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EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS, CRIMINAL JUSTICE MANPOWER NEEDS,
AND DIRECTIONS IN EDUCATION - FOCUS ON REGION X

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Part I: Criminal Justice Manpower Needs

Introduction

The last several years have seen a marked growth in studies which attempt to forecast manpower needs for various industries and professions. The need for these studies is clear. With increasing specialization, the requirement of long periods of training for many occupations, and a rapidly changing technology, it is often the case that the necessary trained manpower for certain occupational categories is not sufficient to meet the need. The shortage of teachers in the late 1950's and early 60's is an excellent example of this problem. The manpower problems were viewed as critical by so many that they led to the formation of a federal policy on manpower in the form of the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962. The major purpose of the act was to stimulate planning and research so that "current and prospective manpower shortages be identified and that persons who can be qualified for these positions through education and training be sought out and trained as quickly as is reasonably possible..." (Manpower Development and Training Act, as amended April 26, 1965). Since the passage of the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, manpower research has increased quantitatively and improved qualitatively. Most of this increased level of activity in manpower research has been the preserve of economists who have used traditional economic methods to forecast projected manpower needs in specific industries or professions as well as general manpower needs for the economy as a whole. The methods employed in these studies, for the most part, have been in use by economists for some time - standard growth curves for particular industries, market analysis, gross national product changes, and population forecasts from the census bureau. Success at forecasting future needs has been negligible and many manpower specialists have argued that these methods are grossly inadequate. Harbison and Meyers (1964) dismissed manpower forecasting and opted for a target-setting approach.

...(I)n estimating future requirements the human resource planner should concentrate on setting targets rather than on making forecasts. The purpose of target setting is not to make a prediction of what will take place; nor is it to make projections on the basis of limited assumptions of attainment of one or two specific objectives. Its purpose is rather to influence the future course of development. A target indicates a direction for action. Its precise quantitative dimension is far less important than its function of indicating the direction of activity for achievement of specific goals (p. 204, stress in original).

It would appear that many manpower economists are highly skeptical about the accuracy of manpower forecasting, indeed, Harbison and Meyers as quoted above opt for an entirely different approach and they are not alone in this skepticism (Parnes, 1962; Lester, 1966; Bowen, 1973). While many have pointed to problems of validity in attempts to forecast manpower needs, virtually all researchers have stressed the importance of manpower research and planning.

To cite Harbison and Meyers:

The problem of the shortage of high-level manpower has two facets: the generation of skills and the utilization of skills. In economic terms, these may be described as the process of formation investment of strategic human capital. Accumulated human capital may be efficiently employed, or it may be wastefully underutilized; it may be used for constructive, or for worthless or capricious, purposes (1964: 15).

Likewise Parnes (1962) declared:

In a free society, manpower planning aims to enlarge job opportunities and improve training and employment decisions, through the power of informed personal choice and calculated adjustment to rapidly changing demand. By means of more intelligent training and career decisions and greater adaptability of the nation's labor force, manpower planning can enhance satisfactions on the job, raise the quality and utilization of labor resources, reduce the cost of job search and industry staffing, and, thereby, increase the output of the nation (1962: 5).

It is a well established and valid belief that a notion of future manpower needs is essential if we are to avoid large scale labor shortages or surpluses, both of which can have profound adverse effects on the economy and people of a nation. But given the need for manpower research and planning, how do we go

about determining future manpower needs with accuracy? Since inaccurate forecasts could be as damaging as no forecasts, methods must be found which can validly predict future needs. Manpower forecasts for some segments of the economy are relatively straightforward, such as needs for teachers and carpenters. Likewise, predictions about the private sector of the economy are somewhat easier, in most instances, than forecasts concerning the public sector if only because of the availability of a wide range of data on industrial growth patterns, GNP changes, demographic characteristics and market data. Forecasting for the public sector economy is generally more difficult because (1) these projections do not operate with any set relationship to market data (2) they are much more vulnerable to changing governmental policy and public interests¹ and (3) it is difficult to develop measures of work output in many, if not most, public sector occupations.

Manpower researchers dealing with the public sector must develop some new tools which can provide them with information on which they can base valid projections for future manpower needs; in this sense, the "target setting" approach of Harbison and Meyers (1964) is probably the best approach for manpower research in the public sector. In the target-setting approach, goals are set concerning the types and amounts of manpower which are desirable within a given field. Instead of attempting to forecast the number of psychiatric social workers which will be needed at some future point in time using turnover rates, population trends and past growth patterns of the profession as data, it would be preferable for the researcher to set goals for a certain "ideal" ratio of the number of patients or clients per social worker and compute man-

¹ Witness for example the rapid decline in manpower associated with the Office of Economic Opportunity when funds began to dry up.

power needs from that ratio. In this way, educational programs could be planned which would provide the needed manpower. The target-setting approach would be much less dependent upon assumptions about the adequacy of current skill distributions and would become in effect advocacy for a perceived desirable outcome. This type of manpower research would also be of benefit to planners and policy makers in evaluating existing programs; indeed, the success of the research would be dependent upon cooperation between manpower researchers, planners, and policy makers.

Assumptions made in manpower forecasts are critical. At the same time, manpower forecasts very often fail to include the explicit assumptions upon which they are based. While somewhat critical in private sector forecasts, the lack of specific assumptions is especially crucial for the public sector and governmental programs in particular. On this point, one major advantage of a target-setting approach to manpower planning is that it is much less dependent upon a large number of questionable assumptions. An example may help to clarify this point. Current manpower research on the criminal justice system has produced projections of future needs by projecting current numbers of criminal justice personnel in a given population to future population estimates provided by the United States Bureau of the Census (State University System of Florida, 1973). This method makes several implicit assumptions: (1) that criminal justice personnel ratios will remain constant and will be effected only by population changes, (2) that the criminal justice system will remain internally consistent, i.e. that no new criminal justice roles will come into existence in the future and (3) that current levels of government funding in the criminal justice system

¹ Turnover rate is another variable which affects future manpower needs but it is usually handled by using a fixed estimate based upon current turnover rates and is not too important to deal with here.

will remain constant. None of these three assumptions appears to be very persuasive. These assumptions need not be made with a target-setting approach; in fact, the target-setting approach would seek to predict and plan for new roles as well as to present a case for where government funds should best be placed to achieve the objectives of the criminal justice system.

The National Criminal Justice Educational Development Project at Portland State University has been engaged in a regional manpower study as part of its project development responsibilities. The research has been designed and carried out with the above mentioned observations as a basic guide. The investigation is an attempt to influence the direction of the criminal justice system in the future as well as an endeavor to provide a comprehensive look at the current criminal justice system in the region and some rough estimates of future manpower needs. Some traditional indicators of future manpower needs will be used--population growth estimates, turnover rates and past growth trends--to make these estimates. The first part of this report presents a more or less traditional manpower needs assessment for the criminal justice system. The second part of the report provides an analysis of current educational programs engaged in criminal justice education within the region. The third part attempts to establish goals or targets for the criminal justice system in the next two decades and to look at the educational and training programs which will be needed if these goals or targets are to be reached. As an example, trends in diversion programs, alternatives to incarceration, and misdemeanor programs, to name only a few, will be examined and the types of persons needed to manage some of these new programs will be discussed. It is hoped that this report will provide information not only on the future manpower needs of the criminal justice system in the region as it is presently constituted but will

also provide a direction for criminal justice planners, educators and policy makers in the future. It is crucial that some examination of future or emergent areas of responsibility for the criminal justice system be made if planning is to be effective.

Criminal Justice Manpower in the Northwestern United States
(Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Montana, Alaska)

Some General Issues

With the exception of corrections personnel, there is a paucity of literature on criminal justice manpower both in the region and nationally. However, two general recommendations do emerge from the existing literature - first, the numbers of criminal justice personnel should be increased and second, the educational levels of criminal justice personnel must be raised. (Since the latter recommendation will be discussed in depth in the section on criminal justice education, it will only be briefly reviewed at this point). Basic to these recommendations is the assumption that implementation of them will reduce the amount of crime. Both assume that professionalism will reduce crime as evidenced by the following quote (President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967d: IX):

The fourth objective is that higher levels of knowledge, expertise, initiative and integrity be achieved by police, judges, prosecutors, defense attorneys, and correctional authorities so that the system of criminal justice can improve its ability to control crime.

Instead of discussing criminal justice manpower recommendations in general, the discussion below will deal with law enforcement and then the courts and corrections.

Law Enforcement

A survey of 300 police departments conducted in 1965 found that about two-thirds of the departments were below authorized strength (President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967c). These shortages ranged from an average of 5% to 10% for large city police departments. While the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice indicated that many departments were understaffed, it was reluctant to recommend optimum ratios of police to people (1967d: 106).

There appears to be no correlation between the differing concentrations of police and the amount of crime committed or the percentage of known crimes solved, in the various cities.

A similar position was taken by the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals which stated: "Officer to population ratios are often used to indicate total manpower need. There have been no compelling arguments in favor of police to people ratios..." (1973: 200). Both of these statements are supported by two recent studies of the police (Kelling et. al., 1974, and Wellford, 1974). Rather than recommend specific police-citizen ratios, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice suggested that each jurisdiction assess its own manpower needs (1967d). A final recommendation was that lateral entry be allowed for highly educated police candidates (The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967c).

With regard to educational requirements, higher educational levels for policemen have been almost universally advocated. As a beginning, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice recommended a high school degree as a minimum requirement for patrolmen and a college degree for all police administrators (1967c). The arguments for this recommendation centered

about the complexity and diversity of the policeman's role.

Similarly, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals recommended higher educational requirements for police officers (1973). Other reasons additional to the complexity of police work were offered for proposing higher educational requirements. For one, if police were to keep pace with educational levels within the general population, their educational attainment should be increased; for another, it was argued that college graduates are attracted to jobs where degrees are necessary. More specifically, it was recommended that all police departments require college degrees by 1982. Clearly, there is a trend toward more highly educated police, for in 1967, police agencies in only two states required education beyond high school, while in 1971, agencies in nine states required some college. In California alone, there were over 32 agencies which required education beyond high school for entry into their departments (National Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, 1973).

Implicit in the recommendations for higher educational levels for policemen is the notion that education enhances performance. While some have questioned the validity of this assumption, Charles Saunders (1970) has argued that the benefits of college education have not been demonstrated for many other occupations either. Probably the most convincing support of the assertion that education is beneficial to police performance is offered by Cohen and Chaihen (1972) who found that those officers with at least one year of college excelled over other patrolmen on several measures of performance. The former had fewer citizen complaints lodged against them, were more likely to be promoted, had fewer terminations and departmental discipline problems, and had less sick time than others. The only discrepant finding was that they were average on complaints of harassment.

Courts and Corrections

The literature on manpower in the courts is even more sparse and general as indicated by the following quote (President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967d: 129):

As an immediate step to meet the needs of the lower courts, the judicial manpower should be improved so that these courts will be able to cope with the volume of cases coming before them in a deliberate way. Prosecutors, probation officers, and defense counsel should be provided in courts where these officers are not found, or their members are insufficient.

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice also advocated presentence investigations for all offenders as well as probation services for both misdemeanants and felons (1967b). More generally, it was argued that implementation of recent Supreme Court decisions, particularly Gideon, given an expanding and shifting population, would increase the need for court personnel.

Recommendations concerning correctional manpower are more numerous and specific. A maximum caseload of 35 was proposed for probation and parole officers (President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967a) and although the ratios might vary by institution, one custodial officer for each six inmates was recommended (President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967d). Utilizing these ratios, the following manpower needs were projected (President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967a: 99).¹

¹ In an analysis of caseload research, Vetter and Adams (1971) found that the question of the relationship between caseload size and recidivism remains unresolved.

Table 1
 Manpower Requirements for American Corrections, 1965 and 1975
 by Personnel Categories

Personnel Category	Number Employed 1965	Number Needed 1965	Number Needed 1975
Group Supervisors	63,184	89,600	114,000
Case Managers	17,184	55,000	81,000
Specialists	6,657	20,400	28,000
Technicians	33,906	60,300	81,000
Totals	121,163	225,300	304,000

Projections are seriously questioned in several later reports by the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training. In one instance, a permanent inventory of correctional manpower is proposed, but the author continued on to observe: "Actions that result from the adoption of certain manpower projections create obsolescence in the projections themselves and the assumptions on which the forecasts are made are no longer valid." (Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1970: 29). An even more damaging criticism is offered in another report (Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1969a: 40):

In approaching this concern, we have assumed that there is no firm basis in existing concepts and practices for projecting manpower requirements. In effect the field does not sufficiently know itself to be clear as to the kinds and numbers of people it needs.

While these statements may undermine the validity of making correctional manpower forecasts, others have presented contrary viewpoints (Joint Commission

on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1968). Using official vacancies as a criterion for assessing manpower needs, the commission found employee shortages of 8.1 percent for probation and parole and 7.5 percent for correctional institutions in 1967. On the other hand, executives' assessments indicated probation and parole personnel shortages of about 39 percent and nearly 55 percent in 1967 and corresponding correctional institution employee shortages of 16 percent in 1966 and over 22 percent in 1967. The differences between official shortages and executives' assessments are not surprising because it is unlikely that the latter would indicate a surplus of personnel. However, it has been argued that executives are in the best position to assess personnel needs in that they are most likely to be cognizant of the problems and needs of their agencies and they are in a key position for hiring and firing personnel (Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1969b).

Paralleling the literature advocating higher educational requirements for the police, much of the correctional literature contains calls for more well educated correctional personnel, but the discussion of this literature will be limited to the second part on criminal justice education.

What are the implications of the recommendations on criminal justice manpower? In general, there is a plea for higher educational requirements as well as for increasing the numbers of criminal justice personnel. It is hoped that attainment of these objectives will ultimately reduce the amount of crime, but to date no one has demonstrated that either objective has an effect on the amount of crime.

Sources of Data and Techniques of Collection

A large number of different sources for criminal justice manpower data have been used for this study. An eclectic approach was necessitated by several data collection problems: first, none of the Region X states maintains centralized data on criminal justice manpower, forcing researchers to deal with individual agencies and programs; second, the multiplicity of funding sources for various agencies and programs leads to a number of autonomous and often duplicative operations and finally, many of the larger agencies have incomplete, inadequate or misleading data concerning manpower in their own area of responsibility. It is interesting to note here that the State Planning Agencies have almost no information on criminal justice manpower in their respective states and most have expressed a strong need for such information. This is not to say that criminal justice manpower information is unavailable but only that a variety of methods must be used to ferret out this data; interviews and questionnaires provide some information, previous research provides some statistics, and city and county budgets supply still more. Manpower research based upon any single technique of data collection should be highly suspect because of the complexity and independence of the system parts; indeed, it is probably inappropriate to speak of a criminal justice system, rather it must be viewed as a set of loosely organized subsystems related functionally but not administratively. Overcoming the research difficulties arising out of these facts of life requires a large number of letters, calls and visits to various agency heads to acquire whatever information is available from them, followed by considerable work picking and choosing those data which seem most reliable and

valid. The data finally obtained differ considerably by state. Complete or almost complete data have been obtained for Washington and Oregon, the two largest states. But, for the states of Idaho, Montana, and Alaska we have been forced to rely on LEAA and Census data for most of the manpower information.

National Data for Criminal Justice Manpower in the
States of Alaska, Idaho, Montana, Oregon, and Washington

The data on past and present criminal justice personnel will be presented in two parts - first, annual statistics collected nationally by the National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Bureau and by the United States Bureau of the Census (1969-72) and second, the most recent statistics available at the state and local levels. One of the reasons for separating the information is that the kinds and sources of data are different; it should be emphasized that they are not comparable. Because of the differences in the materials, methodological considerations will be discussed individually in each part.

Since 1969, national information on the numbers of criminal justice personnel and criminal justice expenditures has been compiled for each state, but presently only statistics through 1972 are available. These are the most complete data available nationally. Unfortunately the information on criminal justice expenditures is more comprehensive and detailed than the statistics on numbers of criminal justice personnel; the latter are most crucial to our study.

The information on criminal justice personnel and expenditures is grouped into several broad categories which are briefly described below:

- 1) Police Protection - This category includes law enforcement, traffic safety and detention at the local level. County detention workers are included in the corrections section.
- 2) Judicial-Court activities and activities associated with the courts (law libraries, medical and social services, and juries) are included in this group.
- 3) Prosecution - This category consists of attorney generals and their staff at the state level, and all district attorneys and their staff at the local level.
- 4) Indigent Defense - Included in this category are all persons provided by government provision of counsel.
- 5) Corrections - All persons involved in the confinement of adults and juveniles convicted of both criminal and status offenses as well as pardon, probation, and parole personnel are included in this group.
- 6) Other - This category is comprised of those whose tasks span more than one of these categories or who do not readily fit into any of the categories.

For our purposes, prosecution and indigent defense have been combined with the judicial category. The small numbers of personnel in prosecution and defense is the principal reason for collapsing these categories into one group.

Sources and Limitations of Data

The national data were collected by surveying all criminal justice agencies at the state level and a random sample of local governments. For the sample, a 95% confidence level with a standard error of less than 2% was reported for virtually all states (National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service and Census Bureau, 1969-72).

There are several limitations on the information collected nationally. For one, it excludes private criminal justice personnel and expenditures, a restriction which probably most greatly affects the corrections category. Certain other kinds of personnel are also excluded - most notably criminal justice planners and criminal justice faculty members (although this varies by year). Additionally, no distinction is made between functional and support positions, that is, between positions which directly relate to criminal justice and ones which are not specific to criminal justice. For example, a typist is supportive while a probation officer is functional.

Table 2

Percentages of Criminal Justice Personnel by Government Level and Year

Level of Government	Year			
	1969	1970	1971	1972
Federal	7.6	7.7	9.0	9.5
State	22.0	22.2	23.9	24.1
Local	<u>70.4</u>	<u>70.1</u>	<u>67.1</u>	<u>66.4</u>
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Another restriction is that federal data on criminal justice employment and expenditures are not presented by state. As Table 2 indicates, about eight to ten percent (depending on the year) of the total number of criminal justice persons are employed at the federal level. Accordingly, at least ninety percent of the total number of personnel and expenditures are of concern to us in this presentation; despite the other persons and expenditures

excluded, the information probably covers a major (but unknown) proportion of the expenditures and persons in criminal justice.

Data Presentation

Two kinds of data will be presented - first, ratios of criminal justice personnel per 1000 population and then criminal justice expenditures per capita. One advantage of using ratios instead of total numbers of personnel or expenditures is that they take into account population growth. The ratios for personnel were computed by using population estimates provided by the Bureau of the Census and the numbers of full-time equivalent employees.

Ratios of criminal justice personnel have generally been increasing in the five states since 1969 (see Table 3); these ratios are increasing in all categories of personnel, although there are some variations between states. The most dramatic increases have occurred in Alaska (from 3.5 to 6.0 criminal justice personnel per thousand population), with the greatest increases in the police protection sector where the ratio has more than doubled since 1969.

