

COMPETENCY-BASED HIGHER EDUCATION FOR POLICING IN THE 21ST CENTURY

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ABSTRACT

Police education must stay abreast of the nuances and changes in the field. This article identified three meta-focusing events: the Columbine High School shooting (1999); the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks; and the fatal police shooting of Michael Brown (2014), which forever altered policing in the United States. Combined with other less discrete events and circumstances, these three events helped frame 21st-century policing. The new norm of policing raised the questions: *What do police officers need to know and what should they be able to do in the performance of their duties? What is the knowledge and base of policing as a profession?* Using the Delphi technique, this study developed the intellectual infrastructure for an undergraduate degree in police studies. The results provide a basis for a core curriculum that supports professional police studies as opposed to criminal justice programs for educating police officers.

INTRODUCTION

As a professional practice, policing is a complex, dynamic, and evolving enterprise. Accordingly, police education must stay abreast of the nuances, intricacies, and changes in the field. Using the Delphi technique, a scholarly methodology that employs the subject matter expertise of participants to help solve complex problems (Helmer-Hirschberg, 1967), we developed the intellectual infrastructure for an undergraduate degree in policing. The results provide a basis for a core curriculum in policing that supports professional police studies as opposed to criminal justice programs for educating aspiring and current police officers.

History teaches us that nothing happens in isolation. Every event has consequences, and some events are more consequential than others (Almond et al., 1973; Diamond, 2019; Kuran & Sunstein, 2007; McCullough, 2017; Meacham, 2018; Neal, 2005; Pender, 2017). Some events, such as high-profile mass shootings, terrorist attacks, and highly publicized police use/misuse of

deadly physical force, serve as *focusing events*. Focusing events are sudden, unpredictable, and harmful events that gain the attention of policymakers and the public and drive national policy more so than other policy events (Birkland, 1997; Kingdon, 2010; see also Downs, 1972).

This article identified three meta-focusing events: (1) the Columbine High School shooting (1999) in Columbine, CO; (2) the September 11, 2001 (9/11) terrorist attacks in New York City, Washington, DC, and Shanksville, PA; and (3) the fatal police shooting of Michael Brown (2014) in Ferguson, MO, which forever altered policing in the United States. The term *meta-focusing event* is used here to emphasize the magnitude of the events and the extent to which they transformed policing in the 21st century. The specter of mass shootings, terrorism, and police use/misuse of deadly physical force raised thought-provoking questions such as: *Why is this happening? What could have been done differently? and What should be done?*

In addition to their traditional law enforcement and community policing functions, the police were tasked with preventing and responding to mass shootings (Fein et al., 2002) and terrorist incidents (National Commission on Terrorist Attacks, 2004; White House, 2002). At the same time, police policies—particularly the use of force were vigorously challenged—resulting in new/revised policies emphasizing accountability and transparency (Walker & Archbold, 2019). Police agencies adapted to their new norm. Police policies now include enhanced active shooter response, counterterrorism, crisis-intervention, de-escalation, diversity, emergency management, implicit bias, and information and intelligence sharing as well as the use of advanced technological devices such as body-worn cameras, facial recognition software, and drones. The new norm of policing raised the questions: *What do police officers need to know and what should they be able to do in the performance of their duties? What is the knowledge and base of policing as a profession?*

Colleges, particularly those with police/criminal justice programs, play a role in preparing current and aspiring police officers for the challenges of the 21st century. Police-related curricula should be based on the key educational objectives, knowledge domains, and competencies that police officers need for their roles and responsibilities in the 21st century. Educational objectives outline the professional and career accomplishments a college program prepares its students to achieve; knowledge domains refer to the competencies, knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes police aspirants should have upon entering the profession; and competencies are the measurable skills students of policing should have upon entering the profession (Wheelahan & Moodie, 2011). The educational objectives, knowledge domains, and competencies of police-related curricula should reflect the most current police policies and practices.

The vast majority of police-related higher education programs in the United States are housed within criminal justice departments and programs (Criminal Justice Programs, 2021). However, some academics question the criminal justice model as a framework for police education. They found criminal justice education to be narrow and restrictive since much of police work relates to non-criminal matters such as safety, security, social services, and social justice (O’Keefe, 2004; Sherman & The National Advisory Commission on Higher Education for Police Officers, 1978); and police professionalism could be a viable framework for analytical, critical, and evidence-

based education specifically designed to improve policing (Cordner, 2018, 2016; Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Sklansky, 2011; Stone & Travis, 2011; Weisburd & Neyroud, 2011).

Rather than deferring to either the criminal justice or new professionalism frameworks, we employed the Delphi technique. Building upon the findings and recommendations of the President's Task Force on Policing in the 21st century (2015) and the formative efforts establishing a *competency-based curriculum* for an undergraduate degree in homeland security (Homeland Security and Defense Education Consortium Association, 2009; International Society for Security, Preparedness, and Resilience, 2017; Ramsay & Renda-Tanali, 2018) we set out to develop a foundation for undergraduate police curricula. Competency-based curriculum includes a baseline set of educational standards that help ensure academic programs consistently graduate a workforce who has a common set of competencies aligned to the needs of a discipline or field of practice (American Institutes for Research, 2017; Johnstone & Soares, 2014; see also Koper & Lum, 2017).

We asked a panel of police subject matter experts from the U.S. to identify the educational objectives of a police-related undergraduate curriculum, the knowledge domains, and competencies police officers need for their roles and responsibilities in the 21st century. Police subject matter experts are, among other things, capable of identifying the intellectual foundations of their field (Bittner, 1970; Huey & Long, 2016).

The article begins with an examination of the post-Columbine, post-9/11, and post-Ferguson police operating environments followed by a historical analysis of the role of higher education in policing in the United States. The next section explains the Delphi technique used by the study followed by the results section, which describes the educational objectives, knowledge domains, and related competencies undergraduate police curriculum should provide as well as a set of *specialized knowledge areas*. Specialized knowledge areas used here refers to the knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes (a) police officers might benefit from at an awareness level and (b) ranking/specialized officers might need depending on their rank, assignment, or agency. The conclusion and ways forward sections provide a roadmap for police higher education designed to help prepare police officers for the daunting challenges of the 21st century.

