Policing: Continuity and Change

Introduction: Development of the International Police Executive Symposium

The leadership of any organization must from time to time reflect on where it has been and where it is going if it is to remain vital. The 23rd Annual Meeting, titled Global Issues in Contemporary Policing, provided such an opportunity. Since its founding by Dilip Das in 1994, IPES has changed in regard to the number of meeting participants, the formats and composition of the programs, and the characteristics of the presenters, but the goals and structure of IPES have not changed dramatically. The first symposium, held in Geneva, Switzerland in 1994, had less than 20 participants, and they were almost entirely high level police and government officials. Only a few of those attending were academics or women. Gradually, the topics covered in the symposiums broadened and the characteristics of the participants changed dramatically, with academics, women, and rank and file police officers participating in the meetings.

During the next 20 years, the symposia followed the same format in terms of structure, but the content of the presentations and backgrounds of the participants changed dramatically. The first ten symposia focused on a single theme. These themes included community policing, international co-operation, traffic policing, policing crowds and public demonstrations, corruption, trafficking of women and children, terrorism, police education and training and policing without borders. However, as new and more complex types of crime such as cybercrime, financial crime, and issues pertaining to women and minorities in policing emerged, the themes of the symposia tended to become more diversified. For example, some forms of crime such as theft, murder, robbery, prostitution and fraud were matters for police concern for centuries, but when other crimes such as those committed on the internet, child pornography, and various forms of financial crimes became widespread, police administrators realized that some of the old methods used to investigate and prevent crime would no longer suffice. While the nature of police work may have not changed, the types of training and skills needed to be effective changed tremendously. In addition, there has been a growing realization that, in our global society, the leaders of the components of the justice system must reach out for help from the leaders of other private and public agencies and institutions. While those employed in such agencies may not be directly connected to the justice system, those involved in higher education who are training police in specialized topic areas, researchers who provide valuable information on the effectiveness of police practices, and even social service agencies personnel who work with crime victims and abused women and children, can make strong contributions to effective police work.

The keynote speeches, papers, and roundtable presentations of the IPES meeting 2013 in Budapest reflected the issues and challenges of policing in our contemporary global society. More than 110 persons, representing 40 countries, participated. The changes in the characteristics of the attendees are reflected in the fact that half of those who participated were academics, and approximately one-fourth of the participants were women who were either academics or police and other justice agency practitioners. Although the structure of the symposium was similar to the other symposia, and involved required attendance at all sessions and long working hours, the topics covered included most of the current issues pertaining to police work and even several topics specifically relating to corrections and the judicial component of the justice system.

The theme of the Budapest symposium was Global Issues in Contemporary Policing. The several subthemes addressed during the meeting, including cybercrime, corruption, terrorism, minorities, women in policing, victims
of crime, specialization in policing, and the administration of police agencies, all focused to some degree on police and academics collaboration in research, training, and program implementation.

