**COURSE
GUIDE**

**POS 102
POLICE COMMUNITY RELATIONS AND
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS AND AWARENESS**

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INTRODUCTION

POS 102 Police Community Relations and Interpersonal Communications and Awareness is a three-credit unit course for undergraduates in the department of Police Science. The materials have been carefully developed to equip you with the essentials of the subject matter. The course guide gives you an overview of the course and provides you with information on its organisation and requirements.

COURSE AIMS

The basic aim of this course is to help you understand the fundamental principles of Police-Community Relations as well as the subject matters of interpersonal communication and self-awareness that are integral to it. These broad aims will be achieved by introducing you to the:

- Concepts and discourses on police community relations, community; policing, crime prevention models, and special stakeholders
- Dimensions in police organisation and security management,
- Frameworks of interpersonal communication, self-awareness, police discretion, prejudice and public attitude to the police
- Scope of civil rights and liberties, courtesy, impartiality and public support, police stress and goals and objectives of the modern police officer.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

To achieve the above aims of this course, there are clearly outlined specific objectives at the beginning of each unit. I advise you to read the unit objectives before you start working through each unit. This is because they may guide you in evaluating your progress during your study.

The specific objectives that you should be able to accomplish as marks of the successful completion of this course are to be able to:

- explain the ideals of police community relation,
- enumerate the principles of police management and ethics,
- identify the basics of interpersonal communications,
- discuss the values of civil rights, liberties and public support

WORKING THROUGH THIS COURSE

To complete this course, you are required to read each study unit and other related materials. You will also need to undertake practical exercises for which you need a pen, a notebook, and other materials that will be listed in the guide. The exercises are to aid you in understanding the concepts being presented. At the end of each unit, you will be required to submit written assignment for assessment purposes. At the end of the course, you will write a final examination.

COURSE MATERIALS

The major materials you will need for this course are:

I.   Course guide
II.   Study Guide
III.   Assignments file

Relevant text books are listed under each unit.

STUDY UNIT

There are 20 units in this course. They are distributed into four modules as shown below:

Module 1   Police Community Relations

Unit 1   Basic Concepts: Human, Public and Community Relations
Unit 2   Improving Police Community Relations
Unit 3   Problem-Solving and Community Policing
Unit 4   Models of Community Crime Prevention
Unit 5   Police and Special Community Stakeholders

Module 2   Policing and Police Management

Unit 1   Policing and Managerial Concepts (Division of Labour, Bureaucracy, Organisation, and Leadership)
Unit 2   Traditional and Alternative Police Management Structures
Unit 3   Models of Police Personnel Organisation
Unit 4   Area, Time and Function-Based Management Models
Unit 5   Miscellaneous Personnel Management Issues

Module3   **Prejudice,   Awareness   and   Interpersonal Communication**

Unit 1   Understanding Prejudice
Unit 2   Understanding Interpersonal Communication
Unit 3   Understanding Awareness and Self-Concept
Unit 4   Police Discretion
Unit 5   Police and Public Attitude

Module 4   **The Police, Civil Rights, Liberties and Ethics**

Unit 1   Scope of Civil Rights and Liberties
Unit 2   Modern Police Officer: Goals and Operational Strategies
Unit 3   Courtesy, Impartiality, and Public Support
Unit 4   Police and Ethics
Unit 5   Understanding Police Stress

TEXTBOOKS AND REFERENCES

Certain books have been recommended for the course. You may wish to purchase them for further reading.

ASSESSMENT FILE

An assessment file and a marking scheme will be made available to you. In the file, you will find details of the works you must submit to your tutor for marking. There are two aspects of the assessment of this course; the tutor marked assignments and the written examination. The marks you obtain in these two areas will make up your final score. The assignment must be submitted to your tutor for formal assessment in accordance with the deadline stated in the presentation schedule and the Assignment file. The work you submit to your tutor for assessment will count for 30% of your total score.

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS (TMAS)

You will have to submit a specified number of the TMAs. Every unit of this course has a TMA. You are required to attempt all the questions and you will be assessed on all of them but the best four performances from the TMAs will be used for your 30% grading. When you have completed each assignment, send it together with a TMA form, to your tutor. Make sure each assignment reaches your tutor on or before the deadline for submission. If for any reason you cannot complete your work on time, contact your tutor for a discussion on the possibility of an extension. Extensions will not be granted after the due date unless under exceptional circumstances.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

The final examination will be a test of three hours. All areas of the course will be examined. Find time to read the unit all over before your examination. The final examination will attract 70% of the total course grade. The examination will consist of questions, which reflect the kinds of self-assessment exercise and tutor-marked assignment you have previously encountered. And all aspects of the course will be assessed. You should take the time between completing the last unit and taking the examination to revise the entire course.

COURSE MARKING SCHEME

The following table lays out how the actual course mark allocation is broken down.

ASSESSMENT	MARKS
Assignments 1-3(the best three of all the assignments submitted)	Four assignments, marked out of 10% totaling 30%
Final Examination	70% of overall course score
Total	100% of course score

PRESENTATION SCHEDULE

The dates for submission of all assignments will be communicated to you. You will also be told the date of completing the study units and dates for examinations.

COURSE OVERVIEW AND PRESENTATION SCHEDULE

UNIT	TOPIC(S)	WEEKLY ACTIVITY	ASSESSMENT (END OF UNIT)
Module 1	**Police Community Relations**		
Unit 1	Basic Concepts: Human, Public & Community Relations	**Week 1**	**Assignment 1**
Unit 2	Improving Police Community Relations	**Week 2**	**Assignment 2**
Unit 3	Problem-Solving and Community Policing	**Week 3**	**Assignment 3**
Unit 4	Models of Community Crime Prevention	**Week 4**	**Assignment 4**
	Police and Special		

Unit 5	Community Stakeholders	**Week 5**	**Assignment 5**
Module 2	**Policing & Police Management**		
Unit 1	Policing & Managerial Concepts	**Week 6**	**Assignment 6**
Unit 2	Traditional & Alternative Management Strutures	**Week 7**	**Assignment 7**
Unit 3	Models of Police Personnel Organisation	**Week 8**	**Assignment 8**
Unit 4	Area, Time, and Function-Based Management Models	**Week 9**	**Assignment 9**
Unit 5	Miscellaneonus Personnel Management Issues	**Week 10**	**Assignment 10**
Module 3	**Interpersonal Communication, Self-Concept, & Public Attitude**		
Unit 1	Understanding Prejudice	**Week 11**	**Assignment 11**
Unit 2	Understanding Interpersonal Communication	**Week 12**	**Assignment 12**
Unit 3	Understanding Awareness & Self-Concept	**Week 13**	**Assignment 13**
Unit 4	Police Discretion	**Week 14**	**Assignment 14**
Unit 5	Police and Public Attitude	**Week 15**	**Assignment 15**
Module 4	**Civil Rights, Liberties, Ethics & Public Support**		
Unit 1	Scope of Civil Rights & Liberties	**Week 16**	**Assignment 16**
Unit 2	Modern Police Officer: Goals & Operational Strategies	**Week 17**	**Assignment 17**
Unit 3	Courtesy, Impartiality, and Public Support	**Week 18**	**Assignment 18**
Unit 4	Police and Ethics	**Week 19**	**Assignment 19**
Unit 5	Understanding Police Stress	**Week 20**	**Assignment 20**

HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM THIS COURSE

You will be required to study the units on your own. However, you may arrange to meet with your tutor for tutorials on an optional basis at the study centre. Also, you can organise interactive sessions with your course mates.

TUTORS AND TUTORIALS

Information relating to the tutorials will be provided at the appropriate time. Your tutor will mark and comment on your assignments, keep a close watch on your progress and on any difficulties you might encounter and provide assistance to you during the course. You must take your tutor-marked assignments to the study centre well before the due date (at least two working days are required). They will be marked by your tutor and returned to you as soon as possible. Do not hesitate to contact if; you do not understand any part of the study units or the assigned readings; you have difficulty with the exercises; you have a question or problem with the assignments, with your tutor's comments on an assignment or with the grading of an assignment. You should try your best to attend the tutorials. This is the only chance to have face-to-face contact with your tutor and ask questions which are answered instantly. You can raise any problem encountered in the course of your study. To gain maximum benefits from course tutorials, prepare a question list before attending them. You will learn a lot from participating active discussions.

SUMMARY

The course guide gives you an overview of what to expect in the course of this study. The course teaches you the principles of *Police Community Relations, Interpersonal Communications and Awareness* with illustrations from the Nigerian state. We wish you success with the course and hope that you will find it both interesting and useful.

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MAIN
COURSE
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MODULE 1   POLICE COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Unit 1   Basic Concepts: Human, Public and Police Community
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Unit 2   Improving Police Community Relations
Unit 3   Problem-Solving and Community Policing
Unit 4   Models of Community Crime Prevention
Unit 5   Police and Special Community Stakeholders

UNIT 1   BASIC CONCEPTS: HUMAN, PUBLIC AND
             POLICE COMMUNITY RELATIONS

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1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
       3.1   Concept of Relationship and its Characteristics
              3.1.1 Police-Human Relationship
              3.1.2 Public Relations?
              3.1.3 Police-Community Relations
              3.1.4 Concepts of Community
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit clarifies the concepts of relationships and its characteristics
together with the concepts of police-community, human and public
relations that are often misunderstood within and outside the police
organisation.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

•   explain the concept and characteristics of relationship
•   distinguish between police-community, human and public
       relations.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Concept of Relationship and its Characteristics

Relationship is a common denominator to the concepts of human, public and police community relations. For this reason, it is important for you to be aware of the exact meaning of this term in order to deepen your understanding of the main concepts to which it relate. Relations or relationship (used interchangeably here) is a term that applies to virtually all situations in which individuals or groups come together to pursue a common objective, which could either be positive as in pursuit of the goal of securing lives and property in society or negative as in the purpose of a criminal activity. The term is also commonly used by people to qualify mutual friendship, love affair, marriage, trade, sports, business and other forms of engagement with people or groups.

However, for the purposes of this discourse, a relationship will refer to the cooperation between the police and their host communities for the sole aim of achieving a safe, peaceful and orderly society where its inhabitants can pursue their interests as well as enjoy civil rights and liberties without fear of molestation or intimidation. To achieve this, the police might have to see themselves as a part of the society in which case they have to treat all inhabitants with fairness, firmness and impartiality while, in return, the community has to demonstrate acceptance, trust, and support to the police, including providing it (the police) with information that it requires to effectively maintain law and order in the community.

Generally, relationships tend to share the following characteristics:

- It is consciously established to pursue mutual objectives, such as, the peace and order objectives of police community relationship.
- It may as well emerge from a natural factor such as blood ties to which community members trace their origin
- Willingness of parties to cooperate and make sacrifices toward achieving common objectives
- Relationships presuppose the readiness of the parties in it to commit resources (time, manpower, and money in cash and kind) to the realisation of the common objectives
- Willingness of parties to share information with an open mind,
- Considering that the police is an institution established by law, we may also admit that relationships can arise out of the constitutional requirements of a country, and
- It is not unusual for relationships to pass through phases of breakdown and reconstruction.

3.1.1 Police-Human Relations

In Nigeria and elsewhere, the idea of police human relations emerged from the need to place human beings at the centre of police operations. Basically, this concept draws heavily from the human relations theoretical perspectives, especially that of Abraham Maslow and McGregor that pay attention to the human factor in industrial, organisational and by implications, community settings where people are involved in the pursuit of common objectives. In their collective efforts, Cox, S. M. and Fitzgerald, J. D. (1996) reviewed some public enlightenment attempts undertaken by the police which defined the process "police-human relations in the most general sense … (as consisting of) everything we do with, for, and to each other as citizens and as human beings." Dempsey J. S. and Forst L. S. (2008: 239) emphasised this further by stating that "human relations thus connotes treating others with respect and decency following the golden rule – "acting toward others as you would want others to act toward you." In this regard, it is not difficult to see why proven cases of police brutality, intimidation, rights abuse, unlawful arrests and detention, denial of bail for bailable offences, etc clearly work against the human relations efforts of the police organisation.

3.1.2 Concept of Public Relations

In the course of the review that we have already cited, Cox and Fitzgerald also explained that public relations consist of "a variety of activities with the express intent of creating a favourable image of themselves … sponsored and paid for by the organisation" (that is, the police). A classic illustration of the art of police public relations by the Nigeria police is the sponsored advert in the print and electronic media stating that "the police are your friend." In the same spirit, the Nigeria police have also advertised the names and telephone numbers of all its thirty-six states commissioners and Abuja pursuant to improving accessibility of the public to its services. Regular briefing by the Inspector General of Police (IGP) and other state-level officers of the Nigeria police have also contributed immensely to the rising public image of this organisation.

However, the organisation might need to step up efforts in the area of training, effective monitoring and discipline, particularly, of its frontline officers that are engaged in patrols, traffic controls, security at social functions and station front desk duties with a view to curtailing conducts (rudeness, authoritarianism, indiscriminate arrests/detention, etc) that are detrimental to its painstaking public relations efforts.

3.1.3 Police -Community Relations

The concept of Police-Community Relationships (PCRs) is very important to understanding of the role of the police in society and the ways in which communities can render assistance to the police in discharging these roles as effectively as possible. For example, in order for the police to carry out their crime control, peace/order maintenance, traffic control and emergency management functions effectively, it must work with residents of their host communities and see themselves as partners in the same community. If the community residents have cause to suspect the police or consider them as an army of occupation they will withdraw their cooperation and unrest will reign in such a community. Therefore, "Police-community relationship must be two-way partnerships" because "in a democratic society, the legitimacy of the police depends on broad and active public acceptance and support" (Dempsey, J. S. and Forst, L. S. 2008: 288). In other words, no matter how well equipped the police department may be its efficiency and effectiveness will largely remain a potential if it fails to establish a good relationship with its host community.

Unfortunately, the need for the police and the community that are in partnership to understand themselves is often overlooked, thus, leaving room for assumptions by both parties in the relationship. For instance, while the community assumes that the police are members of the community that ought to understand it (i.e. the community), the police also appear to operate under the assumption that the community ought to appreciate and support it's (i.e. the police) primary responsibility of ensuring peace and order in the community. But, what does police community relations actually mean?

The quality of the police community relations that exist in a society is a product of the degree of effectiveness of the police human relations and the police public relations that obtains in that society. Dempsey and Forst (*op cit*) interpret the work of Cox and Fitzgerald thus:

> *Community relations are comprised of the combined effects of human and public relations. Police community relations then encompasses the sum total of human and public relations, whether initiated by the police or other members of the community ... Police community relations may be positive or negative, depending upon the quality of the police interaction with other citizens (human relations) and the collective images*

*each holds of the other (which are derived
from public as well as human relations).*

Thus, the police needs to be made aware that any form of outing that they undertake has implications for their human and public relations and ultimately its community relations and public perception.

3.1.4 Concept of Community

Whenever the term community is mentioned what readily comes to mind are memories of ones neighbourhood, village or small geographical area that consists of familiar inhabitants interacting with each other. But, in the opinion of Miller L. S. and Hess K. S. (2002: 55), a community describes "a group of people living in an area under the same government *or* a social group or class having common interests *or* society as a whole - the public." To bring this definition into the context of community policing the authors (Miller, L. S. and Hess, K. S. *op cit*: 55) state that "Community refers to the specific geographical area served by a police department or law enforcement agency and the individuals, organisations and agencies within the area." This means that every police officer ought to belong to this geographically defined community for him to discharge his/her duties effectively.

Sometimes the community may be so small that few officers, agencies and organisations or an individual will be sufficient to serve it. At other times the community may be so extensive that it may require large organisations, agencies and correspondingly large number of police officers to effectively serve it. Miller and Hess emphasise that:

> *While police jurisdiction and delivery of service is based on geographic boundaries, a community is much more than a group of neighbourhoods administered by a local government. The schools, businesses, public and private agencies, churches and social groups are vital elements of the community. Also of importance are the individual values, concerns and cultural principles of the people living and working in the community and the common interests they share with neighbours. Where integrated communities exist, people share a sense of ownership and pride in their environment. They also have a sense of what is acceptable behaviour, which makes policing in such a community much easier.*

"Community also refers to a feeling of belonging - a sense of integration, a sense of shared values and a sense of we-ness." In other words, this sense of strong attachment is the foundation upon which the maintenance of peace and security within the community rests. It is also largely responsible for the participation of members of the community in all aspects of its associational life, being it voluntary, religious, governance or other forms of civil engagement. Be that as it may the police organisation should always demonstrate through its operations that all industrial and institutional components and various community groups are accounted for as the community stakeholders.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention and explain the main components of the concept of police community relations.

4.0   CONCLUSION

It is clear from this unit that for the police to effectively carry out its statutory duties within any community, knowledge of the community, of its relationship and outreach activities must be carefully planned and implemented.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit led you into the meaning of three concepts, human, public and community relations. It also explained the meaning of community and relationship to facilitate the understanding the entire unit. While the concept of community draw attention to our villages, neighbourhood and familiar relationships or a small geographical area that is served by the police organisation, the concept and characteristics of relationships were also highlighted. Against this background the concepts of human relations, what people do with, for and to each other, and public relations, the activities that are meant to create an enviable image for the police were explained. Following this, you were then informed that police community relations comprises of the sum total of the human and public relations effort of the police within a community. In conclusion, you need to remember that the policing process will not be effective or may be resisted if the police fail to solicit and secure the cooperation of all community stakeholders.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Discuss the view that a relationship can only be established by public policy such as the constitution.
ii.   Define a community and explain the two perspectives associated this concept.
iii.   Write short notes on the following concepts:
        a.   Human Relations
        b.   Public relations
iv.   Define relationships and mention its major characteristics.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Cox, S. M. & Fitzgerald, J. D. (1996). *Police in Community Relations.* (3rd ed.), Madoson, Wise: Brown and Benchmark.

Dempsey, J. S. & Forst, L. S. (2008). *An Introduction to Policing*. (4th Ed.), Madison and Wadswort: Belmont, p 289.

Miller, L. S. & Hess, K. S. (2002). *The Police in the Community: Strategies for the 21st Century.* (3rd ed.), Belmont, Calif: Wadsworth, p. 63.

UNIT 2   IMPROVING POLICE COMMUNITY RELATIONS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit introduces you to the concept of community policing, its features, elements and challenges and concludes with the conditions for appropriate police community relations.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- define community policing and discuss its features, elements and challenges
- recognise the conditions for the existence of good police community relations.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Community Policing

In unit one, police community relations was defined but it was not expressly mentioned that this relationship (i.e. police community relations) derives from policing process that is undertaken by the police in the community. In this unit, you will briefly be introduced into the

concept of community policing, its features, basic elements, shortcomings and the strategies for police community relations.

Community Policing is the community initiated proactive process of law enforcement that is oriented toward finding solutions to the security challenges of communities. It is basically a collaborative effort between the law-abiding citizens of a community and the law enforcement organisation that is responsible for managing the security of lives and property in that community. Community policing is usually established to address four broad security-based challenges, namely (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 123):

- Arresting (detaining) offenders
- Preventing (curbing) criminal activities
- Resolving existing legal violations, and
- Contributing to improvement of the general living conditions.

Another definition of community policing offered by O' Connor (1999: 1) is:

> A department-wide philosophy of full-service, personalised and decentralised policing where citizens feel empowered to work in proactive partnership with the police at solving the problems of crime, fear of crime, disorder, decay, and quality of life.

According to Miller (1996: 6), this is a philosophy that affords the police the time needed to establish contact with their host communities with a view to working with them to resolve challenges rather than simply responding with quick and temporary solutions. The Upper Midwest Community Policing Institute (UMPI) defines community policing as an organisation-wide philosophy and management approach that promotes community, government and police partnerships; proactive problem-solving community engagement to address the causes of crime, fear of crime and other community issues.

A close examination of these definitions show that they emphasise the:

I.   Existence of collaboration between the police and communities, and
II.   Adoption of proactive strategy to solving community crimes by the police.

3.1.1 Features of Community Policing

According to Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1994: 131-132), the major objectives of community policing is solving the problems of host

communities and the improved partnership with communities that comes
with it is an added advantage. Most, if not all, the features listed
hereunder clearly recognise this main community problem-solving
objective of community policing:

- Frequent interaction between the police and residents of the host
  community,
- Total acceptance of this philosophy by the police organisation,
- Mutual contributions to the philosophy by all its stakeholders and
  enhanced appreciation for the police,
- Clear role specification resulting in police that react effectively
  and proactively to community crime alerts,
- More specialised services arising from the fact that only one
  officer handle complaints and generate ideas for resolving crimes
  in the community,
- Community residents identify problems and participate in
  developing a response agenda,
- There is enhanced police accountability because the community
  residents enjoy better police services and the managerial
  strategies,
- The police act as leader and change agent that reduces fear,
  decay, crime, and disorder in the community,
- Police officers are appreciated as community stakeholders and
  role models,
- Community residents contribute to police policies and instigate
  meaningful reorganisation in the police organisation,
- Community participation in crime prevention and volunteer
  services, and
- Participation of usually unrelated organisations, such as fire-
  fighters and post office personnel in solving community
  problems.

3.1.2 Basic Elements of Community Policing

The basic elements of community policing are expressed in the
following three dimensions by Cordner (1999: 137):

I.   **The Philosophical Dimension:** This is based on the fact that
  community policing is more philosophical and programmatic in
  orientation. Thus, it is associated with the following elements:
  - Citizens' contributions that democratises the community
    security operations,
  - Role enlargement that incorporates hitherto unattended
    community services, and

- Customisation that enables it to accommodate the community norms and values.

II. **The Strategic Dimension:** This dimension refers to the translation of the police community philosophy into key operational definitions. It has three strategic elements for community policing consisting of:
   - Operations focussed on interpersonal interactions,
   - Geographic orientation from time to location-specific accountability, and
   - Emphasis on preventive police operations that is proactive.

III. **The Tactical Dimension:** This dimension interprets the philosophical and strategic dimensions into programmes that can be implemented. It therefore takes care of issues that deal with:
   - Establishing positive contacts as officers are encouraged to associate with community stakeholders,
   - Establishing relationships as officers are expected to search for opportunities to reconcile opposing goals, and
   - Solving problems that go beyond isolated experiences.

      3.1.3 Challenges to Community Policing: According to Bayley (1988: 226-236), community policing is beset by the following challenges:

I. Threats to public safety occasioned by decline in public interests in crime prevention activities (perhaps due to its repetitive nature),

II. Tendency for the police to become weak and unable to combat violent crimes,

III. It reduces the rationale for the establishment of community policing in the first instance,

IV. Community policing could endow the public with more authority than the government,

V. The crime prevention orientation of community policing may encourage the police to mount surveillance on individuals and violate their right to privacy,

VI. Community policing could also reinforce inequalities and perpetuate injustice in an attempt to adapt to local circumstances, and

VII. It could worsen discriminatory policing arising from hat fact that it is preferred by the rich compared to the poor that opt for enforcement of the law and incidents-based crime-fighting.

3.2   Strategies for Improving Police Community Relations

You have already been informed that the main objectives of police community relations is solving the security challenges of host communities and that the improved relationships that comes out of it is and an unintended, though immensely significant benefit. Nevertheless,

a couple of threats that appears to obstruct these benefits exist, which must be removed for the relationship t0 continue to deliver these benefits on a sustainable basis. It is in this light that you should appreciate the following conditions necessary for the existence of good police community relationship that we have approached under four sub-heads, namely; the role of government, the community/public, the media and the police:

3.2.1 Role of Government in Good Police Community Relations

In order to ensure good and result-oriented police community relationship government might have to implement the following amongst other interventions:

- Make explicit provisions in the constitution aimed at establishing and legitimising community policing and the relationships that emerge there from,
- Develop appropriate policies for establishing operational guidelines for police community relationships,
- Devote financial resources to the regular training of all cadre of the police to enable them keep abreast with contemporary practices in police community relationships,
- Design simple but highly effective monitoring and evaluation format for determining the effectiveness of the police community security strategy,
- The police community relations sub-section of the constitution should contain provisions requiring communities to cooperate with the police. Note that the police and community representatives should be invited to make input into the proposed constitutional provision on police community relations,
- Commitment of resources to the recruitment of police officers, and
- Establish offices that are well equipped with modern state of the art technological and administrative infrastructure that will contribute to improving the police response to distress calls from the community.

3.2.2 Role of the Community

The community must create an enabling environment for the police to operate without hindrance within the community. This enabling environment should include, though not limited to the following:

- Existence of a representative community security committee that will participate in the police community relations committee on behalf of the community
- Comprehensive enlightenment within the community by its leadership focused on the rationale and functions of the police community relations committee and police visibility in the community
- Regularly inviting the police to attend community activities helps both parties to gain rapport and mutual confidence, and
- Police community relations can also be boosted in situations where the community contributes volunteers to participate in police activities in host community.

3.2.3 Role of the Media

The media could play the following amongst other roles to improve police community relations in general:

- Positive portrayal of the role of the police in the community. According to Miller and Hess (2002: 37), "the media have enormous impact on public opinion. The police image is affected by the manner in which television and newspaper stories present crime and law enforcement activities." The media therefore have a very sensitive role to play considering that they are part of the institutional stakeholders that operate within the community,
- Conduct and report research findings on contemporary police-community engagement strategies to improve the management of the process in Nigeria.

3.2.4 Role of the Police

The police have the following roles to play toward improving police-community relations in Nigeria:

- Enlightening the communities about all dimensions of its community-based responsibilities. The proper handling of this task will go a long way in clearing doubts being harboured about the police in the community
- The police must always be sincere and apply uniform standards in dealing with all members of the community
- The police must formulate and implement uniform code of conducts for its personnel that come in contact with the communities to strictly comply with.

- Police must respect the rights and liberties of community residents even where it is obvious that they are not sufficiently aware of their fundamental human rights
- Police officers must comport themselves in respectable manners if they are to earn the respect of community members for mutually beneficial relationships. Therefore, incidence of drunkenness and other forms of self-abuses must not be seen amongst the police
- Police should always organise debriefing sessions within affected communities after major security operations - community members should be invited to participate in such events
- Police should be sufficiently sincere to allow community residents carry out oversight functions on their activities on the basis of mutually determined performance indicators. This kind of beneficiary assessment will generate ideas for improving police performance
- Police should establish and sustain multiple channels of open communication with their host communities, and
- Police may also open opportunities for community members to contribute to their training curricula as well as invite community security committee members to participate in their training at the police academy or at locations within the community.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What are the essential features of community policing and effective police community relations?

4.0   CONCLUSION

A far reaching conclusion that we can draw from the study of this unit is that an effective police community security programme can be successfully implemented in an environment of sustained cooperation of the stakeholders to the process.

5.0   SUMMARY

The unit defined community policing as the proactive process of law enforcement that relies on the participation of stakeholders for goal achievement. Features, elements and shortcomings of community policing were discussed before we dwelt on the contributions of the various stakeholders (Government, Community, Media, and Police) to improving police community relations in Nigeria.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Define the concept of community policing and mention some of its associated challenges.
ii.   What are the differences between the features and elements of community policing?
iii.   Mention and explain the roles of the major stakeholders in police community relations.
iv.   Discuss the possible contributions of government and the media to improvement of police community relations?

7.0   REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Bayley, D. H. (1988). Community Policing: A Report from the Devil's Advocate. In: J. Green and S. Mastrofski (Eds). *Community Policing: Rhetoric or Reality.* New York: Praeger.pp. 226-237.

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UNIT 3   PROBLEM-SOLVING   AND   COMMUNITY POLICING

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The ideas of problem-solving and community policing (focusing on the SARA model) are explored in respective details in this unit.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit you, should be able to state the:

- meaning of a problem from the perspective of police functions
- underlining philosophy of community and problem-solving policing
- distinction between problem solving and community policing
- role of the SARA model in community policing.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Concept of Problem in Context of Police Functions

Organisations across the world primarily exist to tackle a wide variety of issues broadly referred to as social problems (used interchangeably here with problems). Social problems are so categorised by virtue of the fact that they affect majority of the inhabitants of a particular society. In this regard, all forms of criminal activity come across as problems when considered from the prospective of the core police functions which Dempsey and Forst (2008:123) describe as:

I.   **The Crime Fighting Function:** A list of some of the kind of crimes being combated by the police will assist you with deeper understanding of the concept of a problem or social problem. These according to Dempsey and Forst include "violent crimes (Murder, forcible rape, robbery and aggravated assault), property crimes burglary, larceny/theft, motor vehicle theft, and arson)". Other form of social problems that were listed by the authors are driving under the influence of intoxicants, drug-related offences, violations, misdemeanours assaults, liquor law violations, disorder behaviour, vagrancy, loitering and traffic offences amongst others, and

II.   **The Order Maintenance Function:** This is related to the peacekeeping activities of the police and the provision of social services in the community.

However, it is in the more visible crime-fighting functions of the police that the concept of social problem is better appreciated by society.

3.2   Community and Problem-solving Police Philosophy

Community and problem solving policing were brought about mostly by the following environmental factors:

I.   Rapid technological development coupled with high and sustained crime rates that necessitated the police to abandon foot patrols for the adoption of "highly mobile police officers who could drive from one incident to another in minutes" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 327),
II.   Influx of rural residents into urban centers where they encountered "the culture, norms and mores of their adopted neighborhoods" (Dempsey and Forst, *op cit*), to which they were unaccustomed. Basically, this transformation caused problems, such as, social disorientation, deviance and mistrust in these urban communities and particularly the police that had the responsibility of maintaining law and order,
III.   Attempts by the highly mobile police to handle these social problems brought them and the new urban settlers into conflicts that were aggravated by poor communication and suspicions. Under these circumstances the police were largely thought of "as an invading army or an army of occupation" (Dempsey and Forst *op cit:* 328*).*

It was for the aforementioned that countries like the United States of America (USA) and Nigeria embraced the philosophy of community policing principally to redress the communication gap between the

police and the community. In the exact words of Dempsey and Forst (2008 *op cit*: 328 culled from Dennis J. Stephens):

> *Modern community policing, as compared with the PCR (Police Community Relations) movement, entails a substantial change in police thinking. It expands the responsibility of fighting crime to the community as a whole and through a partnership with the community, addresses the community's concerns and underlying problems that led to the crime. The police and community work toward the ultimate goal of reducing the fear of crime as well as the crime rate.*

However, modern community policing is largely credited to James O. Wilson and George L. Kelling (1982: 29-38), both of whom published an article "Broken Windows", in which they postulated that:

I.   When disorder occurs in a neighbourhood it usually creates fear. Therefore urban neighbourhoods occupied together by destitute, prostitutes, hard drug users, the mentally ill, youth gangs, homeless and law abiding citizens are more likely to experience high rates of crime,

II.   The nature of some neighbourhoods tends to invite criminal behaviours. For instance, where dilapidated housing exists with broken windows and disorderly conduct is overlooked crimes tend to flourish, while law abiding people are at the mercy of criminals,

III. Therefore, community policing that is based on the collaborative efforts of the police and the community is essential if crime must be combated and fear reduced to the barest minimum. Therefore, Wilson and Kelling stressed that the preservation of the community, maintenance of order and safety of the public should form the focal points of police patrol in communities.

From an extensive survey of neighbourhoods, another researcher Wesley G. Skogan, (1990: 21-50) came up with the following categorisation of human and physical disorders that influence the quality of community life in general:

I.   The Human Disorder: This consists of extremely disruptive conducts such as drunkenness in public, street corner gangs, street molestations, commercial sex, drug abusers and neighborhood noise, and

II.   The Physical Disorder which pertains to vandalisation, physical deterioration, various forms of abandonment and filthy environment.

3.3   Community Policing

Community policing is a strategy of crime management that deals with the basic causes of crime with a view to developing and applying longer term solutions to resolving issues through improved police community partnership and communication (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 329). According to Robert C. Trojanowicz (1992: 7-12) who established the National Centre for Community Policing that is situated in East Lansing, Michigan, community policing can effectively deal with the following two categories of crime/violence:

- Violence perpetrated by the individual namely, street crime, domestic violence and drug-induced violence.
- Civil disturbances, namely: gang violence, open conflicts amongst different community sub-groups especially the police and Police abuse or brutality.

Charles H. Weigand (1997:70-71) captured the fundamental principles of community policing when he stated that:

> The police are the public and the public are the police; the police being only members of the public who are paid to give full time attention to duties which are incumbent on every citizen in the interest of community welfare and existence

But what we must not overlook is the fact that community policing is a more holistic strategy that has been developed to take over from the traditional police patrol methods. In other words, instead of the traditional model that place the entire security of the community in the hands of the police patrol officer, who was seen as special, the evolving approach (community policing) creates an enabling environment for everyone to participate. Though, community policing philosophy does not completely advocate complete removal of the police because he/she will be needed to effect arrests, it emphasises the need to either prevent criminal behaviour from occurring or responding swiftly to curtail social disorder before they grow into unmanageable proportions.

This approach further likens the community policing personnel that covers the community beat and the street officer attending to an emergency request for help to family and emergency room doctors

respectively. The community police officer is basically there to solve problems and coordinate input from other social institutions for this purpose.

You may wish to note that community policing strategy aligns with the prescription of Trojanowicz that "the same officer patrols and works in the same area on a permanent basis, from a decentralised place, working in a proactive partnership with citizens to identify and solve problems." Thus, the principles of community policing place an obligation on the community police officer to work cooperatively with his community and not at cross purposes to it because his/her effectiveness actually depends on this factor of cooperation.

Furthermore, community policing officers are ordinarily expected to apply discretion to the implementation of their tasks which is clearly contrary to the traditional approach that literary direct the operations of its personnel with a manual and stifle initiative in the process.

Kelling is of the view that police officers should be taught, what they ought to do, encouraged to do, and undertake joint assessment with colleagues. He argued that this "should lead to improved practices and sharing of values, knowledge, and skills that will prove valuable in the performance of their jobs". In addition, he advocates "guided development" in police organisations to promote the discretionary conduct of police officers as basis for motivating them to work with communities to improving their conditions of living.

According to Harman Goldstein (1997:6-36), the advantages that can be derived from community policing include:

• A more practical appreciation of the role of the police,
• Acknowledgement of the interconnectedness of the police functions,
• The consciousness that police cannot accomplish their functions without cooperation between them and the community,
• Increased significance of problem-solving strategies and reduced dependence on the criminal justice structure,
• Increased utilisation of lessons learned by the police on the field,
• Increased result-oriented engagement of police officers, and
• Improved knowledge of community challenges as basis for developing result-oriented community responses.

The community policing paradigm has increased commitment towards collaboration, inclusion of new technology alongside new policies and implementation strategies. Besides, it has also led to the development of

practical yardsticks for the engagement and evaluation of the ideal community police officer.

For the community policing strategy to be effective, it must be embraced by the entire police organisation, not the least the line officer that is constantly in touch with the community. Community policing programmes must be adequately funded for it to respond effectively to the causes of social problems, especially in terms of designing appropriate remedies. This also explains why the police organisation should prioritise the training of its officers.

With increasing availability of communication technology community policing has also been made more widely accessible to the communities. Communication technology has also enhanced the sharing of best practices, resources, and crime information openly to the effect of raising the confidence level of the community that their security and other needs are being satisfied by the police.

3.4   Problem-Solving Policing

Herman Goldstein (1997:6-36), a University of Wisconsin Professor of Law, is widely acknowledged as the author of the   Problem-solving police paradigm. Goldstein, a veteran police officer, posited that the traditional police are mostly driven by incidents, which it tends to respond to sequentially (one after the order).

On the other hand, the problem-solving policing approach compels the police organisation to pay attention to what actually caused the incidents. Dempsey and Forst capture Goldstein's community policing proposition thus:

> *Goldstein's central theory is that the broad types of police roles (crime, order maintenance, and service) can be further broken down; for example, murder, drunk driving, auto theft. Each can be addressed and specific strategies or responses can be developed, depending on the underlying social and criminal issues for each one.*

A simplified version of the quote above is that a particular class of criminal activity, say robbery could be singled out for in-depth analysis to reveal its patterns and facilitate the development of remedial approaches. But more importantly, the community policing option endows the officers-in-charge with the responsibility of coming up with workable solutions to tackle observed criminal challenges. Therefore,

for it to work effectively the line officer should be empowered to be able to develop solutions for managing social problems under his jurisdiction.

Incident-driven policing appears to be based on routines requiring officers to repeatedly respond to particular kind of incidents from the same community. Under this paradigm the police simply focus an incidents rather than their root causes. On the other hand, the problem-solving policing is basically on establishing the fundamental cause of the incident, which is simply the manifestation of a deep rooted problem. From a historical point of view beat officers have mostly been interested in establishing the pattern of social problems in their beats: being held responsible for every incident in his/her beat, and dealing with those who were suspected to be responsible for the escalation of a particular kind of crime.

There are four basic components in the problem-solving policing strategy. These components consist of scanning, analysis, response and assessment, popularly referred to as **SARA**; which we shall now discuss in turn:

Scanning: The scanning process brings officers to a common forum where they   collectively discuss incidents of crime as "problems" rather than isolated incidents:

> *Problems are defined as two or more incidents, similar in nature (through such things as location, suspects, targets, or modus operand; (MO), capable of causing harm and about which the public expects the police to do something. For example, a robbery which used to be thought of as a single incident, in the scanning process is thought of as being part of a pattern of robberies, which in turn might be related to another problem, such as prostitution-related robberies in a particular area of the city*(Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 333).

As you can see from this, scanning is a process that enables the police organisation to draw from the knowledge of the isolated incidents of crime by various officers that have handled related crime incidents and the development of practicable strategies from the emergent pattern.

Analysis: This phase follows immediately after the scanning is concluded. It encompasses the collection of data from as many sources

as possible, including data from such sources as business organisations, local inhabitants and other agencies. This rich data source is then used to establish the underlying nature of the problem, its causes, and option for solutions (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 333).

Response: At this level of the SARA process, the police organisation enters into extensive consultation and collaboration with the various community publics with a view to developing a strategy that will respond suitably to the diagnosed problem. Arrests or the involvement of other community agencies may feature in the response strategy.

Basically, the adopted responses are arrived at through brainstorming sessions leading to a comprehensive plan of action that specifies:

i.   The background work that is required before its implementation.
ii.   Specification of persons that is responsible for implementing the identified preliminary actions.
iii.   Outlining and carrying out the plan, and
iv.   Learning from best practices obtained from other communities where this strategy had successfully been implemented.

It is important to note that, as with all plans, the implementation of this plan create expectations that relates to reducing the harm and ultimately eliminating the problem.

Assessment: The assessment process consists of the evaluation of the effectiveness of the response that was implemented. The process is generally guided by the following set of questions:

i.   Was the plan effectively implemented?
ii.   What was the goal that guided the plan implementation?
iii.   Was the goal accomplished and what indications do you have to prove this?
iv.   What changes do you anticipate if the plan is terminated or continued?
v.   What new options can we implement to improve the plan's effectiveness and how can the success of this new option be measured?

In general, answers obtained from the assessment phase are processed and fed into a future plan as lessons learned together with freshly collected data to fine-tune future responses.

Police officers engaged in the problem-solving strategy are basically involved in thinking through issues involved rather than responding mechanically to isolated incident of crime. For this reason the officers

inevitably deal with the underlying causes of crime incidents as basis for preventing recurrence of the events in question. Basically, the problem-solving police strategy requires extensive resource usually beyond what is budgeted for the police organisation to develop effective responses. Thus, the process naturally calls for the acquisition of different levels of skills associated with (Police Executive Research Forum, 2006):

i.   Communication entailing willingness to share views with others,
ii.   Coordination or networking;
iii.   Cooperation entailing stakeholders willingness to support each other, and
iv.   Collaboration entailing sustained commitment to work towards the realisation of common objectives.

SELF- ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What is a problem and how does community policing and problem-solving policing solve the problem of crime in the community?

4.0   CONCLUSION

It is clear from this unit that community and problem-solving policing are two approaches that seek answers to the problem of crime in the community. But, while the former tends to inhibit the initiative of police officers by insisting on strict operational guidelines the latter encourages initiative by transferring the responsibility for developing solutions to the problem of crime to the police officer who covers and relates with the community.

5.0   SUMMARY

Discussions in this unit started with the concept of a problem from the perspective of policing as simply anti-social behavior or criminal deviance. It then proceeded to examine community and problem-solving policing strategies for responding to crime in communities. While the community policing approach posits that the best way of controlling crime is by responding to repeated incidents of crime emergency calls, the problem-solving approach submits that the best strategy to controlling crime is to focus on the causes of crime. Thus, in order to implement the problem-solving policing programme effectively, it uses the SARA (Scanning, Analysis, Response and Assessment) model as a frame of reference.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Define and explain the dimension of a problem from the perspective of policing in Nigeria.
ii.   Write short notes on the following:
       a.   Community policing approach to crime-fighting, and
       b   Problem-solving approach to crime-fighting
iii.   Mention and explain the main features of the community and problem-solving policing philosophy in Nigeria.
iv.   Explain the role of the SARA model in problem-solving policing.

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UNIT 4   MODELS   OF   COMMUNITY   CRIME PREVENTION

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
      3.1   Community Crime Prevention
      3.2   Models of Community Crime Prevention
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit introduces you to the meaning of Community Crime Prevention and takes you through some of the contemporary strategies of the subject matter.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define the concept of Community Crime Prevention
- discuss the main strategies of Community Crime Prevention.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Community Crime Prevention

Criminal activity has been a serious source of worry to communities that have evolved both individual and concerted efforts to deal with it from time immemorial. In order to protect the lives and properties of community members from bands of thieves and vassal states seemingly inaccessible walls were built around cities like Kano and Zaria, while a very huge trench was dug around the ancient Benin Kingdom as recorded in the ancient history of Nigeria.

For the most part, new security strategies have emerged and these can easily be seen by driving through any Nigerian city. What these new strategies clearly indicate is that the security of lives and properties cannot be left entirely in the hands of the police organisation. Thus, as George L. Kelling (1983: 164) observed, people have resorted to arming

themselves, restricting their personal activities to relatively safer hours, rejecting cities, building fortress houses at locations that are perceived to be relatively safer inside and outside cities, and employing professional guards to curtail crime in their premises. Yet, this does not completely absolve the police from its primary responsibility of protecting lives and properties in society. As you will soon notice, most of the community crime prevention programs that we shall discuss here are equally obtainable in Nigeria.

However, the cautionary note we must take away from this issue is that the police have a responsibility of ensuring that citizens opting for these community crime prevention options do not infringe on the rights of their fellow citizens.

3.2   Models of Community Crime Prevention

I.   Neighborhood Watch:

This community crime prevention model is so named because it primarily involves the participation of members of the community, working with the police officers to secure the community. Citizens actually organise themselves to work with police to watch the community with trained eyes and ears as the case may be. The range of neighbourhood watch activities includes crime prevention and service to the community. The strategy is such that citizens keep watch over their immediate neighborhood and alert the police when they observe any suspicious and disorderly conduct.

