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A Model Training Program to Prepare Candidates for Employment as Police Officers in Taiwan

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A MODEL TRAINING PROGRAM
TO PREPARE CANDIDATES FOR EMPLOYMENT
AS POLICE OFFICERS IN TAIWAN

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George Gwo-Fang Jien

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ABSTRACT
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The purpose of this project was to design a model training
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Taiwan. To accomplish this project, a review of current literature
regarding training for basic police work was conducted. Additionally
related information from Central Police University, Taoyuan, Taiwan,
was obtained and analyzed.

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CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND OF THE PROJECT

<u>Introduction</u>

The police are the primary civil agency of government responsible for criminal law enforcement, regulation of conduct and the protection of life and property. In a general sense they are responsible for assuring that orderly processes of government, business, and industry and society and economic change may take place with a minimum of disorder and disruption (Kenney, 1985, p. 32).

In the above statement, Kenny has emphasized the important role the police play in protecting society. To that end, police are responsible for maintaining an ordered society, through the prevention of crime, preservation of peace, maintaining the law, and protecting public society.

In their discussion of the enormous responsibility police have in the "maintenance of ordered liberty," which is concerned with protecting society from internal chaos and anarchy, Ostrom, et al (1978, p.243), concluded minimum training standards for certification of police officers was essential. Due to the variety of assignments and wide-ranging situations typically encountered by police personnel, basic police training is critical. Much police work may involve unpleasant duties which exposes officers to sordid, depressing, or dangerous situations. Police may be called upon to deal with all types of people under all types of circumstances. In

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stressful situations, people may become confused, abusive, or hysterical, and often only the calming influence of the police officers involved can bring about order and prevent more serious trouble. Police work demands emotional stability, as well as the ability to think clearly and act rationally under all types of circumstances. In emphasizing the need for effective training for police officers, Ostrom, et al, stated:

> Widespread formal entry-level training for police recruits is a recent phenomenon. Until the late 1960s such training was found predominantly in the nations larger municipal police departments and in state police agencies. In the mid 1950s four states--California, New York, Minnesota, and Montana--pioneered in the move to encourage universal training for police recruits by passing legislation mandating recruit training for local agencies. Since then, an ever growing number of states have passed legislation establishing a state-level council or agency authorized to set minimum training standards to certify police officers.

Purpose of the Project

The purpose of this project was to design a model training program to prepare candidates for employment as police officers in Taiwan. To accomplish this project, a review of current literature regarding training for basic police work was conducted. Additionally

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related information from Central Police University, Taoyuan, Taiwan, was obtained and analyzed.

Limitations of the Project

For purposes of this project, it was necessary to establish the following limitations:

1. Research: The preponderance of research and literature reviewed for purposes of this project was limited to the past five (5) years.

2. Scope: The model program will tentatively be designed for implementation at Central Police University, Taoyuan, Taiwan.

3. Target population: The training program was designed for use with prospective police candidates enrolled at Central Police University, Taoyuan, Taiwan.

Definition of Terms

Significant terms used in the context of this project have been defined as follows:

1. Central Police University: Refers to the specialized university at Taoyuan, Taiwan, that awards two-year, four-year, and graduate degree training in police work and fire-protection services.

2. Police: Refers to the civil department that maintains order and

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enforces the law (<u>Webster Handy College Dictionary</u>, 1981, p. 408).

3. <u>Police Academy</u>: Refers to post-secondary level training programs that prepare candidates for careers in police-work.

4. <u>Police Offices</u>: Those charged with protecting the public safety (<u>The Encyclopedia of Careers and Vocational Guidance</u>, Ninth Edition, 1993, p. 140).

5. <u>Training / Police Training</u>: Refers to a variety of specialized training provided by either police academies or universities (e.g. , weapons, investigation, street patrol, vice squad, fraud, traffic, rescue, etc.), for candidates seeking employment as police officers (<u>The Encyclopedia of Careers and Vocational Guidance</u>, p. 141).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

AND INFORMATION OBTAINED FROM

SELECTED POLICE TRAINING PROGRAMS

Introduction

The review of search and literature summarized in Chapter 2 has been organized to address:

1. The Evolution of Law Enforcement Management in the United States--an Overview

2. Police Training in the United States

    a. Background Information from the Literature

    b. Literature Specific to Field Training Programs

    c. Recently Proposed Washington State Legislation for Criminal Justice Training

3. Recent Developments in Community-Oriented Policing in the United States

    a. Community-Oriented Policing Programs vs. a Philosophy of Policing

    b. Organizational Structure and Change

    c. Issues Relating to Organizational Change

4. Characteristics of Selected, Exemplary Suburban Police Forces in the United States:

    a. Lakewood, Colorado

    b. Dublin, Ohio

c. Baltimore County, Maryland

d. Mount Pleasant, South Carolina

e. Palatine, Illinois

f. Redmond, Washington

g. Garden Grove, California

h. Arlington, Texas

5. A Summary of Selected Model Police Training Programs in Taiwan and the United States:

a. Central Police University, Taoyuan, Taiwan.

b. Seattle Police Department, Seattle, Washington

c. Washington State Criminal Justice Training Academy

d. Spokane Police Department, Spokane, Washington

e. Omaha Police Department, Omaha, Nebraska

f. San Jose Police Department, San Jose, California

6. Summary

Data current primarily within the past five (5) years were identified through an Educational Resource Information Centers (ERIC) computer search. Related information from Central Police University, Taoyuan, Taiwan, and from selected police officer training programs in the United States was also obtained and analyzed. Additionally a hand-search of various sources of information related to police-work and police training programs was conducted.

The Evolution of Law Enforcement Management
in the United States--An Overview

In their landmark research publication entitled Proactive Police Management (1985), Thibault, Lynch, and McBride identified O.W. Wilson's Police Administration (1963) as "the dominant textbook authority in law enforcement management". There were some good reasons given for this. For the 1950s and 1960s, the recommendations made in the book were practical, and there was a need for the implementation of basic organizational principles. The book was superbly organized and covered familiar territory for the former middle managers who were the instructors in the new police science programs that were just being started throughout the nation. Most important, many of the essential organizational recommendations were just being put into place in police agencies. In terms of creating a rational hierarchical bureaucracy with workable operational principles, O.W. Wilson's approach did work. This field-oriented traditional approach provided a solid infrastructure of operating principles for later approaches.

The popularity of this text and approach persisted throughout the 1970s when we saw an upsurge in growth in police management courses at the two-year community college level. However, as 1980s approached, it became increasingly obvious that this approach was out of date. Growing out of the 1960s and reaching its full bloom in the 1970s was the behavioral-systems approach, where management techniques used in private business and public administration were

applied to police management. The behavioral approach was considered more scientific and systematically organized than was Wilson's approach, and it was believed that this approach would lead to better communications between management and line officers along with a more responsive and flexible organizational structure. The behavioral-systems approach contained a number of different strategies but with some common characteristics (Thibault et al):

1. It was systematic.

2. There was a heavy emphasis on planning.

3. It was oriented toward social science.

4. It was oriented toward communication and psychology.

5. There was heavy use of behavioral science jargon.

Examples of this approach drawn from private industry and public administration included behavioral objectives and Project STAR techniques. The acronym STAR stands for System and Training Analysis of Requirements for criminal justice participants, a federally funded experimental training program in California from May, 1971 to December, 1974, sponsored by the California Commission on Peace Officers' Standards and Training. However, none of these behavioral systems approaches became as popular as O.W. Wilson's text. Why? Some texts were basically behavioral/psychological with an overwhelming emphasis on communication, ignoring other important organizational aspects of operating a police department. Others reviewed the standard systems/behavior approaches such as organizational development (OD), program evaluation and review technique (PERT), program, planning, budgeting system (PPBS), and

management by objectives (MBO). Thibault et all contended these approaches relied too heavily on behavioral science jargon and lacked specifics on how to apply them in the operation of a police department. Police managers needed to be familiar with these concepts and how they operate. They did not want just a one-concept approach, but needed to have a more flexible approach to management. When behavioral systems concepts were found to be useful for that police department, as they have been especially with the larger departments, they should have been systematically implemented.

Today, most police departments operate on the traditional organizational principles as they were stated in Wilson's text. College-educated managers are moving into these traditionally organized departments and need to be concerned with modern communication advancements and the behavioral approaches to organization. They also need to know how to implement these approaches into the traditional police departments while being able to take care of day-to-day organizational and field problems. texts and courses dominated by jargon with few field examples in how to operationalize these concepts on a practical level failed to fulfill many of the needs of the current and coming generation of police managers.

Another approach that became popular in the decade of the 1970s was the community-oriented team approach. However, once again, we had what was considered a one-concept approach, with a neglect of implementation techniques and a lack of concern for many

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of the traditional management problems involved in conducting day-to-day business. Many police manages have an interest with this approach since, in terms of federal support for the 1970s, this became a major innovation in police organization. Thus we needed to take a realistic look at the team approach showing its strengths in terms of flexibility in organizational style, good implementation of many behavioral communication model, and its organizational commitment to involving the community in a very real way with the business of law enforcement. There are a number of problems in implementing this approach in the traditional police department. It look at the present as if some modified, multi-service team approach can work with some departments, but it is no longer considered an overwhelming solution to modern police organizational problems in the 1990s. Thus the three major approaches to law enforcement management most practiced today are (Thibault, et al):

    1. Field-oriented "practical" traditional approach

    2. Behavioral/communication/systems approach

    3. Community-oriented team approach

The law enforcement organizational model of the 1990s will most likely incorporate all these approaches. Thus the students of police management need to be aware of the strengths and limitations of each approach. Modern police managers need a reality-based, practical approach that will be proactive rather than reactive. The student of police management needs knowledge skills that will have realistic application to the agency setting. However, no one approach

will be the answer for every situation for every manager. The police manager of the future will be a pragmatist with a wide variety of behavioral, traditional management, and planning skills.

Increasingly, more of his or her time will be taken up with personnel with the advent of collective bargaining, affirmative action, and the newer and more useful concepts from the behavior/management sciences. However, today's manager still has to run a police department fulfilling the essential tasks needed in the job of delivering social services to the community, dealing with political reality, protecting the community from predators, and apprehending criminals. This is a big job and an essential one. It also looks as if this modern police manager may have to deal with a budget drawing from scarce resources and thus have to be more systematically organized and efficient than his or her predecessors. He or she will do this essentially by a synthesis of the old and new, taking the best from the knowledge of the past and applying it to the problems of the future. The manager needs to have the skills and knowledge for using such a tools as the computer so that the management team can anticipate and plan for future events affecting the agency and community. Essentially this will be a proactive police manager understanding a variety of concepts and how to apply them but with his or her feet solidly planted upon the reality of the needs and demands of his agency and his community (Domanick,1996).

Domanick concluded that policing in the United Stated today is under a great strain. Because traditional hiring practices have come under attack, many police department s are now unable to fill their

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ranks as their hiring procedures are tied up by court injunctions. With regard to personnel, when compared with personnel in previous decades, today's polices are generally better educated and trained. Yet there is a rejection of the usual way of doing business with regard to taking orders and accepting discipline from supervisors. Overall, police today are militant and increasingly question status quo, hence, the police unionism that started in the 1970s.