**Corruption: A Critical Issue**

Hetzer (2012:218) notes that there is no recognized legal definition of corruption and that corruption has been defined from various perspectives, including moral, ethical, political, economic, regulatory and criminological. He contends that, “In principle, corruption is a situation in which a person responsible for performing certain duties pursues improper or unfair advantages for actions or omissions in the performance of those duties. He also believes that corruption is a major reason for insufficient development of a country and jeopardizes the foundation of any democratic country (217). The keynote address, titled Corruption, delivered by Martin Kreutner, Dean of the International Anti-Corruption Academy, focused on anti-corruption efforts to combat corruption engaged in by The European Partner Against Corruption (EPAC) and the European Contact-Point Network Against Corruption (EACN). These groups, along with other authorities throughout Europe, cooperate to develop common standards for anti-corruption measures. EPAC/EACN (2012:8) developed the framework for anti-corruption agencies in the Council of Europe, European Union Member States, European Anti-Fraud Office, Europol and Eurojust to “provide a platform for practitioners to exchange expertise and information, assist each other, and cooperate across national borders, both on a practical and professional level.” Referring to a survey completed by the International Anti-Corruption Academy (IACA), Kreutner (2013) noted that the perception among the majority of the citizens is that corruption has increased during recent years and the worst offenders are political officials, the police, corporate and business leaders and other public officials. In reference to those organizations investigating corruption, Kreutner (2013) noted that, in order to be successful, these agencies must have independence that is free from any political interference, adequate resources, personnel with the expertise to carry out the investigative activities, transparencies in the structure and mechanisms used in the corruption investigations and the ability to cooperate with the media and the civil society. (Kreutner, 2013). Mills, (2012) and Dobovsek and Mastnak (2012) emphasize the importance of the existence of a free mass media communications network that is not politically or economically attached in the national and inter-nation efforts to combat corruption. Mills (2012) notes that, in countries in which the government is either corrupt or weak, the measures used to silence the investigations of reporters can be threats of physical violence and even death. Mills (2012:207) contends that, “On virtually every continent, journalists who report on corruption and organized crime face obstacles. Across Asia, Africa, and Latin America, a favored tool used to silence reporters unveiling corruption is the use of antiquated criminal defamation laws.” Dobovsek and Mastnak,(2012) note that in some countries, particularly those in a state of economic development, both the economic sector and the political sector may become dependent on organized crime, resulting in widespread corruption in those countries. Needless to say, investigative reporting on corruption, which is very similar in the methods and procedures followed as those used in criminal investigations, must be free from political and economic influence if it is to be successful. They contend that such investigations by the media are not likely to have much success in countries that are not democratic. Research on citizens’ perceived corruption among the police revealed that there seemed to be a direct correlation between the stability of the government and the economic system and the amount of corruption. For example, it was found that, in many of the Eastern European countries that adopted a democratic form of government after being separated from the Soviet Union, the amount of corruption actually increased until their governments and economic systems had a chance to stabilize. (See Das and Marenin, 2000: *Policing in New Democracies.*) This finding seems to be confirmed in the comparative study of the perception of corruption among the police by the citizens of Austria, Kazakhstan, and Serbia. (Edelbacher, Simonovic and Nurgaliyev, 2013). In Austria, a country with a stable government and economy, the people tended to trust the police and believed that corrupt police officers would be adequately disciplined by their superiors, while in Serbia and
Kazakhstan, two countries that have democratic governments and economies that are still developing, the trust of police and the belief that police who engaged in corruption and other forms of deviancy would be adequately disciplined by their superiors was much lower.

Lobnikar and Mesko (2013) contend that corrupt police officers are made, not born. In order to understand corruption or a lack of corruption among the police, it is necessary to understand the culture of the country, the political system, and the organizational structure of the police agency. In a study by Lobniker and Mesko, police officers were given a questionnaire in which they were asked to evaluate the seriousness of acts engaged in by police that appeared to be deviant. In addition, they were asked to recommend the form of discipline that should be used for officers who had been caught engaging in a specific deviant act. On the basis of their findings, the authors concluded that a just disciplinary policy at all levels must be followed to enhance the integrity of the police organization. Almost half of the officers believed the discipline given to superior officers was too low and the officers in the study reported that in some cases no action at all was taken to discipline the higher ranking officers who engaged in deviant behavior. The researchers suggested that opening up the disciplinary policies to the public may be one way to help build trust in the police by the citizenry.

Other presentations (Shikwambana, 2013; Haefaele and Hesselink, 2013; Albrecht, 2013; and Story-Whyte. 2013) reaffirmed the findings of much of the prior research completed on police corruption and deviance that corruption within the police departments exists because they function within a culture in which corruption is the norm, the “code of silence” adhered to by police officers prohibits the non-corrupt officers from exposing the deviance of their fellow officers, and the leadership within the police organization is so weak or corrupt, that even if the officers who are corrupt are exposed, except in extreme cases, the punishment will not likely be severe enough to deter the corrupt officer. Shikwambana (2013) and Haefaele and Hesselink (2013) note that criminal behavior by the police against women in South Africa who are under police supervision, while widespread, often goes unnoticed and the offenders are rarely punished. In a survey of such women, the large majority claimed to have either witnessed or personally experienced while in custody such police brutality as women being raped, inappropriately touched or beaten, sworn at by the police, or offered bribes by the police in exchange for sexual favors. Their main reason for not bringing the deviant behavior to the attention of the authorities was the fear of being victimized in the future. While emphasizing that South African Police in general are not corrupt, the researchers observed that traditional values of the South African culture, in which a gender based violence exists, as well as the general disrespect for law and order of many police officers, poor training of the police, and in general negligent police management are all reasons why it will take some time before the situation will change. When South Africa gained its independence, there was a need for a quick turnover in police personnel. Many police officers with serious criminal records were hired, nepotism was prevalent, and the standards for entrance and the pay received by the new recruits were low. There has been a gradual improvement in the methods used to screen new recruits as well as in the training and salaries officers receive. However, the transformation of the police is still in a state of transition.

