

**IN PURSUIT OF POLICE PROFESSIONALISM: THE  
DEVELOPMENT AND ASSESSMENT OF A CONCEPTUAL MODEL  
OF PROFESSIONALISM IN LAW ENFORCEMENT**

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of a Conceptual Model of Professionalism in Law Enforcement**

Jeffrey A. Schneider, Ed.D.

University of Pittsburgh, 2009

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Adherence to the highest standards and fundamentals of professionalism is essential to the profession of law enforcement. Police professionalism has many meanings but no definitive model of professionalism in policing has been established. Historically, the idea of policing as a profession has emerged slowly. The professional model, as proposed in this research, seeks to define a working model of professionalism in policing. It is proposed that police work is a “true profession,” similar to the professions of medicine, law, and education. Advocates of any professional model of policing argue that police officers are experts through training, certification, education, and experience, and thus should be viewed as professionals in every sense of the term.

In selecting the criteria for this developmental model of professionalism, a content analysis of the literature was conducted in order to define key elements of professionalism and professionalism in policing. The development of this descriptive profile resulted in the conceptualization of a professional model utilizing nine criteria, or attributes: high standards of recruitment and selection (civil service), formal education (college) requirements, formal training (police academy) and state certification, state-mandated (annual) specialized training and re-certification, sworn police officers empowered to arrest, armed police officers (firearms), formal

policies (departmental) for operations and function, community policing (commitment and service), and accreditation.

Select specialists (N=25) in the field of criminal justice - law enforcement practitioners and higher education faculty - were sampled to assess the proposed model. The focus of this study was that professionalism in policing could be defined and achieved by meeting the established criteria as proposed by the Professional Model of Policing. The results indicate the majority of the specialists in this study felt the proposed model was acceptable, and could serve as a basic blueprint of professionalism in law enforcement, or “ideal type”, pending further relevant research on police professionalism.

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## **PREFACE**

In conclusion of this academic journey I am indebted to various individuals who helped make it possible. All have contributed and made sacrifices, for that I am grateful. First, I wish to thank my children – Haley, Shane, and Marlee for their support during this long quest, my father for his continual encouragement, and my best girl Sheree, whom has always been there for me. I appreciate the “release time” allowed me by my employer, without which I would not have had this opportunity. I also owe many thanks and sincere appreciation to committee members Dr. Hughes and Dr. Zullo, for their understanding and commitment during this study. It is never easy balancing the requirements of academia, as well as family, with additional advisement obligations.

I also owe a special tribute to committee person Dr. Austin, my mentor and friend. Not only do I appreciate his contributory assistance with this particular research, but over the years, his encouragement and ability to motivate others in the pursuit of something as definitive as this. Finally, I would like to give a special thanks to my committee chairperson, academic advisor, and confidant, Dr. Nelson. Without him this research would not have reached fruition. His support and guidance have been immeasurable during this research project, and for that I will be forever indebted.

## **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

The intent of this study was to construct and test a conceptual model of professionalism in policing. Using nine attributes (criteria) as developed from the synthesis of the literature review, the proposed model was administered, using non-probability sampling methods, on a select population of “specialists” in the field of law enforcement. It was hoped that the design and development of this professional model would aid in the exploration of the concept of professionalism in policing – in defining, measuring, and achieving this *ideal* type in the field of law enforcement.

### **1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Based upon qualitative research strategies, this study developed a *professional model of policing* and explored how the concept of professionalism in policing could be defined. This model was designed to serve as a conceptual framework for analysis of existing policing operations and the development of more professional programs and operations in higher education environments specifically.

Major emphasis is placed on how selected “specialists in the field,” such as criminal justice researchers, practitioners, policymakers, authors, and administrators characterize police professionalism in the various and distinct settings of law enforcement. The perceptions of police

professionalism by these selected criminal justice and law enforcement specialists are compared with the model created by this researcher via a review, analysis, synthesis, and compilation of the literature. The research is based on the administration of questionnaires, as well as analysis of in-depth, semi-structured interviews, organized to solicit subjective responses from the experts in the field. It was anticipated that the classic model of professionalism as set forth, operationalized from the review of literature, would be clarified and validated by this method of research.

## **1.2 ELEMENTS OF THE PROBLEM**

The idea of professionalization in policing has been an issue since the 1930's. Operationalization of the concept has been widely debated since then. The concept of professionalism in policing is still in the developmental and evolutionary stages. Classic professional models have been developed and identified in various occupations throughout time in order to validate those specific professions on the basis of knowledge and service dimensions, so that they might be held in high professional regard in the public sector (Hagan, 1982, 277). The concept of "professionalism" in such a setting as campus (college and university) policing results in the need to attach specific meaning to a term that has widely varying public definitions. The following analysis of various definitions and components of professionalism in policing, and further expert validation of stated criteria, will be supportive in developing a working definition of the term.

The movement to establish professional standards in policing began in the 1900s and has raised the quality of policing in the United States – transforming both police work and police administration (Gaines & Miller, 2007). The 1967 President's Commission on Law Enforcement

and Administration of Justice and the 1973 National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals issued comprehensive reports detailing strategies in preventing crime and improving the quality of policing at all governmental levels. However, a relative void has persisted regarding the changing patterns of police professionalism on college and university campuses, as well as in the public sector.

In the public sector, police agencies remain among the more complex agencies in the criminal justice system. Police officers themselves hold considerable authority over their clientele, i.e., the people and the institutions/entities they serve, and reflect varied and complex occupational functions. The predominant school of thought of modern day policing is that the more professional a law enforcement agency, the more effective it will be in the performance of its major duties and functions – the “police mission”, i.e., order maintenance, law enforcement, and community service (Schmallegger, 2007).

True professionalism in policing is viewed as a recognized indicator and predictor of police effectiveness nationwide. The professional model of policing, as proposed by the President’s Commission (1967) and the National Advisory Commission (1973) provide the blueprint for this research, i.e., the operationalization of the concept of “professionalism” for use in policing today. Various areas of service and function, as well as accountability, were of central concern to these Commissions, as it is today for any law enforcement agency intent on achieving professionalism. This movement towards professionalism was to encourage higher standards of selection for police officers, including more formal education and training procedures. According to the two Commissions, professionalism should include rigorous admission standards, higher education, public acceptance, specialized training, ethical behavior, and a general commitment to community service.

The intent of this study was to develop and operationalize the concept of “professionalism” in policing. A social science definitional view of the concept of “profession,” in general usage, refers to a skilled line of work, one that yields a full-time calling, an “occupation.” Few would deny that policing, as an occupation, shares this general definition. However, the concept of “professionalism” in policing, or the manner, methods, and spirit in which the profession (policing) is actually practiced, is at the heart of this research study.

This research makes various assumptions regarding the role of professionalism in policing. First, it is assumed that the achieving of professionalism is a goal, in meeting with industry standards, of law enforcement agencies. Second, it is assumed that professionalism can be defined, measured, and achieved. Third, it is assumed that law enforcement agencies play a proactive role in attaining their level of professionalism on both an individual, departmental, and institutional basis. Finally, it is assumed that in achieving professionalism, as benchmarked against national standards in areas such as formal education, training, community policing, high standards of recruitment and selection, and accreditation that law enforcement agencies can be more *effective*, i.e., professional law enforcement agencies. Overall, a descriptive profile will be developed as a result of this research reflecting the status of professionalism in policing and its potential applicability at institutions of higher education.

### **1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

1. How is professionalism in policing defined according to the literature review?
2. How is professionalism in policing defined by the specialists (*experts*) in the study?
3. What is the role of professionalism in policing?
4. Is policing a profession?

5. Assuming the validity of the exploratory professional model of policing herein (ideal type), and further assuming various degrees of professionalism,
  - a. In terms of degree, what criteria (from the Model) are necessary for a police agency to be considered “professional” in policing?
  - b. According to the dimensions of the Professional Model of policing, can those agencies lacking some dimension(s) of the professional model be described as “semi-professional”?
6. In viewing the concept of the Professional Model of Policing, as a matter of kind, i.e., “Is it, or is it not?,” can the Model be viewed as an “ideal type” for police professionalism?

## **1.4 METHODOLOGY**

This chapter sets forth the nature of the research at hand and specifies protocol used to study the concept of police professionalism and in the development of a professional model of policing. The purpose of this study was to design a theoretical model and to test this model on a select sample of experts and practitioners in the field of law enforcement. This chapter is divided into twelve sections. Section 1 introduces the topic of professionalism in policing. Section 2 explores the very nature and definition of professionalism in policing, as well as the need for identification. Section 3 outlines the research questions for the study. Section 4 reviews the overall methodological process applied in this research process. Section 5 summarizes the various techniques used in this research process. Section 6 briefly addresses the scope of the study and the type of data sought to answer the research questions. Section 7 summarizes the population and the precise sample of experts in the field to be surveyed. Section 8 discusses how the researcher gained access to the research sample. Section 9 details multiple data collection

strategies including e-mailings (initial contact), follow-up telephone contacts and written correspondences with subjects, and questionnaires. Section 10 explains how the concept of “professionalism” was operationalized in this research. Section 11 discusses how the data were analyzed. Section 12 discusses IRB issues pertaining to the protection of human subjects.

### **1.5 SPECIFIC TECHNIQUES**

1. A review was completed of applicable literature and research related to the topic of policing and police professionalism.
2. A content analysis of selected authors and works was performed.
3. Key definitional components from the authors were identified for consistency, applicability, and inclusion in the development of the proposed Professional Model of Policing as a prototype (ideal type).
4. All information was synthesized in the form of a descriptive professional model, based on the relevant research. The model was constructed to highlight nine criteria as they relate to police professionalism.
5. A sample (N=25) of “experts” in the criminal justice field was used as the population sample for testing the acceptability and validity of this exploratory Professional Model of Policing.
6. Exploratory data collected were then “plugged into” the Model and analyzed for application and validation purposes.
7. Research results were then summarized, responses to research questions were addressed, and the necessary recommendations and conclusions formulated based on the findings.

## **1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY AND NATURE OF DATA**

This dissertation is necessarily limited in scope. Because of the number of criminal justice experts throughout the United States and the world, it was necessary and most feasible to limit the study because of availability and sampling issues. Furthermore, it was felt that the research questions could be adequately addressed within a more limited scope. This was also necessary given the qualitative and descriptive nature of the data sought in response to the research questions.

This study was specifically designed to solicit “expert” evaluation for validation of the proposed developmental model of police professionalism as perceived by this sampling of specialists – researchers, administrators, authors, and practitioners well-versed in the field of criminal justice – in both form and function. Because of the qualitative nature of the data, it was anticipated that emerging concepts and patterns of concepts regarding police professionalism and campus police work that might predictably emanate from this dissertation would be useful in the future development of more quantitative projects.

## **1.7 POPULATION AND SAMPLE**

The sampling frame in this study was selected using various non-probability sampling strategies. A select population of *specialists* (researchers, administrators, authors, and practitioners) was culled as a result of the review of literature, the workaday world experiences of the researcher as practitioner in the field of criminal justice, and the application of the following methodology. Overall, the population sample selected was based on the relative ease of access and convenience

on the part of the researcher (convenience sampling). “Purposive sampling” was initially employed to gain access to those respondents this researcher thought most appropriate for the study. A purposive or judgmental sample is commonly used in non-probability sampling to best satisfy the exploratory goals of the research and the special access held by the researcher, as a practitioner, to a select population of subjects (Hagan, 1982). Access to these specific respondents was a result of this researcher’s membership and affiliation in two professional organizations - CUPSA (College and University Police and Security Association) and NWPCPA (Northwestern Pennsylvania Chiefs of Police Association, Inc.); as well as various other academic and practitioner contacts. Potential respondents were ‘invited’ to be a part of this research endeavor. Additionally, ‘snowball sampling’ was used as some respondents were then referred to this researcher by various other ‘specialists’ in the field – professional colleagues that were known to them for possible inclusion in this study. Rather than to attempt to test pre-determined hypotheses, this project sought to uncover concepts, and relationships among concepts, from which new theoretical patterns may be predicted. All generalizations made from the sampling methodology employed were filtered through the researcher’s knowledge of the topic being studied.

## **1.8 GAINING ACCESS TO THE SUBJECTS**

The researcher is an active member of various law enforcement and professional organizations, as well as a practitioner in the field, which presented the opportunity for contact and selection of sample subjects for this particular study. As Hagan (1982, 82) coins the phrase – “*pitch the language,*” this researcher “walks the walk and talks the talk.” Membership typically provides

access, common knowledge, and opportunity. Because the dissertation goal was to seek an exploratory understanding regarding various personal perceptions of policing and professionalism, it was believed that immediate rapport would be gained by the researcher. Names of various experts in the field were culled initially from professional membership lists of the aforementioned organizations for inclusion in this research project, as well as from personal and professional contacts in various academic and law enforcement settings.

Since the sample was comprised of researchers, administrators, authors, and practitioners, some of whom are not personally known by this researcher, the difficult task of gaining entry for research purposes was realized. Various approaches to access of subjects became necessary in the research process as previously stated in “population and sample” - including “snowball sampling” and “purposive sampling”. In reality the sample became more self-selected rather than random, given the methodology employed. The research sample thus began in a random manner, and as a result of referrals and “connections”, selected sample subjects then assisted in recruiting future subjects from amongst their various acquaintances and/or professional affiliations. Thus the final sample of respondents was readily available and convenient for intended sampling purposes. Most respondents were from western Pennsylvania and eastern Ohio and hence accessible for possible inclusion. This “shotgun approach” to sampling was helpful in the collection of desired data given the smaller sample population as used in this research.

## **1.9 DATA COLLECTION STRATEGIES**

Three inter-related techniques were used to collect the data from eligible respondents. First, e-mail contact (Appendix A) was made with each of the proposed “resident experts” in the field

(N=25). E-mail addresses were obtained from membership directories, as well as from college and university directories (public information). This initial contact of selected respondents explained the purpose and details of the study. At this stage, all respondents were advised of the voluntary nature of the research, the reasons for their inclusion as experts in the field, and that anonymity would be assured in the research project. The second stage of the data collection process, telephone contact, was to further explain the research project and objectives. It was anticipated that multiple e-mail messages and telephone calls would be exchanged with the subjects over the course of the project to facilitate research goals.

Third, after gaining preliminary understanding from subjects by e-mail and telephone, the researcher sent out questionnaires (Appendix B), either via e-mail or postal service, to the sample population. Subsequent researcher contacts were used to expand or clarify questionnaire items as necessary. Additionally, some open-ended discussions of police professionalism, and how these experts perceive various aspects of occupational professionalism, were conducted as necessary for further expansion of data gathered. This researcher took notes during any personal conversations with the sample of experts. Various face-to-face unstructured interviews or ‘conversations’ were also conducted with respondents, at monthly organizational meeting places (CUPSA and NWPCPA), to expand upon data gathering strategies.

### **1.10 OPERATIONALIZATION OF PROFESSIONALISM**

Part of the research methodology of this study calls for the development of a professional model in policing. The focus of the research assumptions in this dissertation was that professionalism in policing could be defined, measured, and achieved by meeting the nine pre-established criteria.

This model was developed as a result of work-a-day world law enforcement experiences, teaching in the field of criminal justice and criminology, and a thorough literature review of the topic of policing. The nine standards selected were those areas of focus that the researcher found to be most prevalent in the body of the literature review. These standards were thematic in discussions of policing, law enforcement, and professionalism by the various authors.

When speaking of a ‘profession’ in relation to other occupations: licensing for accountants and attorneys; accreditation of institutions of higher learning; formal education requirements for specific occupations – a Ph.D. for teaching in college; certification to teach yoga or tae kwon do; technical training in heavy equipment operations; specialized training for optometrists and pediatricians; formal policies in offices of human resources; formal training in the military; - we experience established criterion necessary for specific profession(s) in order to ‘do the job’. The criteria selected for this police model are reflective of those qualities required of many other professions, thus constituting a ‘profession’. The body of literature reviewed indicates that the occupation of policing involves special attainment because of the specialized vocation. If professionalism can be viewed as the method or manner of being professional, and thus a profession (vocation); then these nine standards were culled from the literature in the spirit of the profession of policing.

True professionalism in policing is viewed as a recognized indicator and predictor of police effectiveness nationwide. The professional model of policing, as proposed by the President’s Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967) and the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1973), as well as the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement (1931), are the cornerstones and blueprints for this research, i.e., the operationalization of the concept of “professionalism” in

policing. Various areas of service and function, as well as accountability, were of central concern for these commissions, as it is today for any law enforcement agency intent on achieving true professionalism. The movement towards professionalism is to encourage higher standards of selection for police officers, including more formal education and training procedures. According to these two Commissions, in the field of law enforcement, professionalization includes rigorous admission standards, higher education, public acceptance, specialized training, ethical behavior, and a general commitment to community service.

It should also be noted that the terms ‘policing’ and ‘law enforcement’ are often used, both in this study as well as in the public sector, interchangeably. In common usage in the criminal justice field, a police officer is always a law enforcement officer, but a law enforcement officer is *not* always a police officer. The FBI’s Uniform Crime Report program defines a *law enforcement officer* as a person who ordinarily carries a firearm and a badge, has full arrest powers, and is paid from government funds specifically dedicated to law enforcement (FBI, 2008). It is sometimes difficult, by definition, to separate police work from law enforcement.

This research has, as its primary interest and concern, professionalism in policing. These nine attributes (criteria) used in the development of the “professional model”, as proposed in this research, were culled from the literature review of policing and professionalism. A content analysis of the literature revealed key elements of policing relevant to the conceptualization of both a profession and professionalism. According to the proposed model, true professionalism in policing can be achieved with the following attributes as conceptualized:

1. high standards of recruitment and selection (civil service)
2. formal education (college) requirements
3. formal training (police academy) and state certification

4. state-mandated (annual) specialized training and re-certification
5. sworn police officers empowered to arrest;
6. armed police officers (firearms);
7. formal policies (departmental) for operations and function;
8. community policing (commitment and service);
9. accreditation.

It is proposed that actual police professionalism, and hence effectiveness, can be attained, i.e., *a better police agency*, by meeting these nine established criteria. This research profile (model) is further elaborated on in the body of the literature review that follows. The intent of this model is that law enforcement agencies will be able to benchmark with other law enforcement agencies for comparison and evaluation of services. Jim Ball (2008) states "...professionalism is not just about appearance, ethics, and a code of conduct. Professionalism is about having a lifetime dedication and commitment to higher standards and ideals, honorable values, and continuous self improvement. Professionalism is a built-in guidance system for always doing the right thing, and always standing tall for what you believe..."

To further understand the tradition and history of policing in this framework, it should be noted that police perform three primary yet varied functions: law enforcement, order maintenance, and community service. However, carrying out such functions ranges across a broad spectrum of policies, protocol, and procedures – dependent upon the type of law enforcement agency involved and institution/environment served. Thus, professionalism in policing is more than just accountability, the clearance rate, or amount of crime in a given jurisdiction. Professionalism in policing infers agency effectiveness. Police effectiveness implies a better and more productive police officer, and likewise, a more efficient and professional law

enforcement agency. Police professionalism is equated with better-educated, highly-trained, rule-oriented police officers. It is not only *what* the police do, but *how* they do it.

## 1.11 DATA ANALYSIS

A descriptive method of research was used in the systematic analysis and selective classification of data gathered in this research project. All data compiled were based on a content analysis of the literature review, analysis of data obtained from the questionnaires and interview transcripts, and notes taken from informal conversations with various respondents. Holsti (1969, 14) offers a broad definition of content analysis as “any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages.” Final categorization and validation of traits (criteria) resulted in a general definitional and a more specific sociological view of police professionalism. The Conceptual Model of Professionalism was then tested using the questionnaire data and interview accounts gathered in relation to the nine criteria established in the operationalization of professionalism in policing. Content analysis permitted discerning trends in the data – viewing the concept as a matter of kind, i.e., “Is it or is it not,” but also in terms of “degree.” Tables, bar charts, and other summarizing procedures were used in the presentation of data, as well as extensive descriptive narratives from various ‘expert’ respondents.

The prior selection of categories, subjects to be interviewed, and the establishment of criteria for inclusion ensure project replication. The various elements (criteria) of professionalism, as reported by the respondents, were measured to reflect the level and degree of professionalism in the final analysis. Rather than viewing the concept as just a matter of kind, “Is

it or is it not a profession?”, it was anticipated that degrees of professionalism could/would be established. The end result, in addressing the research questions, and in conducting a content analysis, was to ultimately gain a better understanding of professionalism in law enforcement as it might be applicable to institutions of higher education.

Relational analysis (content) was used in examining the relationships of concepts in this study. The focus of analysis was to look for semantic or meaningful relationships (Palmquist, Carley, & Dale, 1997). Individual concepts have little inherent meaning, in and of themselves, but can be seen as products of their relationships among the various concepts in totality. Carley (1990) asserts that such concepts acquire meaning through their “connections” to other symbols and concepts. Following the collection of data as described in the methodology section, the following procedures were employed in the content analysis process.

Step 1: Data gathered were classified, identified, and labeled and tables constructed to represent the criteria established in the Professional Model of Policing.

Step 2: Criteria (nine) in the Professional Model was coded to indicate level, or strength, of relationships for each table. The relationships were then explored for each table and the impact of each variable assessed. Ratings and standards for professionalism of low, moderate, and high (1-9) was then designated.

Step 3: Questionnaire and interview data were used in responding to the research questions in this study, as well as in validating the nine criteria listed in the Professional Model of Policing.

The intent was the validation as to what the key elements are in a professional model of professionalism in policing and the potential implications, for further study, in relation to law enforcement at institutions of higher education. In analyzing the responses regarding established

criteria and traits from the data analysis, specific questions needed addressed; “What are the most frequent traits/criteria necessary for professionalism? At what level of professionalism? Do the sources (respondents) agree, and in what ways? Does it make sense?” The intent of this dissertation was to develop and classify a model (profile) of police professionalism. By deriving key definitional components of professionalism as suggested by the surveys of selected “specialists” in the field, as well as the literature review, this researcher hoped to develop a model that could be viewed as a prototype (ideal type) of professionalism in policing.

### **1.12 IRB**

In accordance with the IRB requirements and approved protocol, an introductory script was e-mailed to each member of the sample population (Appendix A). The Professional Model of Policing questionnaire (Appendix B) was also sent via e-mail. Subsequent phone calls, conversations, and e-mails further explained the project to the respondents in follow-up to the initial e-mail contacts. Further elaboration on questionnaire content and responses, and follow-up information, was necessary throughout the data collection process. Specific questions were designed to facilitate discussion and promote queries so as to optimize and validate data collection within the sample of respondents. Respondent identities were protected when requested, however none of the respondents requested anonymity. Respondents were advised that participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw from the research process at any time. There was no risk to the respondents.

## **2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The literature review has been organized into various subject areas in order to better explore and define the concept of police professionalism and, thereby, establish a professional model for further inquiry. Within the profession of policing, the following topics have been highlighted in the review: professionalism, accreditation, ethics, education, recruitment, selection, training, certification, promotion, job performance, and legal issues. These areas were selected for inclusion for various reasons (see Table 1).

The focal point, ‘the police’ (2.2), is the very foundation of the study, the ‘nuts and bolts’ of the research – a broad overview of the history and tradition of policing. This category was necessary as a beginning. Professionalism (2.3) was selected because of the research need to develop a working definition of this concept for analysis and development of the working model. The topics (2.4 - 2.9) of ethics, accreditation, education, recruitment, selection, training, certification, promotion, and job performance are ‘capstone’ areas of interests in the majority of policing and law enforcement literature. These subject areas are the most widely explored and debated by the criminal justice experts in the field. This researcher also felt that these areas provided the ‘best fit’ for any research discussion on police professionalism, particularly in the actual operationalization of the term “professionalism”.

Finally, the category of ‘legal issues’ (2.10) reflects upon the profession of policing in areas of accountability and performance, as well as the overall ‘quality’ of policing. Legal issues have a far-reaching and ongoing impact upon the professionalization of law enforcement today. The police are charged with maintaining public order and protecting persons and property from unlawful acts. In the United States today there are over 14,000 separate agencies – on the local, county, state, and federal levels. Police powers are strictly circumscribed by law and constitution. Legal issues arise from the application of ‘law’ by the ‘lawgivers’ (police). Legal issues arise both internally and externally, both within public (criminal) and private (civil) arenas. This body of rules governing the police results in the application of systemic checks and balances within the profession, in governing not only the police, but also those members of the community served. Hence a professional model of policing cannot be developed without close scrutiny of and reflection on the legalism within the profession. The police, and hence police conduct, are held to a “higher standard” by the courts, the public, and administrators – hence the need for professionalism in the occupation.

This content analysis of policing literature was conducted as an unobtrusive, primary method of gathering pertinent data for secondary analysis. Existing records, documents, texts, articles, journals, and publications (library and on-line) were utilized in order to provide the opportunity for review and evaluation. Examination of such data, and establishment of categories, was necessary in order to operationalize the proposed model of *professionalism* in policing. Table 1 presents variables associated with policing and professionalism using the secondary sources of the literature review. Of the twenty-two sources cited, various thematic trends were highlighted as being important to policing and professionalism. The process of

content analysis resulted in the identification of nine criteria (attributes) for inclusion in the professional model of policing as conceptualized.

**Table 1. Content Analysis**

Table 1 A Content Analysis of Elements of the Professional Model of Policing as Identified by Select Practitioners and Experts in the Field

	Recruitment	Selection	Civil Service	Certification	Specialized Training	In-service Training	Sworn Officers	Armed Officers	Formal Policies	Formal Education	Community Policing	Accreditation	Police Academy	Quasi-Military
President's Commission (1967)	x	x		x	X		x		x	x			x	
National Advisory Commission (1973)	x	x		x	X	x			x	x	x			
IACP	x	x		x	X	x			x			x	x	
PERF	x	x		x	X	x			x	x		x	x	
Wickersham Commission (1931)	x	x		x	X				x	x				
PORAC	x	x	x	x	X	x	x		x	x		x	x	
Vollmer, August	x	x	x	x	X		x	x	x	x			x	x
Wilson, O.W.	x	x	x	x	X	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x
MPOETC				x	X	x	x	x	x			x	x	x
Metropolitan Police Act (1929)	x	x			X		x		x		x			x
Mollen Commission (1994)	x	x	x						x					
POST	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x
CALEA	x	x	x	x	X				x			x	x	
COPS			x	x	X		x	x	x		x		x	x
NYPD	x	x	x	x	X	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x
LAPD	x	x	x	x	X	x	x	x	x		x		x	x
National Sheriff's Association	x	x	x	x	X	x			x			x	x	x
PSP	x	x	x	x	X	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
IACLEA	x	x		x	X				x			x	x	
PACE	x	x	x	x	X	x	x		x	x	x		x	
PCPA	x	x		x		x	x		x			x	x	
LEAA					X				x	x	x			

The intent, once this pre-existing information was gathered and categorized, was to examine the data in new ways, i.e., along new avenues of inquiry. As a former philosophy professor of my undergraduate years was fond of saying..."How can one know where one is going, if one knows not where one is, or where one has been?" The literature review is useful in looking at the results of studies by others to assess and develop one's own research. So as to afford a better understanding of the language and culture of law enforcement, the various

occupation-specific and discipline-oriented terms and concepts used throughout this study are listed and defined in Appendix C.