In the United States of America (USA) "neighborhood watch blocks have clear signs alerting people that the block is protected by a neighborhood watch group" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 317). In some other communities, the programme has been modified to accommodate providers of social service such as post office and Electricity Company together with other delivering personnel that regularly service neighborhoods. These company personnel are trained on how to identify and report suspicious activities to their dispatchers for onward transmission to the police.

Neighbourhood watch programmes are suitable for the control of such crimes as burglary "and are more likely to be effective as part of general purpose or multi-issue community groups rather than when they only address crime problems" (Garofalo, J. and McLeod, M. 1988: 1). Neighbourhood watch programmes require "strong, committed leadership and the partnership between citizens and the community will empower the citizens with an active role in crime prevention activities" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 137).

II.   National Night Out

Though this strategy is not presently obtainable in Nigeria it is worth considering because of its security implications. The modus operandi of national night out is simple; at particular dates, which may change from year to year, all citizens within a neighbourhood are encouraged "to turn on all outside lighting and step outside their houses, between 8:00pm and 9:00pm". This programme is given enough publicity ahead of the date that usually falls into the first week of August in the USA. Some innovative neighbourhoods have turned it into a carnival of some sort by securing cooperate sponsors for their planned events. However the main security objectives of the national night out are:

i.   For neighbours to become familiar with themselves so that any strange person can promptly be identified and reported to security officers,
ii.   To generate support from within the community and channel that support into community anti-crime activities,
iii.   To reinforce the spirit of communality, and
iv.   To openly announce to criminals that they are under watch in the neighbourhood.

III.   Citizens Patrol

Under this model group of citizens organise themselves to undertake either foot or vehicular patrols that enable them report suspicious characters to the police authority, thus, serving as the ears and eyes of the police within the community. Dempsey and Fort (2008: 318) assert that the main function of the citizens Patrol programme is to act as an intimidating force against possible criminals or potentially disruptive people. For instance, "many people reported that the mere presence of the Guardian Angels (a particular citizen's patrol group) reassured them". Though, the police initially resented this group (i.e. Guardian Angels) due to their lack of experience in community security issues, it eventually trained about 12 of its members in "civilian crime-fighting techniques and make them part of a police-sponsored rollerblade patrol to improve safety in New York city's famed central park" (Messing, P. 1996: 6).

In an independent assessment of the effectiveness of the Guardian Angel, Anthony Westbury (2005) wrote that the guardians rely on their attitude of intimidation and perception of toughness to disarm trouble makers without physical contracts. Their goal is to diffuse the violence, subdue troublemakers and call the police. They try to avoid any form of physical engagement and feel that stopping the violence is the responsibility of the entire community. According to Dempsey and Forst

(2008: 318), the police department of Nashville midwifes a "Be on the Lookout" (BOLO) citizens patrol programme. Through this programme, community residents are empowered or trained on strategies for neighbourhood observation and reporting of suspicious persons to the police. Whenever those trained are carrying out their rounds of patrol, they wore special insignia or badges depicting that they were operatives of the BOLO programme. Amongst other things, they handled quality of life issues and do occasionally receive support from corporate organisation (e.g. the donation of 100 phones by GTE Wireless).

IV.   Citizens' Volunteer Programmes

Under this programme, members of the community approach the police and volunteer to perform police duties and in the process they release police officers into the community to perform their core functions. The range of activities carried out by the volunteers include analysis of crime data, clerical tasks, assisting victims, preventing crimes, patrolling shopping complexes, checking vacant accommodation, and recording the finger prints of children. The Nigeria police force (NEFF) can also be made more effective if it calls for volunteers to enable it release trained police officers from desk or administrative jobs into community patrol duties.

Dempsey and Forst (*op cit*) advise that "the programme and services provided should be to the department and community." They observed that "a police department that doesn't actively seek to recruit volunteers is not practicing good management." Furthermore, they stated that the volunteer strategy can assist the police organisation in:

- accomplishing its duties more effectively
- maximising their existing resources
- improving public security and social services
- improving its community relations, and
- releasing officers into patrol and investigation functions
- volunteers can also be used when the police is expanding and beginning new programmes for which they will need more hands
- through volunteering, the community benefits with a more educated citizenry and an increased feeling of safety.

Though, the volunteer programme does not technically require the payment of salaries, the department may however incur some cost on remunerating the programme coordinator, screening and training volunteers, provision of work spaces, stationery, equipment, volunteer uniforms and special recognition. Generally the benefits associated with using volunteers far out weight the costs (Nancy Kolb, 2005: 22-30). Other areas in which people may volunteer include the implementation

of parking regulations, special event assistance, crime prevention, telephone follow-ups, minor investigations, reception, clerks, city guides, conducting fingerprinting, and role-play during training. Computer operations, printing, technology know-how, writing competences, photography, and video coverage, cooking and distributing refreshments at special events may also be useful to the police department.

V.   Home Security Survey and Operation Identification

Home security or Target hardening programmes consist of a range of efforts undertaken by residents to prevent criminals from gaining easy access into peoples' houses, business premises or properties in general. Target hardening in Nigeria involves the installation of burglary alert systems, protective gates, "and using other devices and techniques to make it more difficult for criminals to enter premises to commit crime" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 319). In Nigeria, the installation of target handling devices is mostly handled by private security organisations, which also render fee-based counseling on the appropriate devices to acquire along with the suitable point at which to install them. The Nigeria police also offer professional advice concerning the suitable kind of gadgets and best location in which to install them to residents and business organisations when approached.

Similarly, there is the operation identification programmes (OIPs) that deal with engraving, on your properties, numbers with which they can be identified when you happen to lose them to criminals and they are found. With the aid of the operation identification numbers the police are able to communicate with you whenever they recover your property.

A variant of this strategy entails the visible display of "Decals on windows announcing that a house is equipped with an alarm or has participated in an operation identification programme" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 319). Such displays basically turns off potential burglars, which do not ordinarily wish to be noticed, from approaching your building; whether private or public.

VI.   Police Storefront Stations or Ministrations

This is a strategy whereby the police set up small operational posts in the front of business premises to increase their visibility and accessibility to the public. These ministrations serve as mini-coordination points from where units of the police carry out community patrols and engage in crime prevention activities.

In Nigeria, though ministrations may not be known by this name, they however exist to the extent that some large departmental stores, business organisations, markets and private concerns are known to have them, (i.e. ministrations). An important fact about ministrations is that they enable police to render its conventional crime fighting, order maintenance and social service functions while simultaneously assuring the public that their taxes are being properly utilised.

In developed countries like the USA, the police use ministrations as platforms to distribute information about public institutions dealing with water resources, business names registration, and public health, to mention but a few.

VII.   Crime Stoppers

The crime stoppers programme entails partnership between the police and media organisations, especially the electronic, in which the police use media to publish unsolved crimes for a particular week. Through this media the police also announce cash reward for citizens that volunteer information leading to the arrest of advertised crime suspects.

In Nigeria, an institutionalised pattern may not exist for the advertisement of criminal activities and reward for persons that volunteer information leading to arrests, but one cannot quickly forget that one of the most notorious criminals in Nigeria, Anini, was actually arrested on a tip off by a citizen after the police advertised a reward for information leading to his arrest.
In various states in the USA, "unsolved crime of the week" is regularly aired on television and radio stations which has resulted in the arrest of scores of criminals (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 320).

Another version of the crime stoppers programme is concerned with citizens that prefer to leave anonymous hints or tips about unsolved crimes leading to the arrest of suspects. Publication of the photographs of wanted persons by public and private television stations in Nigeria also fit perfectly into the crime stoppers framework. As we have seen in the crime stoppers programme it works on the wings of the partnership between the police, the media and the public that actually runs with the information relayed through the media.

VIII.   Mass Media Campaigns

Mass media campaigns against crime are basically

Disseminated through such media outlets as the prints (daily newspapers, weekly/monthly magazines) and electronic (television and

radio) media primarily meant to make crime prevention information available to the public. This information generally revolves around the way you should respond when you see a crime being committed. For instance the media have been known to capture live criminal activities on camera based on response to distress calls. Dempsey and Forst (2008: 320) capture it thus:

> *A good working relationship with the press and the media is essential to get their cooperation and not release particular information they may obtain or photos that they may be recording real time, such as a hostage or tactical situation. There have been many occasions where media helicopters have followed suspects and assisted law enforcement in catching them. Media have also taken on active roles in helping to solve crimes, especially in the case of child abductions.*

It is apparent from this that both the media and police need to undertake capacity building programmes in order to be able to perform at the level being indicated. Though the Nigeria media may not be able to undertake the risks associated with the live coverage of criminal activity it frequently relays information on suspects and getaway vehicle numbers that are brought to its attention to the public. The media also regularly develop feature stories on specific community crime challenges and educate residents on appropriate measures to control such criminal activities. However, the media role in crime management could become counterproductive if care is not exercised in ascertaining the authenticity of information made available to the public. On the whole, both the media and police need to make deliberate efforts to understand each other's role for this highly significant partnership in crime management to yield dividend for the entire society.

IX.   Chaplain Programmes

Within the police and other security organisations, a volunteer-based chaplain programme exist that reaches out in liaison capacity to the various religious organisations in their jurisdictions. Chaplains constitute an invaluable resource in the time of crisis because of the advice and referrals they provide to police officers, families of affected people and victims themselves. Whenever they participate in disaster relief operations they render invaluable assistance in handling the emotional challenges thrown up by the disaster thus releasing the police to their core investigative duties. According to Dempsey and Forst (2008, 321), any comprehensive chaplain programme should include the representatives of all religions because "in the event of disharmony in the community, these volunteers can also provide calming voices to their

constituents and help solve problems within the community." Chaplain programmes are built on the faith community philosophy, which is essential to the consideration of how responsive the police are to the community in which they operate (Morgan, A. 1999: 1).

In the US, the police organisation has responded to the chaplain programme through training aimed at building their capacity to respond to community challenges. These have to do with serving as advocates for challenges confronting the police and playing mediatory roles between law enforcement agents and the community inhabitants. These training programmes also assure the community that the chaplains relating with them are eminently qualified individuals.

XI   Citizens Police Academies

Citizens police academies programmes are designed to "educate community members about the roles and responsibilities of police officers and to familiarise the public with the departments and how they work within the community." The goals of most police academies is not to provide civilians trained in law enforcement but, rather to create a nucleus of citizens who are well informed about practices and services (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 321).

Through the citizens police academies the police organisation is able to develop a pool of potential volunteers from which it can draw at very short notice. Most academies provide comprehensive overviews of police duties to their trainees and quite often structure their curricula to the needs of the community, target groups, such as the physically challenged, students, women, and the aged. Sometimes, the programmes are organised within local communities to boost the participation of community residents in it. In summary, the citizens academies programmes:

- address key responsibilities of the police at their training programmes
- engage police officers in training beneficiaries in their areas of expertise
- create a forum for the police and community to share thoughts on police duties
- enable participants to know how the police department operates, and
- enable participants to know about the possibilities and limitations of the police and thus create practical expectations in the minds of community inhabitants.

XII. **Other Police-Sponsored Crime Prevention Programmes include**:

- Ride-alongs and tour of police facilities and community settings which provide citizens with:
- Opportunities to play police roles like responding to police emergency calls under police guidance, and
- Understanding the complex operational environment of the police.

But, before the ride-along, you have to sign a waiver freeing the police from liabilities in the advent of a problem.

- Community Emergency Response Teams (CERTS) that are trained on how to respond to disasters or emergencies. The CERT response is meant to serve as stop-gap prior to the arrival of the actual emergency team that may continue to assist. The team develops a critical mass of community residents that are capable of responding to emergency situations within the community.

SELF- ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Prepare a list of community crime prevention models and discuss their main features.

4.0   CONCLUSION

The basic conclusion from this unit is that crime-fighting, order maintenance and community service provision is a collaborative effort that has for too long been left entirely to the police. Parties to this collaborative effort should be the police, government, the public and the media.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit discussed the strategies of crime prevention undertaken by members of the community. Some of the strategies or models that were discussed include; the neighbourhood watch, national night out, citizens' patrol, home security survey and operation identification, police frontstore or ministries, crime stoppers, mass media campaigns, chaplain programmes, citizens police academies, and other police sponsored crime prevention programmes. Some common lessons learnt from the unit include the need for stakeholder cooperation, collaboration, training, as well as sufficient funding and media participation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   What is a community crime prevention strategy?

ii.   As an expert on this subject develop a community crime prevention strategy for the Nigeria police.

iii.   Write brief notes on the following:
     a.   Neighbourhood watches
     b.   Citizens' patrol
     c.   Crime stoppers
     d.   National night out, and
     e.   Ministration

iv.   What are the similarities and differences between?
     a. Maas media campaign and chaplain programme
     b. Citizens academies and police frontstore

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UNIT 5   POLICE AND SPECIAL COMMUNITY STAKEHOLDERS

CONTENTS

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1.0   INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we will discuss the idea of the Special Community Stakeholder and proceed to highlight the relationship between the police and some of these stakeholders.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end this unit, you should be able to:

•   describe the special community stakeholder
•   discuss the relationship between the police and these stakeholders.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Definition of the Special Community Stakeholder

By the nature of their basic responsibilities of crime-fighting, order maintenance and response to social services, the police is constantly brought into contact with the various publics comprising the Nigerian society. As a result of these contacts the police have constantly been accused of discriminatory treatment by some segments of the society, particularly in Nigeria. Segments of the population that are frequently involved in this accusation include women, the physically challenged,

the aging population, crime victims young people, the homeless and victims of domestic violence, which we have described here as special community stakeholders.

They are considered special because they are often socially, politically and economically powerless and would have been completely voiceless but for representations made on their behalf by non-governmental organisations (NGOs). Dempsey and Forst (2008: 291) argue that "one of the best ways to improve relationships between the police and minority groups is to ensure that minority groups are adequately represented in a jurisdiction's police department." The extent to which this representation has been reflected in the Nigeria police leaves much to be desired. For instance, while serving police women have become common sight in Nigerian cities and local communities, the same cannot be said of other categories of special stakeholders, especially the physically challenged.

Factors that can be implicated for the unfavourable relationship between the police and the special community stakeholders include; lack of knowledge and appreciation of the methods for culturally relating with these groups. However, opening and sustaining communications with their leaders, breaking existing language barriers by engaging interpreters (to communicate with the deaf), simply respecting these groups, and acquainting them with the role of the police, will go a long way in assuaging these challenges.

3.2   Police and the Special Community Stakeholders

In this sub-section, the characteristics and challenges presented by selected special community stakeholders are considered along with the strategies being deployed to manage them by the police:

3.2.1 Police and Women

Women constitute about half of the worlds' population and this general sex composition pattern is also strongly reflected in the population of Nigeria. Thus, the police often come in contact with women as criminals, as victims of crime, or when women turn up at police stations to visit or to bail members of their families and friends who are in custody of the police for breaching the public peace. Although, an increasing number of women are participating in criminal activity in Nigeria as it is elsewhere (Dempsey & Forst 2008: 298), they are generally exposed to almost the same type of crimes as men. However, women tend to be more susceptible to certain types of crime, and correspondingly more susceptible to fear. In the society for instance, though men have also been victims of sexual assorts, rape is more

frequently committed against women. Also, in terms of domestic violence, women are more at the receiving end as victims rather than being offenders. Therefore, police personnel ought to appreciate the situation in which women find themselves when they encounter them as victims of domestic violence. Unfortunately, women are not satisfied with the degree of sensitivity that is exhibited by the police when dealing with their cases of domestic violence and other sex related offences committed against them. Police response to these charges of inappropriate handling of cases of domestic violence and sexual assort against women revolve around:

- formulation and implementation of pro-arrest policies,
- establishment of specialised departments to handle the cases of assaulted women,
- training police officers to understand crime victimisation, domestic/sexual violence and assaulted women, and
- employing and enabling more women to make careers out of police work, and this has helped to shape the policies of the police in favour of women in relative terms.

In Nigeria, there has been persistent media reports that not only are more women participating in criminal activities, they are venturing into new areas of crime such as robbery and even killing or inflicting serious injuries on men in brutal domestic violence. Dempsey and fort (2008: 299) discovered that several behaviour including substance abuse, mental illness, spousal abuse, and most significantly prior victimisation are factors responsible for this development in the US.

3.2.2 The Physically Challenged

There are more than nineteen million physically challenged persons in Nigeria that live within this country. Though, official data of those in severe need of daily sustenance does not exist due to the poor culture of data management in Nigeria. The fact that most of them are involved in street begging is an indication that huge proportions of them need urgent rehabilitation. Vast proportions of these physically challenged suffer from visual, auditory, mobility, and mentally-related challenges.

Basically, the type of problems that the physically challenged present to the police organisations are as diverse as their physical conditions particularly, under emergency situations. For instance, there is clearly a huge communication problem for the law enforcement agent who needs to pass vital information to a deaf person under an emergency condition and he is unable to communicate with him/her. Though the British police organisation has overcome most of these challenges by "providing (TTY) telephone for the deaf … given cultural training to the

officers, and provided training in sign language to interested officers," (Lengel, 2002) these interventions may not yield the expected result when applied in Nigeria because most of the deaf are not literate in sign language. Even if they happen to acquire the required sign language proficiency the police as presently constituted may not have the manpower to deal with deaf offenders or to recruit the deaf as officers. However, if programmes are not already in place to train police officers in Nigeria on how to communicate with the deaf such programmes should be commenced immediately at least to make members of this segment of our society to have a sense of belonging.

3.2.3 Police and Senior Citizens

Unlike most of the western world that is experiencing rapid increases in the proportion of aging populations in Nigeria this is fairly small relative to the country's population. Though, the rate at which the aged participate in crime is pretty low, they nevertheless present their own unique challenges to the police. Old people tend to be afraid and try to remain in-doors for fear of falling victims of crime. Therefore, special activities need to be designed for the aged by the police (Forst, 2000: 136) though; the Nigeria Police has not yet caught up with this idea.

It has been discovered that old people place very high premium on their independence and for this and related issues to be respected the police needs regular training and education to be able to manage good relationships with the aged. This is because "the patrol officer (police) is the ambassador for the department. The way these officers treat older people will affect what the senior citizens think of the department" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 304).

As people grow older, they experience emotional, physiological and social challenges, which police officers should understand to be able to improve on their adaptation to them. This is because the physical challenges associated with sight, sound, and movement affects the integration of the aged. Basically, an officer who understands these psychological and social issues will be able to understand an unexpectedly emotional reaction to what he or she perceives as a routine event.   Some social issues that are common to old people include; adjusting to life after retirement, death of family members and friends, adjusting to various impairments and illness, as well as confronting an illness that is known to be terminal (Forst, L. *op cit*: 49-52).

It is equally important for line officers to know about the unique problems of old people, such as driving, low self-esteem, fraud and abuse of elders. Therefore, the line officer has to be well informed about

the process of arranging referrals in addition to being able to design appropriate programmes to engage these senior citizens.

In the final analysis, we should always remember that senior citizens also stimulate economic activity as consumers, constitute a political force that you cannot ignore, and could be useful as a pressure group for influencing the government to increase the budget of your department.

3.2.4 Police and Crime Victims

Victims of crime are receiving increasing attention around the world, particularly, from law enforcement agencies (International Association of Chiefs of Police, 2000). In Nigeria, the police are known to have risen to the rescue of persons under attack, visited them in occasions when they (i.e. the police) could not arrive promptly at the scene of crimes, and have continued to recover and return stolen items to victims. As Dempsey and Forst (2008: 311) writes:

> *Many efforts have been undertaken to assist victims of crime, including victims' right laws, victim assistance programmes, and crime compensation funds. Recently, law enforcement has realised that by working more closely with these victims, they can better serve the victims and enhance community support, and they can also help advance the law enforcement mission and goal of reducing and solving crime and reducing fear of crime.*

The implication of this is that the legislature, the police, and government might have to develop laws to accommodate the rights of victims and develop programmes for the assistance of victims to adjust psychologically, and compensate them against losses attributable to crime; and also budget adequately for these programmes to be implemented in Nigeria, where these are not in practice.

Meanwhile, crime victims are caught between seeking the services of law enforcement agencies at high cost and in countries like Nigeria outright refusal to report their experiences to the police. Therefore, it is advisable to commission a survey to ascertain why crime victims in Nigeria tend to refrain from seeking law enforcement services. This is because information supplied by crime victims can be used by the police to improve crime control and enhance the perception of the safety of community residence (Parker, S. G. 2001: 2). To facilitate this process, Dempsey and Forst (*op cit*) reveal that as it obtains in the US, the

Nigeria police can start by setting up victim's services departments that are basically committed to tapping information from crime victims and also ascertaining the victim's needs rather than relying on newspaper coverage of the crime to collect information. This direct contact strategy is also valuable as means for commencing crises counseling early to enable the police to quickly settle down for post-crises investigations.

According to Dempsey and Forst (*op cit*) "this supportive atmosphere may also encourage citizens to report more crime, cooperate more fully, and consequently increase conviction rates.

Some other strategies that the police are using to engage crime victims include:

i.   Ensuring that the process of investigation does not threaten the victim and one method of doing this is by reducing the numbers of times that the victim has to talk to the police and ensuring that the meeting is convenient
ii.   Constantly exchanging information with victims and giving them updates on the status of cases relating to them, their friends and relations, and
iii.   Organising town hall meetings that also enable victims to appreciate the challenges confronting the investigation efforts of the police particularly in the area of securing witnesses.

3.2.5 Police and Victims of Domestic Violence

Domestic violence has been on the increase in recent times across the world, particularly in Nigeria, perhaps as a result of the breakdown in social norms, values, changing family roles and economic uncertainties. This phenomenon has continued to occur as various breaches, especially against women, which concern:

i.   Family violence having to do with sexual abuse of female members
ii.   Murder committed against a family member from within, and
iii.   There is also a variant of murder committed by former spouses or lovers (boyfriend/girlfriend).

Oftentimes, the police are the only avenue that victims of domestic violence have to share their traumatic experiences and receive some measure of consolation. Though many have been reluctant to leave abusive partners, it is a dangerous time. "A woman is most at risk of being murdered when she tries to break off an abusive relationship" (Dempsey and Forst, 2005: 313, adapted from Sonkin D. J and Durphy, M. 2006).

In Nigeria and also in the US, the earliest reaction to cases of domestic violence was to treat it as private cases that should be settled by the family. This is because it was thought that treating it otherwise would:

i.   Make life more miserable for victims considering that there was the prospect of retaliation from the abuser, and

ii.   Compel victims to press charges which they will find difficult to do. Therefore, most of the officers that found themselves in the middle of cases of domestic violence have tended to resort to the following strategies:

   a.   Conflict mediation or attempting to reconcile the parties to the violence,

   b.   Calming down the parties, and

   c.   Channeling the parties to social service organisations to handle the issue.

Though, the reasons for considering domestic violence as private affairs to be handled by elders of both spouse's family still persist, the spate of arrests associated with domestic violence has increased in Nigeria. Quite often, the police carry out the arrests of both parties in a domestic violence because it is difficult to ascertain the party telling the real story at the scene of violence.

SELF- ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention and describe the essential features of five special community stakeholders in Nigeria.

4.0   CONCLUSION

The main lesson that you should take away from this unit is that all social groups in society are important and that the police needs to constantly make adjustments to enable it relate productively with all of them.

5.0   SUMMARY

It is apparent that each special community stakeholder presents its own unique challenges to the police and these must clearly be understood. But, the best platform on which to approach all these stakeholders collectively is the community. Furthermore, in order to elicit cooperation from most of these special groups there should be exchange of information alongside internal reorganisation of the police department to accommodate the challenges posed by these groups amongst others.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Define the special community stakeholder and mention four strategies that the police can use in soliciting their cooperation.
ii.   Mention four ways in which the Nigeria police can respond to the charge of insensitivity to domestic violence (e.g. rape) made against it by women.
iii.   What problems and prospects do the following present to the Nigeria police:
        a.   The physically challenged,
        b.   Senior citizens,
iv.   In what ways can the following special groups be useful to the police?
        c.   Senior citizens
        d.   Crime victims.

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MODULE 2   POLICING AND POLICE MANAGEMENT

Unit 1   Policing & Managerial Concepts (Division of Labour, Bureaucracy, Organisation, and Leadership)
Unit 2   Traditional and Alternative Police Management Structures
Unit 3   Models of Police Personnel Organisation
Unit 4   Area, Time and Function-Based Management Models
Unit 5   Miscellaneous Personnel Management Issues

UNIT 1   POLICING MANAGEMENT CONCEPTS (DIVISION OF LABOUR, BUREAUCRACY, ORGANISATION AND LEADERSHIP)

CONTENTS

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    3.2   Managerial concepts applicable to the police organisation
        3.2.1   Division of Labour
        3.2.2   Organisation
        3.2.3   Bureaucracy
        3.2.4   Leadership
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit introduces you to the traditional and community orientation to management, managerial concepts such as division of labour, organisation, bureaucracy and leadership.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to explain:

- policing management
- managerial concepts applicable to the police organisation.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Understanding Policing Management

Policing is simply a goal-oriented process primarily focused on the management of crime in society. As we saw in module 1 unit 3, policing has evolved through the years from the traditional to more contemporary collaborative methods that are basically responsive to community requirements.

Let us quickly remind ourselves of the basic distinctions between the traditional and community policing orientation to security management:

I.   The **traditional policing** orientation is based on three operational pillars. These are:
  i.   The pillar of random or unstructured routine community patrols, usually within a designated geographical location: Routine patrols are undertaken on the basis of the belief that the mere presence of the police will serve as deterrence to criminal activity within the community,
  ii.   The pillar of rapid response to calls from community residents: This process plays out when a community resident initiates a call to the central control room to inform the police that its attention is needed to manage an unfolding criminal activity or emergency. This information is then passed onto the police officers that are responsible for that area and who, more often than not, are expected to be on patrol within the area. Quite frequently in Nigeria, a backup team can be raised to support the officer in charge of the area if the emergency to be handled is perceived to be huge in magnitude, and
  iii. The pillar of retroactive past crime investigations: Where a distress call is related to crime that had already been committed. Under this circumstance, the officers on patrol conduct preliminary investigations before passing the case file to trained investigators to follow up with more thorough investigations.

II.   On the other hand, **community policing** is a more robust "approach toward crime that address the underlying causes of crime and endeavours to apply long term problem-solving to the issues through improved police-community partnerships and communications" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 229). This policing management strategy sees the police and their host communities as partners in progress, having shared interest in the development of the community that is inhabited by all, regardless of the fact

that the police officers are remunerated and primarily tasked for its security (Weigand, C. H. 1997, 70-71). Management is an integral and very important tool for implementing police functions. In the very explicit definition of Dempsey and Forst, (*op cit*) "management is the process of running an organisation so that the organisation can accomplish its goals". In order for any organisation to accomplish its set goals it must, at a minimum, guide its operations with the PODSCRB principles, namely:

i.   Planning
ii.   Organising
iii.   Directing
iv.   Staffing
v.   Coordinating
vi.   Reporting, and
vii.   Budgeting.

Conventionally, these organisational roles are carried out by staff of an organisation. They are those who are appointed into the status of managers and superiors and charged with the primary responsibility of managing the organisation towards its goal.

3.2   Managerial   Concepts   Applicable   to   the   Police   Organisation

Other important managerial concepts that shape police management and its other organisational systems and processes that you should be acquainted with are: division of labour, bureaucracy, organisation and leadership. We shall now discuss these concepts in turns:

3.2.1 Division of Labour

Nigeria is a huge country and the communities within its geographical expanse are expected to be covered by the operations of the Nigeria police.

However, the police cannot achieve this operational coverage effectively unless through the assignment of roles and status or responsibilities to various cadre of officers. According to Dempsey and Forst (*op cit*):

> *The varied tasks and duties that must be performed by an organisation must be divided among its members in accordance with some logical plan. In police departments, the tasks of the organisation are divided according to personnel, area, time, and function or purpose. Work*

assignments must be designed so that similar (homogenous) tasks, functions, and activities are given to a group for accomplishment. In a police department, patrol functions are separated from detective functions, which are separate from internal investigative functions. Geographic and time distinctions are also established, with certain officers working certain times and areas.

Thus, by simply asking for the pattern of tasks and responsibilities within an organisation, you will be able to ascertain whether or not division of labour exists in that organisation.

It is strongly recommended that where division of labour obtains in an organisation, a chart should be drawn to capture it in clear terms, particularly because it helps in portraying the role, status and reporting relationship within the organisation.

3.2.2 Organisation

There are many definitions of this concept in the literature. However, we shall adopt a few that we consider suitable to our purpose and examine their features in relation to policing.

The first definition of an organisation that we shall consider is that by Nicholas Henry (2004: 58), who in his publication, *Public Administration and Public Affairs*, offered the following two definitions on the subject

In the first instance he states that an organisation is "a highly rationalised and impersonal integration of a large number of specialists cooperating to achieve some announced specific objectives." Similarly, he also defines an organisation as "a system of consciously coordinated personal activities of forces of two or more persons" (Nicholas Henry, *op cit*).

Patrick O'Hara (2006: 23-26) also defines the concept of organisation in his book *Why Law Enforcement Organisations Fail: Mapping the Organisational Fault Lines in Policing* thus "organisations consist of a deliberate arrangement of people doing specific jobs, following particular procedures in order to accomplish a set of goals determined by some authority."

From the foregoing definitions of an organisation you can easily see that they (i.e. organisations) have the following characteristics:

- Activities that are basically oriented toward the pursuit of predestinated goals
- Organisational goals are established by some authority,
- Organisational personnel are usually specialists
- Organisations are made up of systems that basically work together or cooperate to accomplish specific objectives
- The coordination within an organisation result from the deliberate efforts of some people who are responsible for it
- Organisations are products of deliberate arrangements, and
- Organisational specialists follow specific procedures to carry out specific responsibilities.

3.2.3 Bureaucracy

Max Weber's study on Bureaucracy has almost become an indispensable reference on the subject. Weber definition of bureaucracy contains the following characteristics:

i.   The existence of hierarchies in bureaucratic organiations
ii.   Promotion that is earned on the basis of your skills and merit
iii.   Bureaucracies are made up of well developed career service
iv.   Bureaucracies operate on the basis of established rules and regulations, and
v.   Bureaucracies are also characterised by the norm of impersonal relationship between staff in the system and between staff and external clients.

According to Nicholas Henry (*op cit,* 59-60) bureaucracy is a closed system of organisation that goes by the following names; bureaucratic, hierarchical, rational, formal, and mechanistic. He emphasised that bureaucracy or the theory of bureaucracy is one of the schools that has survived the test of time. He highlighted some characteristics of this theory or model as:

a.   The existence of routine roles in an unchanging environment,
b.   The centrality of specialisation and division of labour
c.   Emphasis on the existence of the best way of carrying out tasks
d.   The management of conflicts at the highest level of authority
e.   Emphasis on staff restriction to official job descriptions
f.   Loyalty and responsibility to the department to which one is attached
g.   The existence of a hierarchical pyramidal structure
h.   Flow of authority and instructions from the top to the bottom of the pyramid
i.   Obedience-centered relationships and encouragement of superior subordinates association

j.   Emphasis on subordinate loyalty to his/her superiors, even if this obstructs performance of roles, and

k.   Ranks and office determines the status of an individual within the bureaucratic organisation.

In the submission of Henry:

> *Bureaucracy is in our bones. Prehistoric evidence unearthed at archaeological digs suggests that the rudiments of a bureaucratic social order were in place 19,000 years ago. Bureaucracy predates by many millennia, Homo sapiens, either experiments with democracy, the emergence of globe great religions, and the dawn of civilisation itself. Bureaucracy may not be basic to the human condition, but it is basic to human society.*

It is very evident from the aforementioned characteristics that the Nigeria police are basically a bureaucratic organisation.

3.2.4 Leadership

These days, almost everybody talks about leadership and this is because, as with the case of Nigeria, it is believed to be responsible for the poor state of the economic, social, and political life of this Nation. This leadership crisis also exists in the police that have been invited on several occasions to answer questions relating to the fragile security situations of Nigeria at various times of our national life.

Leadership is of vital significance in any setting where people of different socio-cultural backgrounds are brought together to pursue a common objective. But, as Dempsey and Forst (*op cit*) ask in their book *Introduction to Policing*:

> *Are those managers and supervisors that actually instruct you daily leaders? Is leading the same thing as managing and supervising? Did some of the managers and supervisors that you worked for in the past simply tell you what to do and how to do it and then disciplined you if you did it poorly? Or did they motivate you to see the value of the work you were performing, to see how you fit into the broader mission of the*

> *organisation, and to inspire you to perform*
> *your job to the very best of your ability?*

In an attempt to answer these questions, Dempsey and Forst reviewed the works of the following authors for their contributions to the ideas of leadership. They came up with the following definitions:

I.   "Leadership is based on inspiration, not domination; on cooperation not imitation: (William Autha Ward, 2006).

II.   "A good leader inspires people to have confidence in the leader; a great leader inspires people to have confidence in themselves" (Ward, *op cit*)

III.   "A leader is one who knows the way, goes the way, and shows the way" (Ward, *op cit*)

IV.   "The day soldiers stop bringing you their problem is the day you have stopped leading them. They have either lost confidence that you can help them or concluded that you do not care. Either case is a failure of leadership" (Ward, *op cit*).

V.   "To be a leader, you have to make people to want to follow you, and nobody want to follow someone who does know where his going" (Ward, *op cit*).

From these definitions the following attributes can be seen in good leaders:

I.   Motivation
II.   Teaching or mentoring
III.   Effective group coordination
IV.   Open communication
V.   Sincere inspiration and
VI.   Practical examples

It is obvious from the foregoing that what the Nigeria police needs are leaders with these qualities and not supervisors and managers that are bereft of initiative and commitment to implement its cooperate objectives. It is important to emphasis here that "the accomplishment of the police is brought about by leaders and their personnel, the failures are brought about by managers and supervisors who are not leaders and the performance of their personnel reflect the lack of leadership" (Dempsey and Forst 2008: 73).

Good leadership should basically be able to reproduce itself and the training that is offered at the Nigeria Police Academy should actually underscore this fact. Because, this is the surest means though which result-oriented policing can be achieved in the Nigerian police.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Draw up a list of the management concepts that you studied in this unit and discuss their similarities and differences.

4.0   CONCLUSION

For the police to function effectively, it must understand and be able to work with the organisational concepts that are suitable to the Nigerian environment.

5.0   SUMMARY

Discussions in this unit started with an examination of the traditional and community policing approaches to crime management. It then defined and highlighted the main characteristics of some management concepts such as division of labour, bureaucracy, organisation and leadership.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   What are the basic distinctions between the traditional and community policing orientation to community crime management?
ii.   Define management and explain its major principles
iii.   Write brief notes on the following:
        a.   Division of labour
        b.   Organisation, and
        c.   Bureaucracy
iv.   State three definitions of leadership and discuss some good attributes that you expect the leadership of the Nigeria police to exhibit.

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UNIT 2   TRADITIONAL   AND   ALTERNATIVE MANAGEMENT STRUCTURES

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit introduces you to the Traditional Police Management Model, its shortcomings and some of its authority structure that have been retained from time immemorial.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- recognise the Traditional Police Management Model
- criticise the Traditional Police Management Model
- explain the characteristics of its Authority Structure.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Traditional Management Structures

For all intents and purposes, the police ought to function as a civil service rather than a military organisational structure. However, the Nigeria police operates like a quasi-military organisation that is exactly based on authority systems and reporting relationships.

Therefore, they exhibit the following amongst other characteristics that are military in orientation:

i.   They wear highly visible military style uniforms, especially the military police in Nigeria,
ii.   They use ranks and designations associated with the military for the most parts, e.g. recruits, constable, corporal, lance-corporal, sergeant, officer etc,
iii.   They bear weapons and in recent times the types borne by military personnel, e.g. the AK 47,
iv.   Like military personnel, they are constitutionally backed to apply force, where necessary, in discharge of their duties, and
v.   By virtue of their training, police officers and men are expected to respond to orders and often times without questioning.

Apart from the above common characteristics between the police and military, the mandate of the Nigeria police differentiates it from the military. This mandate empowers the police to maintain law and order, protect lives and property, as well as enforce the criminal code in Nigeria. On the other hand, the Nigeria Army is primarily concerned with defending the country against external aggression.

The fact that the Nigeria police are an off-shoot of the British colonial police that was based on the military organisational orientation may also have influenced its general background. But more importantly, it is believed that at one point in time, it became extremely important to the police to virtually adopt the military approach to its functions (Robert C. Wadman and William Thomas Allison, 2004: 67-77). Thus, in the words of Dempsey and Forst, (2008: 73) it was believed that "the military model seemed more fitting to what the police were supposed to be doing - fighting a war against crime," thus, likening the police to a military army that is prosecuting a war.

Thus, "police departments organised according to military structure and ranks, uniforms, weapons, insignia, salutes and other symbols that reflected the military analogy." This model was continued because it was considered suitable for keeping the police organisation out of partisan politics. In the same vein, police organisations were restructured into more centralised, specialised systems and staffed with appropriate managerial and operational facilities as it obtains in the military (Wadman and Allison, *op cit*). In the opinion of Wadman and Alison the military analogy is suitable because it is result-oriented to the extent that it separates the police and politics besides making the managerial and operational niches of the police structures highly efficient and productive.

Some features of the traditional police management structure include:

3.1.1 Chain of Command

This concept of police organisation and management is also known as hierarchy of authority. It accounts for the superior-subordinate and supervisor-worker relationship that is a common feature of police organisations.

In its classic form each police personnel is overseen by an immediate superior supervisor/boss. The resultant chain of command clearly enables all personnel within the police organisation to know the immediate officer to whom he/she is answerable and accountable and those answerable and accountable to him/her. The chain of command therefore shows the officer the direction to which his/her report should flow and the direction from which reports should flow to him/her. The chain of command must be strictly observed by all members of the police organisation. As it so often happens the chain of command is bye-passed when an emergency ensues or urgency is demanded by the situation on ground.

3.1.2 Span of Control

In police parlance, the span of control consists of the number of officers or subordinates that a superior officer can effectively supervise. According to Dempsey and Forst, the number of subordinate officers that a superior officer can supervise is between 6 and 10. However, they advise that for the purpose of effectiveness it is better to keep the span of control to the barest minimum that an officer can handle.

And this minimum number that an officer can handle should be determined with the following factors in mind:

a.   Time within which the supervisor and the subordinates can be reached, assembled and deployed to accomplish a task,
b.   Distance between the supervisor and the subordinate,
c.   Knowledge of the supervisor and the subordinate,
d.   Personality of the supervisor, and
e.   The challenge associated with the work to be done.

3.1.3 Delegation of Responsibility and Authority

This is an equally important concept in the police organisation in Nigeria.

In all human organisations, such as the Nigeria Police Force (NPF), "tasks, duties, and responsibilities are assigned to subordinates, along with the power or authority to control, command, make decisions or otherwise act to complete the tasks that have been delegated or assigned to them" (Dempsey and Forst, *op cit*). Any officer that is delegating his primary assignment must ensure that the subordinate to whom he/she is delegating his/her duties is competent and knowledgeable. This is because, if the police chain of command is anything to go by, the delegating officer is still primarily responsible for his/her duties and will be called upon by his/her immediate superior to answer for any lapses caused by the officer to whom he/she delegated his/her duties.

3.1.4 Unity of Command

Within the police organisation, unity of command is said to exist where each officer in the organisation "is directly accountable to only one supervisor." The idea of unity of command is based on the rational that it is not proper for one officer to be answerable to two superior officers at the same time.

Conflict will be the order of the day should it become mandatory for one subordinate to serve two superiors. For instance, whose instructions will he/she obeys in the case of simultaneous instructions from both superiors. It may as well lead to the violation of unity of command under situations of emergency.

3.1.5 Rules, Regulations and Discipline

The Nigeria Police force is a very huge organisation and unless explicit rules, regulations and discipline are stipulated and enforced there might not be any legitimate basis for directing the behavior of its officers and men.

The Nigeria police have an act, "the Police Act" where these rules are expressly outlined. In addition to this, all departments of the Nigeria Police Force (NPF) also have operational manuals containing the rules and regulations pertaining to how they ought to comport themselves under virtually all situations imaginable.

It therefore means that there are no excuses for flouting these rules and regulations, disciplinary measures must be applied to deter others. Some

of the common disciplinary measures include, though not limited to fines, manual labor, physical drills, being placed in the guard room for a couple of days, weeks or months or years, simple dismissal or dismissal and trial for a breach bothering on capital punishment.

Weitzel, T. Q. presents an apt description of what he calls the problem employee, that is, an errant police officer in this case, thus:

> *Identifying and managing problem employees can prove difficult. However, it is crucial that departments identify such individuals and handle them efficiently, objectively and fairly. These workers can have a negative impact both inside and outside the department. Superiors may find situations involving problem employees intimidating. However, they can follow effective procedures to identify who these individuals are and to work with them to improve their performance or, if this is not possible, to take more drastic measures.*

3.2   Alternative Police Management Structures

Police work is exposed to a lot of changes, not the least of which is the scandals associated with police officers conduct in public, which its leadership has attempted to deal with using the instruments of "accountability and conformity". However, Wuestewald and Steinheider appear to be unsatisfied with this approach for failing to consider the highly discretionary nature of police work. Dempsey and Forst (2008: 75) express this view of Westward and Steinheider thus:

> *The basic paradox of police hierarchy is that discretionary authority tends to be greater at the bottom of the police organisation, where officers apply laws, policy and regulations to situations that do not fit neatly into the rule book. Further, these discretionary choices are made in the field, far removed from the direct scrutiny of managers and supervisors. Many have lamented the apparent disjuncture between historically autocratic police management approaches and the requirements of community policing.*

Considering that the proportion of field-based decisions by officers will continue to increase in a country like Nigeria, where communities are clamouring for increased police visibility due to soaring crime rates, this

paradox of discretionary authority can certainly not be brushed aside. It is a critical issue underlying the very low public support and confidence to the police organisation in Nigeria.

However, several interventions can be designed and implemented to correct this challenge and improve the quality of decisions being made by the police officers undertaking community patrol (i.e. field police officers) and ultimately improve public support and confidence for the police, especially in Nigeria. Some of these interventions include:

i.   Conducting a comprehensive survey into the root and immediate causes of the phenomenon or paradox of discretionary authority by community patrol or field police officers,

ii.   Training the leadership of the police and the relevant department in charge of public, human and police community relations on appropriate strategies for handling the challenges associated with discretionary authority when they arise in the normal course of duty,

iii.   Field or community police officers should be constantly trained and mentored on the appropriate decisions that are suitable to different type of scenarios. In this regard, the research department of the police should constantly conduct research into best practice in the application of discretionary authority by police officers, with a view to keeping the Nigeria police officers abreast with contemporary approaches in the exercise of discretion during emergencies,

iv.   Communities should be constantly enlightened on the nature of discretionary authority exercised by field officers, with emphasis on the fact that, while efforts are being made to deal with the situation, it is an issue that is likely to recur considering that they are brought about by emergency situations,

v.   Whenever field police officers apply discretionary authority that result in positive outcomes, the police should explore it to generate positive publicity and image building for itself. But where discretion result in unintended consequences time should also not be wasted in stating the facts to the community.