POLICING IN THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

On April 20, 1999, Eric Harris and Dylan Klebold, both students at Columbine High School in Jefferson County, CO, unleashed a flurry of gunfire and explosives at the school, killing 12 students and one teacher before killing themselves. Armed with multiple firearms and explosive devices, they waited for two propane tank bombs they planted in the school cafeteria to explode. When the bombs failed to detonate, Harris and Klebold shot students outside the school before entering the building, where they continued their rampage, firing at least 188 shots and lobbing several pipe bombs. On three occasions they exchanged gunfire with a school resource officer and police officers who were called to the scene. The massacre stirred the nation's consciousness and led to amendments to gun laws, new anti-bullying legislation, new police mass shooting response tactics, and school threat assessments (Columbine Review Commission, 2001; Vossekul et al., 2004).

On September 11, 2001, 19 members of an Islamic terrorist organization, Al-Qaeda, hijacked four commercial airplanes and crashed the planes into two towers of the World Trade Center in New York City; the Pentagon in Washington, D.C.; and a field in Shanksville, PA, killing 2,977 people. It was the deadliest terrorist attack in human history (National Commission on Terrorist Attacks, 2004). As was the case of the Columbine massacre, the nation's consciousness was stirred. The attack brought about the greatest reorganization of the U.S. government since the National Security Act of 1947, Pub. L. 80-253, created the Department of Defense, the National Security Council, and the Central Intelligence Agency to secure the nation in a post-World War II era. The USA Patriot Act, Pub. L. 107-56; the Homeland Security Act of 2002, Pub. L. 107-296; and the Intelligence Reform and Prevention of Terrorism Act of 2004, Pub. L. 108-458, expanded U.S. counterterrorism and intelligence authorities, created the Department of Homeland Security (DHS), and restructured the U.S. Intelligence Community, respectively. The White House (2002) released the first-ever National Strategy for Homeland Security. Homeland Security was "a concerted national effort to prevent terrorist attacks within the United States, reduce America's vulnerability to terrorism, and minimize the damage and recover from attacks that do occur" (p. vii).

On August 9, 2014, Michael Brown, an 18-year-old black man, was fatally shot by Ferguson Police Officer Darren Wilson in Ferguson, MO. As was the case of the Columbine massacre and the 9/11 terrorist attacks, the nation's consciousness was stirred. Wilson, who is white, fired his firearm 12 times, striking Brown six times. Witnesses purported Brown had his "hands up" and said "don't shoot" at the time of the shooting (Department of Justice, 2015a). Wilson claimed Brown charged at him, leaving him in fear for his life (*State of Missouri v. Darren Wilson*, 2014). A St. Louis County Grand Jury found there was insufficient evidence to indict Officer Wilson (McCulloch, 2014) and the Department of Justice (2015a) cleared Wilson of any civil rights violations in the matter. The death of Michael Brown and the lack of criminal charges against Officer Wilson sparked charges of systemic racism in policing (Department of Justice, 2015b; Pew Research Center, 2015); widespread protests and civil unrest (dan Heyer, 2019); and calls for police reform, enhanced accountability, oversight, and training (President's Task Force on Policing in the 21st century, 2015).

As will be shown in the following pages, the Columbine mass shooting, the 9/11 terrorist attacks, the police shooting of Michael Brown, and related crises and circumstances sparked dramatic changes in police policy and practice.

Post-Columbine Police Operational Environment

The post-Columbine *mass shooting operating environment* moniker derives from U.S. government, law enforcement, and educational officials' demarcation of the 1999 *mass shooting* at Columbine High School and other high-profile mass shootings and incidents of *targeted* violence, including the San Ysidro McDonald's massacre (San Diego, CA, 1984), Heath High School shooting (Paducah, KY, 1997), and Xerox murders (Honolulu, HI, 1999) as a call to action (Vossekuil et al., 2004). A *mass shooting* is defined as the shooting of three or more people other than the shooter in public spaces (Bjelpora, 2013). *Targeted violence* refers to

situations in which an identifiable (or potentially identifiable) perpetrator poses (or may pose) a threat of violence to a particular individual or group (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2019; Fein et al., 1995). The aforementioned mass shootings resulted in dramatic changes in police policy and practice including *threat assessments* and *active shooter* protocols as well as new gun control laws that might prevent and mitigate future mass shootings (Department of Health & Human Services, Department of Education, Department of Justice [DOJ], 2007; Erickson, 2001; Federal Commission on School Safety, 2018; Vossekuil et al., 2004; White House, 2013).

Threat Assessments. Threat assessments are fact-based analytic tools that focus on behaviors, namely what a student is saying and doing rather than whether the student “looks like” those who have attacked schools in the past. The assessments emphasize the importance of such behaviors for identifying, evaluating, and reducing the risk posed by a student who may be thinking about or planning for school-based attacks (Vossekuil et al., 2014, p. 34; see also Los Angeles Police Department, 2018).

Active Shooters. An active shooter is an individual actively engaged in killing or attempting to kill people in a confined and populated area (Department of Homeland Security [DHS], 2008b). In response to the Columbine and other high-profile mass shootings, police agencies initiated multiple interagency prevention, intervention, and active shooter training programs with educational, mental health, and social services agencies (Department of Health & Human Services, Department of Education, DOJ, 2007; Federal Commission on School Safety, 2018; Vossekuil et al., 2004; White House, 2013).

Gun Control. Several high-profile mass shootings and political assassinations and attempts, including the St. Valentine’s Day massacre (Chicago, IL, 1929); attempted assassination of president-elect Franklin Delano Roosevelt (Miami, FL, 1933); Tower Sniper mass shooting (Austin, TX 1966); assassinations of President John F. Kennedy (Dallas, TX, 1963), Martin Luther King (Memphis, TN, 1968), and Senator Robert Kennedy (Los Angeles, CA, 1968); Grover Cleveland Grammar School (San Diego, CA, 1979) and Cleveland Elementary School (Stockton, CA, 1989) mass shootings; attempted assassination of President Ronald Reagan (Washington, DC, 1981), and Pettit Martin Law Firm mass shooting (San Francisco, CA, 1993) led to comprehensive federal firearms and weapons legislation. The legislation required the registration of nearly all firearms and prohibited the possession of automatic weapons; bans the sale of firearms to felons, other violent offenders, and mentally incapacitated persons; and prohibits the possession of firearms in school zones (National Firearms Control Act of 1934, Pub. L. 73-474; Federal Firearms Act of 1938, Pub. L. 75-785; Gun Control Act of 1968, Pub. L. 90-618; Gun Free School Act of 1990, Pub. L. 101-647; Brady Handgun Prevention Act, Pub. L. 103-159; Violent Crime Control Act of 1994, Pub. L. 103-322).