The literature review herein is a compilation of various authors - previous studies, court cases, and ongoing research in law enforcement that identifies factors influencing present mainstream philosophies regarding policing specifically, and overall professionalism, in the field of law enforcement. The review is divided into sections to permit a focused analysis of various contemporary and historical issues, trends, and philosophies of policing and professionalism. The intent of the review is to build a foundation of knowledge regarding these current trends and policies, the nature and quality of law enforcement services, and the overall impact of these services, issues, and philosophies in this environment so as to categorize such traits in the development of a professional model of policing. Through review of data, resultant analysis, and categorization of professionalism, it was hoped that a better interpretive understanding would be achieved with regard to professionalization in policing.

Safety and security issues currently require that colleges and universities be cognizant of various issues regarding the recruitment, selection, training, education, performance, and professionalism of campus law enforcement officers. Police officers today are more willing to accept a multifaceted role and tend to view themselves as law enforcement “generalists.” Current expectations in policing are being shaped by various professional training issues, as well as academic and relevant work-a-day world experiences. Increasingly, police agencies are becoming more formalized and community-oriented in their operations and philosophy. The modern department is one that is well focused, promotes a strong code of ethics among the rank-and-file, and promotes equitable recruitment, selection, and promotional practices.

As a result of the recent Virginia Tech tragedy on April 16, 2007 (Bloody Monday), higher education has been called to account legally in such crisis situations. Accountability has become the rallying cry. The reinforcement of protection of property *and* persons on college campuses is becoming redefined in conjunction with institutional mission. In requiring colleges and universities to provide safe environments, police agencies must become better trained in processing and addressing potential risks, both proactively and reactively. Professionalization is one major strategy in response to such issues of foreseeable events and reasonableness standards. Why we did what we did, or did not do, can be more consistently addressed from a liability standpoint as long as law enforcement agencies are better able to manage such conflicts. Can we do anything to prevent it from happening again? Probably not - it's a collective strategy. If colleges and universities are not properly trained, it is in the best interest of all stakeholders to bridge that gap in training and preparedness. The case of Virginia Tech shows that agencies both on and off campus need to work together more effectively to improve response. Training and professionalism are integral parts of that response.

## **2.2 THE POLICE: PURPOSE, MISSION, AND COMMUNITY**

Who are the police? Of the more than 14,000 law enforcement agencies in the United States today, there are 3,088 sheriffs' departments, 1,332 special police agencies (parks, schools, airports, etc.), 49 state police departments, and 70 federal law enforcement agencies (BJS, 2006). Each level has its own set of responsibilities, purpose, and mission. There is a great deal of debate among scholars regarding any definition of "what the police do, and how they do it." As Sir Robert Peel, founder of the British system of policing, succinctly put it, "The basic mission

for which the police exist is to reduce crime and disorder.” (Sutor, 1976, 68). The five basic primary responsibilities of the police include (Bittner, 1970): enforcing laws, providing services, apprehending offenders, preventing crime, and preserving the peace (order maintenance).

The police are expected to objectively and impartially prevent crime, gather evidence, solve crimes, make arrests, protect the public – all in adherence to due process standards as set forth in the U.S. Constitution. As Robert Kennedy, the then U.S. Attorney General (1964) stated, “Every society gets the kind of criminal it deserves. What is equally true is that every community gets the kind of law enforcement it insists on.” (Wadman & Allison, 2003, iv). The police are the gatekeepers to the criminal justice system. Simultaneous with the growing complexity of the police and policing is the growing public expectation of a more professionalized and competent police force. It should be noted when referring to “law enforcement agencies” generally, and the “police” specifically, in common usage all police officers are law enforcement officers, but not all law enforcement officers are police officers.

Police professionalism requires a refocusing on the communities the police serve. Any measure of police effectiveness today includes citizen satisfaction. The culture of policing has historically viewed the public as not supporting and respecting of the police. Bridging this gap between the community and the police is conceptually known as community policing - the strategy of increasing police presence in the community, and thus forming a partnership with the community served (Kelling, 1988). Community policing reflects upon the original police mission: partnerships, proactive problem solving, community support, and cooperation. Under this model, the police are more than mere law enforcers, they are expected to prevent crime, solve crime, and help community members deal with pressing social issues in their respective

neighborhoods. This umbrella term refers to both community-oriented policing and problem-oriented policing (Office of Community Oriented Policing Services, 2002).

Success in attaining professionalism demands commitment to public service, organizational (individual and department) expertise, and the realization that the police have a responsibility, must be dedicated, to “serve and protect.” Police officers serve society. Society is diverse, and training must reflect this diversity. Officers must be proficient in both duty and function. The objective of professionalism is to better prepare law enforcement officers in that mission. The very tenets of professionalism dictate that only those who “qualify” are allowed entry into a profession. Professionals have a duty to each other as well. All professionals must maintain standards of performance and a sense of service. Every profession, at one time or another, falls short of established ideals in professionalism. Policing is no different in that respect. However, is the status of professionalism beyond the realm of the achievable in the field of policing?

### **2.3 PROFESSIONALISM**

Profession, professionalization, and professional are all extremely ambiguous words. Much of their stubborn imprecision hinges on their confusing and sometimes incompatible multiple connotations. There is, though, no other word in the English language which can be used to represent an occupation so well organized that its members can realistically envisage a career over most of their working years, a career during which they retain a particular

occupational identity and continue to practice the same skills no matter in what institution they work.

-Eliot Freidson

Professionalism Reborn, 1994

What is professionalism in policing specifically, and campus policing generally? Police professionalism is the increasing formalization of police work and the accompanying rise in public acceptance of the police. Certain fundamentals are essential in various professions in order to achieve “true professionalism.” According to Maister (1997, 6) “...true professionalism means the pursuit of excellence, not just competence....” It is a balancing act between the client, the firm, and oneself. Balance is not only important but necessary – in becoming competent professionals, seeking superior quality in work, providing the best possible service to clients, adhering to established standards, all in the name of service – in doing the “right” thing. In policing, the *firm* is the institution and agency one represents; the community and the public one serves can be viewed as the *client*. Hagan (1975) states that on the basis of occupational knowledge and service dimensions, occupations may claim to be “professional” in nature. At the heart of the issue is what does, and what does not, constitute a profession. Greenwood (1966) researched the differences between “professional” and “non-professional” occupations and noted that the distinctions were more quantitative than qualitative in nature. Occupations cannot be classified merely in terms of black-and-white categories, but rather along a continuum of “degrees.” How many attributes of professionalism are present in the occupation which would qualify it as a designated professional organization?

The pursuit of police professionalism has two meanings (Burack, 2006). First, it has meaning in the traditional sense of integrity, honesty, and adherence to a code of ethics and

established standards; and second, in these more complex times, a more sophisticated version of professionalism is necessary in responding to community, or institutional needs, in being respectful of human rights, in becoming more effective in policing, i.e., achieving a *professional model of policing*. The professional model of policing seeks to make police work a “true profession,” similar to the professions of medicine, law, and education. In these other professions, practitioners possess a broad range of discretion in their respective occupations: doctors rely on training, experience, and knowledge to treat patients; lawyers rely on training, education, and experience to pass professional judgment regarding case law or legal questions. Advocates of the professional model of policing argue that police officers are experts in their professional realm, through training, education, and experience, and thus also should be viewed as *professionals*. But how does one achieve true professionalism in policing? Is it indeed achievable?

A profession is organized and characterized by a body of specialized knowledge acquired through extensive education and a well-considered set of internal standards and ethical guidelines that hold members of that profession accountable to one another and the entity they serve (Seigfried, 1989). Police professionalism requires a great deal of specialized knowledge, and adherence to established standards and ethics as set by the profession. The Law Enforcement Code of Ethics was established in 1956 by the Peace Officers Research Association of California (PORAC) to further the goals of law enforcement as a profession (Farris, 1982). Police ethics require the adherence to a moral duty and obligation that is inherent to police work. Ethics training is integrated into most formal basic law enforcement training programs today (nationally). Many professional organizations, such as the Fraternal Order of Police (FOP) and the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), have done much to raise professional

standards in policing. The FOP is the world's largest organization of sworn police officers. Carr-Saunders and Wilson (1933), in researching occupational groups in 19<sup>th</sup> century England, described professionalization in terms of specialized skills and training, the formation of professional associations, and various codes of ethics governing any professional practice. Professions should have formal education systems, rigorous training, and an admittance examination prior to entry. Overall police professionalism is the increasing formalization of police work and the accompanying rise in public acceptance of the police.

Police professionalism is proactive policing, i.e., going beyond traditional definitions of policing. Improved accountability, strong leadership, continual professional development of police, training, proper resource management, co-operation, integrity, quality of service and delivery, performance and procedures are all partnering variables in promoting police professionalism. The professionalism model in policing, as developed by police reformers August Vollmer and O.W. Wilson in the 1900's, emphasized centralized police organizations, increased use of technology, limiting police discretion through regulations and guidelines, the elimination of political influences, raising personnel standards, developing specialized units, and appointing qualified chief executives (Walker, 1992, 12-14). Today, professional police organizations are those agencies in which education, service, and citizen respect are central to the mission (Goldstein, 1977). Positive police-community relations are paramount, and other factors aiding in identifying professional police departments include college incentive pay, community relations *training*, and the percentage of officers who are college educated (Smith and Klein, 1984).

As America has evolved so too have the roles, responsibilities, and functions of police officers. Kelling and Moore (1991) developed a model of policing by separating the history of

the police into three eras. The *Political Era* (1840-1930) was decentralized, patrolling of neighborhoods was done by foot patrol, and corruption and brutality in the ranks was prevalent. When President Hoover appointed the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement (Wickersham Commission) in 1929 to assess the American criminal justice system, the intent of the Commission was to focus on police reforms in two areas: brutality and corruption (Schmalleger, 2007). The *Reform Era* (1930-1980) centralized policing, patrolled neighborhoods in cars, and became known as the “professional” model of policing. The *Community Era* (1980 – present) became decentralized again, with an emphasis on problem solving, public relations, and specialized units and task forces in order to improve the quality of life for citizens.

Many of the recommendations of the Wickersham Commission (1931) for professionalization of policing were already being instituted by August Vollmer, “the father of modern policing.” The first degree program in law enforcement at any institution of higher education was developed under Vollmer (Dunham and Alpert, 1989). To further professionalism in policing, Vollmer introduced technology and science, using automobiles for the first time in patrolling city streets. His protégé, O.W. Wilson, continued along the lines of Vollmer’s pursuit of professionalism. Wilson attempted to remove politics from policing, and incorporate further technology and bureaucracy, promoting a style of policing known as the “professional model,” as stated above. The technological innovations in policing - patrol cars, radio communications, public record systems, fingerprinting, toxicology, forensics – aided in catapulting policing into the modern, professional era. By the 1950s, American policing was the most professional police model in the world.

Professionalism in the context of this study does not refer to any one specific era of policing, nor to any specific style of policing, as labeled by James Q. Wilson (1968). Wilson's policing styles describe how a law enforcement agency sees its mission and the methods selected to fulfill that mission. Wilson's three styles are (1) the *watchman* style (characteristic of the political era and a concern for order maintenance), (2) the *legalistic* style (characteristic of the reform or political era and a concern for enforcing the letter of the law), and (3) the *service* style (characteristic of the community era today and a concern for serving the community). Today all police departments operate under one, or a combination of, these philosophies (styles).

A profession can be defined as an organized undertaking characterized by a body of specialized knowledge acquired through extensive education, a set of formal internal standards and ethical guidelines that tend to hold the members of the profession accountable to one another and the community/entity/institution they serve (Siegfried, 1989). Contemporary policing has many of the attributes of any profession. Thus, police professionalism, in this research project, is defined as the increasing formalization of police work and the accompanying rise in the public acceptance of the police.

This literature review aided in generating a list of essential traits of the profession and in developing a body of special knowledge for further examination. Professionalism, with the emphasis on education, training, high ethical standards, accountability, and accreditation results in greater public recognition and satisfaction, as well as acceptance, of the significance of police work. Professionalism in law enforcement can result in higher police salaries, a decrease in corruption and deviance in law enforcement, and fewer lawsuits. Police professionalism requires that police officers possess a great deal of specialized knowledge and that they adhere to organizational standards and ethics as set forth by the profession. The professional model is at

the heart of who the police of today are and what they do. When the first modern police force was established by Sir Robert Peel in London in 1829, via the Metropolitan Police Act, it was not anticipated that these basic principles, objectives, and philosophies would continue to influence and shape the state of professional policing today.

## **2.4 CODE OF ETHICS**

The motto “To Serve and Protect” has been adopted by thousands of local police departments, and the Law Enforcement Code of Ethics recognizes that duty to “serve the community” in its first sentence (International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1990). This Code of Ethics was developed by the Peace Officer’s Research Association of California and Berkeley’s School of Criminology in 1956 (Farris, 1982). “Duty,” as the code of ethics promulgates, is that “moral” sense of any police officer that should be applied in a certain manner when using authority in the performance of one’s duty. Police ethics is that special responsibility to adhere to moral duty that is inherent in police work. Police ethics and a code of conduct were developed in response to corruption in policing, as well as to address police function and service in the areas of fairness, justice, and rightness and wrongness in the performance of duty.

Utilitarianism holds that that action which is morally correct is the one which produces the greatest good for the greatest number of people. Kant, when speaking of duty, refers to the “categorical imperative” – a command that tells us what we ought to do, or should do. Morality involves both fairness and equity. A similar common perspective of morality exists in our society and proposes that one “do unto others only as you would have them do unto you” (the Golden Rule). According to Taoism, moral reasoning is the product of the mind that draws distinctions

between what is right and wrong, good and bad, just and unjust. Police officers are expected to be “autonomous moral agents,” persons who can make moral decisions on the basis of personal values (ethics), independent of what other people may believe. Through training they are expected to hold those values to be universally true of their profession.

Doing the right thing in policing means doing your duty, doing what you are obligated to do. They (police) have a moral duty, an ethical duty, and a legal duty to do so. In the children’s classic, *The Adventures of Pinocchio*, Jiminy Cricket advises Pinocchio to ‘always let your conscience be your guide.’ The theory here is that morally right and wrong actions are identified by appealing to one’s conscience. Police officers are expected to know and do their duty and conduct themselves according to the “right course of action.”

Because of the nature of the job, the significant power policemen hold, societal expectations, and the police working environment, ethical absolutes are not always easy to attain. Pollock and Becker (1996) identify categories of ethical dilemmas (discretion, duty, honesty, loyalty) to help guide police officers through ethical challenges via personal checks and balances. Police possess a great amount of discretionary power, and legal guidelines are in place for how policemen must act and/or how they cannot act. Ethics plays an important role in guiding discretionary actions.

Duty, as mentioned, is the obligation to act in some manner – that which is required. Honesty is also a critical attribute in dealing with the public and doing one’s job effectively. Loyalty, to both community and the department, is also a necessity if an officer wishes to be an “autonomous moral agent.” A positive, ethical working environment is essential in police work. Ethics training has been integrated into the majority of basic police training programs in the United States today, and an “ethics toolkit” is available from the International Association of

Chiefs of Police (IACP) for enhancing awareness of ethics in law enforcement. To avoid ethical dilemmas, the police must know *and* follow the right course of action – this is true professionalism.

## **2.5 ACCREDITATION**

One avenue towards professionalization in policing is accreditation in the areas of operations, administration, and services. The major accreditation agency in policing, the Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies (CALEA), was formed in 1979 by four law enforcement organizations: International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives (NOBLE), National Sheriff's Association (NSA), and Police Executive Research Forum (PERF) (Skolnick & Fyfe, 1993). Voluntary accreditation through CALEA by meeting 441 standards in areas such as operations, policies, practices, administration, promotion, and so forth, makes possible the identification of high-quality police departments. The process takes 3-5 years, and as of 2005, 25% of full-time law enforcement agencies at the state and local levels in the United States are members of CALEA-accredited programs.

For colleges and universities, IACLEA (International Association of Campus Law Enforcement Administrators) is the accrediting body representing campus public safety leaders at more than 1,000 institutions of higher education, providing recognition to college and university law enforcement, security, and public safety departments. On the state level, in 2001 the Pennsylvania Chiefs of Police Association introduced the Pennsylvania Law Enforcement Accreditation Program (PLEAP) to evaluate and improve upon state and local law enforcement

agencies. The cornerstone of this strategy was the promulgation of standards towards law enforcement agency professionalization. Currently this organization (PLEAP) is revising its' accreditation process to include Pennsylvania colleges and universities, both public and private, in the process of accreditation, certification, and recognition.

In addition to peer recognition, the primary benefits of accreditation include controlled liability costs, administrative improvements, greater accountability, and increased governmental and community support. Additionally, accreditation provides a benchmark for measuring policies and practices. Any accreditation program is developed to improve delivery of law enforcement services by offering a body of standards that has been developed by law enforcement practitioners to recognize professional achievements. The overall purpose of accreditation is to improve upon the delivery of police services to the public served by offering a body of standards as developed by other law enforcement practitioners. However, accreditation is directed at the administration of police agencies and *not* at street-level policing – with the primary focus on facilities, policies, and practices, rather than on quality of work. The CALEA accreditation process is akin to the professional bodies that accredit hospitals, colleges, and universities. To achieve professional status is important in the sense that the perception is it makes the organization a better servant of its clients – the citizenry in the case of policing.

## **2.6 EDUCATION**

As concerns for quality in policing increase so too does the emphasis on formal education for police officers. Many police administrators and scholars argue that policing is a profession with education being a key feature of the occupation. Classroom (college) training served as a

foundation for the early reform movements (Walker & Katz, 2002). Radelet and Carter (1994), Crank, Payn, and Jackson (1993), and Capps (1998) argue that policing possesses the major features of any profession – including a specialized body of knowledge and skills, accreditation through a professional organization, orientation towards clients (public) and service, job discretion, ethics, and a primary objective(s) other than profit. The push for higher education standards started with August Vollmer’s efforts to professionalize the police in the 1920s. By 2001 educational attainment (degree completion) was nearly double the standards of 1990; however, currently less than 24% of all police agencies nationwide require some level of college education (BJS, 2006). The increasing emphasis on a college education for police officers is based on the assumption that the occupation is a profession in which many of the skills (people skills) and knowledge necessary to perform the job functions can be learned in a classroom setting, not merely by on-the-job training alone.

Findings on the impact of education on policing are mixed in the empirical literature. Some studies have found educational standards do not make a difference in the number of complaints filed against officers (Smith, 2003); other studies have found that more educated officers receive fewer complaints (Carter and Sapp, 1988). Additional studies show a positive correlation between education and good police officer characteristics, such as observation skills and stress management. Thus, four-year degree requirements in the field of policing hold important implications for institutions of higher learning, policing agencies, and the public they serve. There is a quantity of research that concludes that higher education should be viewed as an occupational necessity (Carter et al., 1989). Police professionalism is often equated with better educated, highly trained, and rule-oriented police officers (departments) organized along militaristic lines.

The focus of this section is to review the trends and philosophies of higher education in policing. The question arises as to just what a “four year degree” actually means in the scope of policing. What kind of police officer do we need? What is the status of higher education in policing today? Does higher education matter? Is it *good* policy? Various national commissions on policing have recommended some years of college be required for appointment, higher education requirements for promotions, that educational policies be a matter of formal policy, and that higher education should be viewed as an occupational necessity (IACP, 2006). Police departments have traditionally required police officers to have college degrees for a variety of reasons: better behavior and performance, less use of sick time, fewer injuries and assaults, fewer disciplinary actions, more cultural diversity, and fewer citizen complaints, to mention a few. Hence a further reason to require a college degree is to enhance the status of the profession of policing.

A major area on which the call for professionalism in law enforcement has focused is increasing the educational levels of police officers in the United States. The issue of education, as it relates to policing, is a long-standing one. Law enforcement agencies vary significantly in size, mission, and service. What works for one department may not work for another. The goal ultimately should be professional law enforcement at all levels. Many police experts and administrators have argued that today’s police officers should have a college education. Higher education for entry-level police officers has been recommended by national commissions on policing since 1931. The National Commission on Law Observance and Observance (1931), or the Wickersham Commission, stressed the importance of a well-educated police force by calling for “educationally sound officers.” The Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) was created by the federal government in the 1960s to promote higher education in policing and

included the development of the now defunct grant program (Law Enforcement Education Program -LEEP) to finance college education for police officers.

Both the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice and the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals supported the four-year degree as a prerequisite for employment in law enforcement. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967) proposed, "that all police personnel with general enforcement powers have baccalaureate degrees," as an ultimate, rather than an immediate, goal (p. 109). At the time, the average educational level of police officers in the United States was 12.4 years. The President's Commission published "The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society" and the follow-up task report, "The Police." Both reports contained various recommendations pertaining to the American system of criminal justice and a major focus was the police in the area of education. The President's Commission expressed the belief that a college education would provide "substantive knowledge...to provide high quality service." The Commission based these recommendations on the current complexity of police tasks and the need for officers to make increasingly critical decisions.

The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1973, p. 83) recommended that: "Every police agency should, no later than 1982, require as a condition of initial employment the completion of at least four years of education...at an accredited college or university." Many policy makers feel that higher education makes them better police officers and stronger candidates for promotion. In general, the various national commissions recommended that *some* years of college be required for appointment and promotion and that education programs be a matter of formal policy. Despite various commission

recommendations, there is little research consensus that college-educated police officers perform better than less educated officers.

Little research data have been collected on campus law enforcement agencies serving colleges and universities in the United States. The status of higher education in college and university policing today has not been adequately researched.

The scope of campus policing has evolved greatly from the “watchman” role beginnings at Yale University in 1894, the first campus security department in the nation, to the current full-service police departments, utilizing sworn officers (Gorbas, 1996). This evolution has occurred due to the changing nature of the environment we live in and the challenges we face today in protecting persons and property. The college campus is no longer regarded as a safe sanctuary for strictly academic pursuits, and campus police agencies must continually evolve to meet with these changing demands for protection and services.

There are a wide range of questions that need answered regarding the state of policing in colleges and universities in the United States and the relationship of higher education. These issues need addressed on various levels. How do we ultimately evaluate a police officer’s job performance? What characteristics are we looking for when we emphasize “good police work” or police professionalization? Does higher education support this philosophy in the ranks of policing at the collegiate level? How does one ultimately conceptualize and measure such issues?

One of the major differences between today’s police officers and those of yesterday is their level of education and training. In the 1920’s, when the father of modern police management systems, August Vollmer, began promoting the need for higher education in policing, few had attended college. By the 1990s, 65% of police officers had *some* college credits, and 25% were college graduates (Carter and Sapp, 1992). A 1999 report found that 16%

of state agencies require a two-year college degree (including the Pennsylvania State Police), and 4% require a four-year degree (Reaves and Goldberg, 1999). County police are the next likely to require either a two-year college degree (13%) or four-year degree (3%). Among sheriff's departments, 6% require a degree, 1% with a four-year degree requirement. A 2002 report on police departments in large cities found that the number requiring new officers to have at least some college rose from 19% in 1990 to 37% in 2000, and the percentage requiring a two-year or four-year degree grew from 6% to 14% during the same period (Reaves and Hickman, 2002, 1). Today, 83% of all local police departments (municipal) require *at least* a high school diploma, and 8% require a degree from a two-year college (BJS, 2000).

Recruits with some college or university experience are viewed as having an advantage in both hiring and promotion within the ranks of policing (Vodicka, 1994). However, as one can see, recommendations for education do not always translate into practice. Not all police researchers believe that a college education is a necessity for police officers. In the words of one police officer, "Effective street cops learn their skills on the job, not in a classroom," (Hinkle, 1991, 105). By emphasizing a college degree, police departments could feasibly discourage those who would make solid officers but lack the education (higher) necessary to apply for positions in law enforcement. Evidence varies on the issue of college-educated police officers regarding their various law enforcement roles, their effectiveness as crime fighters, the influence on police behavior, the impact on diversity, the effect on split-second decision-making, and the relationship to predominately boring and mundane police tasks required of police officers.

The various issues of education and training in the profession of policing have a long-standing history and tradition. This educational movement in policing created the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP) from 1968 to 1976, a federally funded program, to

stimulate criminal justice personnel to attend college to provide more comprehensive and responsive police services. The financial incentives made available through LEEP formed the nucleus of a movement to support higher education for law enforcement. There is some evidence that a college education develops a broader base of information for decision-making, responsibility, socialization, communication, and overall improves the police officer's capacity to relate to community needs. A survey by the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF) found that police agencies that do hire college-educated officers benefit by (1) better written reports, (2) enhanced communications with the public, (3) better job performance, (4) fewer citizen complaints, (5) more initiative, (6) better use of discretion, (7) more sensitivity to diversity concerns, and (8) fewer disciplinary issues (Carter, Sapp, and Stephens, 1989).

The Illinois State Police (ISP) received an award from the Police Association for College Education (PACE) for establishing a four-year college degree requirement for all potential applicants (ISP, 2003). Other state police agencies that require four-year degrees for new recruits include New Jersey and North Dakota. A 1979 study focused on the extent that administrative policy supported the attainment of higher education by entry-level police officers and found few requirements for college education (Greene & Cordner, 1980, 12-23). Overall, data shows little evidence that college education is a BFOQ (bona fide occupational qualification) and the majority of administration policies for the selection of police officers did not include college education as a requirement for hiring. Promotion policies for the rank and file also relied very little on formal education. Much of the research data also indicates various drawbacks to more educated police forces, because college-educated officers are more likely to leave police work, question orders, and request reassignment more frequently than their less educated counterparts.

In 1988 the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF) commissioned a study to be conducted on police education nationally (Carter & Sapp, 1988). After surveying 250,000 officers at 699 police departments, the study concluded that the state of police education was good and there had been steady growth in educational levels, with an increasing number of departments requiring some type of college experience for employment or promotion. The study noted the advantages and disadvantages of having police officers with more education. It was noted that college-educated officers were more responsible and were better decision makers than their less educated peers. Police officers with some college education were not only more effective in the performance of their duties, but were also more dependable employees, hence more efficient, since they accrued less sick time and absences as a group. Baro and Burlingame (1999) in the analysis of policing and higher education concluded: “We find that higher education has two important roles to play. One is to carry education beyond the classroom in ways that encourage reform. The other is to help make improvements in police training and education in ways that at least will produce higher levels of civility and might even encourage a more humanistic police professionalism.” (57-74)

The PERF study found that the average educational level among both black and white officers was 14 years of schooling, the equivalent of an associate’s degree. Female officers, with an average level of educational achievement of 14.6 years, tended to be better educated than their male counterparts. It was found that 34.8% of male officers had no college experience and 24.1% of the female officers had none. Only 3.3% of male officers had graduate degrees while 30.2% of the women held such a degree. A major question continues to arise: Does college education make an officer better? The results of this survey did *not* show a conclusive “yes” or “no”

answer to the question of “Are college-educated officers *better?*” Just what makes a police officer *good?*

In the 2003 LEMAS study, nearly all local police departments had an education requirement for new recruits (BJS, 2006). Of the local departments surveyed, 98% had an education requirement, with 81% requiring a minimum of a high school diploma, 8% requiring some college, 9% requiring a 2-year degree, and 1% requiring a 4-year degree. The percentage of officers employed by a department with some type of college requirement for new officers, 33% in 2003, was three times as high as in 1990. The percentage of police departments in large cities (250,000 or more residents) that required a 4-year college degree for new officers rose from 1.6% in 1990 to 4.8% in 2000 (BJS, 2002). The percentage requiring a 2-year degree increased from 4.8% to 9.7%, and the percentage with a non-degree college requirement went from 12.9% to 22.6%. Overall, almost twice as many departments required *some* college education for new officers in 2000 (37.1%) as did in 1990 (19.3%).