From the viewpoint of the general public, there is widespread support for police to contain crime. Communities, however, will no longer tolerate corruption and brutality, as shown by the riots that have been sustained in many cities already in the 1980s. It was against this background that the writer (George Gwo-Fang Jien) recognized the need for a well trained cadre of skilled, professional police officers and the need to design a model program to prepare candidates for employment as police officers.

Police Training In The United States

Background Information from the Literature

Modern police training has come a long way since the early days when a police officer might have been told the following , as part of his training by veteran police officers (Sullivan, 1971):

> When you hit a suspect, hit him hard.
>
> When you tell someone something, tell him once because once is enough.

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Don't trust anyone--not even your wife.

Herbert Jenkins, an Atlanta, Georgia, police chief, described the full range of training when he entered the force in Atlanta (Sullivan):

> When I joined the Atlanta Police Department in the early thirties I was issued a badge, a revolver, blackjack and Sam Browne belt, and send out on patrol with a senior police officer. After one week of "training" I was a full fledged policeman on my own.

Lack of morale, surges of unnecessary grievances, and such factors as negative relations with citizen groups and minority communities have all reflected a need for training. Officers who do not know how to handle situations evolving out of ignorance have been criticized by both police management and the press. They have become the subject of bad publicity for the department and may even become the object of civil suits by citizens. If an officer deprives a citizen of his or her legal rights and civil liberties just because the officer is not trained properly then citizens may have legal recourse to ask for indemnification for this loss. This lack of judgment may not be the police officer's fault of the department and the law. Two major causes may be (Sullivan):

> 1. Officers who have been on the force for less than a year not have any training, including training in the use of a deadly weapon. Most state laws let departments appoint officers and then give them a period of months for the officer to begin his or her training. Meanwhile you have untrained and often

dangerous personnel on the street wearing badges and guns .

2. Some departments provide training as close to the state's minimum training hour requirement as humanly possible. These programs lack trained instructors and modern curricula. The newly trained officer may not know what to do when a hostage situation develops or a family crisis looks like it will become violent. Thus lives are lost because the department felt that training in family crisis intervention and hostage negotiation was a "frill".

These may not be the only reasons that an officer has failed to respond in an effective and professional manner to stressful situations, but they have been reasons too often in the past. Many modern police administrators feel that lack of training should never exist because the department's reputation and citizen's lives are at stake. One mistake made by a poorly trained or untrained officer is one mistake too many. This possibility caused most states to demand some minimum training standards. However these standards normally deal with what has been called " nuts and bolts " training, dealing with a "how to" approach as to what are considered essential tasks. These might include weapons training, report writing, basic criminal law, minor criminal investigations techniques including some crime scene control, and so on. Most of these standards either deal briefly or do not deal at all with human relations and communication skills (Sullivan).

With officers spending the overwhelming majority of their time in contact with citizens, dealing with a multitude of social problems

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rather than direct crime-related activity, the lack of human relations training can spell trouble for the public department on a daily basis. Police training has therefore taken on paramount importance to both police supervisors and police command personnel. Supervisors need to feel confident that their officers, at least, potentially know the fundamentals of the job. They also have to be concerned that their officers have a certain level of skill developed both in the technical aspects of patrol operation and defensive tactics as well as human relations skills. On-the-job training of fundamental skills such as these becomes dangerous since police are often dealing with human beings in tense situations. With officers who lack fundamental skills, the supervisor has to worry about neglecting normal backup and administrative duties. A proper training program eliminates many of these worries (Thibault).

> If there are too many poorly training individuals, command personnel cannot rely on the officers carry out the commands because the officers do not know how to carry them out. Without the training personnel, command personnel into the work force problem employing untrained personnel for tense situations and important crime investigations. Backup becomes increasingly ragged, paperwork becomes confused, and morale gets lower and lower as the officers become more frustrated with their own inadequacies.

> Thibault, et al, have concluded : Modern managers realize that training their forces in modern police methods over a long period of time is a capital investment for a department with

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high morale. It takes years to training a whole force fully, including in-service training. The investment pays off as morale rises and the officers realize that they can handle situations that were formerly unnerving. Confidence breeds confidence. Let us now examine those model programs that captured the imaginations of professional law enforcement managers in the 1970s.

Literature Specific to Field Training Programs

Although a relatively new problem, field training programs have became an important facet of American police training. Since the first formal program was implemented in 1972, it has been copied, changed, improved, and institutionalized by low enforcement agency across the Nation. (McCampbell, 1981)

When a person is hired to be a police officer, he or she is traditionally sent to the classroom for basic training, which is by far the most complex training undertaken by a police agency, is aimed at providing the newly hired recruit with a basic competency to perform the job of patrol officer. However, most recruit training programs leave a wide gap between the classroom and the "real world" of police work. The classroom will not suffice in and of itself to adequately prepare the new officer to understand the police role and how to fulfill it (McCampbell).

For this and other reason, field training plays an important part in the effective training of new recruits. Through exposure to actual street experience and the accompanying field problem, patrol situation, investigation, and criminal incidents, the recruit learns to apply classroom principles to live situation. The of field training experience takes up where the classroom leaves off, and is also used

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to see if a new recruit can function effectively as a police officer. Ideally, field training serves as a continuation of the selection process in addition to its training functions. Said McCampbell.

Field training programs, if properly designed and administered, can result in improve police services to the community. Better trained and therefore better qualified police officers will increase the police department's efficiency and effectiveness. A direct result of these field training programs can be an overall improvement in the relationship between the police and community. Specifically, these programs can reduce the number of civil liability complaints and lawsuits against the police department.

Field training programs are relatively inexpensive to implement and maintain considering the dollar savings that result from a reduction in civil liability lawsuits. these dollar savings may be better used to accomplish the agency's primary mission--the protection of life and property (McCampbell).

Formalized Field Training: One of the most important developments in police officer selection and training was the introduction of the first formalized field training programs in San Jose, California, in 1972. The programs involved assigning experienced, specially selected and trained police officers, known as Field Training officers (FTO's), to newly commissioned officers to provide tangible, on-the-street training, evaluation, and if needed, retraining. The ultimate goal was to ensure that the recruit police officer not only knew the law and departmental policies, but also was capable of handling responsibilities on the street before being

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allowed to work alone in the field. Another important feature of the San Jose program was the FTO's role in the screening and selection of police recruits. Those recruit officers who completed the academy could still be weeded out if they failed to acquire or exercise the critical policing skills under the scrutiny of the FTO's (McCampbell).

> Today, the "typical" field training program consists of some formalized method of training recruit officers on the job. This training, combined with performance evaluation by the FTO, usually occurs immediately after the recruit completes the classroom portion of the basic training. In this manner, recruits put into practice the theories they have learned in the classroom. The field training program usually continues until the trainee successfully makes the transition to effective patrol officer or is dismissed for failure to meet the requirements of the job (McCampbell)

The formal field training program usually divides the training into segments or phases. Although the length of the segments may vary, each program normally consists of an introductory phase which familiarizes the recruit with the functions and duties specific to the agency, several training and evaluation phases, and a final evaluation phase. During the training and evaluation phases, the recruit is gradually introduced to the more complicated tasks of law enforcement.

During the final evaluation phase, which consists only of evaluation

of the recruit's performance, the FTO may act strictly as an observer and evaluator while the recruit acts independently of the FTO. This is considered a final check or test to see if the recruit is ready to work alone (McCampbell).

In all phases of the field training program, the recruit is consistently evaluated to ensure that satisfactory progress is being made. Deficiencies are identified and remedial training occurs. Recruits who successfully complete the program continue through the remainder of the probationary period (McCampbell).

<u>Input from United States Commissions:</u>

Police training generally and field training specifically have been influenced by the recommendations of four national commissions: the Wickersham Commission, 1931; the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration, 1967; the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, 1973; and the Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies, ongoing.

These four bodies have had varying degrees of success effecting changes in law enforcement training. However, all have agreed upon the importance of effective police recruit training.

The Wickersham Commission first called attention to some of the problems in 1931 when it reported that no formalized recruit training was performed in 80 percent of the police agencies in its survey of 383 municipalities. The problem was particularly acute in the smaller cities, which had no pretext of training.

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and

Administration, formed to study the entire criminal justice system after the civil unrest of the 1960's, made numerous recommendations to improve the management of police departments. One important recommendation was that agencies should implement supervised field training programs. It is unknown how many law enforcement agencies acted on this recommendation, but it was the first time a national body emphasized the importance of field training.

The most important support given to the concept of field training came from the Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies (CALEA). This organization, the only accrediting process for police departments, was formed in 1979. With guidance from the four associations that represent over 90 percent of all law enforcement agencies in the United States (Police Executive Research Forum; International Association of Chiefs of Police; National Sheriffs' Association; and the National Association of Black Law Enforcement Executives), the Commission promulgated almost 1,000 standards designed to accredit law enforcement agencies in much the same manner that universities, hospitals, and schools are accredited. As a permanent and professional accrediting body, CALEA is in a unique position to positively affect law enforcement agencies and the quality of service they provide.

CALEA devotes an entire chapter of 45 standards exclusively to training. One of the standards requires all agencies seeking accreditation to have a formal field training program for recruit

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officers. The standard requires the following: a field training program of at least 4 weeks, a selection process for field training officers, supervision of field training officers, liaison with training academy staff, training of field training officers, and evaluation responsibilities for field programs will come under more scrutiny by local governments across Nation.

General Recommendation from the Literature

It was not until the early 1970's that reformers in the criminal justice field began to call for organized field training programs. Wilson and McLaren (1972) suggested that a field training program should be an integral part of recruit training and that training should provide a smooth transition from the theory of the classroom to the practical application of the street.

Goldstein (1977) touched on the subject when he stated that recruit training programs would make a substantial advance if they were realistically designed to equip an officer to perform required functions. Roberg (1976) recommended that, following basic training, the newly appointed sworn police officer should spend a minimum of 4 months in varying field experiences.

Territo et al (1977), stated the problem most succinctly of all. The viewed field training as a human resources development tool that bridges the gap between the classroom and actual experience. They wrote that field training should not be viewed as a supplement to the classroom; rather it should be an integrated part of the total learning experience for the probationary officer.

Walker (1981) stressed the importance of the Field Training Officer's (FTO) role and the importance of developing communications skills and self-confidence among training officers. He also indicated that the training program should be based on a guide that focused attention on the recruit officer's performance.

An article by Kaminsky and Roberts (1985) described the San Jose, California, Police Department's Field Training and Evaluation Program, which began in 1972. The program is notable because it appears to be the model upon which most of the other field training programs in the United States are based. This program has been discussed in detail later in the chapter as one of the six selected police training programs.

Hartman (1979) described his police department's (Farifax County, Virginia) field training program goals, which center on standardizing the recruit process and reducing fragmentation of training.