The ratios have also risen in the remaining four states, although there are negligible increases in the police protection category, with the exception of Washington. There are also only slight increases for the four states in the judicial and corrections categories. In comparing the totals for these five states with the totals for the other forty-five states, corresponding increases are evident nationwide. The greatest differences are in the police protection and corrections sectors. The police ratios are consistently larger for the forty-five states while the opposite holds for corrections personnel.

Table 3

Ratios of F.T.E. Criminal Justice Personnel
Per 1000 Population by State and Year

<u>Year</u>	<u>Categories</u>				
	Total	Police Protection	Judicial	Corrections	Other
Alaska					
1969	3.5	1.4	1.0	1.2	---
1970	4.5	1.8	1.4	1.2	---
1971	5.3	2.4	1.7	1.2	*
1972	6.0	2.9	1.7	1.4	*
Idaho					
1969	2.8	1.8	.6	.4	---
1970	2.7	1.7	.5	.4	*
1971	3.1	1.9	.6	.6	*
1972	3.3	1.9	.7	.6	*
Montana					
1969	3.1	2.0	.6	.7	---
1970	3.4	2.0	.7	.7	---
1971	3.3	1.9	.6	.8	*
1972	3.5	2.0	.7	.8	.1
Oregon					
1969	3.4	1.9	.6	.9	---
1970	3.5	1.9	.6	.9	---
1971	3.7	2.0	.8	.9	*
1972	3.8	1.9	.8	1.0	.1
Washington					
1969	3.0	1.7	.4	.7	---
1970	3.2	1.7	.6	.7	*
1971	3.6	2.0	.6	.8	*
1972	3.7	2.0	.7	.8	*

Table 3

Year	Categories				
	Total	Police Protection	Judicial	Corrections	Other
Total for Five States					
1969	3.1	1.8	.5	.8	---
1970	3.3	1.8	.6	.8	*
1971	3.6	2.0	.7	.9	*
1972	3.8	2.0	.7	1.0	*
National Totals Excluding Five States					
1969	3.3	2.1	.5	.7	---
1970	3.5	2.2	.6	.7	*
1971	3.8	2.3	.7	.8	*
1972	3.9	2.3	.7	.8	*

* Less than .1

Table 4

Total Criminal Justice per Capita Expenditures by State and Year

<u>State</u>	<u>Year</u>			
	1969	1970	1971	1972
Alaska	55.8	70.1	104.8	114.0
Idaho	23.3	24.2	30.9	34.2
Montana	22.7	25.5	28.3	33.8
Oregon	30.6	37.1	42.8	48.0
Washington	31.0	37.6	43.7	45.8
Total for 5 states	30.4	36.3	43.3	47.1
National Total Excluding 5 States	32.0	37.3	45.2	49.2

One obvious explanation of the increasing ratios is the increasing state and local criminal justice per capita expenditures (federal expenditures are excluded). These ratios have again been computed using population estimates provided by the census bureau and total expenditure for "...all amounts direct and intergovernmental, spent primarily for a particular function," (National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service, 1969:5). Like the ratios of criminal justice personnel, the greatest increases in per capita expenditures have occurred in Alaska, with the other states showing smaller but consistent increases (see Table 4). It can also be seen that total per capita expenditures for the five states closely parallel those for the other forty-five states.

Clearly then, criminal justice personnel ratios and per capita expenditures have been increasing since 1969 and increased per capita expenditures are one possible explanation of the rising criminal justice personnel ratios. All of this suggests that criminal justice is receiving greater attention from state and local governments and implicit is the notion that by infusing more money and personnel into the system a reduction in the crime rate will result.

The Individual States (Washington and Oregon)

This section presents data acquired from sources within each state. Information for only two states, Washington and Oregon, is presented here. Idaho, Montana and Alaska provided insufficient data on current manpower to warrant inclusion in this section; for these states, we must rely on the LEAA and Census Bureau statistics presented in the section above. The information for Washington and Oregon is presented in the same functional categories as were the national data in the former section but with the inclusion of a planners and researchers category. We felt it important to include this additional category, even though the number of people is quite small, mainly because of the recent growth and development of this field.

Washington

Probably the most comprehensive and complete data on criminal justice personnel are available for the State of Washington. This information has been obtained from three primary sources (Law and Justice Planning Office, 1974; Office of the Administrator of the Courts, 1974; Office of the Attorney General, 1974), and some additional information is available about state and

local criminal justice planners. Data on these four categories will be presented individually, beginning with police protection, then judicial, corrections and finally planning.

The definitions for these categories are similar to the ones for the national data, but each will be defined (if at all) as it is in the particular report. Perhaps the greatest problem area in interpreting these data has to do with duplication of specific persons in both the judicial and corrections segments, thereby inflating the number of persons in these categories. Both sets of data will be presented, in that we have no way of isolating instances of duplication in these data.

Police Protection

The Office of the Attorney General (1974) of Washington State has recently published a survey of law enforcement, including a variety of information about city and county law enforcement in Washington in 1973. Four kinds of information will be examined--commissioned and non-commissioned personnel by work categories (as well as budgeted positions which are vacant), attrition data, agency educational requirements, and finally educational attainment of law enforcement personnel with arrest authority.

One of the shortcomings of this survey is that it excludes data on state law enforcement personnel. Another is that all terms used in the report are undefined.

Table 5
 Percentages of Commissioned and Non-Commissioned Personnel¹
 By Assignment and Budgeted Vacancies

	Commissioned (N=5189)	Non-Commissioned (N=1310)	Totals (N=6499)
Administration	8.2	9.7	8.5
Jail	4.8	17.6	7.4
Patrol	52.6	5.7	43.1
Traffic	9.4	5.4	8.4
Juvenile	3.0	1.2	2.7
Vice and Narcotics	4.3	.5	3.6
Community Relations	2.1	1.1	1.9
Detective	9.4	2.7	8.0
School Patrol	.4	7.8	1.9
I.D. and Records	2.5	20.6	6.2
Lab	.4	1.4	.6
Communications Dispatcher	3.0	26.1	7.6
Total	100.1	99.8	99.9
Percentage of total Positions vacant	1.0	4.0	1.6

¹ These are budgeted positions which have been vacant for 30 days or longer.

There were approximately 6,500 city and county law enforcement personnel in Washington in 1973 (see Table 5) and of this total nearly 5,200 (about 80 percent) were commissioned while only about 1,300 (over 25 percent) were non-commissioned. For commissioned personnel, slightly more than half worked in patrol, while almost half of the non-commissioned personnel worked in either I.D. and records or as communications dispatchers. Relatively large proportions of sworn personnel also worked in administration (over 8 percent), traffic (more than 9 percent), or as detectives (more than 9 percent). In contrast, nearly 10 percent of non-commissioned personnel worked in administration, almost 18 percent in jails, and close to 8 percent in school patrols. With the exception of administration, there are differences in the concentrations of sworn and non-commissioned personnel, with the former concentrated in areas where arrest authority may be necessary and the latter located in support functions. Finally, Table 5 indicates that few budgeted positions were vacant in 1973, with less than 2 percent of the total positions left unfilled.

With regard to attrition, Table 6 indicates that the total personnel turnover for 1973 was about 7.5 percent, but if those who left to work in other police agencies are eliminated this percentage drops to about 6.5 percent. (The importance of this information will become more clear in the manpower projections).

Table 6

Percentages of Officers Lost to Attrition in 1973 (N=395)

Reasons for Leaving Agency		Percentage of Total Officers (N=5189)
Left to work in private industry	49.3	3.8
Left to work in other criminal justice agencies	16.2	1.2
Retired	34.4	2.6
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Totals	99.9	7.6

Table 7

Educational Requirements for City and County Law Enforcement Agencies (N=140)

<u>Degree Level</u>	<u>Percentage of Agencies</u>
Some College	1.4
Two years of college	2.9
One year of college	1.4
High School degree (G.E.D)	87.9
None	6.4
	<hr/>
	100.0

Even in 1973, there were relatively few Washington agencies which required an education beyond high school (see Table 7). The proportion of agencies requiring a high school education was less than 6 percent, while over 6 percent of the agencies surveyed had no educational requirement. This suggests that no general trend toward high educational requirements in the State of Washington has yet developed.

Table 8
Educational Attainment of Law Enforcement Personnel
With Arrest Authority (N=4575)

<u>Degree Level</u>	<u>Percentage of Employees</u>
Graduate degree	1.1
Some graduate work	2.8
Four years of college	10.5
Two years of college	22.1
Less than two years of college	32.1
High school degree (G.E.D.)	30.6
Some high school	.9
	<hr/>
	100.1

There are considerable differences between educational requirements for agencies and the educational levels of persons with arrest authority working in those agencies, for nearly 79 percent of all personnel with arrest authority have attended some college. However, we would be hesitant to make too much of this finding because agencies are being compared with personnel, and the former does not control for the numbers of employees working in particular agencies. Nevertheless, this information indicates that the majority of those personnel with arrest authority in Washington have at least attended some college.

Judicial

Data on judicial workers were collected for December, 1973 for the State of Washington (Office of the Administration of the Courts, 1974); all court employees for the state were included in the survey. Not only were judicial personnel included but also probation and detention staff who fall under the responsibility of the various courts. Data were broken into several broad categories of personnel which are briefly defined below (Office of the Administrator of the Courts, 1974: 28):¹

<u>Management:</u>	County Clerks, Court Administrators, Detention Superintendent, Probation Supervisors, etc.
<u>Support Staff:</u>	Secretaries, receptionists, nurses, cooks, telephone operators, clerks in detention and probation departments, etc.
<u>Function Staff:</u>	Court-clerks, bailiffs, reporters, etc. Detention-any position which supervises detained children, such as; matrons, housekeepers, etc. Probation-probation officers, juvenile officers, etc.
<u>Specialists:</u>	Court-planners, data processing, traffic referees, etc.

¹ Judicial, court administrative, detention and probation were left undefined.

Detention-volunteer coordinators, swimming instructors, recreation leaders, etc.

Probation-employment counselors, foster home positions, education, transportation, etc.

The make-up of the Washington court system is presented in Table 9. A small share of total personnel (about 18 percent) works in the judicial sector, the majority (about 50 percent) are employed in court administration, and about one-third are involved either in detention or probation. When full-time personnel only are examined, we find that less than 10 percent work in the judicial category, over 55 percent in court administration, and more than 35 percent in detention or probation. Clearly judicial workers¹ (judges and commissioners) represent only a small segment of the functionaries in the Washington court system (only about one-fifth of all personnel and less than a tenth of full-time personnel).

A different picture emerges when employees are examined within the categories of function, management, support, specialist, and maintenance (see Table 10). Of the total workers over three-fourths are function staff, about 7 percent are management, slightly over 13 percent are support, and small proportions are either specialist or maintenance. If only full-time personnel are examined, over seven-tenths are function staff while less than a quarter are management or support and less than 5 percent are specialist or maintenance workers. Regardless of whether total personnel or only full-time employees are examined, a large share of the staff in the Washington court system is found in the functional category.

1 Commissioners were left undefined but we assume that they have judicial authority similar to judges.

Table 9

Statewide Personnel Summary
(Superior, Justice and Municipal Courts)

Total Pers.	Full Time	Part Time	Occas.	Function	Type of Staff
349	158	186	5	Judicial	Judges
<u>81</u>	<u>24</u>	<u>50</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Judicial</u>	<u>Commissioners</u>
430	182	236	12	Total Judicial (17.7%) Full-Time Judicial (9.4%)	
109	108	1	0	Ct. Administrative	Management
159	144	10	5	Ct. Administrative	Support Staff
906	767	94	45	Ct. Administrative	Function Staff
38	37	1	0	Ct. Administrative	Specialists
<u>12</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>Ct. Administrative</u>	<u>Maintenance</u>
1224	1,068	106	50	Total Ct. Administrative (50.3%) Full-time Ct. Administrative (55.4%)	
24	24	0	0	Dentention	Management
41	31	1	9	Dentention	Support Staff
247	209	9	29	Dentention	Function Staff
6	6	0	0	Dentention	Specialists
<u>15</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>Dentention</u>	<u>Maintenance</u>
333	280	11	42	Total Dentention (13.7%) Full-time Dentention (14.5%)	
44	42	2	0	Probation	Management
119	102	13	4	Probation	Support Staff
259	241	18	0	Probation	Function Staff
18	11	7	0	Probation	Specialists
<u>4</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>Probation</u>	<u>Maintenance</u>
444	400	40	4	Total Probation (18.3%) Full-time Probation (20.7%)	
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	
2431	1,930	393	108	Total Personnel	

Table 10
Numbers and Percentages of Personnel by Function

<u>Function</u>	<u>Total Personnel</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Full-time</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Part-time</u>	<u>Occasional</u>
Function Staff	1,842	75.8	1,399	72.4	357	86
Management	177	7.3	174	9.0	3	0
Support	319	13.1	277	14.4	24	18
Specialist	62	2.6	54	2.8	8	0
Maintenance	31	1.3	26	1.3	1	4
Totals	2,431	100.1	1,930	99.9	393	108

Corrections

Corrections personnel information is least adequate for the state, although presently a comprehensive corrections survey is being undertaken. Part of the problem is that there may be some overlap between detention and probation data in the judicial section. Further, some of the reported information consists of personnel estimates, rather than actual counts of employees. This information includes numbers of correctional personnel at the city, county, state, and federal level.

Almost two-thirds of the correctional personnel in Washington work with adult offenders and more than a third work with juvenile delinquents (see Table 11). Of the juvenile workers, nearly 70 percent are treatment agents while only about 13 percent work in administration and almost 20 percent in custody. In contrast,

Table 11
 Percentages of Juvenile and Adult Correctional Employees¹
 for the State of Washington in 1974

<u>Juvenile</u>	<u>Administration</u>	<u>Custody</u>	<u>Treatment</u>	<u>Total</u>
	13.4	17.8	69.0	36.7 (N=1684)
<u>Adult</u>	18.8	54.8	26.4	63.3 (N=2903)
<u>Totals for Juveniles and Adults</u>	16.8	41.2	41.9	100.0 (N=4587)

the majority (nearly 55 percent) of the adult employees are involved in custody while close to a fifth engage in administration and slightly more than a quarter in treatment. Although there are not great differences between the proportions of adult and juvenile administrative staff, the proportions of custody and treatment staff are nearly reversed, indicating that custodial tasks are predominant in adult corrections in Washington, while treatment is the central concern of juvenile programs.²

1 There are an estimated 5,000 volunteers in corrections. This data excludes social service agencies who work with correctional clients, i.e., drop-in centers, drug centers, family problems, employment, education, foster services, residential child care, private group homes, etc.

2 This is probably true in other Region X states as well as nationally.

Criminal Justice Planners and Researchers

The Law and Justice Planning Office (state planning agency) in Washington has a total of twenty-five employees and of this total six are clerical staff and the remaining nineteen persons have positions directly related to planning or the management of the agency.

Washington is also comprised of nineteen regional criminal justice planning agencies which range in size from one person in some of the smaller regions to ten employees in Seattle. A total of thirty-seven persons work in these agencies. Planning represents a small component of the criminal justice system in Washington, for there are only about 62 planners in the entire state. Of course, this figure ignores planners in the police protection, judicial, and corrections sectors as well as local planners at the city and county levels, so that we would suspect that this number is actually considerably larger.

Oregon

Police Protection

Data for manpower in police protection services in Oregon were secured from the State Board of Police Standards and Training. The board certifies all law enforcement officers in the state from cities and counties with a population of 1000 or greater; in addition, better than fifty percent of the officers from communities under 1000 population are certified by the board. The data presented below are based on a survey of 136 Oregon law enforcement organizations. These organizations employ a total of 4,154 persons and serve 86.8 percent of the state's population. An additional 963 persons are employed by the Oregon State Police.

Table 12
Oregon Law Enforcement Manpower*
Fiscal Year 74-75

Sworn Personnel	Civilian	Percent Sworn	Number of Sworn Personnel/1000 Pop.	Total Personnel
4,011	1,106	78.4	1.65	5,117

* Numbers based on a sample.

The number of sworn personnel per thousand citizens shown in Table 12 may be somewhat misleading; Table 13 shows the wide range of sworn municipal police per thousand population.

Table 13
Sworn Officers per 1000 Population by Municipal Population

Municipal Population	Number of Cities Reporting	Number Sworn per 1000 Population
Under 1000	16	3.26
1000-5000	54	2.25
5000-10,000	14	1.81
10,000-25,000	17	1.67
25,000-50,000	2	1.46
Over 50,000	3	1.78

The problem of setting ideal or acceptable police/population ratios will not be dealt with here due to the large number of variables which must be taken into account in determining those ratios. Crime rate, geographical area served, demographic factors, transportation patterns and funding levels influence police manpower needs; these needs could most adequately be set within the individual jurisdictions.

Table 14 supplies summary data on educational requirements for 132 Oregon law enforcement agencies.