Eterno(2013), using several research methodologies, including surveys, secondary data analysis, and case studies, concluded that the drastic decrease in Index crimes in New York, as reported by the New York Police Department, while attributed to the effectiveness of the COMPSTAT organizational model, in actuality can partially be explained by the manipulation of the reports of felony crimes by police administrators. Based on several sources of data gathered from those outside the NYPD, Eterno contended that the pressure to show that COMPSTAT is effective led to a kind of “conditioning among police officers to report many felony crimes as misdemeanor crimes.” This widespread practice leads to a drastic reduction of felony crimes reported. This prolonged decrease in serious crimes can justify administrative decisions, such as reducing the number of police officers on the force. However, Eterno pointed out that research statistics for the period during which COMPSTAT was implemented
reveals that, while the number of suspects stopped by the police in New York increased significantly during this time period, the number of felony crimes reported declined significantly during this same period, thus adding more evidence of a manipulation of crime statistics. The researcher also surveyed retired police administrators (Captains and above), comparing those who retired before COMPSTAT with those who retired after COMPSTAT was implemented. For those who were aware of the manipulation practices, it was found that less than 1/3 of the officers claimed they felt pressured to make numbers look better, changed words to downgrade the report, or did not take reports when they should have, while more than half of those who retired after COMPSTAT was implemented claimed that they were pressured to change words to make the numbers look better or downgraded the offense, and almost half claimed they did not take reports when they should have. (Eterno, 2013) Finally, more than ¼ of the retired officers reported that these practices were unethical. In conclusion, Eterno believed that, with more cooperation between the police administration and outside researchers, with researchers having access to police data, the disclosure of information to the public will eventually create an atmosphere in which the public will become less distrustful of the police.

Police Education, Training and Leadership

Several speakers addressed the need for an international focus in the training of police officers and administrators. Cordner and Shain (2011, 281) note that, “Police education and training expanded all around the world during the twentieth century and were seen as the cornerstones of police professionalism and modernization. In the 21st century, those responsible for police education and training must recognize the need to change the nature of police training in order to respond to the challenges presented to the police in a global society. Cordner and Shain (2011:281-82) note that “police trainers fly around the world to deliver their courses. Organizations like Interpol, Europol, the U.S. International Criminal Investigative Training Assistance Program (ICITAP) and the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) play a growing role in the provision of training, and training content focuses more and more on global issues such as international crime.”

Boda (2013) noted that policing in the future must bridge the gap between domestic policing and international policing. He noted that “We must learn from each other regarding how to use the most advanced equipment and training and legal standards to fight all forms of international crime and corruption.” In Hungary, international specialized crime and corruption prevention units were created. (Key note address)

The International Law Enforcement Academy (ILEA), located in Budapest. and three other academies located in other countries were started under a U.S. State Department initiative in the late 20th century. In a program modeled after the FBI Training Center in Quantico, police officers from various countries complete seven weeks of basic training. There are also 30 to 35 specialized courses offered during the year consisting of two weeks duration. Various cooperative international training academies have been established in many parts of the world. For example, the Middle European Police Academy was created in the late 1990s. Law enforcement leaders from various middle European countries engage in a two to three months training course and after returning to their native country, these law enforcement leaders pass on the information gained to other police officers in their agencies. (Kratcoski, 2007:18).