Bromley (1982) discussed a field training program developed at the University of South Florida for its public safety department. The major objective of the program, designed from the San Jose model, was the evaluation of the recruit officer according to 30 predefined performance tasks.

Barnett (1983) described the goals of a field training program in the Greenville County, South Carolina, Sheriff's Department. The goals of the program emphasize the standardization of the training process and adequate preparation of recruit officers. The literature further indicated that the history of formalized field training

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programs has been very recent -- dating only from 1972. However, the problems of effective police training have been noted as long ago as 1931 by the Wickensham Commission.

National Criminal Justice Reference Services Survey (NCJRS): A 1985 survey, conducted by the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS) was designed to elicit "specific information about field training programs", it was sent to 588 local and State law enforcement agencies. The survey produced 16 major findings confirming the field training program is an excellent way to bridge the gap between the classroom and the street while offering the agency a better opportunity to evaluate, through on-the-job performance, a new employee's suitability for police work.

The findings from the data collected in the survey covered a wide range of issues and have implications that go beyond the specific field training programs subject matter.

The major findings have been summarized below (McCampbell):

1. Field training programs have become institutionalized in American law enforcement practices. Agencies of every size and in every section of the country have some form of structured program. A total of 183 agencies (63.5 percent) indicated that they possessed a field training program.

2. Although they have become institutionalized, field training programs are relatively new. A total of 121 agencies (66.5 percent) of all reported programs are less than 10 years old.

3. The San Jose, California, field training program is the model for a

large percentage of programs across the Nation. A total of 105 agencies (57.4 percent) of all respondents reporting programs attributed their programs directly to this model. Most respondents reported that they are modified various elements of the program to meet their own needs.

4. Of the respondents, 173 (94.5 percent) reported that field training programs originated from recognized personnel problems and the need to improve the recruit training process.

5. Field training programs are associated with a reduction in civil liability complaints. Fifty-four agencies (29.5 percent) reported that their agencies had fewer of these complaints as a result of their field training programs.

6. Field training programs are also associated with a significant decrease in the number of successful EEO judgments made against law enforcement agencies. Thirty-eight agencies (20.8 percent) reported that they had observed a decrease in these complaints since implementing their programs.

7. Agency size appears to be a predictor of whether an agency has a field training program and its program length. Larger agencies are more likely to have a field training agencies are more likely to have a field training program and to have had it longer than the smaller agencies. Additionally, the larger agencies are more likely to have a more extensive field training process.

8. Field training program are being used as a continuation of the recruit selection process. A total of 175 agencies (95.6 percent) of all respondents indicated that they could dismiss recruits based upon

poor performance in the program. The survey responses also indicate that the attrition rate from these programs is not statistically different than the recruit and 4.8 percent, respectively.

9. Evaluation is an important part of most field training programs. The majority of respondents (65.3 percent) indicated that they use daily recruit evaluation. The next largest percentage use weekly evaluation (21.8 percent). Generally, these evaluations tend to be based on standardized, job-related criteria. A significant proportion of agencies (97.7 percent) indicated that they use standardized evaluation guidelines for recruit evaluation. Almost two-thirds (65.6 percent) stated that they base their evaluation guidelines on a job task analysis that is specific to the agency.

10. The Field Training Officer (FTO) is the single most critical position within the field training program. Agencies are devoting considerable time and resources to FTO selection and training. Generally, agencies select candidates from a pool of volunteers (65.5 percent) with further screening by some type of oral board (51.9 percent). FTO's receive a considerable amount of training in most agencies (81.9 percent) before they are allowed to train recruits.

11. The majority of agencies (91.9 percent) to not assign recruits to specially designated geographic areas within their locality for field training.

12. Most agencies (61.9 percent) assign a recruit officer to multiple FTO's during the training process.

13. State agencies that regulate new enforcement officer standards and training have not yet recognized the need for field training programs as an integral part of the recruit training process. No States were identified that mandate a structured field training program. However, California is currently developing and field testing such a program in several police departments.

14. Field training programs appear to be successful from an agency point of view. A significant number of agencies (158 respondents or 86.3 percent) rate their field training program as either successful or very successful in terms of selecting the best person for the job.

15. According to respondents, the major benefits of field training programs are: standardization of the training process; better documentation of recruit performance and nonperformance; and a resultant ease of dismissal of recruits who fall to perform during the perform.

16. Generally, law enforcement agencies suggest that their programs could be enhanced by improving the quality of the Field Training Officer. Suggested ways of doing this center around the provision of better FTO selection, training, and compensation.

Recent Developments in
Community Oriented Policing in the United States

Over the last few years, Community Oriented Policing (COP) has become the new standard for police practice in the United States. President Clinton's pledge to add 100,000 officers to departments throughout the USA will bring with it the substantial tasks of operational reorientation, technical training, and in many cases the reorganization of police agencies. Putting the COP philosophy into practice will require a long term commitment of police executives and their personnel at all levels of the organization (Gray et al).

a. Community oriented policing programs vs. a philosophy policing

Adding additional police personnel and charging them with the implementation of COP does not guarantee that a police agency will necessarily implement the COP philosophy department-wide. Presently, many of the training programs designed to support these COP efforts are limited to a three-hour orientation session. There is little "hands-on" assistance provided to facilitate successful implementation throughout the department of question. A COP manual may provide a step-by-step process, but few of these "how to" directives explain the organizational ramifications of embracing COP within a police agency. The manual or "how to" source will suggest that approaching community oriented policing as a program within a department is a much different task than that of establishing a department-wide COP management philosophy. There has been, unfortunately, little research on what this difference

means in practice with respect to the internal organizational conflict that has often existed among units in a police organization when a COP program is limited to a segment of the department. having two different philosophies at work in one department creates the risk of divisions arising between the "soft" cops and the "real" cops. The proposed long-term strategic plan of the agency often calls for the incorporation of COP through a "staged" process of change. Although this approach seems reasonable, much past experience instructs us that the battle over what COP real is, who gets the resources, who makes the decisions, and how departmental incentives and rewards are to be reorganized is often so vicious that the underlying principles of COP are subordinated to the long-term struggle for power and resources. However, in many cases where COP has been initiated as a specific program, the ensuing internal conflicts have stopped overall adoption of COP before it could be truly tested (Walker, 1992).

Many of today's police organizations work under a centralized, hierarchical management structure, permitting only limited discretion in the decision making process. Departments are set up to reach to crime by responding to criminal incidents or calls for service. Police cars and high technology communications and investigation techniques have replaced officers walking beats and learning about their community and becoming part of that social network. Success has been typically measured by the number of crimes cleared, arrests made, and calls answered.

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The philosophy of COP, in contrast, has been based on both community-based problem solving and the empowerment of line officers with enhanced decision making authority. Officers working with their community define and solve localized problems. These problems often require solutions that are not traditionally associated with law enforcement agencies, and typically involve other city, county , and non-profit agencies. Community-based problem solving calls upon officers to make innovative decisions in the field. When an organization embraces management philosophy of COP, all members of department adopt a customer service orientation and work toward a community-wide effort to prevent crime (Walker).

COP officers often feel constrained by the existing hierarchical structure and regulations that keep decision-making authority at the top, limit the among and type of information dispersed, and require all actions to go through the "chain of command". these disparate organizational motivations cause internal conflict between expected outcomes of COP police actions and the type of decision making that is permitted via a system of command and control. This fundamental conflict over decision making often limits the adoption of COP. The implementation of COP throughout the entire organization under these circumstances has been difficult at best. Data gathered through employee surveys in both large and small jurisdictions consistently indicate that the traditional rules, promotion systems, and organizational structures of police agencies inhibit the line-level officer's ability to trust that COP can be fully integrated within the

organization. Distrust of change, lack of confidence in management, and cynicism with respect to changing reward systems typically restrict the timely implementation of COP (McGarrell, 1994).

b. Organizational Structure and Change

According to Jones (1981), these inconsistencies of purpose and values contribute to the organizational conflict experienced in implementing COP, and ultimately bring about attempts at structural and organizational change. Departments attempting to change confront the need to examine their "organizational universe". The organizational universe describes the total system in which the officer is working. The organizational universe includes values, goals, organizational structure, internal climate, and external stockholders. Assessing this universe prior to the attempting the full-blown implementation of COP is strongly recommended. A brief description of each aspect of the organizational universe construct that follows is provided in order to establish some common ground when exploring and mapping organizational change efforts. It should be noted that these are general descriptions that can be applied when examining the concerns of the relevant actors and stockholders involved in the change process.

Organizational Value. At the core of the organization is a set of values--an underlying philosophy that defines the organization's reason for existence. As long as there is consensus among managers on the core values, their decisions are seen as legitimate and coordinated. The values of COP --including problem solving, community partnerships, officer discretion, and customer service--

must drive the organization. Community policing relies on the articulation of values that incorporate citizen involvement in neighborhood life. It is through these values that members understand what actions are most important. The culture of the department comes to reflect these values in the structure and management of the department (Brown, 1989).

When there is uncertainty over basic organizational purposes and values , manager often fell they must engage in empire building, sabotage, or outright conflict to protect their own careers--often at the expense of the organization. They also compete with one another --for resources, for recognition, and ultimately for the top job. Because command staff personnel are aware of the potential for overt conflict, and a tendency to leave major issues unresolved. The message to agency personnel is clear. "Here is another passing fad you don't have to take seriously". (Hout and Carter, 1995)

Schneider et al (1994), contended it is critical that organizational values are explicitly shared and modeled. Top management personnel are responsible for taking this step. Managers are often good at championing change by others, but poor changing their own behavior. Culture is established by employees observing what happens to them and then drawing conclusions about their organization's priorities; they then set their own priorities accordingly. It is for this reason that it is so important that senior managers address the implications of a COP philosophy for their own work.

Organizational Goals. Organizational goals result from the

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articulation of values. Goals describe what concrete outcomes the organization is striving for and how it will attain its values. For example, a goal to "enhance the involvement of community members in the identification and solution of community problems" implies the value of citizen empowerment. goals are not just budget items masked as action plans. Goals explain how organizational values will be implemented within the organization; as a consequence they must be substantially outcome-based guides to action. Senior managers must be held accountable for achieving these goals. It is relatively easy to opt into a COP process, agree to the derivative goals, but then exempt key employees from participating or foreclose COP access to some resources for political reasons, Command staff must agree on how they will share personnel committed to COP, how they will allocate resources to ensure success, and what evaluation processes they will use. The implementation of COP goals exposes many of the personnel conflicts of interest that lie undetected (or at least not discussed) within a police agency (Schneider et al).

Structure. Structure involves much more than the ubiquitous organizational chart. That chart decides the formal mechanisms and relationships that enable the implementation of these values and goals. there are five major areas of the structure: commander-officer relationships, communication patterns, decision making procedures, accountability and commitment provisions, and reward system. Each of these areas requires substantial congruency among the values, goals, and organizational structure. Only when the structural elements enhance rather than inhibit these goals can members

receive genuine satisfaction from the work (Hackman et al, 1975).