       However, whether the outcome of police discretionary authority is positive or negative, it is strongly recommended that the police should work with the appropriate police community relations committee to design the contents of the message and ensure that they (i.e. the community relations officials) participate in disseminating the information (positive or negative) at a location within their community, and

vi.   Participatory monitoring and evaluation should be periodically conducted into the outcome of police operations in the community with a view to drawing lessons to improve the security status of the community.

From all indications the trend toward exercising discretionary authority will increase (Fridell, L., 2004) therefore, these frontline police officers have to be assured of the recognition, confidence, respect and trust of the police leadership to enable them continue with their work. This means that the leadership of the police might have to shed some of its centralised powers and allow officers at various levels to participate in the decision making process. This is a process of shared leadership that goes by many other names like employee empowerment, participative management, job involvement, dispersed leadership, participative decision-making and total quality management.

3.2.1 Shared Leadership

Though the shared leadership approach is clearly not in conformity with the centralised power structures obtainable in the police, it has become highly attractive in light of contemporary leanings toward "proactive, community-oriented approaches to crime reduction and service providing", because "employee empowerment may offer significant advantages over traditional top-down police administration" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 75).

The power sharing-strategy entails an arrangement in which the influence of the work place is distributed among officers who are unequal in the police hierarchy. It is an arrangement that has been found suitable to determination of such issues as working conditions, solving problems and making decisions (Kim, S. 2002: 231-341). Power sharing or participation management approaches emerged from Peter Drucker's (2002) focus on job involvement, employee empowerment and shared leadership. Druker pointed out that quality job satisfaction and the productivity of the organisation have improved from the application of this approach; therefore, it is worth experimenting in the police organisation. According to Dempsey and Forst (*op cit*: 76):

> *Research in both the public and private sectors have revealed that participative leadership has resulted in many improvements in job satisfaction, increased productivity, organisational citizenship behaviour, labour-management relations, and overall organisational performance.*

The shared leadership or participatory approach was applied in the Broken Arrow, Oklahoma, Police Department (BADP) and the New York Police Department (NYPD), and from the comparison of the departments' operations before and after the Programme, phenomenal improvements were observed in:

- Employee discipline, engagement, promotions, appreciation, rewards and motivation,
- Employee commitment to the organisation, their self-esteem and productivity,
- Productivity improved significantly,
- Development of leadership qualities, and
- Acceptance of community policing approach.

According to Henry, V. E. (2002) shared leadership is useful to the police organisation because:

I.   It encourages the organisation to decentralise its rigid management structure and devolves decision-making powers to middle-level and field officers,

II.   Frontline officers and their host communities are able to cooperate on community safety-related issues, thus, enabling them to:
   - Identify and analyse problems of crime related to specific communities,
   - Evolve proactive problem-solving approaches to deal with them, and
   - Evaluate the outcomes of these problem-solving approaches.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What are the main highlights of the traditional and alternative police management structures discussed in this unit?

4.0   CONCLUSION

From what we have discussed so far it is evident that the management structures could improve our local police operations if it is carefully studied and applied to suit our peculiar context.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we saw that the traditional policing management structure is essentially a quasi-military organisation. This is because it shares most

of the features of the military such as visible uniforms, use of weapons, ranks, and obedience to orders without questioning superior authority. Furthermore, the traditional police is organised along the lines of span of control, occasional delegation of authority, unity of command and rules and discipline. On the other hand, the alternative management structure is critical of the old police system that is corrupt and particularly unsuitable to the application of initiatives which the contemporary police officer should be encouraged to demonstrate.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGMENT

i.   Mention and discuss the quasi-military characteristics of the Nigeria Police Force.
ii.   What are the similarities and differences between the following concepts:
iii.   Chain of Command and Unity of Command
iv.   Span of control and Rules/Regulation
v.   Discuss some interventions that can be used to improve the quality of decision-making by community patrol officers of the Nigeria police.
vi.   What do you understand by shared leadership?

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UNIT 3 MODELS OF POLICE PERSONNEL ORGANISATION

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit introduces you to the significance of the civil service organisation in police organisation and discusses the rank structure of the typical police organisation.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- discuss the role of the civil service in the police organisation
- explain the rank structure of a typical police organisation.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Civil Service Organisation

The management of personnel poses complex set of challenges to the police organisation. In an attempt to manage these challenges the police department have found itself in the embrace of the civil service system and also utilised other quasi-military systems, such as the sworn and non-sworn officers, and rank system among others that will be discussed in this unit.

The civil service organisation is reputable for its methods of engaging and disengaging personnel, which is largely designed to free it from ascriptive considerations, favouritism, bias, political influence and nepotism. Consequently, the engagement, promotion and dismissal of employees under this system are guided by explicitly laid out rules and

regulations. In Nigeria, these rules and regulations are enshrined in the Civil Service Act of (1979). The Federal Character Principal (FCP) that ensures the balancing of all geo-political, religious and ethnic backgrounds in government organisations is a central feature of the Civil Service Act. The federal character principle has also become central to the engagement policies of the states and local government institutions in Nigeria.

In spite of this, the civil service system in Nigeria is believed to be neck-deep in corruption, favouritism, political influence, and ascription-based employment practices, which the police have also unfortunately been struggling to shake-off. In this regard, there is hardly any appointment at the highest levels of the Nigeria Police Force (NPF) that has not been explained to political motivations, and by implications, ascription, corruption, loyalty to current leaders and class preservation. While these allegations have not been properly handled within the police, in spite of their weighty nature, it has gradually been eating into the professional character of the police and the public confidence and support being attracted to it.

Beyond the shores of Nigeria, the aforementioned incidence of corruption were believed to be happening because the "police became one of the plums of boss patronage as well as a sure means to economic security for the individual policemen" (Wadman and Allison, 2004: 64). As Dempsey and Forst put it "the corruption of police organisations and officers are central themes to police history" implying that the Nigeria police is not an exception. In an environment like Nigeria where competition for jobs is intense, political influence often play a huge role in determining who is employed. As Samuel walker (1977: 67) puts it, the contemporary policemen has become more of a "political operative" rather than a full-fledged professional - in this state the police have become highly partisan and a tool in the hands of politicians in their (i.e. police) respective areas of jurisdiction. Thus, it is not uncommon for new political leaders to effect changes in the police and other branches of the military whenever they assume power, especially as members of a new political administration, and where they (i.e. the police) are perceived to identify with the political inclinations of an out-going administration (Wadman and Allison, *op cit*: 76).

It was on the basis of the foregoing that the civil service act was introduced, and is being continuously reformed, to remove the challenge posed by corruption, political manipulation, favouritism and primordial consideration in police recruitment. The Nigeria police of today are governed by the police act and relevant constitutional provisions, which bear strong credence to the civil service orientation of the police organisation. By virtue of this act recruitment and promotion of police

officers is still subject to the confirmation of government, and this is one avenue through which government exert its influence. "Although, many criticise civil service rules, they help to reduce political influence and eliminate the autocratic power of the supervisor to lure, fire, or transfer employees on a whim."

3.1.1   The Sworn and Non-sworn (Civilian) Personnel

The human resources of any police organisation can be categorised into two broad personnel groups:

1.   **Sworn Officer Cadre:**   The sworn officer cadre is made up of people who are traditionally known as police officers or officers and men as they are referred to in the Nigeria Police Force (NPF). This category of officers operates with the firm backing of the constitution, the Police Act, the penal code, criminal laws, and criminal procedure regulations. Before you join the ranks of sworn police officers, you are required to have been administered an oath to abide by the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria together with other byelaws regulating police conduct and responsibilities.

Exercise of the power to arrest is one of the most visible powers conferred on the police by the law. In applying this power the arresting police officer does not need more than probable cause to carry out the arrest of a suspect. Therefore, insistence on definite proof by suspects before submitting to arrest falls outside civil rights and liberties, because it simply amounts to resisting arrest. This is basically the situation that is generally recognised and the fact that an offence may not have been committed in presence of the police does not change anything.

Probable cause is a concept that describes evidence that reveals or points to a fact that a criminal activity is taking place or had taken place, and that crime is traceable to a specific person. A simple illustration of probable cause can be demonstrated by the following facts:

a.   At about 2:30 am residents of a house were heard shouting for help.
b.   Then a Police officer sights a middle aged man running away from the building.
c.   Contrary to the police command to stop the man continues to run away.

From the foregoing the police officers can rely on the doctrine of probable cause to stop and arrest the fleeing man, even if he has not gathered information about the crime that may have been committed.

However, where it is later confirmed that no crime was committed; the officer cannot be arraigned for breaches of civil right/liberties because he acted on the doctrine of probably cause.

On the contrary, citizens cannot rely on the doctrine of probable cause to effect arrest except where a crime is actually committed in their presence. This is because of the likelihood that they will subject this doctrine to abuse.

In addition to the exercise of the power of probable cause the Nigeria police is also empowered to momentary question people in the public, stop and search vehicles at random and conduct search for prohibited items in the public. It is important to note that officers of the Nigeria police have the backing of the law to use physical force and deadly weapons, where necessary, in the course of discharging their lawful duties.

The non-sworn Officer Cadre: The non-sworn officer cadre does not enjoy the full legal backing being received by sworn police officers and can therefore not invoke the doctrine of probable cause to effect arrests. They can however conduct arrests like every other civilian whenever a crime is committed in their presence. Non-sworn officers are basically assigned to non-enforcement functions of the police organisation. Some of the areas in which non-sworn police officers operate include secretarial duties, telephone control room operations, radio message operators or dispatcher's record keeping and retrieval, mechanical works, clerical jobs, administrative and general office/personnel management tasks. However, "their rank structure is not as vertical as that of sworn officers."

3.2   Rank Structure (US

In the United States of America (USA), the sworn members of the police are generally organised into an integrated rank structure or Chain of Command in which police officers occupy the lowest rungs. In the office of the Sheriff these police officers are referred to as deputy sheriffs who are slightly higher than trainees or cadets in other police organisations within the US. Cadets basically carry out the same tasks as non-sworn police officers but generally strive for the attainment of sworn police officers status at the end of their training.

Though cadets (or recruits) practically enjoy the same legal authority as full-fledged officers, they are however, not detailed into enforcement jobs during their training period. Police officers may be the lowest rank in the police structure but this does not mean that they contribute poor quality work or do not have power within the organisation. Dempsey

and Forst (2008: 78) write that "the police officer/trooper/deputy sheriff is the most important person in the police organisation. He or she is the person who is actually working on the streets, attempting to maintain order and enforce the law. A police agency is only as good as the quality of men and women it employs."

Police Officers: Police officers operate in various capacities throughout the police organisation as, for instance, investigators and community patrol officers. They carry out the basic duties for which the police organisation is mostly known, while being supervised by superior officers or ranking officers; namely sergeant, lieutenants and captains. While chief commissioners occupy the highest echelon of the police organisation, some states prefer the use of a military rank as colonel or major. "In the federal law enforcement organisation, nonmilitary terms are used to reflect rank structure, such as agent, supervisor, manager, administrator and director."

Corporal or Master Patrol Officer: This is the rank between police officers and the sergeant or first line supervisor in the US police organisation. This rank is basically awarded to outstanding police officers in recognition of exceptional service to the organisation.

Detective/Investment: This cadre of police officers is primarily responsible for the investigation of crimes that had already been committed. Under their various designations (detectives, investigation or inspectors), they basically perform supervisory and decision-making duties at the scene of crime, rather than supervising police officers. For this reason, the detective enjoys more respect than police officers/supervisors as far as the investigation of crime is concerned. Detectives generally earn higher salaries than police officers and do not carry out their duties while wearing police uniforms.

The appointment of police officers as detective is a form of recognition for excellent service, rather than from conventional promotional examinations." Often detectives do not posses civil service tenure and can be demoted back to the police officer rank without the strict civil service restrictions applicable to the other ranks in a police organisation" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 79).

Sergeants: This rank is recognised as the first supervisory cadre in the US police chain of command. According to Dempsey and Forst (2008: 80) "the sergeant is the first-line or front-line supervisor, and as many will say, the most important figure in the police supervisory and command hierarchy. To most police officers, the sergeant is the boss".

The sergeant performs two main functions in the US police organisation, namely:

i.   Acting in a supervisory capacity over a group of officers referred to as a squad. A squad usually consists of between 6 and 10 police officers and it is not uncommon for a number of squads to collaborate to undertake a particular assignment. Whatever the situation, the sergeant is basically responsible for the activities of his/her squad at all times.

ii.   Sergeants are also liable for decisions taken during police operations except when an officer of higher rank relieves him/her of his/her responsibility.

The role of a sergeant is very challenging; therefore, their promotion is usually accompanied by increase in remuneration and status or prestige within and outside the police organisation. In the words of a police sergeant "as sergeants it is incumbent upon us to set the standards for our shifts" (Oldham, S. 2006: 30). Therefore, sergeant must constantly make decisions no matter how unpopular those decisions turn out.

It is in this regard that Oldham (*op cit*) counsels his colleagues thus; "it is up to the sergeants to teach others the right way to do things and to pass along the knowledge that has been gained from those that have gone before. Yes, doing things the right way is hard. Making unpopular decisions is hard, but it is something that must be done for the good of everyone."

Lieutenant: This category of officers occupies the status immediately above sergeants in the hierarchy of the police organisation. Lieutenants are responsible for platoons as a whole. A platoon is comprised of an entire group that works on a shift or watch or specific tour. Lieutenants are responsible for both the employee and police activities that take place during a specific tour.

Captain: The Captain situates above lieutenants in the police chain of command and basically takes charge of employees, and the operational activities within a designated area or unit from day to day/round the clock. Captains rely on the lieutenants and sergeants blow him/her to carry his/her instructions to the officers and to effect disciple in the area.

Beyond their administrative functions captains are required to maintain an "open door policy" as basis for keeping themselves abreast with happenings within the unit under their control. This implies that a captain should interact intimately with officers under his/her area (Ref 35 Chapter 3).

Ranks above Captain: Other ranks above Captain include inspectors that have control over a combination of areas, and assistant chiefs or chiefs that "have administrative control of units, such as personnel patrol, or detectives."

Chief of Police/Police Commissioner: This category of police officers is usually appointed by government officials because they occupy the apex of the US police organisation. Police chiefs or commissioners do not have specific tenures as they could be substituted by those who appointed them at any point in time. In the US, chiefs of police are expected to communicate with other police officers and the organised labour. To this extent:

> *In states with collective bargaining, police chiefs intending to implement new rules or to make material changes to an existing set of rules and regulations should involve the unions representing various officer bargaining units before the effection date of such rules and regulations ... even in organisations without bargaining units, chiefs should involve employees in the development and implementation of rules and regulations ... involving employees helps to ensure a sense of teamwork and recognition of the values of input and experience and can produce a sincere commitment to the rules and regulations* (Collins, M. John: 2006).

Box 1 Showing the Command (Authority) Structure of the Nigeria Police in Descending Order

COMMAND (AUTHORITY) STRUCTURE
• The Inspector-General of Police
• The Deputy Inspector-General of Police
• The Asst. Inspector-General of Police
• The Commissioner of Police (In-charge of contingents in a state)
• The Deputy Commissioner of Police
• The Asst. Commissioner of Police
• The Chief Superintendent of Police
• The Superintendent of Police
• The Deputy Superintendent of Police
• The Asst. Superintendent of Police
• The Inspector of Police
• Sergeant Majors
• Sergeants
• Corporals
• Constables

Source: http://www.npf.gov.ng/about/Structure.aspx

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What are the major implications of the following on the personnel or function of the police organisation?

i.   The civil service organisation
ii.   The sworn and non-sworn officers, and
iii.   Rank structure of the Nigeria police.

4.0   CONCLUSION

A common theme that runs through this unit is that all facets of police operations (especially the staffing, administration and performance of tasks) are strictly guided by rules and regulations.

5.0   SUMMARY

The unit explains that the civil service organisation plays a significant role in the engagement of personnel for the police organisation. We also saw that whereas this organisation has helped in absolving the police from political influence and favouritism, it has also called the professional attributes of the police organisation to question.

Furthermore, we distinguished the sworn officers who could conduct arrests by simple resort to probable cause and the non-sworn that cannot. Following these, we concluded with the rank structure of the police organisation under which we discussed the roles and status of police officers, corporals, detectives, sergeants, lieutenants, and other ranks before that of the police commissioner.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   What is the relationship between the civil service system and the police organisation?
ii.   Whatever the main similarities and differences between sworn and nonsworn officers of the police organisation.
iii.   With the aid of a diagram describe the rank structure of the Nigeria police.
iv.   Write short notes on the roles of the following:
       a.   Police officers
       b.   Sergeants
       c.   Lieutenants
       d.   Captain

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UNIT 4   AREA, TIME AND FUNCTION-BASED MANAGEMENT MODELS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit introduces you to the meaning of area, time and function-based police management models.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define the concepts of area, time and function-based police management models, make comparison between these models.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Area-Based Organisation

The roles of the police organisation are categorised using area, time and function-based criteria that have enabled the organisation to cover its spheres of operation effectively.

The area based model is a police strategy that focuses on the organisation of the police personnel functions and geographic

spheres/area of operation covered by the police. This strategy enables group of police officers to effectively cover designated areas referred to as beats/posts and precincts/districts/stations for which they are responsible.

3.1.1 Beats/Posts

Beats are geographical areas that are small enough for either one or two police officers that make up patrol unit to cover effectively on foot or by car. "A beat may be a foot beat, patrol car beat, mounted beats, motorcycle or scooter beat or even bicycle beat. Patrol car beats can be much larger than foot beats" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 84).

Beat officers are ordinarily familiar with their beats to the extent of knowing most of the inhabitants and business concerns together with the situations and challenges that require the attention of the police within the beat. Therefore, beats are usually delineated in such a way that the responsible officer will be able to operate effectively within it without being bored.

3.1.2 Precincts/Districts/Stations

Precinct is made up of all the beats with a delimited geographical area. Where a small police organisation exists, it operates a single precinct that functions as the administrative headquarters of the whole police organisation. Thus, "the station house usually contains detention cells for the temporary detention of prisoners awaiting a court appearance after an arrest, locker rooms in which officers can dress and store their equipment, administrative offices, meeting rooms, and clerical offices" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 84-85).

On the other hand, the **desk** serves as the focal point of the precinct in relatively larger police organisations. The desk is usually high and visible to any person approaching the station house from the outside and it is the point at which the station handles complaints/operations. It is at the desk that duties are distributed to police officers and prisoners booked. The desk officer is usually a ranking officer of the sergeant or lieutenant status and is responsible for overseeing the station. This officer manages the police **blotter** where the events that take place within the precinct are recorded in a chronological order. This blotter is usually a large bond book into which entries are made in the desk officers' handwriting - though with the advent of computers, this has changed drastically.

3.2   Time-Based Organisation

This perspective deals with how the police organisation plans and implements its use of time. Though various police organisations tend to call their strategies by different names, the following are some general names by which time management strategies are called in the police.

3.2.1 The Three -Tour System

Police officers cannot continue to work round the clock. That is twenty-four hours, everyday or else they will easily become fatigued or stressed out and highly unproductive. Therefore, in keeping with the civil service tradition, police officers equally work for eight hours daily. As a result, most police organisations have divided the twenty-four of the day into three segments of eight hours called tours or shifts, platoons, or watches. These segments consist of "a midnight or night tour, which generally falls between the hours of 12 midnight and 8am; a day tour, which generally falls between the hour of 8am and 4pm; and an evening tours which generally falls between the hours of 4pm; and 12midnight" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 86).

However, it is not compulsory for these tours to falls strictly within the time frames described above. What is important is that the whole day is effectively covered without times lapses. As a matter of fact, police officers have been known to work within longer tour systems/hours resulting from the application of modified tour structures, such as the twelve hourly daily tours or the ten hourly weekly tours. An example of the former would be a tour that runs between 8am and 8pm and an 8pm to 8am shift system, implying that not more than two tours exit within such a police organisation as against the three tour structure that is supported by the civil service regulation under which most police officers are employed. Under the more conventional three tour structure, only three officers are required to cover the entire day, that is, during the morning, afternoon, and evening tours respectively. According to Dempsey and Forst (*op cit*):

> *When days off, vacation time and sick time are factored into the three-tour system, approximately five officers are required to cover each beat 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, and 365 days a year.*

In the earlier periods of the use of the tour system, the police organisation distributed its available police officers equally into its tours. However, this practice was reviewed when analysis of crime reports revealed that:

> *Crime and other police problems do not fit neatly into the three tour system. Studies indicated that the majority of crime and police problems ... occurred during the late evening and early morning hours. Many police departments began to change their methods of allocating police personnel. Most now assign their personnel according to the demand for police services, putting more officers on the streets during those hours when crime and calls for police officers are highest.*

3.2.2 Tour Conditions

The three-tour systems that we have discussed have their peculiar characteristics as we are about to see:

Midnight Tours are characterised by the following behaviours:

i.   It is a period during which the majority of people go to sleep while a handful use it to transact various type of business,
ii.   Common problems dealt with by the police during such period include:
   o   the challenge of commercial burglary,
   o   the challenge of prostitution,
   o   the challenge of dugs sales, and
   o   The challenge of coping with normal police duties (beats, patrols, assisting the injured and infirm, and resolving disputes).

Day Tours ordinarily cover the day time when business premises are operating. Other characteristics of this tour are that:

*   All type of businesses are open for normal transactions,
*   Children of school age are in school while others are at play,
*   Police is mostly focused on traffic management that is at its peak, managing its flow, traveler's safety, parking regulations; safeguarding pedestrians,
*   Preventing robberies and stealing around commercial areas, and
*   Ensuring that normal police duties are not neglected.

Evening Tours exhibit the following characteristics:

*   It is the busiest period of day because people pour into the streets as schools and businesses come to a close for the day,

- Darkness gradually sets in,
- Drunkenness, fights, drug abuse, and disputes tend to increase sharply,
- There is the tendency for increased domestics and street violence,
- The police tend to have more cases of robberies to contend with, and
- The police also face the challenge of simultaneously providing its normal services.

3.2.3 Steady (Fixed) Tours

This is one of the most familiar systems of organising the tour of police officers by the police organisation. With this method police officers are rotated after duty turns lasting over reasonable length of time, say one week or month or even longer, and this could take place under any kind of tour system (i.e. night, day or evening).

This system also enables the officers to take their days off in turns without creating gaps in the tour system being used by the police organisation. But this system of changing police officers from one tour system (Day, night and evening) to another has been found to cause the following challenges to police officers:

a.   It is negatively affecting their eating habits,
b.   It is affecting their styles of living,
c.   It is affecting their sleeping habits,
d.   It is affecting their patterns of socialisation, and
e.   Causing immense stress to police officers.

It was in an attempt to ensure that police officers lead normal lives that the idea of fixed or steady tours was device. Through this idea police officers are retained on constant night or day or evening tours on the basis of hierarchy or personal decision.

3.3   Function/Purpose-Based Organisation

This approach consists of simply grouping similar tasks that are carried out by police officers into one unit. By this arrangement, units meant to deal specifically with patrol, investigation, robbery are established to take responsibility for general patrols, crime investigations and robbery related operations respectively.

3.3.1 Line and Staff (support) Functions

The police is organised in such a way that it is enabled to respond effectively to its duties using such functional line and staff categorisation. Whereas **line** functions define roles that are directly related to realisation of the goals for which the organisation was established, **staff** functions are designed to support the line officers in achieving the organisation goals. Thus, for purposes of order maintenance, which is a core objective of the police organisation, the patrol officer who covers the street will be group into the patrol division. In the same vein, detectives that focus on another core police function of crime investigation are brought into a detective division or unit. Therefore, detectives and patrol officers that carry out the core duties for which the police was set up are responsible for the line functions of the police organisation.

Other tasks that do not basically relate to the pursuit of the purpose of a police organisation (e.g. clerical jobs, preparation of salary schedules, processing sick leave, etc.) fall under the broad category of the staff functions of the police organisation.

3.3.2 Units of Police Organisation

From the viewpoint of Sheehan and Cordner (1995) the police organisation ought to accomplish thirty (30) main functions, which they categorised into three subsystems for the purposes of efficiency, namely:

I.   **Operational Subsystem:** Sheehan and Cordner (*op cit*) define operations as the category of "activities performed in direct assistance to the public. These are the duties most of us think about when we think of police departments, including crime fighting, crime detection, and providing service." In this regard, the jurisdiction of the operational units understandably encompasses criminal investigation, patrol, traffic control, community services, community relations, organised crimes etc.

         a.   **Patrol** is one of the most visible units of the police organisation that is responsible for arguably the most important task of the police. The primary duties of the patrol unit consist of order maintenance, law enforcement, assistance to disasters callers, and provision of miscellaneous services to community inhabitants. Officers of this unit are often regarded as the pillars of the police organisation because they are arguably the most essential providers of police service.

         b.   **Traffic Operations** are responsible for investigating accidents associated with traffic and enforcing related

laws. This unit is also in charge of traffic management particularly at key intersections (such as Ojuelegba, and Obalende round-about in Lagos) and other locations that are known for heavy traffic during the day and evening tours.

c. **The Criminal Investigations** department deals with the investigation of crimes that have already occurred with the sole aim of apprehending and prosecuting officers in collaboration with the criminal justice system.

d. **The Vice Unit** is primarily responsible for enforcing legal provisions dealing with prostitution, illegal gambling, pornography, illegal drugs, control substances and sales of illegal liquor.

e. **Organised Crime Unit** is concerned with investigating and apprehending "members of criminal syndicates into profit from continuing criminal enterprises, such as the vice crimes … extortion, loan sharking and numerous other crimes" (Sheehan and Cordner, o*p cit*).

f. **The Juvenile Service Unit** runs a range of services that are beneficial to juveniles. Some of these services deal with counseling and referrals to more competent organisations or agencies focusing on youth offenders. Cases concerning the neglect and deliberate abuse of the child are also handled by this unit.

g. **Community Services** are rendered by another unit of the police organisation that specialises in the resolution of disputes, assistance to crime victims, counseling, and other related issues. This unit equally manages the relationship between the police organisation and their host communities and especially programmes dealing with community partnerships.

h. **The Crime Prevention** unit performs the very important task of organising and educating "the public on methods people can take alone and with the police to make themselves at less risk to crime. Some techniques include target hardening, neighbourhood watch programmes, and operation identification programmes" (Dempsey and Forst 2008: 90).

i. **The Community Relations Unit** basically strives to improve relationship between the police organisation and the entire public as basis for establishing "positive police-community partnerships" with a view to decreasing crime and improving the quality of life in communities.

II   **Administrative Subsystem:** Within the police organisation the concept of administration captures those activities performed for the primary purpose of facilitating its efficient and sustainable internal operation rather than concerns for direct public support. But, it is of advantage to the entire police organisation, during the course of each working days (Mondays-Fridays) and hours, as stipulated by the civil Service regulations. Typical administrative operations are undertaken under the following units in the police organisation:

a.   **The personnel department** which is responsible for "corporate personnel departments, including recruiting and selecting candidates for police positions and assigning, transferring and promoting, and terminating police personnel" (Dempsey and Forst ,2008: 90)

b.   **The training department** ordinarily provides training to newly engaged police officers or recruits and in-service capacity building to established/veteran police officers

c.   **The planning and analysis department** carry out regular analysis of crime data coming from the communities with a view to ascertaining the origin and time of occurrences of criminal activities so that they can be prevented. This unit also helps in improving the operational efficiency and effectiveness of the police organisation by conducting periodic operational and managerial analysis of police activities in general

d.   **The budget and finance department** handle issues relating to financing and budgets within the police organisation, which includes the management of processes associated with pay-rolls, budgeting and controls, purchasing, accounting, billing and audit control

e.   **The legal assistance department** assist police officers with legal support, especially members of the patrol unit,

f.   **The public information department** liaises with the media to relay information to the public concerning the activities of the police organisation in the area of crimes and arrests made. The unit also advises the public on the strategies they can adopt to reduce their exposure to crime,

g.   **The clerical/secretarial department**, maintain records for the police and is therefore responsible for preparing, storing and retrieving all the relevant police records

h.   **The inspectorate department** conduct internal quality control inspections to ensure that the departments' policies, procedures, and rules and regulations are being followed (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 90)

i.   **The internal affairs department** handle all cases of misconduct and corruption involving police officers and

make appropriate recommendations to the disciplinary authorities,

j.   **The intelligence department** "conducts analysis of radical, terrorist, and organised crime groups operating in a police department's jurisdiction" (Dempsey and Forst, *op cit*: 90).

III   Auxiliary Service Subsystem: This Provides services that are beneficial to "other units within the police department, but on a more regular and frequent basis than do administrative activities" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 90). The services provided by this unit are at the disposal of the police organisation on a twenty-four (24) hour basis a day. Records, laboratory, communications, property, identification, detention, alcohol testing equipment, supply, and maintenance are services offered by this subsystem. It is made up of the following:

a.   The records unit that manages the crime, arrests, and data on patterns of criminal activities and road traffic accident,

b.   The communications unit that receive and assign police officers to distress calls from members of the public

c.   The property department that takes care of all evidence, stolen but recovered properties, as well as, towed and recovered vehicle that are in police custody

d.   The laboratory unit that conducts examines and classifies items that are confiscated by the police organisation. These item include banned drugs, weapons, and other evidence acquired at the scene of crime, including blood stains, fibers and fingerprints court

e.   The detention unit that takes custody of prisoners, who are waiting for court appearance

f.   The identification unit that conducts fingerprint examination, classification and maintain identification record. They also take photograph of criminals and maintain their records

g.   The alcohol testing units that administer rapid tests on people driving vehicles to determine whether they are driving under the influence of alcohol. The test results are used to prosecute offends in the court

h.   The facilities department responsible for maintaining the landed properties of the police organisation, such as, police residential quarters, detention facilities and operational office

i.   The equipment unit that ensures that the various equipment of the police are always in good working order for the police to achieve maximum effectiveness

j.   The supply unit purchases the supplies required for effective police operations, and

k. The maintenance department ensures that all the equipment and facilities of the police organisation are in serviceable condition.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

With the aid of a table outline the main features of the area, time, and function-based police management models.

4.0   CONCLUSION

The management models that we have discussed under this unit will make for efficient police operations provided they are well applied.

5.0   SUMMARY

Area-based management models organise the personnel functions of the police along geographic spheres (e.g. beats/posts and precincts/districts/stations) that group officers for effective operations. Time-based management focuses on the use of time by the police on the three-tour systems, tour conditions, namely midnight, day and evening tours, and steady (fixed) tours. Function-based approaches simply categorise similar roles into one unit. Thus, there are units committed to investigation, patrol, etc where police officers can work and become experts. This has resulted in function/purpose-based organisations, as well as administrative, and auxiliary subsystems in the police department.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   What are the main features of the area-based management model of policing?
ii.   Compare the operational and administrative subsystems of police operations   using the Nigeria police as an example.
iii. Write short notes on the following:
    a)   Midnight Tour
    b)   Day Tour, and
    c)   Evening Tour
iv.   Describe the role of the auxiliary service subsystem of the Nigeria police.

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UNIT 5   MISCELLANEOUS PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT ISSUES

CONTENTS

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1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit discusses miscellaneous personnel issues such as civilianisation, lateral transfers, police unions and affiliations

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the concept of civilianisation and its dimensions
- discuss personnel concerns bothering on lateral transfers, police unions and affiliations.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   In this unit, we shall discuss a couple of sensitive occurrences within the police organisation that have implications for staff morale and police effectiveness. These miscellaneous issues include:

3.1.1 Civilianisation

Dempsey and First (2008: 81) describe this as "the process of removing sworn officers from non-critical or non-enforcement tasks and replacing them with civilians or non-sworn employees." Through this process

"civilians with special training and qualifications have been hired to replace officers who formerly did non-enforcement jobs (traffic control, issuing packing tickets, taking past-crime reports, etc.). Additionally, civilians with clerical skills have been hired to replace officers who were formerly assigned to desk jobs. Approximately one-quarter of all police department employees are civilians." Thus, the civilianisation scheme can be likened to a succession scheme that ensures that the organisation is run without unnecessary breaks.

This process of civilianisation has two (amongst others) advantages, namely:

1   Civilianisation is highly cost-effective because civilian police personnel earn significantly less than sworn officers that operate and deliver on the core functions of the police organisation, and
2   Civilianisation as a strategy basically releases highly trained sworn police officers to attend to the core law enforcement duties of the police organisation.

Empirical studies indicate that officers are highly satisfied with the process of detailing civilians to handle non-enforcement tasks within the organisation. This is as a result of the fact that most of the civilians drafted in have proven to be more competent in handling non-enforcement tasks better. Besides, most police officers think of the non-enforcement tasks of the police organisation as being too sedentary and sometimes contradictory to the somewhat migratory (patrol-oriented) nature of police work. The study confirmed that most police officers appear to see career prospects in non-enforcement police work being done by civilians, which attests to the fact that they are finding job satisfaction in these jobs (i.e. non-enforcement police tasks) (National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, 1975).

3.1.2 Community Service Officers

Following recommendations by a committee that was established, three entry-levels, namely; police agents, police officers and community service officers, were accepted by large to medium police organisations in the US (President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967).

1.   The police agents are the very knowledgeable and responsible individuals to be engaged. Because, this level of officers are scheduled to deal with the most challenging tasks arising out of the police organisation functions. In other words, their roles will require that they exercise a lot of discretion in dealing with issues. They therefore need to fulfill certain minimum

qualifications before they are employed as corporal or master patrol officers.

2. Police officers that compare with those in modern times would be involved in the provision of emergency assistance and patrols aimed at preventing criminal activities, and

3. Community Service Officers will mainly consist of apprentices especially drawn from minority groups. Besides, this group will not bear weapons neither will they possess powers for enforcement of the law. This group is considered as good prospects for police community relations because of their backgrounds and knowledge of inner-city challenges. In line with other recommendations from the commission, poor academic qualifications and minor records of previous crimes should not hamper the employability of this category of people neither should it obstruct their career development within the police organisation. Some of the roles recommend for this group by the commission include the investigation of minor theft cases, assisting the physically challenged as well as providing broad forms of assistance to the community.

3.1.3 Police Reserve/Auxiliaries

The personnel challenges that the police organisation face changes from time to time. For instance, in an area that harbours a huge public interest facility such as an amusement park, the influx of people into such locations during national festivals and public holidays can change the security challenge within a short time.

Thus, in order to rise up to these security demands the police organisation normally resort to the employment of "summertime cops". The reserve officer idea has been and is still being confused in different quarters. Some consider reserve officers as those employed on ad hoc basis and immediately paid off when not required. While some others do not attach salary or wages to reserve duties, he/she is however a sworn but nonregular police officer who works with the full complements of police authority or powers, which auxiliaries are not privileged with. According to the International Association of Chief of Police (1990):

> *The term "reserve police officer" usually is applied to non-regular, sworn members of a police department who has regular police powers while functioning as a department's representative, and who is required to participate in a department's activities on a regular basis. A reserve officer may or may*

*not be compensated for his or her services,
depending on each department's policy.*

What is apparent is that reserve officers are highly valuable sources of
back up to the police organisation. They enjoy the full backing of the
law (that is, police powers) while discharging their responsibilities,
namely: patrol, traffic regulation, community services, prevention of
crimes, dispatch operations, etc. Individuals aspiring to the status of
police reserves must fulfill some of the following conditions:

1.   Minimum number of hours in police training and certification in
      firearms handling by a certified instructor
2.   Success in qualifying examination conducted by the relevant
      police organisation
3.   Willingness to work purely as a volunteer, specifically without
      pay
4.   Some departments insists on full training programmes meant for
      full time police officers to qualify for employment as reserve
5.   Some departments train and compensate reserves for work done
6.   In other departments reserves do not have police powers and are
      usually unarmed, and
7.   Reserves are restricted to their own communities by some police
      organisations.

3.2   Other Personnel Concerns

Not unlike other human organisation, the police establishment also has
to deal with the following personnel-related challenges in the course of
its routine functions:

A.   **Lateral Transfers:** This is concerned with the ability to transfer
      from one's present department to another unit where an opening
      exists. In the Nigeria police, requests for lateral transfers are
      usually entertained and granted where justifiable reasons are
      given by applicants. Thus, it is possible for police officers to be
      transferred from one area to another within the same state. Apart
      from this kind of transfer requests, the police organisation
      sometimes undertake mass or individual transfer of its personnel
      across state boundaries. Though some states do not operate lateral
      transfer schemes, "the major problem with lateral transfer is that
      many police pension systems are tied into the local government,
      and funds put into that fund cannot be transferred into other
      funds. Thus, lateral transfer into the departments can because
      officers to lose all or some of their investments" (Calvert, G. N.
      1971). A similar challenge existed in Nigeria for many years

before the government recently established the police pension fund.

B.   **Police Unions:** Unions are organisations made up of members on behalf of whom the unions negotiate the terms and conditions of employment and service. Unions basically exist to represent their members as a single voice on issues that can advance the members interests.

In the US, police unions are recognised by government and they operate more or less like political organs; with candidates campaigning for elective positions at local and national levels. At the national level, "the police organisation tends to advocate adversarial tactics and rely on formal, legal redress of grievances" (Hurd, W., 2005). The US police unions are basically local organisations that enter into bargaining with their local police organisations together with office of the mayor or chief executive at that local level. These local unions usually affiliate with the federal union to lobby state legislative organs for better conditions of work. Police officers have also joined forces with civil service workers federation in the US without breaching any laws (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 83). Dempsey and Forst further captured (Levine, M. J. 1988: 334-343) in their own words thus:

> *By 1988, more than 70 per cent of all American rank-and-file officers were covered by some form of collective bargaining agreement and that trend towards formal recognition will continue to grow in the future. According to a 1997 article, the existence of a collective bargaining mechanism in large police agencies was significantly correlated with supplemental pay benefits such as hazardous duty pay, differential shit pay, education incentive pay, and merit pay.*

The earliest form of police unions in the US were fraternal relationships that sought to provide friendship and welfare benefits (death and insurance policies) to protect the families of fallen (dead) police officers. These local union subsequently received assistance from labour unions, which then channeled their efforts into collective bargaining. In 1919, the Boston police went on strike and was promptly proscribed by the governor of Massachusetts, who also dismissed the entire Boston police officers. "The argument is that police officers are special employees and should not have the right to strike. In fact, most states have laws that specifically prohibit strikes by public employees." These laws notwithstanding members of the police organisation have embarked on

strikes at various times in the US (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 83-84). Similarly, the existence of an express prohibition in the Police Act (section 38, sub-section 1a) did not also stop the Nigeria police from embarking on a strike during the civilian dispensation of Olusegun Obasanjo (Rtd.) in February 2002 (see box 1).

Police strikes in the US have generally resulted in the following benefits (Bopp, W. J. 1979 in Salemo, C. A. 1981: 201-221).

i.   Attracting recognition to the appropriate police union,
ii.   Bringing local and state authorities to the negotiating table,
iii. Forging agreement on a couple of economic demands, and
iv.   Causing massive dismissal as it happened in Boston.

On an advisory note, Salemo writes that states that do not already have collective bargaining agreements in place for public workers are only encouraging an atmosphere of frequent strike actions. He went further that even in states that take the initiative to negotiate with the police without any form of legislation, disorder is what ultimately prevails. Thus, whenever the relationship between the police union and its leadership is dogged by argument, mutual suspension, doubts and bitterness, the result is usually crises (Bopp, W. J. *op cit*).

3.3   Other Police Affiliations

Apart from affiliations of the union type, police officers also affiliate along lines such as:

i.   Police Fraternal Affiliations based on ethnicity, national origin or gender considerations, and
ii.   Professional Affiliations.

Box 1 The Nigeria Police Strike of February 2002

> Under section 38 (1) (a) of the Police Act Cap 154, it is an offence for any police officer other than a superior police officer to begin , raise, abet, countenance or incite mutiny. It is, therefore clear that the policemen involved including their accomplices are grossly indiscipline as well as disloyal and consequently should be made to face the wrath of the law before being shown the exit. They have sacrificed their jobs and freedom so that their colleagues will enjoy the benefit of the struggle (Abubakar Tsav).

On the first day of the month of February 2002, history was made when officers of the Nigeria Police Force (NPF) - an institution that the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria classifies as an essential service, embarked on a nationwide strike. This strike action was embarked upon by all the ranks of the Nigeria police below the rank of an inspector. The call for strike by the police which was complied with in several cities across the nation was largely successful to the extent that it led to the closure of banks and several local and international transactions that would have been consummated on that day.

Some of the remote and immediate reasons that the Nigeria police tendered for undertaking the strike included discontent with their existing remuneration and other conditions of service, unfulfilled career growth due to promotions that were overdue, and working with obsolete equipment to confront criminals using sophisticated Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALW) leading to huge figure of casualties during police crime control operations.

Against the foregoing background, the fact as Stoller pointed out is that "strike is illegal under Nigerian law, which bars trade unionism in the police force" made little meaning to the employees of an institution whose members are exposed to increasing probability of dying either from regular confrontations with criminals that are using more sophisticated weapons or from their inability to survive economically.
Generally, there were mixed reactions to the police strike which included:

i.   An announcement of the immediate release of the sum of five billion naira by the then Police Affairs Minister, who stated that the released sum was meant to settle the backlog of police salaries,
ii.   This was complemented with an appeal to the striking police officers to immediately return to their duty posts,
iii.   There were reports of the arrest of some of the striking police officers who were labeled as "dissidents" and "ring-leaders" of the strike action,
iv.   The leadership of the police threatened that the unfolding strike was totally unacceptable,
v.   There were threats of prosecution and dismissal of the striking police officers from the Nigeria Police Force, and
vi.   Countless reminders to the striking officers that they were contravening an existing law that forbade strike action in the Nigeria police.

Source: Stoller, B. *Nigeria: Police strike*, http://www.mail-archive.com/kominform@lists.eunet.fi/msg11945.html; Tsav, T.

Reflections on the Nigeria Police Strike, http://www.nigerdelta congress.com/rarticles/reflections_on_the_nigeria_polic.htm

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Outline and discuss the main issues in police personnel management.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In order for the police to function optimally, it has to pay serious attention to its personnel issues.