Notwithstanding the implementation of threat assessments, active shooter protocols, and gun control laws, several high-profile mass shootings including Virginia Tech (Blacksburg, VA, 2007), Fort Hood (Bell County, TX, 2009), Sandy Hook Elementary School (Newton, CT, 2012), Century City Movie Theater (Aurora, CO, 2012); Inland Regional Center (San Bernardino, CA, 2015), the Route 91 Harvest Festival (Las Vegas, NV, 2017), and Marjory Stoneman Douglas High School (Parkland, FL, 2018), followed, leaving policymakers and

practitioners searching for additional means to prevent future mass shootings and targeted violence (Krause & Richardson, 2015; Mother Jones, 2021; Riedman & O’Neil, 2021).

Post- 9/11 Police Operational Environment

The post-9/11 operating environment represents the *homeland security era of policing* and the emergence of the *all-hazards* approach to homeland security (DHS, 2006, 2008a; National Commission on Terrorist Attacks, 2004; White House, 2002, 2006, 2007).

War on Terrorism. The homeland security era of policing refers to the U.S. government’s enhanced domestic security posture in the aftermath of the 9/11 terrorist attacks (Lubin, 2021; Oliver, 2006). In the wake of the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks and the U.S. government’s responsive *War on Terrorism*, the police assumed vast intelligence and counterterrorism responsibilities. The police were called upon to help detect and deter terrorist activity and to share information with law enforcement and other officials at all levels of government (Carter, 2009; DHS, 2004; National Commission on Terrorist Attacks, 2004; White House, 2002). The *War on Terrorism* metaphor used here reflects U.S. efforts to thwart terrorism beginning in the wake of the 9/11 attacks, including domestic counterterrorism initiatives and military actions in Afghanistan and Iraq (Belasco, 2014; Bush, 2010). Other major terrorist attacks altering the threat landscape include the Boston Marathon bombings (Boston, MA, 2013); 2016 New York–New Jersey bombings (Seaside Heights, NJ, and the Chelsea neighborhood, , New York, NY, 2016), and the West Side Highway Truck attack, (NYC, 2017) as well as at least 100 terrorist attack attempts/plots in the United States (Dahl, 2017; Hoffman, 2017; Lippman, 2017).

All-Hazards. In the wake of Hurricane Katrina in 2005, the threat landscape evolved to include the *all-hazards* approach to homeland security. The term *all hazards* includes natural disasters, accidental/technical catastrophes, and adversarial/human-caused threats such as hurricanes, climate change, nuclear accidents, power outages, terrorism, transnational crime, and active shooters (DHS, 2011). The police and their myriad homeland security partners assumed vast emergency management responsibilities including the prevention, mitigation, preparation, response, and recovery from all hazards (DHS, 2008a; White House, 2007). Other major natural disasters altering the threat landscape include Superstorm Sandy (East Coast of North America, 2012), Hurricane Harvey (TX, 2017), Hurricane Irma (FL, 2017), and Hurricane Maria (Puerto Rico and U.S. Virgin Islands, 2017), and the 2017 CA wildfires (CA, 2017).

Post-Ferguson Police Operational Environment

The post-Ferguson operating environment refers to the shattered relationship of U.S. police agencies and the citizens they serve in the in the wake of the fatal police shooting of Michael Brown in 2014 and several other controversial police killings of citizens (President’s Task Force on Policing in the 21st century, 2015).

Police-Community Relations. The fatal police shooting of Michael Brown, Walter Scott (North Charleston, SC, 2015), Tamir Rice (Cleveland, OH, 2014), and Laquan McDonald (Chicago, IL, 2014), and the controversial in-custody deaths of Eric Gardner (Staten Island, NY, 2014) and Freddie Gray (Baltimore, MD, 2015) resulted in unprecedented mass protests, civil disturbances, and calls for reform that focused on police use of force and military equipment policies and inequities in the criminal justice system (Institute for Intergovernmental Research, 2015; Jackson, 2015; Katz & Maguire, 2020; Lockwood et al., 2018; Schwartzberg, 2020).

De-policing. The post-Ferguson operating environment has also been associated with anti-police sentiment and *de-policing* leading to police disengagement and an increase in crime. De-policing, or the “Ferguson effect,” refers to a phenomenon whereby police officers—fearful of reprisals from citizens, the media, and government officials—become less vigorous in their enforcement and willingness to do their jobs (Earnest, 2015; MacDonald, 2016; Nix & Pickett, 2017; Shjarback, 2017; see also Marier & Fridell, 2020). Collectively, the protests, civil disturbances, and calls for reform underscored the importance of lasting collaborative relationships between the police and the public based on transparency, trust, and legitimacy.

COVID-19, George Floyd, and the 2020-2021 Protests and Civil Disturbances. The preliminary research and all data collection of our study preceded the COVID-19 pandemic, the controversial in-police custody death of George Floyd (Minneapolis, MN), and the fatal police shootings of Rayshard Brooks (Atlanta, GA) and Brianna Taylor (Louisville, KY) in 2020, and the large-scale demonstrations, protests, civil disobedience, and civil disturbances in the United States in 2020 and 2021. The role of the police in pandemics (International Association of Chiefs of Police [IACP], 2020), and calls for comprehensive police and criminal justice reform similar to those in the wake of the fatal police shooting of Michael Brown, are rapidly emerging (Citizens Crime Commission of New York City, 2021; Lampe, 2020; Major Cities Chiefs Association, 2020; Reynaud, 2021; Romero, 2020; H.R. 7120, 2020).

The Universe of Policing

Columbine, 9/11, and Ferguson did not occur in a vacuum. Rather, they followed other high-profile focusing events and government initiatives such as the *War on Crime* (Hinton, 2017; Alexander, 2012; Sander, 2018; Simon, 2009); the *War on Drugs* (Sacco, 2014; Tonry, 1995; Simon, 2009), and the *Occupy Movement* (Hammond, 2015; Lubin, 2012; Sander, 2018) as well as less discrete events and circumstances such as changes in societal attitudes, innovations in organizational strategies, and technological advancements. Collectively, the events and circumstances helped frame 21st-century police policy and practice.

Metaphors. The political arena abounds with competing ideas vying for limited resources and attention. Policymakers and advocates sometimes employ metaphors to promote their respective agendas. Metaphors help explain intangibles and the relative nature of our experiences. They play a central role in the construction of social and political reality. “War” metaphors such as the wars on terrorism, crime, and drugs promote a sense of urgency and help advance issues along the national policy agenda (Flusber, Matlock, & Thibodeau, 2018).