According to Brown (1989), structure change is especial difficult in large police organization. Traditional policing practices continue to dominate most police organizations. Police agencies remain primarily reactive incidents. Structurally, effective reactive organization must have a system to dispatch and coordinate reactive calls. Information is limited because the mechanisms are designed around a "need to know" basis. Because police are relative in their approach to policing- a tendency reinforced by the advent of the 911 service in American cities-- information received by police officers from the community of they serve is necessarily limited. Patrol officers are limited in their contact with the ordinary citizen, and often are not rewarded for implementing creative or problem solving approaches. As a department moves toward COP, it is important to recognize that some among of disorganization, inefficiency, and ineffectiveness are the result when roles and communication systems lack clarity with regard to new goals. Resulting problems may include the following :

> 1. <u>Commander-Officer Relationship</u>: When the officer is told to make decisions based on the community needs but is held accountable to the bureaucracy that rewards those who follow rules rather than solve problems, the commander-officer relationship can easily become one deceit. Officers are moved to ask: Do I follow the rules or respond to the neighbor's need?" A chief may also select individual officers who, because of their decision-making and problem-solving capabilities, become confidants of the chief. As "COP advocates" this informal

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communication network often jumps the chain of command. Command staff, left out of the information loop, may resent this relationship and thwart COP efforts by adding additional procedures or paperwork, transferring officers, or making sure that the rest of department knows he or she is not a part of the exclusive in-group.

2. Communication Patterns: Traditional structure are organized around a "need-to-know" basis. Information is distributed based on primarily position and rank. There is little reason for information sharing among the various levels within the department. COP in stark contrast, demands open communication with the community, frequent exchange among units within the police department, and ongoing communication and networking with other public and nonprofit agencies. When the traditional police structure, which views information as power, seeks to control information too tightly, empowered problem solving cannot exist as a customary organization outcome.

3. Decision-Making Procedures: Who makes the policies and decisions, and how are these decisions interpreted? Rigid structures demand permission before an action is undertaken. Rank is assumed to have better and more complete information to make decisions. Hierarchy assumes that someone at the top can make a decision at the point of service. This method denies the line officers the ability to work closely with the community to solve problems. If a decision has to wait for a chief or

command staff, the idea of independent officers working with the community is impossible. To make good decisions, the officer must have both the authority and the responsibility to act; this means that the authority to partner with other organizations, the local community, or other members if the department is crucial.

4. <u>Accountability and Commitment</u>: Acceptance of accountability and commitment to COP are a result of psychological ownership of the values and goals enabled by the structure. Meaningful participation in the implementation of these values and goals is essential. All members of the department must be committed to the values of the crime prevention, collaborative problem solving, and community partnerships. If an individual held accountable only for following the rules or engaging in a set of established activities rather than the outcomes of their actions, there is little incentive to risk failure. Why risk interaction with the community, attempt new crime prevention tactics, or initiate partnership efforts with other agencies when the organizational rewards are based primarily on the number of citations issued and number of arrests made?

5. <u>Reward System</u>: Many times changes in the reward system are viewed as a union issue. Shift bidding, promotions, and criteria for success become bargaining topics. For this reason it is essential that the union be part of the formal development of a reward system that allows and encourages risk-taking,

decision making, and problem solving. Job assignments, shift, and rotations are part of the reward system; but performance quality is based on the officer's ability to solve problems. Instead of counting the number of incidents handled, it becomes important to credit the absence of crime, recognize in increased involvement of the neighborhood, and reward the addition information links available to the police force.

Climate. The climate of the organization depicts the atmosphere that results from the implementation of the structure. The climate is made up of all those unwritten rules and assumption which drive organizational behavior. Trust, risk-taking, support, competition, freedom, clarity of action, stress, conflict, and morale are all elements of the climate. The overall climate of the organization is built through a structure that supports the goals and values of the organization. When there is incongruence among the values, goals and structure, the climate becomes the indicator. If the climate is poor, morale plummets--trust becomes in the system scarce, relationships become openly competitive, and there is little attention to innovation (Brown).

Shein (1985) has described culture as the single most important factor in organizational success. The culture exists first and foremost as a result of the interpretation of managerial behavior. These powerful expectancy signals override any mandates and directives. The challenge for management is to behave in ways that lead employees to the kinds of attributions and expectations that result in commitment to the department's most important values.

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Environment. The outside environment describes the influences that affect the organization's ability to accomplish its goals. The environment often impacts the variability of goals success or unexpected influences that change priorities. Organization without a well-developed value system are at the virtual mercy of a changing environment. Goals may be altered based on partial information. Employees search for stability within the workplace and learn not to trust the new "initiatives" or "directives" knowing that within a short time all priorities will change again without much forewarning.

Effective organizations learn to connect to their environments in appropriate and useful ways. Citizen groups, local interests, and politicians can be involved in enhancing COP, and in providing the support necessary to built workable partnerships. One element of the environment that is crucial to COP is the community needs assessment and evaluation of COP. When community stakeholders are part of the needs identification process and participate in problem solving and evaluation, a sense of loyalty to the community and its crime prevention endeavors develops within the department. The evidence is clear that law enforcement agencies are greatly limited in their ability to reduce crime without the frequent involvement and active support of the community (Schneider et al).

c. Issues Relating to Organizational Change

The implementation of COP in a police agency involves more rather changing uniforms or adopting a new slogan. Cultural change and philosophical reorientation will occur entailing the following areas:

Triangle of Responsibility: Because most police organizations have a traditional structure, many managers are unfamiliar with the opportunities presented by alternate structures, participative management, and empowering leadership styles. The key to the success of COP is developing a high level of congruency among the three major elements of management--Responsibility, Authority, and Accountability--or the Triangle of Responsibility. When an officer is given responsibility for particular outcomes, it is essential that the authority to make decisions and to take action follow this responsibility. Just as important is the requirement that he or she also be held accountable for his or her decisions. When this triangle is no longer balanced, members of the organization become unsure of their jobs, question their value to the organization, and lose sight of how they will be held accountable for their behavior (Schneider, et al).

Community Needs Assessment and Evaluation: Conducting community-wide need assessments, organizing volunteer association problem solving activities, and administering periodic citizen surveys are essential activities for the implementation of COP within identified jurisdictions. These activities build continuity in COP efforts and provide an opportunity to develop goals and work plans based on genuine community needs. The evaluation of projects undertaken helps jurisdictions identify both expected and unexpected outcomes, and helps to develop modified strategies for further action by the department (Gray, et al).

Developing a Value-Based Organization: The changes occurring

in law enforcement's external environment necessitates a new vision that incorporates values necessary to ensure appropriate policing behavior. A new vision and changed behavior means embracing a management and organizational philosophy that empowers virtually all members of the police organization to meet community needs. Community policing is an organization-wide philosophy and management approach that promotes community, government and police partnerships: proactive problem-solving and community engagement to address the causes of crime, fear of crime, and other community issues (Gray, et al).

Organizational Development: Because the most difficult part of COP is the implementation of its principles, managers often need assistance in implementing organizational change. Conflict management, interest-based problem solving, and community (citizen) development are skills that both management and officers need. Direct consultation with departments to assist in setting up citizen councils, advisory committees, and/or volunteer networks has become critical. Unfortunately, rules and procedures developed to prevent mistakes now too often stifle what is sorely needed in COP--creativity and innovation. It is a difficult change for a manager to embrace risk-taking, innovation, and creativity without the guarantee of success. COP means allowing line officers to make decisions, take risks, and then stand behind the decisions that they made. It is the balance of responsibility, authority, and responsibility that allows innovation and creativity. Training programs are needed to help managers and officers understand the implications of the

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changing organizational structure, and the broader "organizational universe" within which they seek to provide responsive and responsible citizen service (Gray, et al).

Interest Based Problem Solving: The SARA (scanning, analysis, response, and assessment) model has been used widely in "problem solving policing" Training in problem solving helps officers to identify neighborhood crime, disorder, and fear problems. Officers are directed to seek out the conditions that give rise to these problems, to develop a long-term solution tailored to relieve the problems, and to implement this solution. Once the solution is implemented, the officer determines the impact of the solution on the problem. At this point of new round of problem solving is initiated. Modern organizations must create contexts in which members can continually learn and experiment, think systematically, question their assumptions and mental models, engage in meaningful dialogue, and create visions that energize action. The SARA model promotes this type of learning (Goldstein, 1990).

Interest-based problem solving provides a structured process by which individuals work to solve problems while simultaneously fulfilling their own needs and attempting to satisfy the needs of others. This process provides the incentive to experiment and question traditional mechanisms for solving problems. Our culture is not experienced with resolving conflicts in a manner that allows all parties to "win". We have grown up the "win-lose" or "zero-sum" game model. We have been taught to believe that there are limited resources. If I win , this reduce the among of recourses available to

you; therefore, you lose. When loss is a real possibility, controversial issues within the public arena are often sidestepped to avoid backlash and public conflict. Contentious issues are ignored, repressed, or incorporated into a larger political agenda. Many times controversial issues are tied to value judgments, such as right to life, private property right, or other values there are difficult if not impossible to resolve. Value-based conflict, or those disagreements that are based upon principles and absolute right or wrong, are the most difficult to resolve, it may be impossible, for instance, to resolve conflicts when there are only value-based absolutes at stake because there is little to negotiate about. Geller and Swanger (1995), asked, who is willing to negotiate their core value of freedom of speech or religion?

Interest-based problem solving provides the opportunity for people on different sides of an issue to see the values of another without having to jeopardize their own interests or tightly held values. When parties in agreement understand that their interests can be met, communication can begin. Rather than design the process of interaction to influence decision makers, the process can be designed to enable all parties to listen to each other, identify values of importance, and work toward a common resolution (Geller and Swanger).

Partnerships: Partnerships allow people to come together for join problem solving, resources exchange, cooperation, coordination, coalition building, networking, or to take advantage of opportunities. Partnerships are built on the assumption that by working together

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the cooperating jurisdictions will increase their effectiveness, resource availability, and decision-making capabilities--thereby effectively addressing a common pressing problem or need. According to Geller and Swanger, there are several different definitions of partnership. The chosen definition (i.e., cooperation, coordination, or collaboration), will often determine the level and extent of the partnership achieved , as follows:

1. Cooperation: The goal of cooperation is to meet one's own interest through the resources of another organization by sharing information. There is little or no commitment to action or to the continuation of the relationship for join programming. Many police jurisdictions view partnerships as sharing crime data upon request with other agencies. Sending the information officer to a community meeting to report the latest crime statistics for the neighborhood is seen as a partnership. Many agencies see educational programs such as "How to Prevent Home Burglaries", or "Establishing a Block Watch" as prime examples of a partnership. The police share their expertise, and the members benefit from the experience.

2. Coordination: The second type of partnership, coordination, requires two parties or organization to "act together". Because it require some type of action, coordination implies a higher degree of formality. Coordination has become an increasingly frequent practice among law enforcement agencies with limited resources and overlapping jurisdictions. Coordination with non-police agencies is less frequently attempted. Generally, police

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agencies view coordination as an attempt to enlist the community in implementing the agenda of the agency. The police organization has identified the problem--e.g. youth crime activity after dark. The solution, as proposed by the agency, is a curfew. The role of the police agency is to enlist the community in the implementation and support of this solution. Coordination requires planned action; it does not require join ownership and accountability.