Table 14

Educational Requirements for Oregon Law Enforcement Agencies

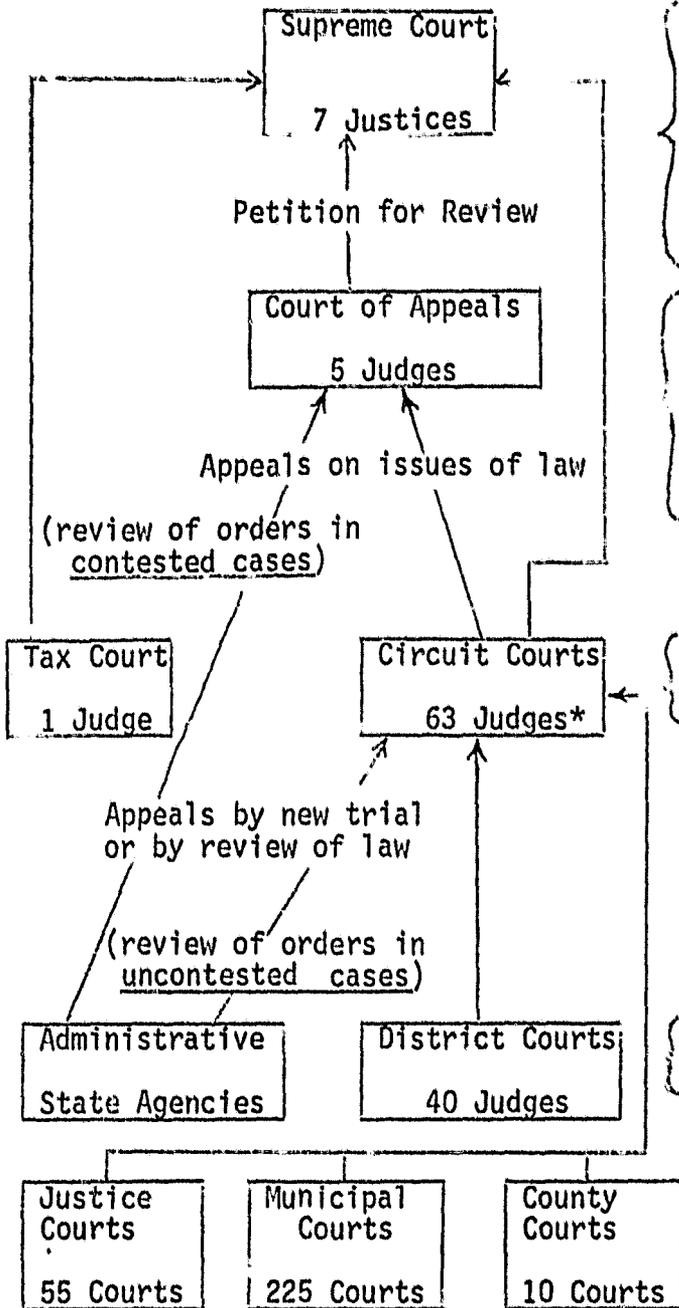
Educational Level	Number and Percentage of Agencies Requiring at each Level	
College Degree	1	(.7%)
College Preferred	15	(11.4%)
A.A. Degree or Two Years of College	4	(3.0)
High School Graduation or Equivalent (G.E.D.)	109	(82.6)
No Educational requirements	3	(2.3%)
	N= 132	(100.0%)

As with police/population ratios, a wide range of educational requirements is represented. A great majority of agencies require at least a high school level education (82.6 percent)(The Multnomah County Sheriff's Department is especially interesting in that it is the only law enforcement agency in the northwest to require a college degree for employment). While no specific data on the actual educational attainment of Oregon police personnel are available it is certain that the level is considerably higher than the minimal requirements: we can be confident in making this claim for two basic reasons: (1) The achievement of intermediate and advanced certification from the Board of Police Standards and Training tends to favor educational advancement over training and/or experience and (2) in a tight employment market (Oregon's unemployment rate was 7.5 in December, 1974) newly employed persons generally rank considerably above minimum requirements.

Judicial

Manpower data within the judicial sectors of Oregon are somewhat sketchy. Oregon's court system consists of a supreme court, a court of appeals, a tax court, the circuit courts, the district courts and a number of local courts. Table 15 illustrates the method by which cases come before the higher courts and the number of judges in these courts, exclusive of the local courts. The local courts all have very limited jurisdictions. The justice and county courts are largely remnants of territorial days and are not a significant part of the criminal justice system; indeed, at present no county judges are law trained.¹ The municipal courts vary considerably in the amount and types of cases heard.

¹ Local courts are not seen as a significant part of the state court system, they are, however, important at the local level. Gibbons (1972) pointed out the importance of these courts for local jurisdictions, especially in the area of juvenile justice.



Discretionary original jurisdiction in mandamus, quo warranto and habeas corpus proceedings; Appellate jurisdiction in cases involving real property, contracts, torts, appeals from the Tax Court, and in all appeals in which the Court of Appeals does not have jurisdiction.

Exclusive appellate jurisdiction in criminal, post-conviction and habeas corpus; probate; domestic relations, adoptions and juvenile matters; appeal of cases where government agency is a party except where the Oregon Tax Court has jurisdiction.

General trial and limited appellate jurisdiction.

Limited jurisdiction trial courts and tribunals.

* As of 1/1/73

Many of the municipal court judges in smaller communities have no legal training (Office of the State Court Administrator, 1972).

The prosecuting arm of the judicial segment is represented at the state and county levels. At the state level there are approximately 80 attorneys (the Attorney General plus his assistants). Additional support staff comprised of special investigators, executive assistants and clerical people are not included in the above total. Each county in Oregon has one district attorney (36 total) and these district attorneys have anywhere from no deputies in the smallest counties to fifty deputy district attorneys in Multnomah, the largest county (177 total).

Corrections

Correctional manpower is employed primarily at the state level through the Division of Corrections with some correctional workers at the county level, primarily in Sheriff's Departments and juvenile services areas. In addition, juvenile corrections persons are employed by the state Division of Child Services. City correctional agencies and privately operated programs are not included in Table 16 because of the difficulty that would be involved in acquiring these data from these sources and also because the number of employees was not considered large enough to warrant the time needed to acquire this information.

Table 16

Oregon Correctional Manpower

(Totals exclude support personnel - secretaries, clerks, etc.)

	State Corrections Division	Childrens' Services Division	County Correctional Personnel ₂	County Juvenile Services
Admin.	75 (10.5%)	Custody 185 (21.5%)	Custody 255 (90.5%)	Total 349
Custody	382 (53.5%)	Treat- ment 676 (78.5%)	Treat- ment 27 (9.5%)	
Treat- ment	235 (33.0%)	Total 861 ₁ (100.0%)	Total 282 ₃ (100.0%)	
Other	20 (3.0%)			
Total	712 (100.0%)			

1. Estimated 706 of total work exclusively or primarily with delinquents.
2. Some county corrections personnel are included in police protection count in Table 12 as most jail personnel are with Sheriff's Departments.
3. This number probably considerably underestimates actual count - many cities and private agencies employ some treatment personnel.
4. Only total is given as there are no distinctions made between custody and treatment personnel.

Criminal Justice Planning and Research

It has been exceedingly difficult to get an accurate count of planners and researchers in the criminal justice system in Oregon. Planners are employed by a number of governmental agencies. This section will deal only with those planners and researchers at the state and regional level and with some data for Multnomah County. The Oregon Law Enforcement Council, Oregon's State Planning Agency, employs approximately twenty-five professional workers excluding

Table 17
Oregon Criminal Justice Planners
(estimated)

State Planning Agency	Regional Planning Agencies	Local Planning Agencies	Total
25 (36.2%)	24 (34.8%)	20 (29.0%)	69 (100%) ₁

1 Total does not include researchers and planners on special or short term grant projects of which there are a relatively large number in Oregon.

support staff. In addition to the State Planning Agency there are fourteen administrative districts funded by the state and employing anywhere from one part-time criminal justice planner in the smallest districts to five full-time professional planners in the largest district. It must be remembered that Table 17 above is not a comprehensive count of all planners and researchers in the state. A number of planners and researchers are employed in projects and research grants in the state. For example, the IMPACT project in Portland employs several researchers who are not included in our count. This is justifiable because of the temporary nature of these projects and because the number of people employed is highly variable.

Criminal Justice Manpower Needs for Northwestern United States

Since 1969, LEAA and the United States Bureau of the Census have collected data on criminal justice employees nationally. (See section on national data for an explanation of the methodology used). This is the most complete and uniform information available for the five states. Utilizing 1972 as the baseline year, criminal justice manpower needs have been computed for five Northwestern states (Alaska, Idaho, Montana, Oregon and Washington) for the years 1980, 1985 and 1990. The manpower needs for these years were developed from linear projections based upon a fertility ratio of 2.11 children per woman of childbearing age,¹ annual turnover rates of 5 and 15 percent, and ratios of criminal justice employees per 1000 population. Three different ratios were used, the present ratios, 10 percent above and 10 percent below the present ratios.

A fertility rate of 2.11 was chosen because this is the most likely rate expected by the Bureau of the Census based upon current trends. It is unlikely that the fertility rate will reach 2.78 at any time between now and 1990; indeed, the most recent data available from the census, 1973 (Statistical Bulletin, 1974) suggest that the fertility rate is continuing to drop.

The turnover rates of 5 and 15 percent were chosen from a limited amount of data on selected occupational categories in Washington and Montana. Montana reported a turnover rate of 16.1 percent for sworn law enforcement employees in 1973, while Washington reported that about 6.5 percent left law enforcement in that same year. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967c) indicated that many new law enforcement employees would be

¹ Projections were also developed based upon 2.78 fertility rate and are appended, but since this rate is less likely it is not reported in the text.

necessary in the late 60's and early 70's to replace those hired following World War II. From this information turnover rates between 5 and 15 percent might be expected, with actual rates coming closest to 15 percent.

The ratios of personnel per 1000 population are based upon actual ratios computed from the LEAA and census data. In addition to using present ratios, a 10 percent ratio increase and a 10 percent decrease were computed; these increases and decreases were computed for 1980, 1985, 1990. The numbers of new criminal justice employees needed under each of the assumptions explicated above are shown in Table 18.

As can be seen from Table 18, there is wide disparity in the numbers of new personnel needed depending upon the assumptions used; the most important variable is the attrition rate. The total number of new employees needed in 1990 at the present ratio of employees per 1,000 population varies from 34,890 with a 5 percent attrition rate to 91,047 with a 15 percent attrition rate. Clearly, the attrition rate is a significant variable when planning manpower needs. The lack of adequate data on system wide attrition rates makes it all but impossible to arrive at firm manpower figures. Attrition rates present the manpower researcher with another problem also. What happens to the employees after leaving an agency? While many retire and leave the labor force, an unknown proportion find other jobs within the criminal justice system. There are no data which suggest where these people are going or how many of them remain in the criminal justice system; without this information projections of future needs enter the realm of conjecture. A complete set of projections by state, region and the nation are presented in the appendix.

Table 18

Cumulative Numbers of New Criminal Justice Employees
 Needed by Rate of Attrition, Ratio of Criminal Justice Personnel/1,000 Population,
 and Year (2:11 Fertility Rate) Employment Categories

(5% Attrition Rate)

Year	Employees/1,000	Police	Courts	Corrections	Other	Total
1980	-10%	5,885	2,193	2,916	92	11,089
	same	7,850	2,925	3,890	123	14,790
	+10%	9,814	3,657	4,863	154	18,491
1985	-10%	8,733	3,254	4,327	137	16,454
	same	13,102	4,883	6,493	206	24,685
	+10%	17,889	6,667	8,865	282	33,704
1990	-10%	11,336	4,225	5,617	178	21,358
	same	18,519	6,901	9,177	292	34,890
	+10%	27,109	10,103	13,433	427	51,074

(15% Attrition Rate)

1980	-10%	17,686	6,591	8,764	279	33,332
	same	20,289	7,561	10,054	320	38,226
	+10%	22,892	8,531	11,344	361	43,129
1985	-10%	27,513	10,254	13,634	434	51,836
	same	33,975	12,662	16,836	536	64,010
	+10%	40,990	15,276	20,312	647	77,227
1990	-10%	36,771	13,704	18,221	580	69,278
	same	48,336	18,010	23,947	762	91,047
	+10%	61,889	23,065	30,669	977	116,601

The reader is advised again to exercise caution in the interpretation of the projections presented here. In the initial section of this report a number of problems were explicated concerning the validity of manpower projections; they should be taken seriously.

Cumulative Numbers of Criminal Justice Employees needed
by Rate of Attrition, Ratio of Criminal Justice Personnel/1,000 Population,
and State for the Year 1980 (2.11 Fertility Rate)

State		15% Attrition Rate			5% Attrition Rate		
		Employees/1,000			Employees/1,000		
		+10%	Same	-10%	+10%	Same	-10%
Alaska	Total	2887	2554	2222	1210	959	707
	Police	1402	1241	1079	588	466	343
	Courts	820	726	631	344	272	201
	Corr.	656	580	504	275	218	160
	Other	7	6	5	3	2	1
Idaho	Total	3336	2941	2547	1290	993	696
	Police	1968	1735	1502	761	586	410
	Courts.	726	640	554	280	216	151
	Corr.	620	547	473	240	184	129
	Other	21	19	16	8	6	4
Montana	Total	3457	3049	2642	1334	1028	722
	Police	1934	1706	1478	746	575	403
	Courts	641	565	489	247	190	133
	Corr.	769	671	581	293	226	158
	Other	68	60	52	26	20	14
Oregon	Total	12,708	11,259	9810	5443	4349	3254
	Police	6616	5862	5108	2834	2264	1694
	Courts	2623	2324	2025	1123	897	671
	Corr.	3270	2897	2524	1400	1119	837
	Other	198	175	152	84	67	50

State		15% Attrition Rate			5% Attrition Rate		
		Employees/1,000			Employees/1,000		
		+10%	Same	-10%	+10%	Same	-10%
Washington	Total	20,757	18,435	16,113	9237	7482	5728
	Police	10,940	9716	8492	4868	3943	3019
	Courts	3684	3272	2860	1639	1328	1016
	Corr.	6077	5397	4717	2704	2190	1677
	Other	55	49	43	24	20	15
5 States	Total	43,129	38,226	33,322	18,491	14,790	11,089
	Police	22,892	20,289	17,686	9814	7850	5885
	Courts	8531	7561	6591	3657	2925	2193
	Corr.	11,344	10,054	8764	4863	3890	2916
	Other	361	320	279	154	123	92
Excluding 5 States	Total	1183,431	1047,971	912,511	498,111	395,951	293,791
	Police	710,428	629,110	547,791	299,022	237,694	176,366
	Courts	210,242	186,177	162,111	88,491	70,342	52,193
	Corr.	257,015	227,596	198,177	108,178	85,991	63,805
	Other	5,745	5,087	4,430	2,418	1,922	1,426

Cumulative Numbers of Criminal Justice Employees Needed
by Rate of Attrition, Ratio of Criminal Justice Personnel/1,000 Population,
and State for the Year 1985 (2.11 Fertility Rate)

State		15% Attrition Rate			5% Attrition Rate		
		Employees/1,000			Employees/1,000		
		+10%	Same	-10%	+10%	Same	-10%
Alaska	Total	5203	4305	3479	2243	1630	1071
	Police	2528	2092	1690	1089	792	520
	Courts	1479	1224	989	637	463	304
	Other	13	11	8	5	4	2
Idaho	Total	5970	4926	3965	2427	1718	1071
	Police	3522	2906	2339	1431	1013	632
	Courts	1299	1072	862	528	373	233
	Corr.	1110	916	737	451	319	199
	Other	38	32	25	15	11	6
Montana	Total	6118	5051	4067	2460	1738	1078
	Police	3422	2825	2275	1376	972	603
	Courts	1134	936	754	456	322	199
	Corr.	1346	1111	895	541	382	237
	Other	120	99	80	48	34	21
Oregon	Total	22,900	18,975	15,359	10,033	7350	4901
	Police	11,924	9879	7996	5224	3827	2552
	Courts	4728	3917	3170	2071	1517	1011
	Corr.	5893	4882	3952	2581	1891	1261
	Other	356	295	239	156	114	76

State		15% Attrition Rate			5% Attrition Rate		
		Employees/1,000			Employees/1,000		
		+10%	Same	-10%	+10%	Same	-10%
Washington	Total	37,102	30,807	25,009	16,596	12,295	8369
	Police	19,554	16,236	13,181	8747	6480	4410
	Courts	6585	5468	4439	2945	2182	1485
	Corr.	10,862	9019	7322	4859	3599	2450
	Other	99	82	66	44	32	22
5 States	Total	77,227	64,010	51,830	33,704	24,685	16,454
	Police	40,990	33,975	27,513	17,889	13,102	8733
	Courts	15,276	12,662	10,254	6667	4883	3254
	Corr.	20,312	16,836	13,634	8865	6493	4327
	Other	647	536	434	282	206	137
Excluding 5 States	Total	2112,431	1749,665	1415,467	907,945	660,808	435,214
	Police	1268,118	1050,345	849,722	545,051	396,691	261,264
	Courts	375,283	310,836	251,464	161,300	117,395	77,317
	Corr.	458,773	379,998	307,408	197,185	143,512	94,518
	Other	10,256	8494	6872	4408	3208	2112

Cumulative Numbers of Criminal Justice Employees Needed
by Rate of Attrition, Ratio of Criminal Justice Personnel/1,000 Population,
State for the Year 1990 (2.11 Fertility Rate)

State		15% Attrition Rate			5% Attrition Rate		
		Employees/1,000			Employees/1,000		
		+10%	Same	-10%	+10%	Same	-10%
Alaska	Total	7854	6124	4651	3403	2308	1393
	Police	3816	2975	2259	1653	1112	677
	Courts	2233	1741	1322	967	656	396
	Corr.	1784	1391	1056	773	524	316
	Other	20	15	11	8	5	3
Idaho	Total	8960	6974	5280	3709	2459	1413
	Police	5286	4114	3114	2188	1450	833
	Courts	1950	1517	1149	807	535	307
	Corr.	1666	1296	981	689	457	262
	Other	58	45	34	24	15	9
Montana	Total	9115	7100	5380	3727	2463	1405
	Police	5099	3972	3010	2085	1378	786
	Courts	1690	1316	997	691	456	260
	Corr.	2006	1562	1184	820	542	309
	Other	179	139	105	73	48	27
Oregon	Total	34,747	27,116	20,617	15,305	10,463	6415
	Police	18,091	14,118	10,734	7968	5447	3340
	Courts	7173	5598	4256	3159	2160	1324
	Corr.	8940	6977	5305	3938	2692	1650
	Other	541	422	321	238	163	99

State		15% Attrition Rate			5% Attrition Rate		
		Employees/1,000			Employees/1,000		
Washington	Total	56,957	43,832	33,421	25,019	17,263	10,780
	Police	23,545	23,102	17,614	13,186	9098	5681
	Courts	9949	7780	5932	4440	3064	1913
	Corr.	16,415	12,833	9785	7325	5054	3156
	Other	150	117	89	66	46	28
5 States	Total	116,601	91,047	69,278	51,074	34,890	21,358
	Police	61,889	48,326	36,771	27,109	18,519	11,336
	Courts	23,065	18,010	13,704	10,103	6901	4225
	Corr.	30,669	23,947	18,221	13,433	9177	5617
	Other	977	762	580	427	292	178
Excluding 5 States	Total	3178,353	2480,845	1886,427	1373,537	931,753	564,089
	Police	1908,004	1489,282	1132,445	824,551	559,943	338,629
	Courts	564,649	440,733	335,132	244,015	165,708	100,213
	Corr.	690,268	538,784	409,690	298,302	202,573	122,507
	Other	15,431	12,044	9158	6668	4528	2738

Cumulative Numbers of Criminal Justice Employees Needed
by Rate of Attrition, Ratio of Criminal Justice Personnel/1,000 Population,
and State for the Year 1980 (2.78 Fertility Rate)

State		15% Attrition Rate			5% Attrition Rate		
		Employees/1,000			Employees/1,000		
		+10%	Same	-10%	+10%	Same	-10%
Alaska	Total	3010	2666	2323	1308	1048	788
	Police	1462	1295	1128	635	509	383
	Courts	855	758	660	372	298	224
	Corr.	684	606	527	297	238	179
	Other	7	6	5	3	2	2
Idaho	Total	3453	3048	2644	1382	1077	722
	Police	2037	1798	1559	815	635	455
	Courts	751	663	575	300	234	168
	Corr.	642	566	491	257	200	143
	Other	22	19	17	8	6	5
Montana	Total	3572	3154	2737	1425	1110	796
	Police	1998	1764	1531	797	621	445
	Courts	662	585	507	264	205	147
	Corr.	786	694	602	313	244	179
	Other	70	62	53	28	21	16
Oregon	Total	13,077	11,596	10,115	5736	4615	3495
	Police	6808	6037	5266	2986	2403	1819
	Courts	2699	2394	2088	1184	952	721
	Corr.	3364	2983	2602	1475	1187	899
	Other	203	180	157	89	71	54