Models for Police Organization

While the current trend in police education and training is to prepare officers to solve policing problems that have international societal implications, the simple fact remains that the vast majority of police officers throughout the world serve their local communities. Some police officers may work in a jurisdiction that covers a few square miles with a few hundred people being served, while in other jurisdictions thousands of officers cover hundreds of square miles with millions of people being served. Nevertheless, the focus is still on
domestic police matters. With these large differences in the communities served, perhaps there is not one organizational model that can be adapted to best serve the needs of all communities. Often, the organizational model followed by a specific police department is not the result of careful planning and research on what works. Rather, the mission and goals of a particular police department are often determined by political, social and economic factors in the community. In certain countries throughout the world, the mission of the police is to protect the state, while in other countries the mission of the police is to serve and protect the citizens of the community. The mission and goals of the police change as a result of changes in political thought, changes in the laws and changing sentiments of the public. As missions and goals change, the type of leadership, organizational structure, recruitment and training of personnel and operating procedures will change to reflect the new goals of the organization. For example, in the United States the missions and goals of large city police organizations have changed several times. As large cities began to establish police departments in the mid-19th century, the hiring of police officers was predominately based on political patronage. There were few requirements regarding education and training, and corruption at all levels was widespread. However there was an emphasis on service to the community and, since the patrol officers were normally assigned to work in the neighborhoods in which they lived, the communication between officers and residents was generally positive. The negative reaction to the political corruption and patronage by the press and several reform groups resulted in the police reform movement of the first part of the 20th century. Those backing police reform attempted to remove the patronage and establish police organizations that had standards for employment based on education and training. The new formally structured professional police departments were orientated more to crime control than service. (See Kratcoski and Kempf, 1995, Police Reform, Encyclopedia of Police Science. Ed. 2, Garland Publishing:609-14). In the 1960s and 70s, the civil rights movement, protests against the Vietnam War and other factors created a demand for a type of policing that would be more responsive to the needs of the citizenry. This resulted in changes in the missions and goals as well as changes in the organizational structures of police departments. This so called new approach to policing, popularized by academics, was labeled community policing and generally called for a decentralization of the structure, less specialization, more decision making power for the street officers and more interaction and communications with the citizenry (Kratcoski, I995; Mastrofski, 1992; Trojanowicz, 1990).

At the present time, political, economic, social and even technological factors continue to influence the way the leadership of police organizations responds to the demands for strict crime control and the demands for the police to be more responsive to the needs of the community. However, regardless of the differences in beliefs on what should be the mission and goals of police organizations, they all agree that police should have high standards for recruitment and that the candidates should be educated and well trained and be free from political and criminal influences. The COMPSTAT model was first applied in New York City and rapidly developed in many other cities throughout the United States. It tries to combine the critical elements found in the traditional, centralized, bureaucratic police organizational model with the critical elements of the decentralized community policing model. It is a multi-faceted approach to reducing crime, maximizing the effectiveness of personnel and resources while also addressing quality of life matters. In New York City, a decentralized management model has been adopted. High level police executives from the central headquarters meet with local precinct commanders to discuss problems and develop strategies to try to solve these problems. The precinct commanders have the authority to make decisions on how to address the problems existing in the precincts they command (Wikipedia, accessed Fe. 11, 2014).

It should be noted that any one police organizational and management model is not inherently superior to another. Too often, in an attempt to implement a model that appears to be effective in another city, police department may attempt to put in place a model that is either not comparable to the culture and traditions of
the people or for which the resources to implement it properly are not available. In addition, it should be noted that, regardless of the particular environment in which police officers work, the essence of the job is the same all over the world.

In interview of Mal Hyde, South Australia Police Commissioner, completed by David Baker (2011:7) it was noted that, “Policing is a profession where some things change and some things remain the same. The dynamics of policing, the problem of policing, the art of policing, and what policing is all about don’t change because it is a mixture of the behavior of people (innate human behavior that might vary because of different cultures) and then also the way authority interplays with that behavior. The essence of what policing is all about; now that doesn’t change. It is the same today as it was 20 years ago or 30 years ago.” Commissioner Hyde goes on to note that the details, crime problems, technological methods, and strategies used to investigate crimes may change, but the dynamics of policing do not change.

Rocco De Benedetto (2013) noted that police organizations throughout the world are experiencing reductions in personnel, funding, and other resources, while the tasks of policing are expanding and the political powers, as well as the public, are demanding more from the police in terms of service and safety. Thus, these organizations are forced to develop new management models to improve and assess their performance. He recommends a management model that was initially developed for private corporations, but can be adapted by public agencies such as the police.

The key performance metrics of the plan include measuring police performance through quantifiable outcomes and holding agencies accountable. He notes that performance measurement is an ongoing process that involves systematic efforts to establishing desired outcomes, setting performance standards, and collecting, analyzing and reporting on data used to improve both individual and collective performance. De Benedetto emphasized that the instruments used to measure police performance in the past, such as number of arrests, response times, and clearance rates are no longer adequate. Instead, he offered a comprehensive, multi-dimensional measurement system. The dimensions of this model include the extent to which:

- Crime and victimization is reduced;
- Offenders are held accountable;
- Fear of crime is reduced and security is enhanced;
- Safety and order in public places is enhanced;
- Police force is used sparingly and fairly; and
- Citizen satisfaction is enhanced. (DeBenedetto, 2013: Slide 11)