3. Collaboration: The highest degree of partnership, requires share resources and join programming. The relationship implies not only common goals and program outcomes, but also commitment to shared implementation. The degree of formality and the involvement of the organization hierarchy is considerable, which in turn increases the difficulty of attaining success. Required for true collaboration are joint goals, shared power and decision making, equal access to the acquisition of resources, team outcomes, and team accountability. Because collaboration requires shared power, few police agencies are adept at this type of partnership . Community policing means that "not only will power be pushed down through the police organization, but also out of the organization and into the neighborhood".

Characteristics of Selected,

Exemplary Suburban Police Forces

in the United States

Americans are more worried than ever about protecting their families and homes--and with good reason. "No longer just a gritty fact of life in big cities, crime has muscled into all of our neighborhoods, from rural towns to manicured suburbs" (Domanick, 1996).

However, " a quiet revolution is afoot" and, experts have a renewed belief that police forces can do a lot more than merely hold chaos at bay. With the right strategies, they can actually prevent crime and make communities safer and more harmonious (Domanick).

According to a yearlong survey conducted by <u>Good Housekeeping</u> magazine, there are many good police departments throughout the United States. The <u>Good Housekeeping</u> survey focused exclusively on the suburbs, as this is where a sizable portion of the country's population lives. Guided by an assembled panel of 17 leading law enforcement experts, more than 60 departments were investigated. Along with weighing their achievements, the survey factored in whether the forces were free of incidents or civil-rights violations. brutality, discrimination, or harassment. This sometimes meant that transgressions by a few rogue cops eliminated otherwise excellent departments. The final eight departments selected were all

accredited by the Commission on Accreditation for Low Enforcement Agencies, Inc., the national standards-making body for police departments, a distinction that only about 2 percent of all U.S. forces merit. Characteristics these forces have in common include (Domanick):

> --excellent leadership epitomized by a police chief with vision and the skills to carry it out
>
> --an ability to identify trouble spots and act before there is a need to make arrests
>
> --quick and thorough response to citizen's calls for assistance, complaints, and concerns
>
> --innovative program, often technology-based, to fight crime more quickly and effectively
>
> --officers who see policing as a career of choice and who personally accountable for the community stability
>
> --intolerance of brutality and corruption within the ranks
>
> --creative solution to address traditionally hard-to-handle crimes such as domestic violence and drug abuse in the schools
>
> --citizen who re active auxiliaries of the crime-fighting team and who are encouraged to critique department's performance .

Distinguishing characteristics of the eight police departments singled out for exemplary recognition by the Good Housekeeping survey have been summarized below (Domanick):

a. Lakewood, Colorado, population 130,000; 204 officers: Lakewood pioneered the concept that officers should have four-year

college degrees. It was one of the first forces psychologically screen all recruits, and it puts each applicant through an oral examination that carefully explores the candidate's reasons for wanting to become a police officer. An astounding one out of every ten Lakewood officers have gone on to become chiefs or sheriffs in communities across the United States. Lakewood's leadership and inventiveness is seen in other ways too. Efficiency at police headquarters led to a computerized bar-code system to track property or evidence involved in crimes, which significantly reduces overtime guarantees that items are not lost or misplaced. A current pilot program is aimed at improving the response to domestic violence cases: Officers enter into a computer program every action on the case from the first call to its conclusion. Through this "mapping" , police can evaluate what works and what doesn't to stem violence and help the victim.

b. <u>Dublin, Ohio</u>, population 22,000; 50 officers: Citizen safety and convenience is the top priority of Dublin's state-of-the-art communications center, which houses the 911 emergency service. Dispatchers benefit from ongoing training in stress management, dealing with difficult callers, and emergency medical dispatch. There is also a 24-hour nonemergency number that residents can call if their power goes out, their pipes, burst, or their street is unplowed after a snowstorm. Another advance is computerized citizens' hot line, a brainstorm of the Muirfield Village Civic Association that the department then put into action. Citizens call for recorded weekly bulletins about the number and types of crimes committed in their area.   46

c. <u>Baltimore County, Maryland</u>, population 703,000; 1,535 officers: A new computer-crime-fighter system designed by police officers. Based on a crime reduction strategy known as SLAP (Street Level Access Program), the technology enables individual officers to "map" similar crimes being committed county-wide or in their patrol area. At the push of a button, officers can see the model and years of cars stolen on their beats and which streets are being hit hardest, at which times. They can also see crime patterns quickly, instead of spending weeks tracking a list of victims or duplicating the efforts of another detective after the same suspect. Other programs include: Community Network Centers-police substations in 7-Eleven stores that make it easy for community members to discuss concerns with cops face-to-face in a relaxed setting -- part of the "community policing" philosophy the department has long championed.

The Counseling Unit, which meets yearly with more 300 recent runaways or other troubled kids and their families, and monitors about 2000 cases overall. Comprised of 7 full-time professional civilian counselors. the unit in conjunction with police officers and school system, helps teens with drug or alcohol problems, leaning disabilities, or histories of physical sexual abuse.

The Victim Witness Assistance Committee, which enlists counselors from family and children's services to isolate the specific kind of trauma experienced by victims of various violent crimes, from rapes to carjackings. The committee works with health-care professionals to meet the needs of trauma victims referred to them by officers.

A specially trained, five-number detective unit, created last May in response to crime trends, dedicated sorely to enforcing gun laws, including the tracking and confiscation of illegal weapons.

d. <u>Mount Pleasant, South Carolina</u>, population 37,000; 81 officers: When it became clear that drug dealers were getting incoming calls at public telephones, officers arranged to have the telephone company reprogram them to allow only outgoing calls. The drug trafficking dried up. The department also landed a federal grant that has funded a cutting-edge domestic-violence tracking system. Now, when an officer goes to a home, he or she totes a laptop computer to punch in the address for an instant readout of prior calls and action taken. An order of protection or an arrest warrant can be printed up on the spot. The department has a full-time advocate to follow up, advising the school system if children are involved, and sponsoring a monthly support group that helps victims relocate to safe houses or obtain financial assistance or court orders.

e. <u>Palatine, Illinois</u>, population 50,000; 88 officers: A selection and training process for new police recruits, whose rigors are matched by only the best departments in the country, include some steps that few others require. The process begins with numerous interviews, including separate sessions with the board of police fire commissioners, and police chief and police deputies. Ten weeks training follow at the Illinois State Police Academy, ten field training, in which an officer ability to handle stress is tested by jarring

changes in shift hours. Next are 12 more weeks when the new officer must turn in written reports on constitutional and criminal law. Recruits attend classes on domestic violence, pursuit driving, community policing, and report writing offered by the state attorney's office. As part of broad career-development program, officers are encouraged to keep taking advanced proficiency course-paid for by the department.

f. <u>Redmond, Washington</u>, population 40,000; 66 officers: The Community Policing Advisory Board (CPAB), USA started in 1994. Fitness citizens, including a high school student, minister, high-school assistance principal, and local business woman, make up the economically and ethnically diverse group. The group brainstorms with police to solve community problems. For example, the officers turned to the board when they were swamped by complaints about rowdy high schoolers who, dismissed from class earlier than junior high and elementary school, hung around and waited to harass the younger kids-going so far as shoving some of them into heavy traffic. So CPAB members rallied and stood guard outside the school, recruiting local Neighborhood-Watch captains to join them. Soon the problem disappeared.

g. <u>Garden Grove, California</u>, population 153,000; 175 officers: Priority number one: Intimidate the gangs terrorizing residents. the partners organized a neighborhood crime watch and announced their presence with heavy foot-patrolling for much of the ten hours a day,

four days a week they were here. (Regular patrol officers response to calls during the team's off hours) Gang members were cut no slack, and were arrested for even minor infractions, especially those violating the terms of their probation. After six months, people were back out on the street, and calls to 911 had dropped 80 percent.

h. <u>Arlington, Texas</u>, population 283,000; 449 officers: To be fail, an effective police force must reflect the community's diversity, so starting in 1993, Police Chief David Kunkle mandated that women and minorities comprise two thirds of each recruit class. Today, one of his deputy chiefs is an African-American male, and 161 officers are females or minorities. And he places officers where they are needed most. Eddie Bell works in a tiny ground-floor office in a low-income housing complex, where community problems are literally dropped at his doorstep. Recently, the department manager reported that an elderly, paralyzed tenant has been permanently kicked out of bed by his adult son had moved back home with his girlfriend. Bell got a local charity to donate a hospital bed, arranged with social services for the man to receive regular physical therapy, and continued checking on him until the abusive couple moved out. Vietnamese officer Vincent Hia works from a store-front in a strip mall in Arlington's burgeoning Asian community. His assignment is to halt immigrant-on-immigrant crime. One Vietnamese mother--distraught over 20-days disappearance of her teenage son--asked for Hia's help. Through his contact, he found out that the boy was a runaway, discovered where he was hiding, and set the family on a

course of reconciliation.

A Summary of Selected Model Police Training Programs
in Taiwan and the United States

Significant portion of this project consisted of obtaining and analyzing information from selected police officer training institutions, commissions, or departments identified in the review of literature as successful, exemplary, model programs. Six such programs have been summarized below.

Central Police University, Taoyuan, Taiwan: (Abstracted from *An Introduction of the Central Police University*, 1989)

To emphasize the importance placed on police education, Chiang Kai-shek became the first President of Central Police University in 1936. The school was located in Nanking and its two-year academic program began to enroll graduates from senior high schools. The University was moved to Chungking during the early 1940's and returned to Nanking in 1945.

After brief period of time, the University was discontinued in 1950. In May 1954, the Republic of China reestablished the university in Taipei, Taiwan. By 1957, the University had expanded to a four-year, Bachelor of Law degree granting institution and during the 1960's it also started to enroll foreign students and offered professional police officer training. In the 1970's, a graduate school of police administration was established, offering master's degrees; and the University was moved to its present site at Taoyuan. In 1985, the University moved further to establish a new

educational system for current police personnel. (1989, p.1)

The current system of the university is divided into the following stages, Basic (Foundation), Extended (Specialization) and Higher Education.

I. Basic (Foundation) Education:

Subdivided into:

A. Four-year Undergraduate Program:

It enrolls graduates from senior high schools for academic study for four years. The four-year program offers 11 major Departments;

1. Police Administration

2. Criminal Investigation

3. Public Security

4. Census

5. Fire Control

6. Traffic Science

7. Foreign Affairs Police

8. Information Management

9.Forensic Science

Graduates of the above nine Departments will be assigned by the Ministry of Interior to the respective police units for service.

10. Crime Prevention and Correction

Graduates will be assigned by the Ministry of Justice for service in the respective prisons and juvenile reformatories.

11. Conscription Administration

Graduates will be assigned by the Ministry of Interior for service in the respective units for military service administration.