State		15% Attrition Rate			5% Attrition Rate		
		Employees/1,000			Employees/1,000		
		+10%	Same	-10%	+10%	Same	-10%
Washington	Total	21,370	18,995	16,620	9721	7924	6126
	Police	11,263	10,011	8759	5123	4176	3229
	Courts	3793	3371	2950	1725	1406	1087
	Corr.	6256	5561	4866	2846	2310	1793
	Other	57	50	44	26	21	36
5 States	Total	43,545	38,606	33,673	16,671	15,056	11,330
	Police	23,112	20,492	17,872	8848	7991	6014
	Courts	8613	7637	6661	3297	2978	2241
	Corr.	11,453	10,155	8856	4384	3960	2980
	Other	364	323	282	139	261	94
Excluding 5 States	Total	1221,004	1082,301	943,598	527,858	423,051	318,244
	Police	732,983	649,719	566,453	316,879	253,963	191,046
	Courts	216,917	192,275	167,634	93,776	75,157	56,537
	Corr.	265,175	235,052	204,928	114,639	91,877	69,115
	Other	5928	5254	4581	2562	2053	1545

Cumulative Numbers of Criminal Justice Employees Needed
by Rate of Attrition, Ratio of Criminal Justice Personnel/1,000 Population,
and State for the Year 1985 (2.78 Fertility Rate)

State		15% Attrition Rate			5% Attrition Rate		
		Employees/1,000			Employees/1,000		
		+10%	Same	-10%	+10%	Same	-10%
Alaska	Total	5516	4569	3697	2468	1818	1225
	Police	2680	2220	1706	1199	883	595
	Courts	1568	1299	1051	701	517	348
	Corr.	1253	1038	840	560	413	278
	Other	14	11	9	6	4	3
Idaho	Total	6267	5176	4172	2639	1895	1216
	Police	3697	3053	2461	1556	1118	717
	Courts	1363	1126	907	574	412	264
	Corr.	1165	962	775	490	352	226
	Other	40	33	27	17	12	7
Montana	Total	6415	5301	4275	2674	1916	1223
	Police	3539	2965	2391	1496	1072	684
	Courts	1189	933	792	495	355	226
	Corr.	1411	1166	940	588	421	269
	Other	126	104	84	52	37	24
Oregon	Total	23,878	19,796	16,038	10,738	7937	5381
	Police	12,432	10,307	8350	5590	4132	2802
	Courts	6870	5707	4637	3150	2353	1625
	Corr.	11,332	9414	7649	5197	3881	2680
	Other	103	86	69	47	35	24

State		15% Attrition Rate			5% Attrition Rate		
		Employees/1,000			Employees/1,000		
		+10%	Same	-10%	+10%	Same	-10%
Washington	Total	38,705	32,156	26,126	17,751	13,257	9156
	Police	20,399	16,947	13,770	9356	6987	4826
	Courts	6870	5707	4637	3150	2353	1625
	Corr.	11,332	9414	7649	5197	3881	2680
	Other	654	543	439	287	211	141
5 States	Total	78,165	64,809	52,508	34,345	25,223	16,898
	Police	41,488	34,399	27,870	18,229	12,288	8969
	Courts	15,462	12,820	10,386	6794	4989	3342
	Corr.	20,559	17,046	13,811	9033	6634	4444
Excluding 5 States	Total	2209,347	1831,224	1483,013	977,572	718,838	482,712
	Police	1326,198	1,099,306	890,271	586,848	431,527	289,778
	Courts	392,500	325,325	263,464	173,670	127,704	85,756
	Corr.	479,821	397,701	322,077	212,307	156,115	104,834
	Other	10,726	8890	7200	4746	3490	2343

Cumulative Numbers of Criminal Justice Employees Needed
by Rate of Attrition, Ratio of Criminal Justice Personnel/1,000 Population,
and State for the Year 1990 (2.78 Fertility Rate)

State		15% Attrition Rate			5% Attrition Rate		
		Employees/1,000			Employees/1,000		
		+10%	Same	-10%	+10%	Same	-10%
Alaska	Total	8467	6601	5014	3809	2619	1625
	Police	4113	3207	2436	1850	1272	789
	Courts	2407	1876	1425	1083	744	462
	Corr.	1924	1500	1139	865	595	369
	Other	21	16	12	9	6	4
Idaho	Total	9535	7422	5622	4089	2750	1630
	Police	5625	4378	3316	2412	1622	961
	Courts	2075	1615	1223	890	598	354
	Corr.	1773	1380	1045	760	511	303
	Other	61	48	36	26	17	10
Montana	Total	9685	7554	5720	4103	2751	1620
	Police	5413	4220	3200	2295	1539	906
	Courts	1796	1399	1060	760	510	300
	Corr.	2131	1660	1258	903	605	356
	Other	190	148	112	80	54	31
Oregon	Total	36,679	28,618	21,761	16,591	11,446	7148
	Police	19,097	14,900	11,330	8638	5959	3721
	Courts	7572	5908	4492	3425	2363	1475
	Corr.	9437	7363	5599	4269	2945	1839
	Other	571	445	339	258	178	111

State		15% Attrition Rate			5% Attrition Rate		
		+10%	Same	-10%	+10%	Same	-10%
Washington	Total	59,241	46,309	35,307	27,138	18,884	11,988
	Police	31,223	24,407	18,608	14,303	9952	6318
	Courts	23,409	18,281	13,913	10,325	7072	4353
	Corr.	17,344	13,558	10,337	7945	3351	2127
	Other	158	123	94	72	50	32
5 States	Total	118,341	92,417	70,337	52,196	35,754	22,008
	Police	62,813	49,053	37,333	27,704	18,977	11,681
	Courts	23,409	18,281	13,913	10,325	7072	4353
	Corr.	31,126	24,308	18,500	13,729	9404	5788
	Other	991	774	589	437	299	184
Excluding 5 States	Total	3368,539	2628,904	1999,266	1499,691	1029,258	636,075
	Police	2022,174	1578,163	1200,184	900,283	617,876	381,844
	Courts	598,436	476,037	355,179	266,427	182,852	113,001
	Corr.	731,572	570,940	434,196	325,699	223,532	138,141
	Other	16,354	12,763	9700	7281	4997	3088

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Part II: Criminal Justice Educational Programs

Introduction

The last decade has witnessed a dramatic increase in criminal justice education programs throughout the United States. Accompanying this expansion have been growing concerns voiced by both academicians and practitioners about the purposes and nature of criminal justice education. The first of these focuses upon the question of whether advanced education is actually necessary for many criminal justice roles. The second addresses itself to the issue of the content of criminal justice education, that is, the nature and substance of the educational experience that criminal justice students ought to receive.

The opening section of this report will briefly describe the historical development of criminal justice education programs in the United States and will examine in some detail, a sampling of the positions taken relative to the concerns noted above. Following this discussion, a large share of the criminal justice education programs in the states of Alaska, Idaho, Montana, Oregon, and Washington (Region X), will be described. The data in this latter section were collected primarily from institutional applications for the Law Enforcement Education Programs (LEEP). In addition, data were gathered from college and university catalogues throughout the five state area. The characteristics of the criminal justice programs will be of particular interest in this section. We shall comment on their faculties, curricula, and program orientation, that is, applied versus academic emphasis or some combination of the two.

Criminal Justice Education: A Brief History

Historically, new entrants into correctional and criminal justice roles thought to be of a "professional" nature have come from a variety of educational backgrounds. Treatment workers and other "professional" employees have been drawn from graduate and undergraduate social work schools, general liberal arts programs, and myriad other educational backgrounds. In short, those persons have come to criminal justice agencies with some kind of college training, but with little in the way of focused criminal justice educational preparation.

Post-secondary education programs specifically in criminal justice have only recently been developed in the United States. Although an academic specialization in law enforcement has been offered at the University of Southern California since 1929, as recently as 1957 there were only 56 institutions of higher education offering criminal justice programs (Germann, 1957). By 1965, there were still only 64 law enforcement education programs in operation nationally, and of this number, 32 (or 50 percent) were located in the state of California (Tenney, 1971).

Within the last half-dozen years, however, college and university programs in criminal justice education have increased dramatically. This rapid expansion of programs has been heavily influenced by legislation on the national level in the United States Congress and by activities on the part of the executive branch of the federal government. One major development was the creation of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice in 1965. The work of that commission sparked a number of efforts to increase educational programs available to the criminal justice field. Also in 1965, the Correctional Rehabilitation Study Act was passed by Congress. A section of this act created

the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, which was responsible for conducting a considerable amount of research in criminal justice.

The passage of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act in 1968 was perhaps the greatest impetus to criminal justice education. Under section 406 of this act, the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP) was established to provide financial assistance to criminal justice students. By 1973, \$40 million in funds was provided for student support. As evidenced by Tables 1 and 2, there has been unprecedented growth in criminal justice education programs and expenditures in the last several years.

Table 1
Numbers of LEEP Institutions and Expenditures by Year*

<u>Fiscal Year</u>	<u>Number of LEEP Institutions</u>	<u>Expenditures</u>
1969	485	\$ 6,500,000
1970	735	\$18,000,000
1971	890	\$21,000,000
1972	961	\$28,000,000
1973	987	\$40,000,000

* Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (1969-72).

Table 2
Numbers of Law Enforcement Programs**

<u>Year</u>	<u>Number of Institutions</u>	<u>Associate</u>	<u>Degree Offered</u>		<u>Ph.D.</u>
			<u>Bachelors</u>	<u>Masters</u>	
1964-65	97	80	32	20	7
1966-67	184	152	39	14	4
1968-69	234	199	44	13	5
1970-71	292	757	55	21	7
1972-73	515	505	211	41	9

** International Association of Chiefs of Police (1965-73).

What more fundamental forces lie behind the Omnibus Crime Control Bill, the creation of LEEP, and other events that have encouraged the expansion of criminal justice educational programs? Why did these national efforts occur when they did, rather than earlier or later in time? Why did federal attention focus upon crime and responses to it, rather than upon mental health, the deterioration of urban life, or some other "problem?"

Tenney has offered some salient observations regarding the broader social forces that provided the impetus for executive and legislative action on crime and responses to it. He notes that:

History will probably confirm the view that the 1960's were the commencement of a time in which social change became accelerated and the nature of change itself became transformed. For the moment, however the events of the past decade are seen as dramatic and discouraging evidence of a failure of our institutions to meet, effectively contain, and cope with damaging and disruptive social and political events. The roster is a painfully clear one; the assassination of a president; riots in urban ghettos; "campus unrest" senseless mass murders; "crime in the streets." It matters

little that each of these tragedies and conditions has a parallel in our past. (Tenney, 1971:43-44)

Clearly, the 1960's were turbulent times. Between 1963 and 1969 there were fourteen assassinations or attempted assassinations of prominent government officials or political figures. Moreover, seven major ghetto rebellions occurred between 1965 and 1967 along with a number of other less serious urban disturbances. Then too, during the latter part of the 1960's, anti-war protests became so common across the United States that Skolnick has commented, "...protest against American involvement and conduct in Vietnam has become so familiar to our national life that it has almost acquired the status of an institution" (1969:21). Finally, the Uniform Crime Reports indicated that the rate of "officially recorded crime" increased 126 percent for violent crimes and 147 percent for crimes against property during the period from 1960 to 1970.

All of these events influenced the decision of Congress to pass the Omnibus Crime Control Bill, but Harris has suggested that increased public awareness of crime also prompted Congress to act.

The fear of crime, more than the fact of it, guaranteed that some kind of action would be taken, for the public demand had to be met. On February 6, 1967, the President took the first of many steps to meet it when he sent Congress a message on crime, in which he warned the legislators that "crime--and the fear of crime--has become a public malady," and went on to remind them of their duty to seek its "cure" (Harris, 1969:17-18).

The proposition that the citizenry perceive the problem of crime as worsening is generally supported by surveys of the public's attitudes towards crime (Gibbons and Jones, 1975). A case in point is a recent study conducted in Portland and San Francisco (Gibbons, Jones and Garabedian, 1972). In general, it was found that respondents in both cities felt that crime was worse

than it was in 1950 and that more repressive measures were necessary to turn the tide on crime.

More effective measures had to be developed to deal with crime, for the events of the 1960's and the rising crime rate both indicated that the criminal justice system was not working. Many legislators and law enforcement officials believed that recent Supreme Court decisions--most notably Escobedo, Mallory, and Miranda--which increased defendants' rights were hampering the ability of the criminal justice system to combat crime (Harris, 1969). In part, the Omnibus Crime Control Bill was designed to counterbalance these decisions, but the bill also initiated the "war on crime" by increasing federal funding to state and local criminal justice agencies.

Obviously, a variety of factors have contributed to the marked increase in criminal justice programs in the late sixties. Whether this expansion will continue in the future is uncertain, but it is the case that further growth will probably be largely contingent upon the future financial support of LEAA.

Higher education is one area where LEAA has provided considerable financial assistance. Understandably, most of the federal funding for criminal justice education has gone to support of undergraduate programs, due to the fact that the greatest manpower need has been for college-trained persons to fill entry-level positions in law enforcement and corrections. However, programs of graduate criminal justice training have also flourished, so that there has been an increase in master's level and doctoral training in recent years. For example, doctoral criminal justice training and educational programs have been developed at State University of New York, Albany; Florida State University; Sam Houston State University and University of Southern California among others.

Paranetically, one recent endeavor of LEAA in support of criminal justice graduate education has been in the form of a national educational consortium. In 1973, LEAA awarded over four million dollars to seven colleges and universities located regionally throughout the country to develop or strengthen criminal justice graduate programs. This consortium is comprised of Portland State University, Michigan State University, University of Maryland, University of Nebraska (Omaha), Eastern Kentucky University, Northeastern University, and Arizona State University. The purpose of the consortium was to allow exchange of students, faculty, and research findings and capabilities in an attempt to upgrade the level of academic inquiry in the area of criminal justice.

Issues in Criminal Justice Education

The discussion of criminal justice education issues will be confined to an examination of some of the positions taken on two major controversies. The first centers about the question of whether college education of any kind is actually necessary for certain law enforcement or correctional roles. Thus, in the past, some have argued that police officers or other criminal justice workers do not actually need advanced education, that instead, graduation from high school provides adequate preparation for these work roles. Although the voices of opposition have quieted on this issue, it remains a concern of several criminologists and criminal justice practitioners.

The second controversy revolves around the question of the most appropriate kind of advanced education for present and future criminal justice practitioners. There are widely divergent positions taken on this issue, with the two extremes being emphasis primarily upon training or skills-oriented programs on the one

hand and the advocacy of principally liberal arts programs, with no courses specific to criminal justice, on the other. The remaining positions fall somewhere between these two views.

In discussing the two issues, those broad contentions that speak to whether criminal justice workers in general ought to receive advanced education or which urge particular kinds of educational content for undifferentiated collections of criminal justice workers will be examined first. Following that discussion, attention will turn to more specific claims that have been advanced with specific regard to the educational needs of correctional employees and law enforcement workers.

Is Advanced Education Required?

Although the debate over whether advanced education is necessary for various criminal justice positions has subsided, there are still those who oppose higher education as a necessary condition for virtually every criminal justice occupation other than those positions where formal legal training is necessary. The opponents of advanced education include a number of administrators working within the existing criminal justice system. Many of these persons favor a "nuts and bolts" skills-training approach based on task analysis (Frost, 1959; Gammage, 1963; Gross, 1973). Skills-oriented training programs are probably not compatible with the thrust of educational endeavors in institutions of higher education, instead, they are probably best carried on in police academies, vocational schools, or kindred places. Accordingly, if it is true that criminal justice workers are most in need of specific work skills, some kind of training would need to be established outside the framework of

two-year and four-year colleges or universities.

Other arguments have been advanced in opposition to higher education for criminal justice workers. Higher education may exclude certain persons-- individuals with lower class backgrounds are one example. But, the rejoinder to this claim is that if advanced education truly is required for practitioners to function properly, various ways to overcome the barriers to higher education for minorities and others lacking the financial resources to attend college will need to be devised. The solution to this problem is not to abandon higher educational programs in criminal justice, but to provide financial assistance through programs such as LEEP to students in need.

Proponents of criminal justice education--including both practitioners and educators--are in the majority. There are at least two reasons why criminal justice higher education is generally favored. The first centers around the complexity of many criminal justice roles and the recognition that advanced education is required for these roles. Second, the higher educational level of the general population requires better educated criminal justice personnel.

It is commonly alleged that many criminal justice roles (particularly in law enforcement) have become more complicated in recent years (Adams, 1973; Folley, 1967; Germann, 1967; Niederhoffer, 1967; President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967c; National Advisory Commission, 1973b). The increasing use of technology in police work as well as the fact that the police are confronted with a variety of job demands are two of the principal reasons why higher education is thought to be necessary. Following this argument, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967) recommended that a high school diploma be required for all

law enforcement officers and a college degree for all administrators. The rationale for this recommendation was the increasing diversity and complexity of police roles. Similar views have been advanced by Adams (1973) who argued for a minimum of two years of college and by the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1973b) which recommended that by 1982 all law enforcement agencies should require an undergraduate degree. Related to the notion of the complexity of police roles is the proposition that education enhances job performance. The Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, and most recently the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals have all argued that education specific to criminal justice will raise the level of performance of criminal justice personnel. Cohen and Chaihen (1972) have offered evidence to support this assertion. They found that college-educated policemen were superior to non-college educated officers on several measures of performance. However, in at least one respect their evidence is not convincing. They assumed that the college experience in some way transforms a person into a better law enforcement officer. What they ignore is that there may be individual differences between those who do and do not attend college prior to the college experience. If this is so, differences in individuals rather than education may explain the variations in performance.

Saunders (1970) is also skeptical of the idea that education may enhance job performance. He has also argued that evidence has not established that higher education is necessary for many entry-level positions outside of the criminal justice system. Clearly, the issue of whether education raises an individual's level of competence is a moot one and although it could be tested empirically, it remains unresolved.

The final argument supporting higher educational requirements is that the educational level of criminal justice personnel must be raised to meet that of the general population (Folley, 1967; National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, 1973; Saunders, 1970). Saunders (1970) feels that this is the most persuasive argument in favor of higher education. However, those who hold this position overlook several negative aspects of advocating higher educational requirements. Undoubtedly, the level of education has been raised for the population as a whole but it is also true that those who typically become enmeshed in the criminal justice system have a lower level of educational attainment than the general population. In other words, those with at least an average level of education will be dealing with those with less education and this may serve to undermine the relationship between persons who are clients in the system and those working within the criminal justice system.

