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EDITORIAL MISSION STATEMENT



Journal of Colorado Policing

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The editorial mission statement of the *Journal of Colorado Policing* is to provide a resource of information among law enforcement professionals. The journal serves as a professional forum for the dissemination of original research, legal updates, training strategies as well as best practices and literature reviews. The journal incorporates the expertise of both practitioners and academics to achieve those goals. Promoting the publication of peer-reviewed research and providing sound advice from practitioners for law enforcement within the state of Colorado are the journal's main goals.

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ORIGINAL RESEARCH

Carrying Handguns: Permit or Not to Permit is the Question

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Concerns about violent crime and traumatic incidents in the United States have driven citizens to take matters sometimes into their own hands. Even when the country witnessed declines in overall crime rates, fears did not decrease. Media accounts and stories of citizens using guns to defend themselves and others have motivated some states to enact “right-to-carry” or “shall issue” concealed handgun laws. This allowed those concerned about safety or simply for the fact they wished to carry a handgun, reason to obtain an open or concealed weapons permit. Further, changes in the political landscape also brought about legislative initiatives to make it legal for citizens to carry concealed handguns with them for defense.

Colorado Revised Statute 18-12-203 provides for a “shall issue” directive to a Colorado sheriff for an applicant that meets the statues requirements. (C.R.S. 18-12-203). This statute remains in effect to date. However, Colorado has not extended this to carry concealed without a permit.

In early March 2010, the Colorado House Judiciary Committee passed HB 1205, which would allow Coloradans, who pass a background check required for the purchase of any handgun, to carry a concealed handgun without a permit. The bill was approved by the State House with a 40-25 vote. If enacted, law-abiding citizens would be allowed to carry concealed handguns in most parts of the state

except for designated areas such as K-12 schools. The Bill was killed in the Senate after opponents voiced concerns surrounding public safety. Would such a law negatively impact public safety? Research suggests perhaps our representatives should revisit HB 1205 as a means to improve public safety.

Recently, the United States Supreme Court issued a ruling in *New York State Rifle & Pistol Association, Inc. v. Bruen*, 597 U.S. 1 (2022). *Bruen* (2022) concerned the 1911 Sullivan Act, which was a New York State law which required applicants for a concealed carry permit to show “proper cause” or a special need for carrying a firearm in public in their application. The *Bruen* (2022) Court found, in a not surprising 6-3 decision, that the New York law was unconstitutional as it conflicted with the Second Amendment’s right to bear arms. The Court further noted in shall-issue states, individuals could be required to meet certain objective criteria. (*New York State Rifle & Pistol Assoc. Inc. v. Bruen*, 2022). Thus Colorado, a shall-issue state with objective criteria, would meet this ruling. However, the Court was very concerned about states who had “may-issue” provisions with arbitrary conditions and evaluations of a need to carry a handgun. (*New York State Rifle & Pistol Assoc. Inc. v. Bruen*, 2022). Even the highest court in the United States believes people can and should be able to protect themselves without arbitrary and unreasonable requirements imposed by the state

government. This logical thinking by the Court could also extend to permit-less carrying a handgun.

The Deterrence Factor

Criminals, themselves, are motivated by self-preservation, which means for those who have concealed handguns, this could be a deterrent for criminals to “choose” the wrong victim. A criminal would not know who was or was not carrying a concealed weapon, thus, placing great risk in committing a crime against a person who may be carrying a weapon. The notion of deterrence, which causes criminals to avoid armed encounters, is not surprising. By the very nature of guns being concealed, criminals are unable to tell whether the victim is armed before they strike, thus raising criminals’ expected costs for committing many types of crimes. Conversely, if citizens are allowed to openly carry a handgun, a potential victim’s defensibility is readily discernable, which makes it easier for criminals to choose a victim. The criminal will just simply choose the victim who is not openly carrying a handgun, which places those who do not carry a visible handgun at an even greater risk of violence.

When potential victims lawfully arm themselves, most criminals turn away from crimes like robbery that require direct attacks on a person. They will turn instead to property crimes such as auto theft, where the probability of direct contact with a person is relatively small. Wright and Rossi (1986) interviewed felons in ten state penitentiary systems and found that 56% claimed they would not attack a potential victim who was known to be armed. Moreover, they found criminals in states with high civilian gun ownership were the most worried about encountering armed victims.

The potential defensive nature of guns is indicated by the different rates of so-called “hot

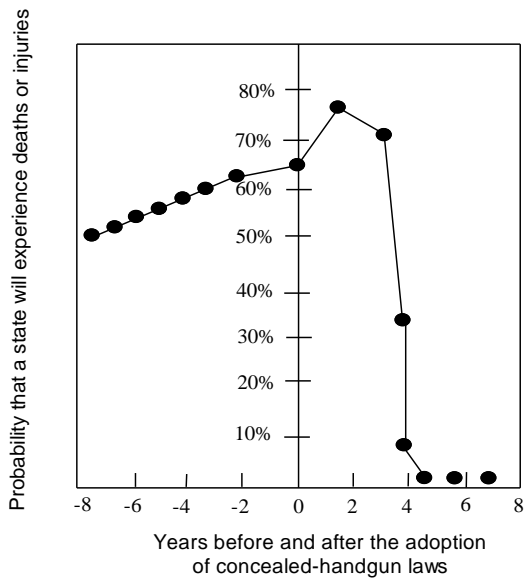
burglaries,” where residents are at home when the criminals strike. Almost 50% of the burglaries in Canada and Britain, which have strict gun control laws, are “hot burglaries.” By contrast, the United States, with fewer restrictions, has a “hot burglary” rate of only 13% (Kopel, 1992). Consistent with the findings of Wright and Rossi (1986), surveys of convicted felons in America reveal they are much more worried about armed victims than they are about encountering the police.

Deterrence of Mass Public Shootings

Mass public shootings, such as Pulse Night club, Club Q, and Lewiston, Maine, are important to note law-abiding citizens carrying concealed handguns deter more than just common criminals. Research conducted by Lott and Landes (1999) supported the hypothesis that concealed handgun or right-to-carry laws reduce the number of multiple victim public shootings. Attackers are deterred and the number of people injured or killed per attack is also reduced, thus for the first-time providing evidence the harm from crimes that still occurs can be mitigated. Figure 1 shows although the total number of deaths and injuries from mass public shootings actually rise slightly immediately after the adoption of a concealed handgun law, it quickly falls with the rate reaching zero five years after the law is enacted.

Figure 1.

Probability of states experiencing deaths or injuries from a shooting spree in a public place after the adoption of a concealed handgun law (Lott, 1998, p. 102).

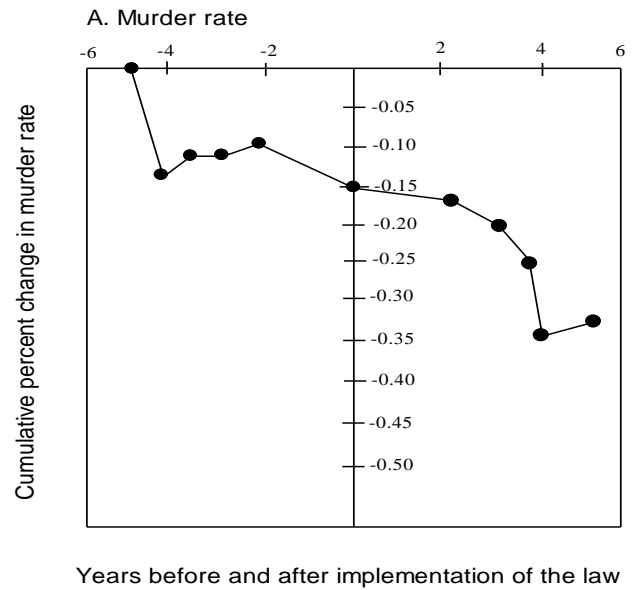


Concealed Handgun Laws and Crime

In 1987, when Florida enacted right-to-carry legislation, critics warned that the “Sunshine State” would become the “Gun shine State.” Contrary to their predictions, homicide rates dropped faster than the national average (See Figure 2).