5.0   SUMMARY

The managerial issues of civilianisation, reserves, lateral transfers, and police unions are important issues that police should handle with care and professionally too. Civilianisation helps the police release trained officers into core police functions just as reserves create a pool from which the police can draw in times of emergency. The unit also discussed the opportunities for career advancement that is inherent in lateral transfers and concluded with the issue of police unions that is presently outlawed by the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   What is civilianisation and what are its main advantages?
ii.   What is police reserve and what conditions should a prospect fulfill to be admitted into this rank?
iii.   Write short notes on the following:
        a Lateral Transfers, and
        b Police Unions
iv.   What were the causes and implications of the Nigeria police officers strike of 2002.

4.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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**MODULE 3   PREJUDICE, AWARENESS &
                             INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION**

Unit 1   Understanding Prejudice
Unit 2   Understanding Interpersonal Communication
Unit 3   Understanding Awareness and Self Concept
Unit 4   Police Discretion
Unit 5   Police and Public Attitude

UNIT 1   UNDERSTANDING PREJUDICE

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5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit introduces you to the meaning, types, theories and strategies
for eliminating Prejudice.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

It is expected that after studying this unit, you should be able to:

•   explain the concepts of Prejudice, Bias, Stereotype, and
       discrimination
•   discuss some types and examples of prejudice
•   describe the theories of prejudice
•   suggest strategies to eliminate prejudice.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Meaning of Prejudice

Prejudice is an important and rather deceptive subject to the extent that people sometimes practice it unanimously. An example that readily comes to mind is an interesting finding contained in a national conference report by Cleen Foundation (2011) that due to sexual mistrust "some First Ladies and highly placed female government functionaries prefer to work with male officers than female officers for the fear of unholy attraction of female officers to their spouses or for some personal reasons." Thus, we could argue that prejudice has probably found its way into the subconscious of people, which makes it very dangerous and the need to understand its dynamics paramount. So what is prejudice and how does it compare with other concepts such as preferences, bias, stereotyping and discrimination that are often likened to it?

A **prejudice** describes an assumption and preconception that is made about an individual or group without sufficient information to arrive at an accurate judgment. Prejudice is frequently used to discriminate against people on the basis of considerations that have to do with race, age, social class, ethnicity, religion, gender, disability, sexual orientation, homelessness, and other human features. Prejudice also refers to convictions that are not based on knowledge of the truth which makes it an attitude that is significantly persistent and irrational.

According to Miller, S. L. and Hess, K. M. (2002: 147) a prejudice relates to an unfavourable evaluation that is very rarely supported by evidence; as a result it is often "an irrational, preconceived negative opinion." This concept is conventionally used to describe the hatred that a certain group of people exhibit towards another group of people, members of a particular race or religious sect, which on the whole, originate from categorisations that are hardly realistic. Essentially, prejudice "represent overgeneralisations" bothering on failure to take the individual qualities of members of a group into consideration. Miller and Hess also compared prejudice with bias, preferences, stereotyping and discrimination.

Bias is described by Miller and Hess (*op cit*: 147) as another concept which can be used interchangeably with prejudice, considering that it is an idea that hampers impartiality. When bias becomes excessive it develops into extreme dislike or hatred, which police officers need to understand in order to be able to effectively respond to the kind criminal activities associated with this phenomenon. Based on this shared meaning it is not surprising that both bias and prejudice originate from

the tendencies of groups to overgeneralise categorisation of the characteristics of others or what we may refer to as stereotypes.

Stereotype is a concept that underlines the assumptions that all the members of a particular social group share the same essential characteristics with which they are being described. Thus, like prejudice and bias, members of a stereotyped social group are presumed as lacking individual characteristics. There are stereotypical classifications of virtually all the ethnic groups in Nigeria. For instance, the Hausa, Igbo, Yoruba, Urhobo, Edo, Cabaris, and other ethnic groups are commonly associated with certain character traits. Similarly, members of certain professions, such as accountants, medical doctors, teachers, lawyers, and others, have their stereotypes attached to them to the extent that the mention of any of these professions immediately invoke memories of their stereotypical tags. Thus, while the stereotypes attached to police officers largely derive from the nature of their role (e.g. chasing criminals and shooting), police officers also tend to attach stereotypes to certain kind of people based on past interactions with criminals portraying social characteristics that they find in these people (e.g. drug use, unkempt appearance, wearing of dirty and torn jeans, red and watery eyeballs, guttural voices, preferred hang-outs, etc).

Miller and Hess (2002; 148) point out that there is the danger of "self-fulfilling prophecy" which comes with stereotyping. It states "that if a person is labeled as being a certain way long enough, the person may come to actually be that way." Thus, if you consistently impress it upon a child that he or she is stubborn the affected child may eventually manifest stubbornness in the long run.

Though, stereotyping appears to be a natural tendency being exhibited by people, it is important for police officers to realize that it works against effective community policing efforts. Therefore, the police officers should conduct research into the kind of public stereotypes against it as basis for improving its public image. In addition, the police should find out whether their (i.e. police) own stereotypes about some members of the public underlie its discrimination against such members of the community.

Miller and Hess (2002: 148) observe that prejudice could bring about **discrimination**, "showing a preference in treating individuals or groups or failing to treat equals equally, especially illegally unequal treatment based on race, religion, sex, or age." An example of discrimination is when police officers deny women their rights to surety while they allow men to stand as sureties. Another example is the tendency for police officers to manhandle young people found at the scene of crime, whether or not there is evidence to support their (police) actions. From

what we have learnt here it is clear that while "prejudice is an attitude; discrimination is a behaviour."

3.2   Types of Prejudice

Literature on this indicates that prejudice is usually exercised around such variables as sex, age, religion, sexual orientations, race, nationality, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, etc. On the basis of these prejudice may be classified into the following types:

I.   Sexism

This type of prejudice concerns the negative attitude that women are less competent and therefore unsuitable for certain kind of tasks. There is a long historical origin to sexism that tends to support the subordination of women to men, who are thought to posses superior intellectual and physical capabilities. Sexism is so deeply rooted in most cultures to the extent that it has assumed the status of false consciousness, resulting in women unconsciously perpetuating it in various spheres of social life, especially in the differential socialisation of their children. However, gender sensitive individuals and institutions have been working tirelessly to redress this anomaly, particularly, against the backdrop of the sterling achievement by women in all facets of human endeavours.

There is ample evidence that gender-related prejudice exist in the Nigeria Police Force (NPF). A national conference that was organised by Cleen Foundation in collaboration with Fredrick Ebert Foundation (2011) aptly summarised the features of gender discrimination in the Nigeria police thus; systematic denial of women officers the opportunity to head state police commands, general denial of political opportunities and property rights to women on the basis of their culturally defined subordinate position to men, policy that exclude married women from joining the NPF, discriminatory policy requiring women to seek clearance from the Inspector General of Police (IGP) before getting married, old-fashioned rules and regulations that date back to the colonial times, instances of inferiority complex on the part of women, mutual suspicion by women themselves, use of language that are not gender sensitive e.g. "officers and men", "he himself" and "his" that basically exclude women, and pregnancy-related discrimination.

II.   Ageism

Ageism refers to discrimination that is associated with the chronological age of an individual. Though, the majority of people tend to confine ageism to older members of the society, the truth is that it applies to virtually all age categories. Ageism is equally as harmful as other forms

of discrimination especially where it is seen as a culturally normal phenomenon. It is for this reason that conscious programmes have been launched to eliminate discriminations that are based on age. This term was first used by Robert Butler in 1969 that compared ageism to other discriminatory practices such as creed, ethnicity, gender, etc. in an attempt to create awareness, instigate discussions and legislation to correct public attitude on the phenomenon. Dimensions of ageism may have to do with refusal to employ older people because they are perceive to be fragile and also denying younger people job opportunities for being considered irresponsible. Basically, ageism draws largely from cultural norms, values and beliefs that recognise this form of discrimination (http://www.wisegeek.com/what-is-ageism.htm; (http://psychology.about.com/od/aindex/g/ageism.htm).

III.   Religious Prejudice

Beyond the more open doctrines on religious tolerance, love and compassion, examples exist that hate-based religious prejudices have been propagated by religious adherents. Empirical studies have shown that there is a positive correlation between people who admitted to the strong influence of religion in their lives and their expression of religious prejudice (Davidic, J., Glick, P., and Rudman, L. 2005: 413-414). The basic difference in this regard is with regards to how people practice their religions. Generally, practitioners of "institutionalised religion" tend to place more emphasis on the socio-political implications of religious actions leading to their inclination towards greater prejudice. Conversely, practitioners of "interiorised religion," dealing with deeper commitment to religious tenets are less likely to express prejudice.

IV.   Sexual Orientation or Homophobia

This deals with an individual's preference for "for homosexuality, heterosexuality, or bisexuality" (Kristin, A. 2010: 198). In virtually all societies people with this kind of sexual orientation are in the minority and therefore exposed to discrimination. The extreme form of this discrimination is called homophobia, which is the expression of hatred toward others on the basis of their sexual preference. According to one social psychological perspective people with these sexual perversions are seen by society as flaunting their sexuality, which they described as the vividness effect or an inclination to simply acknowledge their outstanding characteristics. In the main, this kind of image readily interferes with objective thinking as it readily crops up whenever the need arises to evaluate the whole phenomenon. In addition, sexual orientation, for instance being lesbian or gay, is used as an identification tag and basis of discrimination.

V.   Racism

Racism conceptualises the notion that there are natural variation in the traits and capabilities of people that can be attributed to their racial backgrounds, and which justifies the social, political, legal and other discriminatory treatment committed against them. It captures the diverse adverse conducts to which members of a group are exposed by reason of their racial characteristics. Racism is said to be a form of pseudo-science and people and institutions that oppose discrimination deriving from natural distinctions classify treatment that are based on these differentiation as racial discrimination. However, practitioners of racial discrimination contend that it is a fact that some races are superior to others (Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary; International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination).

Racism is said to be institutionalised when rights and opportunities are extended to some groups and denied to others on the basis of their racial affiliations. The fact that people embark on racial discrimination implies that they undertake taxonomic differentiation or classification of the racial attributes of different groups. Notwithstanding, anybody could be a victim of ethnic or culturally induced discrimination that has nothing to do with their somatic variations. However, the UN Convention (*op cit*) does not entertain any distinctions between racial and ethnicity-based discrimination.

VI.   Ethnicity

According to Wikipedia "an ethnic group (or ethnicity) is a group of people whose members identify with each other through a common heritage, often consisting of a common language, culture (often including a shared religion) and an ideology that stresses common ancestry or endogamy. Another definition is "...a highly biologically self-perpetuating group sharing an interest in a homeland connected with a specific geographical area, a common language and traditions, including food preferences and a common religious faith" (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ethnic_group).

Deriving from the foregoing, Fishman defines ethnicity as "an aspect of a collectivity's self-recognition as well as an aspect of its recognition in the eyes of outsiders". This definition is far reaching to the extent that it captures the central themes of learned attributes, social linkages to common ancestry, common history, cultural traditions, religious affinity, dialectic forms, linguistic and tribal affinity into which most of the other concepts key.

However, in contemporary society, ethnicity is being used as an instrument for inter-group relationship and the determination of the power structure in society. It is thus an effective instrument for effective political mobilisation particularly in the Nigerian political context that emphasise the nomination of candidates from the grassroots. Ethnicity can be appreciated from the biological perspective (paternity) and the cultural perspective (patrimony). Language is an important component of the cultural aspect of ethnicity because it is learned, shared, and inherited.

Though ethnicity could relapse into dormancy it can quickly be rejuvenated when it is confronted with the threats of cultural extinction and war from an external aggressor. In other words, ethnicity is a veritable rallying point against an external aggressor because it provides a common sense of oneness.

Ethnicity could either be **behavioural**; focusing on its learned and shared aspects (norms, values, language, beliefs, and other attributes transmitted through the processes of socialisation) or **ideological**; focusing on traditions that are not necessarily acquired from early socialisation such as marks of identification associated with early migrants. Groups under this category are those that share different ethnic origins and which have the opportunity to trace their ancestry to different sources and can actually chose to adopt one by collectively displaying their characteristics and participating in some of their significant celebrations. But more importantly, behavioural and ideological ethnicity may not necessarily exhibit mutual exclusivity and can exist in varying degrees in different socio-cultural groups (http://www.vucapinheiro.com/vucapage/ethnicit.htm).

VII.   Nationalism

Nationalism can be defined as a strong sentiment that derives from a common set of socio-cultural characteristics that bring about the unity of a group of people and results in the formulation of a national independence policy or in separatism (Blackwell, Judith, Murray Smith, and John Sorenson, 2003: 32). True nationalism brings about a sense of "shared identity" by the inhabitants of a country leading to emphasis on the factors of unity while sources of differences are downplayed or de-emphasised. It creates an atmosphere of strong cultural affinity than would actually have existed in its absence and tends to overshadow any other form of status or racially-based injustices at least momentarily (World English Dictionary). Nationalism is useful in bringing people together for the pursuit of a common goal and getting people to conform, obey and express solidarity for public responsibility and sense of belongingness.

VIII. Classism

According to the World English Dictionary, classism is "a biased or discriminatory attitude on distinctions made between social or economic classes". Though the idea of categorising people into classes is highly controversial economic inequality appears to be an inevitable feature of society considering that those that rule will always exist (Anderson, K. 2010: 200). Ranking is certainly an unavoidable or natural aspect of social existence to the extent that it even obtains in the so called egalitarian communities (Dovidio, J. Glick, P. and Rudman, L. 2005: 413). These authors also contend that anthropological evidence suggests that society was relatively classless before private ownership of land was introduced and when it eventually occurred (that is, private ownership of land) it did not steer the kind of hostility associated with the contemporary class structures. They therefore situate the current hostility and discrimination in the context of the new class system.

3.3   Historical and Contemporary Theoretical Perspectives on Prejudice

Historically, attempts have been made to use empirical research to support the notion of white supremacy as far back as the 1920s. Sowell, Thomas (2004) actually conducted an extensive study to prove "the mental superiority of the white race" which subsequently led most of the psychologists of that time to identify with his findings.

However, this notion came under thorough evaluation during the 1930s and 1940s due to interests in anti-Semitism. Eminent theorist like Thomas Adorno posited that prejudice was the product of authoritarian personalities, which he described as "rigid thinkers who obeyed authority, saw the world as black and white, and enforced strict adherence to social rules and hierarchies". For the purposes of clarity Adorno contends that prejudice was mostly most likely committed by authoritarian personalities against people of lower socio-economic ranking.

In 1954, Gordon Allport (1954) came up with his view of prejudice and categorical thinking in which he posited that prejudice is a normal human development. To use his own words, "the human mind must think with the aid of categories…Once formed, categories are the basis for normal prejudgment. We cannot possibly avoid this process. Orderly living depends upon it."

If what Marilyn Brewer postulated is worthwhile then prejudice may be considered as an act of in-group preservation. According to her, prejudice could "develop not because outgroups are hated, but because

positive emotions such as admiration, sympathy, and trust are reserved for the ingroup".

According to Thomas Pettigrew (1979) prejudice is the result of the ultimate attribution error which occurs when members of an in-group:

I.   Attribute negative outgroup behavior to dispositional causes (more than they would for identical ingroup behavior), and
II.   Attribute positive outgroup behavior to one or more of the following causes:
      - A fluke or exceptional case,
      - Luck or special advantage,
      - High motivation and effort, and
      - Situational factors.

3.3.1 Contemporary Theoretical Perspectives

From a study that he undertook, Henri Tajfel (1982) concluded that prejudice can be observed in groups that are randomly formed, which he described as the minimal group paradigm. Tajfel found that even when assigning unfamiliar individuals to groups by random toss of the coin they tend to show in-group and out-group preferences leading to being hostile to out-group members and treat in-group members with preference.

Quattrone, G. A. and Jones, E. E. (1980: 141-152) propounded the out-group homogeneity bias in perceiving that out-group members are more homogenous than in-group members.

Another model "the justification-suppression model" of prejudice by Crandall, C. and Eshleman, A. (2003: 414-446) states that people are always caught in the dilemma of desiring to exhibit prejudicial behaviour and portraying a constructive self-concept. According to these authors, this is primarily responsible for the tendency of people to dislike members of an out-group and using this excuse to evade harmful feelings (cognitive dissonance) that comes from venting their dislikes on members of an out-group.

Last but not the least; the realistic conflict theory identifies the phenomenon of prejudice with inter-group struggles for scarce resources in society. Even when the resources are considerable conflict still occurs and by implication prejudice continues to prevail.

3.4   Strategies for Reducing Prejudice

Some interventions that may be deployed to weaken or reduce the incidence of prejudice include:

i.   Educating perpetrators of prejudice to visualise themselves in the position of individuals or groups against whom they discriminate,

ii.   Enacting and strictly enforcing laws stipulating equal and fair treatment for all individuals and groups in the society,

iii.   Identifying all prejudicial norms and soliciting and obtaining general public support to eliminate or weaken stereotypes on which prejudice is built,

iv.   Institutionalising social learning that focuses on the avoidance of the process of transfering the practice of prejudice to children - considering that prejudice is learned and shared through the process of socialisation undertaken by parents, teachers and other agencies,

v.   Social recategorisation that enables members of groups that was previously different to begin to consider themselves as members of one cohesive social unit. This can gradually stimulate more favourable attitudes toward those that were hitherto members of an outgroup,

vi.   Launching strong advocacy against the inconsistencies in the beliefs shared by people, and

vii.   Facilitating more frequent interactions between members of groups that discriminate and those that suffer discrimination. In other words, deliberately creating opportunities for more direct inter-group interaction or contact aimed at reducing prejudice, which is referred to as the contact hypothesis.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss the various type of prejudice with which you are familiar and how they can be remedied.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Prejudice is harmful to both its perpetrators and sufferers as we saw in apartheid South Africa that knew no peace. It impedes the development process because it implies that all the human resources of a nation in which it is practiced cannot be fully harnessed. Therefore, everything practicable should be done to eliminate prejudice.

5.0   SUMMARY

As we saw in this unit virtually all ramifications of prejudice (sexism, ageism, ethnicity, nationalism, etc) consist of attitudes that derive from insufficient information. We also learnt that the expression of stereotyped beliefs, negative feelings, and out-group oriented discrimination are common features of prejudice. After tracing the theories of prejudice from the historical to the contemporary we focussed on strategies (e.g. social learning, social recategorisation, improved interactions, legal prohibition, advocacy, empathy, weakening stereotypes, etc.) for combating prejudice in society.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Define prejudice and distinguish it from three concepts that are related to it.
ii.   Mention and explain four types of prejudice with which you are familiar.
iii.   What are the main distinguishing characteristics between historical and contemporary theories of prejudice?
iv.   As an expert, advise the Nigerian government on the most effective interventions that it can adopt to reduce prejudice in this country.

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UNIT 2   UNDERSTANDING INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The distinction between communication and communications, the purpose, symbol, content, perception, and interpersonal communication and its barriers are dealt with in this unit.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

• distinguish between communication and communications
• appreciate the purpose of communication
• recognise the symbols, content, and perception in communication
• discuss interpersonal communication
• identify the barriers to communication.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Meaning of Communication and Communications

Police officers interact with numerous individuals and groups in the course of carrying out their core responsibility of securing lives and properties in society. On the basis of this police officers need to be clear and precise about the message they send to subordinates, in reports to political leaders and even contemporaries. Police officers also deal with other publics thus, requiring that they thoroughly understand the basics of interpersonal communication. To achieve this goal, we begin with

clarifying the basic differences between communication and communications.

Communication is a concept that has received the attention of many scholars who have tended to place emphasis on one aspect of the term or the order. For example, O'Reilly and Pondy (1979), consider communication as the transmission or exchange of message between a sender and a receiver or receivers with a view to reaching an understanding that is common to the parties involved. In the online encyclopedia Britannica, "com-mu-ni-cation" is defined as "the exchange of meanings between individuals through a common system of symbols". Furthermore, Seiler and Beall (2002: 6) view "communication as the simultaneous sharing and creating of meaning through human symbolic action." They went further to state that communication is not as easy and straightforward as it seems. To use these authors "communication is complex." But it is essential because "to make meaningful impact in any area of life, people need communication skills."

Communications, on the other hand, is a concept that describes the devices/channels through which a sender delivers his/her messages to the receiver and obtain feedback. Communications, therefore relate to the means of spreading information, for instance, the internet is an important means of communicating with young people and within an organisation that operate a large network of branches.

Main components of Communication: Some of the main components of communication consist of the following (Seiler and Beall, 2002: 17-23):

- The source, that is, the person that conceived an idea and sends it out (it requires the sender, determining meaning, encoding the message, sending it and getting feed back or reaction),
- The message consists of the idea that is sent,
- Interference, are things and situation that changes the original message,
- Channel, the route through which the message passes from sender to receiver,
- Receiver is the person or people to whom a message is sent,
- Feedback is the response to the original message that is sent by the receiver,
- Environment, that is, the physical and psychological surroundings in which communication is taking place, and
- Context, that is, the broad circumstances or situation within which communication is taking place.

3.2   Purpose of Communication

There is no confusion about the purpose of communication, it is simply to:

o   Enhance understanding between two or more people. For instance, the sender who expresses an opinion, idea, attitude to either prompt the listener into action or to clarify and issue (Gaines, Worrall, Southerland and Angell, 2003: 255).
o   Achieve the goals of an organisation such as the police,
o   Improve the quality of the police service delivery,
o   Improve the quality of feedback that will be obtained from the receivers, and
o   To acquire innovative ideas from members of an organisation, like the police.

3.3   Symbols, Context, and Perception

Communication of all variety is made up of symbols and contexts. The symbols are the words we choose to express the message, the gestures we make while discussing, and the pictures that we use in creating meaning to the receiver. For instance, hardly makes meaning to the receiver until we create reality for it through the meaning we attach to it in society. Thus, context furthers our understanding of symbols by providing more information about them (i.e. symbols). Context actually situates crime in the framework that individuals are easily able to understand. Therefore "**context** is the environment in which the symbol is used (Gaines *et al*, 2003: 256). They posit out that the meaning of "crime in a corporate environment is not the same as in a poor community environment. Less seriousness is attached to crime in the former than in the latter environment."

Symbols such as "weapon", "police", and "gun" do not necessarily have the same meaning to everybody. This is particularly the case in situations where the contextual meanings are not specified when used in written communication and people receiving the message apply their own understanding based on previous knowledge or familiarity. This fact should be critically considered by police officers and those who constantly develop and communicate policy positions to subordinates in corporate organisations, and the public that may be guided by an entirely "different frame of reference."

Perception is also central to peoples understanding of the idea of symbols and contexts. Perception is "the process through which people select, organise and interpret sensory input to give meaning to their surrounding" (Schiffmann, 1990). Perception in itself is determined by

such factors as an individual's personality, values, attitudes and past experiences and these variables influence the meaning that people are able to make out of what is communicated to them. Gaines *et al* conclude that "symbols - the building block of communication - mean different things to different people. Effective communication requires sufficient meaning only when the sender leaves little to the receiver's imagination as possible."

Inferences are equally useful variables for understanding symbols. An inference is made when someone attempts to attach meanings to a message based on his/her assumptions rather than what is contained in a message (Davis and Newstorm, 1985). Therefore, an effective communication is one that does not leave the context to any imagination, whatsoever to the receiver.

In addition to the symbols, context and perception, the **mode** of communicating the message is of equal significance. Some of the most important modes are:

1. formal communication
2. informal communication
3. verbal communication consisting of:
   a. oral communication
   b. written communication
4. non verbal communication involving:
5. kinesics - body language: gestures, facial expressions/configurations, other body movements,
6. **proxomics** - influence of proximity and space on communication,
7. paralanguage - vocal aspects of communication, including inflections and emphasis, and
8. object language - i.e. "the communicative use of material things, including clothing, cosmetics, furniture, and architecture" (bartol and martin, 1998: 447).

3.4 Interpersonal Communication

Interpersonal Communication is just one of the four major types of communication that is recognised in the literature, namely:

a. public Communication
b. small Group Communication
c. in**tra**personal Communication, and
d. in**ter**personal Communication.

These types of communication require various degrees of verbal and non-verbal actions and may also be differentiated by the number of

actors involved, the intention or aim of the communication and how formal the setting in which the communication takes place.

I.   Public Communication

Public communication is the process of transmitting messages from an individual or person to several people at the same time. A public speech and public lecture in which people listen to the speaker is a beautiful illustration of public communication. Other examples can be found in speeches at political party rallies, ethnic group meetings, religious services, training session, police community relations committee meetings, etc.

However, it must be noted that public speaking is different from other forms of communication in the following important respects:

a.   Public speaking is usually more structured than others
b.   It requires more elaborate planning and preparation by the speaker
c.   Listeners are not permitted to ask questions during the speech,
d.   Public speakers are expected to anticipate all the listener's questions
e.   Formal language is used and no slangs and jargons are admissible
f.   The delivery style at public speaking is basically formal
g.   In public speaking the speakers must speak clearly to be heard, and
h.   It is meant to persuade, inform, entertain, welcome, introduce and pay tribute.

II.   Small-Group Communication

This is a subject of interpersonal communication that involves disseminating information between small group of people that share a common objective or interest such as:

a.   Pursuit of a task or an assignment
b.   Solving or resolving problematic issues or challenge
c.   Deciding on a joint decision, and
d.   Sharing information.

In order for you to participate effectively or harness the potentialities of small group communication, it is important for you to understand the following:

1.   The purpose for which the group was constituted

2.   The decision making strategies of the group
3.   The group characteristics
4.   The kind of leadership that exist in the group
5.   The degree of participation of members in the group activities
6.   How problems are resolved, and
7.   How to evaluate the effectiveness of small-group communication.

If our knowledge of the size of a platoon is anything to go by, then officers commanding platoons need to possess competences in small group communication.

III.   Intrapersonal Communication

Intrapersonal communication deals with the intricate processes of getting to understand the personal information that you have within yourself. This process is very important because it forms the basis of what you actually communicate to those that take instructions from you (Pearson and Nelson, 1997: 24). In course of attaining maturity in the society we acquire increasing knowledge about ourselves and our environment and much of this learning is gained from personal experiences. In spite of the huge amount of knowledge we acquire from the teachings we receive at various phases of our life course,

> *There are many things we must learn through our experience and can learn in no other way. For example, the first time you experience the sensation of warmth coming over your chilled body is a form of intrapersonal communication. If the warmth is coming from a fire, the fire is the source of heat, but that heat is not really known to you until it is felt by your body and is eventually registered in your brain. Your skin senses the heated air and transmits the sensation through your central nervous system to your brain, which records it as warmth. In this sense you are communicating within yourself* (Pearson and Nelson, 1997:24).

Whenever we strive to undertake an evaluation of anything that transmits information to us, we also embark on intrapersonal communication notwithstanding whether or not we are conscious of this fact. Pearson and Nelson contend that "we are involved in intrapersonal communication as we receive, attend to, interpret and analyse, store and recall, or respond in some fashion to any message. Thus, communication between two individuals is far more complex than it appears on the surface".

The scope of intrapersonal communication is far-reaching and includes such processes as thinking, solving problems, resolving conflicts, planning, emotion, stress, assessment, and developing relationships. As a matter of fact, the messages that we create first occur inside us, which means that communication is essentially a personal activity; thus implying that it is almost impossible for us to completely separate ourselves from the interactions we enter into with others, no matter how objective we want to be. Even when we tell others that we understand their feelings it is because:

> *We understand another's feelings only after they are filtered through our own feelings and perceptions. Ultimately, all communication takes place within each of us as we react to communication cues. Intrapersonal communication may occur without the presence of any other type of communication, but all other types of communication cannot occur without it. In fact, intrapersonal communication occurs almost always, and yet we don't often think about it as a type of communication* (Pearson and Nelson, 1997: 24).

IV.   Interpersonal Communication

Interpersonal communication refers to the informal interchange of messages that occur between two or more individuals. This type of communication shares some common elements with intrapersonal communication, which include its usefulness in sharing information, solving problems, resolving conflicts, facilitating our perception of ourselves and others, and establishing relationship with others. The meeting of two people is the fundamental basis of interpersonal communication and in an age where so many things are facilitated by the computer the interactions that occur in social network between people across the world is also included in this concept. The reality is that many of those interactions on social networking sites are resulting in lifelong relationships like marriage that cannot be overlooked. This is because they fulfill the true definition of a relationship as "an association between at least two people" and may be described in terms of:

a.   Intimate association with acquaintance, boyfriend/girl (friend/husband, mother/father, child, uncle or cousin),

b.   Roles such as sharing a room, being neighbours, co-workers, teacher and student, doctor and patient, minister and church members etc,

c.   Relationships based on time of occurrence of an event say; someone with whom you attended secondary school some twenty years ago, and

d.   Participation in common activities e.g. a common sporting event, attending the same church, traveling in the same aircraft etc.

Interpersonal Communication and Motivation to form Relationship: Often, people develop relationships beyond those built on the foundation of chance meeting. In this subunit we shall examine a few theoretical explanations for the motivation to deepen interpersonal relationships. These include:

I.   **The Uncertainty Reduction Theory:** This theory postulates that upon meeting individuals to whom we are attracted we immediately formulate inferences about them from what we are seeing and this action derives from our desire to want to know them better. By so doing we satisfy an urge to reduce the uncertainty surrounding these individuals by entering into communication with them.

II.   **The Predicated Outcome Value Theory:** This is built on the uncertainty reduction theory by positing that people interact with those they meet for the first time because they believe that there are benefits attached to doing it or it will result in positive outcome for them.

III. **Schultz's Theory of Interpersonal Needs:** According to this theory, the interpersonal behavior and motivation of human beings are predicated on:

    a.   The need for affection to deal with the desire of everyone to be liked and loved. Schultz traces this to why people aspire to membership of social groups and participate in dating services. He explained that while those that are able to fulfill this need for affection are described as personal, those unable to fulfill it are underpersonal or overpersonal. Thus, while personal people tend to be confident, mature, poised, and interact freely with those they meet, underpersonal people tend to avoid emotional commitments and hide their true nature or selves,

    b.   The need for inclusion describing people's desire for esteem/importance, which Schultz identifies with three classes of individuals, namely: the social, undersocial and oversocial. Undersocial people are characteristically withdrawn, antisocial, feel intimidated by attempts to communicate with them and often shy. They prefer to

operate by themselves or dissolve into groups where their identity will be lost. Oversocial individuals prefer to communicate, participate, and dominate discussions, overly imposing and talkative. They want to be recognised, are overbearing and afraid of being ignored. Social individuals are the fully integrated and satisfied. They are capable of handling various kinds of situations in group or by themselves. They are appropriately assertive, and confident of themselves,

c. The need for control is anchored on the desire for leadership and responsibility for the purpose of controlling others and our environment. The ability to exercise this need depends on whether we are abdicates, autocrats, or democrats. Abdicates submit completely, lack self-confidence, portray themselves as incompetent, avoid risks, and avoid decision making and need encouragement to believe in themselves. Autocrats crave to control and dominate others, always strive to make decisions, express strong desire for power, are closed-minded and have very little respect for the feelings of others. Democrats are satisfied with their control needs, are willing to join group life either as leaders or followers, are open-minded, willing to work with the suggestion of others and like to do things in the interest of everybody (Schultz, W. C. (1966: 13-20).

IV **Social Exchange Theory:** This theory postulates that individuals tend to weigh the costs and benefits associated with entering into relationship and will therefore prefer to enter into relationships that are immensely beneficial and avoid those that are perceived to be less rewarding or too costly (Thibaut, J. W. and Kelly, H. H. (1986). Thus, they argue that people are motivated to initiate and sustain relationships based on these principles of costs and benefits. Rewards are those things that we consider beneficial to our own personal interests. These benefits include pleasure, gratification, satisfaction, prestige, good feelings, economic gains, and emotional satisfaction. On the other hand, costs include anxiety, wasted time and energy that confer no benefit. By the tenets of this theory the way we behave is a product of our self interests. Thus, we tend to orient ourselves towards relationships that are of benefit and the way in which we appreciate rewards varies from one individual and environmental context to another. To use the exact words of Pearson and Nelson (1997: 369)**:**

> *The ratio between rewards and costs varies*
> *from person to person and from situation to*
> *situation. Thus, what is a desirable ratio of*

> *rewards and costs for one person may be
> much different for another person. If a
> relationship is healthy and satisfying, there
> is probably a good balance most of the time
> between rewards and costs, with rewards
> outweighing costs. Most relationships begin
> and prosper because the people involved
> benefit in some way from them.*

Therefore, it is not uncommon for individuals that are maintaining several highly rewarding relationships to aspire to higher satisfaction from each of the relationships. On the other hand, people who have had low cost-reward ratios in their relationships tend to lower their satisfaction expectations and may be more tolerant in order to keep their relationships on track.

3.4 Barriers to Communication

The communication process is beset by the following barriers:

I. **Physical Barriers** which include:
   a. Intervening noises especially where verbal communication is being used
   b. The distance between the parties to the communication process, walls may also obstruct the process
   c. There is also the issue of distortion of radio message
   d. Verbal or speaking and learning difficulties on the part of the speaker or receiver
   e. Overload or too much communication at the same time.

II **Psychological Barriers** including:
   a. Over filtering or omissions from the message communicated. This may also result from the bias, preconceived notions and listeners deliberately hearing what they want to hear,
   b. Perceptional disorder is another psychological barrier resulting from:
   • Stereotyping - ascribing the preconceived characteristics of a group to an individual regardless of what is being communicated
   • Halo effect - making generalisations about other people from observation of one or two members of that group
   • Projection - taking your feeling of failure and hanging it on another person
   • Perceptual defense - deliberately refusing to see hear, or perceive anything that can disturb us,

which is the act of shielding ourselves from emotional shocks.

Other forms of barriers to effective communications are:
a. Timing i.e. sending out the information at an inappropriate time
b. Routing i.e. channeling communication to the wrong person of audience
c. Semantic barrier i.e. limitations in the language of communication
d. Experiential barrier i.e. inexperience, resulting in the lack of a frame of reference to assess the information being received
e. Listening barrier i.e. failure to pay sustainable attention
f. Buchhloz and Roth (1987) also identified the following behavior-related barriers to communication:
g. Judging e.g. "You are wrong" Describe instead of judging
h. Superiority e.g. "I am more important than you are" Try to make your listeners feel equal with you
i. Certainty e.g. "My mind is make up" - You have to be open to suggestions
j. Controlling e.g. "Let me tell you how this should be done". This is opposed to problem orientation
k. Manipulation e.g. "Gotcha" - Let your intent be seen to be positive
l. Indifference e.g. "What you think doesn't matter" - Try to place yourself in the listeners portion.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

You have been invited to make a presentation to your class on communication. Design your presentation to reflect the definition, purpose, types, and barriers of the subject.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Effective communication can make the difference between successful and unsuccessful projects. Therefore, ensure that your communications to your colleagues are always clear and without openings for others to make assumptions.

5.0 SUMMARY

Communication and communications are not the same. While communication deals with messages that are exchanged between senders and receivers that also entail symbols and feedbacks, communications focuses on the means (e.g. internet, news media, etc.) through which messages are relayed from one person to another. Communication is

undertaken to achieve understanding between the parties involved in it, includes formal, informal, and verbal (oral and written) modes, and types such as public, small group, intrapersonal, and interpersonal communication. Barriers besetting the communication process are mainly physical and psychological.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Write short notes on:
    a.   Communication
    b.   Communications
ii.   Distinguish between the following pair of concepts:
    a.   Public and small group communication
    b.   Intrapersonal and interpersonal communication
iii.   Mention and explain the most important barriers to the communication process.
iv.   What is the purpose of communication and how can it be affected by the perceptual process?

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UNIT 3   UNDERSTANDING AWARENESS AND SELF-CONCEPT

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will be introduced to the meaning of self-awareness, self concept and related issues such as category of response to individuals, two components of self and the motivation for self-disclosure.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- distinguish between self-awareness and self concept
- describe the category of response to individuals
- mention and explain two components of self
- discuss the motivation to self disclosure.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Self-Awareness and Self-Concept

Concept of self-awareness and self-concept are central to the way individuals communicate with other individuals and groups in society.
Self-awareness defines "your sense of self; your accommodation with your past; your plans for your future; and all the prejudices, potentialities and possibilities that you are" (Pearson and Nelson, 1997: 34). In other words, an individual's self-awareness speaks to the extent to which he/she is able to draw useful lessons from his/her past to develop realistic plans that should improve the chances of harnessing

his/her potentialities. Now let us examine the main components of this concept, namely; your past, your present and your future in some respectful details:

I.   **Self-Awareness and your past:** This deals basically with the way an individual was bought up to think, believe, and respond to issues. In the beginning we were all children, natural human beings that reacted with cries when we were hungry, frustrated or uncomfortable, got violent when angry or provoked and shouted or smiled or laughed when we needed to express joy and happiness. But, as we grew with the passage of time, we were nurtured or socialised into mealtime schedules, how to curtail our frustrations/anger and the appropriate settings where loud laughers and smile are permissible and considered sociable behaviour.

II. **Self-Awareness and your present:** This deals with the development of self through the message and feedback you receive from your family, friends, peers, teachers, police, neighbours, and the organisations to which you belong i.e. symbolic interactions (Pearson and Nelson, 1997: 34). The various occasions during which you were disciplined for lateness to school, noise making during lectures, and when you took what did not belong to you, and received reward for excellence in sports, academics, proper dressing, speaking and behaving appropriately in public, have contributed significantly to your present personality - your likes, dislikes, skills, possibilities, as well as positive and negative expectations and experiences.

III. **Self-awareness and your future:** This deals with assisting you in arriving at decisions on the choices open to you and those that are not. For instance, if you are not good in the sciences you should not aspire to medicine, pharmacy, astronomy, etc. You simply need to find a career from the subjects in which you have competences because what you have learnt will largely determine the career of your future.
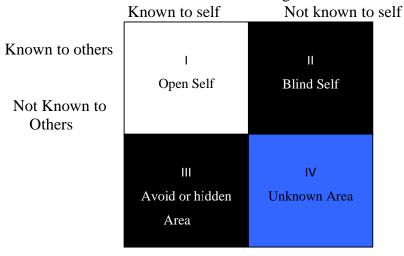
Self-concept: This consists of each person's consciousness of his/her total essential and particular being. Included in self-concept are all our physical, social, and psychological perceptions about ourselves (Pearson and Nelson, 1997: 36). The outcome of your past and present behaviour and association with your environmental context, including the people in it constitute your perceptions.

People are significant to the self-concept of an individual because without their interventions our growth from natural to social beings will be very chaotic or seemingly impossible. The self is shaped in course of interacting with others. Thus, as we exchange messages with others, our

roles are basically defined through the encouragement and discouragement we generally receive from their reactions.

I. **The Johari Window:** The Johari Window is one of the most straightforward ways through which an individual can appreciate the influence of our relationship with others based on our self-concept and the self-discipline we are willing to undertake (Pearson and Nelson 1997: 36-37; and Seiler and Beall: 276-278). The Johari Window is designed as a square consisting of four quadrants or sections each containing certain kind of information about an individual (Schultz, 1966: 13-20). The amount of information in each quadrant or square is not fixed, it actually changes in response to the quality of information you exchange with a person you are relating with. In its original form the Johari Window is a model of self-disclosure that indicates the proportion of information about ourselves that is known and/or unknown to ourselves, to others, or to both. (Pearson and Nelson, *op cit*). The four squares in the Johari Window consist of the open self or open area, the blind self or the blind area, the hidden self or the hidden area, and the unknown self or the unknown area, which we shall now describe:

II. **The Open Self or Open Area:** This is the first square containing information that is known or easily known to individuals who are meeting for the first time. Most of this information can be acquired by mere observation supported with a bit of self introduction. Some open self type of information include sex, estimated height, skin, completion, hair color, age, religion, names, and hometown, career fields, schools, and other general information.
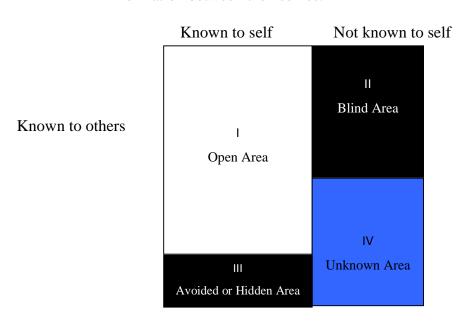
The important thing to note is that first meeting with others people hardly disclose sufficient information. Therefore, the square depicting the open self is expectedly small (see figure I). But as relationships become more intimate, people share more information, which then enlarges the open self window as shown in figure II.

Figure I: The Johari Window at the first meeting between individuals.

Source: Seiler W. J. and Beall, M. L. (2002: 377).Communication*: Making Connections*.

Figure II: The Johari Window after individuals have shared more information between themselves.

Source: Seiler, W. J. and Beall, M. L. (2002: 377). Communication: *Making Connections*.

II.   The Blind Self: This area actually contains information about us as perceived by others, which we neither recognise nor acknowledge about ourselves. For instance, a Police Commissioner (PC) who fails to apply discipline when it comes to handling the case of a particular Divisional Police Officer (DPO) may be unaware that his/her actions are being so

interpreted. As a matter of fact, the PC may insist that he applies discipline uniformly whenever he/she is subsequently confronted with this bias tendency. But as you accept your shortcomings and make corrections to those within your restraints, this square also reduce as seen in Figure II.

III.   **The Hidden Self**: This area focuses on those pieces of information that we may not want to share with anybody. These are usually very sensitive and personal information that is probably disclosed selectively as relationships and trusts develop between individuals. When this level of sharing information is attained the hidden area reduces as shown in Figure II.

IV.   **The Unknown Self:** Information contained in this quadrant is unknown both to us and to others. This is information locked up in the subconscious due to our human nature. Information of this kind may include a difficult aspect of any personality, sexual preferences, or the mental and physical harm that drugs are inflicting on us, which we may be unaware of throughout our lives except diagnosed through hypnosis, therapy or expert intervention. Some events that we are so often unable to recall also situate in this category of the unknown self. Other aspects of the unknown self consists of those that are yet to manifest. For instance, you never can tell when you will have the opportunity of administering artificial respiration to someone considering that you do not have the past experience with it.

The Johari Window is a model that allows us to understand how the information we exchange with other people impact on our relationship with them, particularly, in terms of how we respond to them and they respond to us in return.