The model recommended can also be useful in determining the health or dysfunction of an organization and in assessing such matters as police misconduct, abusive behavior and failure to perform required duties. (DeBenetetto, 2013,Slide 13)

Specialization in Police Education, Training and Leadership

A second subtheme was the specialization of police work. Several papers and two excellent roundtable discussions (Police Roundtable – Anthony Batts, Jozsef Boda, Dilip K. Das, Maximillian Edelbacher, John Eterno, Odd Berner Malme, Kate Storey Whyte, Todd Wustewaldl). (Amok Roundtable- Jay Corzine, Lynn Huff- Corzine, Odd Berner Malme, Mary Shenouda, Michael Wilds, Todd Wustewald) focused on police leadership, responding to mass murder situations, and other areas of police work requiring specialized training and expertise. The presentations included identifying potential mass murderers and responding to mass murder situations, preparing for natural
disasters, including earthquakes, floods and tsunamis, and “man-made” disasters, such as nuclear power plant breakdowns and the collapse of the financial system of a country.

Lepard et al. (2013) noted that the investigations of serial murder are the most difficult to conduct and require the officers to have specialized training and skills for various reasons. The absence of bodies, murder sites, physical evidence, and a reliable chronology make it difficult to determine if a missing person report should even require a murder investigation. Generally, if a missing person investigation by the police is started, it will continue as a missing person investigation “Even after recognizing the possibility of a serial murder being responsible in the missing person case” (Lepard et al., 2013).

Police decisions for determining if there will be an investigation for a missing person and the strategies for investigations will differ, depending on a number of factors. If there are no bodies and no reports on missing persons, no investigation is completed. There is considerable evidence that a large number of missing persons, and possibly victims of serial killers are never recorded and investigated (Lepard et al. (2013). A missing person investigation is started when there is a report filed with the police, but if a person or dead body is not found, the case continues as a missing person investigation. However, if a number of missing person reports are filed and there appears to be some common characteristics associated with the disappearances of the persons, the investigation tends to shift toward a case of a serial murderer and if dead bodies are located, the focus and strategies of the investigation shift entirely to a murder case (Lepard, et al., 2013).

**Mass Murderers**

The characteristics of mass murder situations are quite different than serial killing situation and generally call for an entirely different response. Corzine, L. (2013. Slide 1) indicates that, while there are several different definitions of mass murder, it involves the killing of several people by one or more offenders during a short time span, generally within a few hours or less, within one location or within a short distance from the original murders. She goes on to explain that the terms “spree murder” and “bifurcated mass murder” are often used to designate those mass murder events that happened at more than one location (Corzine, L. (2013 - Slide 6). Corzine, J. 2013) indicated that, while most sensational mass murder incidents are well covered by the mass media, with the characteristics of the murder/s and victims recorded by the media as well as the criminal justice investigation agencies, numerous cases of mass murder may receive little attention. The National Incident-Based Reporting System developed by the U.S. Federal Bureau of Investigation, while having limitations (less than 1/3 of the U.S. is included, coding errors and missing information), nevertheless is the most comprehensive and reliable source of information on mass murders. The data collected in this reporting system includes information on the incident, including weapons used, locations, and generally one is able to determine if a victim-offender relationship existed prior to the mass murder incident (Corzine, J., 2013, Slide 7). Michael Wilds summarized the statistics and research completed on mass murders in the USA. He noted that the most likely locations for mass murder to occur are stores, malls, restaurants, government, and houses of worship, with 50% of the mass murders incidents being at work places or schools. Also, from 1982 to the present there were almost as many wounded as killed (Wilds, 2013, Slide 3). Wuestewald (2013) referred to typologies developed by Fox and Levin and Holmes to illustrate the types of mass murders and the possible motivations they may have to kill. She noted that the motivation for those who kill at school could fit into a number of categories, including frustration, social isolation, loss of an intimate friend, revenge, power, loyalty to a leader, profit, terrorism, sexual factors, and execution (Slide 25). In addition, many students do not seem to fit into any of the profiles mentioned above and their motivations are unexplained (Slide 27).
Psychologists, behavioral scientists, and criminal justice investigators’ efforts to predict the likelihood of a mass murder incident have generally not been successful. Perhaps the most attention has been given to school shootings resulting in mass murder. Generally, the information on the incidents pertaining to motive, source of the weapon used, and offender/s victim/s relationship is collected after the fact and even here the motive is often difficult to ascertain, since the offender is either killed by the police or dies from a self-inflicted wound. Several typologies of mass murderers include those who have a specific target and those whose killing is random, those who kill for revenge, and those who may be mentally ill. Even in those cases in which it appears there is no specific target, perhaps the victims may have just been in the way of the murderer who had one or more specific targets in mind. In the coverage by the mass media as well as in the law enforcement investigations conducted by the police, the characteristics of those victims who were injured during the incident generally do not receive a great deal of attention. For example, in the school shootings that occurred in the U.S. between 2010-2013 in which two or more people were killed there were also victims injured (shot, stabbed, beaten) in almost 60% of the incidents. (List of School Shootings in the United States, Taken from internet, Feb 10, 2014 [Http://en.wikipedia.org]). In summary, considerably more research is needed before criminal justice agencies can say with confidence that they can predict and prevent mass murder.