Figure 2.

Cumulative percent change in Florida’s murder rate (Lott, 1998, p. 108).



Furthermore, through 1997, only one permit holder out of the over 350,000 permits issued, was convicted of homicide (Kleck, 1997). If the rest of the country behaved as Florida’s permit holders did, the United States would have the lowest homicide rate in the world.

During state legislative hearings on concealed handgun laws, the most commonly raised concerns involve fears that armed citizens will attack each other in the heat of the moment following such incidents as car accidents or accidentally shoot a police officer. The evidence shows those fears are unfounded. Although thirty-one states have right-to-carry laws, some of which are decades old, there is only one recorded incident of a permitted handgun being used in a shooting following a traffic accident, and that involved self-defense (Lott, 1998). No permit holder has ever shot a police officer; however, there have been cases where permit holders have used their guns to save the lives of officers. Recently, in Phoenix, Arizona, officers

were called to a strip mall where a gunman shot into a coffee shop owned by Fardowsa Mohamed. (AZFamily Digital News Staff, 2023). The motive behind the shooting is not known, however, previously Mohamed had a “No Firearms or Weapons” sign posted on other front door. Mohamed shared with local news reporters she plans to take the sign down and it will not go back up. Mohamed, who is from Somalia, hated guns, but she now plans to buy a gun, and take shooting lessons for extra security. (AZFamily Digital News Staff, 2023). She further welcomes customers who have legal firearms to her shop. (AZFamily Digital News Staff, 2023). Arizona is a permit-less carry state and anyone over the age of 18 years of age, who can legally possess a firearm may carry weapon. (AZFamily Digital News Staff, 2023). Further, Arizona is a constitutional carry state; therefore, so long as one can lawfully possess a handgun, they can carry concealed.

Lott and Mustard (1997) provided evidence on the relationship between concealed handgun laws and crime. Sixteen years of county-level crime statistics (1977 to 1992) were examined and crime rates compared before and after the introduction of right-to-carry laws, controlling for demographic factors and county-level arrest rates. Lott and Mustard (1997) concluded the thirty-one states allowing their residents to carry concealed handguns had significant reductions in violent crime (e.g., murder, rape, robbery, aggravated assault, etc.). Lott and Mustard argued:

Our most conservative estimates show that by adopting shall-issue laws, states reduced murders by 8.5%, rapes by 5%, aggravated assaults by 7%, and robbery by 3%. If those states that did not permit concealed handguns in 1992 had permitted them back then, citizens might have been spared approximately

1,570 murders, 4,177 rapes, 60,000 aggravated assaults, and 12,000 robberies. To put it even more simply, criminals, we found, respond rationally to deterrence threats. While support for strict gun-control laws usually has been strongest in large cities, where crime rates are highest, that’s precisely where right-to-carry laws have produced the largest drops in violent crimes. (p. 1)

The simplest and most succinct way to illustrate that the implementation of right-to-carry laws are not merely the product of normal fluctuations in crime rates is to provide graphical representations (see Figures 3 - 5).

Figure 3.

The effect of concealed handgun laws on violent crime (Lott, 1998, p. 77).

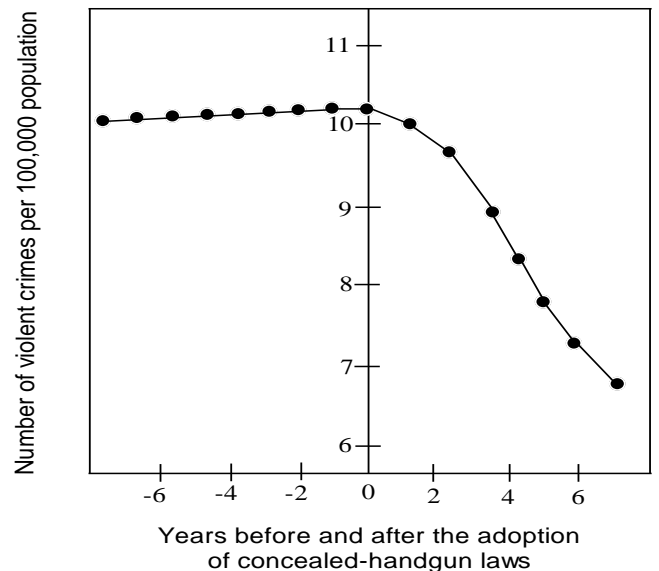


Figure 4.
The effect of concealed handgun laws on rapes (Lott, 1998, p. 78).

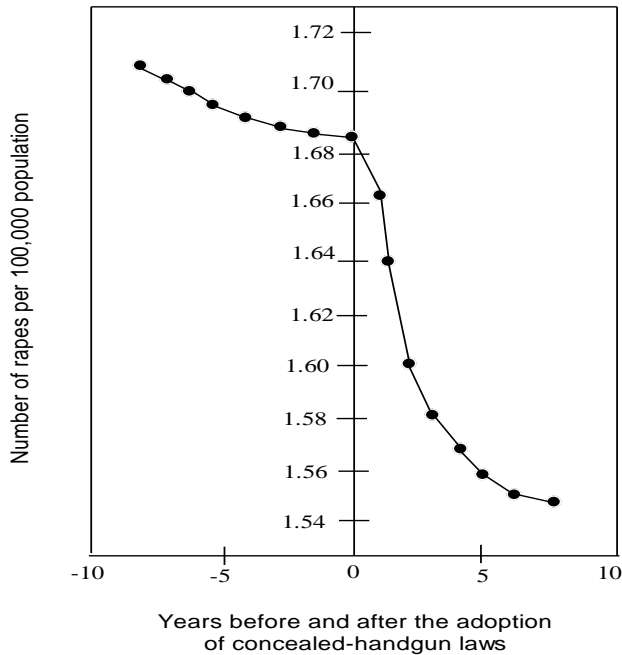
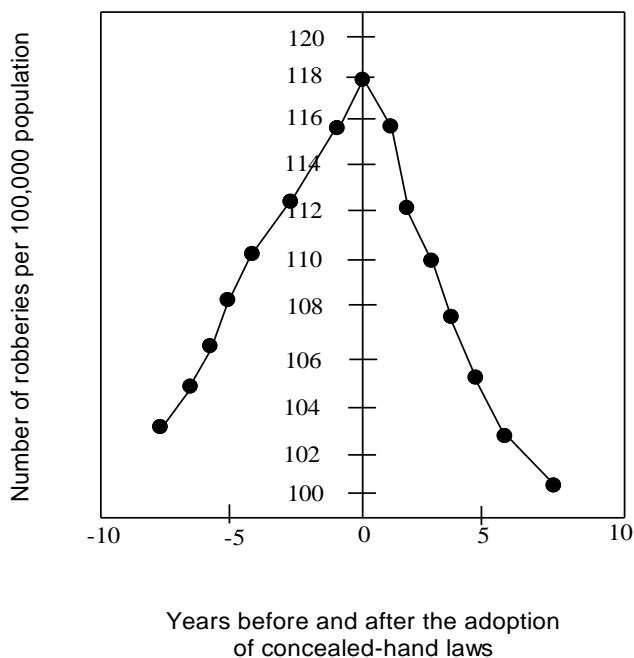


Figure 5.
The effect of concealed handgun laws on robbery rates (Lott, 1998, p. 78)



Lott (1998) also demonstrated how crime rates varied with the type of concealed handgun law. Violent crime rates were found to be highest in states with the most restrictive rules, next highest in the states that allowed local authorities discretion in granting permits, and lowest in states with non-discretionary rules. The difference is rather striking. Violent crimes were shown to be 81% higher in states without non-discretionary laws. For murder, states that ban the carrying of concealed handguns have murder rates 127% higher than states with the most liberal concealed handgun laws. For property crimes, the difference is much smaller (24%). States with non-discretionary laws have less crime, but the primary difference appears in terms of violent crimes.