II.   **Self-Disclosure and the Social Penetration Theory:** This postulation offers another perspective on the construction of relationships from the superficial to the more intimate levels of self-disclosures. According to Altman and Taylor (1973: 14-20), the authors of this theory, the social penetration theory explains the processes leading to self-disclosure and intimacy during a relationship. They posit that the development of a relationship follows a gradual course as captured in figure III. The figure looks like a dartboard having outer circles representing superficial communication and centre circles, the bulls eye, representing the level at which the relationship can be said to have achieved intimacy or dept and closeness. Communication relating to our relationships tends to be limited to the open levels, for instance, my name is Godwin and I love football and table-tennis. However, more details are added to this as relationships deepen beyond "biographical facts" disclosed during first

meetings. When people first meet, they characteristically share breadth level information shown in figure III. But as relationships assume more depth and stability, intimate or personal information are disclosed or shared. As more personal information are exchanged the basis of the relationship moves from external factual information (the outer ring) to inner feelings (the centre of the circle), revealing more about self concept and values. As relationship continues, participants in the relationship increasingly share more breadth and depth-type personal information. Giving a person sensitive information about oneself is, in a sense, giving him or her powers. Judgment is needed to determine whether the person is worthy to trust. Yet, in the best circumstances when both parties are sincere in their wish to deepen the relationship doing so can be challenging (Seiler and Beall, 2002: 379).

Figure III: Diagramatic representation of Altman and Taylor's theory of self-disclosure and social penetration.

Source: Seiler W. J. and Beall, M.L. (2002). Communication: *Making Connections*, p. 378.

3.2   Category of Response to Individual

According to Watzlawick, Beavin and Jackson (1967), individuals respond to other people in three principal ways, namely by: Confirmation, Rejection, and Disconfirmation.

I.   **Confirmation** is said to occur when others treat us consistently with who we believe we are. For instance, if we see ourselves as the most intelligent police officers, we are confirmed when the Commissioner of Police refer challenging cases to us and our opinions and input are upheld. Confirmation gives us very high degree of satisfaction and reinforces our established self-concept.

II.   **Rejection** occurs when our treatment by others run contrary to our personal self-concept. For instance, if a police officer who sees himself/herself as highly intelligent and having solution to all difficult problems offer suggestions that others ignore or consider unworkable, this may imply that the self-concept of the affected police officer is rejected. Should this attitude of rejection persist overtime, it may eventually lead to the alteration of the self-concept of the affected officer.

III.   **Disconfirmation** occurs when those with whom we relate simply fail to acknowledge our self-concept or act with indifference to it. Disconfirmation is comparable to neutrality that reflects situations in which; children who fail to elicit response from their parents regarding their notion of self, consider spouses that rarely comment about their partners or grandparents who are sparingly noticed within the household. In the words of Pearson and Nelson, (2002: 37), these individuals are disconfirmed, and their self-concept may be altered as a result of such interactions. Disconfirmation suggests to people that they do not exit, or that they are irrelevant to others. People who are disconfirmed may experience loneliness and alienation.

3.3   Two Components of Self-Concept

The two components of self-concept are:

I.   **Self-Image:** An individual's self-image is the picture he/she has about himself/herself, and the sort of person he/she believes he/she is. Factors associated with your self-image include your personal self-categorisation, the roles you play and like to play and the manner in which you describe yourself. Thus, if you tell an acquaintance that you are the police officer who ran into the building that was burning down the road to rescue a family that was trapped in the inferno when no one else would, then you paint the picture of a brave and committed police officer about yourself. Ultimately, the self-image is initially the product of our definition by others either by the roles we play, our personality traits, our physical features, marital status, and religious affiliation also come into play in defining our self-image by others. But more importantly, the roles we play also help our self-image projection to a large extent (Arggle, 1969: 133).

II.   **Self-Esteem:** While our self-image is based on description, our self-esteem consists of the "evaluative feelings" resembling that of self-image. Therefore, self-esteem addresses "how we feel about ourselves, how well we like and how much we value ourselves" (Shaw, P. 1994: 467-474).

It is clear from the foregoing that self-esteem deals with the way we perceive ourselves. Thus, if we have favorable attitudes about ourselves we are also likely to have correspondingly high self-esteem. Low self-esteem will expectedly be the outcome of nursing unfavourable attitudes about us. But the high point of this is that our self-esteem, whether high or low, plays a major role in our perceptions and ultimately affects our communication. For instance, while individuals with high self-esteem consider people who are motivated as bright and of great abilities, they see people who are not motivated as less bright; those with low self-esteem do not bother to make distinctions between people on the bases of their motivations, which may affect their ability to understand success-oriented behaviours (Baumgardner, and Levy, 1988: 429-438). Peter Shaw (1994: 467-474) assumes that self-esteem is highly resilient and can therefore be developed, using the strategies of reward for excellent performance that obtain in academic institutions. However, an obsession with self-esteem should not be encouraged. "People who are self-conscious are usually shy, easily embarrassed, and anxious in the presence of other people. A self-conscious person suffers stage fright in all situations to the point of being unwilling even to try to speak before any group" (Pearson and Nelson, 2002: 38).

3.4   Motivation to Self-Disclose

The issue of self-disclosure is central to the process of building and sustaining an in-depth relationship with others. Self-disclosure helps to get others to appreciate who you really are and self-presentation is key to achieving self-disclosure.

I.   **Self-Presentation** is a deliberate self-disclosure strategy for guiding the specific information we want others to be aware of about us for a specific purpose. An employment interview is a classic illustration of self-presentation. When asked this usual question of talking about yourself at interviews, "you discuss your background, experiences, and accomplishments, emphasising points that would make you as attractive as possible to the interviewer in order to get the job" (Seiler and Beall, 2002: 379). Telling somebody about a poignant experience that you went through in order to attract sympathy also passes as a self-presentation strategy. Self-presentation is therefore a communication strategy that comes in handy whenever we perceive that it will positively affect the evaluation of our social identity (Canary and Cody, 1994: 192-198).

II.   **Relationship Building or Social Conversation** is one of the basic reasons that people embark on self-disclosure. As relationships grow, the level of self-disclosure also deepens. Though, we must caution that "the dept and number of

interactions can vary dramatically from one relationship to another." Besides, the fact that you are progressing in the depth of your relationship is not a guarantee that the relationship will be of high quality (Sillars and Scott, 1983: 153-176).

III.   **Catharsis** is the process of getting rid of something from our minds as basis for relieving ourselves of stress. Self-disclosure is a form of a catharsis because it may, to some extent constitute a means of unburdening the heart. Although, catharsis is principally undertaken for the purpose of achieving self-gratification, it also has unintended health benefits apart from portraying us as excellent relationship partners.

IV.   **Being Honest** might just be one motivation of self-disclosure that is traceable to our cultural background. For the most part, majority of us undertake self-disclosure when we are into intimate relationship because we consider it necessary as basis for a truly transparent relationship.

V.   **Withholding information** may appear inappropriate under a discussion of self-disclosure but we should realise that disclosure can be harmful as it can be refreshing to a relationship. Therefore, information is sometimes deliberately withheld to protect a partner, prevent a negative reaction, or prevent hurt to someone whom we value highly.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What do you understand by the following?

i.   The concept of self-awareness
ii.   Self-concept
iii.   The Johari Window, and
iv.   Self-disclosure and the social penetration theory.

4.0   CONCLUSION

This unit on self-awareness and self-concept makes us to realise that people often take the issues that have gone into developing their self concept and its impact on their foreseeable future for granted. The concept of self-awareness discloses to us that we are products of past and present interactions that will largely inform the decisions that will shape our future career and other inclinations.

Conversely, an individual's self-concept is the totality of the physical, social, and psychological perceptions about oneself. In other words, it is about the consequences of our past and present behaviour and interaction with our environmental context, which includes the people in it. Thus, your self-awareness appears to be a significant component of

your self-concept. The self-concept is well captured by the Johari Window, Self-disclosure and Social Penetration theoretical perspectives discussed in this unit. The two main components of self are the self-image and self-esteem.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, you have leant the concept of self awareness and self-concept. Components of self, the categories of response to individuals and motivation to self disclosure have also been discussed.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Define self-awareness and explain its major components.
ii.   Define and explain self-concept using the Johari Window to illustrate your answer.
iii.   With the aid of an annotated diagram describe the social penetration theory on the self-concept.
iv.   Write short notes on the following:
         a.   Components of self-concept, and
         b.   Motivation to self-disclose.

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UNIT 4   POLICE DISCRETION

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   Meaning and Exercise of Discretion
                3.1.1   Exercise of Discretion
        3.2   Reasons for Exercising Discretion
                3.2.1   Determinants of Discretion
        3.3   Control of Discretion
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit discusses some important dimensions of discretion such as its meaning, how it is exercised, as well as the reasons, determinants, and control of discretion.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

•   define discretion and how it is exercised in policing
•   explain the reasons for police discretion and its determinants
•   identify measures for controlling discretion in policing.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Meaning and Exercise of Discretion

1.   Meaning of discretion: Whatever the angel from which one looks at this concept, either from the layman's or that of the social scientist, it tends to suggest that choices are available for pursuing the objectives which the police seek to accomplish. This concept can be more specifically defined as "the availability of a choice of options or actions one can take in a situation" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 130). To view discretion in this way is to drive the point home that the exercise of discretion is, perhaps, one of the commonest features of our daily lives. For instance, we exercise discretion in the choice of snacks we pick

up at fast food outlets, the brand of tea we purchase at supermarkets, the brand of cars we purchase, the type of houses we build and in a host of other things we do in life. Obviously, most of us exercise discretion unconsciously on daily basis, especially, considering that it entails arriving at decisions after careful assessment of some attendant situation. The assessment or judgment that is entailed in discretion is what determines the choice "from a group of options."

In the criminal justice system, judges exercise a lot of discretion as they pass judgment on cases, sometimes, bothering on the termination of human life based on evidence and legal representations made before them. But within the criminal justice system, it is the police officer that probably makes the most sensitive decision to the extent that he/she makes the arrest that lead to court proceedings.

Therefore, police discretion is very critical because it is "unlike that of any other occupation … one in which sub professionals, working alone, exercise wide discretion in matters of utmost importance (life and death, honour and dishonour) in an environment that is apprehensive and perhaps hostile" (Wilson, 1968: 187).

In furtherance of the analysis of the situation of the police in the exercise of discretion, Gottfredson and Gottredson (1980: 87) writes that "the police really suffer the worst of all worlds: they must exercise broad discretion behind a façade of performance in ministerial fashion; and they are expected to realise a high level of equality and justice in their discretionary determinations though they have not been provided with the means most commonly relied in government to achieve these ends."
Davies (1975) who is also an expert on the subject avers that "the police make policy about what law to enforce, how much to enforce it, against whom, and on what occasions."

I.   **Police Committed Time:** This is the time during which police officers respond or attend to official crime-fighting, order maintenance and offer community-related services to which they are directed by the police dispatcher who answers the 911 (emergency) calls. It also covers the performance of duties to which their supervisor assigns them within a specific area.

II. **Police Non-Committed Time:** The non-committed time of police officer is that portion of their "free" time spent on issues of interests to themselves.
     1.   **Exercise of discretion :** The exercise of discretion is undertaken by police officers for the purposes of:
          • effecting arrest of suspected criminals
          • stopping, questioning or frisking people at random

- using physical force
- using deadly force
- writing traffic summons
- using certain enforcement strategies (harassment, moving loiterers, warning, etc.)
- taking report on a specific crime, and
- investigating a specific crime.

3.2   Reasons for Exercising Discretion

Discretion is an inevitable component of the police officer's duty to the extent that he/she must exercise it at some point of his official assignment. According to Sheehan and Cordner (Durose, Schmitt, and Langan: 234-249) the necessity for the exercise of police discretion is hinged on seven pillars:

1.   Discretion presupposes selective application of the law to situations in order to maximise police time and resources to enable the police to cover its primary responsibilities effectively,
2.   Not all legislations that come out of the legislature are meant to be implemented   to the latter. There are certain categories of laws that are dictated by political realities requiring the use of discretion by police officers
3.   Some of the laws issued by the legislature are not very clear and properly defined. This has placed the need to interpret and apply such laws at the discretion of police officers that confront the kind of situation such laws are meant to address
4.   There are certain categories of the law especially those relating to violation of traffic regulations that require the application of police discretion
5.   Insistence on the application of the entire details of the law could estrange the public from the police organisation as well as instill fear of the justice system in the people
6.   Also, insistence on enforcement of the law without exceptions will bring unmanageable pressures on the judiciary (especially the courts) and the prison systems, and
7.   Considering the immense amount of work before the police organisation, against the backdrop of limited human and material resources at its disposal, it therefore rest on police officers to rely on sound judgment to apply the law.

3.2.1 Determinants of Discretion

Discretion is necessary to the successful implementation of police functions of crime control, order maintenance and service provision. However, you need to understand the factors that ordinarily influence

the exercise of discretion by police officers. According to Herbert Jacob (1973: 27), the exercise of discretion by police officers is determined by the following four factors, namely:

I.   **Nature of Crime that was Committed or that is being Committed:** For instance, when a crime that has been committed or is being committed is characterised by the use of so much violence and the use of deadly weapons by the suspects,

II.   **Relationship between the Victim and Suspected Criminal:** Where close relationship exist between a victim of crime and an alleged criminal the police usually exercise a lot of restraints in arresting and detaining the suspect. However, this depends on the nature of the crime, for instance, crimes involving the loss of life, say, death of a spouse or serious bodily harm, the police have tended to resort to arrests than ordinary out of court reconciliations which it used to suggest,

III.   **Relationship between the Police and the Victim or Criminal:** Discretion is also brought to the fore regarding the manner in which a complaint is lodged with the police. Where the complaint is lodged with some measure of civility and regard for the police officer, the police is likely to be motivated to act quickly. But, where the complaint is lodged with an air of arrogance and command the police reacts rather sluggishly. Similarly, a suspect that comports himself/herself properly at the point of arrest is also likely to be treated better than one that behaves ruddily or resist arrest, and

IV.   **Organisation Policies:** Preferences expressed in state and police department policies largely influence the behaviour of police officers within a jurisdiction (Herbert Jacob, 1973: 27). These policy indications may be found in the constitution of a country, international treaties ratified by the country, and bye-laws or acts governing the police organisation – for instance, the Nigeria Police Act that was enacted in 2001.

Generally, it has been observed that the discretion exercised by a police officer is determined by the kind of situation in which the officer finds himself/herself. Dempsey and Forst (2008: 133) paraphrased the idea of Wilson thus:

> *Wilson found that police have wide latitude in self-initiated situations, such as the enforcement of the traffic or drug violations, because there is usually no complaint or victim demanding police action. However, in citizen-initiated situations, an officer has less discretion, and the preferences of the*

citizen will often influence the officer's decision to arrest or not to arrest.

Extensive research conducted in the United States of America and elsewhere pin-point a couple of factors responsible for the exercise of police discretion to effect arrests. These include the following issues some of which are applicable to the Nigeria environment:

•   nature of the offense committed or being committed
•   attitudes of the victim and suspects
•   racial or ethnic background of suspect
•   socioeconomic status of suspects
•   gender or sex of suspects
•   racial background of police officer, and
•   pressure of police peer-group.

Empirical research has established that there is a relationship between the exercise of police discretion and the nature of offense committed. Other variables in this relationship are the mental state of the offender, the offenders criminal history (if available to the police officer), whether deadly weapons were used during the crime, the availability and cooperation of the victim together with the amount of danger to which the police officer is exposed (Siegel, Sullivan and Greene, 1974: 132-142).

Another study was conducted by Palavin and Briar (1964: 206-214) in which they concluded that the phenomenon of discretion was significantly influenced by the subject's attitude. Apart from those offenders involved in very serious criminal breaches or those on the wanted list of the police the evaluation of their character by the police officer was central to their decision to dispose cases involving juveniles. Interestingly, most times this act of police discretion was based on mere interviews with the juveniles. To this extent, even when peer groups adopt certain bahaviours toward what they perceive as aggressive conduct of the police, they i.e. the police, appear not to be deterred in their use of force. (Mc Cluskey, Tevril and Paoline, 2005: 19-37).

While field-based data suggests that arrests are not influenced by racial considerations (Willbanks, 1987) the chances of being stopped and searched were not equally affected by this variable (Durose, Schmitt, and Langan, 2995: 4-15).

Evidence is conflicting on the relationship between police discretion and the sex or gender of suspects. One study discovered that no discrimination exist where police officers are confronted with arresting male or female offenders or suspects. (Smith and Visher, 1981: 167-

177). However, Visher (1983: 5-28) re-examined same data and found that female whose behavious deviated from sociocultural stereotypes of "proper" female conducts were more likely to be arrested. She also noticed that age was another interesting variable in these arrests as older women were less likely to be arrested compared to younger women.

In another study that considered the factor of gender, it was found that men were more likely to be arrested than women in greater terms. (Novak, Frank, Smith, and Engel, 2002: 70-98).

From a 2004 observation study (Alpert, Dunhan, Stroshine, Bennet, and McDonald, 2006), the authors arrived at the following conclusions:

I.   Police officer's decision to stop a person was not informed by characteristics of that person. Individuals of all socioeconomic, gender, and racial backgrounds were equally approached and stopped
II.   In virtually every case of those people that were stopped, the conduct of the suspect was a deciding factor
III.   Physical appearances of people and their vehicles subsequently became important when they were found to match the data of traffic violators or those criminals on the police want list
IV.   Traffic violation together with attempts to escape from police officers and expression of nervousness were familiar reasons for which police officers stopped suspects
V.   Police officers could stop an individual irrespective of the place and time of day. Officers hardly stopped individuals on the basis of merely sighting vehicles or individuals. Stops were ordered after quick observations and conclusions on the need to effect a stop.

From the foregoing, you can see that the exercise of police discretion is indeed a complex issue that is determined by interplay of social psychological determinants.

3.3   Control of Discretion

In their book titled *The Police in the Community*, Miller and Hess (2002: 43) made the following declaration on the drawbacks of police discretion:

> *Officers usually work independently without*
> *direct supervision and have tremendous*
> *power to decide what action they will take,*
> *who they will arrest and which laws they will*
> *enforce. Unfortunately, some police officers*

> *may use their discretion illegally to obtain bribes or payoffs.*

If the police must operate efficiently and effectively and at a level where its public service morality can be relatively guaranteed and accepted by the public, the scenario described in the foregoing quote must be avoided. To achieve this, the following suggestions may be considered:

I.   Members of the police organisation should apply uniform standards in dealing with problems that bear the same basic characteristics. In other words, boundaries should be defined on the application of discretion, particularly, in reflecting the goals, priorities and operational philosophy of the police organisation. In this regard, clearly defined limits should be established for the police officers who frequently find themselves making decisions in precarious circumstances, so that they can handle similar cases with reasonable degree of objectivity (Goldstein: 112).

II.   Another strategy that could be effective for handling police indiscretion has to do with demanding compliance with formal policies and operational guidelines in order to apply the law uniformly. To this end most police organisations have regulations on the use of arms and ammunitions issued to patrol officers. In the situation of Nigeria, certain categories of officers are required to account for expended ammunitions issued to them for patrol purposes. According to Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 136) "these policies dramatically reduced the number of shootings of civilians by the police and reduced the number of officers shot by civilians."

III.   "Employee warning systems" have also been suggested as means for regulating improper use of discretionary authority or powers. These systems are automated and designed to alert the police organisation to data on high incidence in the application of force, pursuit of vehicles, sick leave, taking part in other important events or insignificant number of arrests or contacts with community members. The systems enable managers and supervisors of police officers to investigate pattens of irregular occurrences to which they (i.e. manager and supervisors) are sensitised (Rhyons and Brewster, 2002: 32-36).

IV.   In the final analysis, an effective strategy for controlling indiscretion ought to transcend mere obedience to established operational guidelines and social policies. It should basically bother on inculcating appropriate values in police officers. One of the major advocates of this school of thought contends that the control of discretion:

> *Depends only partly on sanctions and inducements; it also requires instilling in them a shared outlook or ethos that provides for them a common definition of situations they are likely to encounter and that, to the outsider, gives to the organisation its distinctive character or feel* (Wilson: 33).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Define police discretion and briefly describe the various dimensions of the subject matter.

4.0   CONCLUSION

An important lesson from this unit is that discretion has become an integral part of effective community policing due to the decision making nature of the policing process.

5.0   SUMMARY

Discretion indicates the choices available to police who are faced with situations, particularly, in which they have to make instant decisions. Discretion is exercised to arrest; forestall crime through random checks sometimes requiring resort to use of force. Police officers exercise discretion as a means of maximising the use of time and limited resources (material and human), selectively applying legislations, and others. Besides, the nature of the crime, relationship between the victim and suspect, social policies, attitudinal issues relating to the victims, and gender considerations, amongst others affect the use of discretion by police officers.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Describe discretion in your own words and mention some reasons that police officers apply discretion in Nigeria.
ii.   What are the legal considerations underlining the use of discretion by police officers?
iii.   To what extent does gender consideration affect the decision of police officers to arrest or apply other crime prevention measures?
iv.   How might discretion be effectively controlled?

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UNIT 5   POLICE AND PUBLIC ATTITUDE

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
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        3.2   Beliefs and Values
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1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit focuses on the meaning of police and public attitude and goes on to discuss the relationship between these subjects.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

-     define the concepts of public attitude
-     discuss beliefs and values associated with public attitude
-     assess public attitude towards the police.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   What is Public Attitude?

Public attitude describes the general disposition of people towards a particular subject that could be an individual or object or institution, such as the police with which we are concerned in this unit. From the layman's point of view, the concept of attitude is synonymous with an individuals' character. It is therefore not uncommon to hear people describe the attitude of other people as either good or bad and by this they generally refer to their character. Based on this layman's definition, one can say that the attitude of an individual derives largely from the norms, values, mores and cultural socialisation to which he/she has been exposed.

However, social scientists have offered several definitions on this subject, though, most of them have tended to place emphasis on certain

aspects in the treatment of the concept. According to Second and Beckman (1964), there are three main elements in the concepts of attitude, namely:

I.   The understanding that the shared belief in the object attitude is objective,
II.   The degree of favorable valuation attached to the object attitude, and
III.   Behaviour concerning people's reactions to the object attitude based on I and II.

Allport (1935) also contributed to understanding of the subject by defining attitude as "a neutral state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related." Attitude was also viewed by another scholar "as a learned orientation, or disposition toward an object or situation, which provides a tendency to respond favorably or unfavorably to the object or situation" (Rokeah, 1968). It is important to note that this learning could come to an individual through careful process of identifying and observing situations as they occur. Attitude was also defined as "a predisposition to act in a certain way towards some aspects of one's environment including other people" (Mednick, 1975). In their own contribution to the topic at issue, Kurt Backetel (1977: 240) portrayed attitude as "a predisposition towards any person, idea, or object that contains cognitive, affective and behavioral components."

Women and Jaboda (1973) state that " … attitudes have social reference in their origin and development and in their objects, while at the same time, they have psychological reference in that they inhere in the individual and are intimately enmeshed in his behavior and his psychological makeup". While Bem (1979) likens attitude to "likes and dislikes", Edwin Hollander (1976: 139) sees attitude as a "perceptual sets to respond to persons, things and events". In conclusion Clark, C.I.D (1985) considers attitudes as "a relatively enduring predisposition towards any character of a person, place or thing that is largely based upon one's belief and emotional feelings."

Some of the main features of these definitions are attitude:

•   is derive from the psychological state of an individual
•   has sociological orientation because it is based on social reference
•   deals with the response of individuals to objects, people, place, events etc
•   deals with the likes and dislikes of people

- can be very enduring because it is based on beliefs and emotions
- is conditioned by the perception of an individual
- expresses the "character of a person, place, or thing" and
- is usually preceded by an assessment.

3.2   Beliefs and Values

Beliefs consist of the non-evaluative knowledge of an individual's worldview which is hardly ever wholesome and precise in themselves. The main attributes of a belief is that it serves as linkage between an object and the attributes attached to it (Fishbeinand Ajzen, 1975). Thus, individuals requires certain value components to be able to transform beliefs that they nurture into action-oriented behaviors, which derive largely from their perception of what is good, valuable, desirable, worthwhile, etc.

On the other hand, **value** is made up of "belief upon which a man acts by preference" (Allport, 1935). Value is also thought of as "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite … mode of conduct" (Rokeah, 1968). This explains why beliefs usually come in thousands, compared to attitudes and values that come to people in hundreds and dozens respectively.

Rokeah stretches the discourse into the following types of values:

1.   Terminal Values which primarily refer to issues dealing with definition of an individual's ultimate objectives, idea of enjoyment, equality, wisdom, brotherhood and a settled mind (which they aspire for themselves), and
2.   Instrumental Values referring to a person's desirable qualities, e.g. philanthropy, intellectualism and capability, (which people aspire to as basis for acquiring the former).

In a concerted effort, Allport, Vernon and Lindsey (1951), presented the following classification of value predispositions to evaluate individuals in order of importance:

1.   Theoretical (truth) value
2.   Aesthetic (harmony) value
3.   Political (power) value
4.   Economic (usefulness) value
5.   Social (altruistic) value, and
6.   Religious (unity) value.

In conclusion, note that beliefs, attitude and values are mental constructs that may be inferred than observed.

3.3 Public Attitude towards the Police

Substantial amount of empirical studies have been conducted into public attitude towards the police and majority of these centre on the performance of the police organisation. In spite of the persistent accusation of resort to excessive force, corruption, rudeness, authoritarianism and political partisanship being leveled against the police organisation, scores of researchers have continued to discover the existence of reasonable support for the institution. However, Gaines et al (2003: 61) aver that "even though citizens support the police generally, this support is not uniform across all groups of people. Perhaps the best way to study and understand citizen support for the police is to study the levels of support across individual variables". According to other research findings, individual variables help in molding and describing the types and levels of assistance obtainable from a community. In addition to the individual variables (age, sex and personal experience) community variables (i.e. socioeconomic, neighborhood and chances of victimization) will also be examined here:

A.   **Individual Variables:** Variables in public attitudes toward the police include:

        I.   **Age** affects the predisposition of people to support the police. For instance, younger people tend to be less supportive of the police than older people (Hadar and Snortum, 1975; Smith and Hawkins, 1973). This is because young people regularly have negative relationships or contacts with police officers (Campbell and Schuman, 1973) leading to their low rating of the police on grounds of impartiality and competence (Walker, 1973), with young people under age of thirty three (33) years being more critical. Generally, young people express negative attitude toward the police for these reasons:

            •   Young people generally tend to resist arrest and be disrespectful to constituted authority because they attach more value to their desire for freedom. Therefore, they see simple routine traffic intervention as ploys to infringe on their rights/freedom of movement.

            •   Youths also get involved in more negative contacts with the police as observed by Smith and Hawkins

(1973) through traffic offences and see police as picking on them.

- The **aged** are more susceptible to crime and victimization and therefore have more positive attitudes toward the police. They are more afraid and see the police as their defenders in spite of criticisms that trail police services in communities. Thus, the aged participate/benefit more from programmes of crime prevention and community partnership undertaken by the police organisation (Zevitz and Rettammel, 1990).

II.   **Sex** is another significant individual variable that affects the predisposition of people to support the police. Women generally regard the police organisation more positively than the men though this hypothesis does not appear to have empirical backing. In two studies that were specifically designed to elicit the attitude of people towards the police, it was discovered that the variable of sex did not account for any significant difference in the attitudes of people toward the police organisation. To state this point more clearly, both studies found that there is no gender difference in attitudes towards the police (Campbell and Schuman, 1973; Smith and Hawkins, 1973).

B.   **Community Variables:** Community variables in attitudes are toward the police performance concerning how the police discharge their duties and treat people with whom they come in contact. It has been discovered that this is an important determinant of attitude towards the police organisation by citizens. Hadar and Snortum (1975) found that people who have had exposure to crime and experienced unsatisfactory treatment from the police have tended to expressed negative views toward the police organisation. A slightly negative view by Zamble and Annesley (1987) is, that people entertain the fear of being victimised does not mean that they do not necessarily have favorable attitudes toward the police organisation. Priest and Carter also found that aspects of the negative or positive attitudes that people express toward the police derive from the demeanor exhibited by police officers that respond to calls by citizens. To use the words of Gaines et al (2003: 64), "thus the important factor in attitude formulation is the interaction between the police officer and citizens - how well are citizens treated when they call the police".

C. **Neighborhood and socioeconomic determinants** are also important to community variables influencing the way society views the police. Kusow, Wilson and Martin (1997) found from their comparative study that urban residents tended to have less positive attitudes towards the police compared to those living the suburbs. Even when the factor of race was controlled for this view did not change. This conclusion was also arrived at by Reisig and Parks (2000) who found that people living in more comfortable neighborhood tended to have better views of the police than residents of less favorable neighborhood. In other words, these studies tended to confirm that social class was an important factor in the attitudes expressed toward the police by society.

In order for the police organisation to be able to enforce the law as effectively as possible or to the satisfaction of society strong public support is essential. This is basically for the fact that the police depend on citizens to provide them information and support when investigating crimes and other problems. The police must recognise this differential group support and develop initiatives to improve relations with all neighborhoods and community groups. All groups should be included because every group has a role to play in providing a safer community.

D. **Role of the Media in Generating Public Support:** Besides the little information from news bulletins and entertainment majority of people in society do not have different information about the activities of the police organisation. The entertainment industry basically portrays the police in contradictory terms; sometimes as being industrious and competent investigators that defend the community against criminal activities and at other times as a weak and incompetent organisation that is unable to discharge their basic crime fighting responsibilities without public support. The police are also frequently portrayed as being highly corrupt, authoritarian and supportive of criminal activities. Thus, whenever the police are positively depicted attempt is made to further qualify its exceptional officers as persons operating outside the norms of the police organisation (Bailey, 1993). Though, an average person can identify the difference between the movie fiction and real life situations these portrayals by the entertainment industry go a long way to shaping public perception and expectations from the police.

On the part of the media, they see themselves as discharging a responsibility to society; that of dispensing the truth and holding government accountable as objectively as possible. They consider

themselves as "reporting the news" and portraying the "social reality" of criminal activity and governance (Barak, 1994; Surette, 1992). Nevertheless, history has evidence that fresh meanings can be communicated when new items are interpreted and reported by the news media. The news media often take advantage of public fears and views to attempt to shape public policy whenever they report news through their media. Thus, "to do this effectively to the extent of achieving both higher rating and sales," the news media often resort to the strategy of sensationalism. Sensationalism is a strategy that focuses less on reporting the news but more on selling it through packaging aimed at obtaining sales maximization. Unfortunately, the strategy of sensationalism or news packaging often results in public apathy, distrust and insufficient understanding of the police organisation and its roles.

Fortunately, the police and the media work together. However, because of the importance of its mandate the police occupy large portions of the news. On a normal day, news generated by the police takes up as much as thirty percent of daily news reports in the media (Gleick, 1991). This is for the reason that crime news is relatively easier to write, broadcast and therefore more likely to be covered (Guyot, 1991). In this regard, Wilson and McLaren (1977) discovered that the following three areas are of interest of the media:

- Stories dealing with criminal activity that are sensational in nature or involve known residents of a local community,
- Feature news information dealing with police officers or programmes of the police organisation, and
- Stories dealing with police corruption, misconduct, brutality or illegal activities (e.g. arrest, roadblocks, etc).

The media are basically interested in reporting crime stories because they:

- have high public appeals and tend to be sensational e.g. brutal murder cases,
- tend to arouse high emotions and public interest,
- have the effect of educating the public on the current crime situation,
- encourage the citizens to adopt correct preventive measures,

- generate public support for the police because it helps to portray the difficulties associated with police work (Hallet and Powell, 1995).

Feature stories often generate public support for the police. Stories of this kind focus on police and their families, activities of the organisation and forthcoming programmes. These stories enable citizens to see the police as ordinary citizens and to understand the challenges they face on daily basis.

Stories based on police corruption and misconduct often attracts the interest of the public. Fortunately, the media pay reasonable attention to these kinds of stories because of their sensational nature. However, the police organisation believes that stories dealing with police corruption and misconduct should be handled internally and not through the media, thus considering the media involvement as an unwanted intrusion into the internal administration of the police organisation. While the police accuse the media of misrepresenting facts of police corruption and misconduct, the media in turn, accuse the police of hoarding relevant information. It is believed too that the police organisation is not forthright, deliberately withholding critical information and creating room for the media to suspect some form of cover-up in some cases. Thus, administrators ought to be honest and avoid jeopardizing pending criminal cases and the application of discipline. From an evaluation of the partnership between the police and media, Guffey (1992: 40) discovered the following complaints of the media:

i. The police are usually unwilling to release information
ii. Refusal of the police to accept lawful criticism offered by the media
iii. Deliberately withholding very sensitive information from the media
iv. The police often citing legal reasons for refusing to release information
v. Police unwillingness to cooperate when dealing with significant cases, and
vi. Police refusal to accept the media as part of the process of holding it accountable.

Guffey also came up with the following complaints of the police against the media:

I. Interference of the media in on-going investigations
II. Refusal of media to respect the privacy of victims

III.   Media refusal to accept the harmful impact of its report on the police, and

IV.   Practice of sensationalism by the media without authenticating its facts.

E.   **Improving Police-Media Partnership:** Guffey (1992) suggested the following measures to improve police-media partnership especially in preparing the police for fruitful media engagement:

I.   The responsibilities of dealing with the media should be the full-time task of a public information officer. The officer should be educated, articulate, and possess skills of dealing with people in stressful conditions. This officer should deal with media

II.   relations and be able to cope with public and media requests

III.   Reporters should be invited to partake in the ride-along activities of patrol officers. Such participatory activities should provide reporters with sufficient knowledge of the challenges of the police

IV.   All cadres of police officers should be trained in media relations; such as the media policies of each department and how to make presentations to the media. Because, by the nature of their jobs, many police officers face the media more frequently than they envisage and need capacity to do this proficiently

V.   Police should facilitate the legally prescribed information to the media without hindrances. Furthermore, information that does not threaten open cases should be provided as promptly as possible. Media access should equally be provided to police officers working on specific cases or involved in programmes

VI.   Police officers in charge of media relations and others in position of authority should conduct regular meetings with the media to intimate them with information relating to their roles and challenges

VII.   Heads of police organisation should regularly involve themselves in enlightment-orientened talk shows and programmes aimed at initiating and sustaining communication with the public

VIII.   The police department should issue accreditation to media practitioners as basis for ensuring that only legitimate reporters have access to police information, and

IX.   Public information officers of the police should be trained on how to manage conflict, because such skills will come with options for dealing with the media.

Furthermore, the police should have a clear media policy stating the kind of information that can be made available to the media. For instance, should information about juvenile offenders, sexual assault victims and other category of cases be released to the media?

The policy should specify how information on on-going cases will be scrutinised before its release and the procedure for generally releasing information in the police organisation.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Define public attitude and discuss the individual, community and media-related factors the influence it.

4.0   CONCLUSION

All stakeholders, namely; the individual, community, media, government, and the police have their roles to play to improve public attitude towards the police.

5.0   SUMMARY

Public attitude describes the general disposition of the public towards an object, in this case, the police with which we are concerned. Attitude is largely affected by the social psychological state of individuals/groups. Thus, public attitude towards the Nigeria police is influenced by individual variables such as age and sex, together with community variables such as police effectiveness, neighbourhood socioeconomic factors and the role of the media.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. Define public attitude and mention its main elements and characteristics.
ii. What are the individual and community variables affecting public attitude toward the police?
iii. Suggest the roles that the media can play to generate positive public attitude for the Nigeria police.
iv. What are the challenges besetting media-police partnership in Nigeria?

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MODULE 4   THE   POLICE,   CIVIL   RIGHTS, LIBERTIES AND ETHICS

Unit 1   Scope of Civil Rights and Liberties
Unit 2   Modern Police Officer: Goals and Operational Strategies
Unit 3   Policing: Courtesy, Impartiality, and Public Support
Unit 4   Police and Ethics
Unit 5   Understanding Police Stress

UNIT 1   SCOPE OF CIVIL RIGHTS AND LIBERTIES

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   Meaning of Civil Rights and Liberties
        3.2   Dimensions of Civil Rights
        3.3   Protection of Individual Liberty
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we shall explore the meaning of civil rights and liberties, dimensions of civil liberties and the protection of individual liberties.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

* define and explain the concepts of civil rights and liberties
* analyse the dimensions of civil liberties
* discuss strategies for the protection of individual liberty.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Meaning of Civil Rights and Liberty

Our discussions in this unit will be on the concept of civil liberty and civil right, the relatedness of the two concepts, and the characteristics of

civil rights which is largely included under the broad framework of civil liberty.

While the dictionary defines **civil rights** as the "non-political rights of a citizen; especially those guaranteed" by "the constitution", it describes **civil liberty** as the "freedom from arbitrary government interference specifically by denial of government power" (Merriam-Webster Dictionary).

The literature on human rights captures two schools of thought with respect to the origin of this subject matter. The first of these schools posits that human rights are the:

> *Rights conferred on men and women by virtue of their being human, created by God in His image. They are inalienable, inherent and cannot be separated from men and women since they are characteristics that make human beings true and authentic. Without them a human being becomes reduced to the animal stage* (Osita Ese, 1984).

In other words, as far as you are a human being, you have access to these rights and the denial of them reduces an individual to the status of an animal.

The second perspective views the subject from the perspective of the historical development of human society and the resultant evolution of social, cultural and political organisations in societies.

Human rights, though, basically indivisible can however be classified into the following categories for analytical purposes:

I.   **Legal Rights:** This category of rights consists of those that are recognised by the constitution of various countries. Legal rights may also be identified by the fact that they are usually processed into laws that are defendable in the court of law and constitution (written or unwritten) of a state. These rights or fundamental human rights are contained in chapter IV of the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria,

II.   **Moral Rights:** These are the category of rights that derive largely from the norms and values of society. These rights draw extensively from the ethical (rightness or wrongness) components of society and they often take deep roots in religious practices. The unique thing about moral rights is that they are not subject to interpretation in the court of law, implying that an individual

cannot sue or be sued on the basis of this category of rights. The virtue of truth that we teach to our children as parents is a classic example of moral rights,

III. **Natural Rights:** We had earlier referred to these as those rights that people enjoy by virtue of being human beings. These are the set of rights available to all human beings regardless of age, sex, complexion, language, religion, political affiliation, etc. Natural rights are commonly referred to as universal rights. For the purposes of emphasis all the nationals of a country, such as Nigeria, are entitled to them whether or not they are expressly enshrined in the constitution of the country. Natural rights, such as right to life, are considered to be superior to all forms of domestic/international laws.

For the same analytical purposes, human rights have been divided into collective (group) and individual rights. Individual rights basically consist of:

I. **Civil and Political Rights:** These consist of those rights that individuals can assert from the state concerning their freedom of action. Rights under this category include right to life, freedom of movement, association, thought, religion, expression, access to information, the right to vote solicit for votes, participate in political activity, the right to join trade union, etc.

II. **Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights:** Consisting of rights of individuals to be involved in social, economic, and cultural life of the society - they are also referred to as ECOSOC rights. These characteristically include the rights to work, shelter, education, food, healthcare, cultural practices, to own property, belong to trade union, freedom from gender discrimination, recreation, and reasonable standard of living to mention but a few. Unfortunately, most of these rights are not those for which you can sue any level (federal, state or local) of government in Nigeria,

III. **Collective or Group Rights:** These are the category of rights that are shared by the members of a community or society. Collective rights include the right to independence by colonised people, a nations right to harness and manage its natural resource endowment as it pleases, right of a state to develop at its pace, right to decent environment, freedom from environmental degradation and pollution, etc. (JDPC, 2001: 6-11).

3.2   Dimensions of Civil Liberty

Whenever the concept of liberty is used in socio-political discourses, it often applies to national and individual perspectives needing further clarifications. Therefore, while national liberty expresses concern for independence of the states, individual liberty speaks to "the faculty of willing and the power of doing what has been willed, without influence from any other source or from without" (Appadorai, 2004: 68). In reality, however, absolute liberty of this type is practically impossible, because it cannot be guaranteed by the state or absence of the state. Two basic facts of human nature on which politics stands are:

o   The tendency of every human being to have his/her way, and
o   The tendency of human beings to socialise.

According to Appadorai, liberty emphasises "the idea that freedom exists not only in the absence of restraint but also in the presence of opportunity." Thus, while the wealthy and powerful desires the form of liberty that does not have any kind of restraints to enable them use their means to satisfy their whims and caprices, those that are socially, economically, and politically disadvantaged desire the form of liberty that provide opportunities for them to achieve certain basic standard of living.

According to Laski, there are three recognisable levels of individual liberty, namely:

I.   **Private liberty** dealing with an individual's freedom of choices to advance his/her personal religious, security, and other aspirations,
II.   **Political or Constitutional liberty** dealing with an individual's right to participate in the electoral process as either a voter or political party candidate to be voted for, free speech, press, association, etc.
III.   **Economic liberty** dealing with job security through work, appropriate labour hours, remuneration and industrial governance.

Civil liberty embraces the framework of rights that are recognised by the legitimate power of the state. In the opinion of R. G. Gettel (1993: 148), "civil liberty consists of the rights and privileges which the state creates and protects for its subjects." These rights include, though not limited to the following:

I.   **The right to life:** This is the most basic right which serves as the bedrock upon which claims to all other rights is based. State

legislations against suicide and capital punishment are meant to protect this right to life. Contemporary debates on the issue of capital punishment by human rights and other organisations further confirm the sanctity attached to right to life,

II.   **The right to work:** This can, under normal circumstances, be separated from the right to life. Because, man "is born into a world where, if rationally organised, he can live only by sweat of his brow" (H. J. Laski, 1983). This right basically refers to that of providing some form of satisfaction (social services) to meet the demands of society rather than that of doing a specific type of job. Fortunately, this right is increasingly being recognised by national governments across the world through the formulation of annual budgets, development plans, and social policies aimed at boosting employment of its citizens as it obtains in Nigeria. Nevertheless, Nigeria is still a far cry from providing social security to its teeming unemployed in spite of its inability to generate employment for a large proportion. The situation in Nigeria is worsened by the fact that unemployment insurance has equally not gained foothold in this country,

III.   **Right to personal safety and freedom:** This right encompasses the opportunities that exist for an individual to enjoy his/her life without hindrance to her legs, body or health. In other words, it expresses ones personal desire to move from place to place at will and uninterrupted except by law. In this regard, it is only under the application of due process that this right may be withdrawn from an individual that commits an offence. To protect individuals from injuries caused by harmful substances and animals being kept by neighbours, slavery is outlawed in Nigeria and most nations of the world, while legitimate self-protection is admissible. For wrongful imprisonment the writ of habeas corpus is available as remedy in most national constitutions. Damages may be claimed for injuries sustained through the careless activities of another individual. Though, according to Holland, T. E. (1928: 170 - 174), this right is beset by two main limitations:

   •   The right of parents to chastise their children or under aged wards, especially, during their formative years, and
   •   When it is partially suspended for people to participate in legal contest of strengths.