Prevention of Mass Murder in Schools and Public Places

As previously noted in this paper, the vast majority of mass murderers that occurred in the United States, happened in the work places, shopping malls, government buildings, places of worship and in schools. The prevention strategies followed by each of these types of institutions has varied depending on the type of institution. The security in specific types of government buildings, such as court houses, places that house city, state or federal workers have been enhanced considerable. Generally, the establishment of new security measures in private establishments such as office buildings, places of worship and shopping centers has been piecemeal depending on the such factors as the size of the establishment, potential for a mass murderer situation to develop and the ability to pay for the new security programs. On the other hand, the administrations of schools throughout the United States has have instituted many new school security measures to against school violence and particularly school shootings.

In a study of school security programs (Kratcoski, Edelbacher, Graff ,2010) in which the school security in the United States was compared with that of Austria it was found that the school security measures adapted in the U.S. varied considerably. However, the strategies and programs adopted tended to include:

- Zero tolerance policies;
- Cooperative planning developed by administrators, teaching staff, the local police and community residents;
- Enhancement of existing communications systems;
- Improvements in physical security measures, including lighting, installing video cameras, locking entrance doors during school hours, requiring staff and students to wear identification tags and in some cases using metal detector screens;
- Enhancing security at special events such as sporting events and musical concerts;
- Coordinating intelligence gathering and attempting to identify those youth who may be a high risk for becoming violence;
- Providing special training for the staff and students for how to respond to bomb threats, school shootings and natural disasters that might occur on school grounds; and
• Having police officers (Student Resource Officers) in the schools on a regular schedule. (204)

In Austria, the threat of violence and mass murder in the schools is minimal compared to many of the schools in the United States. However, the growing concern has resulted in the members of the national government to acknowledge that a problem existed and they took action in the form of new legislation that provided for a nation wide strategy focused on prevention of school violence. This legislation consisted of:

• Providing information to the public on causes of school violence;
• Networking and cooperating with teachers, parents, school officials, medical staff, the police and academic researchers;
• Instituting prevention and intervention programs in the schools that included the public, parents, teachers; and
• Completing systematic documentation and evaluation of the general strategy plan and providing feedback. (210-211)

Police Response to Catastrophes, including Terrorism and Natural Disasters

Research completed by Minoru Yokoyama (2013) revealed that Japan had put in place a comprehensive plan for responding to crisis situations. The following steps were taken soon after the earthquake and tsunami occurred in Japan in March, 2011. the command system prescribed under the Basic Law on Disaster Countermeasures was immediately put into operation. The actions taken included:

1. The umbrella plan of the national government authorized the response from a number of police agencies to the disaster area. In addition, the Prime Minister and other high level government officials became directly involved in rescue efforts;

2. The Prime Minister used the mass media to appeal to the public to remain calm and not to panic;

3. The private sector engaged in a number of relief activities. For example, the Interprefectual Emergency Rescue Unit was employed. In addition, volunteers served as firefighters, emergency vehicle drivers, assisted the police by patrolling evacuated areas, provided medical and food supplies to those affected by the earthquake and tsunami.

4. The riot squad was dispatched to the damaged areas to maintain public order;

5. The police and other rescue units established good communications with the mass media agencies to the extent that these communication networks were very helpful in rescue and relief activities;

6. The police, medical teams and firefighters units coordinated their efforts to assure that food, clothing, water, electric power and medical supplies were brought to those in need as quickly as possible;

7. Power units from other parts of Japan not hit by the earthquake were brought in to assist the police stationed in the most hard hit areas; and

8. Data was immediately collected, analyzed and the information was feedback to those agencies that could find the information helpful in the rescue efforts. (2-10)

The role of the mass media was discussed in terms of how it often inhibits or interferes with the efforts of the specialized safety units to control the disaster situation as well as how the mass media often makes positive
contributions to an understanding of the causes for “man-made” disasters, as in cases where investigative reporters uncover extensive corruption in government that threatens the security of that nation.