In 2019, about 16 million adult handgun owners carried in the past month, which increased from 9 million in 2015. (Rowhani-Rahbar, et al, 2022). The reasoning for carrying firearms over the past 30 years has changed from hunting to personal protection. (Rowhani-Rahbar, et al. 2022). For example, in 1994, 46% of gun owners reported owning a gun for protection, but by 2015, it increased to 65%, and even more so by 2019, to 73%. (Rowhani-Rahbar, et al. 2022). With the increase in personal protection, the number of handguns owned increased from 1994 to 2021, at 64% to 83%. (Rowhani-Rahbar, et al. 2022).

Rowhani-Rahbar, et al. (2022) noted the trend of increased handgun ownership for personal protection also followed loosening state laws, which regulated where individuals could carry guns in public places. Of note, in 1990, only one state allowed for permit-less carry, but by 2022, this increased to 21 states allowing permit-less carry. (Rowhani-Rahbar, et al. 2022). Of interesting note, and supportive of protection as the reason to carry a gun, 7.5% of the respondents who resided in a “may issue” state

carried a handgun within the last month but did not have a permit. (Rowhani-Rahbar, et al. 2022). For those handgun owners in a shall issue state, who did not have a permit, 11.5% carried a handgun. Thus, individuals are carrying handguns more and more presumably for their own protection, even if they do not have the requisite permit to do so. Thus, the question becomes, should states move to permit-less carry when gun owners are carrying regardless?

As Rowhani-Rahbar, et al. (2022) note, the only contemporary national estimate of handgun carry by adults within the United States was in 2015 from the National Firearms Survey. Considering the demand for firearms within the United States and the political change in exercising a Second Amendment right, more studies on who and why individuals carry a handgun has not really occurred. Finally, Rowhani-Rahbar, et al. (2022) also note the *Bruen* case was heard by the United States Supreme Court on November 3, 2021, approximately one year before their study was published. The authors noted this ruling could result in more adults carrying handguns in public places. (Rowhani-Rahbar, et al. 2022).

Minimum Requirements

In Colorado, a shall-issue state, the objective criteria in what the *Bruen* Court envisioned is set forth in Colorado Revised Statute 18-12-203. A Colorado sheriff shall issue a permit to carry a concealed handgun to any applicant who is a Colorado resident, is 21 years of age, is not prohibited under §18-12-108 or federal law, has not been convicted of perjury or deliberate omits information on their application, is not a chronic or habitual user of alcohol to impair faculties or controlled substances, is not subject to protective orders set forth in the statute and provides documentation of firearms competence. Even in permit-less carry states, such as Arizona, one must be

21 years of age to carry concealed, but Arizona also has shall-issue provisions under A.R.S. 13-3112. (AZ Rev Stat § 13-3112 (2022)).

Regardless of whether a state is shall-issue or not, one cannot carry a handgun just anywhere. Under Colorado Revised Statute 18-12-214 (2023), a permit to carry allows for carry in all places except specifically limited in this section. For instance, a police officer may temporarily disarm a permittee, local governments, including educational centers, including elementary through higher education, may enact ordinances or rules prohibiting weapons. Further, a Colorado permit to carry does not trump a federal law which prohibits weapons. The bottom line is, a permit or even permit-less carry should not be allowed in certain areas such as banks, schools, most government buildings, or any establishment that sells intoxicating beverages. As Colorado has done, the criteria for “shall-issue” are objective, but also reasonable.

A valid concern for those who wish to possess and carry, is training to handle a handgun. When one carries a weapon, training should be required as use could result in serious injury or death. Should concealed handgun permit holders be subject to the same training as police officers? The answer is clearly no. Of course, permit holders should be knowledgeable and proficient in the many aspects of defensive gun use, however, as Snyder (1997) asserted:

Permit holders need concern themselves with only one thing: protecting themselves from a sudden, violent assault that threatens life or grievous bodily injury. Rape, robbery, and attempted murder are not typically actions rife with ambiguity or subtlety, requiring special powers of observation, great book learning, or a stint at the police academy to discern.

When a man pulls a knife on a woman and says, 'You're coming with me,' her judgment that a crime is being committed is not likely to be in error. Police, by contrast, do not carry arms solely for the purpose of defending themselves, but also for the purpose of enforcing the law. They deliberately inject themselves into potentially dangerous and violent situations, responding to calls for assistance, investigating crimes, intervening in domestic violence, and making arrests. (p. 1)

A personal situation is vastly different from when a law enforcement officer must utilize their weapon. Law-abiding citizens appear reticent to use their guns. In addition, simply brandishing a gun is sufficient to deter an attack. Police have much broader duties and responsibilities than a civilian with a concealed weapon permit. As a result, opposing right-to-carry laws because police receive greater weapons training or requiring civilians to receive the same training as police officers is unwarranted.

Conclusion

The debate over the impact of right-to-carry laws on crime has become a heated policy issue and will continue to foster more research in the area. As in most areas of empirical research, one study is seldom adequate to draw strong policy implications. One thing is certain: crime deterrence increases with the number of concealed permits issued. Allowing citizens to carry concealed weapons not only deters violent crime, it also appears to produce no increase in accidental deaths. Furthermore, the carrying of concealed handguns appears to be the most cost-effective method of reducing crime.

Criminals as a group tend to act rationally. When crime becomes more difficult, less crime is committed. Higher arrest and conviction rates dramatically reduce crime. Criminals also move out of

jurisdictions in which criminal deterrence increases. Yet criminals respond to more than just the actions taken by the police and the courts. Citizens can take private actions that also deter crime. Allowing citizens to carry concealed handguns reduces violent crimes, and the reductions coincide very closely with the number of concealed handgun permits issued. Furthermore, mass shootings in public places are reduced when law-abiding citizens are allowed to carry concealed handguns.

Guns are not the problem. People are the problem. Weapons matter primarily when the wrong people have them and the right people do not. This imbalance in weapons creates the danger. Preventing law-abiding citizens from carrying concealed handguns does not end violence; merely making victims more vulnerable to attack. While people have strong views on both sides of this issue, the size and strength of the deterrence factors and the lack of evidence that permit holders of concealed handguns commit crimes should at least give pause to opponents of right-to-carry laws. At the end of the day, one truth will unite both sides: Does allowing law-abiding citizens the right to carry concealed handguns save lives? The resounding answer is yes, concealed handgun permits certainly will.

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ORIGINAL RESEARCH

Why Not Stoicism? Relieving Stress, Anxiety, and Frustration in Your Daily Life

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Being a police officer in our modern society is a very challenging undertaking. A profession that can be very stressful can affect people with the strongest will. To counter the daily anxiety-inducing situations, it is important to acknowledge these events that cause stress, reflect on the causes, and redirect them in a positive way (Pigliucci, 2017). How can one turn such a stressful event into a positive outcome? A philosophy founded during the Hellenistic period, nearly 2000 years ago, could be that solution. The solution is called stoicism. Stoicism is an ancient Greco-Roman philosophy founded in Athens, Greece around the year 300 BCE. The founder, Zeno, a Phoenician merchant, and philosophy enthusiast, was fond of Socrates, a renowned moral philosopher at the time, and wished to associate with men of such style and character. Zeno inquired where men like that could be found, and at the exact time, the philosopher Crates walked by and “follow yonder man” was stated (Pigliucci, 2017, p. 18). Zeno became the student of Crates, and after years of study, he became the teacher. He and his followers, Zenonians, met under the Stoa Poikile, a public place in the city center, and they eventually became known as the “Stoics.”