Narratives. Putnam (2020) found social scientists prefer causal analysis while most historians prefer *narratives*. He used the term *narrative* to describe events linked together in trends inter-braided by reciprocal causality. The focusing events described above as well as the events and circumstances depicted in the following Evolution of Police Higher Education section are all part of an ever-evolving policing narrative.

Evolution of Police Higher Education

The drivers of police higher education include historical events, changing societal values, reform initiatives (professionalism, impartiality, fairness); commissions, task forces, blue-ribbon panels; and agency and curricula accreditation and certification initiatives (Carter & Sapp, 1990; Cordner, 2019; Gardiner, 2016; Paterson, 2011; Rogers & Frevel, 2018).

Professionalism, Impartiality, and Fairness

The first major drivers of police education in the United States derive from the findings and recommendations of the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement (1929) and the persevering reform efforts of a police chief from Berkeley, CA: August Vollmer. The commission conducted the first comprehensive national study of crime and law enforcement in the United States and focused on problems related to the enforcement of prohibition laws, the rise of organized crime, the costs and causes of crime, and police and prosecutorial procedures and misconduct.

The National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement (1931) raised serious questions about the ability of the police to perform their duties impartially as well as the fairness of the criminal justice system. Among the commission's recommendations were the professionalization of policing and compulsory college programs for all police officers. Vollmer sought to professionalize policing and believed higher education was the optimal path to that goal. His efforts led to the creation of the Police School (1933) and an undergraduate degree in criminology (1935) at the University of California, Berkeley. Similar police higher education programs were established at the San Jose State University (1930), University of Chicago (1929), Michigan State (1935), Indiana University (1936), and the University of Washington (1943). The programs emphasized criminal justice in general and police work in particular and overlapped significantly with what we now think of as police training rather than education (Simpson, 1979).

Training Standards

The new police college programs were followed by post-World War II efforts by the law enforcement community to establish police training standards such as the Police Officer Standards and Training program as well as an influx of veterans who were eligible for G.I. education benefits. By 1965, approximately 65 criminal justice-related college programs were in existence (Simpson, 1979). One notable initiative during this period was the establishment of the University of Louisville's Southern Police Institute; its curriculum included behavioral science, communication, law, and leadership (Cordner, 2016; Rydberg & Terrill, 2010; Simpson, 1979).

The curriculum was replicated and offered within the FBI Academy as the National Academy for State and local police officials (FBI, n.d.).

A Long Hot Summer

The second major phase of police higher education reform came about as a result of the nationwide civil unrest infamously known as the “Long Hot Summer of 1967” (McLaughlin, 2014; National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorder, 1968). The turbulent days of the 1960s included changing social values, rising crime, domestic terrorism, and civil unrest stemming from racial and gender inequality, unemployment, poverty, and disparities in educational opportunities, public health services, housing conditions, inequities in the criminal justice system, and opposition to the Vietnam War. Mass protests and civil disorder erupted in at least 150 cities, nearly 300 people were killed, at least 10,000 people were arrested, and damages were in the hundreds of millions of dollars (Harris & Curtis, 1998; National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorder, 1968).

Violent Citizen-Police Encounters. While the underlying conditions may well have presaged the Long Hot Summer, many of the incidents of civil unrest were triggered by violent citizen-police encounters as was the case of the now-infamous Detroit and Newark Riots (1967), the earlier Watts Riots (1965), and the Harlem Riots (1964) (Governor’s Commission on the Los Angeles Riots, 1965; Governor’s Select Committee on Civil Disorder State of New Jersey, 1968; McLaughlin, 2014; National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorder, 1968).

President’s Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. The President’s Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967) was tasked with repairing the criminal justice system and restoring the public’s confidence in the system. Here begins the formal recognition of the police as part of a system, the criminal justice system: the police, the courts, and correctional institutions working together to protect the citizenry and ensuring justice for all. Recognizing the complexity of police tasks, coupled with police officers’ needs for a strong foundation upon which to base critical decisions while policing the community, the commission recommended federal funding for police higher education and required a bachelor’s degree as a minimum standard for employment. As a result, the newly established Law Enforcement Education Program provided funding for police aspirants and actively serving police officers to attend college (Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets of 1968, Pub. L 90-35). By 1975, more than 1,200 colleges offered a police-related course of study (Kobetz, 1975).

National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. A follow-on commission, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1973), was tasked with establishing national standards to stem rising crime and to improve state criminal justice agencies. In tandem with their criminal justice reforms, the commission recommended a minimum bachelor’s degree for all police officers. However, the National Advisory Commission on Higher Education for Police Officers (1978) and the Joint Commission on Criminology and Criminal Justice Education and Standards (1984) raised concerns that higher education’s response to law enforcement education had serious limitations (Ward & Webb,

1984). The programs were intellectually shallow, conceptually narrow, and provided by faculty who were far from scholarly. Instead of teaching the police what they should do, higher education appeared to be supporting the status quo.

No Consensus. Numerous academic studies have attempted to identify the impacts of college education for police officers and identify means to make it a more effective force for preparing the police for their roles in society. While most scholars agree some aspects of an officer's job are supported by college education, there was no consensus about whether or not college-educated police officers perform better than those without a college education (Albarano, 2015; Carter & Sapp, 1990; Gardiner, 2017; Ward & Webb, 1984). Notably, over 80% of local law enforcement agencies require only a high school education (Gardiner, 2017).

Accreditation

The third major driver of police education derives from the efforts of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences (ACJS) to standardize and accredit criminal justice higher education programs.

The ACJS was established in 1964 with the stated goal of developing and promoting all aspects of the criminal justice system, which was the original focus of ACJS's predecessor organization, the American Society of Criminology (ASC). Formally established in 1958, ASC focused on police science and curricula development. Soon thereafter two factions emerged: the former desired to maintain the original focus of the organization; the latter saw the study of criminology as more of a sociologically based organization, rather than a police science organization. Hence the departure of the ASC to the newly formed ACJS (Oliver, 2013).