Minorities, Women in Policing and Victims of Crime

A major theme that developed during the IPES conference in Budapest, Hungary focused on minorities, women in policing, and assisting victims of crime. The keynote address on Policing Multicultural Problems and the presentations that focused on police-minority group relations made us more aware of how officers’ culture, additudes values, and personal experiences can affect their perceptions of people from other cultures, victims of crime and races and how the culture and values of minority groups can affect how the police are perceived by them. This is a topic area that clearly demonstrated the contributions of the academics. The findings from research and academics’ assistance in the training of the police on human relations topics have had a significant effect in changing the way the police respond to victims of crime, particularly violent crimes against women and children, and even have led to developing specialized units to work with these victims. The importance of collaboration and cooperation of the police with service agencies such as victim services, battered women shelters, and children services agencies is readily acknowledged by most police administrators.

Taylor, Cowan, Doyle and Lea (2013) revealed that those police administrators responsible for the planning and implementation of specialized police training pertaining to sexual violence often commit one or more errors by not taking into account how the response to sexual violence may be driven by the resources available, the organizational structure and in particular the culture, values and attitudes of the officers. The authors note that the research on police training, sex crime investigations and the management of procedures for responding to sex crimes is often ad-hoc, not based on policy and inconsistent (slide 9). In addition, regardless of the specialized training they received on sex crimes and victims of sex crimes, the particular response to the crime is more often based on their attitudes than on policies and official procedures. (slide 10). The authors recommend some form of systematic assessment be used in the recruitment and selection of police officers. While many departments may use some form of assessment of police officer attitudes, it is generally not an integral part of the selection decision as well as an ongoing process followed in the supervision and management of police officers. The authors acknowledge that police administrators and prosecutors are generally becoming more aware of the research completed on the importance of attitudes in the decision making of the police, and many police organizations, including the Victoria Police in Australia are using these research findings to improve on the selections and training of officers.

Several of the presenters at the IPES conference in Budapest (2013) reflected on the low proportion of women and minorities in police forces throughout the world. The reasons for the imbalance in the ratio of men and women in the police forces are still not completely understood.

Perrott (2013) suggested that the question is still open regarding the extent minorities and women are treated fairly and equally in the recruitment of police into the Canadian Police forces. The goals of recruiting minorities and women resulting from the Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s and desire to improve police services and enhance relationships (slide 2) appears not to have been met since women and visible minorities are still underrepresented in most police departments in Canada (slide 5-6). In addition, more research is needed to determine if minorities and women are being given equal treatment in regard to assignments, promotions and relationships within the police organizations. He concluded that many questions related to work place harassment, tension with the organizations and discriminatory practices with the public need to receive more attention and are areas in which the police and the academics can collaborate in research.
Some police departments who have recognized this matter as being a problem, have adopted management strategies developed for business corporations for recruiting women and minorities into police work.

Linn (2013) illustrated how new initiatives on the national, state and local levels resulted in some very positives programs to assist victims of sex trafficking in Brooklyn, New York. She noted that although the federal and state laws on sexual trafficking are somewhat different in terminology and scope, they are nevertheless compatible in that the essence of the laws involvement the recruitment, harboring, transportation, provision or obtaining a person for the purpose of a commercial sex act. The commercial sex act can be induced by force, fraud or coercion, or in the case of minors, the person has not attained 18 years of age. (Trafficking Victims Protection Act, 22, USC & 7102; CFR& 214.11(2). In the past, the major initiatives by federal, state and local governments have focused on the prevention or curtailing of sex crimes through legislation, interagency task forces and specialized training for the police. However, the focus has gradually changed as a result of federal initiatives such as the Trafficking Victims Protection Reauthorization Act of 2013 and various state and local initiatives designed to protect and assist victims of sex crimes. The Trafficking Victims Protection Act, renewed critical federal anti-trafficking programs, provided resources for human trafficking victims, grants new tools for the prosecution of human traffickers and enhanced the opportunities to form partnerships to curtail human trafficking with those countries in which human trafficking is most prevalent. (slide 6). Locally, the city of New York (Linn 2013) has instituted new initiatives to combat sex crimes and to assist victims of human trafficking for the purpose of engaging in sex crimes. The 2013 Safe Harbor Law provided he resources for the office of the district attorney of Kings Colony, Brooklyn

- to initiate a public information campaign on preventing human trafficking;
- provide for special training for laws enforcement officers;
- provide for relief services to victims of human trafficking, and
- provided the resources to enable the police to rigidly enforce the laws for those who engage in human trafficking, especially if the victim is under the age of 18. (slide 8).