There is an extensive literature which argues about the kind(s) of criminal justice education that are preferable, a wide divergence of views being contained in this commentary. There are three basic positions, although there is great variation with each of these positions. Some persons advocate training programs which equip students with skills relevant to specific criminal justice roles, while other support programs which provide students with both skills training and general academic backgrounds. Thirdly, there are those who suggest that criminal justice programs should follow the path of other academic disciplines. Generally, criminal justice practitioners favor the first model while educators support the latter extreme, that is, programs should be modeled after conventional academic curricula.

What is the Most Appropriate Kind of Advanced Education?

Before turning to the issue of the most appropriate kind of education, the question of whether or not criminology/criminal justice is a discipline should be resolved. Brantingham (1972) has asserted that criminology is a distinct (synthetic) discipline which has borrowed heavily from the physical and social sciences, but he makes little attempt to demonstrate how criminology qualifies as an independent discipline.¹

The most convincing arguments support the notion that criminology is not a distinct discipline, but instead is a "synthetic or multi-disciplinary field of study devoted to the analysis and control of lawbreaking" (Gibbons, 1975: 2).

To elaborate:

It would be difficult to identify a distinctive, unitary "criminal justice perspective" parallel to a sociological, economic, or political science perspective. Instead, criminal justice educators draw upon the varied contributions of the older established disciplines in order to pose economic, sociological, legal and geographical, or other kinds of questions about crime and its control (Gibbons, 1975: 2).

In other words, criminal justice is an area of interest or field which relies on the theoretical and research perspectives of traditional disciplines to address questions about crime and the criminal justice system. For example, sociologists have much to say about social-structural factors in criminality, learning processes which may lead to criminal careers, and organizational aspects of criminal justice agencies. For their part, economists can tell us a good deal about economic costs of crime and crime control measures. In other veins, psychologists have contributed analyses of the psychopathology of lawbreaking and political scientists have analyzed crime and the responses

¹ In one sense Brantingham's position contradicts the notion that criminology is a separate discipline because he states that a variety of disciplines (particularly those in social science) have contributed to the literature on criminal justice.

to it in terms of the political system. Similarly, criminal justice draws upon the comparative studies of anthropologists, spatial studies of geographers, and the contributions of other disciplines.

The question of the most adequate kind of organizational structure for criminal justice programs is also relevant to our discussion. Brantingham (1972) has argued that interdisciplinary programs housed in separate departments are necessary. With regard to crime, the student should be knowledgeable about the contributions of the physical and social sciences to gain a greater understanding of crime and the criminal justice system.

A radically different perspective on criminal justice education has been offered by Olson (1974) who contends that separate departments should not be created. Instead, criminal justice should be offered as a second major or area of interest through several departments. If an independent department is not established, this signifies to faculty members and students that criminal justice is an open system which wishes to avoid isolation. Further, it exposes criminal justice practitioners to other departments in the college or university.

By refusing to create independent criminal justice departments, colleges can avoid several pitfalls. Other departments would not feel threatened with losing students to a new department. Also, a program requiring courses from several departments would allow students more alternatives in pursuing future careers.

While there is some merit to Olson's argument, it also has its weaknesses. With an independent department, faculty members and students can express affiliation to a single academic unit rather than being torn by allegiance to several departments. Likewise, the threat of losing students to a new department is insufficient reason for not creating new departments. (If this were the

case, then no new departments should be established regardless of their value.) Finally, the programs offered by independent departments need not serve to isolate the students from courses offered in other departments. This problem can be minimized by restricting the number of courses required in criminal justice departments for criminal justice majors.

Olson (1974) has addressed several other issues which are relevant to our discussion. For one, he notes that there is still a lack of goals for criminal justice education: "at this writing, there is no nationally accepted statement of educational goals which criminal justice faculty members and students should pursue" (Olson, 1974:4).

He suggested that no more than 20 to 25 percent of the courses required of criminal justice students should be in that area, and that should a criminal justice department be established, it should make certain that its curriculum is not dominated by criminal justice courses. The advantages of this approach are several fold. If students pursue coursework dominated by criminal justice, they may never learn enough about another subject area to pursue it at a later point; a broader based curriculum may lead to students taking courses relevant to criminal justice in its wider context. Perhaps Olson's last point is his most important one, for he supports a generalist education in contrast to one which is specific to criminal justice. For example, Olson asserts that very few educational curricula in criminal justice provide students with a background in organizational problems, and yet virtually all practitioners work in bureaucracies. In Olson's view every criminal justice program should have a required course in organizational psychology, the sociology of organizations, public administration, or the like. The kinds of programs

proposed by Olson are not necessarily inconsistent with establishing separate departments.

Issues in Higher Education for Corrections

Due to the fact that education specific to the field of corrections is often advocated, issues in correctional education will be treated separately. Correctional workers are usually defined as persons involved with the confinement of adults and juveniles convicted of criminal or status offenses, and probation and parole personnel. Those who work in youth diversion programs, community treatment programs, and other efforts which offer alternatives to incarceration are also included in the corrections category.

The dearth of educated personnel in corrections is evident. As the data in Table 2 indicate, a significant proportion of both adult and juvenile corrections personnel are not college graduates. In fact, less than half of adult institutional employees have a college degree.

The low level of educational achievement of correctional personnel is even more noticeable when educational levels are examined within occupational categories (Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1970:91). Personnel below the levels of administrator or supervisor generally have the least education (See Table 3), while at the same time it is the lower level correctional workers who tend to have the greatest amount of contact with offenders.¹

1 Unfortunately more current information on the educational attainment of correctional workers is not available.

Table 2

Educational Level of Correctional Personnel in 1968 by Work Setting*

Highest Level of Education Attained	Work Setting of Respondents			
	Adult Institution	Juvenile Institution	Adult Field	Juvenile Field
	(figures in percent)			
Less than high school graduate.....	10	7	**	**
High school graduate.	31	20	6	2
1-3 years of college.	22	15	10	7
B.A. only.....	11	17	34	36
Some graduate study..	13	14	29	25
M.A.....	11	26	20	28
Ph.D.....	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>
Total.....	100	100	100	100

*(Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1970:92)

** Less than 1 percent

Table 3
Educational Level of Correctional Personnel in 1968 by Occupation*

Highest Level of Education Attained	Administrator (figures in percent)	Supervisor (figures in percent)	Specialist	Line Worker
Less than high school				
Graduate.....	1	5	1	16
High School Graduate.....	9	13	5	52
1-3 Years of College.....	11	12	11	25
B.A. only.....	22	25	40	3
Some Graduate work.....	25	21	27	3
M.A.....	28	23	15	1
Ph.D.....	<u>4</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0</u>
Total.....	100	100	100	100

*(Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1970:91).

For some time, it has been argued that social work programs can provide¹ adequate training for persons working in the corrections field.

According to this line of thinking, training in generic social work principles, casework techniques, eclectic behavioral theories, and so forth is adequate to the task of rehabilitating offenders (Gibbons, 1965:17).

One of the leading proponents of generic social work for corrections is Dressler (1969).

Ideally then...probation and parole are social work. Social workers, we said use three primary methods of helping. All of those who satisfy the optimum requirements qualifying them as trained social workers are theoretically competent to employ any or all of these methods, having received generic education and supervised training in social work (Dressler, 1969:160-61).

In other words, the skills taught in general social work programs are considered most appropriate for correctional workers.

¹ For a more detailed examination of this position, see (Gibbons, 1965:16-20).

However, the opponents of this approach point out several weaknesses in relying on this perspective to train correctional workers. For one, because there is considerable variation among social work programs, it is doubtful that social work backgrounds can prepare treatment workers adequately for their tasks (this is not to say that social work programs specific to corrections could not be designed). Also, it is uncertain that generic social work provides correctional workers with the proper tools for dealing effectively with correctional clients, especially since involuntary clients do not fit the traditional social work model (Gibbons, 1965).

One alternative to general social work education is social work programs specific to corrections. One of the first proponents of this approach was Studt (1959). She set forth several objectives for social work trained persons working in the corrections field including:

Knowledge of the offender caseload including: the social and personal problems leading to crime and delinquency; the social selection process involved in official identification of offenders; the common stress experiences of this intake process; the personality disorders represented in the caseload; and the sub-cultures characteristic of this group.

Skills in: working as a member of a criminal justice team; motivating the involuntary client; using authority for making decisions and for exerting controls over behavior as a part of treatment; working with the constellation of persons in the family and in the community who are related to the client in each case; contributing to the process of change in the development of services in his agency (Studt, 1959:13, emphasis added).

Although Studt may not be representative of proponents of the social work perspective, her views on the role of social work in corrections raise many issues about the ability of social work to educate correctional workers. Not only is the "clinical approach" advocated, a position which is viewed with increasing skepticism by many criminologists, but, Studt suggested that the

correctional worker must be able to cope with the involuntary client, who is usually the exception rather than rule in social work caseloads. For this reason, the correctional worker must be trained in motivating the involuntary client.

Another shortcoming is that social work programs may not have the ability to produce enough correctional workers, for social work students are entering the correctional field in small numbers (President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967b; Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1969). Therefore its philosophical orientation as well as the lack of students pursuing corrections as a career will probably prevent social work from becoming a discipline which can supply adequate numbers of persons to the corrections field.¹

The Correctional Rehabilitation Study Act was passed by Congress in 1965 and led to the creation of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training which eventually published some fifteen documents, many of which are related to corrections education.

In one of these reports, Polk (1969) addressed the issue of education versus training in the university. He argued that programs which integrate education with experience in a correctional setting are necessary. To quote Polk (1969:2).

Granted that one must avoid the ever-present dangers of 'overspecialization' and 'vocationalism,' it seems plausible that training programs which combine university and correctional experiences might add to the educational growth of students

¹ Witte has also argued that social work is the most appropriate discipline for providing education to correctional workers (Prigmore, 1966).

beyond what is available to them on the campus. Undergraduate students who have had experience with the clientele of correctional agencies are in an advantageous position when it comes to making sense out of their course work in criminology, delinquency, defiance, maladjustment, or psychopathology. Their experience within the organizational structure gives them a base of experience for courses dealing with organizational structure, the sociology of work, or industrial sociology.

Polk averred that there is a need for a stronger relationship between the university and corrections which may be accomplished by involving students in the correctional setting as well as by engaging correctional personnel in both educational and research endeavors. Clearly, Polk offers an alternative to social work as a model for correctional education.

In a second commission report, Fox (Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1968) supported programs similar to those advocated by Polk in which theory and practice are integrated. Concomitantly, he argued that the role of the university is to supply theoretical knowledge rather than specific skills. He stated (Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1968:66):

There is a need for this type of education (inservice training) for the old-line employee who is easily threatened by new ideas and shifting conceptualizations, but it is not the role of the university to supply such instruction.

The role of the university is to find, distill, and impart knowledge within a theoretical context. The field of practice functions on a day-to-day level in which the manual of procedures is essential to operation. The field of practice must know how to do things. The university must know why they are done. The knowledge of "why" frequently changes the "how to do it" and erases procedures that have been developed and continued by custom and tradition (emphasis in the original).

A third report of the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training (1970b), indicated that there are three areas which correctional education should address: 1) educational development should elaborate the techniques for better training of correctional personnel; 2) the programs should

consider possible methods for more effective use of personnel; and 3) programs should endeavor to increase the number of competent personnel in corrections.

Although the discussion above represents only a sampling of positions taken on correctional education by members of the Joint Commission on Manpower and Training, clearly there is no consensus on the kind(s) of correctional programs which should be offered. Nevertheless, the commission did reach agreement on three recommendations (Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1970a):

- 1) A requirement of a bachelor's degree for entry-level work in probation and parole agencies and for similar counselor and classification personnel in institutions.
- 2) A career ladder which allows those with only high school to further their education.
- 3) Expansion of correctional programs in two-year colleges.

Several educators have recently contributed to the literature on corrections education (Waldo, 1971; Beto and Marsh, 1975). An argument for more adequate correctional research facilities (both experimental and evaluative) is advanced by Waldo (1971) who holds that the university can play a crucial role in this research. Perhaps more important to our discussion is Waldo's position that correctional personnel should have a more complete understanding of the total criminal justice system. It follows that a more general criminal justice education will give correctional employees a broader perspective from which to make decisions, to deal with everyday situations, and to understand their role in the larger system.

In another article Beto and Marsh (1975) discussed some of the more critical issues in criminal justice education, including three curriculum models previously set forth by Tenney (1971). In rejecting social science or training programs, they opted for professional programs.

They stated:

Professional curricula provide the most useful model for undergraduate criminal justice educational programs. Emphasis is given to theoretical and practical educational experiences.

It is extremely difficult for the preservice student to understand the complexities and fragmentations which exist in the field of criminal justice at the outset of his academic experience. Progression through course offerings with a minimal exposure to the practical aspects of the system decreases the possibility that knowledge intergration will occur. For this reason, internship experiences are a necessity (Beto and Marsh, 1975:38).

Thus internships are viewed as an integral part of a professional curriculum. Beto and Marsh (1975) proposed that varied experiences which provide students with direct contact with criminal justice agencies from their freshmen through senior years should be required. Although we also favor internship programs, several aspects (both positive and negative) are often ignored by proponents. Some positive arguments are:

- 1) The internship can furnish the student with a basis for deciding if he or she wishes to pursue a career in criminal justice.
- 2) Internships may provide students with links to future employment opportunities in specific agencies by developing "contacts" within those agencies.
- 3) The relationship between the university and criminal justice field may be strengthened by internship arrangement.

Some negative aspects of internship programs include:

- 1) Overemphasis on internships may provide a narrow exposure to criminal justice while a broader background would be conveyed in academic coursework.
- 2) Students may receive menial lower level job placements in agencies which do little to increase their understanding of the particular agency.
- 3) Unless civil service entrance requirements are restructured, internship experience will not be considered the same as other work experience.

It should be clear that there is still a lack of consensus among educators and practitioners about the best kind(s) of education for corrections, but in general both of these groups support programs which attempt to integrate theory with practice in the field, that is to say, programs which are neither strictly vocational nor purely academic in nature.

Issues in Law Enforcement Education

The positions taken on the issue of the most suitable education for law enforcement personnel are even more varied than those for corrections. Like corrections, practitioners are more likely to support vocationally-oriented programs while educators are more inclined toward academic programs.

Several persons have advocated skills-oriented law enforcement programs and this position is still reflected in journals such as Police, Police Chief, and Law and Order, journals which are written primarily for and by practitioners. Consistent with this position is the notion that law enforcement education should be based on a task analysis of skills required for various law enforcement roles (Frost, 1959; Gammage, 1963; National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice

Standards and Goals, 1973b). Project Star, a recent effort in California to ascertain what kinds of skills are necessary for various criminal justice roles, represents one attempt to link education with specific skills.

Another aspect of the argument for skills-oriented programs is that they will allow law enforcement personnel to achieve professional status at a time when "professionalization" is an increasing concern among practitioners and educators (Aaron, 1965; Ashenhurst, 1958-9; Germann, 1967; Krentzer, 1968; President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967c; National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, 1973b). Ashenhurst (1958-59) argued that "professionalism" can be attained through licensing standards similar to those of the legal and medical professions. Other requirements necessary for "professionalism" are uniformity in hiring, training, and the development of a code of ethics.

However, there are those who question the ability of law enforcement to attain the status of a profession (Niederhoffer, 1967; Wilson, 1968). Niederhoffer (1967) noted several areas where law enforcement falls short of professionalization including the lack of:

- 1) High standards for admission.
- 2) A specialized body of theory and knowledge.
- 3) A lengthy period of training for prospective members.
- 4) Publicly recognized status and prestige.

He also argued that low status and prestige is perhaps the greatest impediment to law enforcement achieving professionalization. This is an important point, for many practitioners have ignored the fact that professionalism is an ascribed status.

Even more crucial to achieving the status of a profession is the development of a systematic body of theory. Specialized skills do not alone distinguish professions from other occupations. Instead, a body of knowledge is necessary for an occupation to become recognized as a profession. Unlike established professions such as law and medicine, law enforcement lacks theoretical underpinnings. More than law status and prestige, an absence of a theoretical basis could inhibit law enforcement's goal of professionalization.

Wilson (1968:30) has noted several other reasons why law enforcement officials have not achieved professional status.

The police are not in any of these senses professionals. They acquire most of their skill and knowledge on the job, not in separate academies; they are emphatically subject to the authority of their superiors; they have no serious professional society, only a union-like bargaining agent; and they do not produce, in systematic written form, new knowledge about their craft.

Law enforcement then, is unlikely to attain the status of a profession without radical changes in the role of law enforcement in our society and of public perceptions of law enforcement as a prestigious occupation.

Returning to our discussion of training programs, Tenney (1971:8) has offered the following definition of training courses:

A particular subject may be determined to be of the training variety if it is directed primarily to the mastery and application of particular rules, to the development of mechanical skills in the operation of particular items of equipment, or to the development of skill in the performance of particular maneuvers concerning which little or no discretion is involved. In some cases, the training nature of a course inheres in the subject matter itself.

Of the 28 law enforcement programs he surveyed in 1971, Tenney found that 14 were training-oriented.

As stated previously there are still those who advocate training programs in higher education, but there is also a large number of practitioners and educators who are critical of law enforcement training at the college level (Adams, 1973; Brown, 1974; Folley, 1967; Germann, 1967; Gross, 1973; Jameson, 1966; President's Commission, 1967c; Saunders, 1970; Tenney, 1971).

College-based training programs are rejected for a variety of reasons. For one, law enforcement officers generally receive training in police techniques in academies (Adams, 1973; Germann, 1967; President's Commission, 1967c; Tenney, 1971). Not only may college training duplicate what is later taught, but it may also conflict with what is taught in police academies.

There are both empirical and practical reasons why college-based training programs should be discouraged (Tenney, 1971). One unresolved issue is whether college training programs produce "superior" law enforcement officers. Although this issue could probably be subjected to empirical test, it would certainly be a difficult task. However, the nature of the subject matter, problems with finding instructors with both adequate experience and academic backgrounds, and the reluctance of institutions of higher education to accept such programs are sufficient reasons for rejecting these programs. (There may also be the problem of transferring credits if the student is enrolled in a two-year college.)

The discussion of professional and liberal arts programs will clarify some of the other reasons for opposing training programs. Tenney (1971) has made a distinction between "professional" and social science programs with probably the key factor separating the two being that virtually all "professional" programs are designed for present or future practitioner roles, while a goal

of social science programs is to prepare students for advanced education at the graduate level (Beto and Marsh, 1975). Since neither of these differences seems crucial we have chosen to classify them both as academic programs.

In general, supporters of academic programs advocate them because it is felt that they provide the student with a broader background than training programs. This rationale is not restricted to law enforcement education, as suggested by the following statement from a sociologist (Bressler, 1967:50):

In one sense general education is the most efficient form of occupational training. Rapid change is hostile to narrow expertise and a curriculum that emphasizes breadth and flexibility may better equip a student to meet unpredictable vocational demands.