A common misconception of Stoic beliefs is the idea of remaining emotionless during a time of great personal struggle. In reality, one’s ability to accept one’s emotions, and determine whether or not the

cause of our struggles is within our control. As stated by Pigliucci (2020), “[Stoicism] is about keeping in mind what is and what is not under our control, focusing our efforts on the former and not wasting them on the latter” (p.2). To apply Stoic beliefs to the profession of law enforcement, one must understand the basic message of the philosophy. Stoicism consists of two important ideas, which correspond to two major assurances offered to practitioners. The first being life is fundamentally about being a morally good person, which is achieved through the continuous practice of four paramount virtues. These virtues being wisdom, courage, temperance, and justice. Four ideals that are also the foundation for a successful and competent law enforcement officer. The second idea is the Dichotomy of Control. The concept that things are either in or out of our control. By following the first tenet, and living a morally true existence, one can look back at the life they lived and be content with a life worth living. The second tenet will give a Stoic follower peace of mind, known as ataraxia, with the notion that one can survive any obstacle the universe decides to throw at them (Pigliucci, 2020).

Virtue, another idea within Stoicism, not related to the previously stated virtues, is the principle behind all actions. This is our moral compass, if you will, and is the sense of rightness that emerges from our soul during the decisions we make and the

resulting actions. A common elementary quote, “actions speak louder than words” encompasses this idea, as actions reveal our true character. Therefore, those with good character will have good actions. A moral compass is determined by each individual, and each individual must answer their own moral compass when making decisions. However, a cheater, a liar, and a person with no inclination to right and wrong are the most exhausted and agitated people in our society. They must dwell and belabor every decision and consider every temptation. They then must relive their wrongdoing if they are rewarded by their dishonest behavior. “Life is meaningless to the person who decides their choices have no meaning” (Holiday, 2019, p. 99). Meanwhile, a person who knows what they value, has a strong sense of decency and principle, and has a moral compass pointed in the direction of honesty and goodness, will live a much happier and unburdened life. In other words, a person will have found stillness (Holiday, 2019).

How can one find this stillness and apply the concept to their own moral compass? Let's revisit the four virtues of Stoicism: wisdom, courage, temperance, and justice. The Stoics applied these virtues in their daily lives, and so can you. Wisdom is the ability to navigate complex situations, especially morally ambiguous ones, in the best way possible. In the law enforcement profession, some of these solutions to complex situations are determined by the Constitution and the laws we have in place, but in others, they must be solved by virtue. In other words, what is right and what is wrong. Next, courage is the ability to act, and do the right thing during these situations. Third, justice, differing from the law enforcement version, means treating others as worthy of the respect and dignity that comes with being fellow humans. Finally, temperance, is responding to situations in just measure, without excess or defect.

How can these virtues be applied to law enforcement? How can this help relieve the stress and anxiety that can come with this profession? A simple way is to find a hobby or two that gives the mind rest. Bike riding, lifting weights, reading, or bowling can all be examples of activities that take people out of their normal routines. Law enforcement officers often think they cannot be afraid while going into a potentially dangerous situation, however, this is far from the truth. An important aspect is to allow oneself to be scared, yet not afraid of the situation. How does one accomplish this? By meticulously preparing. Is the officer ready physically, mentally, and mechanically? If the answer to these three questions is yes, the officer is well ahead of the game. The final step is to remain calm. Remembering what can be controlled and what cannot, goes a long way to remain calm in most situations.

What about stress? One of the key components to the Patrol Training Officer program is the concept of journaling. Putting thoughts on paper relieves stress, just as talking through situations does. If one can put thoughts to paper, one will avoid “rushing” their thoughts. Situations will be remembered more accurately the next time. One will retain thoughts (perspective) over time if those thoughts are journaled. It is also beneficial to acknowledge that officers will deal with negative people. Things on the job will not always go smoothly, but the negativity can be dealt with. Anger does not do anything positive for an individual, physically, or mentally. By journaling, one can erode some of the stress, however, this takes work and a daily effort. Living in the present is beneficial because the past, and the future, cannot be changed.

These are several ways to reduce stress, but the author has found one, in particular, that has

brought solace, especially since the pandemic and the war in Ukraine. The practice of daily thanks of gratitude. Be thankful for all the daily pleasures and blessings found in life and meditate on them daily. As stated by Epictetus, "Remember: the real essence of good is found only within things under one's own control. If this is kept in mind, feelings of being falsely envious or forlorn won't arise. Stop aspiring to be anyone other than your own best self, for that does fall within your control" (p. 26).

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Chief Tom Wickman is the Chief of the Frisco Police Department nestled high in the Rocky Mountains at 9,100 feet. He served two years with the Denver Police Department as well as 23 years with the Boulder Police Department. After a

number of years as a patrol officer, he served as a SCAT officer (Special Crime Attack Team), Detective Sergeant forming a Major Crime Unit and was a SWAT Commander. After being promoted to Commander, he led the department's patrol division, traffic division, SWAT team and Community Services Unit. He also

formed and led the department's first physical fitness unit. Chief Wickman earned his Bachelor of Political Science from Kalamazoo College and his Master of Counseling Psychology from Lesley University. He is a graduate of the Police Executive Research Forum's Senior Management Institute for Police at the John F. Kenney School of Government at Boston College. He is also a graduate of the Federal Bureau of Investigations National Academy, 207th Session. Chief Wickman also attended the Cooper Institute for Aerobics Research in Dallas and holds a certified personal trainer status.

LEGAL UPDATE

Senate Bill 21-174: Peace Officer Credibility Disclosure Notifications

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On July 2, 2021, Colorado Governor Jared Polis signed into law the Peace Officer Credibility Disclosure Notifications. This law provided that on or before January 1, 2022, each law enforcement agency and district attorney's office shall adopt and implement written policies and procedures consistent with the statewide model for Peace Officer Credibility Disclosure. Colorado District Attorney's offices were required to post the policies for public view by February 1, 2022. The content for all district attorneys' policies is virtually identical.

Policies and Procedures

First, beginning January 1, 2022, every law enforcement agency must promptly notify their district attorney's office, in writing, of any sustained finding made on or after January 1, 2022 on any of the following: (1) Knowingly made an untruthful statement concerning a material fact; (2) Demonstrated a pattern of bias based on race, religion, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, age, disability, national origin, or any other protected class; (3) Tampered with or fabricated evidence; (4) Been convicted of any crime involving dishonesty or has been charged with any felony or any crime involving dishonesty; or (5) Violated any policy of the law enforcement agency regarding dishonesty.

Second, law enforcement agencies are required to notify the district attorney's office as soon as practical when an officer is under criminal or administrative investigation, that if sustained would

require disclosure of the five circumstances listed above. The notification must meet both of the following criteria: the officer is a potential witness in a pending criminal investigation in which a criminal defendant has been formally charged; and, the criminal or administrative investigation of the officer involved an allegation related to the officer's involvement in the defendant's pending case.

The agency then proceeds with their administrative and/or criminal investigation. Once the agency has investigated and evaluated the merits of the allegations, the agency must notify the district attorney's office if the allegations were not sustained and may request the credibility notification disclosure be removed from their records. The agency must also inform the officer at least seven calendar days before giving notice to the district attorney's office, unless seven days is impracticable due to an impending trial date where the officer would or should be testifying.

There must be a process for removing the notification from the district attorney's credibility disclosure notification record. There are three circumstances where the notification will be removed from the district attorney's records. First, if the agency provided notification during an open criminal or administrative investigation and has now concluded the allegations were not sustained, the agency or officer may make a written request to be removed from the credibility disclosure notification. Second, if

the district attorney's office makes an independent determination based on a review of the records removal is appropriate and lawful. This assumes access is granted to the underlying records. Third, when the district attorney's office receives a court order for the removal of the notification.