Among campus law enforcement agencies, about 28% of all agencies require new officers to have some college education, with 1 in 6 agencies (13%) requiring a two-year degree and 3% requiring a four-year degree (BJS, 2008). Approximately half of the college agencies serving populations of 1,000 or more required *some* college education for new officers.

More and more police departments are finding it difficult to require college degrees in the hiring of new officers (USA Today, 2006). To make the department more representative of the community it served, Plano, Texas, began requiring its police recruits to have a four-year degree. Because the city is home to corporate headquarters of major mercantile companies - JC Penney, Frito Lay, and Electronic Data Systems - city officials cited studies indicating that officers with college degrees had fewer disciplinary problems than those without. A disciplinary case study of

police officers conducted in Florida from 1997 to 2002 by the International Association of Chiefs of Police reported that officers with only a high school diploma were the subjects of 75% of all disciplinary actions. Officers with four-year degrees accounted for only 11% of all disciplinary actions. After five months of struggling at replacing the ranks, Plano, Texas, eased the educational standard requirement, accepting officers with two years of college, three years of military service, or two years of police experience.

The Multnomah County (Oregon) Sheriff's Department was one of the first agencies nationally to have the four-year degree requirement. However, the Police Association for College Education reports that less than 5% of local police departments with more than 100 officers require four-year degrees. Police officers spend a lot of time in dispute resolution with members of the public – a college degree gives those officers a broader perspective in conducting such a function. They are, thus, more effective. Some of the concerns that arise as a result of requiring recruits to have college degrees include recruitment of minority officers in diverse urban areas and fears that agencies will be unable to attract college graduates at police salaries. A Dallas Police Department policy requiring a minimum of 45 semester hours of college-level study for new recruits was upheld in 1985 by the Fifth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals in the case of *Davis v. City of Dallas*.

Of the 700,000 state and local police officers nationwide, approximately 25% have four-year degrees. The Police Chief magazine, in a series of essays, urged departments to raise their standards on education since "...police officers need the college degree, not only for what the degree brings to individual officers and their departments, but also for what it brings to policing..." (Sherman and Bennis, 1977, 32). Overall, however, smaller police departments fare better at recruiting college-educated police officers than do large city departments.

According to the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF), higher education can benefit policing in many ways: developing a broader base of information for decision making, promoting creativity in decision making, providing a better understanding of the criminal justice system, developing a greater empathy for minorities, developing communication skills, developing an awareness of problem-oriented and community policing concepts, improving on community relations skills, developing a more professional demeanor and working personality, enabling an officer to better deal with work stress, making an officer less cynical and authoritative, preparing an officer for adaptation and change, and helping to reduce the potential for liability claims against the police (Carter and Sapp, 1988, 6). Overall, the number of police officers who have no years of college has dropped by half in the United States since 1970.

## **2.7 RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION**

The value of higher education in law enforcement was summed up by Herman Goldstein...”the police must recruit college graduates if they are to acquire their share of the able, intelligent young people from each year’s addition to the work force.” (Pate and Hamilton, 1991, 16) The composition of the ranks of the police, both public and private, is changing. The quality of police service is being increasingly scrutinized. As a result, there is an increased emphasis on the way in which police officers are recruited, selected, and trained. Recruitment is the first component of accountability, with the goal of obtaining the best candidates for the position of police officer. Police departments differ in their various selection methods, but most hiring practices do share several common elements. Most departments use civil service (state or municipal) procedures in the selection process. The overall goal in the recruitment and selection process is to identify

those most qualified for the job and those most likely to perform the role of police officer with integrity and honesty.

The police are the most crooked, the most evil. I've never seen a policeman that was fair or even good. All the policemen I've ever known are hanging around in the liquor store or taking money from Jim on the corner, or in the store on the avenue. They're just out to make a buck no matter how they do it. O.K., maybe if you gave them more money they wouldn't be so crooked, but what do you need to qualify for a policeman? I mean, if you have an ounce of brain and you have sturdy shoulders and you're about six feet one, you can be a policeman. That's all.

- Juan Gonzales

Two Blocks Apart, (Mayerson) 1965.

The 1994 Mollen Commission (New York) investigated corruption in the 75<sup>th</sup> Precinct in New York City and found that screening police applicants in the recruitment process was an important part of preventing police misconduct. Recent police scandals in large U.S. cities have been linked to “mass hirings,” where departments hired without conducting thorough background investigations. Practitioners in the field agree that careful recruitment and selection of police personnel can weed out those candidates not suited to become police officers. The professional movement in policing demands the development and employment of established selection criteria for policing – physical condition, intelligence, and moral character.

Efforts have been intensified to diversify policing; thus, recruits today undergo a substantial array of testing and screening to determine suitability for the profession. The basic, industry-wide standards today for becoming a police officer include: U.S. citizenship, no felony conviction(s), a valid driver's license, being twenty-one years of age, and meeting weight and height requirements. Additionally, the majority of departments conduct extensive background checks, drug tests, credit records, and reference checks. Furthermore, many departments require polygraph testing, psychological testing, and the passing of a physical agility/fitness test.

Traditionally, police departments were comprised of white males with a high school education. They viewed policing as job security, a position of respect, one in which they could make a difference and help those in need. As criminal justice programs, nationwide, turn out thousands of graduates each year, an increasing number of police officers have received at least some college education. Additionally, affirmative action programs have helped in changing the gender and racial makeup of police departments to better reflect the communities and institutions in which they serve. Affirmative action came about in 1965 and required all federal agencies to develop written policies to change past discrimination practices (Walker & Katz, 2002). The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) has also recommended higher education for police officers as a means of reducing police abuse of power against minorities (PACE, 2004). In Baltimore a four-year degree entrance position was created twenty years ago, and the number of African-American applicants increased.

Two major changes in the United States brought about change in the recruitment, selection, training and promotion of police officers: President Johnson's Crime Commission Report (1967), and the application of federal civil rights laws to the states.

Before the 1960s, most police officers were white males with blue-collar backgrounds. After the Crime Commission documented widespread corruption and discrimination, it challenged the predominant policing philosophy and organization and recommended sweeping changes in the ranks of policing nationwide. The question was raised, “What makes a *good* police officer?” The Commission rejected the prevailing requirements of height, weight, financial credit history, and the presence of any (minor) criminal record – qualifications that were traditional screening methods for competent police officers. They argued that such requirements effectively eliminated large segments of today’s society from police work. Thus, policing was not representative of the communities they served. Women, African Americans, Native Americans, Asian Americans, and Hispanics were underrepresented in the profession. The Commission recommended changes that would eliminate such arbitrary and exclusionary effects in policing.

In 1972, federal legislation extended the 1964 Civil Rights Act to prohibit gender, religion, race, and national origin discrimination in public employment (President’s Commission, 1967). The Civil Rights Act (Title 42, Section 1983) (when violations of the “due process” and “equal protection” clauses of the 14<sup>th</sup> Amendment occur) permits civil suits to be filed by employees against employers where discrimination is alleged. Not only did the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibit discrimination in public accommodations and by employers and labor unions, it also created the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission to ensure that persons were not barred from employment on the grounds of race, religion, or sex. Decker and Huckabee (2002) looked at the impact and effects of raising the age and education requirements, particularly for women and minorities, using the Indianapolis Police Department as a case study.

Historically, the trend to increase the educational requirements for police recruits has resulted in problems in recruiting both women and minorities. Findings indicate that such a policy would significantly change the traditional composition of police recruits, as well as streamline the hiring process by reducing the number of applicants, resulting in both time-saving and cost-saving features for the department. In the end, recruitment efforts would have to be intensified to target the two specific groups.

Carter and Sapp (1991) conducted a comprehensive review of 699 state, county, and municipal law enforcement agencies to study the impact of a college education requirement on minority recruitment. Part of the research involved legal research on education as a *bona fide occupational qualification* (BFOQ) in employment, discrimination in employment, and affirmative action practices. Data indicated that the educational levels of minority police officers were in proportions comparable to the general population, and the educational levels of minority officers were the same as white officers (undergraduate level) and higher than white officers at the graduate level. The authors noted that many factors make a college education disproportionately inaccessible to minorities; however, the courts have ruled that job requirements justify making a college degree a qualification for employment (see *Davis v. City of Dallas*).

Disagreement over the definition of just what a *good* police officer is, is still a challenge today; however, the President's Crime Commission and federal legislation did impact and advance the state of police recruitment, training, selection, and promotion in a positive manner. What is not debatable is that personality, recruitment, training, and advancement in the ranks impact the effectiveness of police operations. Meier and Maxwell (1987) reported a growing

consensus that psychological testing in the recruitment process can determine the emotional and psychological fitness of police recruits.

The majority of police departments today use some form of psychological testing, as required in police officer certification with the various states. Again, however, psychologists themselves disagree over what makes a *good* police officer, and how to test for it. A growing body of research shows that predicting future police performance based on psychological testing is not something one can accurately forecast (Alpert, 1991, 261-269). They (psychologists) cannot agree on what they are looking for in such tests and how to find it. Wright, Doerner, and Speier (1990, 65-84) analyzed data from the Tallahassee Police Department to test the relationship between pre-employment psychological testing and recruit performance during field training and found no correlation between the results of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory or the California Personality Inventory and field performance for recruits. The researchers in this instance suggested reevaluation of present testing policies for police officer selection.

A major difficulty in recruitment and selection is that desirable qualities and characteristics are not defined in acceptable and/or measurable terms. Successful recruitment requires more research into those characteristics that are highly associated with effective policing, such as the ability to think independently, perform a variety of roles and functions, accept other cultures, and the ability to understand the nature of the job. A strong ethical and moral background should be a given standard for policing recruitment. Police departments are having a difficult time with present society in doing so because this generation has grown up in a culture in which it is socially acceptable to commit minor infractions of the law or to engage in the recreational use of certain illegal drugs.

Recruiting police cadets who have not experimented with illegal substances, particularly in larger cities, is virtually impossible. As one researcher put it, “Few occupations make as significant moral demands on their practitioners as policing. Yet no occupation has been as poorly prepared for the moral demands laid on it” (Kleinig, 1996, 32). A major police investigation occurred in New York City after the arrest of four NYPD officers for the brutal attack of Abner Louima, a Haitian immigrant, at a Brooklyn station house in August of 1997. In testimony before the New York City Council, Frank Serpico, a former NYPD detective who testified in the 1970s on police corruption after almost losing his life, stated, “We must create an atmosphere where the crooked cop fears the honest cop, and not the other way around” (Miami Herald, 1997). It is said that one solution to corruption is to recruit better educated, more “professional” policemen.

Traditional recruitment, training, and selection methods in policing resulted in a homogenous and cynical police working personality (Lundman, 1980). Departments maintained stringent guidelines on height and weight requirements, which made it difficult for women to enter police work. Civil service exams favored whites. Physical agility tests favored men. Background investigations eliminated potential recruits with even minor criminal records, which also favored whites. Oral interviews allowed for gender and race considerations in the testing process. Thus, the traditional selection process produced a homogenous group of recruits - white, male, young, blue-collar backgrounds, high school diplomas - who entered policing for job security. Most interestingly, one study found that police recruits developed their *working personalities*, i.e., cynical, authoritarian, and punitive, after becoming police officers and completing the police academy, field training, and getting street experience (Carpenter and Raza,

1987). Other researchers have also argued that policing creates these personalities – cynicism and authoritarianism (Niederhoffer, 1969).

Local police departments today employ a variety of screening methods when hiring new officers. Nearly all used personal interviews (98%), medical exams (85%), drug tests (73%), and psychological evaluations (67%) (BJS, 2006). More than 80% used written exams and physical agility tests. In addition to interviews, tests, and examinations, almost all departments screened recruits through criminal record checks (99%), background investigations (98%), and driving record checks (96%). A majority also conducted credit history checks (55%).

The hiring of underrepresented groups in the ranks of policing is on the rise. The Metropolitan Police Department has a force that is 30% black (Hickman & Reaves, 2003). Minority representation in large cities (over 250,000 residents) increased from 29.8% in 1990 to 38.1% in 2000 (BJS, 2002). Hispanics increased the most, from 9.2% to 14.1%, and blacks increased from 18.4% in 1990 to 20.1% in 2000. The percentage of female officers increased from 12.1% (1990) to 16.3% (2000). Police departments in large cities were becoming more representative of the populations they served in 2000 as compared to 1990.

According to a 2003 Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics (LEMAS) survey sampling local police departments, minority representation in the ranks of policing is on the rise (BJS, 2006). Racial and ethnic minorities comprised 23.6% of full-time sworn officers, up from 22.6% in 2000, and 14.6% in 1987. Women comprised 11.3% of police officers in 2003, up from 10.6% in 2000, and 7.6% in 1987. From 2000 to 2003 the number of black police officers increased by 3%, Hispanics by 13%, other minority groups by 7%, and female officers by 9%. Of the full-time sworn police officers in local departments in 2003,

almost 11% were women. Blacks accounted for 11.7% of all local police officers in 2003 (BJS, 2006). Approximately 9.1% of local police officers nationwide are Hispanic.

Civil service regulations govern the appointment of police officers in almost all states, municipalities, and special police agencies (BLS, 2004). Civil service emerged in the twentieth century as an effort to control political influence in policing "...to ensure that personnel decisions are based on objective criteria, and not on favoritism, bias, and political influence" (Walker and Katz, 2002, 476). As mentioned previously, all departments have basic requirements for employment: U.S. citizenship, minimum age requirements (usually at least 21 years of age), valid driver's license, no prior felony convictions, and high school diploma. At the federal level, candidates must be at least 21 years of age, but less than 37 years of age at the time of appointment. Federal and State agencies, as well as an increasing number of municipal and special police departments, require either a 2-year or 4-year college degree. With the rise of civil service requirements and affirmative action in the 1970s, many departments were forced by the courts to introduce reforms, or quota systems (Thibault et al, 1990).

The responsibility for police officer selection is given to each of the States' civil service commissions, which in turn designate such compliance responsibilities to the police agencies in the respective jurisdictions. Although the original intent of civil service reform was to promote equity in hiring and promotion, civil service requirements have at times impacted departments in negative ways. The biggest criticism of civil service is that it takes away departmental control in the critical areas of hiring, firing, and promotion. The Civil Service League, an organization that helped draft the Civil Service Act of 1883 (Pendleton Act) recommended that independent civil service commissions be abolished (Grant and Terry, 2005, 49). The Pendleton Act affected employment standards at the federal level; however, similar legislation was soon passed at local

and state levels in the United States. The vast majority of police departments still operate under a civil service hiring and promotion system.

Should a college degree replace an entrance exam requirement? Those critics who do not favor college education for police applicants cite several reasons in opposition to such a proposal (Baro and Burlingame, 1999). One concern is that raising educational requirements might discriminate against minority applicants and result in a smaller applicant pool. There is also a concern that some police unions oppose higher education requirements, particularly incentive pay for college education (Walker and Katz, 2002).

One study conducted in this area was the New York City Police Department's Cadet Corps, a program designed to bring officers with higher levels of education into the ranks of NYPD policing (Williams, 1992). The program had several objectives: raise the educational level of the department, increase minority (and women) representation, improve leadership skills, and strengthen the orientation to community policing. The City of Richmond (Virginia) had a similar program in the 1990s, where they recruited at Virginia Union University, a historically black college, and awarded scholarships to juniors in order to attract minorities. New Haven, Connecticut's outreach program targeted several groups who would otherwise not been attracted to police work: African-Americans, Hispanics, single parents, women, gays, and lesbians (Bonafonte, 1994).

In its annual report to Congress, the Police Corps reiterated the need for increasing the number of police with both advanced education and training to patrol our community streets in service to the community (U.S. Department of Justice, 2002). Baker (1995) explored the differences between accredited and non-accredited police agencies in relation to educational requirements in both hiring and promotion. Baker found that accredited agencies were more

likely to offer incentives for education than non-accredited agencies, and accredited agencies were also more likely to actively recruit college-educated applicants by going to college campuses.

Prior to this program, it was believed that by raising the level of education of police officers in the recruitment process, one would likewise decrease the representativeness of minorities in the ranks of policing. A Police Foundation study, funded by the National Institute of Justice (July, 2004), found that the police cadet program brought 217 college graduates to the force - 16.1% black and 21.7% Hispanic. The percentages were significantly higher than those found in other groups of recruits. Thus, researchers felt that police departments can recruit more college graduates, or more minorities, but not both. An effective recruitment strategy has to include special efforts to draw both minority and female candidates to policing. Affirmative action plans at many police departments nationally require active recruitment of women and minorities. Typically, accreditation agencies for police departments recommend that department personnel should mirror, racially, the makeup of the community and population they serve.

The National Advisory Commission on Higher Education for Police Officers noted that many police executives opposed college educational requirements because fewer blacks than whites hold college degrees; therefore, the requirement would have the impact of disproportionately excluding blacks as police recruits (Sherman, 1978). Wood (1998) also found that although many administrators have long recognized the need for better-educated police officers, and have instituted such policies as a job requirement for new hires, these higher education requirements may discriminate against minorities. As policies are implemented to upgrade educational requirements for police recruits, administrators should be prepared to meet these challenges and avoid the discrimination of any class within society.

Recruitment of “good” police officers was down in 2000 since more than half of police agencies serving populations under 50,000 and two-thirds of those agencies serving populations of 50,000 or more reported a lack of qualified candidates, causing difficulties in filling those vacancies (NIJ, 2004). There were several possible explanations for these recruitment and retention problems. A strong economy lured “good” candidates and experienced officers into better paying jobs elsewhere. Increasing educational requirements for applicants may have restricted the number of new recruits, creating more vacancies. Some departments experienced higher attrition rates as the “baby boomers” retired. All of the police brutality cases in the media, as well as stories on racial profiling, may have discouraged otherwise qualified applicants from wanting to join such a profession. According to national data on police employment, Koper et al (2001) found that fiscal constraints and the lack of qualified recruits were perceived to be two of the leading causes of the decline in police staffing nationally.

Police officers tend to serve for shorter periods in small agencies than large agencies (NIJ, 2004). Half of those officers leaving large agencies and a fifth of those leaving small agencies do so as retirees. Two-thirds of officers in small agencies and about one-third of those in large agencies leave policing after five years or less of service. A majority of officers leaving agencies go on to other law enforcement work. In order to relieve the hiring and retention crisis, police departments are relaxing age and fitness standards, forgiving certain criminal convictions, and easing other requirements. Tampa and St. Petersburg (FL) dropped the two-year college degree requirement for a candidate with either military or law enforcement experience. Oakland (CA) no longer disqualifies applicants for minor drug convictions and gang involvement. Boston (MA) recently raised the upper age limit for recruits from age 32 to age 40, the Indiana State Police from 35 to 40, and Houston from 36 to 44.

Being well-rounded, more worldly, and having life experience, make for a “better” police officer. The relaxation of standards, nationally, is the result of the dire need for police officers. A federally-funded study in the spring of 2006 by the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF), an advocacy group for police chiefs and commissioners, found that 10 percent of the nation’s police departments had severe shortages of officers. New York City wants to hire 3,000 officers, Los Angeles needs 1,000, Houston needs 600, Washington is short 330 officers, Phoenix is down about 200 officers, Boston needs 100 officers to bring it up to full compliment. The strong economy is offering other job possibilities, starting salaries for cops are low, aging cops are retiring, and the Iraq war is drawing both would-be police recruits and military reservists to service in a foreign land. The demand for good people (police) is meeting with limited supplies. Thus, law enforcement recruitment standards and practices are being reevaluated nationwide.

## **2.8 TRAINING, CERTIFICATION, AND PROMOTION**

There is a difference between education and training in policing. According to Funk and Wagnalls (1982, 401, 1331), *education* is “the systematic development and cultivation of the natural powers, by inculcation, example, etc., in an institution of learning”; whereas *training* is the “systematic instruction (practical) and drill,” as it relates to vocational and/or technical instruction and practice. Education is thus the philosophies and teachings (academic disciplines) of policing; training is the practical (vocational/instructional) aspect of policing, the hands-on aspect. A positive synergism results when these two mesh with one another.

Most states require police recruits successfully complete a training program where they are instructed in the basics of police work. The training period consists of two components: the

actual police academy training and field training. Average mandated training hours for municipal police officers is 637 hours in the classroom and is run by either the state or a specific police (law enforcement) agency (Hickman and Reaves, 2003). Field training takes place outside the police academy and within the actual police agency setting, with a veteran police officer known as a field training officer (FTO). Field training allows rookie police officers to apply academy concepts to the actual working environment of the streets.

The Wickersham Commission (The National Commission of Law Observance and Enforcement) created in 1929 to review the status of municipal police departments published its study in 1931. The conclusion of the study was that there was no intensive effort made to educate, train, or discipline police officers. This Commission was the first national commission to deal with crime and the police, as well as to distinguish between education and training in the ranks of policing.

Just what are the characteristics of *good* police work that professional education and training support? A police recruit may have a college degree, a solid background, the working personality to be a police officer, be in perfect physical condition, and still be unprepared for police work. Most states require that police recruits undertake and pass police academy and in-field training. In 1997, the average local police department training at an academy required 599 hours of training (BJS, 2000). From 1990 to 2000, the median number of classroom training hours required of new recruits in *large* city police departments increased from 760 to 880 (BJS, 2002). Large cities are defined as those cities with populations of 250,000 or more residents. The median field training requirement also increased from 520 hours to 600 hours. The median annual in-service (up-date) training requirement for police officers in large cities was 40 hours.

Recognizing that professionalism consists of such occupational requirements as selection, training, and education, a more recent study compared information from the State Education and Training Standards Commission with professional standards (Lumb, 1994). Study findings suggested that some states were not in compliance with accepted standards of occupational professionalism. No state required mission statements and there was no consistency across the states in education and training standards. Mandatory in-service training did not exist in 17 states, and states with mandatory in-service training required a range between eight and 80 hours of training. Because of the inconsistencies from department to department, conclusions about the status of “professionalism” in policing could not be reached.

A survey of police education and training in European countries, sent to 74 agencies in 32 countries, looked at standardization in education and training for police officers (Pagon et al, 1996). Training was categorized as basic training, specialized training, and management training. European countries have a variety of systems, from 10 countries requiring a high school education, to eight countries requiring a bachelor’s degree. Some countries also established master and doctoral degrees as requirements for management positions. Basic training took anywhere from four months to four years, depending on the addition of any other type of training as mentioned previously.

In 2003, (nationally) the average number of academy training hours required of local police officers (new recruits) was 628 hours (BJS, 2006). Field training hours averaged 326 hours, and annual in-service training requirements averaged 24 hours. Training of new recruits is taking longer today, as the average basic academy training and field training averaged 31 weeks in small agencies and 43 weeks in large agencies (NIJ, 2004). Since the 1990s, training has become more complex as well, and one-third of agencies report that training time has increased

by three weeks since 1995. Pennsylvania, because of increased training requirements (hours) for police recruits, does not offer any part-time police training academies as they did previous to 2005. Much of the increase in training time is attributed to community policing strategies, ethics, professionalism, and human relations skills not part of traditional, mainstream policing of the past.

Police academy training has improved greatly over the years and includes diverse subjects: criminal laws, vehicle laws, patrol functions, ethics, criminal investigation, first aid and CPR, firearms instruction, deadly force, pursuit driving, self-defense tactics, and related subjects. The President's Commission Task Force Report (1967) emphasized the importance of adequate police training, but concluded that current training programs, for the most part, prepare officers mechanically to do the job of police work, but do not prepare them to understand the community in which they serve, the actual role of policing, and the reality of the criminal justice system.

The President's Commission (1967) made various recommendations regarding police training, including instruction on subjects that "prepare recruits to exercise discretion properly and to understand the community, the role of the police, and what the criminal justice system can do and cannot do" (pp. 112-113). An absolute minimum of 400 hours of police academy classroom instruction, along with supervised field training, was recommended. Also, in-service training, at least once a year, with incentives to continue higher educational efforts, was recommended. A current trend in the training of police recruits at the academies is a refocusing of the curriculum towards a new education model, with an emphasis on community policing (Bonafonte, 1994). The New Haven, Connecticut, Police Department in its training schools emphasize problem-solving, conflict resolution, diversity training, organizational skills, and learning to deal with "special populations."

The Chiefs of Police, identifying the need, recommended that higher education standards in policing (four-year degrees) emphasize qualitative academic courses rather than specific police training (technical) subjects for initial and continuing employment (International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1979). The police function involves more than the enforcement of law. More duties are being required in the performance of social services; hence, the police perspective needs broadened beyond strictly law enforcement, from a vocational to an educational enterprise, with less emphasis on technical training. Only when the university environment is utilized to generate and promote an understanding of cultural values, ethical principles, and historical perspectives of the educational curriculum, can police officers develop and utilize the knowledge necessary to fulfill their function in society.

In the 1970s, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1973) put police training in perspective by stating that "...perhaps no other profession has such lax standards or is allowed to operate without firm controls and without licensing" (83). The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (1981) emphasized the need for formal police training and found that training was lacking in on-the-job field training, human relations programming, social service functions, family disturbance interventions, and firearms training. The Commission also concluded it was imperative that police training expose recruits to use-of-force guidelines, according to statutory law and departmental policies, as well as alternatives to the use of deadly force.

Examples of inadequate police training abound in the media. A five-year study of drug-related deaths of suspects in police custody concluded that about one-third of those deaths could have been prevented if only the agencies had adequately trained the officers for proper intervention (Birmingham Post, 2003). With the increase of violence in and around schools (K-

12) nationwide, as well as on college and university campuses, most recently at Virginia Tech, police need specialized training. School resource officers (K-12) and campus police officers must be specially trained for their environment, one which is quite different from the beat on the street. The Executive Director of the National Association of School Resource Officers stated that "...because policing a school is so tremendously different than policing the street, the need for training is very important...administrators need to commit to making sure officers are specially trained" (School Violence Alert, 2001, 7-12).

Most of the research on policing comes from surveys of large, urban departments, but little research has been conducted on small, rural departments or special police agencies, such as campus and university police (NIJ, 2003). Over half of the nation's local police departments employ fewer than 10 sworn officers and 90% of all local police agencies maintain fewer than 50 sworn police officers. Local police departments are defined as those departments operated by municipal, county, township, borough, or tribal governments. Federal and state departments comprise "other" departments. Almost all "local" police departments are operated by municipal (85%) or township (13%) governments. Because the departments are small, use of technology is limited, impacting upon departmental professionalization, thus effectiveness. Because of funding, budgetary constraints, and lack of available training, smaller departments tend to lag behind larger agencies in such areas of expertise.

The police academies of today are run by either the individual states or a certified police agency/organization. Field training takes place outside the academy, with an experienced officer at one's place of employment. The goal of field training is to help the new recruits apply the concepts learned at the academy to the working streets. The academy thus introduces the recruits

to the formal and legal rules of policing, whereas field training gives the rookie recruits an introduction to the informal rules of the job and the streets.

The reality, as noted above, is best expressed by lines from various television cops' programs: "Forget everything you learned at the academy kid. You're in the real world now - that does not apply." The academy is a critical component in the learning process and provides the police recruit with a road map for the job. It is also the certification process whereby the police recruit is legally permitted, by the laws of the respective state, to serve in the capacity of a law enforcement officer.

The police academy socializes recruits both formally and informally. The formal (written) rules are the subjects at hand – the laws of search and seizure, arrest, interrogation, crime scene preservation, report writing, and interviewing techniques. Formal rules govern behavior as well at the academy: dress, punctuality, neatness, order, attentiveness, and obedience to authority, all in a militaristic and authoritarian style. Recruits also learn the informal (unwritten) rules of policing. The formal textbook rules do not answer the questions: "What is it really like out there on the streets?" "How much force can I use in an arrest?" Police war stories run rampant.