IV.   **Right to reputation:** In the portrayal of T. E. Holland (op cit, 1982: 183 - 184), this right recognises that "a man has a right as, against the world, to his good name; that is to say, he has a right that the respect, so far as it is well founded, which others feel for him shall not be diminished, whether through uttered words, gestures or photographs." Therefore, the state protects this right

for an individual through legislation against defamation provided it can be proven that:

- the defamatory statement was uttered in the public,
- the statement is basically false, and
- the statement is not important to the public, such as "statement in the course of judicial proceedings ... fair reports of trials, legislative debates or public meetings, fair comments on public men and fair actions of literary and artistic productions are privileged."

V.   **Right to religious freedom:** In spite of the long time it took, through the sixteenth and seventeenth century era of heresy-related persecutions, this right has now been recognised by most modern states. This right is expressly recognised in chapter IV Section 38 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. On the basis of this constitutional provision, individuals may identify with any religion (Christianity, Islam, Traditional or others) of his/her choice notwithstanding the circular status of the Nigerian state. But more importantly, this right may be exercised subject to the fact that it does not jeopardise the peace of others,

VI.   **Freedom of education:** The importance of education as a veritable catalyst to complete human development, especially, in preparing individuals for functional citizenship responsibilities cannot be overemphasised. The educational objective of the state is stated in chapter II section 18 under the Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. However, the provisions of this section of the constitution cannot be used as basis for initiating legal actions against the Nigerian government when it fails to comply with them. The primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education in Nigeria are the respective responsibility of the local, state and federal government. Furthermore, the establishment and management of primary, secondary and tertiary educational institutions are also endorsed by social policy in Nigeria. The constitution equally subscribes to the need for even distribution of all levels of educational opportunities throughout the six geo-political zones of the country,

VII.   **Right to freedom of speech, public meeting and publication:** This captures the citizen's rights to speak, write and publish things that are not blasphemous, seditious, obscene, and defamatory to the reputation of others. It also includes the right to associate with others for legitimate purposes (W. D. Aston and P. Jordan, 1936: 42 - 43). Citizens opinion are significant because they are instrumental to:

- individual self-protection
- acquainting leaders with the genuine needs of their citizens

- ensuring that laws reflect the needs of the entire society rather than those of the wealthy and powerful, and
- creating an avenue for the development of open minds through learning.

Through the freedom of opinion individuals are able to participate in public debate as honestly as possible while avoiding libelous statements. Individuals also need to be conscious of avoiding statements that are capable of provoking or inciting public disorder or undermining the authority of government.

VIII. **The right to association:** In the contemporary Nigerian state, there are numerous social, political, religious, economic, and other group-oriented platforms that encourage associational life as provided for in chapter IV section 40 of the constitution of the federal republic of Nigeria. These associations that are largely voluntary offer huge opportunities for the formation of friendships, and the pursuit of careers to its members. According to Laski (1983: 116 - 121), these associations provide individuals with "a feeling that he has found himself a power of self-recognition that is an invaluable factor in the achievement of personal harmony.'' In line with what we learnt from the Johari window in an earlier unit, this right offers an individual the opportunity to deepen his/her understanding of others as basis for building the confidence to share more intimate information to deepen relationships with others.

IX. **Right to family:** Appadorai A. (2004: 76) describes this right as that which "results from the institution of marriage, and includes a man's marital right to the society of his wife and vice versa, and the custody and control of his children and to the produce of labour till they arrive at years of discretion." As with all marital unions they are brought to an end by death or divorce that may be achieved in the law courts, through mutual consent or in the traditional method of asking a spouse to leave the home to signal an end to a marriage. This right is guaranteed in chapter IV Section 37 of the Nigerian constitution.

X. **Right to property:** This deals with the right to acquisition and use of property in form of land, games, and how to use, dispose, or bequeath property, which is believed to add to the personality of individuals. As Laski argues, "if property must be possessed in order that a man may be his best self, the existence of such a right is clear." However, the right to property is beset by individual and social impediments.

XI. **Right to general benefits of social life:** This entails the following basic dimensions:
1. Right to the unhindered pursuit of an individual's means of livelihood

2.   Right to access and use of public roads, parks, libraries, etc.
3.   Right to access and use railway and postal services on payment of prescribed fees
4.   Right to approach and seek legal redress in court
5.   Right to use public health services within the laws of the land
6.   Right to access the services provided by the modern state and perform the following obligations to the state:
   a.   Obedience to the laws of the state
   b.   Prompt and regular payment of taxes to the state
   c.   Non-interference with the rights (freedom, security, reputation, property, etc.) of others
   d.   Accept invitation to participate in juries, when chosen
   e.   Show up as witnesses in court cases when called upon
   f.   Respect the law courts, and
   g.   Participate in compulsory military service.

3.3   Protection of Individual Liberty

For individuals to continue to enjoy their liberty, the following measures must be ensured:

a)   Provision of express laws recognising the liberty guaranteed by the state
b)   Independence of the judicial arm of government
c)   Existence of a democratic system of government
d)   Presence of indigenous self-governing institutions
e)   Declaration of fundamental human rights by the constitution, and
f)   Vigilance by individuals and whistle-blowing organisations.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Define civil and human rights and highlight the following issues:

i.   The perspectives on human rights
ii.   Collective and individual rights
iii. The dimensions of civil liberties, and
iv.   Measures for the protection of civil liberties

4.0   CONCLUSION

A common thread that runs through this unit is that human rights are fundamental to the expression of the full capacities that are inherent in people as individuals and in associational life activity.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we learnt that while civil rights consist of the nonpolitical rights of people that are enshrined in the constitution of state, civil liberties refers to freedom from the arbitrary tendencies of government. Furthermore, we described human rights as those available to people by virtue of being human and identified other form of rights that emerged from man's increasing sophistication in the organisation of society. The unit recognised that human rights are indivisible but classified them into legal, moral, and natural rights for the purposes of convenience. Human rights were also categorised into collective and group rights such as; civil and political rights, economic, social and cultural rights, as well as, collective or group rights. Under our discourses of the dimensions of civil liberty, we pointed out two basic facts of human nature on which politics rest, namely: the tendency for man to want to have his way and the tendency to socialise. The unit also identified Laski's classification of three levels of individual liberties (private liberty, political/constitutional liberty, and economic liberty) before we summed up with the scope of civil liberties (e.g. rights to; life, work, personal safety/freedom, reputation, religion, education, speech, public gathering, publication, association, family, property, and benefits of social life) and the protection of individual liberties.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   What is human and civil rights and what are the two broad perspectives on human rights?
ii.   What are the distinctions between collective and group rights?
iii.   Describe the two basic facts about human nature and the three recognisable levels of individual liberty.
iv.   Draw up a list of civil liberties available to man and discuss how their continued enjoyment can be assured.

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UNIT 2   MODERN POLICE OFFICER: GOALS AND OPERATIONAL STRATEGIES

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
        3.1   Background
                3.1.1   Policing Goals and Objectives
        3.2   Police Operational Strategies
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we shall concentrate on the goals and objectives of policing and examine the operational strategies of the police.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

•   describe the goals and objective of policing
•   explain the operational strategies of the police.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Background

In an earlier unit, we discussed the concept of policing and attempted to explain their roles through the lenses of:

a)   crime-fighting
b)   order maintenance, and
c)   provision of social services to the community.

In this unit we shall deepen our understanding of the police organisation by examining its goals and objectives together with its operational strategies with reference to the roles of the modern police officer.

3.1.1 Policing Goals and Objectives

The contemporary police organisation that we are familiar with has passed through several evolutionary phases - from the traditional to the modern. In the course of this evolution, research based on these associates two levels of goals and objectives with the modern police officer, namely:

I.   **The Primary Goals and Objectives:** Under the primary goals and objectives, Sheehan and Cordner (1995) came up with the idea that the maintenance of law and order together with the protection of lives and properties are the key objectives of the police. Without doubts, these are fundamental responsibilities of government which it (i.e. government) established the police organisation to carry out on its behalf.

Thus, in order for the police organisation to carry out this basic role, it inevitably performs several other associated functions. According to Siegel and Senna (2005), "Police are expected to perform many civic duties that, in earlier times, were the responsibility of every citizen." Some of these roles include keeping the peace, performing emergency medical care, and dealing with civil emergencies, which have been left to the police in most contemporary societies. Although, most of us agree that a neighbourhood brawl must be broken up, that shelter must be found for the homeless family must be found shelter, or the drunk taken safely home, few of us wish to jump personally into the fray; we rather "call the cops."

As we saw earlier, the police are the only organisation that possesses legitimate power to apply discretion, which may explain why people call them into the kind of situations described above. Because, some of the situations may degenerate into those that require the application of discretion.

II.   **Secondary Goals and Objectives:** According to Sheehan and Cordner (*op cit*), the following six goals and objectives are secondary to the above primary objectives. These secondary goals and objectives which the police organisations pursue for the purpose of achieving the primary objectives are:
a.   crime prevention
b.   arrest and prosecution of offenders
c.   recovery of stolen and missing properties
d.   rendering support to the sick and injured
e.   enforcement of non-criminal regulations, and

      f.   delivering services that are in short supply in the community.

The police discharges its crime prevention function by attempting to create an impression of omnipresence or of being almost everywhere at the same time. This sense of omnipresence is fostered through its statutory patrol functions, response to calls from community residents to attend to situations that are potentially crime-oriented, and setting up and getting involved in relationships that are designed to avert crimes.

The police also arrest offenders and partake in supporting prosecutors in raising charges against offenders as a basic strategy for maintaining law and order as well as protecting lives and properties within the community.

The police organisation also serves as a place to which lost but found items are returned. When this happens it is the responsibility of the police to locate the owner of such recovered items. In the advent of failing to find the owner, the items are kept in safe custody until the owners come for it. Thus, people who lose their properties tend to visit the police to check believing that it may have been found and deposited at the police station. But, it may be mentioned that this tradition has not taken deep root in Nigeria due to the relatively fragile nature of police community partnerships in this country.

It can easily be argued that the police are the closest organisation to the problems experienced in society, because they are available around the clock everyday and are relatively mobile. In some parts of the world, the police is the first organisation that is invited to evaluate people who are ill or injured before an ambulance is called to evacuate affected persons to the hospital. In other words, the police are often called to render support in emergency response situations as paramedical officials.

Where other regulatory personnel are not available or are completely absent, it is the police that is often invited to manage all the non-criminal issues that crop up within the community. Some of these non-criminal issues include parking, traffic, and liquor related regulations amongst others.

The police organisation is the only one that is available to serve the community around the clock, especially, when all other departments of government have closed for the day's business. They patrol as the representatives of government and in the

process render assistance to the people that cannot be handled by anyone else. Dempsey and Forst (2008: 127) sum of the availability of the police in these words:

> *When the light goes off in an apartment building, people call the police. When water main breaks, people call the police. When your neighbour's dog barks all night and keeps you awake, who do you call at 3:00am in the morning? The police respond and take whatever action they can to ameliorate problems and to deal with emergency. They direct traffic, evacuate residents, and decide who to call for assistance.*

3.2   Police Operational Strategies

Researchers on the various aspects of the police organisation have made attempts to identify what is now popularly referred to as police operational strategies or styles. In its basic form an operational strategy or style is a meaningful approach to evaluating the functions and behaviour of the police. But, it must be stated here that, in practice, it is difficult to find an officer that operates exclusively within the framework of a single style without borrowing from another. In other words, most police officers tend to exhibit the features of several styles at the same time (as shown in figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2:   The Police Role, Operational Styles, Styles of Policing, Policing Ideals.

The Police Role	Styles of Policing
Crime fighting (law enforcement)	Jane Q. Wilson
or	Watchman Style
Order Maintenance (peacekeeping)	Legalistic Style
Police Operational Style	Service Style
Larry J. Siegel and Joseph J. Senna	Policing Style
Crime Fighter	Claudia Mendias and
	E. James Kehoe
Social Agent	
Law Enforcer	Law Enforcement
Watchman	Peace Maintenance
John J. Broderick	Procedural Compliance
Enforcers	Protagonist Compliance
Idealists	
Realists	
Optimists	
William Muir	

Professional
Enforcer
Reciprocator
Avoider

Source: Dempsey and Frost, (2008: 129). *Introduction to Policing*.

In their concerted research effort, Siegel and Senna (2005: 211) reviewed other empirical studies that have attempted to conceptualise and categorise the operational strategies of the police into behavioural patterns or clusters. Through this categorisation they attempted to subsume police officers into predesignated groups on the basis of approach to their duties. The purpose of this categorisation was to test the hypothesis that police officers are not a "cohesive or homogenous group" as it is being portrayed to outsiders, but made up of people with diverse approaches to their duties. Based on their findings these authors presented the following four styles or typologies of police operations:

I.   **The Crime Fighter:**   The strategies of the crime fighter consist of investigating very serious crimes and arresting criminals,
II.   **The Social Agent:** The social agent undertakes several kinds of tasks or activities without being concerned about the relevance of these tasks to law enforcement in the strict sense,
III.   **The Law Enforcer:**   Strictly enforcing the law according to the rule book, no addition and no subtraction, and
IV.   **The Watchman:**   These are police officers that are committed to maintenance of public order.

Another significant contribution to this subject matter is that of Broderick J. John (1987) who also developed his observations into four police operational approaches, namely:

I.   **Enforcers:** These are police officers, who are primarily concerned with maintaining order, protecting and keeping society safe by arresting criminals in their beats
II.   **Idealists:** These category of police officers operate essentially like enforcers except that they additionally place emphasis on respect for the individual rights and compliance with due process
III.   **Realists:** Police officers in this category ascribe low value to human right and maintenance of social order; instead, they are basically concerned with issues of police loyalty and mutual assistance to fellow police officers, and
IV.   **Optimist:** Police officers in this category esteem individual rights and see their duties as opportunity to serve humanity rather than control crime.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What are the basic distinctions between the goals/objectives of policing and the operational strategies that you studied in this unit?

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, we examined the goals and operational strategies of the modern police officers and discovered that while the broad goals of ensuring a safe society do not differ from that of the traditional police, the modern police appear to be more systematic and professional.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit on the goals and operational strategies of the modern police officer commenced with consideration of the primary (law and order maintenance and protection of lives and properties) and secondary (crime prevention, arresting and prosecuting offenders, service delivery, etc.) goals and objectives of modern policing. Then we looked at the roles of the police and the corresponding styles that the police uses to carry out these roles in society and the virtues (intellectual and moral) of good police officers, before concluding with typologies (the law enforcement, peace maintenance, procedural compliance, and protagonist) of policing.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   What are the goals and objectives of policing?
ii.   Mention and discuss the operational strategies that you will recommend as consultant to the Nigeria Police Force.
iii.   Write short notes on the following:
    a.   The watchmen style
    b.   The legalistic style, and
    c.   The service style.
iv.   Mention and explain:
    a.   The virtues of good police officers, and
    b.   Four typologies of policing.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 POLICING: COURTESY, IMPARTIALITY AND PUBLIC SUPPORT

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will be introduced to the meaning and various dimensions of courtesy, impartiality and public support.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- state the meaning of courtesy, impartiality, and public support
- explain the dimensions of impartiality
- list the implications of courtesy and impartiality for public support to policing.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Courtesy, Impartiality and Public Support

Courtesy and impartiality are concepts that have been extensively engaged in describing both the verbal and behavioural expectations of people who engage in social interaction, no matter the circumstances and nature of the interaction in question. An individual or organisation,

such as the police that is associated with the virtue of courtesy and impartiality, is very likely to earn the confidence and support of the society in which it is so identified. In the rest of this unit, you will be introduced to the; meaning of courtesy and impartiality, the central characteristics of these concepts, and their implications for public support to the police.

3.1.1 Courtesy

Wikipedia acknowledges that the concept of courtesy is of French origin, "courteis", dating to as far back as the twelfth century basically refers to polite and courtly conducts. It explains further that courtesy describes the etiquette and good behavior that is fed into sophisticated conversation and intellectual skill (Dominic Head).

Wikipedia also traces this concept to an Indian word, *daksinya*, expressing "kindness and consideration … in a sophisticated and elegant way" (Daud Ali). In the same vein, another electronic dictionary source (http://Dictionary.reference.com) identifies attributes such as excellent, polite, considerate, courteous, and respectful social behaviours together with indulgence and consent to communicate the meaning of this concept.

It may therefore not be out of place to say that courtesy involves the consistent demonstration of an excellent etiquette or predisposition, particularly, toward assisting people (strangers and regular residents) to either accomplish tasks, such as finding their bearing around a community or observing simple parking regulations before they are contravened out of ignorance. In other words, a courteous individual is characteristically other-directed to the extent that he/she always has consideration for the welfare of others, which then implies that, to a very large extent, courtesy originate from individuals with high principles of morality and compassion towards others that are in need. It equally embraces the attitude of taking initiative of seeking out people and rendering unsolicited assistance to them at all times.

Another definition that shares the features of most of the foregoing looks at courtesy as excellence in social behaviour and mannerism, which encompasses the act of expressing respect, especially through lending a helping hand, dishing out favour and being generous toward others. We conclude this definition by stating that courteous people tend to exhibit loyalty, urbanity and civility including politeness and courtliness (http://www.blurtit.com; and http://thinkexist.com/dictionary/meaning/courtesy).

3.1.2 Characteristics of Courtesy

From the foregoing definitions and illustrations, it can be seen that courtesy is a subject matter that is applicable to virtually every situation in which people come into contact, enabling individuals that are endowed with courtesy to express themselves. Courteous people therefore exhibit the following characteristic behaviour:

i.   always other-directed, going all-out to assist others
ii.   habitually take the initiative of looking for people to whom they render unsolicited assistance
iii.   exhibit genuine sincerity while assisting others
iv.   always willing to assist and derive satisfaction from helping others
v.   by their acts of courtesy they promote both their positive self-image and that of the organisation for which they work
vi.   they instigate optimism and belief in the sub-systems in the society
vii.   courteous people also come across as possessing:
   - the qualities of vigilance enabling them to identify people who are in need
   - good listening qualities which enable them to render appropriate assistance
   - excellent communication skills with the right tonalities enabling people to easily believe and trust them
   - they tend to be very knowledgeable, and
   - always friendly.

3.2   Impartiality

To a layman, impartiality refers to being forthright, just and unbiased in presiding over competitive events or settling disputes at any level that may include court cases or minor disagreements between siblings of the same parents. It is a term that therefore describes the action of an individual who is saddled with the responsibility of applying his/her discretion to arrive at judgments, which is similar to the situation police officers often find themselves either at the scene of crime or when invited to maintain order in the community. To be truly impartial therefore, an arbiter has to be sufficiently open-minded to enable all the parties to an issue to present their respective opinions without intimidation. Now, let us consider this concept beyond the layman's viewpoint.

In Megan Furi's work that focused on public service impartiality: *Taking Stock* (2008: 6), he applied this concept to the process of public policy formulation by stating that:

Impartiality recognises that, for desired expectations and outcomes, various opinions deserve consideration in the policy process. This perspective recognises that ministers require thoughtful and credible advice covering a range of aspects related to the public interest. It also recognises that citizens and taxpayers deserve services and policies that place the public interest ahead of the personal and ideological preferences of public servants. In practice, impartiality often requires public servants to refrain from opinions, positions or actions that demonstrate a bias toward or against a particular cause or course of action, including the defense of government policies. In analyzing options, public servants will consider the best evidence-based knowledge. They will base their recommendations on the desired outcomes and implement the decisions lawfully taken by ministers, even if these decisions differ from the advice or recommendations provided. A politically impartial public service supports the government of whichever political party the electorate chooses.

There are two amongst other fundamental facts that must be underlined in this submission on impartiality by Megan Furi. The first is that all opinions or perspectives on an issue must be exhaustively considered before taking a position if you are to be impartial. The second is that once a position is taken that decision should be implemented with high level of commitment and professionalism rather than subjecting it to further scrutiny or criticism.

Wikipedia states that impartiality is the purported principle of <u>justice</u> holding that decisions should be based on <u>objective criteria</u>, rather than on the basis of <u>bias</u>. In this definition, the principles of justice and objectivity are clearly earmarked as values that must be observed on the path to impartiality. Wikipedia also captured the philosophical, moral and religious dimensions to this subject for us to appreciate:

A consideration of the **philosophical view** reveals that impartiality does not require, however, that individuals be treated equally under all circumstances. People or groups *should* be treated differently if they *merit* different treatment according to external and <u>objective morality</u>. For example, most legal systems seek to treat murderers differently than innocent persons. This is not a result of partiality, however, because it appeals to an external, objective standard—the <u>law</u>—rather than <u>bias</u> or <u>prejudice</u>. As you may have noticed, this perspective equally identifies strongly with objectivity, however, in relational context, which it refers to as an "external and objective morality" (Dworkin, R. 1977: 227).
Though, **moral philosophers** under the **"partialists"** school of thought argue that partiality can be "morally admirable", such as that which is embedded in commitment to your "spouse, family and country",

"impartialists" believe that such loyalties are not morally admirable, arguing that all people should be treated equally regardless of one's relation to them." Yet, "a third view holds that impartiality is only necessary when an individual acts in a certain capacity, such as that of a judge, an umpire, or a public official. Under this view, impartiality is not a universal moral imperative.

What the partialists fail to understand, which the impartialists clearly brought into focus is that human conduct is dictated by the norms, values, mores, culture, and even social policies prevalent in our society - which is essentially true whether it concerns our commitment to spouse, family, and nation or the treatment of people of all description with a sense of equality. It is in this context that the third view reminds us that we should be mindful while acting out our roles as judges and umpires because the society is also waiting to pass verdict on our verdicts, based on societal standards.

The subject of impartiality has also been comprehensively dealt with by the two major religions in Nigeria:

Some of the views of the Christian religion on the subject of impartiality may be found in Colossians, and the epistles of James cited hereunder:
"But he that doeth wrong shall receive for the wrong which he hath done: and there is no respect of persons." - Colossians 3:25, KJV

"My dear brothers and sisters, how can you claim that you have faith in our glorious Lord Jesus Christ if you favour some people more than others? For instance, suppose someone comes into your meeting dressed in fancy clothes and expensive jewellery, and another comes in who is poor and dressed in shabby clothes. If you give special attention and a good seat to the rich person, but you say to the poor one, 'You can stand over there, or else sit on the floor' - well, doesn't this discrimination show that you are guided by wrong motives? Listen to me, dear brothers and sisters. Hasn't God chosen the poor in this world to be rich in faith? Aren't they the ones who will inherit the Kingdom he promised to those who love him? And yet, you insult the poor man! Isn't it the rich who oppress you and drag you into court? Aren't they the ones who slander Jesus Christ, whose noble name you bear? Yes indeed, it is good when you truly obey our Lord's royal command found in the scriptures: 'Love your neighbour as yourself.' But if you pay special attention to the rich, you are committing a sin, for you are guilty of breaking that law." - Epistle of James 2:1-9, NLT.
"But the wisdom that comes from heaven is first of all pure; then peace-loving, considerate, submissive, full of mercy and good fruit, impartial and sincere." - Epistle of James 3:17, NIV.

Islam also emphasises the practice of justice, equity, and equality among people in the Quran:

"The Absolute Criterion of Justice and Equity, was sent down by Allah so that people may conduct themselves with equity." Quran, 52:25.

"Establish weight with justice and fall not short in the balance. Maintain the balance with fairness and justice, without differentiating anybody's rights and obligations." Quran 55:9.

Impartiality is not in the consideration of God because He will deal with you according to your deeds and not your social status. The love of God is without discrimination. Allah also recommends fairness, justice and equity to humanity without differentiating the rights and obligation to people on the basis of social categorisation.

In conclusion, "being impartial means not imposing or making known your own personal judgment or cultural values or not projecting personal bias or beliefs" (http://deborahsacharoff.com/impartiality.html).

3.2.1 Essentials of Impartiality

The following are the five essential components of impartiality:

i.   Precision or Accuracy: Any judge or umpire who gives in to partiality can hardly arrive at precise or accurate decisions. More often than not, partiality leads to inaccuracy

ii.   Evenhandedness or Fairness: Prejudice, favouritism or unfairness is the main reasons for impartiality. An unfair minded judge or umpire will hardly see evidence tendered before him/her from an objective perspective and therefore cannot usually arrive at objective decisions

iii. Sense of Balance: This is one of the most important elements of impartiality because in its absence one party is likely to receive a biased judgment

iv.   Environmental Context: In order to arrive at an accurate decision you have to patiently consider all the available input relating to the matter being discussed. In the absence of this kind of detailed consideration the decision of an individual is likely to be inaccurate

v.   No conflicts of interests: Individuals that have a stake or interest of any kind in an issue should opt out of the position of decision making should they find themselves there. Should they fail to do this the apparent conflict of interest will affect their decisions for everyone to see. Basically, impartiality can hardly be achieved when an arbiter is not completely independent.

3.2.2 Characteristics of Impartiality

From what we have discussed so far, the following characteristics of impartiality can be identified:

i.   judgment that is devoid of the personal values or bias of the judge or umpire
ii.   consideration of available options, opportunities, and perspectives on an issue before arriving at decisions
iii.   implementing decisions conscientiously without attempting to impute your own values or criticism midstream
iv.   assisting with information that will enable others arrive at the correct decision
v.   objectively assessing facts as they are
vi.   being truthful, fair and honest with your decisions
vii.   being transparent for everyone to see that your decision was based on clear patterns that can be replicated
viii.   not attempting to force your view on other people
ix.   ensuring that you are as neutral as possible
x.   avoiding conflict of interest as much as practicable, and
xi.   avoiding incidence of prejudgment as much as possible.

3.2.3 Discourteous Police Conducts

Some examples of discourteous police conducts include the following:

i.   intimidation of motorist at checkpoints to extort money
ii.   beating up unarmed civilians on the street
iii.   talking rudely to members of the public
iv.   unnecessarily dispersing civil gathering and rallies
v.   driving against traffic while not in pursuit of any criminal
vi.   abuse of the use of siren or its ethics
vii.   undisciplined behaviour such as alcohol consumption and smoking while in uniform
viii.   conducting illegal arrests, especially when not on duty,
ix.   erecting illegal checkpoints
x.   sexually abusing prostitutes and ladies arrested during night beats
xi.   effecting arrest without warrants for cases that are essentially domestic and without threats to life
xii.   stopping and searching individuals without first greeting and explaining their mission
xiii.   forcefully eliciting confessional statement from suspects through torture
xiv.   locking up awaiting trial suspects into the same cells as hardened criminals
xv.   discriminatory treatment of the affluent and the less affluent

xvi.   extra-judicial killings or summary execution of suspects
xvii.   gender discrimination in denial of the right to bail to women
xviii. manipulating or planting evidence to implicate suspects, etc.

3.2.4 Impartial Police Conducts

Some examples of impartial police conducts include:

i.   Dealing with various categories of offenders according to the respective criminal regulations without recourse to social status or relationship
ii.   Insisting on uniform standards in admitting sureties without gender discrimination
iii. Distributing police officers into the entire community without considering the social and economic status of people living in certain neighbourhoods. For instance, Abuja, Ikoyi, Ajegunle, and Koko should have equal police presence
iv.   Insistence on the practical application of due process in all ramifications of police duties
v.   Effecting arrests and searching residential/office premises after obtaining and presenting legal warrants to occupants for these purposes
vi.   Exercising utmost politeness while approaching, stopping and searching vehicles in course of routine police duties,
vii. Responding to emergency callers politely and explaining the challenges besetting the kind of response being expected by the public if necessary
viii. Promptly investigating and charging cases of offenders to court without infringing on their fundamental human rights through delayed prosecution
ix.   Preserving exhibits obtained from members of the public without manipulating same to deliberately obtain judgments against those charged to court by the police
x.   Prosecuting cases fairly without obtaining gratification from one party in order to bear false witness
xi.   Arrests and settlement of disputes by the police should be accomplished objectively or impartially, especially, without creating room for manipulated decisions by friends and relations,
xii. Confidential management of public information relating to criminal activity
xiii. Regularly enlightening the public in order to familiarise them with all aspects of police procedures, etc.

3.3 Implications of Courtesy and Impartiality for Public Support to Policing

Courtesy and impartiality will impart on public support to the police for the following reasons. Courtesy and impartiality:

i.   is capable of generating support to the police through increased public confidence

ii.   will generate increased support and participation in police-community relations and policing

iii.   will definitely boost the amount of information required by the police to fight crime and maintain law and order in communities,

iv.   ensure that people are able to come forward to proffer practical suggestions to revive the police organisation

v.   should direct public support to a police organisation that deals objectively with issues rather than accepting gratifications to influence decisions

vi.   would enable public support to a police organisation that uses standardised measures to deal with offender while arresting charging them to court and generally witness for or against them,

vii.   will ensure public support for a police organisation that respond politely to emergency calls and obtains the necessary legal documentation prior to effecting arrest

viii. should direct support to a police that insist on due process for everybody in the community without discrimination.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Define courtesy and impartiality and explain the relationship of these concepts to public support for the police.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Courtesy and impartiality can go a very long way to boosting public support to the police organisation and its offices if conscious efforts are made to put them into practice.

5.0 SUMMARY

Courtesy attends to the quality of being polite, considerate, humane, respectful, etc, while being other-directed, initiative, and sincerity are some characteristics associated with it. On the other hand, impartiality relates to being forthright, just, unbiased, etc, which is associated with such characteristics like objectivity, faithfulness, transparency, consideration, etc. Courtesy and impartiality are also associated with public support to the police through the public confidence, even-

handedness, openness, non-discrimination, standardised measures, etc, that is assured by these processes.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Define courtesy some of its main characteristics.
ii.   Mention and explain the main elements of impartiality.
iii.   Discuss the extent to which courtesy and impartiality can contribute to public support to the Nigeria police.
iv.   Write short notes, using practical examples, on the following:
      a.   The religious notions on impartiality
      b.   Discourteous police conducts

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UNIT 4   POLICING AND ETHICS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit deals with the; concept and essentials of ethics, the law versus order dilemma, dimensions of unethical police behaviours, and the approaches to managing corruption.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

* define ethics and its essential features
* explain the law versus order dilemma facing the police
* describe the dimensions of unethical police conducts
* discuss approaches to managing police corruption.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Concept of Ethics

There appears to be extensive understanding regarding the propriety of human conduct that the concept of ethics embraces across disciplines. The following three definitions of the subject matter drive this point home emphatically:

According to the Merriam Webster's Dictionary, "ethics is discipline dealing with good and evil and with moral duty: moral principles or practice." Dempsey and Forst (2008: 197) similarly define ethics "as the study of what constitute good or bad conduct." They explain further that

"the term is often interchanged with morals, which is understandable because they come from similar root meanings pertaining to behavioural practices or character." They added the emphasis of Joycely J. Pollock (2004: 70) that:

> *Applied ethics is concerned with the study of what constitute right and wrong behaviour in certain situation. Basic ethics are the rather broad moral principles that govern all conduct, whereas applied ethics focuses these broad principles upon specific situations. For example, a basic ethical tenet assumes that lying is wrong, and applied ethics would examine under what conditions such a wrong would occur.*

Ethics clearly situates within the context of human excessive and defective responses to circumstances or challenges presented by life itself. These circumstances often elicit "character traits" or typical ways of individual responses that occur between the excessive and defective behaviours in people's character that is appreciated. Dempsey and Forst reported that Aristotle listed courage, self control, generosity, high-mindedness, gentleness, truthfulness and modesty" as elements of this appreciable character. Last but not the least, Appadorai, A. (2004: 9) defines ethics as:

> *A branch of study which investigates the laws of morality and formulates rules of conduct. It deals with rightness or wrongness of man's conduct and the ideals towards which man is working. What is the basis of moral obligation? What do we mean by right action? How are we to distinguish a right action from a wrong one? These are some of the questions with which ethics concerns itself.*

Ethics-related capacity building is increasingly becoming an integral aspect of modern community policing because police officers whose operations are guided by ethical principles are believed to instigate confidence and trust, which does not occur from the operations of unethical police operations. In other words, training in ethics is thought to enhance the service delivery capabilities of the police organisation (Michelle, A. Mortensen and Michael Cortrites, 2003). The study of ethics is therefore recommended to police officers for the following amongst other reasons (Joycelyn M. Pollock, 2004: 5):

i.   Police officers apply reasonable amount of discretion while working and during law enforcement,

ii. Police officers basically protect the constitutional measures that forms the bedrock of our society, due process and equity/equality, and

iii. As public servants, police officers ought to exhibit exemplary or trustworthy behaviour.

However, the average police officer's ability to insist on ethical conduct during his/her regular operation is complicated by judicial guidelines that are increasingly sensitive to human rights and civil liberties together with the complex operational modalities of criminals, which could increase the police officer's inclination towards unethical conduct. In general terms, the police department and police officers are highly rated and appreciated by society (Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics online, 2006).

Nevertheless, the police is still essentially set back by officers that involve themselves in deviant behaviour for reasons that researchers have attempted to interpret to either police subculture or individual conducts of the officers involved in misconducts (Joycelyn M. Pollock, *op cit*: 149). Against this background, some of the measures being suggested to resolve the issue of police deviance include; proper selection techniques, compulsory periodic counseling and supervisors who are proactive in terms of taking prompt actions to resolve potential challenges.

3.1.1 Essentials of Ethics

Ethical behaviours are generally characterised by the following essential elements (Villiers Peter, 1997: 29 – 45):

I. **Concern with what is right or wrong:** The fact that ethics primarily focuses on the extent to which human behaviour is right or wrong is a theme that has been well expressed in all the concepts cited in this unit. Police officers whose roles are guided by high ethical standards are those that apply rules and regulations without prejudice. They do not demand or accept gratifications for carrying out their legitimate duties and do not discriminate in the choice of people or neighbourhood to which they render services.

II. **Concerned with Courage:** Ethical issues generate a lot of controversies and often lead to dilemmas that are not trivial. Villiers wrote that "they arouse controversy. People may argue passionately for one solution or another. Look at the debate about abortion in the United States. Adopting and sticking to a position may make you unpopular, ostracised, unemployed, imprisoned, tortured or dead. It may make you admired or loved." Therefore,

whenever a police officer is confronted with certain kind of situations, say the operations of a deadly (well armed) criminal gang, he/she needs courage, not recklessness which Aristotle said is not a virtue. The kind of courage that is required is physical and sometimes moral courage. Villiers explained further that:

> *The person who faces physical danger may have had time to prepare himself to face it, in which case his body may have produced adrenalin to raise his energy and confidence in the expectation of violent effort; but adrenalin is neither necessary nor sufficient for the manufacture of courage. The truly courageous person is he or she who can calmly and level-headedly face up to danger, having considered the possibilities and being prepared to risk or sacrifice himself either to save others or simply to carry out his duty.*

These are the kind of heroism that the jobs of police officers demand on daily basis. The service requires its officers to display quiet, steadfast resolution in the face of danger everyday: but it is not usually the sort to display which leads to citations and medals.

III.   **Concern with fundamental beliefs and values:** Police officers ought to believe in the ethics of the police organisation and raise it to the level of values to which they aspire. That is, they ought to be seen or perceived by society as guiding their actions with certain values that are responsible for their uniformly high moral standards.

IV.   **Concern with Consistency:** Police officers have to demonstrate consistency in their behaviour at all time. Police officers that act in a particular way against criminal behaviour in community A should apply or reproduce the same action in other communities when the same type of criminal activity occurs. The main benefit of consistency is that "it does offer predictability and allow for organised social life" (Villiers, 1997: 42).

V.   **Concern with reciprocity:** This principle of reciprocity is very important because it recognises mutual respect and actions. However, it does not rule out the fact that one's choice of action could sometimes be arbitrary or the fact that one seldom knows how he prefers to be treated.

VI.   **Concerned with universality:** An ethically driven police officer will apply the same solutions to the same category of challenges or problems.

VII.   It is neither relative nor absolute: Ethics is concerned with living by the value judgments that we make. It implies "that we have the right to make choices for ourselves, but not to criticise the choices of others, nor attempt to influence their behaviours". Thus ethical decisions are based on individual preferences that may coincide with the preferences of others. Basically, one person's choice is not superior to other people's choices. In other word, choices are relative and not absolute. To state it in another way, ethical choices could be culturally relative, meaning that it could vary from one culture to another.

3.2   The Law versus Order Dilemma

Incidents of brutality and corruption have been associated with policing from time immemorial. In this regards, some form of conflicts have always been noticed around the law and order maintenance functions of the police (Frank Schmalleger, 2001: 18). It will ideally be easier to maintain law and order under situations where all police officers are physically stronger than criminals, in which case it would be very easy for the police to put all criminals under check for society to be safe. However, this situation is inadmissible because it would lead to outright chaos or disorder which the police seek to maintain or enforce. Police officers are confronted with ethical dilemma on daily basis and these require that they apply discretion more often than envisaged. The situation that brings about the application of discretion differs from day to day and this also influences the decision to arrest. In the word of Dempsey and Forst (2005: 199), "officers have to weigh many variables and sometimes contemplate accomplishing the most good for the greatest number of people. Whenever they do this, they are open to questioning and criticism. If they considered the wrong factors (race, ethnicity, ability to gain influence, payoffs) in making decision, they could be on the slippery slope of corruption. The slippery slope concept suggests that when people begin to deviate they do it in small ways. But once they have deviated, they begin to slide down on a slope that leads to greater and more pronounced type of deviance. Therefore, there is no such thing as "minor" unethical behaviour" (Pereg and Moore, 2002: 146).

3.3   Dimensions of Unethical Police Conducts or Behaviours

Police corruption has been described in several ways that include the following:

According to Herman Goldstein (1975: 3), "Police corruption is an act involving the misuse of authority by a police officer in a manner designed to produce personal gain for himself or others." Another author

defines it as the misuse of police power with a view to obtaining personal or institutional profit (Carl B. Klockars, Sanja Kutnjak Ivkovich, William E. Harver, and Maria R. Haberfield, 2000: 1). An important underlying issue about police corruption is the attraction of economic gains for rendering services they ought to provide anyway or deliberately refusing to provide their legitimate functions to society (Michael Palmiotto, 2001: 37). Dempsey and Forst (2008: 201) drew the major elements of the foregoing definitions together to define corruption thus: "A police officer is corrupt when he or she is acting under his or her official capacity and receives a benefit or something of value (other than his or her pay-check) for doing something or for refraining from doing something." For instance, an officer that accepts a free cup of tea in course of duty today may eventually compromise himself further in the future, a phenomenon described as the slippery slope syndrome, leading to eventually accepting larger gratification and bribes in the future.

I.   Explanation of police corruption

There are several explanations to the phenomenon of police corruption. One of such explanations is the *differential association theory* of Edwin H. Sutherland that has been applied to the phenomenon by Frank Schmalleger (2007: 296). This theory posits that criminal behaviour could be acquired by a police officer through imitation or through learning and sharing from the behaviour of deviant individuals (petty thieves, smooth-talking traffic offenders, prostitutes, drug-dealers, robbers, etc) with which they come in contact on daily basis. "Schmalleger asks us to combine these everyday experiences with the relatively low-pay officers receive and the sense that police work is not really valued to understand how officers might develop a jaded attitude towards the double standards of the civilisation they are sworn to protect. Such a jaded attitude, Schmalleger says may entice officers into corruption" (Dempsey and Forst (2008: 204).

Another perspective on the reasons for police corruption identifies it with the rather huge powers and discretion exercised by the police coupled with what is referred to as the personality and cynicism that the police acquire from joining the organisation. To this may be added, the constant association between the police and different categories of deviants, the moral dilemma they experience attempting to enforce laws that are almost practically difficult to enforce especially considering that people really require the services (illegal drugs, gambling, alcohol, and prostitution) prohibited by the laws in question, as well as the huge financial reward that corrupt police officers may acquire. These have been explained as plausible reasons for corruption in the police.

Two other scholars, Samuel Walker and Charles Katz (2005: 450-455) also offered the following explanatory framework for understanding corruption in the police:

i.   Explanations by individual officers

This attributes the phenomenon of corruption to the "rotten apple" or individual police officers who are helplessly or incurably corrupt. The police organisaton tries to absolve itself of blame in adopting this posture of the "rotten apple",

ii.   Social structural interpretation

This approach ties police corruption to socio-structural developments that nurture and uphold it. These structures includes the criminal law (prohibitions of activities seen as legitimate by most people and ordinances that are contradictory), cultural clashes (where outlawed behaviours are actually appropriate to other cultures), and local political situations (pertaining to corruption at government/community levels bound to reflect on the police),

iii.   Neighbourhood-Related Explanations

Environments that are socially disoriented tend to harbour larger proportions of the poor, low social controls, and relatively higher proportion of corruption within,

iv.   The pattern of police work

It largely involves police officers working independently or in very small teams unsupervised, under work conditions that are conducive to police cynicism. Officers who are frequently open to corruption tend to believe that others are equally involved in corruption,

v.   Police organisation

Where corruption thrives in the police organisation there will generally be very low levels of discipline by the officers in the department, and

vi.   Police subculture

This can encourage falsehood and cover-ups in order to be seen as identifying with group loyalty and solidarity.

Types of corruption: There two broad sub-groups, namely:

a.   **Grass-eaters** who are basically passive receivers of whatever is offered to them. Majority of corrupt police officers fit into this category, and

b.   **Meat-eaters** who aggressively search for opportunities to obtain money from people (Knapp Commission, 1973: 4).

Walker and Katz (2005: 445) further classify corruption into four main types:

i.   **Gratuities**: This comes in the form of seemingly unimportant tips and discounts on purchased items,

ii.   **Bribes:** This is sums of money paid to police officers that enable the persons making the payment to carry out the intended plan set out against the criminal justice system. The two forms of bribes that exist are:

   •   The **pad** (formal periodic, regular payment to police officers to induce them to overlook regular criminal activities), and

   •   The **score** (a one-time settlement to prevent one from being arrested after committing an illegal activity.

iii. **Theft or Burglary:** This involves police officers accepting money or property in course of performing their legitimate duties,

iv.   **Internal Corruption:** With this, police officers settle their colleagues with financial rewards in order to gain undue advantages such as promotion and juicy job postings,

v.   **Drug-Related Corruption:** This is essentially similar to other forms of corruption except that victims of this kind of corruption are less likely to report their experiences. It is for this reason that they are highly attractive to police officers, who see it as huge money-making prospects,

vi.   **Sleeping on Duty:** This has to do with falling asleep knowingly or unknowingly, due to fatigue while police officers are on official duty. Fatigue is usually attributed to the rather loaded schedule of "officers working in the night shift and the rest of the world functioning on a day shift. Officers attend court and meetings during the day when they should be sleeping. Their sleep is interrupted by phones, delivery personnel, repair people, children, and family responsibilities".

vii. **Police Deception:** This refers to the false testimonies in court meant to subvert the law relating to searches, seizing exhibits, falsification of reports, etc.

viii. **Sex-Related Corruption:** These are often referred to as sexual violence that includes "those situations in which a citizen experiences a sexually degrading, humiliating, violating,

damaging or threatening act committed by a police officer, through the use of force or police authority". (K.B. Kraska and V.E. Kappaler: 85-111). Offences of this nature erode public trust in the police. Therefore, the "bad eggs" involved in it are even resented within the police organisation and severely dealt with whenever they are discovered. The public on its part is alarmed that police officers who ought to protect the citizens with the public trust and authority vested on them would submit to the disgraceful act of violating the weak in the society. Police officers that involve themselves in this act tend to exhibit the following behaviour that police authorities may regard as warning signals. These warning signs include though not limited to "male officers who pulls over female drivers, spends a lot of time outside bars at closing time, spend an inordinate amount of time at any place women tend to congregate, or conducts inappropriate follow-ups that he would not conduct for the average citizens. Most of these activities can be explained away in the context of performing good police service, but together they could be a pattern of behavior worth watching" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 211).

ix.   **Domestic Violence in Police Families:** Studies by the National Centre for Women and Policing (2003) have confirmed that the incidence of domestic violence in police families is higher than what obtains elsewhere in the society due to the unwillingness of victims to report cases. Besides, for victims who are police spouse, the situation is complicated by the willingness of colleagues to shield offenders from prosecution, perhaps, because they do not believe that their colleague could be involved in it. Offenders in this case often know where to seek shelter within the police organisaton - but for victims that are police officers, they have to deal with the psychological challenges of being unable to handle domestic violence by themselves. Often times, the fear that offenders might be dismissed from work and cut off the economic support to their families, restrain victims of domestic violence from reporting these cases at the police department. Moreover, most police organisations have tended to handle cases of domestic violence informally, which has not quite checked the phenomenon.