What does the notification entail? In the credibility disclosure notification, the agency must provide the officer's name, the agency which employs the officer, and the applicable statutory provision identifying the basis for the notification, including whether it is part of a sustained finding or if it relates to an open criminal or administrative investigations. The notification must also include the following statement: "[t]his notification is to inform you that there is information in the law enforcement agency's possession regarding [officer] that may affect the peace officer's credibility in court."

Finally, the Colorado Peace Officer Standard and Training (P.O.S.T.) creates and maintains a database with information as it relates to an officer's decertification, termination for cause, and actions as described by the applicable statutory provision identifying the basis for the credibility disclosure notification. The dashboard contains the definitions for an officers' actions may place them in this database, which includes termination for cause, untruthfulness, or even resignation or retirement under investigation or following an incident which leads to an investigation. Individual officer certification status may be searched by the public as well.

Why?

Other than being required by Colorado law, providing consistent requirements and notification is necessary to ensure transparency and to instill confidence in our policing community. *Brady v. Maryland*, 373 U.S. 83 (1963) and *Giglio v. United*

States, 405 U.S. 150 (1972) held a defendant's due process rights required prosecutors to disclose any exculpatory evidence to the defense. This information could be used to impeach a witness when it came to incidents of dishonesty. Typically, a standard crime of dishonesty for a prosecution lay witness would be a prior record of thefts, or even identity theft. In the instance of officers, impeachment of officers for acts of dishonesty, also falls under this category. Officers do not have to be found guilty of a crime of dishonesty, however. Simply being dishonest with superiors, in a report, or in verbal discussions, can create an opportunity to impeach due to dishonesty.

After *Brady* and *Giglio*, some prosecutors' offices, but not all, established a "list" of officers who the prosecutors felt fell under the *Brady/Giglio* impeachment material. The issue became, despite being promulgated by the United States Supreme Court, this was not a nationwide movement, nor was there any due process standards for the officers placed on these lists.

Having a standardized process across the State of Colorado, which also provides due process for officers, is crucial for public transparency, agency and officer credibility, and confidence in the courts. Without a statewide process, a "Brady" list could be weaponized between the prosecuting attorney's office and the police. For example, in Lansing, Michigan, Chief of Police Daryl Green discovered he had been placed on the prosecuting attorney's *Brady* list, yet he had not been dishonest or given an opportunity to be heard. (Van Brocklin, January 24, 2022). The lack of due process procedures allowed his name to be placed on the list without notification to him until he personally discovered this information. While in many situations, officers who discover being placed on this list may try to handle this matter in private due to

concern over their reputation, Chief Green fought this matter publicly.

In other circumstances where there is no state mandated list maintained by prosecutors, a prosecutor may discover inappropriate behavior by an officer, provide the information to the law enforcement agency, and nothing occurs. The officer is now on the “mental list” of the individual prosecutor and only word of mouth to other prosecutors is the only method to share this information. This is not fair to either the prosecutor’s office, nor the agency or officer.

Conclusion

While on its face, Senate Bill 21-174 may appear as a Scarlett Letter process against officers, it provides transparency to the public and provides due process to officers. Maintaining a state-wide database, which tracks the number of decertifications and relinquishments by year, along with actions taken by an agency, provides the public with the information necessary to ensure their law enforcement agency is taking officer conduct seriously. Disclosure of officer credibility issues should be embraced, as it is legally required, but also ensures those who tarnish the badge and disrespect the profession are not protected. Finally, and most importantly, the Brady list is not operating in the dark or by word of mouth any longer. Officers who are going to be placed on the list, have an opportunity to be heard. This is vital to ensuring protections of not only the individual officer’s profession, but also their credibility within the community.

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ORIGINAL RESEARCH

Power, Group Identity, and Managing Intergroup Conflict in Public-Purpose Organizations

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An understanding of power and influence is a crucial component in any review of organizational behaviors. According to Ott, Parkes, and Simpson (2008), “power cannot and should not be avoided by anyone who seeks to understand the theory or practice of organizational behavior” (p. 343). Perhaps no form of power is more influential in governmental decision-making than political power. Furthermore, to understand the effects of power and influence on organizations, one must understand the interplay of formal and informal power on intergroup relations between organizational subgroups. Such power and influence can spawn conflict between groups, ultimately impacting organizational performance and success.

Intergroup conflict has long been a concern for the leaders of a wide array of groups. Often, leaders must bring together multiple groups, either inter-organizationally or intra-organizationally, to work toward a common goal (Hogg, van Knippenberg, & Rast, 2012). Such collaboration can be logistically difficult, but when conflict exists between organizational subgroups, the leadership challenge is increased significantly. That challenge can be accentuated when those groups belong to different collective bargaining units with significantly different pay and benefit structures and feel that the political support for their groups is not equal. According to

Hogg, van Knippenberg, and Rast (2012), “effective intergroup leadership is required to realize the potential benefits of intergroup collaboration and to prevent disruptive conflicts between groups” (p. 232).

The Influence of Power

Essentially, power is one person’s ability to exert influence over one or more people, and since organizations are comprised of people, working together to reach some common goal, power is a key component in organizational success. According to Ott, Parkes, and Simpson (2008), within organizations, “power is first and foremost a structural phenomenon” (p. 337). This is because, within the organizational context, power is often a function of position within the organization’s hierarchy. In governmental organizations, politicians sit atop the power structure, below the citizens they serve, followed by political appointees at various levels of power and authority (i.e., executive administrators, middle managers, first-line supervisors, and employees). Because of the nature of that power structure, politicians, and those with influential access to politicians, wield a great deal of power and influence, even in decisions they do not directly make.

Further down the power structure, different but equally influential power bases exist. For example, at the lower echelons of power, skill specialization and

the division of labor can create formal and informal power bases, as well as interdependencies between people and organizational subunits. Such interdependencies can significantly affect organizational power structures. Those structural phenomena create two kinds of power, formal and informal.

Formal power, or what may be referred to as authority-based power, is that which is derived from an organizationally or legislatively granted position of authority (Ott, Parkes, & Simpson, 2008). In other words, the power of those who have been placed into a position of authority over others and whose authority is formally bestowed through policy (e.g., the power bestowed to elected officials).

Power Bases and Means

French and Raven (1959) identified five bases of power. The first three bases are reward, coercive, and legitimate power, and they relate primarily to formal power. They defined reward power as the ability of one to provide to another perceived positive valences or to remove negative valences (Ott, Parkes, & Simpson, 2008). Coercive power was defined as the ability to inflict some form of punishment (Ott, Parkes, & Simpson, 2008). Ott, Parkes, and Simpson, (2008) identified three of what they called power means, which are what a person brings to bare to “induce or influence another to carry out directives” (p. 340). The first two power means are coercive power and remunerative power and are akin to French and Raven’s first three power bases. Coercive power is described as forceful or the application of physical sanctions; the carrot and stick analogy (Ott, Parkes, & Simpson, 2008). Remunerative power was described as the power of reward which stems from control of desirable resources or outcomes (Ott, Parkes, & Simpson, 2008). It is those power bases and means

that are leveraged by political power players during labor negotiations. They often provide or take away tangible benefits from employees, and at times, intentionally cause intergroup conflict between different collective bargaining groups to gain an advantage and/or concessions at the negotiating table with one or both groups.

Group Formation and Subgroup Typology

Group Formation

The literature regarding group formation is vast and a great deal of time could be spent reviewing and discussing the sociological, psychological, anthropological, and economic theories as to why individuals form into groups. Safety and security, and the interpersonal psychological need for community come directly to mind (Maslow, 1943) but are only two of the plethora of theories that exist. An in-depth review of such group formation theories is not necessary for the purposes of this discussion. Accordingly, I will proceed on the knowledge that individuals, whether due to necessity, desire, or formal subdivision, tend to form into groups and individuals may belong to multiple groups at any one time and throughout their lifetime.