B. Two-year college program:

Its enrollment includes graduates of Taiwan Police College and police sergeants with excellent service records. It is presently divided into five sections:

1. Police Administration

2. Criminal Investigation

3. Public Security

4. Fire Control

5. Foreign Affairs Police

Graduates will be assigned by the Ministry of Interior for service in the respective police units.

II. Extended (Specialization) Training:

Includes,

A. Training class for the potential police sergeant: Officers are recruited via exam from those suitable for the promotion to the rank of police lieutenant, and given a four-month training.

B. Specialization training class for the police officer:

The rotatory training for the current police officer is to meet the demands of the requirements of police work and given one week to one month in-service training class which includes Police Administration, Criminal Investigation, Maintenance of Social Order,

Economic Affairs, Traffic Police, Fire-Fighting, Security Affairs, Civil Defense, Census, Supervision Foreign Affairs, Personnel Affairs, Legal Training, and Information Management.

III. Higher Education: includes,

A. Graduate School of Administration:

The graduate school is divided into the following six major fields of study:

1. Police Administration

2. Forensic Science

3. Fire Control

4. Traffic Science

5. Crime Prevention & Corrections.

6. Public Security

B. Educational Program for the potential police major:

Recruited via the exam from those qualified to be promoted as police lieutenant colonel, and enforced a four-month educational program.

C. Study program for the potential police colonel: Candidates are recruited via exam, from the senior police officers ranking as colonel, and given a four-month study program before being promoted as major generals.

D. Advanced study program on the police administration:

Participants are recruited via selection process from those potential and promising young police officers.

Curricula

The students of the eleven Departments are all required to complete 128 credits at least upon graduation. Except graduates of Department of Fire Control who shall be conferred with the Bachelor of Engineering degree and Departments of Information Management and Forensic Science will receive the Bachelor of Science degree, all other graduates will be awarded the B.A. degree.

Courses taken by students at the Central Police University can be grouped into the following categories: (1) those required by the Ministry of Education for all college and university students (2) those required for all students at the Central Police University, courses of Law, and (3) those required by their fields of study. The major fields of study, by Department, are:

1. Department of Police Administration

Emphasis: law and theories of police administration.

2. Department of Criminal Investigation

Emphasis: criminal investigation and analysis

3. Department of Public Security

Emphasis: thoughts of the Three Principles of the People, study and evaluation of Chinese Communist theories, learning of relevant security codes, knowledge and skills of investigation, and prevention of social disturbances.

4. Department of Crime Prevention and Corrections

Emphasis: theories of crime, psychology and social work, knowledge and study of prison administration, and counseling.

5. Department of Census.

Emphasis: law and theories of census, practice and expertise of census administration, and demographic research.

6. Department of Fire Control

Emphasis: physics, chemistry, fire prevention and theories of building safety, and knowledge of first aid.

7. Department of Traffic Science

Emphasis: theories of communication codes, engineering and control, traffic administration, and enforcement.

8. Department of Foreign Affairs Police

Emphasis: theories of foreign police affairs and the study of foreign languages, knowledge and skill of protecting foreign residents and managing cases involving foreigners.

9. Department of Conscription Administration

Emphasis: theories of military conscription administration, practice and knowledge of national defense preparedness.

10. Department of Information Management

Emphasis: computer programming and information management.

11. Department of Forensic Science

Emphasis: laboratory examination and identification of criminal evidences.

(*An Introduction of the Central Police University*, 1989)

Seattle Police Department, Seattle, Washington:

The Seattle Police Department (SPD) maintains the option of

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sending police officer recruits, for training, at either the Washington Seattle Criminal Justice Training Commission Academy (see below) or, to the SPD operated Basic Law Enforcement Academy (BLEA). The curriculum for the latter program has been detailed below (Seattle Police Department BLEA Curriculum Breakdown, 1996):

Wellness and Safety, including: (Total Block Hours= 265)

Physical Conditioning/Tac Officer Time

Defense Tactics

Use of Force Continuum/Hierarchy of Use of Force

Firearms Training

First Aid/CPR Certification

Tactical Communications, including: (Total Block Hours= 134)

Communication Skills

Reid Method of Interview & Interrogation

SPD Report Writing

Crisis Intervention

Cultural Diversity

Radio Communication

Criminal Process, including: (Total Block Hours= 126)

Criminal Procedures

Constitutional Law

Criminal Law

Juvenile Law

Narcotics

Municipal Code

Patrol Procedures, including: (Total Block Hours= 86)

Building Search

Felony Stop

Field Interviews

Critical Incident Negotiations

Criminal Investigation, including: (Total Block Hours= 97)

Crime Scene Processing

Property Crimes

Crimes Against Persons

Investigations paper flow

DNA/Serology

Fingerprinting

Child Abuse

Domestic Violence

Traffic Enforcement, including (Total Block Hours= 127)

Traffic Control & Direction

Defensive Driving/Vehicle Placement

Department of Licensing

Collision Investigation

Professional Responsibilities and Community Policing, including

(Total Block Hours= 77)

Ethics in Policing

Problem Oriented Policing

Professionalism

<u>Spokane Police Department, Spokane, Washington:</u>

The concept of the Neighborhood Resource Officer (NRO) in the Spokane Police Department's overall thrust of community oriented policing has existed appropriately three years. The first phase of the program consisted of field testing officers in two different resource officer frameworks. One officer was assigned to the neighborhood community center, and was to build bridges into the community as a problem solver from that base. The other officer was to be based out of a Spokane School District middle school, and also was to make inroads into the community. Both were to make full use of available agencies and resources. The purpose was to determine which of the two, if either, would best suit the purpose of the department in its direction of community involvement.

Because of a myriad of variable, the framework incorporating the middle school as one of primary focal points was determined to be the area the department wish to pursue. Since that initial experimental phase, two additional NROs have been added to the program, one of which replaced an outgoing NRO. As well, an NRO was assigned to the downtown area to work with the various components of that community as a problem solver and communication link to the department.

The departments' goal is to have a total of 7 NROs assigned to the variously identified communities in the Spokane area. Six of the NROs will be assigned a middle school as one of their areas of responsibility. They will also work from the COP substations being organized in the different neighborhoods, as well as the community

centers, and any other identified base for interacting with the community generally, and with specific groups. The downtown NRO is unique, in that there is no middle school as a focal point. The downtown NRO was, however, to be involved with the school system, developing relationships with Lewis & Clark high school. The downtown areas problems are fairly well defined and concentrated, so the NRO will be focused more intimately with residents, business leaders and other components of the downtown area when dealing with quality of life issues, crime and fear reduction, and neighborhood concerns.

The downtown NRO has also addressed previously overlooked or neglected populations within the downtown area. Downtown has a large number of seniors, the majority of which are "invisible" due to their limited mobility, hesitancy to seek outside resources, and increasingly, because they have hidden themselves from society due to fear of crime. Also to be addressed is an increasingly large segment defined formally or informally as mentally ill. These citizens are frequently victims, which rarely report their victimization to authorities. As a result, they remain passive and continuing targets for the predatory element present in the downtown area. A percentage of the mentally ill population manages to attract the attention of government agencies due to erratic or non conforming behavior, but many remain unseen.

Also considered was the fact that an NRO will take "ownership" of a neighborhood, and the citizens of that neighborhood will, if the NRO is effective, take ownership of the officer. This intimate bonding

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to the community is necessary if the officer is to cultivate relationships, identify problems, provide input, resources, solutions, and build a partnership with the community. This intimacy and building of self into a neighborhood should not be undertaken lightly, and the potential for burnout, frustration, stress and other problems related to "taking things personally" is great.

In accordance with the Spokane Police Department community-oriented policing philosophy and program, based on the NRO unit construction detailed above, essential elements of the standardized NRO training curriculum have included (Spokane Police Department Memorandum, 1995):

1. Spokane District practices
2. Resource availability and capability
3. Public speaking/presentation skills
4. Communications techniques, verbal & non-verbal
5. Networking skills
6. Teambuilding skills
7. Gang & drug education
8. Program development
9. Other training as identified

In summary, the goals of the Spokane Police Department NRO program are to:

1. Emphasize community empowerment and collaborative problem solving at the neighborhood level in law enforcement and crime prevention.
2. Establish a relationship with community members at the

neighborhood level to improve communication, increase personal investment by police employees, reduce isolation and anonymity of community members, and foster shared values and a sense of responsibility for public safety and quality of life issues.

3. Change the police organization from a rigid, para-militaristic, incident-driven agency to a more decentralized, results-driven organization sensitive to client needs.

4. Improve the quality of life in city neighborhoods by fostering interagency cooperation and community partnerships to identify and solve problems of crime, neighborhood disorder, and neighborhood decay.

Omaha Police Department Omaha, Nebraska:

The police officer Basic Training Course curriculum adopted by the Omaha Police Department Training Unit, which serves a pollution approximately 1,000,000 citizens in this mid-western American city, has focused on the following mandates areas of instruction. (Omaha Police Department Certification Checklist for Schools/Training Facilities, 1995):

Legal: Total hours 55, including, e.g.

- Criminal Justice System, Instructor: D. Stolz
- Use of Force, Instructor: D. Stolz
- Constitutional Law, Instructor: D. Stolz
- Rules of Evidence, Instructor: D. Stolz
- Civil Rights and Liabilities, Instructor: D. Stolz
- Arrest, Search & Seizure, Instructor: D. Stolz

Patrol: Total hour 63, including, e.g.

- Radio Communications, Instructor: P. Peterson, Keith Co.
- Report Writing, Instructor: B. Bombeck
- Patrol Procedures, Instructor: W. Carroll
- Civil Process, Instructor:
- Traffic Direction & Control, Instructor: T. Branstiter

Investigation: Total hours 87, including, e.g.

- Basic Investigation, Instructor: D. Capps
- Legal & Practical Significance of Evidence,
  Instructor: D. Capps
- Crime Scene and Associated Procedures, Instructor: D. Capps
- Evidence Collection and Utility, Instructor: D. Capps

Officer Survival: Total hours 182, including, e.g.

- Techniques of Arrest, Instructor: B. Urbanek
- Firearms, Instructor: B. Bombeck
- Physical Fitness, Instructor: B. Urbanek
- Conflict Intervention, Instructor: B. Urbanek
- Survival Techniques and Tactics, Instructor: B. Bombeck

Human Understanding: Total hours 19, including, e.g.

- Community Relations, Instructor: J. Clatterbuck
- Stress, Instructor: J. Clatterbuck
- Verbal Judo, Instructor: J. Clatterbuck
- Abnormal Behavior, Instructor: D. Capps

Traffic: Total hours 106, including, e.g.

- Accident Investigation, Instructor: D. Anderson/D. Teter
- Motor Vehicle Law, Instructor: D. Anderson
- Driving Under Influence, Instructor: D. Anderson
- Defensive Vehicle Operation, Instructor: D. Anderson

<u>San Jose Police Department, San Jose, California:</u>

As described by McCampbell in Field-Training for Officers: The State of the Art, 1987, San Jose, significant portion of the project consisted of obtaining and analyzing four police agencies.