3.4   Approaches to Managing Police Corruption

The following are some of the approaches being applied to manage police corruption universally:

a.   Investigations
b.   Discipline and termination

c.   Preventive administrative actions, and
d.   Citizens oversight.

SELF- ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Define police ethics and explain four dimensions of unethical police behaviours in Nigeria.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Ethics is critical to the way in which the police are considered as discharging their duties with sensitivity to the community they serve. A police organisation without ethical standards can hardly be differentiated from a criminal subculture or gang.

5.0   SUMMARY

Ethics deals with conducts that are good and bad. It is therefore characterized by such features as rightness or wrongness, courage, basic beliefs and values, consistency, reciprocity, universality and relativity.
Police behaviours that are considered to be unethical include: corruption, drug related corruption, sleeping on duty, and police deception, while some of its remedies include investigations, discipline and termination, preventive administrative actions and citizens' oversight.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Define ethics and discuss its essential features.
ii.   Define police corruption and discuss the two views on the explanation of police corruption.
iii.   Write short notes on the following:
        a.   Law versus order dilemma of police officers
        b.   Sub-groups and types of corruption
iv.   Describe the issues involved in sex-related corruption and mention four approaches to managing this form of corruption.

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UNIT 5   UNDERSTANDING POLICE STRESS

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
           3.1   Meaning and Nature of Stress
                       3.1.1   Nature of Police Stress
           3.2   Stress Factors and Impact in Policing
                       3.2.1   Outcome of Stress on Police Officers
                       3.2.2   Impact of Stress on Police Families
           3.3   Stress Management Strategies
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit dwells on the meaning and nature of stress, stress factors, impact of stress on policing and stress management strategies.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

•   explain the meaning and nature of stress
•   identify specific stress factors and their impact in policing
•   describe the strategies for managing stress.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Meaning of Stress

The Merriam Webster's Dictionary defines stress as "a force (pressure or strain) that tend to distort a body or a factor that includes bodily or mental tension". Though this is what is meant when people use the word in ordinary discourses, it does not speak much about the source of stress, especially of the type experienced in organisational contexts such as that of the police.

According to Dempsey and Forst (2008: 153), "stress is the body's reaction to internal or external stimuli that upset the body's normal state. A stimulus that causes stress (stressor) can be physical, mental, or

emotional. The term stress is used to refer to both the body's reaction and the stimuli that caused it". Major components of this definition are:

i.   stress can be caused by internal or internal stimuli
ii.   these stimuli could be physical, mental or emotional
iii.   stress causes the body to react
iv.   the reaction caused by stress upsets the body's normal state, and
v.   stress refers to both the body's reaction and the stimuli that caused it.

Whenever the body reacts to stressful conditions, it is said to be expressing "flight and fight response". Whenever the body of an individual is stressed, the adrenal gland produces large quantities of adrenaline and releases it into the bloodstream. As a result, the liver is stimulated to release stored carbohydrates needed for extra energy. This process of extra energy release is accompanied by faster heartbeats and breathing, higher blood pressure, and muscular tension. These are usual developments associated with the body's preparation for the extraordinary physical tasks. But, where this energy not is channeled into any such task or is frustrated, it results in basic stress indicators like stomach upset, headache and irritability amongst others (Edwin S. Geffner, 1978).

Though, it is believed that stress does not lead to the onset of disease by itself, however, it has been found to create an enabling environment for disease to thrive. Stress reduces or distorts the effective functioning of the defense mechanism; hence it is easily implicated for such health challenges as hypertension, stomach ulcers, cardiovascular disease and cancer to a relative extent.

Table 3.1:   Mental and Physical Problems Associated with Stress

I.	Psychiatric problem
	Posttraumatic stress syndrome
	Neurosis
	Transient Situational disturbances
II.	Immunology problems
	Reduced resistance to infection
	Tumors
III.	Cardiovascular problems
	Heart attacks
	Coronary artery disease
	Hypertension
	Stroke
IV.	Genitourinary problems
	Failure to menstruate
	Impotence

     Incontinence

V   Gastrointestinal problems

     Ulcers

Source: Dempsey and Frost (2008: 154). *Introduction to policing*.

3.1.1 Nature of Police Stress

It is an established fact that all kinds of career and life itself is characterised by stress. However, there is the very strong view that policing is easily one of the most stressful professions in the world (Newsweek, 1988: 43). It is therefore no surprise that empirical proof abound that the police have some of the highest rates of divorce, suicide and other indicators of stress compared to other professions (W. Clinton Terry, 1981: 67-70). Milanovich Clement (1980: 20) further describes police stress situation in these words; "It would be difficult to find an occupation that is subject to more consistent and persistent tension, strain, confrontations and nerve wrecking, than that of the uniformed patrolman." According to Robert McGuire (1979: 27), the four basic sources of police stress are: external, organisational, personal, and operational:

I.   **External Sources of Stress:** These are stress caused by dangerous and life threatening situations especially occasioned by gun battles with criminal gangs, dangerous tasks and pursuit of fleeing vehicles. Researchers using the rate of heart beats and observation of data on physical activity concluded that the greatest rate of physical stress takes place during the periods of physical enforcement activities by police officers: psychological stress associated with response to critical events, more so when relating with the suspect during the event and subsequently. It was observed that the heartbeats of police officers handling critical cases are usually faster throughout the day and during the period of report writing. They also found that officers anticipate stress throughout the day from the time of taking over their shifts (Gregory S. Anderson, Robin Litzenberger, Darryl Plecas, 2000: 399-420).

II.   **Organisational Sources of Stress:** These are stress situations caused by the quasi-military nature of police functions requiring regular adjustment to duty, irregular working hours, working during holidays, and the strict disciplinary work environment. Organisational stress is also produced by inability to regulate work schedules, activities, workplace bias, and the general working conditions.

     Merry Morash, Robin Haar, and Dae-Hoon Kwak (2006: 26-43) identified the "predictive stressors" in police work as poor

influences over work, activities, and biases against one's racial, ethnic, or gender group. Dr. James Q. Sewell (2006: 1-6) traced stress in police to some management practices in the organisation. This is especially the case where leaders have been trained in traditional management strategies or happen to be over-concerned with personal progress at the expense of other police officers who may be stressed up by this kind of situation.

III.   **Personal Sources of Stress:** This results from the interpersonal features of a police officer's institutional affiliation to the police organisation. It basically entails the challenge of getting along with each other as police officers.

IV.   **Operational Sources of Stress:** These are caused by the daily expectations of participating in work-related encounters that so often occur in urban settings; dealing with destitute or abandoned social misfits, criminal elements, mental cases, and addicted drug users; engaging in life-threatening activities on behalf of a public that is hardly appreciative; and the ever present likelihood of being held liable for ones actions in the normal course of duty. Yolanda M. Scott's (2004: 237-261) study led her to conclude that police officers attached to rural communities and small-town settings were equally stresses by a couple of factors. Dempsey and Forst (2008: 156) present the factors identified by Yolanda Scott thus:

> *She (i.e. Yolanda Scott) found that organisational stress was among the most problematic for officers and that their perceptions of the organisational setting, specifically administrative changes, were significantly predictive of all forms of officer stress. These officers perceived that changes to the department's top administrative position would interrupt every part of their lives and work, including their treatment within the department, situations of danger or violence and the impact of the job on their families. She also found that media criticism was linked to officer stress and that this is particularly upsetting because it disrupts their credibility with the community to which they are a part. She explain that they are recognisable people in the community and have difficulty finding privacy whether on or off duty.*

Yolanda M. Scott (2004), recommended peer group support and mental health counseling as useful stress-related interventions that could be

applied to reduce stress conditions to which police officers are exposed. Another research by Yolanda M. Scott (2006) revealed that rural based police officers have adopted the following mechanism to cope with stress; regular physical exercise, and problem sharing amongst themselves. Some police officers were also found to have fallen victims of maladaptive strategies such as regular absence from work, refusal to discuss challenges with fellow police officers, sleeping on duty, alcoholism, and smoking heavily.

3.2   Stress Factors in Policing

Several factors are responsible for the stress experienced by police officers who are pursuing their legitimate responsibilities (Nancy Norvell, Dales Belles, and Holly Hills, 1978: 402-416). Some of these factors include; poor capacity building, substandard/outdated equipment, poor remuneration, insufficient opportunities, conflict of roles, exposure to brutality, fears associated with safety and job proficiency and lack of job satisfaction. In addition, the pressure of working round the clock, fatigue and others also contribute immensely to police stress. (Bryan Villa, 1996: 51-92). Table 3.2 presents the sources of law enforcement stress.

Table 3.2 Sources of Stress in Policing

I.   **External Stressors**
- Lack of consideration by courts in scheduling officers for court appearances.
- Lack of public support.
- Negative or distorted media coverage.

II.   **Internal Stressors**
- Policies and procedures that is offensive.
- Poor or inadequate training and inadequate career development opportunities.
- Lack of identity or recognition.
- Poor economic benefits and working conditions.
- Excessive paper work.
- Inconsistent discipline.
- Perceived favourtism.

III.   **Stressors in law enforcement work itself**
- Rigours of shift work.
- Role conflict.
- Frequent exposure to life miseries.
- Boredom.
- Fear.

- Responsibility for protecting other people.
- Fragmented nature of the job.
- Work overload.

IV.   Stressors confronting the individual officer
- Necessity to conform.
- Necessity to take a second job.
- Altered social status in the community.

Source: Dempsey and Forst (2008: 157). *Introduction to Policing*.

Healy B. (1981: 67-70) viewed the subject of police stress from the angle of physical fitness and found that without police fitness standards, a police department has too many "loose wires" to account for. It is unfair to place the burden of quality effectiveness on each individual without presenting a plan that will achieve these goals."

Ni He, Jihong Zhoa, and Ling Ren (2005: 535-547) examined the relationship between stressors and gender and discovered that women tended to experience higher levels of psychological stress than their male counterpart in the police organisation. Another research effort also confirmed that female officers were more susceptible to depression than male officers however; no significant gender differences were noticed in the measures of anxiety that were clinically developed (Ni He, Jihong Zhao, and Carol A. Archbold, 2002: 687-708).

Women also appear to be affected more by the incidence of posttraumatic stress depression and anxiety disorder (PTSD) while men are more prone to PTSD symptoms of impulsiveness and irritability (Cherly Wilczak, 2006: 50-69).

It is also a source of stress to women that they work in police organisations which is thought to be the exclusive preserve of men. In this regard, many women deliberately keep away from counseling to avoid being perceived as weaklings and this adds to their stress (Cheryl Wilczak, Oput: 50-59).

3.2.1 Outcome of Stress on Police Officers

A National Institute of Justice Report (2000: 18-24) catalogued the following outcomes of stress on police officers:

- cynicism and suspiciousness
- emotional disengagement from various facts of everyday life
- diminishing efficiency

- tendency to retire prematurely that is preceded by absenteeism
- involvement in substance abuse and excessive alcohol usage
- family/marital challenges; divorce, extramarital affairs, and or domestic violence
- incidence of heart attacks, gain in weight, ulcer and other health challenges, and
- tendency to commit suicide.

3.2.2 Impact of Stress on Police Families

The impact of work on the families of police officers cannot be overemphasised. In the view of Jerry Dash and Martin Resier (1978: 18), "police work … affects, shapes, and at times, scars the individual and families involved." To this extent, studies have captured the preference of police officers wives for alternative jobs for their husbands instead of police work (David Rafky (1984: 65). Moreover, the rather frequent rotations or shifts that accompany police work are not suitable to the enjoyment of natural holidays by families, as well as, celebration of family events like birthdays and other anniversaries. These rotations also work against the desire of police officers to pursue alternative careers or courses that will contribute to their career growth and development (Peter Maynard and Nancy Maynard, 1980: 309).

Ellen Scrivner (1991: 6) identified the following job-related matters that underline the dislocations that occur in families of police officers:

I: **Family Dislocation Occasioned by Shift Rotations**: Due to job rotations from which police officers are usually unable to excuse themselves,   particularly female police officers, they are unable to attend to their children's upbringing, participate in family events and enjoy holidays with members of their families. These shift job patterns also cause respectful amount of tension and irritability to police officers that influence the relationship with their family members.

II.   **Unpredictable Environment of Work:** The work environment of the police organisation is not stable. In fact, it is highly unpredictable and has seen officers living in constant adjustment to crisis, dealing with emergency, fear of death, injuries, and struggles to avoid investigations within the police organisation.

III. **Job-Related Personal Change and Family Relationships:** Police officers are constantly exposed to tragedies, which affect their attitude and their family.

IV   **Community Expectations and Demands:** Public expectations about the police are usually higher than for other professionals. In addition to official responsibilities, neighbours of police officers

often expect them to respond to challenges and the emergencies that crop up within the neighbourhood.

V.   **Intrusion into Family Life:** Quite frequently, police officers are compelled to take jobs home, which inevitably interferes with the time they ought to spend with their families. The weapon that police officers take home that must be safely secured, is a classic example of this. Police officers are more or less on standby throughout the day, which also affect their concentration at home and time spent with their families.

VI.   As we saw earlier, rural-based police officers inhabit and work within the same settings and this is capable of adding stress to their family and personal lives (Yolanda M. Scott, 2004: 237-261).

3.3   Stress Management Strategies in Police Organisations

Stress is "an important underlying factor in police misconduct incidents". Therefore, conscious efforts must be made to integrate stress management services into the function of the police organisation. To use the exact words of a US commission on this subject, "Police officials should institute comprehensive stress management programmes that include identification of officers with stress problems, counseling, periodic screening and training on stress management" (US Commission on Civil Rights, 1981). Outlines of the strategies variously recommended for effective management of stress on police officers include (Ness, J. J. and Light, J. 1992: 23-26):

a.   training police officers to serve as peer counselors and facilitating their access to mental health counseling,

b.   setting up telephone lines (i.e. hotlines) for officers that require unanimous counseling to have access to such counseling,

c.   ensuring that police officers needing referrals receive it promptly and to highly competent institutions or experts,

d.   ensuring the involvement of police officers families in training programmes meant to enhance family assistance,

e.   establishment of institutional structures by the police organisation to manage the physical fitness of police officers. In other words, the police organisation should be responsible for the physical fitness of police officers. On the imperative of physical fitness, James J. Ness and John (1992: 23-26) writes that:

The adverse effects of the lack of fitness are overwhelming, while the positive benefits of fitness are often overlooked. Being physically fit diminishes stress, promotes self-esteem, improves firearm accuracy, increases an officer's confidence in confrontations, makes him more

effective with impact weapons and defense tactics, and generally improves his quality of life.

a.   The immediate supervisors of police officers should be trained to high level of proficiency to enable them render stress-related counseling to their subordinates.
b.   Special crisis intervention teams should be set up.
c.   Police officers should be made to enjoy regular relief through reassignments and duty reliefs.
d.   Confidentiality should be structured into the counseling process to boost the participation of police officers, especially the female gender.
e.   Police organisations should be efficiently managed with emphasis on effectiveness, speed, and confidentiality.
f.   Supervisors should have clear understanding of their goals, issue clear instructions and support officers in performance of their responsibilities.
g.   It is important to pay intimate attention to the way officers react after an event and ensure that their stress-related feelings are not disregarded or ignored, and
h.   Organisational change should be undertaken to improve the welfare of police officers in general.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Define stress and highlight its main components, sources, impact on police families, and its management strategies.

4.0   CONCLUSION

We can conclude from our study of this unit that stress is inimical to the effectiveness of police officers. This is because apart from the physiological consequences of stress on officers, it distabilises the accomplishment of police corporate objectives and the families of officers as well.

5.0   SUMMARY

Stress describes the body's response to stimulus that could be internal or external or both at the same time. The responses in question could be emotional, physical, and mental. In terms of origin, stress could come from external, organisational, personal, and police operational sources. Stress could be managed through training of police officers and their family members, referrals, management of officer's fitness, training police supervisors, scheduling of special duty reliefs, confidentiality, etc.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Define stress and explain the basic sources of police stress.
ii.   What impact does stress have on police officers?
iii.   Describe the relationship between stress and
    a.   Family dislocation occasioned by shift rotation
    b.   Unpredictable work environment, and
    c.   Community expectations and demands
iv.   Mention and explain the most important strategies for managing stress in the police organisation.

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**MODULE 4   THE   POLICE,   CIVIL   RIGHTS,
                 LIBERTIES AND ETHICS**

Unit 1   Scope of Civil Rights and Liberties
Unit 2   Modern Police Officer: Goals and Operational Strategies
Unit 3   Policing: Courtesy, Impartiality, and Public Support
Unit 4   Police and Ethics
Unit 5   Understanding Police Stress

UNIT 1   SCOPE OF CIVIL RIGHTS AND LIBERTIES

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
           3.1   Meaning of Civil Rights and Liberties
           3.2   Dimensions of Civil Rights
           3.3   Protection of Individual Liberty
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we shall explore the meaning of civil rights and liberties,
dimensions of civil liberties and the protection of individual liberties.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

•   define and explain the concepts of civil rights and liberties
•   analyse the dimensions of civil liberties
•   discuss strategies for the protection of individual liberty.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Meaning of Civil Rights and Liberty

Our discussions in this unit will be on the concept of civil liberty and
civil right, the relatedness of the two concepts, and the characteristics of

civil rights which is largely included under the broad framework of civil liberty.

While the dictionary defines **civil rights** as the "non-political rights of a citizen; especially those guaranteed" by "the constitution", it describes **civil liberty** as the "freedom from arbitrary government interference specifically by denial of government power" (Merriam-Webster Dictionary).

The literature on human rights captures two schools of thought with respect to the origin of this subject matter. The first of these schools posits that human rights are the:

> *Rights conferred on men and women by virtue of their being human, created by God in His image. They are inalienable, inherent and cannot be separated from men and women since they are characteristics that make human beings true and authentic. Without them a human being becomes reduced to the animal stage* (Osita Ese, 1984).

In other words, as far as you are a human being, you have access to these rights and the denial of them reduces an individual to the status of an animal.

The second perspective views the subject from the perspective of the historical development of human society and the resultant evolution of social, cultural and political organisations in societies.

Human rights, though, basically indivisible can however be classified into the following categories for analytical purposes:

I.   **Legal Rights:** This category of rights consists of those that are recognised by the constitution of various countries. Legal rights may also be identified by the fact that they are usually processed into laws that are defendable in the court of law and constitution (written or unwritten) of a state. These rights or fundamental human rights are contained in chapter IV of the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria,

II.   **Moral Rights:** These are the category of rights that derive largely from the norms and values of society. These rights draw extensively from the ethical (rightness or wrongness) components of society and they often take deep roots in religious practices. The unique thing about moral rights is that they are not subject to interpretation in the court of law, implying that an individual

cannot sue or be sued on the basis of this category of rights. The virtue of truth that we teach to our children as parents is a classic example of moral rights,

III.   **Natural Rights:** We had earlier referred to these as those rights that people enjoy by virtue of being human beings. These are the set of rights available to all human beings regardless of age, sex, complexion, language, religion, political affiliation, etc. Natural rights are commonly referred to as universal rights. For the purposes of emphasis all the nationals of a country, such as Nigeria, are entitled to them whether or not they are expressly enshrined in the constitution of the country. Natural rights, such as right to life, are considered to be superior to all forms of domestic/international laws.

For the same analytical purposes, human rights have been divided into collective (group) and individual rights. Individual rights basically consist of:

I.   **Civil and Political Rights:** These consist of those rights that individuals can assert from the state concerning their freedom of action. Rights under this category include right to life, freedom of movement, association, thought, religion, expression, access to information, the right to vote solicit for votes, participate in political activity, the right to join trade union, etc.

II.   **Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights:** Consisting of rights of individuals to be involved in social, economic, and cultural life of the society - they are also referred to as ECOSOC rights. These characteristically include the rights to work, shelter, education, food, healthcare, cultural practices, to own property, belong to trade union, freedom from gender discrimination, recreation, and reasonable standard of living to mention but a few. Unfortunately, most of these rights are not those for which you can sue any level (federal, state or local) of government in Nigeria,

III.   **Collective or Group Rights:** These are the category of rights that are shared by the members of a community or society. Collective rights include the right to independence by colonised people, a nations right to harness and manage its natural resource endowment as it pleases, right of a state to develop at its pace, right to decent environment, freedom from environmental degradation and pollution, etc. (JDPC, 2001: 6-11).

3.2   Dimensions of Civil Liberty

Whenever the concept of liberty is used in socio-political discourses, it often applies to national and individual perspectives needing further clarifications. Therefore, while national liberty expresses concern for independence of the states, individual liberty speaks to "the faculty of willing and the power of doing what has been willed, without influence from any other source or from without" (Appadorai, 2004: 68). In reality, however, absolute liberty of this type is practically impossible, because it cannot be guaranteed by the state or absence of the state. Two basic facts of human nature on which politics stands are:

o   The tendency of every human being to have his/her way, and
o   The tendency of human beings to socialise.

According to Appadorai, liberty emphasises "the idea that freedom exists not only in the absence of restraint but also in the presence of opportunity." Thus, while the wealthy and powerful desires the form of liberty that does not have any kind of restraints to enable them use their means to satisfy their whims and caprices, those that are socially, economically, and politically disadvantaged desire the form of liberty that provide opportunities for them to achieve certain basic standard of living.

According to Laski, there are three recognisable levels of individual liberty, namely:

I.   **Private liberty** dealing with an individual's freedom of choices to advance his/her personal religious, security, and other aspirations,

II.   **Political or Constitutional liberty** dealing with an individual's right to participate in the electoral process as either a voter or political party candidate to be voted for, free speech, press, association, etc.

III.   **Economic liberty** dealing with job security through work, appropriate labour hours, remuneration and industrial governance.

Civil liberty embraces the framework of rights that are recognised by the legitimate power of the state. In the opinion of R. G. Gettel (1993: 148), "civil liberty consists of the rights and privileges which the state creates and protects for its subjects." These rights include, though not limited to the following:

I.   **The right to life:** This is the most basic right which serves as the bedrock upon which claims to all other rights is based. State

legislations against suicide and capital punishment are meant to protect this right to life. Contemporary debates on the issue of capital punishment by human rights and other organisations further confirm the sanctity attached to right to life,

II.   **The right to work:** This can, under normal circumstances, be separated from the right to life. Because, man "is born into a world where, if rationally organised, he can live only by sweat of his brow" (H. J. Laski, 1983). This right basically refers to that of providing some form of satisfaction (social services) to meet the demands of society rather than that of doing a specific type of job. Fortunately, this right is increasingly being recognised by national governments across the world through the formulation of annual budgets, development plans, and social policies aimed at boosting employment of its citizens as it obtains in Nigeria. Nevertheless, Nigeria is still a far cry from providing social security to its teeming unemployed in spite of its inability to generate employment for a large proportion. The situation in Nigeria is worsened by the fact that unemployment insurance has equally not gained foothold in this country,

III.   **Right to personal safety and freedom:** This right encompasses the opportunities that exist for an individual to enjoy his/her life without hindrance to her legs, body or health. In other words, it expresses ones personal desire to move from place to place at will and uninterrupted except by law. In this regard, it is only under the application of due process that this right may be withdrawn from an individual that commits an offence. To protect individuals from injuries caused by harmful substances and animals being kept by neighbours, slavery is outlawed in Nigeria and most nations of the world, while legitimate self-protection is admissible. For wrongful imprisonment the writ of habeas corpus is available as remedy in most national constitutions. Damages may be claimed for injuries sustained through the careless activities of another individual. Though, according to Holland, T. E. (1928: 170 - 174), this right is beset by two main limitations:

●   The right of parents to chastise their children or under aged wards, especially, during their formative years, and

●   When it is partially suspended for people to participate in legal contest of strengths.

IV.   **Right to reputation:** In the portrayal of T. E. Holland (op cit, 1982: 183 - 184), this right recognises that "a man has a right as, against the world, to his good name; that is to say, he has a right that the respect, so far as it is well founded, which others feel for him shall not be diminished, whether through uttered words, gestures or photographs." Therefore, the state protects this right

for an individual through legislation against defamation provided it can be proven that:

- the defamatory statement was uttered in the public,
- the statement is basically false, and
- the statement is not important to the public, such as "statement in the course of judicial proceedings ... fair reports of trials, legislative debates or public meetings, fair comments on public men and fair actions of literary and artistic productions are privileged."

V.   **Right to religious freedom:** In spite of the long time it took, through the sixteenth and seventeenth century era of heresy-related persecutions, this right has now been recognised by most modern states. This right is expressly recognised in chapter IV Section 38 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. On the basis of this constitutional provision, individuals may identify with any religion (Christianity, Islam, Traditional or others) of his/her choice notwithstanding the circular status of the Nigerian state. But more importantly, this right may be exercised subject to the fact that it does not jeopardise the peace of others,

VI.   **Freedom of education:** The importance of education as a veritable catalyst to complete human development, especially, in preparing individuals for functional citizenship responsibilities cannot be overemphasised. The educational objective of the state is stated in chapter II section 18 under the Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. However, the provisions of this section of the constitution cannot be used as basis for initiating legal actions against the Nigerian government when it fails to comply with them. The primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education in Nigeria are the respective responsibility of the local, state and federal government. Furthermore, the establishment and management of primary, secondary and tertiary educational institutions are also endorsed by social policy in Nigeria. The constitution equally subscribes to the need for even distribution of all levels of educational opportunities throughout the six geo-political zones of the country,

VII. **Right to freedom of speech, public meeting and publication:** This captures the citizen's rights to speak, write and publish things that are not blasphemous, seditious, obscene, and defamatory to the reputation of others. It also includes the right to associate with others for legitimate purposes (W. D. Aston and P. Jordan, 1936: 42 - 43). Citizens opinion are significant because they are instrumental to:

- individual self-protection
- acquainting leaders with the genuine needs of their citizens

- ensuring that laws reflect the needs of the entire society rather than those of the wealthy and powerful, and
- creating an avenue for the development of open minds through learning.

Through the freedom of opinion individuals are able to participate in public debate as honestly as possible while avoiding libelous statements. Individuals also need to be conscious of avoiding statements that are capable of provoking or inciting public disorder or undermining the authority of government.

VIII.   The right to association: In the contemporary Nigerian state, there are numerous social, political, religious, economic, and other group-oriented platforms that encourage associational life as provided for in chapter IV section 40 of the constitution of the federal republic of Nigeria. These associations that are largely voluntary offer huge opportunities for the formation of friendships, and the pursuit of careers to its members. According to Laski (1983: 116 - 121), these associations provide individuals with "a feeling that he has found himself a power of self-recognition that is an invaluable factor in the achievement of personal harmony." In line with what we learnt from the Johari window in an earlier unit, this right offers an individual the opportunity to deepen his/her understanding of others as basis for building the confidence to share more intimate information to deepen relationships with others.

IX.   Right to family: Appadorai A. (2004: 76) describes this right as that which "results from the institution of marriage, and includes a man's marital right to the society of his wife and vice versa, and the custody and control of his children and to the produce of labour till they arrive at years of discretion." As with all marital unions they are brought to an end by death or divorce that may be achieved in the law courts, through mutual consent or in the traditional method of asking a spouse to leave the home to signal an end to a marriage. This right is guaranteed in chapter IV Section 37 of the Nigerian constitution.

X.   Right to property: This deals with the right to acquisition and use of property in form of land, games, and how to use, dispose, or bequeath property, which is believed to add to the personality of individuals. As Laski argues, "if property must be possessed in order that a man may be his best self, the existence of such a right is clear." However, the right to property is beset by individual and social impediments.

XI.   Right to general benefits of social life: This entails the following basic dimensions:
1.   Right to the unhindered pursuit of an individual's means of livelihood

2.   Right to access and use of public roads, parks, libraries, etc.
3.   Right to access and use railway and postal services on payment of prescribed fees
4.   Right to approach and seek legal redress in court
5.   Right to use public health services within the laws of the land
6.   Right to access the services provided by the modern state and perform the following obligations to the state:
   a.   Obedience to the laws of the state
   b.   Prompt and regular payment of taxes to the state
   c.   Non-interference with the rights (freedom, security, reputation, property, etc.) of others
   d.   Accept invitation to participate in juries, when chosen
   e.   Show up as witnesses in court cases when called upon
   f.   Respect the law courts, and
   g.   Participate in compulsory military service.

3.3   Protection of Individual Liberty

For individuals to continue to enjoy their liberty, the following measures must be ensured:

a)   Provision of express laws recognising the liberty guaranteed by the state
b)   Independence of the judicial arm of government
c)   Existence of a democratic system of government
d)   Presence of indigenous self-governing institutions
e)   Declaration of fundamental human rights by the constitution, and
f)   Vigilance by individuals and whistle-blowing organisations.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Define civil and human rights and highlight the following issues:

i.   The perspectives on human rights
ii.   Collective and individual rights
iii.   The dimensions of civil liberties, and
iv.   Measures for the protection of civil liberties

4.0   CONCLUSION

A common thread that runs through this unit is that human rights are fundamental to the expression of the full capacities that are inherent in people as individuals and in associational life activity.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we learnt that while civil rights consist of the nonpolitical rights of people that are enshrined in the constitution of state, civil liberties refers to freedom from the arbitrary tendencies of government. Furthermore, we described human rights as those available to people by virtue of being human and identified other form of rights that emerged from man's increasing sophistication in the organisation of society. The unit recognised that human rights are indivisible but classified them into legal, moral, and natural rights for the purposes of convenience. Human rights were also categorised into collective and group rights such as; civil and political rights, economic, social and cultural rights, as well as, collective or group rights. Under our discourses of the dimensions of civil liberty, we pointed out two basic facts of human nature on which politics rest, namely: the tendency for man to want to have his way and the tendency to socialise. The unit also identified Laski's classification of three levels of individual liberties (private liberty, political/constitutional liberty, and economic liberty) before we summed up with the scope of civil liberties (e.g. rights to; life, work, personal safety/freedom, reputation, religion, education, speech, public gathering, publication, association, family, property, and benefits of social life) and the protection of individual liberties.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   What is human and civil rights and what are the two broad perspectives on human rights?
ii.   What are the distinctions between collective and group rights?
iii.   Describe the two basic facts about human nature and the three recognisable levels of individual liberty.
iv.   Draw up a list of civil liberties available to man and discuss how their continued enjoyment can be assured.

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UNIT 2   MODERN POLICE OFFICER: GOALS AND OPERATIONAL STRATEGIES

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Main Content
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              3.1.1   Policing Goals and Objectives
       3.2   Police Operational Strategies
4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
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1.0   INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we shall concentrate on the goals and objectives of policing and examine the operational strategies of the police.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe the goals and objective of policing
- explain the operational strategies of the police.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Background

In an earlier unit, we discussed the concept of policing and attempted to explain their roles through the lenses of:

a)   crime-fighting
b)   order maintenance, and
c)   provision of social services to the community.

In this unit we shall deepen our understanding of the police organisation by examining its goals and objectives together with its operational strategies with reference to the roles of the modern police officer.

3.1.1 Policing Goals and Objectives

The contemporary police organisation that we are familiar with has passed through several evolutionary phases - from the traditional to the modern. In the course of this evolution, research based on these associates two levels of goals and objectives with the modern police officer, namely:

I.   **The Primary Goals and Objectives:** Under the primary goals and objectives, Sheehan and Cordner (1995) came up with the idea that the maintenance of law and order together with the protection of lives and properties are the key objectives of the police. Without doubts, these are fundamental responsibilities of government which it (i.e. government) established the police organisation to carry out on its behalf.

Thus, in order for the police organisation to carry out this basic role, it inevitably performs several other associated functions. According to Siegel and Senna (2005), "Police are expected to perform many civic duties that, in earlier times, were the responsibility of every citizen." Some of these roles include keeping the peace, performing emergency medical care, and dealing with civil emergencies, which have been left to the police in most contemporary societies. Although, most of us agree that a neighbourhood brawl must be broken up, that shelter must be found for the homeless family must be found shelter, or the drunk taken safely home, few of us wish to jump personally into the fray; we rather "call the cops."

As we saw earlier, the police are the only organisation that possesses legitimate power to apply discretion, which may explain why people call them into the kind of situations described above. Because, some of the situations may degenerate into those that require the application of discretion.

II.   **Secondary Goals and Objectives:** According to Sheehan and Cordner (*op cit*), the following six goals and objectives are secondary to the above primary objectives. These secondary goals and objectives which the police organisations pursue for the purpose of achieving the primary objectives are:
a.   crime prevention
b.   arrest and prosecution of offenders
c.   recovery of stolen and missing properties
d.   rendering support to the sick and injured
e.   enforcement of non-criminal regulations, and

f.   delivering services that are in short supply in the community.

The police discharges its crime prevention function by attempting to create an impression of omnipresence or of being almost everywhere at the same time. This sense of omnipresence is fostered through its statutory patrol functions, response to calls from community residents to attend to situations that are potentially crime-oriented, and setting up and getting involved in relationships that are designed to avert crimes.

The police also arrest offenders and partake in supporting prosecutors in raising charges against offenders as a basic strategy for maintaining law and order as well as protecting lives and properties within the community.

The police organisation also serves as a place to which lost but found items are returned. When this happens it is the responsibility of the police to locate the owner of such recovered items. In the advent of failing to find the owner, the items are kept in safe custody until the owners come for it. Thus, people who lose their properties tend to visit the police to check believing that it may have been found and deposited at the police station. But, it may be mentioned that this tradition has not taken deep root in Nigeria due to the relatively fragile nature of police community partnerships in this country.

It can easily be argued that the police are the closest organisation to the problems experienced in society, because they are available around the clock everyday and are relatively mobile. In some parts of the world, the police is the first organisation that is invited to evaluate people who are ill or injured before an ambulance is called to evacuate affected persons to the hospital. In other words, the police are often called to render support in emergency response situations as paramedical officials.

Where other regulatory personnel are not available or are completely absent, it is the police that is often invited to manage all the non-criminal issues that crop up within the community. Some of these non-criminal issues include parking, traffic, and liquor related regulations amongst others.

The police organisation is the only one that is available to serve the community around the clock, especially, when all other departments of government have closed for the day's business. They patrol as the representatives of government and in the

process render assistance to the people that cannot be handled by anyone else. Dempsey and Forst (2008: 127) sum of the availability of the police in these words:

> *When the light goes off in an apartment building, people call the police. When water main breaks, people call the police. When your neighbour's dog barks all night and keeps you awake, who do you call at 3:00am in the morning? The police respond and take whatever action they can to ameliorate problems and to deal with emergency. They direct traffic, evacuate residents, and decide who to call for assistance.*

3.2   Police Operational Strategies

Researchers on the various aspects of the police organisation have made attempts to identify what is now popularly referred to as police operational strategies or styles. In its basic form an operational strategy or style is a meaningful approach to evaluating the functions and behaviour of the police. But, it must be stated here that, in practice, it is difficult to find an officer that operates exclusively within the framework of a single style without borrowing from another. In other words, most police officers tend to exhibit the features of several styles at the same time (as shown in figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2:   The Police Role, Operational Styles, Styles of Policing, Policing Ideals.

The Police Role	Styles of Policing
Crime fighting (law enforcement)	Jane Q. Wilson
or	Watchman Style
Order Maintenance (peacekeeping)	Legalistic Style
Police Operational Style	Service Style
Larry J. Siegel and Joseph J. Senna	Policing Style
Crime Fighter	Claudia Mendias and
	E. James Kehoe
Social Agent	
Law Enforcer	Law Enforcement
Watchman	Peace Maintenance
John J. Broderick	Procedural Compliance
Enforcers	Protagonist Compliance
Idealists	
Realists	
Optimists	
William Muir	

Professional
Enforcer
Reciprocator
Avoider

Source: Dempsey and Frost, (2008: 129). *Introduction to Policing*.

In their concerted research effort, Siegel and Senna (2005: 211) reviewed other empirical studies that have attempted to conceptualise and categorise the operational strategies of the police into behavioural patterns or clusters. Through this categorisation they attempted to subsume police officers into predesignated groups on the basis of approach to their duties. The purpose of this categorisation was to test the hypothesis that police officers are not a "cohesive or homogenous group" as it is being portrayed to outsiders, but made up of people with diverse approaches to their duties. Based on their findings these authors presented the following four styles or typologies of police operations:

I.   **The Crime Fighter:**   The strategies of the crime fighter consist of investigating very serious crimes and arresting criminals,

II.   **The Social Agent:** The social agent undertakes several kinds of tasks or activities without being concerned about the relevance of these tasks to law enforcement in the strict sense,

III.   **The Law Enforcer:**   Strictly enforcing the law according to the rule book, no addition and no subtraction, and

IV.   **The Watchman:**   These are police officers that are committed to maintenance of public order.

Another significant contribution to this subject matter is that of Broderick J. John (1987) who also developed his observations into four police operational approaches, namely:

I.   **Enforcers:** These are police officers, who are primarily concerned with maintaining order, protecting and keeping society safe by arresting criminals in their beats

II.   **Idealists:** These category of police officers operate essentially like enforcers except that they additionally place emphasis on respect for the individual rights and compliance with due process

III.   **Realists:** Police officers in this category ascribe low value to human right and maintenance of social order; instead, they are basically concerned with issues of police loyalty and mutual assistance to fellow police officers, and

IV.   **Optimist:** Police officers in this category esteem individual rights and see their duties as opportunity to serve humanity rather than control crime.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What are the basic distinctions between the goals/objectives of policing and the operational strategies that you studied in this unit?

4.0   CONCLUSION

In this unit, we examined the goals and operational strategies of the modern police officers and discovered that while the broad goals of ensuring a safe society do not differ from that of the traditional police, the modern police appear to be more systematic and professional.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit on the goals and operational strategies of the modern police officer commenced with consideration of the primary (law and order maintenance and protection of lives and properties) and secondary (crime prevention, arresting and prosecuting offenders, service delivery, etc.) goals and objectives of modern policing. Then we looked at the roles of the police and the corresponding styles that the police uses to carry out these roles in society and the virtues (intellectual and moral) of good police officers, before concluding with typologies (the law enforcement, peace maintenance, procedural compliance, and protagonist) of policing.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   What are the goals and objectives of policing?
ii.   Mention and discuss the operational strategies that you will recommend as consultant to the Nigeria Police Force.
iii.   Write short notes on the following:
    a.   The watchmen style
    b.   The legalistic style, and
    c.   The service style.
iv.   Mention and explain:
    a.   The virtues of good police officers, and
    b.   Four typologies of policing.

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UNIT 3 POLICING: COURTESY, IMPARTIALITY AND PUBLIC SUPPORT

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will be introduced to the meaning and various dimensions of courtesy, impartiality and public support.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

•   state the meaning of courtesy, impartiality, and public support
•   explain the dimensions of impartiality
•   list the implications of courtesy and impartiality for public support to policing.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Meaning of Courtesy, Impartiality and Public Support

Courtesy and impartiality are concepts that have been extensively engaged in describing both the verbal and behavioural expectations of people who engage in social interaction, no matter the circumstances and nature of the interaction in question. An individual or organisation,

such as the police that is associated with the virtue of courtesy and impartiality, is very likely to earn the confidence and support of the society in which it is so identified. In the rest of this unit, you will be introduced to the; meaning of courtesy and impartiality, the central characteristics of these concepts, and their implications for public support to the police.

3.1.1 Courtesy

Wikipedia acknowledges that the concept of courtesy is of French origin, "courteis", dating to as far back as the twelfth century basically refers to polite and courtly conducts. It explains further that courtesy describes the etiquette and good behavior that is fed into sophisticated conversation and intellectual skill (Dominic Head).

Wikipedia also traces this concept to an Indian word, *daksinya*, expressing "kindness and consideration … in a sophisticated and elegant way" (Daud Ali). In the same vein, another electronic dictionary source (http://Dictionary.reference.com) identifies attributes such as excellent, polite, considerate, courteous, and respectful social behaviours together with indulgence and consent to communicate the meaning of this concept.

It may therefore not be out of place to say that courtesy involves the consistent demonstration of an excellent etiquette or predisposition, particularly, toward assisting people (strangers and regular residents) to either accomplish tasks, such as finding their bearing around a community or observing simple parking regulations before they are contravened out of ignorance. In other words, a courteous individual is characteristically other-directed to the extent that he/she always has consideration for the welfare of others, which then implies that, to a very large extent, courtesy originate from individuals with high principles of morality and compassion towards others that are in need. It equally embraces the attitude of taking initiative of seeking out people and rendering unsolicited assistance to them at all times.

Another definition that shares the features of most of the foregoing looks at courtesy as excellence in social behaviour and mannerism, which encompasses the act of expressing respect, especially through lending a helping hand, dishing out favour and being generous toward others. We conclude this definition by stating that courteous people tend to exhibit loyalty, urbanity and civility including politeness and courtliness (http://www.blurtit.com; and http://thinkexist.com/dictionary/meaning/courtesy).