Accreditation Standards. In 2005, ACJS established formal accreditation standards for undergraduate criminal justice programs and amended those standards in 2014 and 2016. The 2016 standards included curricula that were logically sequenced, coherent, rigorous, and included a balanced presentation of issues relevant to the field. The curricula were organized around substantive areas including the administration of justice, corrections, criminological theory, law and adjudication, policing, as well as research and analytic methods. The curricula should develop students' oral and written communication skills, problem-solving abilities, understanding of and appreciation for computers and technology, quantitative literacy, ethical decision making, and an appreciation of the value of diversity (Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, 2016a, 2016b; Oliver, 2013; Peat & Moriarty, 2009).

However, ACJS standards were not widely implemented, and the vast majority of college criminal justice programs are not ACJS accredited. Currently, at least 1,800 colleges offer a criminal justice program (Criminal Justice Programs, 2021). Also, more than 58,000 bachelor's degrees in homeland security, law enforcement, and fire science were conferred by post-secondary institutions in the United States in school year 2017-18, ranking the field among the top 10 degrees awarded (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019).

President's Task Force on Policing in the 21st century

The Final Report of the President's Task Force on Policing in the Twenty-First Century (2015) recommendations provide a foundation for future police higher education and training curricula. The task force promoted the guardian role of police officers and identified six pillars upon which the police should advance their profession: building trust and legitimacy, policy and oversight, technology and social media, community policing and crime reduction, officer wellness and safety, and most germane to our study: training and education.

The task force recommended agency promotion and support of college education for all officers and training, which includes community policing and problem-solving principles; interpersonal and communication skills; implicit bias, scenario-based, situational decision making, crisis intervention; procedural justice; trauma and victim services; mental health issues; addiction; analytical research and technology; and languages and cultural responsiveness programs. The task force also recommended that the DOJ should develop, in partnership with institutions of higher education, a national postgraduate institute of policing for senior executives with a standardized curriculum preparing them to lead agencies in the 21st century.

METHODOLOGY

In the absence of a vetted and published set of higher education accreditation standards for policing per se, the authors determined that a panel of subject matter experts could be used to develop a robust set of educational objectives and knowledge domains and related competencies defining the professional identity of the field. In defining the core body of knowledge for police professionals, it is critical to develop a consensus set of educational objectives, knowledge domains, and competencies around which a model curriculum can be formed. Importantly, degree programs will differ in scope, mission, subject matter expertise, market niche, and the particular needs of the program's constituencies. Model curriculums provide a minimum set of knowledge domains and a set of student learning outcomes within each domain that are derived from core competencies, providing latitude for individual programs to express their distinctive identity and competency (Ramsay & Renda-Tanali, 2018).

Subject Matter Experts

A panel of subject matter experts was formed by enlisting 22 highly experienced police professionals from across the United States with extensive professional and educational credentials across a wide range of topic areas including administration, community affairs, counterterrorism, criminal investigations, crisis and event management, education, emergency management, intelligence, internal investigations, law and policy, strategic planning, and training. The panelists represented a cross-section of expertise and experience in a variety of areas involving policing. Most offered multiple areas of expertise including serving as academy instructors, college professors, police promotional school instructors, and police curriculum developers as well as serving as executive-level members of international and national police associations and advisory boards (see the appendix for detailed participant criteria and bio-sketch).

Delphi Technique

The Delphi technique was employed as a means to develop consensus among subject matter experts. Based on iterative structural surveys making use of experts, the technique is considered beneficial when dealing with complex issues with little or no empirical evidence. After an initial round of questions, the results are returned to the participants with more questions in one or more subsequent rounds. Follow-on questions were based upon an analysis of the participants' responses to previous questions (Garson, 2014; Helmer-Hirschberg, 1967; Loo, 2000).

Survey Instrument

An online survey instrument was used to deliver information and collect responses from the panel. The Delphi technique presumes each member proceeds from a common platform and common vocabulary (Geist, 2010). Hence, the authors provided working definitions for the following terms *knowledge domains*, *competency*, and *educational learning outcome* as well as other terminology. Consensus was defined as 75% agreement among participants. Diamond et al.'s (2014) meta-analysis of 98 Delphi studies found the most common definition for consensus was percentage agreement (25 studies), with 75% being the median threshold to define consensus. To cost-effectively address the questions (*What are the educational objectives for a police curriculum that will prepare students for the challenges of policing in the 21st century? What are the knowledge domains and related competencies that police officers need for their roles and responsibilities in the 21st century?*) using a panel of experts from around the country, the Delphi technique was adapted to an online format from using a secure portal containing the survey items. Panel responses were entered online, and the completed survey was electronically submitted to the authors for review and evaluation. The survey was administered between May 2019 and December 2019.

The Delphi technique was divided into three rounds. Round one contained detailed instructions on the Delphi consensus-building process as well as how the panelists would use the online survey to submit their opinions. The panelists received a narrative of the post-Columbine, post-September 11, and post-Ferguson police operating environments similar to the narrative provided within the Policing in the Twenty-first Century section of this article and a starter set of educational objectives, knowledge domains, and competencies developed by the researchers that were based upon an *integrative literature review* of related police and criminal justice higher education research. An integrative literature review is a form of research that reviews, critiques, and synthesizes representative literature on a topic in an integrated way, generating new frameworks and perspectives on the topic (Toracco, 2005). The following questions were put to the panelists:

1. What are the educational objectives for a police curriculum that will help prepare students for the challenges of policing in the 21st century?
2. What are the knowledge domains and related competencies that police officers need for their roles and responsibilities in the 21st century?

Rounds two and three of the study focused on achieving a consensus on the educational objectives and identifying the knowledge domains and related competencies. Following each round, participants received an update and summary of the study's progress to date. In each round, once submissions from each panelist were received, all suggested comments and changes were integrated into the follow-on survey instrument. Follow-on surveys were then re-sent to each panelist for comment. Through a series of iterations, consensus was sought and gained. Hence, the Delphi technique iteratively developed a consensus on the educational learning objectives, knowledge domains, and competencies representing broad practices in policing.

RESULTS

The results of the seven-month-long set of meetings among the subject matter experts were to create consensus sets of four educational objectives, seven knowledge domains, and 25 related competencies for an undergraduate degree in policing. Underlying all knowledge domains was *critical thinking*, a habit of mind characterized by the comprehensive exploration of issues, ideas, and events before accepting or formulating a conclusion or decision (American Association of Colleges and Universities, 2009). Participants repeatedly identified critical thinking as being an essential component of policing. One participant's comments captured the sentiment, "In the police academy we teach act, don't react...little or nothing is what it first appears to be...we must think things through." In this sense, critical thinking could be a standalone knowledge domain and/or a related competency for all seven knowledge domains. Table 1 displays the educational objectives derived from the Delphi technique and Table 2 presents the knowledge domains and their related competencies.