Similar justifications have been given for liberal arts-oriented law enforcement programs but the question still remains as to whether these programs should be housed in separate or existing departments. For example, some have suggested that law enforcement programs should be interdisciplinary and emphasize liberal arts and social sciences (President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967c), but it remains uncertain whether police science or liberal arts programs are most appropriate (National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, 1973b).

Several other positions are taken on the most appropriate kind(s) of education for law enforcement. One possibility is programs with liberal arts courses taught in conjunction with professional (law enforcement) courses (Folley, 1967) and another is multi-disciplinary programs which emphasize the behavioral and social sciences (Germann, 1967).

A central problem confronting criminal justice educators is that the goals of law enforcement education have not been specified (National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, 1973a; Olson, 1974;

Tenney, 1971). However, several persons have addressed the issue of objectives for law enforcement education.

Brown (1974), has suggested that the role of the policeman should be redefined because there is an increasing need for officers who can understand the complexities of our society as well as differences in individuals. Those programs which produce well-educated rather than well-trained individuals are thus most appropriate. To quote (Brown, 1974:123):

More important, college and university programs must be prepared to pave the way for innovations and changes in the police system. The mere placing of new faces with the same knowledge in leadership positions within the police establishment will not produce changes. Therefore, colleges and universities have a moral obligation to produce change agents--change agents that understand bureaucratic procedures and the reluctance to deviate from the status quo; change agents dedicated to and capable of challenging all of the existing assumptions held by the police and, where necessary, implementing radical changes. This is the challenge of higher education.

Criminal justice educational programs can best meet their challenge by developing a curriculum that will "provide students who are interested in the general area of law enforcement with a liberal arts education with an emphasis on social science disciplines" (Lejins, 1970:28). Professional programs of the "how-to-do-it" type do not meet the needs of modern policing. The key to being a good policeman in modern society is to understand people, self, and society. This can best be accomplished by developing criminal justice curricula that are strongly oriented in the behavioral sciences (see Tenney, 1971). They should have their goal "to provide an officer with a broad knowledge of human behavior, social problems, and the democratic process" (American Bar Association, 1972: 217).

Clearly, the issue of whether or not education is necessary for criminal justice personnel is no longer a significant one, with educators and practitioners alike agreeing that education will ultimately produce a "better" criminal justice system.

The issue of what kind of education is most appropriate is more controversial. We have attempted to distinguish between training and liberal arts (academic) programs. For now, the arguments in favor of various programs rest on ideological and logical grounds rather than empirical ones. (It is questionable that it could be demonstrated that a particular program is "better" than another one because deciding upon operational criteria for assessing programs is difficult).

Since we have discussed some of the basic issues in criminal justice education, we will now turn to an examination of some of these issues as they relate to specific criminal justice education programs in five states.

Criminal Justice Education in Alaska, Idaho,
Montana, Oregon, and Washington

The purpose of this section is two fold--first, to examine some of the characteristics of criminal justice programs in this five-state area, as well as enrollment information and the number of degrees conferred in 1973-74, and second, to address the question of whether programs are training or academic in nature. Whenever possible, our findings will be compared with those of Foster (1974) who undertook a similar study of LEEP institutions and programs nationally in 1972-73.

There are several problems with restricting our analysis to only LEEP insitutions. For one, it is unknown if this universe encompasses all school offering criminal justice programs (other shortcomings will be discussed when they arise). Also, at present, LEEP requires accreditation of all schools receiving LEEP funds and this may necessarily exclude some unaccredited schools from our analysis. However, it is doubtful that there are many schools falling into this category of unaccredited institutions with criminal justice programs.

The analysis to follow is largely confined to the information on LEEP institutional applications (additionally, school catalogues have been used to ascertain the orientations of programs). Although the items on the LEEP institutional applications are generally adequate for our purposes, it would have been helpful to have more detailed information on several aspects of the programs.

Finally, some may question the reliability and validity of the enrollment and graduation data. In one sense, many of these statistics may be viewed as underestimates because they include only those students receiving LEEP funds. However, others may argue that those administering criminal justice programs may inflate these numbers so that they can maximize the amounts of their LEEP funds. To confirm the accuracy of the enrollment and graduate information, we have compared the data obtained from LEEP institutional applications with data from a questionnaire sent to all LEEP institutions in the region. Although only slightly over forty percent of the questionnaires were returned (for this reason the information will be included only in the appendix), the enrollment and graduate information was very similar to that obtained from institutional applications.¹

Characteristics of Criminal Justice Programs and Schools

In examining several aspects of criminal justice programs and schools in the region, two-year schools will be compared with four-year institutions when appropriate because there is some evidence that programs in the two are dissimilar

¹ Enrollment and graduate information is available in the appendix.

(Foster, 1974; Tenney, 1971). In particular, programs in two-year institutions tend to be more training-oriented than those in four-year schools.

At present there are 65 schools receiving LEEP funds in the five state region.¹ Thirty-five are two-year colleges while thirty are four-year colleges or universities (see Table 4). Of these schools, the majority (33) are located in Washington, with nineteen in Oregon, seven in Montana, four in Idaho, and two in Alaska. This uneven distribution is obviously due to the fact that Oregon and Washington are the most populous of the five states.

Table 4
Type of Schools by State

	2 year colleges	4 year colleges	Total
Alaska	0	2	2
Idaho	1	3	4
Montana	2	5	7
Oregon	12	7	19
Washington	<u>20</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>33</u>
Total	35	30	65

The pattern of growth of schools receiving LEEP funds in the five states is similar to that of the trend nationally (see Tables 1 and 2). Slightly more than three-fourths of the schools initially received LEEP funds in 1969 or 1970 while the remaining institutions first received funds in the period from 1971 to 1974.

¹ Actually there are 66 schools, but one school has been purposely eliminated because it offers a one-year training program exclusively for police cadets.

Table 5
Percentages of Schools Entering LEEP by Year and Type of School

Year	2 year Colleges	4 Year Institutions	Total
1969	45.7	40.0	43.1
1970	31.4	33.3	32.3
1971	2.9	13.3	7.7
1972	8.6	6.7	7.7
1973	8.6	0.0	4.6
1974	<u>2.9</u>	<u>6.7</u>	<u>4.6</u>
Total	100.1 (n=35)	100.0 (n=30)	100.0 (n=65)

Only a small percentage of schools have consortium agreements with other schools (about seventeen percent),¹ but over eighty-five percent of the institutions have criminal justice advisory committees (see Table 6). The first finding suggests that transferring credits from one institution to another may be problematic in many instances. With regard to the proportion of schools with criminal justice advisory committees, Foster (1974) reported that only about 65 percent of the schools participating in LEEP had such committees. Since those schools receiving LEEP funds have been encouraged to create advisory committees in order to strengthen their ties with the criminal justice community, these findings will probably be viewed favorably by LEAA.

1 The term "consortium agreement" is left undefined in the LEEP institutional applications. However, we would assume that consortium agreements relate to the transferability of courses between schools.

Table 6

Schools with Consortium Agreements and Criminal Justice Advisory Committees

Consortium Agreement	2 Year Colleges	4 Year Institutions	Total
	(figures in percent)		
Yes	17.1	13.8	16.9
No	<u>82.9</u>	<u>86.2</u>	<u>83.1</u>
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(n=35)	(n=29)	(n=64)
Advisory Committee			
Yes	85.7	86.7	86.2
No	<u>14.3</u>	<u>13.3</u>	<u>13.8</u>
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(n=35)	(n=30)	(n=65)

Another variation among schools receiving LEEP funds has to do with whether or not they offer criminal justice related degrees. Foster (1974) found that over 72 percent of all schools nationally had degree offerings. Moreover, as Table 7 indicates, we found that slightly less than two-thirds of the schools in the five states offered criminal justice related degrees. Similar to Foster (1974), we also found that two-year institutions (over eighty percent) are more likely to offer degrees than 4-year schools (less than half). Foster (1974) suggested that greater flexibility and greater acceptance of criminal justice related degree programs in two-year colleges are two possible explanations for this difference.

Table 7

Percentage of Schools Offering Criminal Justice Related Degrees

	2 Year Colleges	4 Year Institutions	Total
Yes	80.0	46.7	64.6
No	17.1	50.0	32.3
No response	<u>2.9</u>	<u>3.3</u>	<u>3.1</u>
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(n=35)	(n=30)	(n=65)

Table 8

Degree Offerings by Degree Title

Degree Title	A.A.	B.A.	M.A.	Total
1. Law Enforcement/ Police Science Police Administration	62.5	19.0	0.0	42.0
2. Forensics/ Criminalistics/ Security	2.5	0.0	0.0	1.4
3. Corrections/ Correctional Administration/ Probation and Parole	15.0	9.5	12.5	13.0
4. Criminal Justice/ Criminal Justice Administration/ Criminology/ Administration of Justice	15.0	38.1	25.0	23.2
5. Sociology/ Anthropology/ Psychology/ Behavioral Science/ Social Work/ Social Welfare	5.0	78.5	62.5	18.8
6. Other	<u>0.0</u>	<u>4.8</u>	<u>0.0</u>	<u>1.4</u>
Total	100.0	99.9	100.0	99.8
	(n=40)	(n=21)	(n=8)	(n=69)

CONTINUED

1 OF 2

As Table 8 indicates, there are 69 criminal justice related degrees¹ offered at the 65 schools in the region. Of these degrees, 40 are two-year, 21 are four-year, and eight are at the masters' level. Almost two-thirds of the two-year degrees are offered in police science, law enforcement, or police administration and nearly 40 percent of the bachelors' degrees are offered in criminal justice, criminal justice administration, administration of justice, or criminology. In contrast, masters' level offerings are most commonly in social science, social welfare, or social work. In other words, two-year degrees are most likely to be in criminal justice or law enforcement while this is least common at the masters' level. This is expected because two-year schools are more likely to accept crime-related degree programs than four-year colleges or universities.

Characteristics of Faculty Members in Programs Participating in LEEP

We shall now turn to an examination of the characteristics of faculty members teaching in programs receiving LEEP funds.² There are several problems associated with the faculty data. The foremost problem is that those responding to the question about faculty members may interpret it in varied ways, for the particular item asks the respondent to identify "each faculty member projected to teach directly related criminal justice courses" (emphasis added). Besides

1 It should be pointed out that two-year schools are not the only schools offering associate degrees, for several colleges and universities offer them also.

2 We have chosen to make no distinction between full-time or part-time faculty members because it is unknown what proportion of courses are taught by the two respective kinds of instructors.

relying on future expectations of respondents, interpretations of what courses are directly related to criminal justice may vary from school to school. Although this may not be a problem in schools with criminal justice programs because the parameters are more clearly defined, schools with no specific criminal justice programs may present a problem because they are confronted with the situation of deciding which faculty members are teaching courses directly related to criminal justice. (Unfortunately, we have been unable to distinguish between these two kinds of faculty members).

Despite these limitations, the data do allow us to address the question of whether or not faculty in two-year schools differ from those in colleges or universities. It is predicted that faculty members in four-year schools have earned higher degrees than those in two-year schools while the latter will have more criminal justice experience than the former. The first proposition is probably generally true of instructors in the two kinds of schools and the second proposition follows from the notion that criminal justice programs in two-year institutions are more skills-oriented than the programs in four-year schools.

Information on five specific characteristics of faculty members has been obtained from LEEP institutional applications and they include: highest degree earned, degree area, area of criminal justice experience, number of years of experience, and full-time or part-time teaching status.

Table 9
Highest Degree Earned by Type of School

Highest Degree	Type of School		
	Two-Year Colleges	Four-Year Institutions	Total
None or Associate	8.8	.5	4.0
Bachelors	21.6	2.5	10.7
Masters	33.1	32.8	32.9
Ph.D.	6.8	45.5	28.9
Law	<u>29.7</u>	<u>18.7</u>	<u>23.4</u>
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(n=148)	(n=109)	(n=346)

As expected, faculty members in colleges or universities have typically earned higher degrees than teachers in two-year schools (see Table 9). The most surprising finding is the inordinately high percentage of instructors with law degrees in both two-year schools (almost 30 percent) and colleges and universities (nearly a fifth) because criminal law offerings comprise only a small portion of most criminal justice curricula. However, many of these teachers are probably part-time.

Table 10
Area of Highest Degree Earned by Type of School

Area of Degree	Type of School		
	Two-Year Colleges	Four-Year Institutions	Total
Criminal Justice	18.9	4.5	10.7
Social Science	18.2	54.5	39.0
Business, Public Administration, or Science	10.8	6.1	8.1
Law	27.7	19.2	22.8
Other	13.5	13.6	13.6
Unknown	<u>10.8</u>	<u>2.0</u>	<u>5.8</u>
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(n=148)	(n=198)	(n=346)

There are considerable differences between the areas of degrees earned by faculty members in two and four-year schools (see Table 10). Over half the instructors in colleges and universities have earned degrees in social science and almost a fifth have received law degrees. In contrast, over a quarter of the instructors in two-year institutions have law degrees, about a fifth have degrees in social science, and nearly twenty percent have received degrees in criminal justice.

Table 11
Area of Criminal Justice Experience by Type of School

Area of Experience	Type of School		
	Two-Year Colleges	Four-Year Institutions	Total
Law Enforcement	54.5	6.6	26.8
Corrections	7.6	17.7	13.4
Law	20.0	9.6	14.0
Other Criminal Justice	6.9	11.1	9.3
None	8.3	50.5	32.7
More than one area	<u>2.8</u>	<u>4.5</u>	<u>3.8</u>
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(n=145)	(n=198)	(n=343)

As evidenced by Table 11, instructors in two-year schools most often have had experience in law enforcement (over one-half) while about fifty percent of four-year faculty members have no criminal justice experience. This is expected because nearly two-thirds of the associate degrees are offered in law enforcement but only about one-fifth of the bachelors degrees are given in law enforcement (see Table 5). These findings further document the notion that programs in two-year schools are more training-oriented than four-year ones because apparently two-year schools place greater emphasis on criminal justice experience as a condition for hiring.

Table 12

Number of Years of Criminal Justice Experience by Type of School

Years Experience	Type of School		Total
	Two-Year Colleges	Four-Year Institutions	
None	12.1	55.5	36.7
1-10	41.7	32.9	36.7
11-20	26.5	8.1	16.1
21-35	19.7	3.5	10.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(n=132)	(n=173)	(n=305)

Instructors at two-year schools are usually more experienced than their counterparts in four-year schools (see Table 12). Since faculty members in colleges and universities have generally received higher degrees than those in two-year institutions (see Table 9), this may partially account for this difference in criminal justice experience.

Table 13
Highest Degree Earned by Years Experience

<u>Highest Degree</u>	Two-Year				<u>Total</u>
	<u>None</u>	<u>1-10</u>	<u>11-20</u>	<u>21-35</u>	
Associate	0.0	18.2	54.5	27.3	100.0
Bachelors	0.0	31.0	31.0	37.9	100.0
Masters	20.0	45.5	25.0	9.1	100.0
Ph.D.	50.0	0.0	50.0	0.0	100.0
Law	<u>7.5</u>	<u>60.0</u>	<u>12.5</u>	<u>20.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>
Total	12.1	41.7	26.5	19.7	100.0

(n=132)

<u>Highest Degree</u>	Four-Year				<u>Total</u>
	<u>None</u>	<u>1-10</u>	<u>11-20</u>	<u>21-35</u>	
Associate	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Bachelors	20.0	40.0	40.0	0.0	100.0
Masters	40.0	40.0	13.3	6.7	100.0
Ph.D.	78.8	18.8	1.3	1.3	100.0
Law	<u>25.9</u>	<u>59.3</u>	<u>11.1</u>	<u>3.7</u>	<u>100.0</u>
Total	55.5	32.9	8.1	3.5	100.0

(n=173)

Table 13

<u>Highest Degree</u>	<u>Total</u> Years Experience				<u>Total</u>
	<u>None</u>	<u>1-10</u>	<u>11-20</u>	<u>21-35</u>	
Associate	8.3	16.7	50.0	25.0	100.0
Bachelors	2.9	32.4	32.4	32.4	100.0
Masters	31.7	42.3	18.3	7.7	100.0
Ph.D.	76.1	17.0	5.7	1.1	100.0
Law	<u>14.9</u>	<u>59.7</u>	<u>11.9</u>	<u>13.4</u>	<u>100.0</u>
Total	36.7	36.7	16.1	10.5	100.0

(n=305)

To determine if there is a relationship between the level of degree attainment and years of experience, we will compare two-year with four-year schools (see Table 13). Regardless of degree level, instructors at two-year institutions typically have more experience than instructors at colleges and universities. From this finding, we can infer that two-year schools are likely to be more training oriented than four-year schools and also that the former may place greater emphasis on experience as a condition for hiring than the latter. Additional implications of the differences between faculty members at the two kinds of schools will be discussed following an examination of courses at two-year and four-year schools.

Characteristics of Courses Offered at LEEP Institutions

Analysis of the content of courses will allow us to further explore the hypothesis that programs in two-year schools are more likely to be skills-oriented than the ones in four-year schools. Tenney (1971) has identified courses as being training, professional, or social science. Using Tenney's definition of training courses:

A particular subject may be determined to be of the training variety if it is directed primarily to the mastery and application of particular rules, to the development of particular mechanical skills in the operation of particular equipment, or to the development of particular maneuvers concerning which little or no discretion is involved. In some cases, the training nature of a course inheres in the subject matter itself (1971:7).

In addition, Tenney suggests that training courses are likely to be of the kind taught in police academies and that in many instances they are specifically designed for in-service students, although this may be implicit rather than explicit!

In contrast, professional courses are designed to prepare the student for a role in criminal justice, but they are not restricted to the development of skills.

Here the course should be directed toward the development of internalized standards of behavior, objectively determined on the basis of agreed upon goals; toward the achievement of an awareness and understanding of alternative methods of achieving these goals depending on varying sets of circumstances; and toward the development of a foundation of expertise in particular subject areas (Tenney, 1971:8).

Tenney has defined a third kind of course as social science.

Courses which are characterized as social science are designed to teach about a particular subject. Unlike either the training or professional, however, they are not directed specifically to the preparation for work in the area studied, although they may be offered as appropriate and even necessary "background" study for professional preparation (Tenney, 1971:8, emphasis in the original).

Since Tenney's crucial distinction between professional and social science courses is whether or not the course prepares the student for work in criminal justice, we have classified both as academic because it is difficult to ascertain if a particular course prepares a student for a criminal justice role. At the same time, courses such as abnormal psychology and social deviancy have been omitted here. One of the reasons for eliminating these courses is that in many instances it is difficult to determine if a course is specifically related to criminal justice.

What distinguishes training courses (applied) from academic courses is that the former are designed to teach students the mastery of particular criminal justice skills. In addition, they are likely to be of the variety taught in criminal justice training academies or agencies. On the other hand, academic courses are geared to teach students about specific criminal justice subject areas and these courses would probably not be taught in training academies or agencies.