Among basic law enforcement academies that completed training in 2002, approximately 61,354 police recruits started training and 53,302 (87%) successfully completed the basic training and graduated from the program as police officers (BJS, 2005). At the end of 2002 there was a total of 626 state and local law enforcement academies in the United States offering basic training. An estimated 17% of recruits who completed training were female, and 27% were minorities. The median number of hours in basic training at the academies was 720 hours. The greatest amount of instruction time (median) was in firearms training (60 hours), health and

fitness (50 hours), investigations (45 hours), self-defense (44 hours), criminal law (40 hours), patrol procedures (40 hours), emergency vehicle operations (36 hours), and basic first aid/CPR (24 hours). Some of the police academies (35%) provide some instruction in basic foreign languages – “Survival Spanish.”

Besides basic police training for new recruits, 88% of the police academies also provided mandated in-service training for active duty, certified police officers. Of the 626 law enforcement academies surveyed in 2002, 274 were county, regional, or state academies, 249 college, university, or technical school academies, and 103 city or municipal academies (BJS, 2005). Academies provided training and/or certification to a variety of law enforcement personnel. The most common were local police officer (93%), sheriff’s deputy (75%), and campus police officers (54%). Only 29% provide any type of training for school resource officers. Many of the school resource officers (K-12) are contracted, via governmental funding – either state or federal - from local municipal police agencies within the jurisdiction of the local school district. In Pennsylvania they are Act 120 trained, certified, and armed police officers, with powers of arrest.

Interestingly, about two-thirds of police academies maintained a minimum education requirement (BJS, 2005). The most common requirement was a high school diploma (33%), followed by a 2-year college degree (12%), and a 4-year degree (11%). Approximately 77% of the police academies nationally award college credits for successful completion and graduation of the basic police training course. Pennsylvania police recruits who complete Act 120, the basic police officer training academy course for certification, are awarded sixteen (16) college credits for the training by the Municipal Police Officers’ Education and Training Commission (MPOETC).

In Pennsylvania, MPOETC is responsible for police officer certification (Act 120) and annual in-service update training (Act 180) for local, municipal, and special police officers, including college and university police officers, throughout the Commonwealth. There are currently sixteen certified police academies in Pennsylvania. The Commission (MPOETC) sets the number of hours required in the basic police training course and determines content and curriculum, as follows ([www.mercyhurst.edu](http://www.mercyhurst.edu)):

- Introduction to the Academy
- Introduction to Law Enforcement (ethics and moral issues)
- Physical and Emotional Readiness
- Laws and Procedures
- Defensive Tactics
- Motor Vehicle Law Enforcement
- Motor Vehicle Collision Investigation
- Patrol Procedures and Operations
- Principles of Criminal Investigation
- Human Relations
- Crisis Management
- Families in Crisis
- Basic Firearms
- Operation of Patrol Vehicles
- Report Writing
- Case Presentation
- First Aid & CPR
- Handling Arrested Persons

Act 120 basic police recruit training (Pennsylvania) consists of 745 hours (20 weeks) of classroom instruction and field training and twenty-two competency examinations in various areas. Graduates are prepared for entry-level positions as municipal and college and university police officers, deputy sheriffs, park rangers, security guards, and special police. Graduates also can earn 16 college credits for the training, which can be applied towards a criminal justice degree. Annual mandatory in-service training (Act 180) consists of legal updates and special topics and shall consist of at least 12 hours of instruction. In addition, Pennsylvania police

officers must qualify and obtain certification annually in firearms training, as well as get re-certified in First Aid (three years) and CPR (one year) as appropriate.

In order to be certified and employed as a police officer in Pennsylvania, according to MPOETC standards, the recruit must ([www.mercyhurst.edu](http://www.mercyhurst.edu)):

- Be 18 years of age or older,
- Possess a high school diploma or GED Equivalency,
- Be a citizen of the United States,
- Possess a valid Pennsylvania driver's license,
- Be free from convictions of disqualifying criminal offenses,
- Be able to read and write at no less than the ninth grade level, as established through the administration of the Nelson-Denny reading Test,
- Be personally examined by a Pennsylvania licensed physician,
- Be personally examined by a Pennsylvania licensed psychologist,
- Be evaluated to determine physical fitness using standards developed by the Cooper Institute for Aerobics research in Dallas, Texas, as follows:
  - 1.5 mile run.
  - 300 meter run.
  - One repetition bench press.
  - One-minute sit-ups.
- Be subject to a thorough background investigation,
- Successfully complete a basic police training course at a Commission-certified school.

Police officer certification is valid for two years, and is renewed only for police officers who meet the annual mandatory in-service training requirements as established by the Commission. The officer must also be employed as a full-time or part-time police officer at any municipal, college or university police department, or eligible sheriff's department for certification.

The Administrative Code of 1929 is the Act of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania that originally granted police powers (arrest) to the Capitol Police, Commonwealth Property Police, and the Security of Campus Police of all state colleges and universities, state-aided or related colleges and universities, and community colleges. The Act intended these entities to exercise the same powers as are exercised under the authority of law or ordinance by the police of the

cities of Harrisburg, Pittsburgh, and Philadelphia, and municipalities where state buildings, colleges, universities, and community colleges are located.

Campus police are to perform their duties only on the premises of the state colleges and universities, state-aided or related colleges and universities, and community colleges for which they are employed, and only after they have completed a course of training as required by the Department of Education and the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, House Bill 1027, Session of 1997. The legislature later amended portions of this Act, regarding jurisdiction (Section 2416.1), and expanded the powers and duties of campus police officers pursuant to Title 42 Pa. C.S. Ch. 89, Subchapter D (relating to municipal police jurisdiction). Campus police can now exercise police powers and perform duties on the grounds of the institution *or* within 500 yards of the grounds of the college or university, which constitutes the primary jurisdiction of the campus police.

MPOETC has had the responsibility for police officer certification, and the administration of the program, in Pennsylvania since June 18, 1974 (P.L. 359, No. 120). Thus, police powers are granted, as defined in the Act of 1929, by state legislation, for campus police officers, and MPOETC then trains and certifies the police recruit under the mandatory basic training requirement. Title 42, the Judiciary and Judicial Procedure of Pennsylvania, Chapter 89, Subchapter D defines and grants primary police jurisdiction and mandatory certification requirements.

Police recruits with college or university experience are generally seen as having an advantage in hiring and promotion. Although not requiring college credits for promotion, 82% of police departments in one national survey recognized that college education is important in promotion decisions (Carter and Sapp, 1988). About 62% had at least one formal policy in

support of officers pursuing higher education, and 58% required the course work to be job-related. Job-related education can include a variety of subjects. Many police departments have a preference for criminal justice majors because of their enhanced knowledge of the criminal justice system and various issues in policing. An increasing number of departments also require some type of college experience for both employment and promotion (Carter and Sapp, 1992).

However, in linking education to promotion, almost three-fourths of the departments still have no policies, formal or informal, requiring college education for promotion. New York City has a policy linking promotion to educational achievement, and offers in-service training incentives and, thus, “credits” that make an officer eligible for promotion (Ibid). The organizational style of policing today, in turn, impacts hiring and promotional practices. Since the majority of police departments follow a militaristic-style of policing, the system utilized in promoting personnel within the rank-and-file has changed very slowly.

Many departments still use a *time-in-rank-system* for determining promotional eligibility. Before moving up the administrative ladder, regardless of educational qualifications, an officer must spend “time in the trenches” in the next lowest rank prior to any promotion. Originally the system was designed to promote fairness and eliminate favoritism in the ranks of policing (politics). The best-qualified officer does not necessarily get the promotion. Some officers’ refuse to advance their education (higher) with a college-degree, or advanced degree, as it may have little impact upon their promotional potential. Obviously some competent officers simply do not test well, although they may be the most experienced, knowledgeable police officers on the street. Traditionally test scores and recommendations are more weighted than is educational attainment in police departments. Many times, junior, more competent (better educated) officers

cannot be promoted or reassigned to elevated duties because of this system of promotion based on seniority and/or time in rank.

Some departments are developing merit pay plans for promotion, replacing longevity pay plans with single-based salary plans that include merit pay (International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1979). Dual career paths give the police officers the option of advancing into either management positions or specialized field service positions. Such merit plans would include, in the selection process, mandatory education and training requirements, including college.

Milgram (2000) utilized various law enforcement environmental assessment tools (LEEAT) to enable police departments to determine if they are receptive to women and minority police officers in the workplace and to implement a positive environment for all police personnel. This survey was designed to determine perceptions to barriers related to gender and race so as to find possible solutions in departmental operations, training, and promotion of these classes of employees.

## **2.9 JOB PERFORMANCE**

The citizen expects police officers to have the wisdom of Solomon, the courage of David, the strength of Sampson, the patience of Job, the leadership of Moses, the kindness of the Good Samaritan, the strategical training of Alexander, the faith of Daniel, the diplomacy of Lincoln, the tolerance of the Carpenter of Nazareth, and finally, an intimate knowledge of every branch of the natural, biological, and social sciences. If he had all these, he might be a good policeman!

-August Vollmer

Science Monthly, (Bain) 1939.

Expectations among the public regarding the police are quite varied and demanding. The average law enforcement officer will, throughout his/her career, be called upon to demonstrate some or all of the skills as listed above by Vollmer. It is thus critical that police academies and law enforcement agencies provide adequate training so that police officers can perform their roles at such levels of expectation. Traditionally, the measure of police performance nationally has focused on the following factors:

- Uniform Crime Report (UCR) – one measure of proactive police crime-fighting effectiveness is the crime rate, i.e., reporting less crime = less crimes committed = crime prevention (Schmalleger, 2007, 194).
- Arrest rates and efficiency – how effective and successful a police agency is in solving crimes; the more arrests a department makes, the fewer the number of criminals on the streets.
- The police-population ratio – whether a department provides adequate protection for the area served, i.e., number of sworn officers per 1,000 citizens.
- Accreditation – a process to ensure that departments meet minimum established standards as recognized by police professionals (Schmalleger, 2007, 224).
- Response time and efficiency – a measurement of efficiency based on the rapidity with which calls for service are answered.

Many of these measures of police effectiveness, however, relate to the law enforcement agency itself (macro), rather than individual police officer (micro) performance.

Many questions arise regarding the relationship of police performance and educational requirements. Are college educated police officers better report writers, more reliable employees? Are they better able to interact with the clientele of the jurisdiction in which they serve, or are they more effective problem solvers? Do they formulate better judgment in the performance of tasks? There are many difficulties in attempting to quantify the impact of a college education on a police officer's performance (Vodicka, 1994). Some of the advantages include greater knowledge of procedures and functions of policing, as well as a broader knowledge of the criminal justice system and greater analytical and interpersonal skills. Research shows college-educated officers perform the tasks of policing better than their non-degreed counterparts in policing. The down side, of course, is in the recruitment process, as well as possibly raising unrealistic expectations regarding promotions for those so degreed. What is needed is a committee to study current education and training issues in policing to properly evaluate police effectiveness and expectations (Roop, 1993).

Many are not convinced of the value of higher education in policing because of the difficulties in measuring the effects of education here (Mastrofski, 1990). The efficiency of a law enforcement agency is typically measured according to tabulated departmental statistics: number of crimes in the community, cases cleared by arrests, traffic and parking tickets issued, percentage of stolen property recovered, and accident rates. The Uniform Crime Reports (UCR) published annually by the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) shows this increase or decrease in crime nationally as an indication of police department effectiveness.

There is, however, much more to effective policing, such as community policing efforts that are *not* measurable, and yet every bit a positive indicator of police effectiveness as are crime statistics. Schick (1978) did an extensive survey of 51 law enforcement executives to examine

higher education requirements for police officers. This study found that the most pervasive argument against college requirements was that it could not be shown to be job related. Those opposing college requirements on general grounds and those proponents of minority hiring both argued that the impact of college education requirements was discriminatory. In order to avoid the perception of “discriminatory practice,” constitutional employment law requires that any employee selection criteria must be job-related.

The amount of higher education that should be required of police officers continues to be debated. One of the arguments against requiring college is that officers become bored or become ineffective in job performance or resign, creating high turnover rates. Others argue police officers should have a broad educational background; thus, some departments do require higher education for officers. Proponents of higher education for policing claim that there is a need for more highly educated officers who understand the art of working with the public to solve issues before they become problems, as well as supervisors who understand the value of formal education.

Even if a college education does not produce more effective police officers, perhaps this level of education would be beneficial under the philosophy of community policing. Community policing is a two-way working relationship between the community and the police, a partnership in which the community assumes an active role in crime prevention and control. If police are not considered effective under current policies, can education be discounted?

Various surveys have been conducted regarding the influence of education on police officer attitudes and behavior. There is a lack of clear cut evidence that college-educated police officers perform better than less educated officers. Research by M.L. Dantzker (1992) indicates that college-educated officers express greater job satisfaction when they first enter the

profession. But that effect is only temporary and diminishes after about five years on the job. A police study in California found that officers with fewer college credits tended to have significantly more citizen complaints than officers with more college credits (Wilson, 1999).

In the Ramparts Division Scandal (Los Angeles Police Department), only one of the many officers involved in murder, planting evidence, and perjury, was a college graduate – although the department has a high percentage of college graduates in the agency (Hayden, 2000). Of the NYPD officers arrested for corrupt acts from 1993 to 1997, 86% would not have been hired had an associate’s degree been required for employment (Lynch, 1997). An unpublished Rand study found that college graduates in policing had only an 8% civilian complaint rate, compared to a 24% complaint rate for non-college graduates. In Dade County, Florida, research showed that a police officer with a four-year degree had a 73% chance of superior performance, 65% if that officer possessed a two-year degree, and a 50% chance if that officer had a high school diploma (International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1979, 467-475). The study did not indicate the total number of college-educated police officers in Dade County during this time period.

Research shows that educated officers write better and more clearly (reports), are more likely to be promoted, perform their tasks more effectively, generate fewer citizen complaints, show more initiative (motivated), and act more professionally (Berg, 1990). Additionally, educated officers are less likely to have disciplinary problems and are seen as better decision makers (Carter and Sapp, 1988). Studies have shown that college-educated police officers generate fewer citizen complaints and have better behavioral and performance characteristics than their less-educated peers (Sanderson, 1977).

Research by John Krimmel (1996) indicates that educated officers are less likely to rate themselves higher on most performance indicators, inferring that, if nothing else, higher education is associated with greater self-assurance and confidence. Other research has shown that besides college-educated officers maintaining higher self-images, higher education promotes higher aspirations, greater acceptance of minorities, decreases dogmatism, authoritarianism, rigidity, and conservatism; lessens disciplinary problems, citizen complaints, and discretionary arrests; and increases promotions and the ability to tolerate job-related stress and excitement (Bowker, 1980).

Robert Worden (1990) measured the attitudes and performances of police officers who obtained bachelor's degrees before entering police work, officers who became degreed after becoming police officers, and officers without degrees. He surveyed 24 police departments in three metropolitan areas: St. Louis, Rochester, and Tampa-St. Petersburg. He discovered there were only marginal differences in attitudes and performance among the three groups of officers. Even though line-supervisors felt college-educated officers superior, as well as being more reliable and better report writers, they were not seen as being superior from the perspective of the community they served. The analysis suggested that a college education did not improve police officer performance and morale (working personality). In another study, Worden (1995) collected data from observations of 5,000 citizen-police encounters, comparing officer characteristics and use of force relationship. He discovered that police officers with bachelor's degrees were *more* likely to use force generally; however, that those same college-educated officers were *less* likely to use *excessive* force. Kappeler, Sapp, and Carter (1992), in their analysis of citizen complaints against police officers, found that officers with college degrees produced fewer citizen complaints for rudeness than officers without college degrees.

There is little evidence that college-educated officers are better crime fighters (Worden, 1990). The diversity of the police role, the need for split-second decision making, and the often boring and mundane policing tasks are considered to be reasons why some experts feel that higher education for police officers may be a waste of time (Sherman and Bennis, 1977). An increase in college-educated officers does not necessarily translate into improved quality of services and police effectiveness. As famed 1930s police administrator August Vollmer stated in describing the personal attributes necessary in becoming a successful and effective police officer, effective policing may depend more on innate personal qualities than on educational attainment. O.W. Wilson, a well-known police administrator in the 1940s and 1950s, listed the desirable personal qualities of effective police officers – (1) initiative, (2) responsibility, (3) the ability to deal with emergencies, (4) the ability to communicate effectively, (5) the ability to learn many tasks quickly, (6) the ability to adapt to technological changes, (7) the desire to help people, (8) the ability to understand others, (9) emotional maturity, (10) physical strength and endurance (Wilson & McLaren, 1977, 259). The importance of recruitment, selection, and training of police officers cannot be underestimated in addressing the various aspects of police performance.

## **2.10 LEGAL ISSUES**

Police accountability, affected by both internal and external mechanisms, rests with the police. Commitment to professionalism; effective management, hiring and promotion practices; police performance; and the overall improvement of the quality of policing both impact upon, and are affected by, the complex area of legal issues. What becomes critical is the police role in promoting accountability, maintaining standards, and preventing misconduct. Lawsuits are filed

both by, and against, the police in areas of brutality, corruption, discrimination, misconduct, promotional practices, residency requirements, affirmative action, police actions/inactions, residency requirements, and education and training.

The police of today must be carefully selected, properly trained, and mentored to fulfill the role of policing. Only then can policing become a true profession, and police can deliver on their mission to “protect and serve” the citizenry. Professionalism in policing aids in decreasing occupational deviance (criminal and non-criminal conduct), that occurs as a result of the nature of police authority and discretion. Professionalism aids in the reduction of civil lawsuits and criminal charges. Misconduct can occur in every profession, but the uniqueness of policing, in structure and organization, can contribute to, and sometimes be the cause of, such misconduct. In this respect policing (structurally), as a profession, differs from any other occupation. Such misconduct undermines public confidence in the police, strains police-community relations, and the effectiveness of law enforcement agencies. It erodes discipline, accountability, and supervision. Misconduct furthermore ends up costing the taxpayers millions of dollars annually in civil judgment awards and criminal trials.

The police have traditionally been successful in defending against lawsuits. Police officers can be sued in federal and state courts for their actions or inactions (failure to act). From 1986-1990, nearly \$21 million dollars in settlements and judgments were awarded to victims of excessive force by LAPD police officers (Walker & Katz, 2002). The City of Philadelphia has paid out more than \$20 million in settlements of police misconduct cases - Rodney King was awarded \$3.5 million (LAPD) and Abner Louima (NYPD) was awarded \$8 million.

The police are involved in many situations that could result in federal and state civil suits against the individual(s), the municipality/jurisdiction, or the department(s), including:

- failure to protect property,
- failure to render proper emergency medical aid,
- failure to aid private citizens,
- false arrest,
- inappropriate use of deadly force,
- malicious prosecution,
- harassment,
- negligence in the treatment of suspects,
- failure to prevent a foreseeable crime,
- false imprisonment,
- racial profiling,
- violation of constitutional rights,
- residency requirements,
- hiring practices,
- discrimination,
- promotional practices,
- lack of concern for the safety of others (Swanson, Territo, & Taylor, 1988, 145).

Assaults and police shootings are the best known sources of police (criminal) liability, for they are subject to high media visibility – ‘if it bleeds, it leads.’ However, civil liability, although less visible, is even more common. Civil liability (payment of pecuniary damages as a result of a lawsuit) differs from criminal liability (punishment for a crime). One court action, however, may arise from the other.

In 1996, Richard Kelley filed suit in federal court against the Massachusetts State Police and the Weymouth Police Department, resulting from an incident during which Kelley was treated as a drunk driver, rather than recognizing he had just suffered a stroke while driving. He was arrested, handcuffed, his pleas ignored, and medical attention delayed for seven hours. Charges were dropped against Kelley, but pecuniary damages awarded. In a case of false arrest, *Malley v. Briggs*, the U.S. Supreme Court held that the police officer that effects an arrest or conducts a search on the basis of an improperly issued warrant may be liable for monetary

damages when a reasonably, well-trained officer, under the same circumstances, “would have known that his affidavit failed to establish probable cause.”

Civil suits are brought for alleged negligent actions, as well. In *Biscoe v. Arlington County* an individual was awarded \$5 million after he lost both legs as a consequence of a high-speed police chase while he was waiting to cross the street. The officer violated departmental policy on high-speed chases, and it was found that the officer also was not properly trained. One year after Biscoe, a Louisiana police officer, after being involved in an accident while driving 75 mph in a 40 mph zone, was found negligent and held liable for damages (*Kaplan v. Lloyd’s Insurance Co.*). The department was not held liable as it trained the officer and had a written policy limiting emergency driving to no more than 20 mph over the posted speed limits. Law enforcement supervisors can also become the object of lawsuits because they are held accountable for the actions of their officers. If it can be shown that the supervisor was negligent in hiring (an officer with a history of alcoholism, drug abuse, mental problems, or sexual deviance) or if he or she fails to properly train the officers, the supervisor(s) and the employer can be held liable for damages.

In a Ninth Circuit court case on police officer actions, *Vera Cruz v. City of Escondido*, a case was allowed to proceed for an arrestee who suffered severe dog bites from a police canine. The court ruled “deadly force” means not just “force reasonably likely to kill,” but also “force likely to result in serious bodily injury.” A jury found, in *Young v. City of Providence*, that a rookie police officer who killed an off-duty police officer violated that officer’s due process rights, for he was not properly trained regarding interactions with off-duty cops. The family of a man with bipolar disorder, in *Schorr v. Borough of Lemoyne*, sued the police under the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) for failure to properly train police officers for peaceful

encounters with disabled persons. A Pennsylvania police officer was held liable in *Sterling v. Borough of Minersville* in a case of qualified immunity because of the officer's conduct, which resulted in the suicide of an 18-year old. In *Sharp v. City of Houston*, the city was held liable for sexual harassment of and retaliation against a female police officer because the city knew, or should have known, about the harassment but failed to remedy it.

In the *City of Canton, Ohio v. Harris* the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that a "failure to train" can become the basis for legal liability where the "failure to train amounts to deliberate indifference to the rights of persons with whom the police come into contact." In that case, the officers failed to call for medical assistance for an arrestee in their custody. In *Board of the County Commissioners of Bryan County, Oklahoma v. Brown*, the Supreme Court ruled that to establish liability, the plaintiffs must show that "the municipal action in question was not simply negligent, but was taken with "deliberate indifference" as to its known or obvious consequences." A deputy, named Burns, was hired by the Sheriff of Bryan County and he later used excessive force in arresting Brown, a woman. It was contested that the deputy's criminal background record made his use of excessive force an obvious consequence of the hiring decision. According to the court, a law enforcement agency cannot be held liable solely because it employs a person with an arrest record.

Civil suits that challenge police conduct, and filed in federal courts, are called "1983 lawsuits," because they are based on Section 1983, Title 42 of the U.S. Code. The act requires due process of law – one cannot deny others their constitutional rights to life, liberty, or property without due process of law. A New York deputy sheriff was entitled to official immunity in *Decker v. Campus*, where the court found there was probably cause for arrest. Official immunity is a defense under Section 1983 to a false arrest and imprisonment case if, at the time of the

arrest, probable cause existed. In another Section 1983 lawsuit, a New Jersey man argued that township police officers were not properly trained to investigate a robbery in *Robinson v. Winslow Township*. The court ruled that the police department had adequate training and policy and the plaintiff did not show that any failure-to-train claim existed. In *Robertson v. Plano City of Texas*, two Texas police officers investigating a car burglary obtained a confession from a juvenile who later committed suicide. The court found that mere threatening language and gestures of a custodial officer did not amount to constitutional violations. A mildly retarded man filed a lawsuit alleging the use of excessive force, unlawful detention, and due process violations against a police officer in *Rowland v. Perry*. Because evidence supported the arrest for a misdemeanor larceny (\$5), and because the man was only in custody for 15 minutes, his claims were dismissed.

The requirement of a college education for police won judicial backing in *Davis v. City of Dallas*, under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, in a case filed by Davis, a black woman, and Durbin, a white woman, both former candidates for employment as police officers for the City of Dallas. Applicants must have completed forty-five semester hours of college credit, must not have a history of recent or excessive marijuana usage, and must not have been convicted of more than three hazardous traffic violations in twelve months, nor convicted of more than six such violations in the twenty-four months preceding the date of application. Upon hiring, the applicant must go through academy training, field training, and probation. The entire process, from citizen to police officer, takes approximately 95 weeks.

The City rejected Brenda Davis for employment on the ground that she falsified her application – she alleged she was rejected on the ground that she was a black female. Cynthia Durbin was hired and then discharged on performance issues. She alleged her dismissal was

gender based. Both applicants filed suit against the City of Dallas, alleging employment discrimination in violation of Title VII, 42 U.S.C. The cases were certified as class actions in 1978, thus the applicants were representing all women and blacks who had been denied permanent employment with the Department. The three challenged criteria - college credits, marijuana usage, and traffic violations - were ruled by the court to be job related; thus, plaintiffs were denied injunctive relief. The court found that the job of a Dallas police officer falls within the category of “*professional*” type position, the job-related skills being especially important for the performance of the designated duties as a bona fide occupational qualifier (BFOQ). Congress has also resolved that a person’s race can never be a “bona fide occupational qualification.” (BFOQ).

Title VII is the area where most claims of sexism and racism are made in the courts. This Act also established the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) for employer/employee protections. Title VII, of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, prohibits discrimination by covered employees on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. Same sex harassment is also prohibited. Notwithstanding this general prohibition of employment discrimination, employers *are* permitted to discriminate where religion, sex, national origin is a bona fide occupational qualification (BFOQ) reasonably necessary to the normal operation of that business under an established three-prong test. The EEOC is the federal agency responsible for handling employment discrimination cases in the United States and is mandated under Title VII.

With the increasing formalization of police work, the complexities of the specialized body of knowledge characterized within the profession, the status of courtroom decisions as a result of liability and accountability issues, these and more are important law enforcement issues

that are impacted by the various established work standards in place, e.g., educational requirements, recruitment, selection, training, and promotion. Recruiting well-qualified candidates for policing is a problem in some areas of the nation. In 2002 New York City recruited at Ivy League schools (Yale, Harvard, and Columbia) in an attempt to recruit bright students with diversified backgrounds. They also recruited from train stations, military bases, and churches in minority neighborhoods. It is possible, however, for an applicant to be too smart (qualified) to be selected for policing.

In 1996, Robert Jordan, aged 46, desired to become a police officer with the New London Police Department. The city manager told him he would not be interviewed because he did not fit the “profile.” Jordan suspected age discrimination and filed a complaint with the Commission on Human Rights and Opportunities (*Jordan v. City of New London*). The city responded that Jordan was not interviewed because he scored too high (33) on the qualification test. In order to prevent significant departmental turnover from officers that may leave for better, more challenging jobs, the city did not interview anyone who scored over 27 on the test. Jordan filed a civil action in federal district court, which dismissed the complaint. On appeal, the lower court decision was upheld, stating that the city’s use of an “upper cut” did not violate the equal protection clause of the U.S. Constitution. According to the BFOQ, discrimination in employment on the basis of age is permissible in limited circumstances, as long as it is “reasonably necessary” to the normal operation of a particular business or enterprise; thus, the law recognizes a BFOQ defense to a claim of age discrimination in hiring. The courts have agreed that competitive examinations, as well as other considerations such as previous training and experience, are factors that can be used in determining the fitness and merit of police

applicants for promotion – in both *Cassidy v. Municipal Civil Service Commission of City of New Rochelle* and *Fink v. Finegan*.