Table 1. Educational Objectives

EO-1	Instill an appreciation of one's civic duties and responsibilities to society
EO-2	Infuse a desire to be a lifelong learner –to pursue subsequent training and education appropriate to the policing profession
EO-2	Instill in each graduate the need to be reflective practitioners who take the time to learn from professional experiences and apply lessons learned to future policy, operations, and educational and training initiatives
EO-4	Instill a desire to actively participate in the growth of the policing profession

Table 2. Knowledge Domains and Related Competencies

Knowledge Domains	Related Competencies
Law and Policy: legal and policy formulations that provide the roles and core goals, means, and limitations of policing	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Identify, describe, and apply applicable criminal, procedural, civil, constitutional, and other laws and policies to situations and circumstances 2. Identify and describe the history and evolution of U.S. policing 3. Identify and describe the roles of the police in a democratic society 4. Identify and describe the tenets of community policing 5. Identify, describe, and evaluate the positive and negative consequences of police occupational culture
Communication: the ability to listen, speak, and write effectively; engage people through empathy; and use proven communication strategies and tactics	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. Demonstrate an ability to listen actively and speak effectively and clearly in day-to-day personal interactions and at public gatherings 7. Demonstrate an ability to write accurately, clearly, and effectively 8. Demonstrate an ability to collect critical information from people in myriad situations and circumstances
Professionalism: commitment to serve in the interests of clients and the welfare of society coupled with the capacity to render judgments with integrity under conditions of uncertainty	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. Identify and describe the tenets of professionalism 10. Identify and describe the relationship between professionalism and trust and legitimacy 11. Work individually and collaboratively and in teams
Decision Making - a process by which an individual/organization chooses one option over another	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 12. Identify, describe, and evaluate the decision-making process 13. Identify, describe, evaluate, and apply the tenets of police discretion as well as the pros and cons of police discretion 14. Identify, describe, and apply the tenets of crisis intervention and de-escalation 15. Identify, describe, and evaluate the tenets of implicit bias
Diversity: differences in race, ethnicity, nationality, religion, gender, sexual identity, socioeconomic status, physical ability, language, beliefs, values, behavior patterns, or customs among various groups within a community, organization, or nation	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 16. Identify and describe diversity and multiculturalism 17. Identify, describe, and evaluate the legal and societal implications of discrimination and bigotry, classism, racism, and sexism
Research and Analytical Methods: the careful consideration of study regarding a particular concern or a problem using scientific methods	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 18. Identify, describe, and apply the tenets of information literacy 19. Identify, describe, and apply theories to problems/situations 20. Identify, describe, and apply the tenets of quantitative research methods to police problems 21. Identify, describe, and apply the tenets of qualitative research methods to police problems 22. Identify and describe evidence-based policing
Technological Literacy: the ability to use, manage, assess, and understand technology	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 23. Identify, describe, and be able to use basic information systems including word processing, spreadsheets, and electronic communication applications 24. Have knowledge of and be able to use computer networks securely, legally, and ethically 25. Demonstrate an ability and willingness to learn new technologies

The study also identified 10 specialized knowledge areas (Table 3) raised during the Delphi technique that did not receive the 75% consensus necessary for inclusion as a required knowledge domain. Instead, they met a majority criterion (51%). Specialized knowledge areas used here refers to knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes (a) police officers might benefit from and (b) ranking/specialized officers might need depending on their rank, assignment, or agency. We included the specialized knowledge areas for two reasons. First, the 51% consensus criterion for specialized knowledge areas indicated the majority of police subject matter experts consider them to be important enough to be included in a police higher education curriculum. Second, one participant’s comments concerned several of the knowledge domains including counterterrorism and intelligence, “They are a function of an officer’s rank and assignment ...officers should be trained in those areas as needed,” suggesting all police officers should have, at a minimum, an awareness of the specialized knowledge areas. This finding also demonstrates the range of specialized duties some police officers may undertake depending on their rank and assignment as well as the mission of their agency. The finding suggests police higher education programs should introduce students to the specialized knowledge areas and the knowledge areas should be taught in advanced/specialized police higher education and training platforms as needed.

Table 3. Specialized Knowledge Areas

Specialized Knowledge Domains
Counterterrorism
Crime Scene Analysis
Cyber Security
Emergency Management
Event Management
Foreign and Sign Languages
Forensics
Intelligence
Legal Advising
Public Relations

CONCLUSIONS

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

–August Vollmer, Police Chief Berkley CA, 1939 (Bain, 1939)

Using an external advisory panel of 22 police subject matter experts, we developed the intellectual infrastructure for an undergraduate degree in policing. Specifically, the study

identified a consensus set of educational objectives, knowledge domains, and competencies distributed across the core areas, as well as a set of specialized knowledge areas. The results provide a basis for (a) a set of master course syllabi from which a core curriculum in policing can be designed and (b) areas of concentration within the program as well as a mechanism for the continuous improvement of the program. The study also identified 10 additional specialized knowledge areas supplementing higher education police curricula at the undergraduate and graduate levels.

The results support professional police studies as opposed to criminal justice programs for educating aspiring and current police officers. Criminal justice higher education programs evolved from early 20th-century police studies that were designed to professionalize the field. Since that time, police-related focusing events, societal changes, reform initiatives, and myriad circumstances have inextricably transformed policing.

Criminal justice programs focus on criminological theory and the criminal justice system. Furthermore, the criminal justice academic community has generally resisted the notion that it is engaged in professional education, preferring to emphasize a more scholarly orientation (Cordner, 2019). Police officers are professionals who diagnose problems, make discretionary decisions, have broad authorities under minimal supervision, make critical decisions in circumstances of great stress, and must apply the law fairly and equitably (*Davis v. City of Dallas*, 1985). Policing is a meta-discipline; a discipline of disciplines. In addition to being a major component of the criminal justice system, policing is part of the social-services, mental-health, public health, emergency services, and security systems (Cordner, 2019; Dunham et al., 2021). Police higher education curricula should reflect the professional and meta-disciplinary nature of the field (Abbot, 2001).