San Jose, is a city of 168 square miles with a population of more than 694,000. The city is located approximately 50 miles south of San Francisco in what is commonly known as the "silicon Valley," a high technology manufacturing area. The police department has 1,010 sworn officers, approximately 600 of whom are assigned to the patrol function. The department has 72 Field Training Officers assigned to 12 FTO sergeants.

San Jose began its field training program in 1972 after a fatal traffic accident that involved a recruit police officer. The accident demonstrated serious flaws in San Jose's recruit evaluation process. What grew out of this unfortunate incident became a model for many of the Nation's law enforcement agencies.

If one word could be used to describe the present San Jose program it would be "control." The entire field training process has been very tightly controlled through the use of administrative policies and

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procedures. San Jose has by far the most detailed field training program of all sites visited.

FTO's are assigned to field training teams who are, in addition to their normal patrol functions, responsible for training all recruit officers. These field training teams are assigned to especially designated patrol districts within the city rather than the entire patrol area. The districts were selected to provide the best cross-section of activity confronting the patrol officer. The teams are supervised by FTO sergeants and the entire field training program is controlled by the Patrol Division.

Recruits are evaluated daily and receive a combination of classroom and practical skills training in addition to on-the-job field training. All training is administratively controlled through standardized lesson plans and training guides and nothing is left to chance. Training and evaluation are as standardized as possible so that all recruits are given the same opportunity to succeed in the program. The percentage of recruits who successfully complete San Jose's program is relatively high--92 percent for fiscal year 1985.

Summary

The research and literature summarized in Chapter 2 supported the following themes:

1. Today, most police departments in the United States, are

operated by college-educated managers skilled in modern communication technology and the behavioral approaches to organization.

2. Although a relatively new phenomenon, field training programs have become an important facet of American police training. Since the first formal program was implemented in 1972, it has been copied, changed, improved, and institutionalized by law enforcement agencies across the Nation.

3. Over the last few years, Community Oriented Policing (COP) has become the new standard for police practice in the United States. The philosophy of COP, in contrast, has been based on both community-based problem solving and the empowerment of line officers with enhanced decision making authority. Officers working with their community define and solve localized problems.

4. A quiet revolution is afoot and, experts have a renewed belief that police forces can do a lot more than merely hold chaos at bay. With the right strategies, they can actually prevent crime and make communities safer and more harmonious.

5. Successful, model police officer training programs typically include such curriculum/instructional components as: Wellness and Safety; Tactical Communications, Criminal Process, Patrol Operations, Professional Responsibilities and Community Policing.

CHAPTER 3

Procedure of the Project

The purpose of this project was to design a model training program to prepare candidates for employment as police officers in Taiwan. To accomplish this purpose, a review of current literature regarding training for basic police work was conducted. Additionally related information from Central Police University, Taoyuan, Taiwan, and from selected police officer training programs in the United States was obtained and analyzed.

Chapter three contains background information describing:

1. Need for the project

2. Development of support for the project

3. Procedures

4. Planned implementation and assessment of the project

Need for the Project

The need for the project was influenced by the following considerations:

1. The writer was a police officer with the Taipei City, Taiwan, Bureau of Police from 1987 to 1996. This first-hand experience provided the writer with a deep understanding of the variety of complicated and often dangerous work performed by police officers, and increased his awareness of the essential need for a well-developed training program for police officers.

2. Police work plays an important role in protecting society. Police officers are responsible for maintaining an ordered society through the prevention of crime, preservation of peace, maintaining the law, and protecting public safety. Thus, designing a model training program to prepare candidates for employment as skilled police officers is of vital importance to the society it serves.

3. To perform their diverse and challenging duties and responsibilities, skilled police officers are professionally obligated to understand what current research has confirmed regarding the most effective conduct of police work and related operations.

4. The writer's admittance to Central Washington University (C.W.U.), Ellensburg, Washington, in 1996, provided an opportunity to pursue in-depth, graduate research related to state-of-the-art training programs for the preparation of candidates for employment as police officers.

5. Undertaking this project coincided with the writer's M.Ed. studies at C.W.U.

Development of Support for the Project

Following admittance to the M.Ed. program at Central Washington University in 1996, the writer was encouraged by teachers and officials at Central Police University, Taoyuan, Taiwan, to design a model training program for candidates seeking employment as police officers. It was agreed that a model training program should be developed for implementation from 1997 through 2000, and that the

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writer would be responsible for:

1. Designing the program
2. Selecting student police candidates for admission to the program
3. Providing student guidance and counseling
4. Providing instruction and student assessment

Professional colleagues at Central Police University further encouraged the writer to pursue graduate-level research at C.W.U. that could contribute to the design and development of a state-of-the-art training program for police officers.

Procedures

To obtain background information essential for developing a model training program to prepare candidates for employment as police officers, an Education Resource Information Center (ERIC) computer search was undertaken. Additionally, related information from Central Police University, Taoyuan, Taiwan, and from selected police training programs in the United States was also obtained and analyzed. Finally, a hand-search of various sources of information relative to police-work and police training programs was conducted.

Planned Implementation and Assessment
of the Project

Implementation of the model training program to prepare

candidates for employment as police officers at Central Police University (CPU), Taoyuan, Taiwan, has been scheduled for fall, 1997. Approximately 200 students enrolled in the fourth year of the police officer candidate program at CPU, will be required to complete two hours of specialized training in the model program, each week, for the entire year, to qualify for graduation as a police officer.

Following implementation of the model training program, the CPU administration and faculty will work collaboratively and cooperatively with practicing police personnel outside of the university, to plan and design performance-based assessment procedures needed to determine program success. Assessment procedures may include, for example, classroom observations, student interviews, written and oral examinations, and/or practical applications of skill and knowledge. Assessment data obtained will be used to modify the model training program at the discretion of the CPU administration and police-training faculty.

CHAPTER 4

THE PROJECT

The subject of this project, "A Model training program to prepare candidates for employment as police officers in Taiwan" has been presented on the following pages. The model was developed based on the unique needs of the police force in Taiwan. Many of the central ideas contained in the model, as outlined below, were adapted from American and Chinese counterparts.

Section 1: Professional Skills for Police Officers

Section 2: Community and the Police

Section 3: Schools and the Police

Section 4: Effective Leadership Improvement Plan

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A MODEL TRAINING PROGRAM

TO

PREPARE CANDIDATES FOR EMPLOYMENT

AS

POLICE OFFICERS IN TAIWAN

George Gwo-Fang Jien

Central Washington University

Ellensburg, Washington

June, 1997

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction

The purpose of this project was to design a model training program to prepare candidates for employment as police officers in Taiwan. The training model has been presented in Chapter 4 in four sections:

Section One: Professional Skills for Police Officers

Section Two: Community and the Police

Section Three: Schools and the Police

Section Four: Leadership Improvement Plans for Police Officers

Section Five: Annual Performance Reports for Police Officers

Section 1

Professional Skills for Police Officers

"I wish to discuss a topic which is close to all of us, and that is how the schools and police within the context of community can and must work together for the benefit of our children."

Tim M. Kimsey, Deputy Chief of Police
City of SeaTac, State of Washington
October 25, 1994

Section 1

Professional Skills for Police Officers

There are 8 units in this section, namely:

1. Internal Management.

2. Official Communications/Writing Skills.

3. Maintenance of Social Stability.

4. Interrogation Procedures.

5. Criminal Investigations.

6. In-Service/Guidance and Counseling.

7. Anti-Drug Campaign.

8. Essentials of Patrolling.

These 8 units are considered essential professional skills for police officers.

Unit 1: Internal Management

1. Personnel Management

a. The objective of personnel management is to promote leadership, collaboration, service attitude and team spirit.

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b. The pre-requisite of personnel management is to establish a self-disciplined life style, practice appropriate behavior and protocol, demonstrating care toward fellow policemen.

c. Efficient personnel management leads to the fulfilling of routine responsibilities with appropriate self-monitoring and performance assessment techniques.

2. Task Management

a. The objective of task management is to implement working plans thoroughly and to monitor progress.

b. Task management requires a policeman to implement tasks based on timely and logical analysis of the situation

3. Efficiency Management

a. Well planned time management results in productivity and efficiency
b. Punctuality is a must for all official operations

4. Facilities Management

a. Maintenance and use of equipment and weapons with emphasize on safety.

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5. Office/Precinct Management

a. Maintain always a neat and clean appearance with strictly enforced discipline.

Unit 2: Official Communications Writing Skills

All official communications must be written or composed with precise and straightforward descriptions of the situation. Clarity and objectivity are the essentials of all communications.

One must be very careful in the transferring of official documents, and should consult, confer and review various sources before a conclusion can be drawn.

One must be skilled in the use of computer technology, such as word processing and typesetting, e-mails, internet etc.

Unit 3: Maintenance of Social Stability

All police officers must be well versed and trained in legislated administrative codes as adopted through legal process.

All police operations in maintaining public safety and social stability must be based on and guided by the laws.

Unit 4: Interrogation Procedures and Skills

All interrogations must be conducted with scientific approaches and the contents of the interrogations must be recorded with professional objectivity.

All police officers should be trained to use legally approved interrogation methods.

Pertinent data of all suspects must be recorded with detailed background information.

At the end of an interrogation, the signature of the suspect is required to indicate his/her acknowledgment of the proper recording of the content of interrogation.

Unit 5: Criminal Investigations

Police must be aware of the current status of crime and its future trends

Police must be trained professionally to conduct investigations at crime sites and must be skilled in the analysis of the situations leading to the solving of the crime.

Police officers must have the skill to assess various situations

Unit 6: In-Service, Guidance and Counseling

Police officers of various ranks must be provided with opportunities for career advancement, leading to more study and research in police work and criminology.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs should be used to reflect the individual needs , in the professional development and inservice areas that police officers might need.

Counseling services should be provided to address the needs of the general police force in neutralizing their stress, fear, and uncertainty in encountering daily situations.

Unit 7: Anti-Drug Campaign

Police officers must have a no tolerance policy toward drug trafficking, manufacturing, and transportation.

Police must be trained to carry out various tactics and skills in the fighting of the drug war in Taiwan.

Police officers must study in depth several prior notorious drug crimes in Taiwan, so as to be more sensitive to the conspiracy of drug criminals.

Unit 8: Essentials of Patrolling

Police officers should pay serious attention to what's happening around them during patrol duties.

Police officers should have appropriate manners in approaching citizens during patrol duties, and must be careful in approaching suspects.

Section 2

Community and the Police

The central theme of this section is to emphasize the importance of community and the police as illustrated by the SeaTac City Deputy Chief Tim M. Kimsey (October 25,1994). Participating trainees will be given orientation training sessions focusing on the following points:

1. A safe community must be balanced by responsibilities, power by compassion, and authority by accountability. One must believe that creating a safe, healthy and livable communities requires a partnership of community members.