The Federal Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) contains essentially the same language as the BFOQ regarding circumstances in which age discrimination is permitted. The ADEA is one of the key civil rights protections for older workers and makes it unlawful for an employer to refuse to hire or to discharge a person on the basis of age. In several cases under the ADEA involving maximum age limits for law enforcement officers, and officer fitness, courts have concluded that age criterion was not a BFOQ because the agency had not established, or had not enforced, standards for health and fitness that would apply to officers of all ages. In *EEOC v. Kentucky State Police Department*, the mandatory retirement age of 55 for state police officers was not a BFOQ when the agency had no program for testing health and fitness of all officers. In *EEOC v. Mississippi*, the maximum hiring and retirement ages for game wardens failed the BFOQ test when there were no minimum health and fitness standards established for officers. In *EEOC v. Pennsylvania*, a mandatory retirement age for state police officers is not a BFOQ in absence of evidence that the agency required all troopers to maintain minimum levels of health and fitness. However, in *EEOC v. City of East Providence*, the court upheld the mandatory retirement age because the city could rely on its belief that most of the young officers will meet the necessary standards. Although the ADEA generally prohibits age-based mandatory retirement, there is an exception that allows states and local governments to forcibly retire public safety personnel at age 55 or older as long as the retirement plan is bona fide, and not a “subterfuge to evade the purposes of the ADEA.”

The courts have ruled that law enforcement agencies have considerable leeway under both Federal and State law to implement hiring standards to ensure that police officers are fit for

duty. Specific areas that now have legal standing for hiring standards include: educational requirements, psychological testing, polygraph examinations, physical fitness testing, and criminal history checks. The need for hiring standards is necessary to guarantee that police officers possess the necessary physical, emotional, and educational qualifications to handle the duties required in law enforcement.

Some police agencies worry that requiring a college degree for entry-level police positions will place the agency at risk for discrimination suits (Mahan, 1991). When a department does mandate (BFOQ), as a pedagogical condition for employment, the department must indicate in writing (policy) the basis for the decision to protect itself. The courts have permitted law enforcement agencies considerable latitude to adopt reasonable hiring standards as long as they do not unnecessarily disadvantage applicants based on certain classes of persons. As a general rule, selection standards with a legally significant disparate impact must be justified by a showing of “business necessity” (*Wards Cove Packing Co. v. Antonio*). Unlike written tests that are developed and administered by the employer, educational requirements are largely in the control of the applicant and have been upheld (*Davis v. City of Dallas*) even though there is no empirical evidence to prove their (education) “business necessity” for law enforcement employment.

The U.S. Court of Appeals in *Aguilera v. Cook County Police and Corrections Merit Board* used a similar rationale in concluding that educational standards for police officers must only meet the test of “reasonableness.” The court also stated that EEOC guidelines for validating selection processes are more applicable to the applicant testing process as administered by the employer than to educational degrees that are awarded by schools that are independent of the employer. The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) makes it imperative that law enforcement

agencies identify the essential functions of police work and develop standards and tests based on those requirements. Under the ADA, employers cannot refuse to hire and cannot discharge a qualified officer with a disability because of that disability unless the person with or without reasonable accommodation is unable to perform the essential functions of the job.

Three Federal court decisions have ruled on the legality of psychological testing for law enforcement positions. In *Daley v. Koch* the U.S. Court of Appeals ruled that a police candidate who was rejected because a psychologist found the applicant had shown poor judgment, irresponsible behavior, and poor impulse control did not have a mental condition that Congress intended to be considered as a handicap under Federal law. Being perceived as unsuitable for a police officer position because of those traits does not render one handicapped under Federal law. In *Koch v. Stanard* the U.S. Court of Appeals ruled that applicants for the Chicago Police Department who were denied positions because they failed a psychological test were not constitutionally entitled an opportunity to contest the judgment that they would not make good officers. In *Klotsche v. City of New York* the court sustained the rejection of an applicant for appointment as a police officer because his psychological test and interview indicated the presence of personality traits incompatible with the demands and stresses of law enforcement employment.

Polygraph examinations as a component of the hiring process must be reasonably conducted to be constitutional and may be subject to more restrictive state laws. In *Woodland v. City of Houston* the court ruled that the constitutionality of pre-employment polygraph testing depends on a balancing of the police department's interest in pre-employment testing against the applicant's privacy rights. In *Anderson v. City of Philadelphia* the court upheld the constitutionality of pre-employment polygraph testing concluding that it is not irrational to

believe that the polygraph has utility in connection with the selection of police officers. The court also concluded that, in the absence of any scientific consensus, reasonable police administrators may choose to include a polygraph requirement in the hiring process without offending the equal protection clause of the Constitution.

Employers are generally given considerable latitude under federal law to consider the criminal history of a police officer candidate because of the nature of the job. In *Tharpe v. City of Newark Police Department* a New Jersey court interpreted State law as generally permitting the disqualification of a police applicant based on an arrest seven years earlier for possession of a small amount of marijuana, even though the arrest resulted in no conviction. The court further stated that the circumstances surrounding the arrest should be considered as they inversely relate to law enforcement employment. In *Sandlin v. Criminal Justice Standards & Training Commission* the court ruled that a pardoned felon seeking certification as a law enforcement officer was entitled under state law for consideration to determine if he possessed sufficient good character, as required of law enforcement officers.

The Commission has broad discretion under state law to pardon a felon for a law enforcement duty, but it may refuse to do so if the applicant is deemed to be of bad character or unfit for employment as a police officer. In *Adams v. County of Sacramento* the appellate court upheld a state law provision that barred anyone convicted of a felony from employment as a law enforcement officer, despite the expungement of a prior conviction. The court noted that this provision against employment of convicted felons as law enforcement officers was designed to assure the good character and integrity of law enforcement officers and to avoid the perception to members of the public that persons so employed may be untrustworthy.

Civil suits against police may be brought not only for intentional or malicious conduct. Negligence is also a basis for liability, especially negligence in hiring and training. In 2003, the Mississippi Supreme Court held that police who engage in high - speed chases through densely populated areas may be held responsible in civil actions for any injuries or deaths they may cause. In *Jackson v. Brister*, police were summoned to a bank where a customer was attempting to cash a forged check. The customer, upon seeing the police approach, sped off in her car. A high - speed chase ensued and ended when the customer's vehicle struck another vehicle, killing the occupant of the other car. The driver's estate sued for civil damages and the court ruled that the usual immunity provided to police for civil damages does not apply when officers act recklessly in disregard for human life. The police department policy, in question, only permits pursuits when the suspect has committed, or is committing, a felony, and it is thus reasonable to assume that the suspect is more dangerous to the community than is the risk of a high-speed chase. In this case, the officers could have merely gotten the license plate number and later arrested the suspect. Thus, the high-speed chase was ruled unnecessary and improper.

Many public entities maintain residency requirements for their employees. The courts have ruled that such requirements must be reasonably related to the employer's stated purpose. Public interests must be considered as well: shorter response time, community support and loyalty, and tax base support. A Michigan police officer in *Lash v. City of Traverse City* was informed that his home was outside the 20-mile radius distance allowed for employment, and the officer sued for damages. A number of Scranton police officers sued the city to challenge the residency requirement, and a court upheld the constitutionality of the requirement in *Hill v. City of Scranton*. A North Carolina city adopted an ordinance requiring employees to reside within the county for employment. In *Lewis v. City of Kinston*, the court of appeals found that the city

ordinance and administrative policy violated the police officer's right to equal protection under both the U.S. and North Carolina Constitutions since the "residency requirement did not bear any rational relationship to legitimate state purpose." A Pennsylvania police officer in *Tomayko v. Bethel Park Municipality* violated the five-mile air radius requirement for employment and was subsequently suspended. The court affirmed that the residency requirement was reasonable and, thus, the suspension for violation permitted.

Encouraging an open and equitable promotional process is paramount in the professionalization of law enforcement today. Consistent with Title VII guidelines, affirmative action in the area of police promotions closely scrutinizes such administrative policies. In *Bracket v. Civil Service Commission*, seven white male police officers for the Massachusetts Bay Transportation Authority were passed over for promotion in favor of minority and female candidates. The officers sued for discrimination and lost, even though they (white officers) scored higher on the promotional exam. Non-minority police officers in the Chicago Police Department filed a lawsuit challenging the affirmative action plan in *Petit v. City of Chicago*. The court ruled that promotions made pursuant to the exam did not violate the Equal Protection Clause because standardized scores were necessary to maintain departmental effectiveness. However, after this promotional process, the city did not utilize race-conscious promotions. In another Chicago Police Department court case, a number of white police officers sued under Title VII for reverse discrimination. The court, in *Majeske v. City of Chicago*, ruled against the officers, stating that the affirmative action plan was narrowly tailored to remedy past discrimination and would only be used for this particular promotional process. In *U.S. v. City of Miami*, a police union filed suit against the city for reverse discrimination in its promotion policies. A federal court found that the city had discriminated on the basis of race when

promoting several minority candidates. In *Hayes v. North State Law Enforcement Officers Association*, white officers in Charlotte, North Carolina, sued alleging that the city's race-based promotion policy violated the Equal Protection Clause. The court, in ruling in favor of the white officers, concluded that the city lacked sufficient evidence that racial diversity was necessary for an effective police force. The court dissolved a consent decree in *Brotherhood of Midwest Guardians v. City of Omaha*, stating that the racial diversity goals of the city had been met due to the fact that 9.5% of the total police force was comprised of black officers.

College and university police departments, because of the nature of law enforcement roles in such a special and diverse environment, give rise to civil liability in several ways (Newman, 1996). Campus agencies must provide security and safety services, as well as law enforcement (for sworn agencies), which is relatively unique to the campus setting. Most campus crime is caused by those very members of the campus community that campus law enforcement agencies serve and protect, i.e., student-on-student crimes. Liability cases usually arise when it is "foreseeable" that such a crime might occur and institutions and/or administration fail to take adequate protective measures or give adequate warning or provide programming to prevent crime. The institution and/or administration could then be held liable in damage suits. The courts have continually held that college and university students have a 'special relationship' with the institution of higher learning. It is a double-edged sword – the fear of liability serves to increase campus safety and security, as well as play an important role in protecting student health, welfare, and safety.

### **3.0 RESEARCH RESULTS**

This study developed a conceptual model of professionalism in policing (ideal type) and tested on a select sample (N=25) of experts – researchers, law enforcement administrators, authors, and practitioners in the field of criminal justice. The premise of this research (see 1.3) is that professionalism in policing is definable, that policing is a “profession,” and that by meeting established (proposed) criteria professionalism can be achieved. This chapter presents that descriptive data derived from the design and analysis of that research process and is organized as follows.

The “Introduction” section (3.1) discusses the sampling frame used in this study, the methodology and research design employed, questionnaire development, and briefly outlines the process involved in the analysis of data. This section focuses on the ‘operationalization’ (working definitions) of the research process – what the concepts are, how they will be measured. Section 3.2 “Presentation of Data” summarizes and presents the data findings and information from the questionnaires as administered to the sample population of law enforcement experts. Section 3.3 “Analysis of the Data” presents and interprets the reported research findings from the sampling frame in this study. Research results are detailed and explained, data are measured and analyzed, and research assumptions addressed regarding the proposed conceptual model of professionalism in policing according to the pre-established criteria or attributes. It should be noted throughout the sections on data presentation and analysis

the number of responses vary from question to question. Some respondents chose not to respond to certain questionnaire items, for whatever reason(s). Hence the maximum sample range is (N=21) as this is the sample size for this study. Responses indicating sample sizes of (N=11) or (N=18), for example, is indicative of the response rate for that particular questionnaire item.

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The original sampling frame (N=25) consisted of a select population of experts in the fields of criminal justice and law enforcement. Non-probability sampling methodology was used in this research, including snowball sampling and purposive sampling techniques. The sample of experts was primarily drawn from professional membership lists in organizations - CUPSA (College and University Police and Security Association), and NWPCPA (Northwestern Pennsylvania Chiefs of Police Association, Inc.), as well as from collegiate and professional contacts in the field. The final list of respondents, 21 of 25 responded in this study, is an amalgam of both professional and practitioner in the field of law enforcement (Appendix D). Respondents included police chiefs, a county coroner, a county sheriff, a district judge, criminal justice faculty members, researchers in the field, a state police captain, police instructors, and published authors – representing public, private, state, state-related, municipal, county, and local entities, including academic institutions, law enforcement agencies, administrative and political offices. Initially, e-mail inquiries (Appendices A and B) were sent to potential respondents from the aforementioned membership lists. Subsequently, various techniques were then employed to aid in the data-gathering strategy, including follow-up telephone calls, e-mail contacts, as well as letters of solicitation via the United States Postal Service. Monthly scheduled professional

meeting places for the two organizations also presented themselves as valuable forums for contact, solicitation, and conversation. The final questionnaire return rate was 84%. Four potential survey respondents (16%) that were solicited in the initial sampling frame (N=25) elected not to participate in the study and were ‘unavailable’ for various personal and/or professional reasons. Hence the final sample was N=21. In order to test the conceptual model as proposed, the questionnaire (Appendix B) was designed in two parts.

In Part I the respondents were asked to define the terms profession and professionalism and the role of professionalism in policing. Additionally, respondents were asked to rank order the established nine criterion (attributes) of the proposed and conceptualized model of professionalism in terms of degree – with ‘9’ being the most important and ‘1’ being the least important. Remaining questionnaire items were intended to elicit additional information regarding the proposed criteria necessary for professionalism, dimensions of professionalism, and whether the proposed model could be considered an ‘ideal’ type for police professionalism. Of interest in this research, as addressed in section 1.3 Research Questions, was the concept of “degrees” of professionalism. According to the proposed model, did the respondents feel that varying degrees of professionalism existed? If an agency possessed only some of the proposed attributes (dimensions) of professionalism, could that agency then be viewed as “semi-professional” in nature? Overall, the respondents were able to make a general assessment about the total model. This section of the questionnaire totaled eight items – seven survey questions requiring definitions and/or “yes/no” responses, and one item requiring the rank ordering (1-9) of attributes of professionalism. In this section, various tables and figures are used for presentation and representation of this data.

In Part II the respondents were asked to respond to an attitude scale indicating level of agreement or disagreement with the established criteria (nine) of professionalism. A simple summation of a five-point response ranging from Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Neither Agree nor Disagree (3), Disagree (2), to Strongly Disagree (1) was presented to the respondents. The assignment of high (5) and low (1) numbers was purely arbitrary on the part of the respondent; but used to indicate respondent orientation towards the nine attributes as they related to professionalism. Using the Likert scale, the respondents had the opportunity to evaluate the conceptual model of professionalism in policing, which are graphically depicted in various figures and tables in this section. The scoring for such a scale enables the researcher to distinguish between high and low scores, hence the intensity of the responses. The assignment of numbers represents positive or negative statements regarding the data. The total score for each respondent is the simple summation of all nine items (attributes). All items in the index (scale) were scored according to respondent attitudes towards the proposed criteria on professionalism in policing and used in the final analysis.

In presenting the results of this study, sources of descriptive quotes and narratives are taken directly from the questionnaires as cited by the respondents. Graphic depictions (bar graphs) are used in summarizing and analyzing some of the research findings for simplicity of interpretation.

### **3.2 PRESENTATION OF THE DATA**

The following data summarization and presentation are the result of findings gathered from the respondent (N=21) questionnaires. In testing the conceptual model of professionalism with this

population, the first query (Part I, question #1) asked for a working definition of a “profession” from the perspective of the respondent. “*How do you define a profession?*” resulted in various narrative responses (in their own words), including:

- Formal training with an intellectual component.
- Certification of quality and competence.
- A professional code of ethics.
- Mechanisms to ensure that individuals will behave in a socially responsible manner.
- Demonstrated ability in the pragmatic application of skills acquired in training.
- A vocation requiring specialized knowledge through training and education.
- A specialized occupation that requires advanced study and a total belief in what you are doing, regardless of salary and environment.
- A career which provides a person with the opportunity/ability of obtaining advanced skills within that chosen field/endeavor.
- Something that individuals devote a life to doing, and as they are doing it, they try to make life better for others.
- An occupation having accepted standards that requires extensive training to gain knowledge and proficiency, ultimately resulting in certification or licensing.
- Having special skills in a specific job category.
- A declaration of one’s beliefs or opinions.
- Being an expert in a defined field.
- Specific but changing skills, knowledge, abilities necessary to execute established occupational requirements that are maintained/enhanced over the duration of the vocation.

- One that meets industry recognized standards and maintains them.
- An occupation that has: esoteric, useful knowledge, autonomy, and service orientation.
- A specialty field that requires a specified type of education, training, and internship.
- Employment in which significant skills are required and developed from advanced education, training, and experience.
- An occupation that has certain and specific entry-level requirements, including education and/or training, and is governed and regulated by some type of agency.
- A calling, vocation, or occupation requiring special, usually advanced, education and skill. Devotion to a select or special cause.
- A profession develops through minimum standards of education as determined by a regulatory body that has some sort of authority over admittance and denial of membership.
- A profession is a vocation requiring continuing specialized training and education that enable a person to autonomously employ unique skills and abilities to make decisions that profoundly affect the lives of other persons.
- A person's chosen field of preference. A profession is a specialty field that requires a specified type of education, training, and internship. A profession also requires annual continuing education to stay contemporary in your chosen field.

One of the respondents, a campus police chief of a state institution of higher education, defined a "profession" as "...a term used to describe the position of an individual that is able to complete a certain task that requires a specific expertise that the individual is then willing to perform for others. It requires a person have the ability, which is outside of the skill set of an average

individual, to complete that task...” A more sociological perspective was offered by a professor of sociology of a state-related institution who stated a profession is “...self-regulation instead of marketplace and governmental control, social authority based on technical competence rather than organizational position, and institutional norms and values that place service to others or society above self-interest. In this view, individual professionals are motivated to adhere to professional norms and values because self-regulation enables the professions to provide rewards to those who adhere to them. This approach was formulated in 1939 by Talcott Parsons...”

In response to question #2 (Part I), “*Is policing a profession?*” of the total number of respondents surveyed, the majority (18) felt that policing was indeed a “profession”. One (1) respondent, an administrator of a large metropolitan police department, stated “... policing is not a profession...” Another respondent, a well-published author and researcher in the fields of criminology, terrorism, and white-collar crime, felt that policing was a “semi-profession,” hence suggesting degrees of professionalism. Although stating ‘yes’ in response to this question, a professor of criminal justice and forensics at a state-related institution of higher education felt “...policing is a profession under certain conditions...” based on various standards. Another respondent, who has spent years in the field of law enforcement as a police officer, instructor, administrator, trainer, and detective, felt policing was “a calling,” rather than merely a profession. In support of that perspective, another respondent iterated that “yes,” policing is a profession, and referred to an article that appeared in the FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin in November, 2007 stating that 85% of officers interviewed believed that law enforcement was not a job but a calling.

Finally, one respondent went into great detail, rather than merely answering ‘yes’: “...I would say policing is a profession. By today’s standards, policing meets the criteria. There is

formal training with the intellectual component. Policing may be physical at times, but if one is able to utilize intelligent decision-making strategies, the officer may be able to avoid the physical confrontation. After the formal training, the new officer must demonstrate an understanding of the training by passing one or several examinations. There certainly is commitment to research. Part of the research is in the area of updates to remain current with the changes in laws and procedures. However, much of the research is conducted to find better ways to do policing. One could look at the Kansas City Patrol Study conducted in the early 1970s and find that proactive patrol did not improve citizen satisfaction or reduce crime. Some of the research contradicts popular opinion or belief. Recent developments in the area of research would include crime-mapping – as a proactive strategy. The COPS philosophy is part of the professionalization of policing. As part of the COPS movement, it was discovered that a new breed of officer was necessary. Today’s police officer needs to be a better communicator and problem-solver. This takes us back to the point that policing is intellectual. It is not as much the military experience as it is the college experience. Policing, as a profession, will require the officer to write better reports, communicate with superiors and citizens better, and develop solutions for the community’s problems for the long-term, not just the immediate moment. Policing does have a code of ethics. The police officer’s code of ethics should be looked at as something to be strived for, something to attempt to live up to. If they are able to live up to the code, he or she should be nominated for sainthood...” Interestingly, many of the thematic items the respondent discusses in his opinion are also referred to throughout the body of this research.

A slight variation of “content and context” was poised in the next item differentiating between question #1 “*How would you define a profession?*” and question #3 “*How would you define professionalism?*” A “profession” refers more to an occupation, whereas

“professionalism” to the methods, manners, or spirit of that profession, i.e., the actual practice of the profession. (Funk & Wagnalls, 1982). Responses for this item (question #3) varied; however, many responses were similar to those used for question #1. One respondent felt that professionalism is “...behavior which exhibits a set of advanced skills within a chosen field/endeavor...” His previous response to question #1 (profession) was “... a career...with the ability/opportunity of obtaining advanced skills...” Hence this respondent drew the distinction between a “profession” (career or occupation) and “professionalism” (behavior or practice). One police chief commented: “...Both professionalism and profession come from the same root. They both deal with the completion of a task that is normally above the skill level of the average individual. While profession refers to the “above average” nature of the task, professionalism refers to the “above average” manner in which it was handled...” Numerous respondents also drew this distinction between occupation/career and behavior/action.

Some additional comments on professionalism as defined by the respondents included:

- The setting of high standards to become a police officer and the requirements to maintain those standards.
- To know people look to you as an example and for help.
- True belief in what you are doing, along with eagerly seeking ways (training and programming)) to always be on top of your game.
- Acting or behaving in a manner expected of someone in that profession. Right or wrong, police are held to a higher standard because of their responsibilities.
- Professionalism means that the individuals have adopted or adapted to the norms and are committed to the vocation.
- An attitudinal and behavioral commitment to professional values.

- Adherence to strict sets of guidelines as determined by the regulatory body.
- Performing the duties of your vocation in an ethical and respectful manner.
- The ability to handle all situations in your profession with dignity, with an open mind and military bearing.
- Knowing what is right to do and doing the right thing.
- By the uniqueness of education, training, and the degree in which a person's actions affect the lives of other persons or entities.
- Behavior in a particular field that is grounded within standards and ethics of a particular profession.
- A person who puts his profession above himself.
- To conduct oneself in a manner that characterizes that profession.
- Being the best in a chosen career field.
- The acquisition of those specialized skills, knowledge and abilities by an individual that empowers him or her to not only become an expert, evidencing the attributes of authority, compassion and consultant, but enables the individual to demonstrate proficiency, competency and productivity within a highly demanding vocation.
- A person who is ethical...using his/her training to make a responsible decision.
- After a period of education and experience, it is the art of deeply understanding and skillfully applying skills such as empathy, assertiveness, and servant leadership.
- Requires acting within a specified range of appropriate activities (ethically) and being credentialed and/or educated appropriately per specified guidelines for same.
- The act of maintaining standards and performance policies and a system of accountability.

In closing on definitional aspects of “professionalism”, a sociological perspective from a tenured faculty member at a state-related liberal arts institution of higher learning said: “...A key aspect of ‘professionalism’ (especially relevant to police) is that the behavior of the ‘professional’ would be guided by the norms, rules, values of the profession rather than his/her own individual bias’, prejudices, etc. Thus, even though a police officer may be prejudiced against Black people, for example, if he/she is a “true” professional, she (he) would not allow prejudiced views to be translated into BEHAVIOR toward the person. They would treat all interactions with people in terms of the guidelines, norms, rules associated with the profession of policing...”

The next item (question #4, Part I) requested respondents after previously defining “profession” and “professionalism”, to further expand upon those definitions: “*What is the role of professionalism in policing?*” One respondent from a large metropolitan police department that previously stated (question #2) that policing was *not* a profession, also concluded that “...Policing should strive toward professionalism but it will probably never be attained...” Other responses as to the role of professionalism in policing were as follows:

- Police officers by the nature of their job are required and expected to exercise discretion in the performance of their duties. Consistent and wise use of discretion based on professional policing competence will do much to preserve good relationships with the public they serve.
- It is the key ingredient in making certain that those with “power” over others do so judiciously and with genuine concern for those they encounter.
- Improve policing.

- To provide a guideline, i.e., a standard of behavior that allows police officers a framework for performing their duties/tasks in the most efficient and effective manner.
- Before policing others, law enforcement must have an aggressive and ongoing program of policing itself if it is to remain a respected profession. There must be constant evaluation of all operations with the goal in mind to make those operations safer, less stressful, cost efficient, and more acceptable in the eyes of the public being served.
- The role is set and required by our code of ethics.
- As the agents that have the most contact with the public of all three players of the CJ system, professionalism plays a vital role in policing, as is evidenced by stringent selection and training criteria.
- In order to select key people.
- Enable the practitioner to the greatest level of productivity, instill confidence/ acceptance/respect to the members of the community served, create within the individual the desire to continually strive for perfection and advanced knowledge, and to establish the mandated boundaries of acceptable behavior patterns.
- To be a professional police officer one must be the best in the field.
- Every officer takes an oath to protect and defend his community and must act in a way that would make others proud.
- Professionalism plays a large role. The number one complaint against police officers is that they are rude or arrogant. Most professional police officers rarely have a complaint filed against them. They are able to handle complex situations.

- To guide and direct law enforcement operations to ensure the department and its personnel always operate within law enforcement standards.
- To ensure that the power to take human life, suspend individual liberties, provide for the safety and security of our nation and the protection of individual citizens is vested in only those persons who have demonstrated their individual abilities to comprehend, appreciate, and perform the duties of their office.
- To promote the vocation in a positive manner with standards and integrity.
- It is the above average handling of all aspects of police work, from the barking dog complaint to the homicide. It is the ability to listen to complaints, analyze possible solutions and quickly make informed, life-altering decisions based on the concepts of Law for both the clients and the officers involved, all while managing to maintain order.

A faculty member in the Kent State system of higher education stated that “...Professionalism in policing helps to define the occupation of policing as unique. The professionalization movement of policing worked to remove politics from policing. It also helped to identify policing as a profession requiring specialized knowledge and training. The role of professionalism incorporates science and education into policing. August Vollmer was seeking professionalism in policing during the start of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. What Vollmer strived for one hundred years ago may not be here yet, but it is much closer than before. Many police agencies require only a high school education from the applicants. Fortunately, more police agencies are receiving applicants with some college experience and many with bachelor degrees. This demonstrates that policing is not just a “here’s your gun, here’s your badge, now go get

‘em’ occupation. That may have been the way fifty years ago. But professionalism has brought policing into the scientific and technical age...”

The conceptual *Professional Model of Policing* (Part I, question #5) listed the nine proposed attributes (criteria) for ranking by the respondents. This method of ordinal measurement allowed for categorization of information (attributes) when such variables lack a known interval. The sample population was instructed to rate the criteria from 1-9, with ‘9’ being the most important and ‘1’ being the least important in relationship to professionalism in policing. The intent of this exploratory ranking was to gain attitudinal perspectives regarding each attribute as applicable to the proposed model. The goal was to have the importance of each variable noted for validation of the model. It was anticipated that each number (1-9) would be used only once in the rating process. Some respondents misunderstood the instructions and used only ‘9’s in ranking attributes, others used only a few of the numbers, creating various issues with data summation – which shall be addressed further in section 3.3.