Not surprisingly, the results have a high degree of convergent validity with the American Association of Colleges & Universities' (AACU) (n.d.) essential outcomes of a liberal arts education. AACU's four overarching outcomes of a liberal arts education listed here match this studies' educational objectives implicitly (1) knowledge of human cultures and the physical and natural world; (2) intellectual and practical skills; (3) personal and social responsibility; and (4) integrative and applied learning. This finding suggests police studies are well suited for liberal arts higher education. Finally, the results provide a baseline from which the Delphi technique and other research methodologies might incorporate the likely *post-Minneapolis*, *post-COVID-19* pandemic, and *post-2020-21 mass protest and civil disturbances* police operational environment. *Post-Minneapolis environment* is used here to depict current and evolving police reforms in the wake of the in police custody death of George Floyd and other controversial police use of force incidents in 2020. *Post-COVID-19* pandemic environment refers to the role of the police in public health emergencies. *Post-2020-2021 mass protests and civil disturbances* refer to the nationwide mass protests and civil disturbances related to the deaths of George Floyd and others as well as the 2020 presidential election and the electoral college process.

WAYS FORWARD

Policing is a complex and evolving enterprise. Consequently, higher education will struggle with the educational objectives, knowledge domains and related competencies, and specialized knowledge areas that should be taught to best prepare police officers for the challenges of the 21st century. In the wake of the murders of five Dallas Police officers in 2016, Dallas Police Chief David Brown famously said,

We're asking cops to do too much in this country. We are. We're just asking us to do too much. Every societal failure, we put it off on the cops to solve. Not enough mental health funding? Let the cops handle it. Not enough drug addiction funding? Let's give it to the cops. Here in Dallas, we got a loose-dog problem. Let's have the cops chase loose dogs. Schools fail. Give it to the cops. Seventy percent of the African American community is being raised by single women. Let's give it to the cops to solve that, as well. That's too much to ask. (Central Broadcasting Company, 2016)

Added to the chief's list is the role of the police in addressing calls for social justice and criminal justice reform; mass civil discord; the COVID-19 pandemic and future mega-public health crises and the economic outfalls of those events; mass protests and civil disorder; transnational criminal organizations; terrorism; cyber threats; emergency and event management; election security; the challenges inherent to new technologies such as autonomous vehicles, drones, and facial recognition, and unexpected and other "loose dog" problems inevitably default to the police (Center for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters, 2020; Coates, 2019; DHS, 2020a, 2020b; Major Cities Chiefs Association, 2020; McGuire, 2020; Office of the Director of National Intelligence, 2021; Reynaud, 2021; Rosenfeld & Lopez, 2020; World Economic Forum, 2021). As Friedman (2020) noted in a 2020 New York Law School paper, "Disaggregating the Police Function":

Crimefighting actually is a very small part of what police do every day, and their actual work requires an entirely different range of skills, among them: mediation skills to address conflict, social work skills to get people the long-term solutions they need, interviewing and investigative skills to really solve crimes, and victim assistance. (p. 1)

What remains to be demonstrated is how higher education and society prepare police aspirants and currently serving police officers for the challenges of the 21st century.

Our research affirms the notion that rather than being in a perpetual state of progress, disciplines emerge/converge with other disciplines based upon common interests and theoretical and methodological links. New disciplines are less a reaction to an established order than they are a reinterpretation of core ideas (Abbot, 2011; Comiskey, 2015). What is paramount to the education of police aspirants and currently serving police officers is the inclusion of the educational objectives, knowledge domains and related competencies, and specialized knowledge areas that prepare them for the new and ever-evolving norms of policing. This study was limited to the expertise of 22 police subject matter experts. Future iterations of similar

studies should include judges, prosecutors, academics, and federal, state, and local government officials.

Ways forward include national standards and accreditation for police undergraduate higher education programs. The Final Report of the President's Task Force on Policing in the 21st century (2015) and our findings provide a framework for national standards for police undergraduate curricula. Accreditation of police studies programs could be accomplished by a joint academic and practitioner body that would require the approval and substantial financial support of the federal government. Academics, policymakers, and practitioners should examine the higher education policies and practices of foreign police agencies that might apply to police higher education in the United States (Green & Tong, 2019) and explore the practice of combining police higher education and preservice basic training (Martin, 2014).

We recognize the above recommendations face considerable challenges including supplanting criminal justice as the primary program for police higher education and the impediments to accreditation. Criminal justice programs have long served as the mainstay of police higher education programs and are firmly entrenched in colleges and universities and a ready supply of academically accredited faculty who specialize in police studies is not currently available. The one-size-fits-all criminal justice higher education programs minimize the costs of additional programs. Already beleaguered by diminishing enrollment and federal and state aid, the COVID-19 crisis will likely further restrict higher education expenditures for the foreseeable future (Carlson, 2020; Fountain et al., 2020; Thorton, 2020). Also, as shown by the failure of ACJS to enlist criminal justice program managers to accredit their programs, establishing and promoting an accreditation process replete with time and financial costs could be a process that program managers would not be willing to bear, at least not without substantial incentives.

Ultimately, for police studies to mature as a standalone academic discipline, federal programs similar to the Law Enforcement Education Program must provide the necessary funding and incentives. The time is now: policing is at a critical impasse. Sustainable police reform requires a whole-of-nation effort. For their part, colleges and universities should work with government officials, police agencies, and the public to redefine policing and provide the requisite education that prepares aspiring and current policing officers for the new norms of policing.

APPENDIX

Composition and Short Bio-Sketch of the Delphi Panel of Subject Matter Experts

The following bio sketches provide a snapshot of the study's Delphi technique. The participant's names, agencies, and other identifying information were not published so as to encourage an open dialogue with minimal risk of identification by participants past/current/future employees.

Other identifying information that was not published includes membership/executive board positions in police associations including the International Association of Police Chiefs, Major Cities Police Chiefs Association, National Sheriffs Association, National Association of Women in Law Enforcement Executives, National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives, and Lesbian and Gay Police Officers Association.

Twenty-one of the 22 participants have a master's degree/law degree or above and one participant has a bachelor's degree. The vast majority of all master's degrees were in Criminal Justice.

A large police agency is defined as having-over 1,000 sworn officers; a mid-sized agency, 51-1,000 sworn officers; and a small agency, 1-50 sworn officers. The regions (Northeast, South, Midwest, West) depict U.S. geographical regions.