2. The ideas of joint responsibilities for the creation and maintenance of strong and healthy communities has a long history, and reflects the "Tradition that the police are the public and the public are the police; the police being the only members of the public who are paid to give full-time attention to duties which are incumbent on every citizen in the interest of community welfare and existence (Sir Robert Peel, 1829).

3. The community-police partnership translates these values into the following operating principles:
a. Community Involvement: community members have legitimate rights, roles and responsibilities in working with the police in assessing problems and designing solutions for their communities.

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b. Service Orientation: Policing as the provision of services that addresses all aspects of the problems of safety, disorder, and crime experienced by individuals and groups in the community.

c. Problem Solving: community problems should be addressed by developing creative, proactive and consultative strategies along with long range solutions.

d. Decentralization: This encourages initiative, responsibility, responsiveness, flexibility and ownership of local actions by police and community members.

As a result of community involvement, service orientation, problem solving and decentralization, police will:

a. Empower community members and police professionals to take initiatives in dealing with community problems.
b. Encourage mutual trust and authentic participation in joint actions to solve common problems.
c. Enhance reciprocal accountability.
d. Create personalized interactions
e. Make the prevention of crime and victimization the central goal of the community-police partnership.

Section 3

Schools and the Police

For many years, many farsighted law enforcement executives, public safety scholars and educators have been responding to the call of reshaping both American law enforcement and education. Today, many cities in Washington are experiencing a steady rise in violence, drug sales, gang activity, property crimes and vandalism. Facing an ever-increasing demand for service with restricted budgets and resources, police departments and schools are frustrated in their efforts to produce acceptable results.

As the safety and well being of communities decline, law enforcement's effectiveness in crime suppression and control is questioned. Citizens and law enforcement professionals alike are asking what roles the police and schools can play in reducing or halting the decline of our communities.

a. It is no longer possible for the schools or the police to attempt to stand alone.

b. The police are the only twenty-four hour presence in a community with schools running a close second.

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c. The schools and police will most likely be the first agency in the community to identify emergent problems involving at risk students.

d. Most citizens regard the police as having to primary responsibility for dealing with juvenile delinquency and youth crime in general. It is the police whom they call when they are victimized, and it is the police whom they see on the street. It is often the schools that they blame your youth problems. There is some awareness of other elements within the system, having responsibility but their functions have low visibility and are little understood by the public in general.

e. There are a variety of programs in operation today that elicit some level of police involvement with the schools. Some of the programs are listed below:
- Youth Service Bureaus
- The School Resource Officer Program
- Police Counselor Programs
- Community-based, school-centered programs aiming to reduce crime, drugs, and violence
- Drug Abuse Resistance Education (D.A.R.E.)

The Importance of Community-School-Based Programs are evidenced by the following:

1. Improving the sense of security for students and staff.

2. Improving coordination among police, schools and other agencies that often become involved.

3. Preventing trouble, among students at the school and from students bringing their off-campus problems and confrontations into the schools.

- Addressing problems through partnerships with school principals, the students, their parents, and community leaders.

- Involving students in the development and planning of drug and violence prevention projects aid programs.

- Helping students understand that school is relevant to their lives, that they have something to give, and that are a necessary and vital part of the solution.

- Equipping elementary and junior high school students with the skills for recognizing and resisting peer and another social pressures to experiment with drug substances. In addition learning to say "No" and develop problem strategies are planned and which focus on self esteem, consequential thinking, risk-taking, interpersonal and communication skills,

critical thinking, and positive alternatives to substance abuse behavior.

Section 4
Effective Leadership Improvement Plan
for Police Officers

Every police officer candidate participating in this training program will have to complete the *Personal Leadership Self-Analysis* developed by Chan (1982). The result of this analysis will reflect a person's own strength and weakness and will assist the individual to formulate future leadership development plans.

1. <u>A Synthesis of Leadership Skills</u>

a. *Instrumental Skills*: Including a cognitive and experiential basis for understanding the methods and techniques of law enforcement and administration. For example, organizational ability, cognitive ability, understanding of police systems and community relations, along with multi-faceted responsibilities, and teaming.

b. *Interpersonal Skills*: Including the ability to deal with individuals in an effective and caring way. Such as: a supervisor, peer and subordinate .Emphasis on skills such as: empathy, sharing, and trust, etc.

c. *Systems Skills*: Including the ability to see how parts of the system interrelate and function. Such as: bilingual ability (Taiwanese, Hakkai, Mandarin, English)

d. *System and Imaginal Skills*: Include the ability to formulate new ideas for advancement though education. Such as: community, global and international developments and new ideas on how to improve and develop an holistic approach to decision making.

2. Self-Perceived Levels of Consciousness

Each police officer candidate participating in this training program will be expected to reflect on the five levels of core values adapted by Chan in (1982):

a. Level 1: Primary Values ends in themselves which constitute the core meaning of life as a police officer.

b. Level 2: Family, belonging, self-worth

c. Level 3: Self competence, confidence, achievement, success

d. Level 4: Self actualization, self assertion, honesty, empathy, self directness

e. Level 5: Sacrifice for others and the common good

Each trainee will have to complete the following survey of self-consciousness as adapted by Chan (1982) based on the Ohio State Leadership Studies (1957).

Activity: A Self Perceived Level of Consciousness

Directions:

a. READ each item carefully.

b. THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.

c. DECIDE whether he/she always, often, occasionally, seldom or never acts as described by the item.

d. DRAW a circle around one of the five letters following the item to show the answer you have selected.

A= Always

B= Often

C= Occasionally

D= Seldom

E= Never

1. Does personal favors for group members.   A   B   C   D   E

2. Makes his/her attitudes clear to the group. A   B   C   D   E

3. Does little things to make it pleasant.   A   B   C   D   E

4. Tries out his/her new ideas with the group. A   B   C   D   E

5. Acts as the real leader of the group.   A   B   C   D   E

6. Is easy to understand.   A   B   C   D   E

7. Rules with an iron hand.   A   B   C   D   E

8. Finds time to listen to group members.	A	B	C	D	E
9. Criticizes poor work.	A	B	C	D	E
10. Gives advance notice of changes.	A	B	C	D	E
11. Speaks in a manner not to be questioned.	A	B	C	D	E
12. Keeps to himself/herself.	A	B	C	D	E
13. Looks out for personal welfare of individual group members.	A	B	C	D	E
14. Assigns group members to particular tasks.	A	B	C	D	E
15. Is the spokesperson of the group.	A	B	C	D	E
16. Schedules the work to be done.	A	B	C	D	E
17. Maintains definite standards of performance.	A	B	C	D	E
18. Refuses to explain his/her actions.	A	B	C	D	E

3. Perceived Leadership Characteristics

A non-conclusive and subjective survey will be administered to all police officers participating in the training. Each police officer will be asked to identify characteristics most likely resemble his/her leadership based on the categories of personality and task-related habits:

a. Personality:

- originality and creativity

- resourcefulness

- strength of conviction

- adaptability

- personal integrity

b. Task-Related Habits

- Drive for achievement

- Desire to excel

- Persistence against obstacles

- Drive for responsibilities

- Drive for productivity

As a result of completing this process of reflection, each police officer will have self- composed evidence to support their effective leadership style.

4. <u>A Self-Scaled Evaluation</u>

This exercise is adapted by Chan (1982) from Peter Drucker's *Five Habits* , and considered essential for each police officer in their daily operation:

a. <u>Time Management:</u>
- consolidating time
- time analysis
- management of time

b. <u>What Can I Contribute?</u>
- Focus on extrinsic and intrinsic rewards
- Extent of contribution

c. <u>Building on Strength:</u>
- View/use others strength
- Analysis of self- strength
- Use ones strength wisely and effectively

d. <u>First Things First:</u>
- Do one thing at a time
- Concentrate on worker's effort
- Emphasize future
- Eliminate less important tasks to get to priorities

e. Making Effective Decisions:

- Determine if problem is generic or unique

- Think through what is right

- Build action into decision

- Use feedback to monitor decision

f. Writing Things Down

- Do it every day (document)

- Write down the most precise/important things

- Carry a notebook and a pen all the time.

5. Leadership Improvement Plan

As a result of the self analysis of strengths the participating police officers will focus on the five specific areas of improvement as developed by Chan (1982).

Example: A Simulated Leadership Improvement Plan

Goal No.: Improving Bodily Health

Decrease sinus and allergy to a minimal nuisance by October 1997, and maintain a healthy condition throughout 1998.

a. Decision-Making:

1. Sinus affects health.

2. Allergy affects health.

3. Dieting and medication are essential to control sinus and avoid the influence of allergy.

b. Programming:

    1. Consult doctor right now.

    2. Plan diet with the doctor starting now.

    3. Take necessary medication as advised by doctor.

    4. Quit coffee and tea.

c. Stimulating:

    1. Write a sign "Clean and Clear Nose = Happiness" in the bathroom.

    2. Draw a broken coffee/tea pot and post it in the kitchen.

d. Coordinating:

    1. Keep daily record of "nuisances" and medication.

    2. Ask spouse to remind taking medication.

    3. Indicate progress to doctor, supervisor and spouse.

e. Evaluation:

    1. This objective is to be met by October 1, 1997.

    2. Necessary adjustment needed if plan not satisfied.

f. Time Phasing:

    1. Start immediately: quit coffee and tea.

    2. Start necessary medication.

    3. Report to spouse about decision, report orally to spouse

on the first day of the month, report orally to doctor on December.

Leadership Improvement Plans could also focus on the following:

- Improve the efficiency in the use of time by using time management techniques in work, study, and leisure time.
- Improve skills in effective decision making.
- Improve focus on outside contributions in terms of personal as well as professional advancement.
- Improve family and personal finance management skills

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this project was to design a model training program to prepare candidates for employment as police officers in Taiwan. To accomplish this project, a review of current literature regarding training for basic police work was conducted. Additionally related information from Central Police University, Taoyuan, Taiwan, was obtained and analyzed.

Conclusions

Conclusions reached as a result of this project were:

1. Due to the variety of assignments and wide-ranging situations typically encountered by police personnel, basic police training is critical.

2. Experts have a renewed belief that police forces can do a lot more than merely hold chaos at bay. With the right strategies, they can actually prevent crime and make communities safer and more harmonious.

3. Successfully, model police officers training programs typically include such curriculum/instructional components as: Wellness and Safety, Tactical Communications, Criminal Process, Patrol Operation,

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Professional Responsibilities and Community Policing.

Recommendations

As a result of this project, the following recommendations have been suggested:

1. To prepare police personnel to perform a variety of assignments and to cope with wide-ranging situations typically encountered on the job, a well designed program of basic police training must be provided candidates seeking employment as police officers.

2. To deter crime and to make communities safer and more harmonious, police forces should design and practice training strategies that are crime preventive in nature.

3. Those responsible for developing police officer training programs should focus curriculum and instruction on Wellness and Safety, Tactical communications, Criminal Process, Patrol Operation, Professional Responsibilities and Community Policing.

4. Police departments/agencies seeking to design a training program to prepare candidates for employment as police officers, may wish to adapt and/or utilize the model program developed for purposes of this project, or undertake further research on this subject to meet their unique needs.

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