Of the sample population, only 19 respondents completed this particular section. Of the sample that responded to question #5, only 11 participants rank-ordered the attributes as anticipated. Two tables have been constructed depicting the data as collected – Table 2 represents the total sample (N=19) responding to this item, and Table 3 depicts the data as responded to as anticipated (correctly), and per instructions, by the sample surveyed (N=11). It is interesting to note that both group of respondents placed the attributes: accreditation, armed police officers, sworn police officers, and community policing as the *least important* of the nine attributes in relation to professionalism in policing. Formal training (police academy) and state certification was rated the *most important* by both groups. A formal education (college) requirement was ranked fourth in order of importance in relation to policing professionalism in

both groups as well. Despite the sampling errors on the part of the respondents, as mentioned previously, the resultant data of both tables are quite similar.

Table 2 (N=19) depicts the scoring key for questionnaire item #5, using all responses as recorded. The first column lists the 'Attribute' (criterion) of professionalism. The scores (1-9) under this column, a total of 19 scores, list the respondent ratings of the attributes in order of importance. Respondents rank ordered the criterion according to degree of importance and individual preference. Each respondent gave a rating of 1-9 for each attribute. That ranking was then entered onto the chart under the appropriately selected criteria. The final three columns of the table are labeled: "Total Score", "Average Score", and "Overall Rank". The "Total Score" is merely the summations (total) of all respondent's ranking for each attribute. The ranking, again, varied from 1 to 9 for each attribute, for each respondent. A judgmental technique was used in measuring the overall response scores for the attributes. For ease of analysis and rank ordering, the total attribute scores, or response sets, (Total Score) were trimmed down mathematically to be more "user friendly". For ease of readability and comparison purposes, the "average score" from such conversions was used to depict the overall rank. The next column displays this "Average Score" of the various attributes of professionalism. This score was arrived at by taking the "Total Score" of each attribute, and dividing it by the number of respondents (N=19). Finally, the column labeled "Overall Rank" displays the rank order of the attributes, as selected by the respondents and scored (N=19). The "Overall Rank" of the attribute is based on the "Average Score". The rank ordering of each attribute is labeled from 1<sup>st</sup>-9<sup>th</sup>, with the attribute of "formal training" garnering the 1<sup>st</sup> spot in level of importance, and the last spot (9<sup>th</sup>) for the attribute of "accreditation" – least important. Of special note in the ranking and scoring process in the category of "Average Score", because of "rounding" of the scores, there were some "ties". In

these instances, the raw “Total Score” was then used for ranking purposes in “Overall Rank”. The attributes of “education” and “community policing”, for example, both had scores of 5.9. Hence the Total Scores, of 113 and 112 respectively (3<sup>rd</sup> column), were used for overall ranking status – for 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> place ranking.

**Table 2. Rank Ordering of Attributes (N=19)**  
Rank Ordering – Importance of Attributes of Professionalism

Attribute	Attribute Ranking	Total Score	Average Score	Rank
formal training	8 9 9 9 6 9 7 9 7 4 7 9 9 9 2 9 9 3 9	143	7.5	1
formal policies	5 5 8 9 9 7 2 9 9 7 4 9 9 7 4 9 9 1 9	131	6.9	2
specialized training	9 8 5 9 5 8 6 9 4 3 5 9 9 4 7 9 9 4 8	130	6.8	3
high standards	7 2 8 5 8 5 9 9 8 9 6 9 5 6 5 9 9 2 8	129	6.8	4
education	6 1 9 9 7 6 3 5 5 6 8 8 5 8 6 9 1 6 5	113	5.9	5
community policing	3 3 1 9 2 3 8 9 2 1 9 9 9 2 8 9 8 8 9	112	5.9	6
sworn police	4 7 3 9 4 2 5 9 3 8 3 9 9 5 1 9 9 5 3	107	5.6	7
armed police	1 6 3 8 3 1 4 9 1 5 2 9 9 3 3 9 9 7 3	95	5	8
accreditation	2 4 9 5 1 4 1 7 6 2 1 9 4 1 9 9 3 9 7	93	4.9	9

Table 3 (N=11) is the scoring key for questionnaire item #5 depicting the data of those respondents that ranked the attributes as desired and anticipated by this researcher. As stated previously, it was anticipated that the scoring key (1-9) for each attribute would only be used once per respondent – no duplication of numbers. In Table 2 some respondents recorded only ‘9’s, some recorded ‘9’s and ‘1’s, and in varying ways. Thus in Table 2 (N=19) many respondents did not use the scoring key as desired. Table 3 is constructed in the same manner as Table 2, with the categories (left to right columns) of “Attribute”, “Attribute Ranking”,

“Attribute Score”, “Average Score”, and “Overall Rank”. The same methodology was also used in data presentation, summation, and scoring. However, this sample of respondents answered the questionnaire item as intended by this researcher – using each number (1-9) only once in ranking the importance of the attributes. Again, the ranking of the terms from 1-9 follows the order of importance – most important (9) to least important (1). According to this table, the attribute of “formal training” garnered the 1<sup>st</sup> spot in order of importance, as in the previous table, with the attribute of “armed police” (9<sup>th</sup>) – being the least important. The previous table (Table 2), using the different scoring key, had ‘accreditation’ as being least important.

**Table 3. Rank Ordering of Attributes(N=11)**  
Rank Ordering – Importance of Attributes of Professionalism

<u>Attribute</u>	<u>Attribute Ranking</u>	<u>Total Score</u>	<u>Average Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
formal training	8 9 6 9 7 7 4 7 9 2 3	71	6.5	1
high standards	7 2 8 5 9 8 9 6 6 5 2	67	6	2
specialized training	9 8 5 8 6 4 3 5 4 7 4	63	5.7	3
education	6 1 7 6 3 5 6 8 8 6 6	62	5.6	4
formal policies	5 5 9 7 2 9 7 4 7 4 1	60	5.5	5
community policing	3 3 2 3 8 2 1 9 2 8 8	49	4.5	6
sworn police	4 7 4 2 5 3 8 3 5 1 5	47	4.3	7
accreditation	2 4 1 4 1 6 2 1 1 9 9	40	3.6	8
armed police	1 6 3 1 4 1 5 2 3 3 7	36	3.3	9

Interestingly, the two tables had striking similarities despite the issue with the instrumentation – questionnaire completion by the two groups of respondents. Figure 1 portrays the comparison of the rankings of the two groups, listing the attributes in order of the rankings

(1-9) as selected by the respondents. According to Figure 1, both Table 2 and Table 3 depict the criteria of “formal education” as 1<sup>st</sup> in order of preference, and “specialized training” as the 3<sup>rd</sup> selection. The “top five” selections, in ranking the preferred attributes for professionalism, also included “formal policies”, “high standards”, and “education”. Although these attributes were in a slightly different sequential order in each table, they still represented the “top five” in both. Likewise, “community policing” and “sworn police” garnered the 6<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> positions respectively in order of preference for both tables. Hence the compilation of data for both tables, in rank ordering the importance of the attributes (9) of professionalism, indicates a somewhat mirrored response by the various respondents.

**Figure 1. Rank Comparisons**

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<u>Rank</u>	<u>Table 2 (N=19)</u>	<u>Table 3 (N=11)</u>
1	formal training	formal training
2	formal policies	high standards
3	specialized training	specialized training
4	high standards	education
5	education	formal policies
6	community policing	community policing
7	sworn police	sworn police
8	armed police	accreditation
9	accreditation	armed police

The respondents (N=19) were next asked to give a narrative response (Part I, question #6) as to which criteria/criterion they viewed as *absolutely necessary* and which criteria/criterion were *not necessary* for a police agency to be considered “professional” in policing. The numbers

in the parentheses are the number of responses for each attribute. Respondents (14) listed “formal training (police academy) and state certification” as absolutely necessary. The attributes of “education” (12), “state-mandated and specialized training” (11), “formal policies” (10), “high standards of recruitment” (8), “sworn police” (6), “armed police” (6), “community policing” (4), and “accreditation” (3) completed the list of attributes respondents felt *absolutely necessary* for a police agency to be considered professional. Criteria some of the respondents felt *not necessary*: accreditation (8), education (4), community policing (4), armed police officers (3), sworn police officers (3), recruitment and selection (2), formal training (2), and specialized training (1). As one can see, there is some overlap of attributes in this section. One respondent felt that “...all are necessary...” with respect to the attributes.

Some respondents gave detailed summations of necessary criteria. “...It is essential that a high level of education be mandated and fitness for duty be measured by examination. Policing will never be a ‘profession’ on the same level as recognized professions (doctors, accountants, etc.) due to the sheer number of police officers needed. It would be difficult to mandate professional standards for the numbers needed...” postulated one large metropolitan police administrator. Another respondent stated that “...accreditation was not necessary – this is the icing on the cake, and a “great” department can function many times just as well or better without it. It is difficult to set accreditation guidelines for smaller departments who do not have the manpower, budget and equipment called for by current accreditation guidelines. Also jointure and regionalization are not always the answer for smaller departments...” One of the respondents believed that “...formal training/specialized training aside, it is the implementation of formal policies that set the tone for professionalism in policing...”

One respondent, with experience in the various roles of police officer-researcher-professor, summed up necessary criterion this way: "...It was difficult to rank order the nine attributes listed since it was not possible to rank them all as '9'. I would believe that all of the attributes are necessary for a police agency to be considered professional with the possible exception of armed police officers. The arming of police is certainly essential in our violent society if we expect the police to be able to perform the functions and duties we expect. However, it may not be a necessary element in order to be professional.

The London Bobbies are not armed but are considered extremely professional. Sir Robert Peel and the Metropolitan Police Act of 1829 required that police be courteous, respectful, and professional. Peel thought that this would gain greater and faster acceptance by the citizens. The need for formal training and formal education are part of the professionalization of police and, therefore, ranked high. The need for formal departmental policies helps to provide consistency and equity in the performance of police duties. Formal departmental policies provide officers with some guidance and description of exceptions. The consistency and expectations should be part of professionalization. In addition to the concepts of justice and law, policies provide direction for officers in times of ethical dilemmas. This takes us back to the code of ethics that is present in many professions..."

Another respondent, with an extensive background in municipal policing and campus policing, offers the following on professionalism: "...Coming from a background in municipal policing and then going to 'campus policing' I have a unique position to address this question. Certainly the municipality that I was employed at was considered 'professional' but they had no accreditation, they were for the most part under-educated from the perspective of 'higher education', most having just completed high school, and it wasn't long after I got there that the

concept of ‘community policing’ came to be. All officers did have to pass a civil service test, they did go through a basic training session, they were sworn and armed. I never saw a written ‘standard operating procedure’ or SOP until 1975, three years after I started and the State mandated-training didn’t come into play until after that, yet the Department was considered professional.

So as the years passed and ideas were refined and fine tuned, different approaches were used, and some worked, others didn’t. (Example – At one time it was felt that having officers trained to counsel and refer people involved in domestic violence disputes would solve their issues – later it was found that all it really did was allow the situation to continue and the violence to accelerate). Eventually they moved on to pass legislation that required officers to arrest any individual that was involved because counseling them didn’t work without the thumbscrew of criminal charges.

Getting back to the issue I believe that you need, it is my opinion that to be considered a professional department it must have the following: formal training, state mandated specialized training, sworn police officers, armed police officers, and formal policies for operations and function. The other criteria are filters – high standards of recruitment and selection, and formal education; and refinements – community policing and accreditation. All are important (but it is not what you asked) and of course the more of the above listed criteria you have the ‘more professional’ you may appear on paper...”

Question #7 (Part I) asked the respondents to look at the various dimensions (9) of the proposed *Professional Model of Policing* as presented, and ascertain as to whether *those police agencies lacking some dimension(s) of the proposed professional model be described as “semi-professional”*? Of the total respondents (14) answering this item, six (6) answered in the

positive “yes”, without going into any explanation as to why they felt that way. Seven (7) respondents stated “no”, and one (1) respondent indicated he was “unsure”. Other respondents gave a little more detailed responses to this item, including:

- Not at all. (No)
- Yes, if the agency contains a majority of the highest ranked attributes. (Yes)
- Absolutely. (Yes)
- No, I don’t think that should be the case. For me, an agency is either professional, or an occupation is a profession, or it isn’t. I guess I don’t think in terms of “semi-professional”. (No)
- I don’t think so. (No)
- Possibly – such as the old perception of Campus Cops or Mall Cops where people would tend not to listen to you and would state they were waiting for the REAL police. (Yes/No)
- As long as the training standards are maintained and the personnel meet those standards they will maintain a “professional” standard. (Yes)
- Semi-Professional is not an acceptable term when describing a police department. Departments have to be aware that if they aren’t professional then in some respects they are dysfunctional and aren’t providing the human services they are sworn to do, there is no half way mark, they are professional or they are not. (No)
- No. Policing cannot be equated with a description used to describe athletes who are lacking and have not made the grade. Given the responsibilities of the profession, one does not want a “semi-pro” making life terminating or altering decisions in the community. (No)

- They can still be considered to be professional. (Yes)
- To be labeled as semi-professional in itself places an agency/officer's credibility in jeopardy. An agency can function without several of these dimensions (as long as formal policies were in place and being enforced); however, they would lack the essence of professionalism. (No)
- Yes, I would think so. Policing is far too complex. (Yes)

One criminal justice faculty member, when weighing professionalism versus semi-professionalism, summed it up this way, "...When one hears "semi-professional" in terms of employment, it brings to mind someone that is lacking in training, knowledge, or skill. Hopefully those are not the attributes lacking in this case. The training, knowledge, and skill should be part of all police agencies. If anything is lacking, it should be some of the elements ranked lower, such as accreditation or community policing. An agency may have the training and skills and still not employ the philosophy of community policing or seek accreditation...." This researcher was unsure how to tabulate this response; hence, suffice it to say the response is an "unsure" – maybe "yes" maybe "no"! In conclusion of question #7: "...This terminology should never be used until all departments can fulfill all criteria..." answered one long-time practitioner in the field (with over 60 years of law enforcement experience). "...To do so would be demeaning. Based on current requirements for "accreditation" alone, would rule out all departments being called professional by criteria. Under present Pennsylvania law (MPOETC) dealing with municipalities and some colleges and universities – not all criteria is required..." This response was thus labeled "No".

The final item in Part I ( question #8) asked the respondents to analyze the proposed *Professional Model of Policing*, and the nine proposed attributes (criteria), and ascertain as to

whether this conceptual model *could be viewed as an ideal type for police professionalism*. Of the sample population, nineteen (21) respondents addressed the item as follows: YES (15), NO (1), and UNKNOWN (3). Two (2) respondents recorded no responses. Various narrative responses are as follows:

- Yes – it has taken Pennsylvania 30 years to come from the original Act 120 requiring criteria for policing to its present day requirements, i.e., initial requirements, basic training and annual update training. This Model presents what policing truly needs to be recognized in the eyes of its peers as true professionalism. (Yes)
- No. While providing laudable departmental benchmarks, it is lacking in those human benchmarks that make the individual a professional. They provide no criteria regarding selection, retention or performance of candidates, cadets or licensed police officers. (No)
- Using the criteria above in my opinion it would be an “ideal type” for police professionalism. (Yes)
- At this time, yes. But that is like shooting at a moving target, several years ago there was no such thing as accreditation on anyone’s radar; now it is on everyone’s. (Yes)
- Affirmative – “Ideal Type” and the standard to achieve if a “Professional” department/police agency is the goal. (Yes)
- Yes – a necessary component must insure the on-going training of the officers in terms of the sense of “Community Awareness” to include both “perceptions of the department by the community” and the needs of the community. (Yes)
- For the most part. (Yes)

- Yes – you need the ideal to measure “where you are” against it, i.e., without an ideal state it is difficult to determine your progress (or lack thereof). (Yes)

One criminal justice faculty member postulated the query this way: “...If I understand the question correctly, this is a tough one for me. This relates to question 6 – in my opinion, the presence of a gun or the powers of arrest are not necessary for policing to be viewed as a profession and should never be part of a police officer’s “master status.” Banking or advertising are “professions,” but I don’t believe the use of a calculator or a computer makes me think of them that way. To me problem solving (or POP) would be more important to have in this model, although maybe “community policing” comes close to this?...” This respondent is referring to problem-oriented policing (POP), which is a style of police management that stresses proactive problem solving in dealing with long-term community problems. Closely related to this strategy, as this respondent also mentions, is community-oriented policing (COP), which is designed to bring the police and the public together in a co-operative working environment. Both strategies rely on citizen involvement. Another philosophy of policing, also closely related to these two, is neighborhood-oriented police (NOP). This strategy is also designed to address problem solving at the neighborhood level. All three philosophies are closely related strategies and are many times generically labeled as “community policing”, – one of the proposed attributes in this study.

Another respondent, the chief of a state-related university campus police department, stated: “...There is no ideal type that will fit all agencies. However, the items above are a great start and departments should begin to meet requirements. Interesting enough, many Pennsylvania police departments do not require any formal education...” In concluding the data summation (question #8), this respondent reflected on the proposed model of professionalism this way: “...I believe that the nine attributes listed would make this model an ideal type for police

professionalism. One other thing that I would like to see added would be the requirement of a code of ethics. The presence of a code sends a message to those outside (and inside too) that this is what is required, ideally. It also sends a message that abuses, deviance, or misconduct will not be tolerated. It means that police are willing to “police” themselves. Misconduct, abuse, or deviance will be dealt with. The public can have greater confidence in their police knowing that this is a possibility...”

The final item for data presentation is Part II of the questionnaire, wherein the respondents were asked to respond to the nine items (attributes-criteria) as proposed in the conceptual model of professionalism: “...*indicate your level of agreement or disagreement...to the established criteria of professionalism in policing...*” Table 4 and Figure 2 were constructed to represent the data from this item. In measuring these attitudinal responses, a Likert scale was used employing a simple summation of the nine criteria using a 5-point rating system. Respondents were instructed to rate the attributes (total of 9) from SA - ‘strongly agree’ (5), A - ‘agree’ (4), N - ‘neither agree nor disagree’ (3), D - ‘disagree’ (2), and SD - ‘strongly disagree’ (1). Attributes (9) (criteria) are represented and depicted in “rows”, and the attitudinal rankings (5) are represented and depicted in “columns”. Eighteen (18) of the sample population responded to this section of the questionnaire. Individual respondent scores could range from a possible high (maximum) of 45 (‘strongly agree’ on all nine items) to a low (minimum) of 9 (‘strongly disagree’ on all nine items). Compilation of the data shows that no respondent selected the category of ‘strongly disagree’ (SD) for any of the nine criteria. The individual respondent final rankings ranged from an attitudinal score of 44 (high) to a score of 34 (low). All marked selections are in the attitudinal rankings of SA, A, N, or D. Figure 2 indicates respondent scores (final) on the various rankings using the 5-point rating system. The intent of the construction of

this figure was to show the intensity of response for each respondent, according to occupation, for the nine attributes. It is impossible to predict the exact endorsement of each individual item (attribute), but such scores do show orientations towards the attributes comprehensively, and according to occupational status.

**Figure 2. Attitudinal Scores by Occupation**

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<u>Respondent</u> N=18	<u>Score</u>
Chief of Police (City), Retired	44
Professor (state-related institution)	42
Professor (state institution)	42
MPOETC Instructor, PSP Retired	41
Chief, Campus Police (state-related institution)	41
MPOETC Instructor, Chief of Police (Borough), Retired	40
County Sheriff	40
Police Academy Director, PSP Captain, Retired	38
County Coroner, PSP Captain, Retired	37
Chief, Campus Police (state institution)	37
PSP Captain	37
Director of Public Safety Institute	37
Chief of Police (City)	36
Professor (state institution)	35
Administrator, (City) Police Department	35
Chief, Campus Police (private institution)	35
Retired – PSP, Campus Police Chief, District Judge	34
Professor (private institution)	34

As Figure 2 indicates overall respondent endorsement of the attributes in totality, Table 4 permits each respondent the opportunity to rank order and endorse the nine attributes individually as they related to 'professionalism'. A total maximum response range of 162 is arrived at by taking the total sample population (N=18) for this questionnaire item (Part II) and the total number of attributes (9) for ranking. Assuming each respondent selects and ranks each attribute only once and using only one Likert category (total of 5 selections) in ranking each attribute, the response range (rate) is thus summed accordingly ( $18 \times 9 = 162$ ). The total possible responses, from all categories should total 162. Each respondent gets nine selections (one for each of the nine attributes). The selections can range from 1-5, with "5" indicating "strongly agree", and "1" indicating "strongly disagree". The first number in each column is the "response range" of that particular category/attribute. For example, for the attribute of "formal training", 15 respondents rated this criterion as "SA" – strongly agree. The remainder of the respondents (3) ranked "formal training" as "A" - agree. In viewing the columns, as depicted in Table 4, the data as compiled indicates the majority of responses ( $83 + 43 + 27 = 153$ ), out of a total of 162 possible responses, are in the first three categories of the rating system (SA, A, and N). The majority of the responses (126) selected "SA" (83) or "A" (43) responses in the ranking process. The categories of "D" received nine (9) responses, and "SD" received zero (0) responses.

**Table 4. Attitudinal Ranking of Attributes**

Attitudinal Ranking of Attributes in Professionalism

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<u>Attributes</u>	<u>SA</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>Attitudinal</u> <u>Score</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Rank</u>
formal training	15(75)	3(12)				87	4.8	1
formal policies	15(75)	2(8)	1(3)			86	4.7	2
specialized training	11(55)	4(16)	3(9)			80	4.4	3
high standards	12(60)	4(16)	1(3)	1(2)		79	4.3	4
sworn police	10(50)	4(16)	3(9)	1(2)		75	4.2	5
community policing	6(35)	7(28)	3(9)	2(4)		72	4.0	6
armed police	7(35)	6(24)	4(12)	1(2)		71	3.9	7
accreditation	2(10)	7(28)	8(24)	1(2)		62	3.4	8
education	5(25)	6(24)	4(12)	3(6)		61	3.3	9
<u>Response Range</u> (Total=162)	83	43	27	9	0			

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Likert Scoring Scale

SA =	5	'strongly agree'
A =	4	'agree'
N =	3	'neither agree nor disagree'
D =	2	'disagree'
SD =	1	'strongly disagree'

Attributes or criteria (N=9) were also tallied under each attitudinal ranking category (SA, A, N, D, SD). The number in parentheses in each column indicates composite scores for each attribute and is totaled in rows. As an example, the row for the attribute of “high standards” indicates a composite score of (60) in the first column. Twelve respondents indicated they “strongly agreed” (SA) on this criteria. The score in the parentheses was arrived at by taking the total number of responses (12) for this attribute and multiplying it by the attitudinal (SA) score of (5) or  $12 \times 5 = 60$ . Each single response in this particular box (SA) is equal to rank score of 5. Strong agreement is assigned a high score. Each row was tallied using this scoring process. The Total Attitudinal Score column depicts the final respondent scores for each attribute. Thus the attribute of “high standards” received a final score of “79” for the “Attitudinal Score”. A note on

scoring for “Attitudinal Score”, the categories of D – “disagree”, and SD – “strongly disagree”, as negative items, were removed from the scoring process. Assigning a score to a “negative” item (response) does not benefit the scoring process in any degree and cannot be adequately interpreted. Those items (SD and D) which lack variability or fail to distinguish between high and low scores are eliminated from the scale. The SD category already equals zero in all rows, due to lack of responses. Items in these two columns were eliminated as “useless items” so as to create an objective standard for measurement. The category of N – “neither agree or disagree” was included for scoring as this scale could be positive or negative – the exact endorsement by the respondent(s) is not known, or not given. The respondent is “fence-sitting”. The next column titled, “Rank”, places the criteria in rank order of importance (1<sup>st</sup>-9<sup>th</sup>) with the attributes representing respondent preferences for each attribute in the summation process. The “Rank” is determined by the overall “Attitudinal Score”. The category of “formal training”, for instance, received composite scores of “75” (15 respondents multiplied by the Likert score of “5” for “SA”), and a score of “12” (3 respondents multiplied by the Likert score of “4” for “A”); for a total “Attitudinal Score” of 87. This score converts to an overall ranking of 1<sup>st</sup> for the nine attributes. Overall, this column, via the above stated procedure, indicates according to the respondent rankings, which attributes are the most important criteria in relation to “professionalism”. The rank ordering of the criteria (attributes) from most important (1<sup>st</sup>) “formal training” to the least important (9<sup>th</sup>) attribute of “education” indicates respondent preferences for each attribute and shall be further analyzed and discussed in detail in section 3.3.

### 3.3 ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The results of the questionnaire are detailed and presented in Tables 2 - Table 4, as well as Figures 1 – Figure 4. The analysis of the proposed (conceptual) model in this study calls for the development of a professional model for policing. The focus of the research assumptions was that professionalism in policing could be defined, measured, and achieved by meeting the nine pre-established criteria. According to the proposed *model*, true professionalism in policing could be achieved with:

- high standards of recruitment and selection (civil service)
- formal education (college) requirements
- formal training (police academy) and state certification
- state-mandated (annual) specialized training and re-certification
- sworn police officers empowered to arrest;
- armed police officers (firearms);
- formal policies (departmental) for operations and function;
- community policing (commitment and service);
- accreditation.

What do the specialists in the field think and feel about the conceptual model of professionalism in policing, and what does it all mean? The analysis of the data is divided to correspond to the four sections of the questionnaire. The first section reflects on the definitional data collected regarding the terminology of profession and professionalism (question #1 to question #4). The second section (question #5) analyzes the data collected in Tables 2 and 3, in which the respondents addressed the various attributes (9) in the exploratory model in ranking degree of

importance (1-9) in relation to professionalism in policing. Section 3 addresses three specific questions regarding the proposed criterion on professionalism, as well as inquiring (question #8) as to a definitive perspective on the conceptual model – as an “ideal type” The last section of analysis herein (Part II), in section #4, measures the data using an attitudinal scale (Likert) of criterion of professionalism. The analyses of the findings are as follows.

Section 1: As evident in question #1, “*How would you define a profession?*”, many of the respondents felt that a “profession” was a career, an occupation, a vocation, or a “calling”, first and foremost. Various responses of formal training with an intellectual component, professional code of ethics, pragmatic application of skills, a specialized occupation, special skills in a specific job category, being an expert in a defined field, industry recognized standards, a specialty field – all address varying degrees of the true sense of the term. As alluded to previously, when speaking of a “profession” in relation to other occupations, with requirements of licensing, formal education, certification, technical training, specialized training, formal policies, and formal training, one can see similarities in the established criteria necessary for specific profession(s) in order to be designated as a true “profession”. The respondent definitions of a profession are reflective of those qualities required of many other professions, thus constituting a “profession” as generally accepted. The textbook definition of a “profession”, as referred to previously in this document, is any calling or occupation involving special attainment within the discipline (vocation). The purpose of this questionnaire item was to “set the stage” for the development of a working definition of the term professionalism, particularly in relationship to policing. It was assumed that one cannot truly understand “professionalism” in this context, if one is unable to formulate a solid definition of just what a profession is. There appears to be consensus with this sample of experts regarding the status of a “profession”.