3.1.2 Characteristics of Courtesy

From the foregoing definitions and illustrations, it can be seen that courtesy is a subject matter that is applicable to virtually every situation in which people come into contact, enabling individuals that are endowed with courtesy to express themselves. Courteous people therefore exhibit the following characteristic behaviour:

i.   always other-directed, going all-out to assist others
ii.   habitually take the initiative of looking for people to whom they render unsolicited assistance
iii.   exhibit genuine sincerity while assisting others
iv.   always willing to assist and derive satisfaction from helping others
v.   by their acts of courtesy they promote both their positive self-image and that of the organisation for which they work
vi.   they instigate optimism and belief in the sub-systems in the society
vii.   courteous people also come across as possessing:
  - the qualities of vigilance enabling them to identify people who are in need
  - good listening qualities which enable them to render appropriate assistance
  - excellent communication skills with the right tonalities enabling people to easily believe and trust them
  - they tend to be very knowledgeable, and
  - always friendly.

3.2   Impartiality

To a layman, impartiality refers to being forthright, just and unbiased in presiding over competitive events or settling disputes at any level that may include court cases or minor disagreements between siblings of the same parents. It is a term that therefore describes the action of an individual who is saddled with the responsibility of applying his/her discretion to arrive at judgments, which is similar to the situation police officers often find themselves either at the scene of crime or when invited to maintain order in the community. To be truly impartial therefore, an arbiter has to be sufficiently open-minded to enable all the parties to an issue to present their respective opinions without intimidation. Now, let us consider this concept beyond the layman's viewpoint.

In Megan Furi's work that focused on public service impartiality: *Taking Stock* (2008: 6), he applied this concept to the process of public policy formulation by stating that:

Impartiality recognises that, for desired expectations and outcomes, various opinions deserve consideration in the policy process. This perspective recognises that ministers require thoughtful and credible advice covering a range of aspects related to the public interest. It also recognises that citizens and taxpayers deserve services and policies that place the public interest ahead of the personal and ideological preferences of public servants. In practice, impartiality often requires public servants to refrain from opinions, positions or actions that demonstrate a bias toward or against a particular cause or course of action, including the defense of government policies. In analyzing options, public servants will consider the best evidence-based knowledge. They will base their recommendations on the desired outcomes and implement the decisions lawfully taken by ministers, even if these decisions differ from the advice or recommendations provided. A politically impartial public service supports the government of whichever political party the electorate chooses.

There are two amongst other fundamental facts that must be underlined in this submission on impartiality by Megan Furi. The first is that all opinions or perspectives on an issue must be exhaustively considered before taking a position if you are to be impartial. The second is that once a position is taken that decision should be implemented with high level of commitment and professionalism rather than subjecting it to further scrutiny or criticism.

Wikipedia states that impartiality is the purported principle of justice holding that decisions should be based on objective criteria, rather than on the basis of bias. In this definition, the principles of justice and objectivity are clearly earmarked as values that must be observed on the path to impartiality. Wikipedia also captured the philosophical, moral and religious dimensions to this subject for us to appreciate:

A consideration of the **philosophical view** reveals that impartiality does not require, however, that individuals be treated equally under all circumstances. People or groups *should* be treated differently if they *merit* different treatment according to external and objective morality. For example, most legal systems seek to treat murderers differently than innocent persons. This is not a result of partiality, however, because it appeals to an external, objective standard—the law—rather than bias or prejudice. As you may have noticed, this perspective equally identifies strongly with objectivity, however, in relational context, which it refers to as an "external and objective morality" (Dworkin, R. 1977: 227).

Though, **moral philosophers** under the **"partialists"** school of thought argue that partiality can be "morally admirable", such as that which is embedded in commitment to your "spouse, family and country",

"impartialists" believe that such loyalties are not morally admirable, arguing that all people should be treated equally regardless of one's relation to them." Yet, "a third view holds that impartiality is only necessary when an individual acts in a certain capacity, such as that of a judge, an umpire, or a public official. Under this view, impartiality is not a universal moral imperative.

What the partialists fail to understand, which the impartialists clearly brought into focus is that human conduct is dictated by the norms, values, mores, culture, and even social policies prevalent in our society - which is essentially true whether it concerns our commitment to spouse, family, and nation or the treatment of people of all description with a sense of equality. It is in this context that the third view reminds us that we should be mindful while acting out our roles as judges and umpires because the society is also waiting to pass verdict on our verdicts, based on societal standards.

The subject of impartiality has also been comprehensively dealt with by the two major religions in Nigeria:

Some of the views of the Christian religion on the subject of impartiality may be found in Colossians, and the epistles of James cited hereunder:
"But he that doeth wrong shall receive for the wrong which he hath done: and there is no respect of persons." - Colossians 3:25, KJV

"My dear brothers and sisters, how can you claim that you have faith in our glorious Lord Jesus Christ if you favour some people more than others? For instance, suppose someone comes into your meeting dressed in fancy clothes and expensive jewellery, and another comes in who is poor and dressed in shabby clothes. If you give special attention and a good seat to the rich person, but you say to the poor one, 'You can stand over there, or else sit on the floor' - well, doesn't this discrimination show that you are guided by wrong motives? Listen to me, dear brothers and sisters. Hasn't God chosen the poor in this world to be rich in faith? Aren't they the ones who will inherit the Kingdom he promised to those who love him? And yet, you insult the poor man! Isn't it the rich who oppress you and drag you into court? Aren't they the ones who slander Jesus Christ, whose noble name you bear? Yes indeed, it is good when you truly obey our Lord's royal command found in the scriptures: 'Love your neighbour as yourself.' But if you pay special attention to the rich, you are committing a sin, for you are guilty of breaking that law." - Epistle of James 2:1-9, NLT.
"But the wisdom that comes from heaven is first of all pure; then peace-loving, considerate, submissive, full of mercy and good fruit, impartial and sincere." - Epistle of James 3:17, NIV.

Islam also emphasises the practice of justice, equity, and equality among people in the Quran:

"The Absolute Criterion of Justice and Equity, was sent down by Allah so that people may conduct themselves with equity." Quran, 52:25.

"Establish weight with justice and fall not short in the balance. Maintain the balance with fairness and justice, without differentiating anybody's rights and obligations." Quran 55:9.

Impartiality is not in the consideration of God because He will deal with you according to your deeds and not your social status. The love of God is without discrimination. Allah also recommends fairness, justice and equity to humanity without differentiating the rights and obligation to people on the basis of social categorisation.

In conclusion, "being impartial means not imposing or making known your own personal judgment or cultural values or not projecting personal bias or beliefs" (http://deborahsacharoff.com/impartiality.html).

3.2.1 Essentials of Impartiality

The following are the five essential components of impartiality:

i.   Precision or Accuracy: Any judge or umpire who gives in to partiality can hardly arrive at precise or accurate decisions. More often than not, partiality leads to inaccuracy

ii.   Evenhandedness or Fairness: Prejudice, favouritism or unfairness is the main reasons for impartiality. An unfair minded judge or umpire will hardly see evidence tendered before him/her from an objective perspective and therefore cannot usually arrive at objective decisions

iii.   Sense of Balance: This is one of the most important elements of impartiality because in its absence one party is likely to receive a biased judgment

iv.   Environmental Context: In order to arrive at an accurate decision you have to patiently consider all the available input relating to the matter being discussed. In the absence of this kind of detailed consideration the decision of an individual is likely to be inaccurate

v.   No conflicts of interests: Individuals that have a stake or interest of any kind in an issue should opt out of the position of decision making should they find themselves there. Should they fail to do this the apparent conflict of interest will affect their decisions for everyone to see. Basically, impartiality can hardly be achieved when an arbiter is not completely independent.

3.2.2 Characteristics of Impartiality

From what we have discussed so far, the following characteristics of impartiality can be identified:

i.   judgment that is devoid of the personal values or bias of the judge or umpire
ii.   consideration of available options, opportunities, and perspectives on an issue before arriving at decisions
iii.   implementing decisions conscientiously without attempting to impute your own values or criticism midstream
iv.   assisting with information that will enable others arrive at the correct decision
v.   objectively assessing facts as they are
vi.   being truthful, fair and honest with your decisions
vii.   being transparent for everyone to see that your decision was based on clear patterns that can be replicated
viii.   not attempting to force your view on other people
ix.   ensuring that you are as neutral as possible
x.   avoiding conflict of interest as much as practicable, and
xi.   avoiding incidence of prejudgment as much as possible.

3.2.3 Discourteous Police Conducts

Some examples of discourteous police conducts include the following:

i.   intimidation of motorist at checkpoints to extort money
ii.   beating up unarmed civilians on the street
iii.   talking rudely to members of the public
iv.   unnecessarily dispersing civil gathering and rallies
v.   driving against traffic while not in pursuit of any criminal
vi.   abuse of the use of siren or its ethics
vii.   undisciplined behaviour such as alcohol consumption and smoking while in uniform
viii.   conducting illegal arrests, especially when not on duty,
ix.   erecting illegal checkpoints
x.   sexually abusing prostitutes and ladies arrested during night beats
xi.   effecting arrest without warrants for cases that are essentially domestic and without threats to life
xii.   stopping and searching individuals without first greeting and explaining their mission
xiii.   forcefully eliciting confessional statement from suspects through torture
xiv.   locking up awaiting trial suspects into the same cells as hardened criminals
xv.   discriminatory treatment of the affluent and the less affluent

xvi.   extra-judicial killings or summary execution of suspects
xvii.   gender discrimination in denial of the right to bail to women
xviii. manipulating or planting evidence to implicate suspects, etc.

3.2.4 Impartial Police Conducts

Some examples of impartial police conducts include:

i.   Dealing with various categories of offenders according to the respective criminal regulations without recourse to social status or relationship
ii.   Insisting on uniform standards in admitting sureties without gender discrimination
iii.   Distributing police officers into the entire community without considering the social and economic status of people living in certain neighbourhoods. For instance, Abuja, Ikoyi, Ajegunle, and Koko should have equal police presence
iv.   Insistence on the practical application of due process in all ramifications of police duties
v.   Effecting arrests and searching residential/office premises after obtaining and presenting legal warrants to occupants for these purposes
vi.   Exercising utmost politeness while approaching, stopping and searching vehicles in course of routine police duties,
vii.   Responding to emergency callers politely and explaining the challenges besetting the kind of response being expected by the public if necessary
viii.   Promptly investigating and charging cases of offenders to court without infringing on their fundamental human rights through delayed prosecution
ix.   Preserving exhibits obtained from members of the public without manipulating same to deliberately obtain judgments against those charged to court by the police
x.   Prosecuting cases fairly without obtaining gratification from one party in order to bear false witness
xi.   Arrests and settlement of disputes by the police should be accomplished objectively or impartially, especially, without creating room for manipulated decisions by friends and relations,
xii.   Confidential management of public information relating to criminal activity
xiii.   Regularly enlightening the public in order to familiarise them with all aspects of police procedures, etc.

3.3 Implications of Courtesy and Impartiality for Public Support to Policing

Courtesy and impartiality will impart on public support to the police for the following reasons. Courtesy and impartiality:

i.   is capable of generating support to the police through increased public confidence

ii.   will generate increased support and participation in police-community relations and policing

iii.   will definitely boost the amount of information required by the police to fight crime and maintain law and order in communities,

iv.   ensure that people are able to come forward to proffer practical suggestions to revive the police organisation

v.   should direct public support to a police organisation that deals objectively with issues rather than accepting gratifications to influence decisions

vi.   would enable public support to a police organisation that uses standardised measures to deal with offender while arresting charging them to court and generally witness for or against them,

vii.   will ensure public support for a police organisation that respond politely to emergency calls and obtains the necessary legal documentation prior to effecting arrest

viii.   should direct support to a police that insist on due process for everybody in the community without discrimination.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Define courtesy and impartiality and explain the relationship of these concepts to public support for the police.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Courtesy and impartiality can go a very long way to boosting public support to the police organisation and its offices if conscious efforts are made to put them into practice.

5.0   SUMMARY

Courtesy attends to the quality of being polite, considerate, humane, respectful, etc, while being other-directed, initiative, and sincerity are some characteristics associated with it. On the other hand, impartiality relates to being forthright, just, unbiased, etc, which is associated with such characteristics like objectivity, faithfulness, transparency, consideration, etc. Courtesy and impartiality are also associated with public support to the police through the public confidence, even-

handedness, openness, non-discrimination, standardised measures, etc, that is assured by these processes.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Define courtesy some of its main characteristics.
ii.   Mention and explain the main elements of impartiality.
iii.   Discuss the extent to which courtesy and impartiality can contribute to public support to the Nigeria police.
iv.   Write short notes, using practical examples, on the following:
        a.   The religious notions on impartiality
        b.   Discourteous police conducts

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UNIT 4   POLICING AND ETHICS

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1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit deals with the; concept and essentials of ethics, the law versus order dilemma, dimensions of unethical police behaviours, and the approaches to managing corruption.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

•   define ethics and its essential features
•   explain the law versus order dilemma facing the police
•   describe the dimensions of unethical police conducts
•   discuss approaches to managing police corruption.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Concept of Ethics

There appears to be extensive understanding regarding the propriety of human conduct that the concept of ethics embraces across disciplines. The following three definitions of the subject matter drive this point home emphatically:

According to the Merriam Webster's Dictionary, "ethics is discipline dealing with good and evil and with moral duty: moral principles or practice." Dempsey and Forst (2008: 197) similarly define ethics "as the study of what constitute good or bad conduct." They explain further that

"the term is often interchanged with morals, which is understandable because they come from similar root meanings pertaining to behavioural practices or character." They added the emphasis of Joycely J. Pollock (2004: 70) that:

> *Applied ethics is concerned with the study of what constitute right and wrong behaviour in certain situation. Basic ethics are the rather broad moral principles that govern all conduct, whereas applied ethics focuses these broad principles upon specific situations. For example, a basic ethical tenet assumes that lying is wrong, and applied ethics would examine under what conditions such a wrong would occur.*

Ethics clearly situates within the context of human excessive and defective responses to circumstances or challenges presented by life itself. These circumstances often elicit "character traits" or typical ways of individual responses that occur between the excessive and defective behaviours in people's character that is appreciated. Dempsey and Forst reported that Aristotle listed courage, self control, generosity, high-mindedness, gentleness, truthfulness and modesty" as elements of this appreciable character. Last but not the least, Appadorai, A. (2004: 9) defines ethics as:

> *A branch of study which investigates the laws of morality and formulates rules of conduct. It deals with rightness or wrongness of man's conduct and the ideals towards which man is working. What is the basis of moral obligation? What do we mean by right action? How are we to distinguish a right action from a wrong one? These are some of the questions with which ethics concerns itself.*

Ethics-related capacity building is increasingly becoming an integral aspect of modern community policing because police officers whose operations are guided by ethical principles are believed to instigate confidence and trust, which does not occur from the operations of unethical police operations. In other words, training in ethics is thought to enhance the service delivery capabilities of the police organisation (Michelle, A. Mortensen and Michael Cortrites, 2003). The study of ethics is therefore recommended to police officers for the following amongst other reasons (Joycelyn M. Pollock, 2004: 5):

i.   Police officers apply reasonable amount of discretion while working and during law enforcement,

ii.   Police officers basically protect the constitutional measures that forms the bedrock of our society, due process and equity/equality, and

iii.   As public servants, police officers ought to exhibit exemplary or trustworthy behaviour.

However, the average police officer's ability to insist on ethical conduct during his/her regular operation is complicated by judicial guidelines that are increasingly sensitive to human rights and civil liberties together with the complex operational modalities of criminals, which could increase the police officer's inclination towards unethical conduct. In general terms, the police department and police officers are highly rated and appreciated by society (Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics online, 2006).

Nevertheless, the police is still essentially set back by officers that involve themselves in deviant behaviour for reasons that researchers have attempted to interpret to either police subculture or individual conducts of the officers involved in misconducts (Joycelyn M. Pollock, *op cit*: 149). Against this background, some of the measures being suggested to resolve the issue of police deviance include; proper selection techniques, compulsory periodic counseling and supervisors who are proactive in terms of taking prompt actions to resolve potential challenges.

3.1.1 Essentials of Ethics

Ethical behaviours are generally characterised by the following essential elements (Villiers Peter, 1997: 29 – 45):

I.   **Concern with what is right or wrong:** The fact that ethics primarily focuses on the extent to which human behaviour is right or wrong is a theme that has been well expressed in all the concepts cited in this unit. Police officers whose roles are guided by high ethical standards are those that apply rules and regulations without prejudice. They do not demand or accept gratifications for carrying out their legitimate duties and do not discriminate in the choice of people or neighbourhood to which they render services.

II.   **Concerned with Courage:** Ethical issues generate a lot of controversies and often lead to dilemmas that are not trivial. Villiers wrote that "they arouse controversy. People may argue passionately for one solution or another. Look at the debate about abortion in the United States. Adopting and sticking to a position may make you unpopular, ostracised, unemployed, imprisoned, tortured or dead. It may make you admired or loved." Therefore,

whenever a police officer is confronted with certain kind of situations, say the operations of a deadly (well armed) criminal gang, he/she needs courage, not recklessness which Aristotle said is not a virtue. The kind of courage that is required is physical and sometimes moral courage. Villiers explained further that:

> *The person who faces physical danger may have had time to prepare himself to face it, in which case his body may have produced adrenalin to raise his energy and confidence in the expectation of violent effort; but adrenalin is neither necessary nor sufficient for the manufacture of courage. The truly courageous person is he or she who can calmly and level-headedly face up to danger, having considered the possibilities and being prepared to risk or sacrifice himself either to save others or simply to carry out his duty.*

These are the kind of heroism that the jobs of police officers demand on daily basis. The service requires its officers to display quiet, steadfast resolution in the face of danger everyday: but it is not usually the sort to display which leads to citations and medals.

III.   **Concern with fundamental beliefs and values:** Police officers ought to believe in the ethics of the police organisation and raise it to the level of values to which they aspire. That is, they ought to be seen or perceived by society as guiding their actions with certain values that are responsible for their uniformly high moral standards.

IV.   **Concern with Consistency:** Police officers have to demonstrate consistency in their behaviour at all time. Police officers that act in a particular way against criminal behaviour in community A should apply or reproduce the same action in other communities when the same type of criminal activity occurs. The main benefit of consistency is that "it does offer predictability and allow for organised social life" (Villiers, 1997: 42).

V.   **Concern with reciprocity:** This principle of reciprocity is very important because it recognises mutual respect and actions. However, it does not rule out the fact that one's choice of action could sometimes be arbitrary or the fact that one seldom knows how he prefers to be treated.

VI.   **Concerned with universality:** An ethically driven police officer will apply the same solutions to the same category of challenges or problems.

VII.   It is neither relative nor absolute: Ethics is concerned with living by the value judgments that we make. It implies "that we have the right to make choices for ourselves, but not to criticise the choices of others, nor attempt to influence their behaviours". Thus ethical decisions are based on individual preferences that may coincide with the preferences of others. Basically, one person's choice is not superior to other people's choices. In other word, choices are relative and not absolute. To state it in another way, ethical choices could be culturally relative, meaning that it could vary from one culture to another.

3.2   The Law versus Order Dilemma

Incidents of brutality and corruption have been associated with policing from time immemorial. In this regards, some form of conflicts have always been noticed around the law and order maintenance functions of the police (Frank Schmalleger, 2001: 18). It will ideally be easier to maintain law and order under situations where all police officers are physically stronger than criminals, in which case it would be very easy for the police to put all criminals under check for society to be safe. However, this situation is inadmissible because it would lead to outright chaos or disorder which the police seek to maintain or enforce. Police officers are confronted with ethical dilemma on daily basis and these require that they apply discretion more often than envisaged. The situation that brings about the application of discretion differs from day to day and this also influences the decision to arrest. In the word of Dempsey and Forst (2005: 199), "officers have to weigh many variables and sometimes contemplate accomplishing the most good for the greatest number of people. Whenever they do this, they are open to questioning and criticism. If they considered the wrong factors (race, ethnicity, ability to gain influence, payoffs) in making decision, they could be on the slippery slope of corruption. The slippery slope concept suggests that when people begin to deviate they do it in small ways. But once they have deviated, they begin to slide down on a slope that leads to greater and more pronounced type of deviance. Therefore, there is no such thing as "minor" unethical behaviour" (Pereg and Moore, 2002: 146).

3.3   Dimensions of Unethical Police Conducts or Behaviours

Police corruption has been described in several ways that include the following:

According to Herman Goldstein (1975: 3), "Police corruption is an act involving the misuse of authority by a police officer in a manner designed to produce personal gain for himself or others." Another author

defines it as the misuse of police power with a view to obtaining personal or institutional profit (Carl B. Klockars, Sanja Kutnjak Ivkovich, William E. Harver, and Maria R. Haberfield, 2000: 1). An important underlying issue about police corruption is the attraction of economic gains for rendering services they ought to provide anyway or deliberately refusing to provide their legitimate functions to society (Michael Palmiotto, 2001: 37). Dempsey and Forst (2008: 201) drew the major elements of the foregoing definitions together to define corruption thus: "A police officer is corrupt when he or she is acting under his or her official capacity and receives a benefit or something of value (other than his or her pay-check) for doing something or for refraining from doing something." For instance, an officer that accepts a free cup of tea in course of duty today may eventually compromise himself further in the future, a phenomenon described as the slippery slope syndrome, leading to eventually accepting larger gratification and bribes in the future.

I.   Explanation of police corruption

There are several explanations to the phenomenon of police corruption. One of such explanations is the *differential association theory* of Edwin H. Sutherland that has been applied to the phenomenon by Frank Schmalleger (2007: 296). This theory posits that criminal behaviour could be acquired by a police officer through imitation or through learning and sharing from the behaviour of deviant individuals (petty thieves, smooth-talking traffic offenders, prostitutes, drug-dealers, robbers, etc) with which they come in contact on daily basis. "Schmalleger asks us to combine these everyday experiences with the relatively low-pay officers receive and the sense that police work is not really valued to understand how officers might develop a jaded attitude towards the double standards of the civilisation they are sworn to protect. Such a jaded attitude, Schmalleger says may entice officers into corruption" (Dempsey and Forst (2008: 204).

Another perspective on the reasons for police corruption identifies it with the rather huge powers and discretion exercised by the police coupled with what is referred to as the personality and cynicism that the police acquire from joining the organisation. To this may be added, the constant association between the police and different categories of deviants, the moral dilemma they experience attempting to enforce laws that are almost practically difficult to enforce especially considering that people really require the services (illegal drugs, gambling, alcohol, and prostitution) prohibited by the laws in question, as well as the huge financial reward that corrupt police officers may acquire. These have been explained as plausible reasons for corruption in the police.

Two other scholars, Samuel Walker and Charles Katz (2005: 450-455) also offered the following explanatory framework for understanding corruption in the police:

i.   Explanations by individual officers

This attributes the phenomenon of corruption to the "rotten apple" or individual police officers who are helplessly or incurably corrupt. The police organisaton tries to absolve itself of blame in adopting this posture of the "rotten apple",

ii.   Social structural interpretation

This approach ties police corruption to socio-structural developments that nurture and uphold it. These structures includes the criminal law (prohibitions of activities seen as legitimate by most people and ordinances that are contradictory), cultural clashes (where outlawed behaviours are actually appropriate to other cultures), and local political situations (pertaining to corruption at government/community levels bound to reflect on the police),

iii.   Neighbourhood-Related Explanations

Environments that are socially disoriented tend to harbour larger proportions of the poor, low social controls, and relatively higher proportion of corruption within,

iv.   The pattern of police work

It largely involves police officers working independently or in very small teams unsupervised, under work conditions that are conducive to police cynicism. Officers who are frequently open to corruption tend to believe that others are equally involved in corruption,

v.   Police organisation

Where corruption thrives in the police organisation there will generally be very low levels of discipline by the officers in the department, and

vi.   Police subculture

This can encourage falsehood and cover-ups in order to be seen as identifying with group loyalty and solidarity.

Types of corruption: There two broad sub-groups, namely:

a. **Grass-eaters** who are basically passive receivers of whatever is offered to them. Majority of corrupt police officers fit into this category, and

b. **Meat-eaters** who aggressively search for opportunities to obtain money from people (Knapp Commission, 1973: 4).

Walker and Katz (2005: 445) further classify corruption into four main types:

i. **Gratuities**: This comes in the form of seemingly unimportant tips and discounts on purchased items,

ii. **Bribes:** This is sums of money paid to police officers that enable the persons making the payment to carry out the intended plan set out against the criminal justice system. The two forms of bribes that exist are:
   - The **pad** (formal periodic, regular payment to police officers to induce them to overlook regular criminal activities), and
   - The **score** (a one-time settlement to prevent one from being arrested after committing an illegal activity.

iii. **Theft or Burglary:** This involves police officers accepting money or property in course of performing their legitimate duties,

iv. **Internal Corruption:** With this, police officers settle their colleagues with financial rewards in order to gain undue advantages such as promotion and juicy job postings,

v. **Drug-Related Corruption:** This is essentially similar to other forms of corruption except that victims of this kind of corruption are less likely to report their experiences. It is for this reason that they are highly attractive to police officers, who see it as huge money-making prospects,

vi. **Sleeping on Duty:** This has to do with falling asleep knowingly or unknowingly, due to fatigue while police officers are on official duty. Fatigue is usually attributed to the rather loaded schedule of "officers working in the night shift and the rest of the world functioning on a day shift. Officers attend court and meetings during the day when they should be sleeping. Their sleep is interrupted by phones, delivery personnel, repair people, children, and family responsibilities".

vii. **Police Deception:** This refers to the false testimonies in court meant to subvert the law relating to searches, seizing exhibits, falsification of reports, etc.

viii. **Sex-Related Corruption:** These are often referred to as sexual violence that includes "those situations in which a citizen experiences a sexually degrading, humiliating, violating,

damaging or threatening act committed by a police officer, through the use of force or police authority". (K.B. Kraska and V.E. Kappaler: 85-111). Offences of this nature erode public trust in the police. Therefore, the "bad eggs" involved in it are even resented within the police organisation and severely dealt with whenever they are discovered. The public on its part is alarmed that police officers who ought to protect the citizens with the public trust and authority vested on them would submit to the disgraceful act of violating the weak in the society. Police officers that involve themselves in this act tend to exhibit the following behaviour that police authorities may regard as warning signals. These warning signs include though not limited to "male officers who pulls over female drivers, spends a lot of time outside bars at closing time, spend an inordinate amount of time at any place women tend to congregate, or conducts inappropriate follow-ups that he would not conduct for the average citizens. Most of these activities can be explained away in the context of performing good police service, but together they could be a pattern of behavior worth watching" (Dempsey and Forst, 2008: 211).

ix.   **Domestic Violence in Police Families:** Studies by the National Centre for Women and Policing (2003) have confirmed that the incidence of domestic violence in police families is higher than what obtains elsewhere in the society due to the unwillingness of victims to report cases. Besides, for victims who are police spouse, the situation is complicated by the willingness of colleagues to shield offenders from prosecution, perhaps, because they do not believe that their colleague could be involved in it. Offenders in this case often know where to seek shelter within the police organisaton - but for victims that are police officers, they have to deal with the psychological challenges of being unable to handle domestic violence by themselves. Often times, the fear that offenders might be dismissed from work and cut off the economic support to their families, restrain victims of domestic violence from reporting these cases at the police department. Moreover, most police organisations have tended to handle cases of domestic violence informally, which has not quite checked the phenomenon.

3.4   Approaches to Managing Police Corruption

The following are some of the approaches being applied to manage police corruption universally:

a.   Investigations
b.   Discipline and termination

c.   Preventive administrative actions, and
d.   Citizens oversight.

SELF- ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Define police ethics and explain four dimensions of unethical police behaviours in Nigeria.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Ethics is critical to the way in which the police are considered as discharging their duties with sensitivity to the community they serve. A police organisation without ethical standards can hardly be differentiated from a criminal subculture or gang.

5.0   SUMMARY

Ethics deals with conducts that are good and bad. It is therefore characterized by such features as rightness or wrongness, courage, basic beliefs and values, consistency, reciprocity, universality and relativity.
Police behaviours that are considered to be unethical include: corruption, drug related corruption, sleeping on duty, and police deception, while some of its remedies include investigations, discipline and termination, preventive administrative actions and citizens' oversight.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Define ethics and discuss its essential features.
ii.   Define police corruption and discuss the two views on the explanation of police corruption.
iii.   Write short notes on the following:
        a.   Law versus order dilemma of police officers
        b.   Sub-groups and types of corruption
iv.   Describe the issues involved in sex-related corruption and mention four approaches to managing this form of corruption.

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UNIT 5   UNDERSTANDING POLICE STRESS

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1.0   INTRODUCTION

This unit dwells on the meaning and nature of stress, stress factors, impact of stress on policing and stress management strategies.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

•   explain the meaning and nature of stress
•   identify specific stress factors and their impact in policing
•   describe the strategies for managing stress.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Meaning of Stress

The Merriam Webster's Dictionary defines stress as "a force (pressure or strain) that tend to distort a body or a factor that includes bodily or mental tension". Though this is what is meant when people use the word in ordinary discourses, it does not speak much about the source of stress, especially of the type experienced in organisational contexts such as that of the police.

According to Dempsey and Forst (2008: 153), "stress is the body's reaction to internal or external stimuli that upset the body's normal state. A stimulus that causes stress (stressor) can be physical, mental, or

emotional. The term stress is used to refer to both the body's reaction and the stimuli that caused it". Major components of this definition are:

i.   stress can be caused by internal or internal stimuli
ii.   these stimuli could be physical, mental or emotional
iii.   stress causes the body to react
iv.   the reaction caused by stress upsets the body's normal state, and
v.   stress refers to both the body's reaction and the stimuli that caused it.

Whenever the body reacts to stressful conditions, it is said to be expressing "flight and fight response". Whenever the body of an individual is stressed, the adrenal gland produces large quantities of adrenaline and releases it into the bloodstream. As a result, the liver is stimulated to release stored carbohydrates needed for extra energy. This process of extra energy release is accompanied by faster heartbeats and breathing, higher blood pressure, and muscular tension. These are usual developments associated with the body's preparation for the extraordinary physical tasks. But, where this energy not is channeled into any such task or is frustrated, it results in basic stress indicators like stomach upset, headache and irritability amongst others (Edwin S. Geffner, 1978).

Though, it is believed that stress does not lead to the onset of disease by itself, however, it has been found to create an enabling environment for disease to thrive. Stress reduces or distorts the effective functioning of the defense mechanism; hence it is easily implicated for such health challenges as hypertension, stomach ulcers, cardiovascular disease and cancer to a relative extent.

Table 3.1:   Mental and Physical Problems Associated with Stress

I.   Psychiatric problem
        Posttraumatic stress syndrome
        Neurosis
        Transient Situational disturbances
II.   Immunology problems
        Reduced resistance to infection
        Tumors
III.   Cardiovascular problems
        Heart attacks
        Coronary artery disease
        Hypertension
        Stroke
IV.   Genitourinary problems
        Failure to menstruate
        Impotence

        Incontinence
V   Gastrointestinal problems
        Ulcers

Source: Dempsey and Frost (2008: 154). *Introduction to policing*.

3.1.1 Nature of Police Stress

It is an established fact that all kinds of career and life itself is characterised by stress. However, there is the very strong view that policing is easily one of the most stressful professions in the world (Newsweek, 1988: 43). It is therefore no surprise that empirical proof abound that the police have some of the highest rates of divorce, suicide and other indicators of stress compared to other professions (W. Clinton Terry, 1981: 67-70). Milanovich Clement (1980: 20) further describes police stress situation in these words; "It would be difficult to find an occupation that is subject to more consistent and persistent tension, strain, confrontations and nerve wrecking, than that of the uniformed patrolman." According to Robert McGuire (1979: 27), the four basic sources of police stress are: external, organisational, personal, and operational:

I.   **External Sources of Stress:** These are stress caused by dangerous and life threatening situations especially occasioned by gun battles with criminal gangs, dangerous tasks and pursuit of fleeing vehicles. Researchers using the rate of heart beats and observation of data on physical activity concluded that the greatest rate of physical stress takes place during the periods of physical enforcement activities by police officers: psychological stress associated with response to critical events, more so when relating with the suspect during the event and subsequently. It was observed that the heartbeats of police officers handling critical cases are usually faster throughout the day and during the period of report writing. They also found that officers anticipate stress throughout the day from the time of taking over their shifts (Gregory S. Anderson, Robin Litzenberger, Darryl Plecas, 2000: 399-420).

II.   **Organisational Sources of Stress:** These are stress situations caused by the quasi-military nature of police functions requiring regular adjustment to duty, irregular working hours, working during holidays, and the strict disciplinary work environment. Organisational stress is also produced by inability to regulate work schedules, activities, workplace bias, and the general working conditions.

      Merry Morash, Robin Haar, and Dae-Hoon Kwak (2006: 26-43) identified the "predictive stressors" in police work as poor

influences over work, activities, and biases against one's racial, ethnic, or gender group. Dr. James Q. Sewell (2006: 1-6) traced stress in police to some management practices in the organisation. This is especially the case where leaders have been trained in traditional management strategies or happen to be over-concerned with personal progress at the expense of other police officers who may be stressed up by this kind of situation.

III.   **Personal Sources of Stress:** This results from the interpersonal features of a police officer's institutional affiliation to the police organisation. It basically entails the challenge of getting along with each other as police officers.

IV.   **Operational Sources of Stress:** These are caused by the daily expectations of participating in work-related encounters that so often occur in urban settings; dealing with destitute or abandoned social misfits, criminal elements, mental cases, and addicted drug users; engaging in life-threatening activities on behalf of a public that is hardly appreciative; and the ever present likelihood of being held liable for ones actions in the normal course of duty. Yolanda M. Scott's (2004: 237-261) study led her to conclude that police officers attached to rural communities and small-town settings were equally stresses by a couple of factors. Dempsey and Forst (2008: 156) present the factors identified by Yolanda Scott thus:

> *She (i.e. Yolanda Scott) found that organisational stress was among the most problematic for officers and that their perceptions of the organisational setting, specifically administrative changes, were significantly predictive of all forms of officer stress. These officers perceived that changes to the department's top administrative position would interrupt every part of their lives and work, including their treatment within the department, situations of danger or violence and the impact of the job on their families. She also found that media criticism was linked to officer stress and that this is particularly upsetting because it disrupts their credibility with the community to which they are a part. She explain that they are recognisable people in the community and have difficulty finding privacy whether on or off duty.*

Yolanda M. Scott (2004), recommended peer group support and mental health counseling as useful stress-related interventions that could be

applied to reduce stress conditions to which police officers are exposed. Another research by Yolanda M. Scott (2006) revealed that rural based police officers have adopted the following mechanism to cope with stress; regular physical exercise, and problem sharing amongst themselves. Some police officers were also found to have fallen victims of maladaptive strategies such as regular absence from work, refusal to discuss challenges with fellow police officers, sleeping on duty, alcoholism, and smoking heavily.

3.2   Stress Factors in Policing

Several factors are responsible for the stress experienced by police officers who are pursuing their legitimate responsibilities (Nancy Norvell, Dales Belles, and Holly Hills, 1978: 402-416). Some of these factors include; poor capacity building, substandard/outdated equipment, poor remuneration, insufficient opportunities, conflict of roles, exposure to brutality, fears associated with safety and job proficiency and lack of job satisfaction. In addition, the pressure of working round the clock, fatigue and others also contribute immensely to police stress. (Bryan Villa, 1996: 51-92). Table 3.2 presents the sources of law enforcement stress.

Table 3.2 Sources of Stress in Policing
I.   **External Stressors**
- Lack of consideration by courts in scheduling officers for court appearances.
- Lack of public support.
- Negative or distorted media coverage.

II.   **Internal Stressors**
- Policies and procedures that is offensive.
- Poor or inadequate training and inadequate career development opportunities.
- Lack of identity or recognition.
- Poor economic benefits and working conditions.
- Excessive paper work.
- Inconsistent discipline.
- Perceived favourtism.

III.   **Stressors in law enforcement work itself**
- Rigours of shift work.
- Role conflict.
- Frequent exposure to life miseries.
- Boredom.
- Fear.

- Responsibility for protecting other people.
- Fragmented nature of the job.
- Work overload.

IV.   **Stressors confronting the individual officer**
- Necessity to conform.
- Necessity to take a second job.
- Altered social status in the community.

Source: Dempsey and Forst (2008: 157). *Introduction to Policing*.

Healy B. (1981: 67-70) viewed the subject of police stress from the angle of physical fitness and found that without police fitness standards, a police department has too many "loose wires" to account for. It is unfair to place the burden of quality effectiveness on each individual without presenting a plan that will achieve these goals."

Ni He, Jihong Zhoa, and Ling Ren (2005: 535-547) examined the relationship between stressors and gender and discovered that women tended to experience higher levels of psychological stress than their male counterpart in the police organisation. Another research effort also confirmed that female officers were more susceptible to depression than male officers however; no significant gender differences were noticed in the measures of anxiety that were clinically developed (Ni He, Jihong Zhao, and Carol A. Archbold, 2002: 687-708).

Women also appear to be affected more by the incidence of posttraumatic stress depression and anxiety disorder (PTSD) while men are more prone to PTSD symptoms of impulsiveness and irritability (Cherly Wilczak, 2006: 50-69).

It is also a source of stress to women that they work in police organisations which is thought to be the exclusive preserve of men. In this regard, many women deliberately keep away from counseling to avoid being perceived as weaklings and this adds to their stress (Cheryl Wilczak, Oput: 50-59).

3.2.1 Outcome of Stress on Police Officers

A National Institute of Justice Report (2000: 18-24) catalogued the following outcomes of stress on police officers:

- cynicism and suspiciousness
- emotional disengagement from various facts of everyday life
- diminishing efficiency

- tendency to retire prematurely that is preceded by absenteeism
- involvement in substance abuse and excessive alcohol usage
- family/marital challenges; divorce, extramarital affairs, and or domestic violence
- incidence of heart attacks, gain in weight, ulcer and other health challenges, and
- tendency to commit suicide.

3.2.2 Impact of Stress on Police Families

The impact of work on the families of police officers cannot be overemphasised. In the view of Jerry Dash and Martin Resier (1978: 18), "police work … affects, shapes, and at times, scars the individual and families involved." To this extent, studies have captured the preference of police officers wives for alternative jobs for their husbands instead of police work (David Rafky (1984: 65). Moreover, the rather frequent rotations or shifts that accompany police work are not suitable to the enjoyment of natural holidays by families, as well as, celebration of family events like birthdays and other anniversaries. These rotations also work against the desire of police officers to pursue alternative careers or courses that will contribute to their career growth and development (Peter Maynard and Nancy Maynard, 1980: 309).

Ellen Scrivner (1991: 6) identified the following job-related matters that underline the dislocations that occur in families of police officers:

I: **Family Dislocation Occasioned by Shift Rotations**: Due to job rotations from which police officers are usually unable to excuse themselves,   particularly female police officers, they are unable to attend to their children's upbringing, participate in family events and enjoy holidays with members of their families. These shift job patterns also cause respectful amount of tension and irritability to police officers that influence the relationship with their family members.

II.   **Unpredictable Environment of Work:** The work environment of the police organisation is not stable. In fact, it is highly unpredictable and has seen officers living in constant adjustment to crisis, dealing with emergency, fear of death, injuries, and struggles to avoid investigations within the police organisation.

III.   **Job-Related Personal Change and Family Relationships:** Police officers are constantly exposed to tragedies, which affect their attitude and their family.

IV   **Community Expectations and Demands:** Public expectations about the police are usually higher than for other professionals. In addition to official responsibilities, neighbours of police officers

often expect them to respond to challenges and the emergencies that crop up within the neighbourhood.

V. **Intrusion into Family Life:** Quite frequently, police officers are compelled to take jobs home, which inevitably interferes with the time they ought to spend with their families. The weapon that police officers take home that must be safely secured, is a classic example of this. Police officers are more or less on standby throughout the day, which also affect their concentration at home and time spent with their families.

VI. As we saw earlier, rural-based police officers inhabit and work within the same settings and this is capable of adding stress to their family and personal lives (Yolanda M. Scott, 2004: 237-261).

3.3   Stress Management Strategies in Police Organisations

Stress is "an important underlying factor in police misconduct incidents". Therefore, conscious efforts must be made to integrate stress management services into the function of the police organisation. To use the exact words of a US commission on this subject, "Police officials should institute comprehensive stress management programmes that include identification of officers with stress problems, counseling, periodic screening and training on stress management" (US Commission on Civil Rights, 1981). Outlines of the strategies variously recommended for effective management of stress on police officers include (Ness, J. J. and Light, J. 1992: 23-26):

a.   training police officers to serve as peer counselors and facilitating their access to mental health counseling,

b.   setting up telephone lines (i.e. hotlines) for officers that require unanimous counseling to have access to such counseling,

c.   ensuring that police officers needing referrals receive it promptly and to highly competent institutions or experts,

d.   ensuring the involvement of police officers families in training programmes meant to enhance family assistance,

e.   establishment of institutional structures by the police organisation to manage the physical fitness of police officers. In other words, the police organisation should be responsible for the physical fitness of police officers. On the imperative of physical fitness, James J. Ness and John (1992: 23-26) writes that:

The adverse effects of the lack of fitness are overwhelming, while the positive benefits of fitness are often overlooked. Being physically fit diminishes stress, promotes self-esteem, improves firearm accuracy, increases an officer's confidence in confrontations, makes him more

effective with impact weapons and defense tactics, and generally improves his quality of life.

a.   The immediate supervisors of police officers should be trained to high level of proficiency to enable them render stress-related counseling to their subordinates.
b.   Special crisis intervention teams should be set up.
c.   Police officers should be made to enjoy regular relief through reassignments and duty reliefs.
d.   Confidentiality should be structured into the counseling process to boost the participation of police officers, especially the female gender.
e.   Police organisations should be efficiently managed with emphasis on effectiveness, speed, and confidentiality.
f.   Supervisors should have clear understanding of their goals, issue clear instructions and support officers in performance of their responsibilities.
g.   It is important to pay intimate attention to the way officers react after an event and ensure that their stress-related feelings are not disregarded or ignored, and
h.   Organisational change should be undertaken to improve the welfare of police officers in general.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Define stress and highlight its main components, sources, impact on police families, and its management strategies.

4.0   CONCLUSION

We can conclude from our study of this unit that stress is inimical to the effectiveness of police officers. This is because apart from the physiological consequences of stress on officers, it distabilises the accomplishment of police corporate objectives and the families of officers as well.

5.0   SUMMARY

Stress describes the body's response to stimulus that could be internal or external or both at the same time. The responses in question could be emotional, physical, and mental. In terms of origin, stress could come from external, organisational, personal, and police operational sources. Stress could be managed through training of police officers and their family members, referrals, management of officer's fitness, training police supervisors, scheduling of special duty reliefs, confidentiality, etc.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Define stress and explain the basic sources of police stress.
ii.   What impact does stress have on police officers?
iii.   Describe the relationship between stress and
        a.   Family dislocation occasioned by shift rotation
        b.   Unpredictable work environment, and
        c.   Community expectations and demands
iv.   Mention and explain the most important strategies for managing stress in the police organisation.

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