Several examples of applied and academic courses taken from school may help to further clarify the differences between the two. Purposely we have excluded extreme examples of either training or academic courses. (For instance, applied courses such as riot control and the use of firearms are not included in the examples).

The following are illustrative of applied courses:

Criminal Investigation - Fundamentals of investigation; crime scene search; sketching and recording; collection and preservation of physical evidence; scientific aids; modus operandi; sources of information; interviews and interrogation; follow-up and case preparation (Blue Mountain Community College).

Pre-sentence Investigation - Discussion and limited practice of the techniques of investigating criminal and civil cases prior to the imposition of the sentence by the judge. Practice in writing reports. Study of courtroom procedure (University of Alaska).

Seminar-Criminal Justice - Seminar program to meet the needs of law enforcement officers in specific areas of professional development such as traffic control, investigation, and criminal evidence (Lower Columbia College).

Criminal Law and Enforcement - A course to give the student a working knowledge of the motor vehicle laws as to moving traffic violations, driver's licenses, equipment violations, and safety laws (Lewis-Clark State College).

Crime Prevention - The fundamentals of uniformed police in various types of patrol to include the responsibilities, techniques, and methods of policing for the prevention and suppression of crime (Shoreline Community College).

The following are examples of academic courses:

Theory of Law Enforcement - The theory and philosophy of the patrol division in policing for the suppression and prevention of crime (Tacoma Community College).

Correctional Strategies: Theories - Analysis of the various treatment and rehabilitative practices attempted with various types of offenders in both an institutional setting and in the community; includes an examination and evaluation of behavior modification, psychiatric and psychological approaches, group treatment methods, reality therapy, as well as other less known approaches (Portland State University).

Introduction to Justice - The history and philosophy of administration of justice; the nature of crime; identification of sub-systems, role expectations and their interrelationships; ethics and education for professionalism in the system (Highline Community College).

Criminal Law - An analysis of the substantive criminal law along with its history and development. Knowledge of what constitutes specific criminal acts (Dawson College).

Crime Prevention - A survey of the causes of crime and juvenile delinquency and the methods used by criminal justice agencies to deter crime and prevent recidivism with emphasis on innovative practices in crime prevention within the criminal justice system (Bellevue Community College).

It should be clear from the examples that training courses are of the variety which may be later taught in training academies or criminal justice agencies while the nature of academic courses is such that they will probably not be taught outside the boundaries of institutions of higher education. Not only does the subject matter of the two kinds of courses differ substantially (in some instances a course is necessarily applied or academic), but the focus of training courses is skills (how to make a pre-sentence investigation or investigate crimes) while academic courses are oriented toward knowledge about specific areas of criminal justice (theories of crime or the history and development of criminal law).

For our analysis, we have relied on criminal justice course descriptions obtained from school catalogues. There are several limitations on these data. It is unknown how closely a particular instructor conforms to the subject matter described in the catalogue. Also, no distinction has been made between required and general courses and (perhaps more weight should be given to required courses). Finally, it is not known how frequently courses are offered or how many students enroll in them. Nevertheless, an examination of course descriptions should give us some indication of the orientation of programs in two and four-year schools.¹

¹ It should also be noted that criminal justice courses comprise only a portion of the courses required of criminal justice majors.

The orientations of the programs in two-year and four-year institutions have been determined by computing the average number of academic and skills-oriented courses offered.

Table 14
Average Number of Training and Academic Courses Offered at
Two and Four-Year Schools Receiving LEEP Funds

	Two-Year		Four-Year		Total	
	Training	Academic	Training	Academic	Training	Academic
\bar{X} *	6.6	4.4	4.0	5.9	5.2	5.3
\bar{X} **	5.7	4.2	2.7	5.4	4.2	4.8
O ***	4	2	11	0	15	2

* Average number of courses excluding schools which offer no courses.

** Average number of courses including schools which offer no courses.

*** Number of schools offering no courses.

The statistics above consistently indicate that programs in two-year schools are more training-oriented than the ones in colleges and universities (see Table 14). Regardless of whether the average number of training or academic courses is compared, programs in two-year schools are clearly more training-oriented than programs in four-year schools.

Implications for Higher Education

Taken together, the findings on the backgrounds of instructors as well as the data on courses support the proposition that programs in two-year schools are more frequently of the training variety than the ones in four-year schools. With respect to two-year law enforcement programs, this conclusion is consistent with those of others (Tenney, 1971; Weiner, 1974). To cite one critic of law enforcement training programs:

In sum, it has been suggested here that police education as it now exists is too vocational. Police education should be centered in the liberal arts, and it should not be viewed as a cure-all, but realistically, as a broadening experience (Weiner, 1974:325-6).

To some extent, the evidence presented also supports the proposition that two-year programs in other areas of criminal justice are more likely to be oriented towards the development of skills than four-year programs.

There are several implications of these findings. We have contended previously that training programs do not have a place in institutions of higher learning. The programs can create practical problems for students later entering careers in criminal justice or transferring to academic programs. Training programs may duplicate what is later taught in police academies or other training institutions and they may teach either inappropriate skills or ones which conflict with the ones taught in training academies. Also, schools with academic programs may not accept training credits, so that the problem of transferability arises. Finally, programs which focus on skills may restrict the student's future employment options or educational opportunities. (Skills will probably not help the student to prepare for graduate work or work outside the criminal justice system).

A further implication is that two-year schools should place greater emphasis on academic credentials and less emphasis on experience.¹ Otherwise, it is unlikely that the focus of two-year programs will shift from training to academic, for instructors will not have the backgrounds to teach academic courses. A counter to this assertion is that a sufficient number of academically qualified individuals may not be available to teach in two-year programs, but even if this is the case this need could be met by increasing the number of criminal justice students and this is likely to occur because the number of criminal justice graduate programs has increased in recent years.

While we have advocated academic programs throughout our discussion, we have also emphasized that it has not been demonstrated that academic programs better prepare students for roles in criminal justice than training programs. Also, we have not attempted to minimize the importance of the teaching of skills, but only that they should be taught in places other than institutions of higher learning. The kinds of knowledge about criminal justice gained through academic programs can complement rather than contradict the skills later learned through training and enhance the individual's ability to make decisions on a day-to-day basis.

1 The ideal faculty member at a two-year school should have both academic credentials (a least a master's degree) and some direct experience in criminal justice.

Table 1
Average Number of Training and Academic Courses by Area of Course
In Two and Four-Year Schools Receiving LEEP Funds

Area of Course	Two-Year		Four-Year		Total	
	Training	Academic	Training	Academic	Training	Academic
Law Enforcement						
\bar{X} *	2.8	2.6	1.7	2.7	2.0	2.6
\bar{X}_0 **	.4	2.2	.4	1.9	.4	2.1
0***	28	5	26	9	54	14
L.E. Techniques						
\bar{X}	3.6	2.8	2.3	1.2	3.4	2.0
\bar{X}_0	2.8	1.3	.8	.2	1.8	.7
0	8	23	23	28	31	51
Corrections						
\bar{X}	1.0	1.6	1.2	1.4	1.2	1.4
\bar{X}_0	.1	.6	.4	.8	.2	.7
0	31	20	23	13	54	33
Courts						
\bar{X}	1.0	1.8	1.3	1.0	1.2	1.4
\bar{X}_0	.1	.7	.2	.2	.1	.4
0	32	29	29	27	61	56

* Average number of courses excluding schools which offer no courses.

** Average number of courses including schools which offer no courses.

*** Number of schools offering no courses.

Table 1

Area of Course	Two-Year		Four-Year		Total	
	Training	Academic	Training	Academic	Training	Academic
Crime Prevention						
\bar{X}	2.1	1.6	1.3	1.0	1.6	1.7
\bar{X}_0	.8	.9	.2	.1	.5	.5
0	21	17	29	29	50	46
Research						
\bar{X}	1.6	1.4	1.0	1.0	1.5	1.3
\bar{X}_0	.6	.3	.1	.1	.3	.2
0	21	25	31	30	52	55
Practicum						
\bar{X}	1.1	1.0	1.4	1.0	1.2	0
\bar{X}_0	.6	0	.4	0	.5	0
0	17	33	24	33	41	66
Other						
\bar{X}	1.0	1.5	15.	0	23	1.3
\bar{X}_0	.1	.1	.2	.1	.1	.1
0	32	32	30	31	62	63
Totals						
\bar{X}	6.6	4.4	4.0	1.0	5.2	5.3
\bar{X}_0	5.7	4.2	2.7	5.4	4.2	4.8
0	4	2	11	0	15	2

Table 2

Numbers of Students Enrolled and Numbers of Graduates in Criminal
Justice in 1973 and Estimates for 1974

	1973		
	Two-Year	Four-Year	Total
Total Enrollment	111,565	153,898	265,463
Total Criminal Justice Students	5,235	3,215	8,450
Total Associate Degrees	502	26	528
Total Bachelors Degrees	--	477	477
Total Masters Degrees	--	107	107
Total Criminal Justice Degrees	502	610	1,112
	1974		
	Two-Year	Four-Year	Total
Total Enrollment	117,261	159,676	276,937
Total Criminal Justice Students	6,058	3,311	9,369
Total Associate Degrees	608	39	647
Total Bachelors Degrees	--	545	545
Total Masters Degrees	--	133	133
Total Criminal Justice Degrees	608	717	1,374

Table 3
Questionnaire Information

Item

1. Does your program offer academic credit for previous work experience?

Yes	58%
No	42%
Total	100%
	(n=24)

2. Does your program offer students the opportunity to gain field experience?

Yes	70%
No	30%
Total	100%
	(n=23)

3. Is this field experience mandatory or optional?

Mandatory	20%
Optional	80%
Total	100%
	(n=15)

4. Are student paid for their field experience?

Yes	7%
No	33%
Depends	60%
Total	100%
	(n=15)

5. Are there presently any faculty positions open in your program?

Yes	26%	How many?	3-5
No	74%		
Total	100%		
	(n=19)		

6. Do you anticipate a reduction in the number of faculty positions for 1975-76?

Yes	0	How many?	0
No	100%		
Total	100%		
	(n=19)		

Table 3

7. Do you anticipate hiring any new faculty for 1975-76?

Yes	37%	How many?	11-13
No	63%		
Total	100%		
	(n=19)		

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Part III: The Future of Education and Manpower

In an earlier chapter, we argued that traditional manpower forecasting techniques are too imprecise and involve too many questionable assumptions to be of much use beyond short term planning. We further argued that a target or goal setting approach would resolve many of these difficulties because it would provide a basis for planning educational programs which would be capable of meeting future manpower needs. But setting goals for the criminal justice system is no simple task; it requires, among other things, an examination of past successes and failures of the system, a knowledge of emergent enforcement and treatment theories and tactics and an understanding of how educational programs might be designed to meet the quantitative and qualitative needs of the criminal justice system. In short, we are required to attempt to predict and even influence the manpower and educational needs for the criminal justice system of several decades or more to come, based upon trends which may be just beginning in 1975.

There are already movements for change in the criminal justice system, not only among academic criminologists but among practitioners as well. It would behoove us to be aware of these emerging philosophies if our educational institutions are going to turn out professionals and para-professionals with the appropriate skills and abilities to plan for and deal with the needed changes that flow out of some of these emerging philosophies. A central purpose of this chapter will be to articulate these shifts in criminal justice perspectives. Also, we propose to analyze these new directions in terms of how likely they are to become intergrated into criminal justice systems of the future as well as how necessary they are for the improvement of the administration of justice in the United States. This concluding chapter will also discuss the probable effects of these changes on criminal justice education in future years.

A number of criminologists have identified schools of criminological thought, that is, perspectives or philosophies which guide researchers and practitioners in dealing with a given subject matter. Three major historical schools of thought can be identified in criminology: (1) the classical school, (2) the positivist or treatment school, and the (3) emergent or structural school. While different authors have sliced up these schools differently and have chosen different names for each school, the substantive aspects are roughly the same (Robertson, 1969; Doleschal and Klapmuts, 1973; and Miller, 1974).

The Classical School

A core tenet of the classical school identified the individual as ultimately responsible for his own actions. Criminal behavior was seen as the product of immoral, wicked people. According to Doleschal and Klapmuts (1973):

The classical school maintained that punishment is a deterrent and that it should cause enough fear, over and above the pleasure derived from the crime, to inhibit deviant behavior. Its proponents thought that punishment should be humane and reformatory and were responsible for the substitution of imprisonment for corporal punishment and torture. The classical school was a system of universal abstract justice based on the assumption of free will (p. 608).

The key to the classical school of criminology was that the criminal is responsible for his behavior while the society need accept no blame. It was, indeed, in Pangloss' terminology "the best of all possible worlds" and anyone who didn't play by the rules had no justifiable reason for lawbreaking, hence he had only himself to blame when he received punishment. The classical school presented a very simple system of justice; the society had to be protected from wrongdoers through threats and intimidation. If, by some chance, the wrongdoer could also be taught the errors of his ways, society received a bonus from punishment.

The classical school received ethical justification from Protestantism which strongly supported the contentions of the early crime theorists; indeed, Robertson (1969) termed the classical school the "Protestant value-system" of criminology.

Essentially, the Protestant value-system is a complex of sentiments, norms, attitudes and values which, through their influence in shaping the aspirations of the members of society, become translated into social behavior as individual effort and initiative. Through it the individual is presented with a well-defined notion of the 'ideal' man--an image upon which he is encouraged to model his own personality and behavior (p. 548).

Another important characteristic of the classical school is that the classical theorists were relatively uninterested in the criminal qua criminal, rather they were concerned about crime and the legal order. One should make punishment fit the crime not the criminal (Jeffery, 1973).

Toward the end of the 19th century and the rise of Darwinian thought, perspectives on crime and crime control began to be altered. The evolutionary teachings of Darwinian thought led to positivist notions about criminality as biologically determined and to new crime control proposals. It should be noted however, that classical and neo-classical assumptions are still involved as major theoretical underpinnings of Anglo-Saxon laws and criminal procedures.

The Positivist or Treatment School

The major difference between the classical and the positivist school of criminology was that the positive school was obsessed with rehabilitation; related, in turn, to the positivist perspectives on causation which locate the etiology of criminal behavior within the individual or within some associational group. It was the work of Freud which, had the greatest impact on the treatment thrust of positivism, but sociology did much to provide support for the major contentions of the school. An individual's behavior is thought to be determined

by the social and environmental conditions in which he lives; hence, criminal behavior is a symptom of some behavioral or social maladjustment. The positivist-rehabilitation orientation, like the classical school, assumes that the social order as a whole is in a healthy state but that some parts of it are not doing an appropriate job of producing acceptable behavior. The "culture of poverty" literature embodies this argument quite clearly as do many of the major criminological theories of the twentieth century, most notably Sutherland and Cressey's (1970) "differential association theory." Where the classical school would punish the willful hedonist for the crime he committed, the treatment school would provide corrective therapy based upon profiles of his social or psychological misfortunes. Punishment and protection of the society are no longer the only reasons for depriving an individual of his freedom; we must remake the offender as well. The positivist school has been the dominant school of criminology for the past 50 years, as the vocabularies of the practitioner and criminologist alike clearly indicate. Words like corrections, behavioral modification, therapeutic community, rehabilitation and resocialization all lead us to the conclusion that this may not be the "best of all possible worlds," but it can be, if only we could retrain or resocialize those unfortunate and maladjusted people whose experiences have prevented them from being contented lawabiding citizens.

The positivist-rehabilitation approach to crime control has recently been attacked not only because treatment apparently has been ineffective in changing the behavior of offenders, but also because of social and political developments in this country during the 1960's and early 1970's which focused on the institutions of our "best of all possible worlds." The social and political

upheavals of this period, coupled with the popularization of labelling theory (Becker, 1963; Gibbons and Jones, 1975) is leading to new thoughtways in criminology and criminal justice. These new views have been referred to in varying terminologies. Doleschal and Klapmuts (1973) refer to the interactionist school; Robertson (1969) refers to the "experimental value-system;" while Jeffery (1973) speaks of the environmental model. For reasons which will become clear shortly, we shall pick yet another name: the emergent or structural school.

The Emergent or Structural School

As noted above, new views have emerged for two major reasons: (1) increasing evidence that treatment has been largely ineffective in dealing with the problem of crime and the criminal and (2) rapid social and political changes in the 60's and early 70's brought into question the assumptions upon which treatment approaches are based, indeed, even the definitions of crime and criminal have become problematic. Doleschal and Klapmuts (1973) mirror the first point:

Still largely unknown to the majority of correctional practitioners today, a new criminological and correctional philosophy is slowly gaining acceptance both in the United States and abroad. Originating in Scandinavia, the new philosophy rejects the treatment ideology on several grounds of ineffectiveness; the magic pill to cure recidivism cannot be found because the "ailment" does not exist. True successes in rehabilitation have been virtually nonexistent (p. 610).

The new perspective which is slowly emerging rejects the notion of individual treatment. It eschews the criminal--non-criminal dichotomy or what Gibbons and Garabedian (1974:52) call a "'good guy' and 'bad guy' image of criminality." Criminal or non-criminal behavior cannot be explained adequately using psychological explanations nor can it be explained very well by appealing to differences

in a person's socialization experiences. Gordon (1974) states:

It (radical criminology) presumes, first of all, that the basic structure of the social and economic institutions in any society fundamentally shapes the behavior of individuals in that society and, therefore that one cannot in fact understand the behavior of individuals in a society like the United States without first understanding the structures and biases of the basic "system-defining" institutions in this country (p. 73).

The general notion that behavior ought to be understood from a social-structural viewpoint leads us to call this school of criminology the structural school. Rather than altering the behavior of particular individuals within a society we should concentrate on altering the structural contingencies to which that behavior is a response. Criminal behavior can thus be seen as a rational response for an individual who has few, if any, other behavioral options within the social-organizational arrangements of society. We should, according to proponents of this school, increase each individual's options in any given situation by giving him more control over those institutions and associations which effect him or her. The recent moves toward decriminalization in this country are essentially along these lines; rather than locking an individual into certain rigid behavioral expectations, we can and should release him or her from many of these expectations.

In a sense the structural school represents a return to many of the concerns of the classical school. The structural school is more interested in crime--how and who defines it, the role of power in determining it and what structural features lead to higher crime rates--than in the individual criminal. It differs from the classical school however in that rather than

using punishment to deter certain kinds of undesirable behavior, the structural school seeks to illuminate why and how certain kinds of behavior become defined as undesirable.

A number of assumptions concerning the future of criminological research and practice can be made from this cursory examination of schools of thought in criminal justice. It is clear that increasing numbers of criminologists are beginning to doubt the effectiveness of current methods of dealing with crime and the criminal and will be actively advocating change in the system. While most governmental programs are clearly based on liberal-positivist-rehabilitation arguments, (Broadhead and Griswold, 1974) a number of under-currents are observable which indicate that a number of changes can be expected.

