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.

National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. Police Training and Performance Study. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1970.

Nelson, Elmer K., Jr., and Catherine H. Lovell. Developing Correctional Administrators. Research report of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training. College Park, Maryland: American Correctional Association, November, 1969.

Olson, Bruce. Study of Law Enforcement Training in the Southeast Michigan Six-County Region. A research report by the Metropolitan Fund, Inc., Detroit, Michigan, January, 1968.

Piven, Herman and Abraham Alcobes. The Crisis of Qualified Manpower for Criminal Justice: An Analytic Assessment with Guidelines for New Policy. Two Volumes. U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.

President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

_____. Task Force Report: The Police. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

_____. Task Force Report: The Courts. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

_____. Task Force Report: Corrections. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

_____. Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

U.S. Civil Service Commission. Application of a Systems Approach to Training: A Case Study. Training Systems and Technology Series: No. 11, Bureau of Training. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.

U.S. Department of Labor. Manpower Development and Training in Correctional Programs. MDTA Experimental and Experimental and Demonstration Findings No. 3. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1968.

University of Georgia. Model In-Service Training Program for Probation, Parole, and Correctional Personnel. Office of Law Enforcement Assistance. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

IV. UNPUBLISHED MATERIAL

Bacon, Selden. The Early Development of American Municipal Police: A Study of the Evolution of Formal Controls in a Changing Society. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Yale University, New Haven, 1939.

Buckner, Hubbard T. The Police: The Culture of a Social Control Agency. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Southern California, 1967.

Dworkin, Leo. A Systems Theory Approach Toward the Reconceptualization of Curriculum. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, College of Education, Michigan State University, 1969.

Germann, A. C. The Problem of Police-Community Relations. A paper prepared for the Task Force on Law and Law Enforcement of the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, October, 1968.

Joseph, Kenneth Edward. A Study of the Federal Bureau of Investigation's Contribution to Law Enforcement Training and Education in the United States. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1970.

Peabody, Fred. J. An Analysis of Critical Incidents for Recently Employed Michigan Cooperative Extension Agents with Implications for Training. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, College of Education, East Lansing, Michigan, 1968.

- Reiss, Albert J., Jr. The Role of the Police in a Changing Society. Unpublished paper #14, Center for Research on Social Organization, Department of Sociology, University of Michigan, March, 1966.
- Rich, Vernon E. Quantitative Analysis of Training and Education: The Case of the Police. Unpublished M.S. thesis, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1967.
- Vaupel, Carl F. A Survey and Analysis of Two Year Police Science Curricula in the United States. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of South Dakota, 1968.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX

MICHIGAN LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS TRAINING COUNCILMINIMUM BASIC POLICE TRAINING CURRICULUM256 Hours

I. ADMINISTRATION SECTION	<u>10 Hours</u>
Program Orientation	1
Classroom Notetaking	1
Examinations	5
Examination Review	2
Coordinator's Time (graduation, counseling, review, etc.)	1

II. LEGAL SECTION	<u>54 Hours</u>
LAW OF ARREST	4
CONSTITUTIONAL LAW	12
1. Introduction	1
2. Search and Seizure	8
3. Admissions & Confessions	3
COURT FUNCTIONS	10
1. Introduction	1
2. Prosecuting Attorney	1
3. District Court	3
a. Introduction	
b. Misdemeanor	
c. Felony	
d. Warrants	

III. INVESTIGATIVE SECTION 30 Hours

Criminal Investigation	10
Vice Investigation	2
Narcotics and Dangerous Drugs	4
Crime Scene Search	2
Collection and Preservation of Evidence	2
Interview and Interrogation	3
Fingerprinting and Latent Print	
Search Techniques	3
Mock Crime Scene	2
Stolen Motor Vehicles	2

IV. GENERAL POLICE SECTION 113 Hours

History and Philosophy of	
Law Enforcement	2
The Juvenile Offender	4
Firearms Training	24
Police First Aid	14
Field Notetaking and Report Writing	4
Blockade and Roadblock Procedure	1
Police Communications	2
Patrol Techniques	10
Civil Disorders	9
Mechanics of Arrest and Detention	3
Domestic Complaints	3
State Liquor Law Enforcement	3
Emergency Preparedness--Disaster Control	3
Stopping Vehicles and Occupant Control	3
Physical Training and Defensive Tactics	28

V. TRAFFIC SUBJECTS 28 Hours

Motor Vehicle Law	8
Driver Licensing	2
D.U.I.L. Enforcement	2
Motor Vehicle Accident Investigation	12
Traffic Direction and Control	2
Techniques and Methods of Traffic	
Law Enforcement	2

VI. SPECIAL SUBJECTS SECTION	<u>16 Hours</u>
------------------------------	-----------------

Human Relations	8
Police Courtesy and Ethics	4
Handling Abnormal Persons	2
State and Regional Social Services	2

VII. EXTERNAL RELATIONS	<u>5 Hours</u>
-------------------------	----------------

Jurisdiction of Federal Law Enforcement Agencies	2
Michigan Corrections, Parole and Probation System	3

TOTAL	256
-------	-----

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES



3 1293 03196 6173