The research completed by Barrow (2013) focused on the extent, if any urban minority youth perceived themselves as being victims of police practices in such areas as being harassed, discourteously treated, verbally abused, not provided with assistance when needed and being the victim of excessive force. (3) Using a qualitative research design, that is face to face interviews the researcher found that the youth interviewed had both positive and negative attitudes toward the police. For example, several youth indicated that the police were responsive in time of need and helped the community, but that they also witnessed negative attitudes and disrespect from the police. It was also mentioned that the response time to a call for service was often very slow and some youth complained of being constantly stopped and searched by the police. These youth indicated that they were constantly afraid of doing anything wrong and that they dressed in clothing that would attract police attention. Even though they would have preferred other styles of clothing. (11-12). She concluded that the youth welcomed more police presence in the neighborhood because they were needed to maintain social control, but recommended that the police become more proactive and fair in their administration of law enforcement (21).

Another subtheme of the symposium pertained to terrorism. The keynote address on this subject, titled Issues on Crime and Terrorism, was devoted to the methods used to combat terrorist organizations. This was followed by speakers who demonstrated models for identifying those individuals and groups who were vulnerable to accepting violent extremism as a method to address real or perceived transgressions against them. It was noted that all countries have some internal (domestic) terrorist organizations and left and right wing extremist groups whose sole purpose is to cause confusion or fear and to convince the public that the government cannot protect the
citizens and guarantee their security. Some internal and external terrorist organizations do not adhere to any political ideology, and these are the most difficult to deal with, in terms of determining their motivations and predicting their behavior. In the presentation on the Hungarian organization developed to combat both internal and external terrorism, it was emphasized that maintaining communications and information exchanges from law enforcement agencies throughout the world is critical in combatting terrorist organizations. The development of international laws and legal agreements must be a high priority for all countries that have concerns about international terrorist organizations that use their country as a base of operations or as a pass-through country.

The subtheme of Cybercrime and Global Security was introduced by the Head of GOVCERT, the organization established in Hungary to provide internet security, in his address titled Cyber Security. This was followed by several presentations relating to types of cybercrimes, the difficulty in controlling the effects of cybercrime on worldwide security, and narrower topics, including the activities of hotel gaming establishments. It was concluded that the techniques used to combat cybercrime are constantly improving, but cybercrime organizations are so entwined with legitimate businesses, organized crime, and terrorist organizations, and are becoming so sophisticated in their techniques that it is very difficult to establish appropriate control mechanisms.

Using the social network to identify potential terrorist individuals and groups can be a useful tool, as demonstrated in the presentation that described the rational choice model for the prevention of terrorism. The issues related to violation of privacy and the potential for “profiling” innocent individuals were also discussed.

Another subtheme established was corruption. In the keynote speech, titled Corruption, and in several presentations, the pervasiveness of corruption, where it is most likely to occur, and models to reduce and control corruption, were presented. It was noted that corruption permeates all facets of society, business, government, and public service agencies.

A special feature of the Budapest 2013 Symposium was the roundtable presentations on interviews of police, judges, and corrections leaders. A positive point regarding these roundtable sessions is that they tended to show how the components of the justice system are interrelated and that, regardless of the position of the person interviewed, whether a police chief, judge, or corrections administrator, they must cooperate with each other. These interviews represent an ethnographic or case study approach to research. It was concluded by the roundtable discussants that there is value in knowing how leaders in justice occupations progressed throughout their careers. The in-depth information obtained in the interviews pertaining to their motivations for entering the field, their major challenges and setbacks, as well as the current problems they face, cannot be obtained by reading a book on careers in criminal justice. There was some discussion about the usefulness of the material in the interview books, particularly for students, and the need for more structure, as well as the need for a summary chapter that ties all of the interviews presented in the book together.

References


Bratton, W.J. What America can learn from New York’s finest (Fine reference)


Trafficking Victims Protection Act, 22 USC& 7102;CFR&214.11(a).