Subgroup Typology

Guan et al (2011) explained that subgroup members often share educational backgrounds and professional values and attitudes with the other members of the subgroup, described as in-group identity. In-group identity tends to promote the formation of distinct and formal cultural identities within groups (Guan et al, 2011). Subgroups can also form around common identity factors such as race, sex, education, socio-economic status, knowledge access, and legitimate authority, just to name a few. Such subgroups are many times at odds with each

other within their common organization. Carton and Cummings (2012) suggested three types of organizational subgroups, two of which are germane to this topic: identity-based and resource-based.

Identity-Based Subgroups

Based upon social identity theory, identity-based subgroups are formed by individuals who share common characteristics and values (Carton & Cummings, 2012). According to Hogg and Terry (2000), individuals will examine their perceptions of self and then use those perceptions to self-categorize. During the self-categorization process, individuals will work to identify others who also belong to their self-categorized group(s), or those with a similar sense of identity as Carton and Cummings (2012) described it. They then begin to associate with those like people. Once the individual begins the group association, the aforementioned self-perception will begin to morph into one that more closely mirrors the coalesced in-group identity. Individuals may simultaneously belong to multiple groups or subgroups, all of which will have some affect upon self-perception. It is important to note, that according to Carton and Cummings (2012), individuals' self-perceptions are most significantly affected by "the smallest groups to which they belong" (p. 444).

Resource-Based Subgroups

According to Carton and Cummings (2012), their resource-based subgroup type is a result of their consideration of the theory of social dominance. In his social dominance theory, Sidanis (1992, as cited by Carton & Cummings, 2012) suggested that groups sustain dominance over other groups by "controlling access to finite resources, such as power, materials, authority, and status" (p. 445). Intergroup domination is only possible when a subgroup hierarchy exists or is created. The differentiation between each group's

equity beliefs relating to the interplay of resource control can have a major impact on their attitudes towards, and interactions with, other groups (Carton & Cummings, 2012). For example, if one group has a greater degree of control over a particular resource, the other group(s) will recognize the inequity, feel marginalized, and may act to overcome that condition.

According to J. Stacy Adams' (1965) equity theory, such inequities will cause tension that will motivate the groups to act to restore equity, which is akin to Merton's strain theory. Additionally, the extent of group action will be determined by the magnitude of the perceived inequity. According to Adams (1965), groups will often develop an internal system designed to ensure the equitable distribution of both costs and benefits amongst the members of the group. Furthermore, group members work to persuade other group members to act equitably and abide by the established system by rewarding equitable behavior and penalizing inequitable behavior. This in-group equity balancing translates into intergroup resource relationships.

Factions.

According to Carton and Cummings (2012), such inequities cause the groups to merge into one of three types of subgroups. The first is called a faction. Factions form on either side of the resource control relationship, with one consisting of those groups who desire access to the resource (i.e., the subordinate group) and the other comprised of the group controlling access to the resource (i.e., the dominant group) (Carton & Cummings, 2012). Each faction will then work against the other, with the dominant faction working to retain its power and the subordinate faction working to gain dominance.

Alliance.

The second type is referred to as an alliance. In this case, the subordinate subgroups come together to gain control over the resource in question to gain the dominant position (Carton & Cummings, 2012). Of course, it can then be postulated that one of two things will happen. Either the alliance will help to restore equity throughout the allied groups as the resource is distributed equitably, leaving each group dominant over the formerly dominant group but not over each other, or the alliance will collapse as the groups fight for control over the amassed resources to become singularly dominant over all the other groups, including their former allies.

Bloc.

The third and final type identified by Carton and Cummings (2012) is called a bloc. Blocs are formed to provide a strength in numbers advantage. In recognition of the fact that the groups cannot separately amass enough of the resource in question to overcome the dominant group's control, the subordinate subgroups will combine their individually accumulated quantities of the resource. This is done to increase their shared power base. Doing so allows them to shift the balance of power in the intergroup resource control relationship and neutralize the dominant group's power (Carton & Cummings, 2012).

Individual and Group Belief Domains

Organizational behaviorists and industrial psychologists have been studying group behavior for a long time. Through said research, five basic belief domains that help to bridge the gap between individual thought and actions, and those of groups have been identified. Those belief domains are superiority, injustice, vulnerability, distrust, and helplessness (Eidelson & Eidelson, 2003). Since groups

are comprised of individuals who shape in-group identity, it will be helpful to examine these belief domains from both a micro (i.e., individual) and macro (i.e., group) level.

Superiority

On an individual level, superiority is described as the personal belief that one is superior to others for any number of reasons. Often described as narcissistic, this idea manifests itself as "a sense of specialness, deservingness, and entitlement" (Eidelson & Eidelson, 2003, p. 184). Individuals in the superiority domain often exhibit an above the law attitude and lack the empathy needed to work well in collaborative environments. At the group level, superiority manifests as moral supremacy or ethnocentrism. Eidelson and Eidelson (2003) closely examined this ethnocentric view.

Eidelson and Eidelson (2003) highlighted Weber's notion that group belief in a chosen people, or ethnic superiority, is a natural feature of ethnic diversity and that any group can seemingly provide evidence of its superior status. The Aryan master race dogma of 1930s fascist national socialist Germany and its attempt at ethnic cleansing through its Final Solution immediately comes to mind as an appalling illustration of a belief in such ethnic superiority. Multiculturalism and the celebration of individual group cultures is pervasive in modern society, and while it seems only right that everyone's cultural identities deserve to be celebrated, such concentration on individual cultures may only serve to reinforce and focus attention on group differences rather than unifying similarities. Not to be confused with organizational hierarchy, which is often a necessary component of intergroup collaboration as not all decisions can be made by the community, it would seem the superiority belief domain could only

serve to cause conflict between groups.

Injustice

The superiority belief domain leads directly into the next, injustice. On the individual level, injustice is characterized by the perception of mistreatment or persecution of one person at the hands of another (Eidelson & Eidelson, 2003). The importance of understanding that feeling of victimization may simply emanate from a feeling and not an actual injustice experience. Injustice breeds the aforementioned sense of inequity that drives individuals to positively seek the restoration of equity or negatively seek to retaliate against their perceived oppressors. According to equity theory, individuals may try to rationalize the situation to change their perception of the inequity and, thusly, negate its effects (Adams, 1965). Eidelson and Eidelson (2003), argued:

For some, the ill treatment becomes a debilitating and immobilizing preoccupation. For others, the recognition that life is not always fair and that they have little choice but to play the hand they were dealt enables them to focus on taking responsibility for their own future (p. 185).

At the group level, perceived injustice is a powerful in-group unifier. Akin to the individual level, group level injustice is defined as the perception of substantial and genuine wrongdoing by one group against another (Eidelson & Eidelson, 2003). Such beliefs can lead, and have led, to turbulent and often violent uprisings as groups fight back against perceived injustice. Furthermore, group injustice is often predicated on the idea the subgroup members are being treated disproportionately; not due to some individual inadequacy, but to their membership in a group that is being dominated by an out-group

assured of its own superiority (Eidelson & Eidelson, 2003). The feeling of injustice can live well beyond the initial injustice event. Like oral tradition, the story of the past injustice, often viewed through rose-colored glasses, is passed down to subsequent generations of group members. The story tends to become skewed in favor of the offended group's preferred position and serves to instill a sense of injustice amongst those who never even experienced the injustice.