1. Panelist #1. This panelist is a front-line supervisor of a large police department in the Northeast region of the United States with 24 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist is a nationally recognized homicide investigation subject matter expert who has testified in over 100 court proceedings. The panelist's law enforcement experiences include homicide investigations as well collateral assignments as a hostage negotiator and special weapons and tactics officer.
2. Panelist #2. This panelist is in a public defender's investigator office in the Western region of the United States with 27 years of law enforcement experience/criminal justice experience. The panelist investigates all aspects of criminal cases on behalf of the accused. The panelist is also a retired member of a large police department who served as a training officer, detective, supervisory investigator, and police-applicant investigator. The panelist serves on the executive board of a criminal justice educators association.
3. Panelist #3. This panelist is a mid-level supervisor of a large police department in the Western region of the United States with 20 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist served as a detective supervisor in narcotics, gang, and internal affairs units as well as a police academy instructor and patrol officer. The panelist is an adjunct college professor who specializes in gang intelligence.
4. Panelist #4. This panelist is an actively serving executive officer of a large police department in the Northeast region of the United States with 21 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist has served as the executive officer/mid-level manager of special operations and

emergency management units and has vast experience in multiple large-scale disaster responses and national security events. The panelist is a U.S. Marine Corps veteran.

5. Panelist #5. This panelist is chief of a large police department in the Midwest region of the United States with 28 years of law enforcement experience and formerly served as chief for three different police departments. As chief, the panelist reorganized the department: the tenets of community policing were integrated into the mission statement and reporting mechanisms of every unit. The panelist's law enforcement experiences include assignment to narcotics, homicide, personnel, and patrol units. The panelist is a former board member of the International Association of Chiefs of Police and is an adjunct college professor who teaches various criminal justice courses.
6. Panelist #6. This panelist is a recently retired police chief of a small suburban police department in the Midwest region of the United States with 32 years of policing experience. The panelist is a full-time college professor who teaches police supervision, corporate security, homeland security, and terrorism courses. The panelist is also a security consultant.
7. Panelist #7. This panelist is an actively serving executive officer of a large police department in the Northeast region of the United States with 23 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist has extensive operational, managerial, administrative, and investigative experience, and is an adjunct college professor who teaches a variety of criminal justice courses.
8. Panelist #8. Confidential. No information was published by request of the panelist.
9. Panelist #9. This panelist is a mid-level supervisor of a large police department in the Northeast region of the United States with 20 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist serves in a planning unit that assesses current and future police threats and concerns and the use of new technologies including body-worn cameras, drones, and virtual reality simulators. The panelist's past assignments include counterterrorism (Joint Terrorism Task Force), detective bureau, gang investigations, and patrol. The panelist is an adjunct college professor who specializes in all aspects of Use of Force.
10. Panelist #10. This panelist is a mid-level supervisor of a large police department in the Midwest region of the United States with 26 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist is a part of an innovative interagency mental health response team of police officers, social workers, and mental health officials who assess and offer intervention services to referred or otherwise identified persons of concern who may be susceptible to terrorism radicalization, gang recruitment, or other violent activity. The panelist has extensive counterterrorism experience that includes assignments to the Joint Terrorism Task Force, a state fusion center, and international intelligence initiatives. The panelist has served in the detective and special operations bureaus.

11. Panelist #11. This panelist is an actively serving police executive of a large West Coast police department in the Western region of the United States with 28 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist has extensive experience implementing crime reduction strategies, managing complex crime reduction strategies, supervising major criminal and internal affairs investigations, and managing police training academies and in-service training.
12. Panelist #12. This panelist is a mid-level supervisor of a large police agency in the Southern region of the United States with 16 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist has extensive operational, administrative, and police training experience, and serves as an adjunct college professor and teaches a variety of criminal justice courses. The panelist serves on the executive board of several police associations.
13. Panelist #13. This panelist is a retired Drug Enforcement Administration Special Agent and former police officer of a large police department in the Northeast section of the United States with 25 years of police experience. The panelist has an extensive criminal investigatory background that includes narcotics, homicide, and internal affairs. The panelist is an author and a full-time college professor with extensive experience in police psychology. The panelist serves on the executive board of a criminal justice educators association.
14. Panelist #14. This panelist is a retired mid-level supervisor of a small police agency in the Southern region of the United States with 25 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist's most recent assignments include police academy administration and curriculum assessment and development. The panelist was a member a state-level FEMA emergency response team that deployed on multiple occasions to disasters throughout the United States and internationally. The panelist's policing experiences include intelligence, interagency liaison at a state fusion center, and patrol assignments.
15. Panelist #15. This panelist is a police executive of a large police department in the Southern region of the United States with 28 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist oversees all department training and professional development. Past assignments include detective bureau, community relations, logistics, special operations, and communications. The panelist is a former board member of the International Association of Chiefs of Police.
16. Panelist #16. This panelist is a recently retired police executive of a mid-sized police department in the Northeast region of the United States with 26 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist is a nationally recognized school safety subject matter expert. The panelist is the director of a local school district's office of safety and security and serves as the director/member of several school safety task forces, commissions, and associations. The panelist is an adjunct college professor who teaches various criminal justice courses.

17. Panelist #17. This panelist is an actively serving police executive of a mid-sized police department in the Western region of the United States with 20 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist has an extensive patrol background and now serves in an administrative capacity. The panelist is an adjunct college professor who teaches community policing and various criminal justice courses.
18. Panelist #18. This panelist is an actively serving police executive of a mid-sized police department in the Southern region of the United States with 20 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist has an extensive background in patrol and now serves in an administrative capacity. The panelist is an adjunct college professor who teaches various criminal justice courses.
19. Panelist #19. This panelist is an actively serving mid-level officer of a small police department in the Southern region of the United States with 18 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist has an extensive patrol background and serves as the department's primary firearms instructor as well as participating in assignments in community affairs and internal affairs bureaus.
20. Panelist #20. This panelist is a retired police executive of a large police department in the Northeast region of the United States with 25 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist's policing experience included several precinct commands and police curriculum development and assessment. The panelist is a nationally recognized police civil service examination subject matter expert and is the author of numerous police civil service examination texts and training guides. The panelist served as an adjunct college professor for over 30 years and taught various criminal justice courses.
21. Panelist #21. This panelist is an actively serving police executive of a mid-sized police department in the Western region of the United States with 20 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist's police experience includes assignments in community affairs, intelligence gathering, traffic enforcement, forensics, and personnel. The panelist is an adjunct college professor who teaches police management and various criminal justice courses.
22. Panelist #22. This panelist is an actively serving executive officer of a large police department in the Northeast region of the United States with 20 years of law enforcement experience. The panelist's policing experiences include internal affairs, community policing, traffic enforcement, and personnel.

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