In question #2, respondents were asked to expand upon this foundational definition of a “profession”, and respond to the query, “*Is policing a profession?*” The body of literature reviewed in the process of content analysis for this dissertation indicates that the occupation of policing necessarily involves special attainment because of the specialized vocation – concepts iterated by many of the sample population in this study. With the exception of one respondent who emphatically stated that policing was *not* a profession, and one stating that policing is a “semi-profession”, the other respondents (N=19) all felt that policing was indeed a profession. Based on the thematic responses using various industry “buzz words” inherent in a profession such as self-regulation, technical competence, norms, values, service to others, education, training, selection, overall the summation of responses indicates acceptance of policing as a profession by definition. One respondent offered that policing was not just a ‘job’ but a calling – implying more of a solemn appointment or summons, perhaps a position of status or rank. Definitely this respondent felt policing a step above merely a position of employment. The consensus of the majority of these criminal justice experts was that because of the nature of policing, it possessed knowledge and service dimensions particular to the profession (of policing) and thus deserving of the prestige of the occupation - being labeled as a profession in every sense of the term.

Question #3 posited the inquiry, “*How would you define professionalism?*” The difficulty in dealing with these questionnaire items, i.e., those questions which solicited expressed attitude, observation, and/or opinion regarding definitional narratives, is that there is some potential for error in interpretation of findings. A major characteristic of any survey or questionnaire is that it tends to measure respondent attitude rather than behavior. Hence it is what the respondent “thinks”, not “does” In asking such “opinion” questions it was assumed that this sample of

respondents, given their status as experts in their select fields as practitioners and researchers, could/would submit meaningful, rational, and informed responses on the various open-ended questions. Again, given the unstructured nature of this inquiry into professionalism, it was difficult for some respondents to, by definition, differentiate between “profession” and “professionalism”. As one respondent iterated, “...both come from the same root...” Overall, respondents felt that a true profession exudes professionalism – grounded in ethics, values, standards, norms, skills, knowledge, performance, and commitment to the task at hand. Responses somewhat mirrored any textbook definition of professionalism – “profession” is to career, as “professionalism” is to a profession. Professionalism is thus the manner, or method, of a particular profession – what we do, how we do it.

In analyzing the data presented in question #4, “*What is the role of professionalism in policing?*” one respondent did not believe that the profession of policing could achieve true professionalism. The focus of the respondents was in the function of policing as an occupation – the execution of the office, the manner in which the tasks are carried out, the methods employed to achieve the ends. Professionalism was seen as having an important role in policing – by providing standards of behavior, checks and balances, equity in enforcement, a framework for overall performance in policing. Thematic ideas again surfaced amongst the respondents regarding the prospect of professionalism in policing – code of ethics, guidelines to follow, respect of occupation (by outsiders), evaluation, integrity, selection, and training. In summation of this item, the majority (N=20) felt that professionalism plays a large and vital role in the vocation of policing.

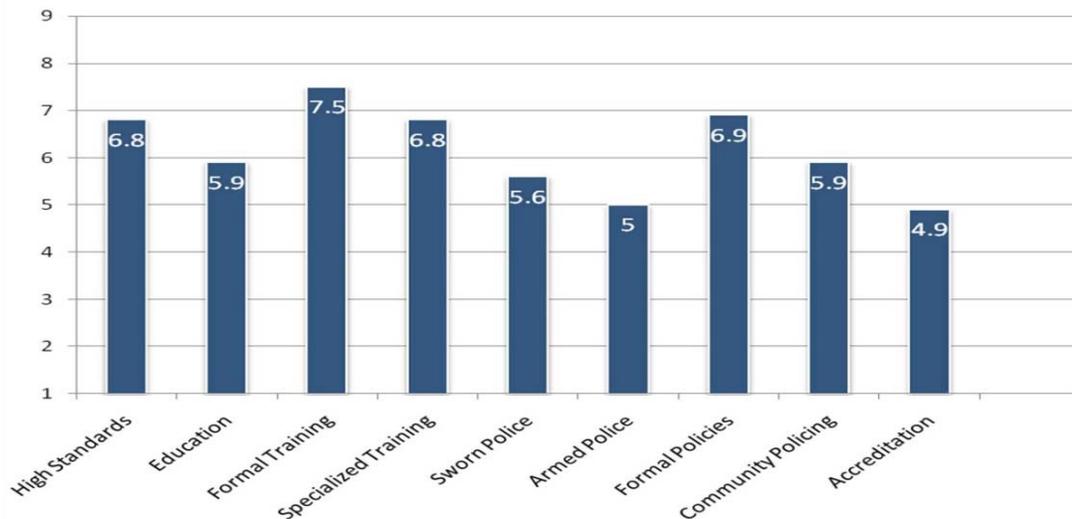
Section 2: In rating the nine attributes of the proposed *Professional Model of Policing*, by ranking of respondent perceptions of importance, the following results from question #5 were

tabulated. The intent was to test the overall acceptance of the proposed professional model. However, of equal importance was the measurement of the various attributes (9) as proposed in the professional model. Which criteria were perceived as necessary in achieving a professional model? Which are least important, or perhaps not important at all in relation to professionalism? Attitudinal scaled responses, or attitudes or ratings, were used for this item to test ‘goodness of fit’, with 1 being the least important (lowest) and 9 being the most important (highest) evaluation. The use of this ‘scoring system’ allowed the placing of ordinal level data into ranks according to sample population responses; however, they should not be mistaken for actual numbers. The data (numbers) merely indicates respondent preference for the various attributes – one item (attribute) is higher (more important) than the next, and the next. As stated in Chapter 3.2, due to respondent error in ranking the various attributes, erroneous data were collected. The construction of two tables was thus necessitated in presenting the data from question #5. Table 2 (N=19) and Table 3 (N=11) graphically depict the respective data. Figure 1 represents the data of the two tables for comparison purposes.

The bar graph in Figure 3 depicts a summary of the findings and overall rankings of the various attributes of the professional model in order of importance. For any stated attribute, the highest ranking possible is 9 (most important) and lowest ranking is 1 (least important). Range of possible “total scores”, given the sample population (N=19), for each attribute (N=9) can vary from a high score of 171 ( $19 \times 9 = 171$ ) to a low score ranking of 9 ( $1 \times 9 = 9$ ). In Table 2, the category of “total score” ranges from a high of 143 (formal training) to a low of 93 (accreditation) - most important to least important respectively. In order to rank order the attributes, the summed scores (total) were taken and divided by the number of respondents. This resulted in an “average score”, in the overall importance ranking of the attributes. The final

column of Table 2 indicates the overall rankings of the attributes in order of importance. These data were then incorporated into Figure 3 in depicting overall ranking of the criterion by the respondents.

**Figure 3. Ranking of Attributes (N=19)**



The data collected for Question #5 does not indicate whether an attribute “belongs” or “doesn’t belong” in the conceptualized model of professionalism. Data are merely ranked according to individual preference. The tables and figures depict that data collected, which indicates respondent preferences for each attribute. Hence, it cannot be ascertained as to whether those attributes with lower rankings are necessary for such a model. The majority of concurrence for the various attributes, as they relate to “professionalism”, indicates “formal training”, “formal policies”, “specialized training”, “high standards”, and “education” as the most important of the attributes in such a model. There is clear agreement on this premise in both Table 2 and Table 3. This researcher was somewhat surprised at the rankings of “armed police”, “sworn police”, “community policing”, and “accreditation”. These attributes were ranked lowest in order of importance. The extensive literature review conducted in the development of this model, as well

as life-experiences in the field of law enforcement and academia, preliminarily indicated a much stronger relationship of these variables and professionalism. Accreditation and community policing are tangible cornerstones in policing and professionalism today. Again, the low rankings are difficult to interpret, as a low ranking does not necessarily indicate “no relationship” to professionalism, but rather a lower respondent preference in relation to other attributes as listed. Many respondents also felt that the requirement of “arming” police officers and giving them arrest powers (sworn police) did not further the concept of professionalization in policing to any degree. Data presented later in this chapter clarify some of this material. In summarizing this section on attribute ranking in relation to professionalism, as proposed by all respondents, the top five attributes – formal training, formal policies, specialized training, high standards, and education – are clearly important to this population with respect to professionalism in the occupation of policing, in the specified rank order (Figure 3). The overall relationship of attribute(s) to professionalism cannot thus be quantified according to the data herein.

Section 3: In addressing questions #6 to #8 in this part of the questionnaire, respondents were encouraged to determine inclusion for their various selections and ranking of the nine attributes as proposed in the model of professionalism. Furthermore, respondents were asked to expand upon the dimensions of professionalism in order to further qualify the model. Question #6 asked the respondents to determine which attribute(s) or criterion “...are *absolutely necessary, and which are not necessary for a police agency to be considered ‘professional’ in policing...*” The majority of the respondents (14 of 19) listed “formal training” as absolutely necessary for professionalism, and 8 of 19 respondents listed “accreditation” as not necessary.

It is interesting to note in the findings for this section, in comparing with Figure 1 (Table 2 data), that many of the data selections coincide. In the “not necessary” category,

“accreditation”, “armed police”, “sworn police”, and “community policing” mirror the selections of Table 2 (rank comparisons) selections. Additionally, the top four rankings of Figure 1 (Table 2 data) also match-up with the responses of “absolutely necessary” – “formal training”, “formal policies”, “specialized training”, and “high standards”. The one attribute that respondents felt (highly) that was both absolutely necessary (12) and not necessary (4) was the attribute of “education”. This population either felt very strongly regarding the need for this attribute (education) as evidenced by their various comments “...education is essential in policing...”, to “...college requirements are not necessary...”

As evidenced when analyzing the data in question #5 (Part I), regarding the errors of response in the ranking process (1-9), some respondents further qualified their answers to this question (#6) by reflecting on previous question #5. “...it was difficult to rank order the nine attributes as listed since it was not possible to rank them all as ‘9’...” The methodology for question #5, in particular the instructions, were either flawed or misunderstood. Some respondents (Table 3, N=11) did rank according to specified instructions. Other respondents (Table 2, N=19) rated attributes according to personal views on ranking, as alluded to in the statement of the above respondent. Those respondents that ranked more than one item (attribute) as a nine (9), said respondents apparently perceived the ranking scale as a “high” to “medium” to “low” scale and thus designated higher scores (9) to those attributes they felt most strongly about, with no concern for rank ordering according to the designated scoring key of 1-9.

It was assumed that these respondents might have felt one or more of these attributes to be “most important” in relation to professionalism, and, hence, labeled accordingly. To this population the responses may have resembled a “semantic differential scale”, in that they merely ranked the attribute according to their reaction (high [9] to low [1]) according to perceptions.

Each attribute was interpreted as having subjective meaning, hence a level of measurement. The ranking (1-9) and number usage should have been more clearly specified so as to avoid conflicting interpretations on the part of the respondents. This process of developing a ranked measurement of a specific phenomenon (professionalism), and using ordinal measurement, should have resulted in a more exacting ranking of attributes.

Despite the methodological error, and given the small population sample, information gathered from this questionnaire item (#5) did result in some useful data. Overall, in summarizing question #6, responses were across the board with respect to “absolutely necessary” versus “not necessary” criteria. However, most respondents felt the majority of the attributes necessary for inclusion as a measure of “professionalism”. A large proportion of respondents also felt that the attribute “accreditation” was not necessary as a measure of professionalism in policing. Many respondents, according to various comments, felt that accreditation was merely a tool for benchmarking with other law enforcement agencies, an expensive yet unnecessary option for promoting one’s agency, and having little or no impact on the development of professionalism.

Question #7 was intended to get the respondents to think in terms of degrees – “...*can those agencies lacking some dimension(s) of the proposed professional model be described as semi-professional?...*” Dimension, of course, refers to the attributes (9) postulated in the development of the Professional Model of Policing. Of the body of law enforcement experts responding to this item (N=14), six responded “yes,” seven responded “no,” and one respondent stated he was “unsure.” Those answering in the affirmative qualified their responses by adding that even though they felt it was a possibility to be labeled “semi-professional”, certain standards need be in place. A set number of the attributes must be present to meet those standards of

professionalism, or a majority of the highest ranked attributes. Other respondents felt that either an agency is professional, or it is not. There is no middle ground of “semi-professional”, no half-way mark, like in athletics, at least not in the field of law enforcement. These respondents felt strongly on the subject and that perspective therein. Those respondents that did answer in the affirmative also qualified their responses by extrapolating further. The response of “yes”, according to three experts, was further detailed by submitting additional qualifiers of “if”, and “as long as” in support of their position.

Hence, according to these respondents, it is evident the research supposition that any agency lacking some dimension(s) of professionalism might still be described as a “semi-professional” agency is voided. Most of the experts felt that, if subscribing to the proposed professional model of policing, it was either “all” or “nothing”. What one has then is, as one respondent put it, the difference between the “real police” and the “mall cops” or “campus cops”! As a follow-up to that last comment – “campus cops,” as referred to by this respondent refers to the old perception (old days) of such. In the not too distant past the majority of campus and university police roles were occupied by security guards or safety officers. Many campuses utilized contract services and outsourced for same. Some campus departments today still utilize a similar model. The majority of college campuses today use the ‘police’ model, with sworn officers and powers of arrest. Many college campuses have models in place that utilize both security officers and police officers - the University of Pittsburgh, for example. The majority of mall security today is handled by “mall cops”, as referred to by this respondent, or a “rent-a-cop” as labeled by generalists. They provide contract security services typically, for safety and security of persons and property. There are exceptions to this model as well, whereby some retail outlets and malls today utilize sworn police officers to handle the security details. There is a

price tag, however, when privatizing your safety needs by utilizing safety or security officers, rather than sworn police empowered to arrest – in both dollars and sense.

The final question (#8) was the interpretation of the entire Professional Model of Policing. Respondents were asked to state whether this proposed conceptual model of professionalism could be viewed as an *ideal type* for policing. Nineteen (19) experts responded to this item as follows: Yes (15), No (1), and Unknown (3). The “No” respondent indicated that the Model was suitable for departmental benchmarking purposes, but lacked the “human aspect” of benchmarking with regard to the individual (officer) – those attributes necessary to make an individual a professional. Responses of “for the most part”, “probably”, and “unknown” rounded out the “unknown” category, without offering alternatives or options for incorporation of the Model in attaining an “ideal type”. The overall assessment of this question indicates a high degree of acceptability among the sample population. Given the criterion of the conceptual model, and the data collected (questions #1 - #7), the proposed Professional Model of Policing could be viewed as an “ideal type” in police professionalism.

Section 4: The final questionnaire item for analysis (Part II) was the measurement of a Likert Scale – a summation of respondent agreement with the various attributes as proposed. The analysis of this attitudinal data entailed a simple summation of a five-point response - ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree as presented in Table 4. Respondents were instructed to select the category (1-5) corresponding to their level of agreement or disagreement pertaining to the established criteria (attributes = 9) of professionalism in policing. As stated in section 3.2, on scoring for “Attitudinal Score”, the categories of D – “disagree”, and SD – “strongly disagree”, as negative items, were removed from the scoring process. Items in these two columns were eliminated as “useless items” so as to create an objective standard for measurement. This

procedure of discarding weak scoring items (negative) aided in assigning meaning to the scoring weights to be assigned (of “5”, or “4”, or “3”). There is no practical way to predict and analyze high or low scores without trimming the final scale down to the most useful items. Hence any item that failed to distinguish between high and low scores (responses of “4” or “5”) were eliminated. The only items retained and used in the final analysis were the scores of “5”, “4”, and “3”. Negative responses were removed from the scoring key in order to provide a better measure of intensity of responses. The category of N – “neither agree nor disagree” was left for inclusion in scoring as this scale could be either positive or negative – the exact endorsement by the respondent(s) is not known.

The total range of scoring (limits) for this scale was 72 – 90 and represents that range of acceptance (positive) for the various attributes of the Model (Figure 4). In arriving at this range of acceptability, only the two levels of measurement, SA – “strongly agree” and A – “agree”, were used in the scoring process. The number of respondents (N=18) multiplied by the scoring key of (4) for “agree”, results in a score of 72 for the lower limit (minimum) of the attitudinal score. The number of respondents (N=18) multiplied by the scoring key of (5) for “strongly agree”, results in a score of 90 for the upper limit (maximum) of the attitudinal score. Thus an attitudinal range of 72-90 is indicative of a positive relationship between attribute (N=9) and respondent endorsement of each attribute.

**Figure 4. Attitudinal Ranking**

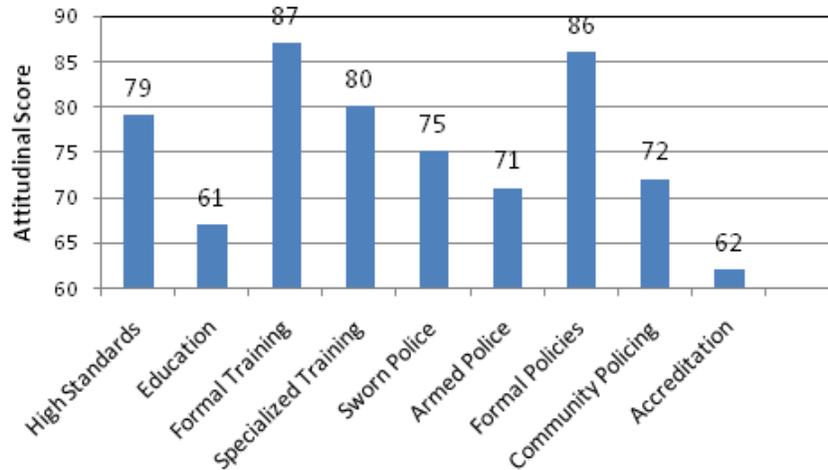


Figure 4 graphically displays the data from Table 4 in the format of a bar graph. This bar graph represents the various criteria or attributes of professionalism (9), with the bars representing each criterion in the proposed model of professionalism, and the height depicting attitudinal scores and overall ranking. Attributes are arranged along the horizontal dimension (across) and ranking and scores are plotted vertically.

Figure 4 compares the attributes to respondent attitude and ranks them according to that preference to determine “fit” for the Model. In responding to this item in Part II, experts were to indicate their level of agreement for each attribute for inclusion in the professional model as proposed - the higher the attitudinal score, the greater the acceptance of that attribute. Any attitudinal score at or above the minimum lower limit of 72, as established, was considered valid for inclusion in the model of professionalism as presented. For this particular questionnaire item, the attributes of “education” (61), “accreditation” (62), and “armed police” (71) were not scored high enough by these respondents to be considered important enough for inclusion in the Model. However, the category of “armed police” (71) is close enough to the minimum range (72) limit to be considered acceptable as an indicator of “fit” for the model. The attributes of “formal

training” (87), “formal policies” (86), and “specialized training” (80) received quite high attitudinal marks in professionalism. The other three attributes of “high standards” (79), “sworn police” (75), and “community policing” (72) were scored high enough by respondents to be considered integral to professionalism in policing.

In considering Table 4, there were only “9” responses in the “disagree” category, as well as “0” responses in the “strongly disagree” category. This was out of a total possible response rate of 162. The response rate of the first three categories (SA, A, N) totaling 153 indicates the majority of these attributes (N=9) were considered to be acceptable by the majority of the respondents (N=18). Results thus infer a better-than-average “goodness of fit” regarding the proposed attributes and their relationship to the conceptualization of professionalism in this research.

Finally, the data of Figure 3 were compared with Figure 4 so as to measure connectivity between the Professional Model of Policing (Part I, Question #5) – ranking the attributes in order of importance (1-9), and the level of agreement or disagreement (1-5) of the various attributes (Part II). Figure 3 indicates the top four attributes of “formal training”, “formal policies”, “specialized training”, and “high standards” as being, according to this sample population, most important to achieving professionalism in policing. The respondents strongly felt these attributes to be very important to the concept of professionalism as defined herein. Figure 4 indicates, via Likert scale measurement, the top four attributes of “formal training”, “formal policies”, “specialized training”, and “high standards” to be important components of the conceptualized model of professionalism as proposed. In analyzing the data from both instruments of measurement, as depicted in these figures, there is consensus among the respondents regarding those attributes (4) as most important for inclusion in the Professional Model of Policing. High

standards of recruitment and selection (civil service), formal training (police academy and state certification), formal policies (departmental) for operations and functions, and specialized training (state mandated) and re-certification (annual) were viewed as necessary components for any model of police professionalism.

“Accreditation” was viewed as a “luxury item” by the majority of respondents. It would be good to have for benchmarking purposes; however, it adds very little to the concept of professionalism. Accreditation is achievable by most agencies (if one can afford the process), but accreditation does not add valuation to the professionalism of the department(s). Standards set by the accrediting body vary according to the individual accrediting body, as well as being tailored for the department being evaluated. Some departments have sworn police officers empowered to arrest, others employ safety or security officers, or perhaps unarmed police – as IUP (Indiana University of Pennsylvania) did up until a couple of years ago. Some institutions incorporate civil service hiring guidelines, mandate police academy training, state certification (MPOETC for example), educational requirements (University of Pittsburgh), and so forth. Other institutions and/or agencies do not. Hence, in these cases, benchmarking with similar agencies gives one a perception of where one is in relationship to “like” agencies/institutions, but does not give any insight as to level of professionalism within or among such agencies/institutions. It is like comparing apples with oranges! It has a good beat, but can one dance to it? Is an institution of higher education utilizing armed, sworn, and state-certified police officers, with college educations, any more professional than an institution of higher education employing safety officers without police powers, without firearms, without college degrees? Accreditation agencies say “No”; one agency can be just as *professional* as the other agency with regards to the accreditation process. They are merely benchmarked in using different categories and

classifications. But one is considered no less professional than the next; both can receive the highest marks of the accrediting agency. But who and what they are, and what they do, are totally different in function.

## 4.0 SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 4.1 SUMMARY

This dissertation presents data in the construction and testing of a conceptual model of professionalism in policing – an ‘ideal’ type. Using nine attributes (criteria), as developed from a content analysis of literature in the field, the proposed model was administered using non-probability sampling methods on a select population of specialists in the field of law enforcement (N=21). A more detailed explanation of the methodology used in this study is presented in section 1.5 (Specific Techniques) and section 1.10 (Operationalization of Professionalism). The focus of the study was to test the acceptability of the model via the design and development of the professional model in measuring the opinions of the experts – what these practitioners think and feel about the conceptual model as proposed. Although the study is high on validity, but low on reliability, data collected in this study indicates a consensus among the experts regarding the conceptualized model of professionalism in policing. The results are summarized as follows.

- A *profession* is any occupation, career, vocation, or “calling” which requires as an added component formal and specialized training, a code of ethics, licensing or certification, and education. A profession is reflective of many qualities, in varying degrees, with perhaps one common denominator – it refers to a specialized occupation.

- *Policing* is considered a *profession* in that it is a unique vocation, requiring specialized skills and training. The very tenets of service to others, norms, values, education, training, selection, and status qualify it as a profession in every sense of the term.
- *Professionalism* is defined as the practice of some profession but also defines the practitioners of that profession. It includes attitude as well as behavior. It is not only what the individual does (as a professional) but also what he/she “thinks” in such tasking. Thus, it is both the manner and method of performing such tasks within the occupation. According to the data, it is what we do, how we do it, and the spirit of that commitment.
- The role of *professionalism in policing* was seen as a vehicle for improving upon the function of policing in providing requisite guidelines in order to ensure policing performs within the framework of the most efficient and effective manner possible. It incorporates the criterion of integrity, training, specialized knowledge, education, and science and technology into the profession. Professionalism in policing aids in helping to define the occupation of policing as unique.
- The following proposed attributes (criteria) *absolutely necessary* for a police agency to be considered *professional in policing* - the attributes of formal training (police academy) and state certification, formal departmental policies for operations and functions (SOP), state-mandated specialized training and annual recertification, and high standards of recruitment and selection (civil service) - were viewed as requisite attributes for professionalism. Accreditation was the single attribute which was viewed as being *not necessary* in the professionalization of policing.

- With regard to the various dimensions of the proposed *Professional Model of Policing*, the majority of the respondents in this study felt that a law enforcement agency is either “professional”, or it isn’t. Police agencies cannot be described as semi-professional with reference to any operational definition. With the exception of the attribute of “accreditation”, any law enforcement lacking some dimension or attribute, as proposed in the conceptual model, cannot be considered a “semi-professional” law enforcement agency. A professional model can only be achieved by subscribing to all of the proposed dimensions of the Model.
- According to the respondents in this research, the *Professional Model of Policing*, as conceptualized and proposed, as a specific measure of professionalism, can be viewed as an *ideal* type.
- Overall, the proposed and exploratory *Professional Model of Policing*, with the nine attributes (criterion) of measurement as conceptualized, is considered acceptable by this sample of experts (N=21) as one measurement of professionalism in policing. The conceptual model, as presently configured, can serve as a basic guide on professionalism until further research provides perhaps more meaningful and relevant data for study.

## 4.2 DISCUSSION

This research project yielded some interesting and unexpected results. The difficulty of “operationalizing” the concept of professionalism in order to conceptualize and develop a “working model” within a law enforcement setting was challenging. Any process of

operationalization involves defining and developing a “fuzzy” concept so as to shape such a concept into a form which is measurable. How does one actually conceptualize “professionalism”? Is it measurable? How does one know it when one sees it? Is it definable in a law enforcement setting? In the end, what does it mean? Professionalism, as the study results indicate, means various things to various people. These “specialists” in this study, because of their unique work-a-day world experiences, defined the term in differing ways. They possessed their own varied interpretations of the nine attributes (criteria) of professionalism. They agreed to disagree on some of these terms, as well as the rank ordering of the various criteria. These concepts were defined through their personal world views, the various experiences they possessed individually.

The intent of the operationalization of the concept (professionalism) was to measure the various attributes (criteria) as developed so as to propose a viable model of professionalism in policing. Operationalization is only part of the empirical research process. The research question posed: “Can the *Professional Model of Policing* be considered an ideal type (model) in the field of law enforcement?” Is it an acceptable measurement of professionalism in policing, as defined, from the perspectives of this sample of specialists in the field? Does education matter? Does the arming of police make a difference in law enforcement? Do formal training and specialized training provide a better qualified, more disciplined, and committed police officer?

The intent of this research was not only to develop the criteria (nine) for a model of professionalism in policing, those attributes proposed by this researcher via extensive literature analysis to be most important in policing; but furthermore, to have the respondents (N=25) of this study rate these attributes in order of importance and rank them accordingly as they relate to the concept of “professionalism”. How do these specialists feel about the criteria as they relate to

policing and professionalism? How do they (respondents) ultimately feel about both the concepts of professionalism and professionalism in policing? The attributes, and their relationship to the concept of professionalism, are important. The process of moving from the idea of the nine developed attributes in the measurement of the concept of professionalism, as responded to by the sample population, is operationalization. One of the goals of this research was to show how conceptualization and operationalization can be made more concrete by developing a conceptual framework of professionalism as it relates to the literature and then laying out the specifics of how to operationalize this framework of professionalism, within such an occupational subgroup.

As the saying goes, “Expect the unexpected”, so too were there some unexpected findings in the research process. In the final rank ordering of the nine attributes of police professionalism, as developed in this model, responses and rankings were unpredictable in some instances. The criterion of “accreditation” was found by the sample group to be at the bottom of the list as it relates to professionalism. It is unclear as to why this sample rated this attribute as such. Nationally, a large majority of organizations, agencies, programs, and colleges and universities, actively seek such recognition for both qualification and benchmarking purposes – the best of the best. Accreditation is a progressive and traditional way of assisting various agencies evaluate and improve their overall performance. Historically, and currently, the push for law enforcement agencies to garner such an accolade as accreditation has been second to no other initiative. Such recognition brings, typically, governmental and community support. It also brings peer recognition. The agency is rewarded by certification of competency and credibility, and such an initiative indicates improvement upon delivery of services, administration, and overall operations. Recognizing bodies in the law enforcement environment, such as CALEA and IACLEA as mentioned in Section 2.5 “Accreditation”, via the process of accreditation assist

departments in the promulgation of higher standards in policing, which is considered by the law enforcement community to be a major avenue towards professionalization. Accreditation allows for a systematic, comprehensive review and assessment of policies and procedures; the development and improvement of community relationships, desired limitations placed on liability and risk exposure, and overall, facilitates the agency's pursuit of "professional excellence".