Considering the discussion of the five belief domains above, it can be said that all relate, in one way or another, back to questions of authority, power, and dominance. When related to intergroup collaboration both internal and external to organizations, the question of relational power is of supreme importance. Organizations have hierarchical structures, as do their subunits. Relationships within subgroups and between subgroups will undoubtedly wrestle with these questions of authority, power, and dominance.

Intergroup Conflict Amongst Public-Purpose Organization Subgroups

Consider the relationships between doctors and nurses in hospitals, teachers and students in educational settings, and sworn and non-sworn employees in law enforcement agencies. All three pairings are not vastly different in their values as they essentially share the same mission; however, they are vastly different in their in-group characteristics. According to Guan et al (2011), the perceived differences between groups' cultural identities are a reliable predictor of negative intergroup relations. All three pairings are known to work cooperatively to accomplish organizational and societal goals while simultaneously being at odds with each other. That wonderful, and yet, oftentimes, confusing dichotomy has baffled leaders and driven research for centuries.

Doctors and Nurses

Hogg, van Knippenberg, and Rast (2012) described the in-hospital conflict that historically exists between doctors and nurses when they wrote “both groups consider themselves to be the essential part of the hospital and have a history of conflict over pay, conditions, recognition, and a ‘voice’ in hospital governance” (p. 232). Just as with other subgroups, researchers have shown that conflict between these two subgroups has been shown to be quite injurious to organizational outputs (Hogg, van Knippenberg, & Rast, 2012). For centuries doctors and nurses have been separated along status, education, compensation, and race and sex lines.

Doctors have traditionally been dominant over nurses. In the past, doctors held executive authority over nurses, received higher levels of education and post-graduate training, and received significantly higher rates of compensation. Also, until perhaps the latter half of the last century, doctors were almost exclusively male, while nurses were almost exclusively female. However, over the last few decades, women have made great strides in the medical profession. More and more women have become doctors or nurses with extensive education and training. Conversely, men have been able to break through the female nurse stereotype to enter the nursing field with great success. Many universities now have doctoral programs in nursing. Executive level management and administration positions are now available to women, although equality in that area is still lacking. The story of minorities in the medical professional is nearly identical to the struggle of women for acceptance and equality. While it can be said that women and minorities have broken through many barriers in the profession, that has not affected the traditional dominant nature of the doctor/nurse

relationship.

Teachers and Students

While teachers and students are clearly two distinct subgroups of the school organization, they are in fact codependent. One could not exist without the other; there would be no students if no one existed to teach them and no teachers would be needed if there were no students to be taught. Of the three subgroup pairings discussed in this paper, this one indeed has the greatest disparity in power and socioeconomic status. Students hold no authority over the faculty or administration. The faculty have more education and generally, more experience and greater financial power. It would be easy, in most cases, to say that teachers possess an uber dominance over their students; however, this does not mean there is no intergroup conflict.

In a 2007 study of conflict between foreign-born graduate students and university faculty, researchers surveyed 55 foreign-born graduate students and 53 faculty members. The respondents were asked several questions about their personal experience with conflict between the groups. The researchers found that 34 percent of faculty members and 22 percent of students reported having experienced conflict in their relationship (Adrian-Taylor, Noels, & Tischler, 2007). The researchers identified three variables that were selected equally by both groups: lack of time, lack of openness, and differing expectations about individual responsibilities. In contrast, the groups separately identified some causes of conflict. Students identified a lack of feedback, support, respect, and differing expectations about the inter-personal relationship as issues, while faculty group members identified students’ inability to write, speak, and understand English, a lack of adequate research skills, and an over-

dependence on the faculty members as major issues (Adrian-Taylor, Noels, & Tischler, 2007). These identified issues can be related to differences between all three previously identified subgroup types.

The researchers offered higher-education leaders several suggestions to address the identified issues, including offering English language tutoring to non-native speaking students and training for faculty to properly affix language expectations for non-native speakers/writers. The suggestions made by the researchers reflect the leadership challenge of avoiding and mitigating barriers to intergroup collaborative success. The researcher's suggestion that universities should provide both students and faculty members with information on student/faculty conflict, its causes, and the actions to be taken to mediate such conflict before it arises, further illustrates the challenge, but also shows there is a path to success in such cases.

Sworn and Non-Sworn Law Enforcement Professionals

By tradition, as much as by civil service classification, law enforcement employees are generally divided into two distinct subgroups: sworn and non-sworn employees. For the purposes of defining the essential difference between sworn and non-sworn, sworn employees are police officers, regardless of rank and position, who have statutory arrest authority. Police officers are referred to as sworn because upon taking their position as a law enforcement officer, they swear an oath to uphold and protect the Constitution of the United States, constitution of their state, county charter, and/or city charter. Non-sworn employees hold no arrest powers, nor are they always asked or required to swear an oath upon being hired.

While the defining distinctions between the

sworn and non-sworn groups provide one in-group identity distinction, there are several others. Traditionally, the two groups were viewed differently within the law enforcement community because of disparities in authority, training, and educational levels, and by being viewed through the lens of traditional gender roles. Sworn law enforcement officers, regardless of their organizations' position in the national hierarchy of law enforcement agencies, hold perhaps the greatest power the U.S. Constitution allows any government agent, possibly only second to the power to take another's life, the power to seize citizens and deprive them of the personal freedom through the power of arrest. Non-sworn employees are not so empowered, which represents a significant contrast in power and authority.

Historically, sworn employees attended professional academies and were provided with subsequent in-house training, which taught them the skills needed to perform their jobs safely and successfully. While in contrast, non-sworn employees would only receive on-the-job training. In the 1970s and '80s, as the law enforcement community strove to increase the sworn profession's competency level and overall professionalism, sworn employees were offered continuing training and educational assistance to seek a college education. Non-sworn employees were generally not offered the same opportunities. This led to a distinction between the groups, where the sworn employees were seen as well trained and educated professionals, while non-sworn employees were merely seen as dedicated paraprofessionals.

Additionally, absent the occasional instance, the sworn and non-sworn groups were defined by gender with sworn employees consisting mostly of men and non-sworn of women. Nevertheless, as the years and the profession have progressed, women

have managed to break through the sworn gender barrier, while the expansion and professionalization of non-sworn roles have seen more men entering those positions as the civilianization of traditionally sworn roles continues to trend upwards.

Contemporarily, the two groups continue to have different levels of legitimate or statutory authority and levels of professional training; however, the training and education levels of the two groups have more-or-less begun to coalesce. Beyond the fact that many professional non-sworn law enforcement positions, like criminologists and criminalistics scientists, now require undergraduate and graduate degrees, many non-sworn employees entering administrative positions come with degrees in areas such as public and business administration, accounting, leadership, and management. Non-sworn law enforcement employees are no longer simply paraprofessionals, when compared to their sworn counterparts; they have legitimized themselves within the law enforcement profession. Despite this, non-sworn employees, on average, still receive lower pay and benefits than their sworn colleagues. Such compensation decisions are often based upon past practice. There also lingers the belief that sworn officers put themselves at risk to a significantly greater degree than non-sworn employees. While this is inherently true in the profession, it is perhaps no longer to a degree that universally justifies the gap in compensation and consideration between the two groups.

Additionally, an imbalance in the number of group members in each group has presented a position of dominance for the significantly larger group; in this case sworn over non-sworn. The ratio of sworn to non-sworn employees will range from agency to agency, but almost without exception, every

law enforcement agency will have more sworn than non-sworn employees. Such an imbalance, while perhaps operationally necessary, without a doubt provides the sworn group with a significant power advantage in intergroup relations.

Within the three public-purpose organization examples presented here, one can easily see the three subgroup types and five belief domains at play. Perhaps more significantly, one can see how dominance plays a substantial role in the conflict that exists between all three subgroups. One group is invariably dominant over the other. Thus, the question for organizational leaders becomes how to eliminate, or at least at a minimum, mitigate the negative effects of these power roles.