The remainder of this paper is devoted to an analysis of proposed changes in the criminal justice system and the effects of these changes on future manpower needs. Special emphasis will be placed on new occupational roles which are called for in a changing criminal justice system.

A number of new directions in criminal justice which have been proposed have already been incorporated in documents produced by state planning agencies particularly in the field of juvenile corrections. The State planning agencies in both Washington and Oregon for example, (Washington State Comprehensive Plan, 1974; State of Oregon, 1974) have professed a strong need for changes in their criminal justice systems. The major goals articulated in their planning documents include a strong emphasis on "alternatives to incarceration." Oregon's 1980 Standards and Goals Volume (1974) includes a number of recommendations along similar lines; community correctional centers, (p. 61), increased use of parole and probation, (p. 55) and programs aimed at diverting juveniles

from the criminal justice system are all proposed:

Many offenders, both misdemeanant and felon, are incarcerated in institutions because of limited sentencing alternatives or are confined longer than necessary, and many could be better rehabilitated in community-based facilities or programs. Abrupt and/or unsupervised release often returns an offender to the community facing family, employment, and leisure-time problems with which he is unable to cope (p. 286).

Similar plans have been proposed in Washington State. Indeed, if there is a magic phrase which sums up the general trend in adult corrections at the National and state level that phrase would be, "alternatives to incarceration" while in the juvenile justice system the magic word is "diversion." The prison and other large group detention facilities are under attack, and justly so, for a number of reasons. Large detention facilities are seen as dehumanizing and economically inefficient, not only because of the massive direct costs incurred from the operating expenses but from a number of indirect costs as well, i.e., welfare payments for maintenance of inmate's families and lost tax monies on wages the inmate might otherwise be earning. Much of the support for alternatives to incarceration has come from budgetary problems faced by each state even though in some cases it has not proven less expensive to maintain offenders in community facilities (Gibbons and Blake, 1975; Palmer, 1974). The trend toward alternatives to institutions has also grown out of strong doubts about the effectiveness of treatment programs operated through large detention facilities. Paranthetically, we should note that while a large number of researchers have argued that correctional facilities through the labelling process, reinforce deviant behavior, supportive evidence for this claim is yet at hand. Thus, Gibbons and Jones (1975) conclude their analysis of treatment programs by arguing:

On the whole, the materials in this section on correctional agencies and institutions present a fairly dismal picture. Even so, the evidence indicates that these organizations often operate in relatively neutral ways rather than as "crime schools." The data certainly present a challenge to anyone of a labeling persuasion who might offer an unequivocal and heated denunciation of correctional structures. In short, the real world stubbornly resists the labeler's efforts to characterize it in a few emphatic, plausible conjectures about negative career contingencies (. p. 158).

It would seem that current treatment programs offer little hope for success for most of those currently incarcerated. Indeed, about the best that can be said about most treatment programs is that they are ineffectual and may also have adverse effects on those they are designed to rehabilitate.

Aside from being questionable because of a lack of effectiveness, current correctional systems have also been attacked on the basis of the enforced nature of treatment programs. Anttila, (1972) argues that:

Present day critics of the treatment ideology are more concerned about the dangers of enforced treatment from the point of view of civil liberties. The labeling of a certain sanction as 'treatment' easily leads to disregard of those legal safeguards which normally are attached to manifest punishments (p. 288).

In other words, treatment programs generally, and those which take place inside prisons particularly, are seen as part of the punishment rather than as rehabilitation. Current treatment programs offer relatively little choice to the offender in terms of the type of treatment he or she is to receive.

A final criticism of current correctional practice centers about the removal of the violator from his family and community. Correctional institutions are usually located many miles from the offender's home and the loss of ties within the community can only exacerbate reintegration problems when the inmate is released. While the practice of removing the person from the community has been supported on the grounds that it removes him from a criminal

subculture it also segregates the individual from the dominant culture. This has the effect of alienating him or her from the community in which he or she must succeed.

These criticisms of correctional practice have led to a large number of alternative proposals all of which have as their objective reduction of institutional populations. In a 1972 policy statement the Board of Directors, National Council on Crime and Delinquency (1972) stated that: "No new detention or penal institution should be built before alternatives to incarceration are fully achieved." Since that time the need for reducing the number of incarcerated offenders has been expressed time and time again. A large number of means for doing this have been identified.

Decriminalization

One major proposal for reducing offender populations in correctional institutions is to reduce the number of offenses which result in penal sanctions of any kind. For some time criminologists have been arguing that many offenses which result in incarceration should not be crimes at all. Acts which do not involve clearly identifiable victims are the central targets of decriminalization; crimes such as prostitution, alcoholism, homosexuality and status offenses for juveniles are cases-in-point. The state of Oregon has already moved toward decriminalization in some areas. For example, the possession of less than an ounce of marijuana is now a violation punishable by a \$100 fine, and many alcohol-related offenses have become decriminalized. Additionally, the major overhaul of the Oregon criminal code in 1972 involved the removal of homosexual acts among consenting adults, lewd cohabitation, and fornication from the criminal statutes.

Kadish (1967) goes even further in arguing for decriminalization. He states:

...I want to comment on the problems of over criminalization in just three kinds of situations, in each of which the costs paid primarily affect the day-to-day business of law enforcement. These are situations in which the criminal law is used: (1) to declare or enforce public standards of morality, (2) as a means of providing social services in default of other public agencies, and (3) as a disingenuous means of permitting police to do indirectly what the law forbids them to do directly (p. 159).

Kadish would expunge or decriminalize such activities as non-support, petty forgery and non-payment of bills. Kadish also argues against criminalization of such acts as disorderly conduct.

Disorderly-conduct statutes vary widely. They usually proscribe such conduct as riot, breach of the peace, unlawful assembly, disturbing the peace, and similar conduct in terms so general as to offer the police a broad freedom to decide what conduct to teach as criminal (p. 167).

The model criminal code of the American Bar Association also proposed a number of moves toward decriminalization. The trend toward decriminalization will more than likely continue in the direction explicated above but it remains questionable whether or not this movement will result in any major reduction in the number of offenders brought into the criminal justice system. In many cases, by the time certain behaviors become legally decriminalized, these same behaviors have become de facto decriminalized by the failure of law enforcement agencies to enforce the existing laws against them. For example, while lewd cohabitation and homosexuality are still illegal in many parts of the country, there are relatively few arrests and convictions for violation of these laws. As already noted, Oregon recently decriminalized most sexual practices between "consenting adults" but long before this decriminalization took place police had been systematically ignoring these violations. Decriminalization has been more a result of enforcement practices rather than a cause of enforcement practices.

Another reason why moves toward decriminalization may not seriously effect institutional populations is that even though certain acts are being decriminalized, other acts are being criminalized. A case-in-point here is conspiracy laws which have received so much attention. Recent anti-pornography legislation in Oregon is still another example.

A final problem with decriminalization is that it may result merely in the arrest and incarceration of the same people but for different violations. A case-in-point is status offenses on the part of juveniles. Youth who were brought into the juvenile justice system for status violations prior to decriminalization are likely to be the same youngsters brought into the system, but for different violations. after decriminalization. Many of the violations with which they might be charged in place of status offenses may even be more serious ones, resulting in an increased likelihood of incarceration.

It would appear, then, that decriminalization offers only small promise as a means of reducing the populations of correctional institutions.

Diversio

Diversio is currently a popular notion in criminal justice, especially regarding juveniles. The growth of diversio programs has been great in the last few years. The major objective of these programs is simple; to divert law breakers from the criminal justice system to other community agencies which are less stigmatizing than the former. Much of the current interest in diversio developed from recommendations by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration (1967):

The formal sanctioning system and pronouncement of delinquency should be used only as a last resort. In place of the formal system, dispositional alternatives to adjudication must be developed for

dealing with juveniles, including agencies to provide and coordinate services and procedures to achieve necessary control without unnecessary stigma. Alternatives already available, such as those related to court intake, should be more fully exploited.

The range of conduct for which court interventions is authorized should be narrowed, with greater emphasis upon consensual and informal means of meeting the problems of difficult children. (p.2).

Although the major objectives of diversion programs seem simple, an acceptable and single definition of diversion has yet to be developed. A number of basic questions remain to be answered: Who shall be diverted? Diversion to what? What are the legal issues surrounding diversion? An examination of the literature presents a rather bewildering picture of diversion. (Cressey and McDermott, 1974). Schur (1973) for example, has suggested that we leave kids alone whenever possible, thereby avoiding involving them in a , stigmatizing episode of official reaction. The development of Youth Services Bureaus to channel youth away from traditional court processing is another current popular diversion technique (Polk, 1971; Seymour, 1972; Gibbons, 1975).

There are a number of people who argue that diversion can only take place before the juvenile engages in delinquency behavior. This notion is seen operating in a number of "pre-delinquent" programs which attempt to identify youth who are likely to become lawbreakers and supplying them with treatment services which might prevent later delinquency. Diversion programs are also discussed in the area of adult corrections. Programs designed to provide parole and probation services to misdemeanants are regarded by some as a type of diversion. Misdemeanant programs hopefully will divert petty criminals from careers as felons. Parenthetically, the reasoning behind misdemeanant programs is highly questionable. Proponents argue that a high percentage of

felons began with misdemeanor violations thereby proving a need for treatment. Unfortunately this reasoning is much like the fallacious and misleading argument that most heroin addicts began by using marijuana. There are, to be sure, other attempts at diversion but there remains a lack of consensus as to what does and does not constitute diversion. Were we to operationally define diversion as any program which seeks to limit an individual's involvement with the criminal or juvenile justice system either before arrest or after we would have a wide range of techniques and programs. One of the main goals of criminal justice research and planning should be to clarify the meaning of diversion and to coordinate the efforts of those widely differentiated agencies which operate programs of this type.

Even if we overlook the marked disagreement between practitioners as to what does and does not constitute diversion, there are other problems which might well inhibit diversion programs from reducing the number of youthful offenders processed by the criminal justice system. One potential difficulty which may develop is the unwitting creation of a new clientele. Currently, the police "divert" large numbers of juveniles out of the official system when they administer verbal reprimands and warn them to "go home and stay out of trouble." Even if juveniles are brought into the court system it is common for them to be released at that point with a warning. Cressey and McDermott (1974) pointed this out in their study of one state's juvenile justice system:

"Counsel, Warn, and Release is the most commonly utilized option (by Intake Officers). This disposition is an almost automatic response to cases brought in via citations. The child is usually discharged after a warning, a lecture, or a short conference with him and his parents (p.11).

Should formal diversion programs be established and supported, parallel to the Youth Service Bureau concept (Polk, Ruby and Schuchter, 1974; Seymour, 1972), those youths who might otherwise be sent home may well find themselves sent to a diversion program instead. Diversion in these cases may have the unfortunate consequence of "widening the net of the juvenile justice system," that is diverting youngsters to the attention of the authorities rather than away from it. It is altogether possible that those juveniles who have traditionally been involved in the court process will remain enmeshed in it, while "diversion" programs will pick up those who formerly would not have been processed. Indeed, this is the case in programs designed to provide service to "pre-delinquents" who by definition cannot be treated by the traditional juvenile justice system. If the criminal justice system is so stigmatizing on those youths who go through it, why should we be so anxious to involve them in the system, even if only peripherally, before they have done anything wrong?

From this brief examination of diversion programs it would appear that it is altogether possible that diversion programs will have little effect on the number of people funneled into the formal juvenile court system. Rather than providing alternative treatment programs for youth being processed by the court, diversion programs are likely to focus on youth who would have been released anyway.

Probation and Parole

Another frequently utilized alternative to incarceration has been increased use of probation and parole. With much recent research suggesting that longer sentences do not reduce recidivism rates, the argument for early release becomes stronger. Similarly, the apparent ineffectiveness of incarceration would seem to imply increased use of probation. It is likely that these options could indeed cut down the population of those incarcerated, but it should be noted that deinstitutionalization would increase the burden on already overloaded probation and parole workers. Under probation and parole we might also include such ideas as "deferred guilty verdicts," deferred sentencing and increased use of "release on own recognizance" all of which are becoming more and more popular as alternatives to incarceration. Again, unlike decriminalization, diversion and even community treatment facilities, these programs are likely to have the effect of reducing the number of people incarcerated.¹ However, none of the proposals discussed above are likely to reduce manpower needs for the criminal justice system in the future, indeed they may well increase them. It is to this problem that we now turn.

¹ This is true only if the crime rate were held constant, an unlikely probability. There seems a strong tendency toward a "catch 'em" and "let 'em go" philosophy developing in the criminal justice system. With more and more money going to more police departments to aid in the apprehension of criminals it is possible that we could catch more offenders only to look around for alternatives to incarceration for them, resulting in an ever growing criminal justice system.

Manpower Targets for the Criminal Justice System

In an earlier section we presented projections for criminal justice manpower needs to the year 1990. In that discussion we argued that a number of new developments in criminal justice might well initiate the projections made. From the discussion above it would appear that this argument is only partly true. Rather than altering manpower needs in the present criminal justice system, emerging trends will, more than likely, merely add new types of manpower with somewhat different skills. The only portion of the system which is likely to be effected is the area of corrections. The increased use of parole and probation as an alternative to incarceration is likely to present a dramatic need for more probation and parole personnel. Some data on probation will illustrate this argument: Table 1 shows the growing use of probation in the ten years between 1965 and 1975.

Table 1

Number of Offenders on Probation, and on Parole or in Institutions
in 1965; and Projections for 1975*

Location of Offender	1965		1975	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Probation	684,088	53	1,071,000	58
Parole or Institution	598,298	47	770,000	42
Total	1,282,386	100	1,841,000	100

*Table taken from Winslow, Robert W. Crime in a Free Society, p. 361.

While probation and parole agencies are currently understaffed, this situation will probably become considerably worse in the future. Currently probation officers perform a wide variety of tasks, with fully half of a probation officer's time spent doing presentence investigations, which makes it even more difficult to adequately service caseloads of probationers. In addition, parole and probation officers act as counselors, job developers, and watchmen for those under their supervision. Clearly, reorganization is necessary if probation and parole personnel are to adequately handle and process offenders. A major manpower target for the future should be not only to increase the numbers of probation and parole officers in the system but also to diversify and specialize their tasks. Rather than a single individual processing a large number of clients, probation and parole departments should offer a variety of services which offenders could use as needed. Four specific occupational roles present themselves: 1) Job developers-- these individuals would be responsible for developing jobs for probationers and parolees, 2) Counselors who would assist individual clients with personal problems, 3) Presentence investigators who would primarily conduct presentence investigations for the court, and 4) Persons responsible for seeing that an individual meets his or her conditions of probation or parole. There may be other specialized kinds of service or aid which might be necessary as the need arises. An important point to be made is that these services should be voluntary.¹ All offenders will not need all of the services offered. At any

1 With the possible exception of making sure that the offender meets the conditions of his or her parole or probation.

rate we can argue that parole and probation budgets should be larger than they are now and an effort must be made to reorganize probation and parole departments.¹ New staff should be trained and employed with skills appropriate to the tasks to be performed. Probation and parole could and probably should operate more like those Youth Services Bureaus that offer service-brokerage rather than as an out-patient clinic of the prison system.

Increased manpower will become necessary if we are going to develop widespread community treatment facilities. A major drawback to the development of these types of facilities comes from a general aversion on the part of community members to the establishment of correctional systems within their community. As a result most facilities usually locate in the poorer sections of a community simply because these areas offer least organized resistance. Considerable planning and organization will be required before community treatment facilities can be developed. An important occupational position would involve work in community organization and public education. Community correctional facilities simply can't operate without community support. Staff for these facilities probably cannot be drained off from the present corrections staff simply because there is little evidence that staffing requirements will lessen in the future. Community corrections facilities will require new workers trained in community resource identification, occupational counseling and community relations.

1 Reorganization need not be done within the present criminal justice system. As an example, state employment agencies might well undertake the job development tasks. It is also possible that the courts themselves could handle pre-sentence investigations by adding staff for this purpose.

A considerable increase in manpower will be necessary if the growth of diversion programs is to continue. The development of Youth Service Bureaus typifies the developing need for trained and skilled manpower to provide services to youth who have been diverted from the criminal justice system. Polk, Ruby and Schuchter (1974) identified a number of goals for Youth Service Bureaus-- they should function as child welfare agencies; they should accept referrals of non-delinquents; and they should develop residential services of required. Clearly the development of Youth Service Bureaus will require increased manpower with skills which are much different than those currently found in the criminal justice system.

It would seem then that manpower requirements, based upon the trends discussed above, will change for the criminal justice system qualitatively more than quantitatively. The projected needs for the existing system i.e., police, correctional officers and courts personnel will still be in effect given these emergent trends. Individuals will be needed with fundamentally different backgrounds and skills to fill these developing positions in criminal justice. Education and training should be aimed at preparing persons to fill the following general types of positions, some of which have been mentioned above:

A. Planners and Program Developers--A changing criminal justice system will require many more individuals to plan, coordinate and develop new programs. Alternatives to incarceration, diversion, and parole and probation programs, if they are to be effective, must be planned and coordinated with other existing or new programs. This will require planners and program developers possessing a strong knowledge of the existing criminal justice system and research development and skilled at community organization.

B. Program Directors--Personnel to assume the ongoing direction of new programs will be needed.

C. Community Resource Specialists--Individuals with knowledge of community resources which can be mobilized to provide help and assistance to offenders and ex-offenders. These positions would involve coordination of existing service agencies and identification of needs of clients.

D. Community Organization and Relations people--People with the ability to build and maintain strong community support, or at the very least, to keep the community informed as to the goals and methods of programs located in the community. This is especially important for community treatment facilities which often suffer from community members' lack of knowledge and support.

E. Occupational Counselors--Persons will be needed to assist offenders to find and hold meaningful occupations within the community. These positions would also involve the development of training programs for offenders.

F. Evaluation Specialists and Other Researchers--New programs require continued evaluation. Evaluation is necessary to assure that programs are doing what they are intended to do, as well as to provide information to program staff about changes which may increase their effectiveness.¹

¹ Don C. Gibbons, Barry D. Lebowitz, and Gerald F. Blake, "Observations on Program Evaluation in Corrections," Crime and Delinquency, forthcoming.

Conclusion

This report has attempted to look at probable manpower needs in criminal justice given a number of developing trends. It has argued that these trends will require persons with skills that current criminal justice personnel lack. Education and training for these future roles should be multi-disciplinary in nature, as traditional Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice degree programs do not provide students with the skills necessary for these emergent positions. A multi-disciplinary approach should provide future professionals with training in sociology, psychology, economics, social planning and policy formation. To date, criminal justice education has lacked this broad approach, and has forced many government and private agencies to seek personnel from other fields. This void can and should be filled by the development of undergraduate and graduate programs in criminal justice with an eye towards the needs of these emergent trends.

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