Also surprising, in the final tally of attributes, were the criteria of "armed police" and "sworn police". Both of these categories were ranked at the bottom of the list of respondent preferences in professionalism as well. "Sworn police" are those officers, the vast majority of working police officers in agencies today, with the powers to arrest and detain – the right of "seizure of persons". The attribute of "armed police" indicates that the police officer has the tools, or equipment, not only to effectuate an arrest (sworn) but furthermore, to use that force which is necessary in the arrest process. The force continuum for police officers includes pepper spray, ASP (tactical baton), stun guns, tasers, handcuffs (all less-than-lethal police tools), and of course, firearms (lethal). In the escalation process of an arrest, or attempted arrest, we are all quite familiar with those events as presented on the ten-o'clock news and the need at times for such force by the police in arrest situations.

Professionalization in law enforcement, as researched by the National Crime Commission (1925) and the Wickersham Commission (1931), focused on improving the efficiency of the police in the deterrence and apprehension of criminals. How can a police agency bring criminals to justice more swiftly and certainly, a major task of the police, without the powers of arrest and use of force, if necessary? *Professionalization* of the police and *police efficiency* are, or should be, synonymous with one another, akin to yin and yang. Professionalization in policing is

defined in terms of changes in organization, administration, and technology that would improve upon police services and operations – the deterrence, apprehension, and prosecution of criminal elements. As iterated previously, the vast majority (17,000 of 19,000) of police agencies exist at the *local* level of government. The local nature of policing is illustrated by the fact that almost two-thirds of “local police” departments, as previously defined, have fewer than ten full-time officers. Add to this fact that only 2,000 of these departments have only one full-time or one part-time officer. How professional of an agency would you prefer should you reside in one of these local jurisdictions? What level of service would you require, or demand? It follows that such law enforcement tasks can only be accomplished by adhering to professionalization of policing in both form and function.

The recent shooting and killing (April of 2009) of three City of Pittsburgh police officers gives us an accurate and grim perspective of the societal need for both arrest powers and the arming of police to better serve and protect the citizenry of respective law enforcement jurisdictions. Part of the law enforcement oath, as a police officer, is to serve and protect; yet without the tools to perform the function(s) as pledged, how can one perform the tasks as stated? When such tools are lacking, such as the power to arrest, and the use of force if necessary, is this professional in every sense of the term? The commitment to service and protection is necessarily delimited, which bespeaks of failure to perform one’s job as sworn to uphold – to protect and to serve. Hence the low rankings of the attributes of “sworn police” and “armed police” was surprising, particularly given the occupational status of the various respondents and law enforcement backgrounds. The respondents did not necessarily feel that such attributes were *not* necessary in the performance of law enforcement duties and functions; but rather, were not a valid and necessary measurement of professionalism.

Perhaps, and any future study could explore this assumption further, the respondents felt that the arming of law enforcement officers with the requirement of arrest powers was a “given”, that this policy or practice was an occupational necessity and hence need not be considered in any treatise of professionalism. It would be akin to going to the dentist’s office – one might necessarily and rightfully assume that one’s dentist has the proper and necessary tools to “do the job”. Otherwise, the patient would be greatly disappointed, as the level of service expected could not be provided in this clinical setting. Further examples of expectations regarding specialized and professional services, includes doctors, lawyers, car dealers, beauticians, teachers, and so forth. We all assume, again rightfully so, that should we utilize any such services, and if we are compensating these agents for such services, that they will indeed be able to provide for such services as expected.

Pre-study assumptions, as well as literature review results, indicated the respondents would “most probably” agree that the attributes of formal training, specialized training, high standards, education, and formal policies would rank up near the top of respondent preferences regarding professionalism in policing. Police academy training and certification for law enforcement personnel is required in all states. The majority of the states also mandate annual updates, as well as specialized training, in legal issues, firearms, stress management, and so forth. Formal departmental and agency policies and high standards of police officer recruitment are also fundamental necessities in the operations and administration of any law enforcement agency.

The basic education requirement for police officers is changing nationally, as sixteen percent of state police agencies require a two-year college degree, and four percent require a bachelor’s degree (BJS, 2006). Sixteen percent of county police departments require either a

two-year or four-year degree, and nine percent of large police departments require a college degree. What kind of training and amount of education are police officers required or encouraged to have? If one considers policing to be a career, and indeed a profession, what level of education and training are necessary in performing the job function? The increasing formalization of police work and the rise in public acceptance of police is an indicator of police professionalism. Today's officers need a great deal of "specialized knowledge" in policing. They must adhere to established standards of conduct and ethics as set by the profession. A profession is any organization characterized by a special body of knowledge acquired through extensive education and training. Such guidelines hold that profession accountable to one another and society as well. For policing to continue to evolve it is necessary to emphasize professionalism and professionalization within the occupation of policing.

As with any survey research, there is no assurance that the data truly reflects the attitudes and beliefs of the experts who completed the questionnaires. Survey research is always subject to legitimate queries regarding validity and reliability. This particular research project was high on validity, but low on reliability. The questions can be posited, "Did the research instrumentation measure the phenomenon it was intended to measure? Was it an accurate measure of this phenomenon?" The issue of consistency of measurement is of concern – using the same instrumentation, would a similar study with different respondents yield the same results? The current results cannot be inferred or generalized to the general population. Every attempt was made to develop a survey instrument (questionnaire) that might obtain the data necessary to directly address the research problem. In this project, every attempt was made to provide a methodology that would yield reliable and valid responses – hence quality data. The study was viewed as a research opportunity. The language used in the survey instrument was

geared to the target population – experts in the field of law enforcement. Open-ended, unstructured interviews were preferred in the data collection process in hopes of gaining greater detail from this body of specialists, and furthermore to permit respondents greater latitude in fully explaining those various views regarding the questionnaire items.

The original research questions (section 1.3) have been addressed in the summary (section 4.1). In viewing the conceptualized Professional Model of Policing as originally proposed, and in responding to the question – “Is it, or is it not?” - consensus from the sample population indicates the affirmative. The data is indicative of how the respondents feel, and what they think, about this model. The Professional Model of Policing is acceptable as an “ideal” type.

Section 1.10 of this research document proposed the “operationalization of professionalism” in order to develop and conceptualize *professionalism*. Attributes for measurement were developed via an extensive content analysis of relevant literature in testing the Model of Professionalism. The original proposal of this research endeavor was that police professionalism could be defined and achieved by meeting the nine established criteria (attributes). According to this sample population and via this research project, police professionalism has been defined. Respondents agree that the exploratory model, as developed and proposed, is a viable model and acceptable for gauging professionalism in law enforcement. The data indicates what the police do and how they do it and the Professional Model of Policing has been defined, proposed, and accepted by these experts in the field. This same conceptual model now needs further testing.

Various methodological shortcomings became evident throughout this research process. While “theory” addressed the research issue quite accurately for the “why” of this project, “methods”, and the concern with “what is” presented some issues. Some strengths of this

particular project included a thorough literature review and content analysis of that literature, and problem formulation. It is recommended that any further study of professionalism in policing refine that which is to be examined in relation to current and past inquiries, including this research project, and thus prevent reinventing the wheel. However, various alternative research designs and data gathering strategies might be more appropriate for exploratory, survey research such as this type of study.

Although this project experienced a fairly high response rate, one problem encountered was the slowness of the response rate and the necessity for continual follow-up with some of the respondents. The particular sampling frame of this research project – practitioners and academicians in the field of policing and law enforcement - may have been part of the reason. The information highway (internet) for any research project is highly recommended. Such a method was an inexpensive means of data gathering and resulted in a more than adequate response rate. Follow-ups were seamless. This researcher, as e-mails were ignored, followed-up with telephone calls and more e-mails. One of the positives of such a data gathering strategy is that it eliminates the costs involved in postage for massive mailings and negates possible slowness or inconsistency of response. The electronic highway has immediate delivery, and no stamps required. One issue encountered with e-mailing the questionnaires was the difficulty some respondents had in “opening the file” so as to be able to type answers directly on the questionnaire itself. Software and hardware capabilities and needs vary and need be more closely scrutinized when using this methodology.

A number of respondents in the sampling frame misinterpreted some of the questions and instructions for questions, thus creating issues with data collection, analysis, and interpretation. Good questionnaire construction is paramount in assuring one will obtain the desired data in the

manner it is needed – before the fact, and not after. The language used in the construction of the questions of any survey should be clear and concise and not subject to varying interpretations by the respondents. It is recommended that any similar study, such as this, employ similar methods of data gathering (questionnaires and surveys), as the data can provide a richer and more detailed, in-depth response for analysis. A drawback to the open-ended questions queried in this project was respondent difficulty in responding to some of the items as anticipated by the researcher. Close-ended, structured questions may be easier for respondents to interpret. At times, a better instruction booklet may be necessitated.

A final area of consternation was in the actual data analysis of some of the questionnaire items. Some of the responses reflected different interpretations of the meaning of the question, as mentioned previously, which in turn affected the interpretation of the data. Perhaps any future study might follow more stringent guidelines regarding effective questionnaire construction, which means formulating the research problem, and developing a better understanding of the data necessary to address the research question(s). This researcher knew what questions to ask, but did not have as clear a notion as to what to measure and how to measure it. Through the research process a better understanding of the research problem at hand was gained.

In conclusion of this section, it is imperative to review and reflect on the nature of professionalism in policing, as proposed by the conceptual model developed in this research. Perhaps the most revered work published on “professionalism”, by Harvard sociologist Talcott Parsons (1954), developed a sociological model or theory on professionalism. Many of his earlier concepts and assessments of occupational roles are pertinent to the field of policing as proposed herein.

According to Parson's precepts, what is professionalism as it relates to an occupation? First, it is an occupation, a full-time job, in which an individual performs certain functions that are valued in society. The individual is both "trained" and "educated" in the profession. That training qualifies the individual for the practice of the profession. Such a person is a "technical expert" in the field, has a mastery of the skills required to perform the demands of the job. The occupational role is one of importance in society. The agent seeks the "best", most efficient way, of carrying out the tasks of the job. The role exercises authority. Technical competence is one of the major defining characteristics of the professional status. Authority is limited to a set, and defined, sphere (job role) for specificity of function. That agent is an "authority" only in that chosen field. The authority of the office is limited to the powers of the office. The central focus of the professional role is in the technical competence of that role. Professionals are dedicated to "service" of fellow men, not for self-serving interests. The agent will seek both personal recognition and achievement in the function of the occupation. The occupational structure involves a complex interrelationship in the environment it is located and serves, as well as within the overall social structure. Finally, professionalism demands regulation by designated universal standards.

The operationalization of professionalism in policing in this research mirrors many of the precepts of Parson's operationalization of professionalism of occupations. Policing is an organized profession, characterized by a body of specialized knowledge, by education, by training. In place is a well-established set of standards and functions, and ethical guidelines. Members of the profession (policing) are held accountable. Police officers are technical experts in their chosen field. It is not just a job, but a position of importance in society. The police exercise authority in job tasking. Authority is limited and defined, as well as controlled by

established standards. The police mission is to: enforce and support the laws of the society in which the police are a part; investigate crimes and apprehend criminals; prevent crime; and provide the community with enforcement-related services - to protect and serve. Overall the police exist to reduce crime and disorder. Such an occupational structure, and job function, necessarily involves a complex, yet interrelated, as well as co-operative working environment. Policing is such a working environment. Contemporary policing possesses the standards and attributes of a profession.

### **4.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

This initial attempt to develop a comprehensive and conceptual model of police professionalism has proved to have some validity; however, a complete validation of this model of professionalism is necessary. It is important that this model, as developed and proposed, be replicated by future research. This current study could be used as the foundation and development of other research to further explore and test the concepts and ideas presented herein. In theory, the attempt of this research project to develop a working definition and conceptualization of professionalism in policing was essential for furthering an understanding of the profession. The questions could be asked: “What is the point of all this?” “What does it all mean?”

One principal shortcoming of much qualitative research is overreliance on questionnaires as the primary data gathering strategy. The use of a triangulated strategy of data collection in a similar study would assure greater confidence in both the validity and reliability of the findings. The question of validity precedes the question of reliability. In this dissertation, the question can

be asked, “Does my questionnaire measure what it claims to measure?” Is it an accurate measure of the phenomenon being studied? Whereas reliability gauges the issue of consistency, and asks the question, “If this study is replicated, will the instrument yield similar results?”

The conceptual model of professionalism in policing as developed and identified in this research shows that policing occupies a position of importance in our society, and that the occupation of policing can be a true profession in every sense of the term. Professionalism in policing is both definable and achievable. On the basis of the various attributes as described, the fields of policing and law enforcement may claim high professional regard when adhering to the model as developed. However, as the data indicates, the attainment of professionalism in policing must be mandated from within the profession, rather than imposed by outside entities. The central focus of any professional role lies in the technical competence within that occupation. The professional framework developed in this research warrants further scientific investigation in defining the characteristics of the professional role and status of policing today.

## APPENDIX A

### INTRODUCTORY SCRIPT

January 25, 2009

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Dear Criminal Justice Expert:

I am conducting dissertation research in the development of a professional model of policing entitled '*In Pursuit of Police Professionalism: The Development and Assessment of a Conceptual Model of Professionalism in Law Enforcement.*' The purpose of this research is to define and identify the concept of professionalism in policing so as to operationalize and develop a working model for inclusion in policing in higher education environments.

Your participation in this research project is voluntary, but would be greatly appreciated. You may withdraw from this research project at any time. The research sample includes a small body of experts in the field, selected because of their educational, research, teaching, and/or professional backgrounds, and thus respective influences in the field as practitioners.

I shall be contacting you shortly via telephone to explain the research project in more detail and answer any questions you may have. The telephone conversation will not take more than a few minutes. I will then follow up the telephone call with a survey questionnaire – which shall only take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

My dissertation advisor is Dr. Glenn Nelson, Administrative and Policy Studies, School of Education, University of Pittsburgh, [gmnelson@pitt.edu](mailto:gmnelson@pitt.edu) .

I thank you for your time and consideration in this research project!

Respectfully, Jeff Schneider

**APPENDIX B**

**QUESTIONNAIRE – PROFESSIONAL MODEL OF POLICING (MAILED)**

Part I

- [1] How would you define a profession?
- [2] Is policing a profession?
- [3] How would you define professionalism?
- [4] What is the role of professionalism in policing?
- [5] The proposed exploratory Professional Model of Policing contains nine attributes. In terms of degree, rate them from 1-9, with 9 being most important, and 1 being least important in relation to professionalism in policing.

(Please mark 1-9 in the following spaces after the listed criteria)

- High standards of recruitment and selection (civil service) \_\_\_\_\_
- Formal education (college) requirements \_\_\_\_\_
- Formal training (police academy) and state certification \_\_\_\_\_
- State-mandated specialized training and re-certification (annual) \_\_\_\_\_
- Sworn police officers empowered to arrest \_\_\_\_\_
- Armed police officers (firearms) \_\_\_\_\_
- Formal policies (departmental) for operations and function \_\_\_\_\_
- Community policing (commitment and service) \_\_\_\_\_
- Accreditation \_\_\_\_\_

- [6] Of the nine items, what criteria are absolutely necessary for a police agency to be considered “professional” in policing? Which criteria, if any, are not necessary?
- [7] According to the dimensions of the Professional Model of Policing, as presented by this researcher, can those police agencies lacking some dimension(s) of the proposed professional model be described as “semi-professional”?
- [8] In viewing the concept of the Professional Model of Policing herein, as a specific measure of professionalism, can this Model be viewed as an “ideal type” for police professionalism?

Part II

For each item below, please circle the number that indicates your level of agreement or disagreement as it applies to the established criteria of professionalism in policing presented herein.

- 5=Strongly Agree
- 4=Agree
- 3=Neither Agree nor Disagree
- 2=Disagree
- 1=Strongly Disagree

SA      A      N      D      SD

- [1]    high standards of recruitment  
          and selection (civil service)
- [2]    formal education (college)  
          requirements
- [3]    formal training (police academy)  
          and state certification
- [4]    state-mandated (annual) specialized  
          training and re-certification
- [5]    sworn police officers empowered  
          to arrest
- [6]    armed police officers (firearms)
- [7]    formal policies (departmental) for  
          operations and function
- [8]    community policing  
          (commitment and service)
- [9]    accreditation

## **APPENDIX C**

### **TERMS AND CONCEPTS**

#### **Administrative Code of 1929**

Commonwealth of Pennsylvania statute, Title 71, Chapter 2, Article XXIV, 646, which grants police powers to the Capitol Police, Commonwealth Property Police, Security or Campus Police of all State colleges and universities, State-aided or related colleges and universities, and community colleges.

#### **bona fide occupational qualification**

Provides protection for employers who refuse to hire people not possessing the necessary (established) qualifications that are reasonably necessary to the normal operation of that particular business.

#### **CALEA**

The Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies, Inc., was created in 1979 as a credentialing authority for law enforcement agencies. The major function is to improve the delivery of public safety services by maintaining professional standards and to establish and administer an accreditation process.

**campus police**

All law enforcement personnel employed by a state-aided or state-related college or university who have successfully completed a campus police course of training approved under 53 Pa. C.S. Ch. 21, Subch. D (relating to municipal police education and training).

**campus safety officer**

College or university personnel responsible for health, welfare, and safety of campus community, property protection, securing buildings, responding to emergencies, rendering aid, programming, monitoring fire safety equipment, escorts, traffic control, enforcing parking regulations, etc. May be sworn police officers if applicable state training completed.

**certification**

The assignment of a certification number to a police officer after successful completion of a mandatory basic training course or receipt of a waiver of basic training from the Commission and successful completion on mandatory in-service training. Certification period is for two years.

**certified police officer**

A police officer who is authorized to enforce 18 Pa. C.S. (relating to the Crimes Code), moving violations of 75 Pa. C.S. (relating to the Vehicle Code), and carry a firearm.

**Civil Rights Act**

Title 42, Section 1983 of the U.S. Code that allows civil suits to be filed by employees against employers where discrimination is alleged in violation of both the “due process” and “equal protection” clauses of the 14<sup>th</sup> Amendment to the U.S. Constitution.

**college**

An institution that traditionally offers two-year, four-year degrees, as well as a specialized curriculum;

and/or:

A college that has a campus police department, as used in section 2416 of the act of April 9, 1929 (P.L. 177, No. 175), known as The Administrative Code of 1929, certified by the Office of Attorney General as a criminal justice agency under the definition of "criminal justice agency" in 18 Pa. C.S. 9102. The term does not include the State System of Higher Education (PASSHE) and its member institutions.

**Commission (the)**

The Municipal Police Education and Training Commission (MPOETC) of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.

**community policing**

A model of policing that stresses a two-way working relationship between the community and the police, in which the police become more integrated into the local community and citizens assume an active role in crime control and crime prevention.

**community service**

A police function that serves non-crime-related matters in a community or institutional setting – recreational, informational, and crime prevention programs aimed at meeting community needs.

**COPS**

The Community-Oriented Policing Services (COPS) was created by the U.S. Department of Justice in 1994 to add 100,000 new police officers to our nation's streets.

**equal protection clause**

The clause of the 14<sup>th</sup> Amendment to the U.S. Constitution guaranteeing to all citizens equal protection of the law, without regard to race, color, gender, class, origin, or religion.

**IACLEA**

The International Association of Campus Law Enforcement Administrators. Created in 1958 by eleven college and university security directors to advance public safety for educational institutions by providing resources, advocacy, and professional development services.

**IACP**

The International Association of Chiefs of Police was founded in Chicago in 1893 to advance the science and art of police work, promote improved practices, and enhance collaboration among police administrators.

**in-service training**

Mandatory police training required annually of all MPOETC trained and certified police officers in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania to maintain their certification as police officers, with minimum hours required in areas of legal updates, firearms training, First Aid and CPR training, and special topics. Commonly referred to as Act 180.

**LAPD**

The Los Angeles Police Department, California, is the fifth largest department in the United States, with 9,600 sworn officers covering an area of 473 square miles, with a population of 3.5 million people.

**law enforcement**

The generic term for the activities of the agencies responsible for maintaining public order and enforcement of the law, particularly the activities of preventing, detecting, and investigating crime and apprehending criminals.

**law enforcement agency**

A federal, state, or local criminal justice agency whose principal functions are the prevention, detection, and investigation of crime.

**law enforcement officer**

Any person who is by law given the power to enforce the law when acting within the scope of that person's employment.

## **LEAA**

Law Enforcement Assistance Administration was created by the federal government in 1968 by the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act. Now defunct, it funneled federal funding to state and local law enforcement agencies for training and education.

## **Metropolitan Police Act of 1829**

Was an Act of Parliament introduced by Sir Robert Peel and passed by the Parliament of the United Kingdom. The Act established the Metropolitan Police Service of London, replacing constables, as a more professional style of policing. It is considered the first modern police force and has served as a model for urban police departments throughout the English speaking world.

## **Mollen Commission**

Appointed in 1994 (New York) to investigate corruption in the N.Y.P.D. and to recommend change. Also known as *The City of New York Commission to Investigate Allegations of Police Corruption and the Anti-Corruption Procedures of the Police Department*.

## **MPOETC**

(Municipal Police Officer Education and Training Commission) The act of June 18, 1974 (P.L. 359, No. 120) (53 P.S. 740-749). The Commission, under the auspices of the Pennsylvania State Police, is responsible for municipal police officer certification and in-service training in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.

### **Municipal Police Education and Training Law**

(Act 120) All municipalities of the Commonwealth and all colleges and universities shall be required to train all members of their police departments pursuant to Title 53, Chapter 21 prior to enforcing criminal laws, moving traffic violations, or being authorized to carry a firearm.

### **National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals**

Appointed in 1971 by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) to formulate, for the first time, national criminal justice standards and goals for crime reduction and prevention at the state and local levels. In 1973 the Commission recommended guidelines covering all areas of police practices.

### **NSA**

The National Sheriff's Association, founded in 1940, is a U.S. trade association dedicated to raising the level of professionalism among sheriffs and deputies in the fields of criminal justice and public safety.

### **NYPD**

The New York City Police Department, established in 1845, is the largest police force in North America and is considered to be one of the first "modern" style police departments in the U.S.

**order maintenance**

A system of maintaining the day-to-day life of ordinary citizens – a primary goal of the criminal justice system. Also, the police function (non-crime fighting services) of preventing behavior that threatens or disturbs the public peace.

**PACE**

The Police Association for College Education was created to advance the quality of police agencies and services through police officer educational requirements.

**PCPA**

The Pennsylvania Chiefs of Police Association, formed in 1913 and comprised of over 1200 command level law enforcement officers. The organization is a professional network in areas such as education, training, consulting, legislation, and professionalism.

**PERF**

The Police Executive Research Forum is a national membership organization of police executives from the largest city, county, and state law enforcement agencies. Incorporated in 1977, the focus is on research, partnerships, public policy, grants, professional development, and training.

**police department**

A public agency of a political subdivision having general police powers and charged with making arrests in connection with the enforcement of criminal or traffic laws. This includes the sheriff's office in a county of the second class, a campus police or university police department, a railroad or street railway police department (under 22 Pa. C.S. Ch. 33), the Capitol Police, the Harrisburg International Airport Police, or an airport authority police department.

**police officer**

Any person who is by law given the power to arrest when acting within the scope of that person's employment., including any of the following: a police department of a county, city, borough, town, or township; any railway or street railway police; any college or university police department; the Capitol Police; The Harrisburg International Airport Police; an airport authority police department; a deputy sheriff of a county of the second class; a security officer of a first class city housing authority or a police officer of a second class city housing authority.

**PORAC**

The Peace Officers Research Association of California, founded in 1953 as a professional federation of local, state, and federal law enforcement agencies to promote professionalism in law enforcement.

**POST**

The Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, established by the Legislature in 1959 to set minimum selection and training standards for California Law Enforcement.

## **President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice**

(President's Crime Commission ) Established in 1965 by President Johnson who declared “war on crime,” the Commission studied aspects of the crime problem and the machinery of the criminal justice system. A series of task force reports was released on the police, courts, corrections, juvenile justice system, organized crime, drugs, science and technology, and the assessment of crime - summarized in the report: *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society*.

## **PSP**

The Pennsylvania State Police, the first modern state police force, was founded in 1905 in response to the coal and iron mill/mine strikes in Pennsylvania, by then Governor Samuel Pennypacker.

## **rank-and-file**

Police (patrol) officers of the law enforcement agency who form the bulk of the organization (about 60% of a department's personnel). They are the most visible members of the agency, often referred to as line personnel, and are the operational personnel that carry out the primary goals/functions of an agency: patrol, investigation, traffic, vice, and juvenile.

## **school**

A training school or academy that provides a basic police training course within the functional organization of a police department or departments or any educational facility in the Commonwealth.

**security officer**

Typically an independent contract service that provides protection of persons and property and security-related services, a night watchman type guard/role, proprietary agencies such as Wackenhut, Allied, Wells Fargo, Burns, Pinkerton, etc.

**SMSA**

Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area – an area comprised of at least one city of 50,000 inhabitants or more.

**university**

An institution which grants academic degrees at all levels (bachelor, master, doctorate) in a variety of subjects;

and/or

A university which has a campus police department as used in section 2416 of the act of April 9, 1929 (P.L. 177, No. 175), known as The Administrative Code of 1929, certified by the Office of Attorney General as a criminal justice agency under the definition of "criminal justice agency" in 18 Pa. C.S. 9102. The term does not include the State System of Higher Education (PASSHE) and its member institutions.

**Wickersham Commission**

(National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement) Created in 1929 by President Hoover as the first national commission to deal with crime, the criminal justice system, and the

police, particularly the state of training and education among police officers. It produced a series of 14 reports to identify and recommend appropriate public policy.

## **APPENDIX D**

### **RESPONDENTS**

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Sergeant, Retired, PA State Police  
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Patrick McHenry

Coroner, Crawford County (PA)  
Captain, Retired, PA State Police  
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Tom Nelson  
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Sheriff of Venango County  
Venango County Courthouse  
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Larry Silvis, M.S.  
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PA State Police, Retired  
District Court 35-3-02  
Jackson Center, PA 16133

Dan Songer  
Chief of Campus Police and Safety  
University of Pittsburgh at Bradford  
Bradford, PA 16701

Jeff Storm, B.A.  
Chief of Police  
City of Franklin  
Franklin, PA 16323

Fred Weaver, B.S.  
FBI National Academy  
Chief of Police, Retired  
Oil City Police Department  
Oil City, PA 16301

**Respondents for APS Research    N=25**

Art Amann	√
Frank Baranyi	√
George Barron	√
Kevin Courtright	√
Tim Delaney	
Bill Donahue	
Tony Gaskew	√
Kevin Grady	√
Dave Graff	√
Roger Gregorich	√
Frank Hagan	√
Tom Horan	√
Terry Hudec	√
Todd Johnson	√
Ken Kensill	√
Michael Klausner	√
Mark Krahe	
Patrick McHenry	√
Bill Montgomery	
Tom Nelson	√
Gene Price	√
Larry Silvis	√

Dan Songer          ✓

Jeff Storm          ✓

Fred Weaver          ✓

[21/25 = 84% response rate]

✓ Responded to Survey

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