Strategies for Preventing or Mitigating Intergroup Conflict

Group leaders must properly manage intergroup conflict if synergy is to be attained and the collaboration is to be ultimately successful. While ending the conflict altogether would be the preferred outcome, resolving intergroup conflict to such an extent may be found to be too difficult, costly, or time consuming. Collaboration leaders must bring the groups together to overcome entrenched prejudices, stereotypes, and negative personalities or attitudes. Studies have found that structured intergroup contact can be highly successful in overcoming such preconceptions (Hodson, 2011).

Common In-Group Identity Model

Koschmann, Kuhn, and Pfarrer (2012) explained that groups must come together to form a stable and cohesive group identity, which is separate and distinct from their previous disparate in-group identities. The Common In-group Identity Model can be employed if the members of two disparate in-

groups are encouraged see themselves as members of one larger “more inclusive, superordinate group” rather than as separate in-groups, their attitudes towards the members of what was previously an out-group will be positively affected (Guan et al, 2011, p. 378). Koschmann, Kuhn, and Pfarrer (2012) referred to this as a collective identity. They explained it is the former subgroups acting as one superordinate group, through such a collective identity, and not the simple existence of a collective group identity that is of paramount importance.

Building Intergroup Relational Identity

Building on the earlier discussion of relational identity, Hogg, van Knippenberg, and Rast (2012) suggested that successful intergroup collaboration leaders will be able to create and foster a positive intergroup relational identity. An important job for any leader is to provide a sense of meaning to all organizational efforts.

Attaching meaning encourages stakeholder buy-in and a sense of purpose and ownership, all of which can be an incredible source of motivation. Hogg, van Knippenberg, and Rast (2012) argued that this includes the creation of an intergroup relational identity.

Highly successful leaders can ... be viewed as ‘entrepreneurs of identity,’ who are in the business of persuading group members of a reading of the group’s identity that positions the leader as highly prototypical – an individual whose vision, mission, or objectives are tightly consistent with the group’s identity (Hogg, van Knippenberg, & Rast. 2012, p. 241).

According to Hogg, van Knippenberg, and Rast (2012), that becomes a question of leadership rhetoric and action to establish a prototypical role model.

Rhetoric and Intergroup Relational Identity Construction

Attaching meaning to action and creating collective relational identities is a function of leadership rhetoric (Hogg, van Knippenberg, & Rast, 2012). Rhetoric should be used by leaders to define the desired characteristics of the collective identity they are trying to establish. According to Hogg, van Knippenberg, and Rast (2012), rhetoric “should clearly emphasize the linkage between intergroup collaboration and valued aspects of the group’s identity” (p. 242). The leader must call attention to the distinct abilities that each subgroup brings to the relationship and then explain how the intergroup relationship will be mutually beneficial and is in the best interests of each group. Rather than concentrating on collective identity or the creation of a superordinate group, Hogg, van Knippenberg, and Rast (2012) suggested leaders should concentrate on the mutually beneficial intergroup relationship that has been specifically created for the collaboration effort. This may make it possible to avoid having to address intergroup conflict conditions that can arise from efforts to get the distinct subgroups to stop thinking of themselves the way they are accustomed to and instead, think of themselves as part of the larger superordinate group with a new collective identity.

Boundary-Spanning Leadership

Leadership that can span intergroup boundaries is needed to overcome the existence or impression of group dominance. Boundary spanning leaders are those who have significant and meaningful relationships across the groups; relationships that can be brought to bear to bridge the gap between opposing groups and mitigate intergroup conflict (Hogg, van Knippenberg, & Rast 2012). Often, such as with doctors and nurses, faculty and students, and

sworn and non-sworn examples presented earlier, one group is dominant over the other. In most instances, the dominant group holds the power and/or authority needed to dominate all intergroup collaborations (Hogg, van Knippenberg, & Rast, 2012).

As in our public-purpose organization examples, hospital executives are predominantly doctors, senior university executives are faculty, and in law enforcement, the executive leadership is composed almost exclusively of sworn personnel. The fact that the organizational hierarchy is led by members of the dominant group creates an atmosphere of mistrust and a lack of faith in justice and equity. Leaders cannot allow their in-group identity to overshadow their interactions with out-groups if they are to lead successful collaborations. Leaders who can build a reputation of fairness and span boundaries to create a collective identity amongst differing groups while instilling a sense of caring and concern across the groups should be able to avoid many of the pitfalls of intergroup conflict.

Structured Intergroup Contact

Planned and structured intergroup contact is often discussed as a successful method for addressing intergroup conflict. When planning structured intergroup contact, specifically for the purposes of overcoming intergroup conflict, many issues should be taken into consideration. There exists a concern that the extremism often related to groups with deeply entrenched biases will overshadow any structured intergroup contact effort and that contact may only serve to increase tension and distain (Hodson, 2011). Of course, the hope is always that intergroup contact will create understanding and reduce apprehension as the group members see the out-group members are real people who do not solely mirror what their prior impression of them was.

There is, however, always the possibility that directed intergroup contact will serve to reinforce preconceptions and possibly drive an even bigger wedge between groups. For example, when trying to mitigate intergroup conflict a leader may default to a traditional form of sensitivity training for the groups' members, such as multicultural training. However, multicultural training often serves to reinforce existing stereotypes by focusing attention on the differences between the groups (Hodson, 2011). Another consideration is the wide range of general societal (i.e., external) prejudices that may exist (e.g., gender, sexuality, and race-based biases), as well as those internal to the organization or profession (e.g., hierarchy, educational backgrounds, etc.). The intergroup contact efforts cannot simply address one or the other.

The Effect of Prejudices and Stereotyping on Intergroup Contact

In-group identity and the effects of common in-group identity are important factors to be contemplated when addressing internal-based group preconceptions. A consideration when addressing both internal and external-based prejudices is the malleability of entrenched prejudices and stereotypes (Bosak & Diekmann, 2010). Studies have shown that prejudices and stereotypes are not as standardized as previously thought (Bosak & Diekmann, 2010); assumptions and attitudes tend to vary from person-to-person and are highly influenced by environmental aspects, such as education, real-world experiences, and individual defining or social norms during adolescence. The implication for the leader addressing intergroup conflict is that while prejudices and stereotypes may persist across many group members, the degree to which each member adopts each prejudice or stereotype will vary; consequently,

certain elements of the structured contact may need to be individualized.

Conclusion

A thorough understanding of the underpinnings of intergroup conflict and the techniques available for successfully overcoming it are leadership skills that are crucial to collaborative success. Intergroup collaboration and, ergo, intergroup conflict continue to be a subject of great import in public-purpose organizations, private-sector organizations, and society in general. The current economic environment provides an opportunity for overcoming long-entrenched dominance issues in public-purpose organizations. As budgets shrink compensation plans are being reorganized and salary and benefits are being reduced in some cases. The size of government is also shrinking which means public-purpose organizations are learning to do more with less, which also means traditional lines of authority and responsibility are being rethought and redrawn. These changes provide the ideal opportunity for organizational leaders to abolish the group-over-group domination status quo and create a more equitable, efficient, and productive public workforce.

The ways in which humans self-categorize, identify like individuals, and form into groups is nearly as varied as the humans who compose those groups. Whenever human beings are involved in something, it will remain varied, unpredictable, and worthwhile; likewise, so will intergroup relationships and instances of intergroup conflict. While many might consider those very conditions frustrating, in my opinion, they are what constitutes the spice of life that makes studying, researching, and leading organizations challenging and ultimately rewarding. The true measure of power is not being able to force people to do something they do not want to do, rather, true

power rests in the ability to get people to want to do what needs to be done.

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Program overview

The Criminal Justice Leadership and Policy program is a post-baccalaureate academic program offered in the Department of Social and Behavioral Sciences, leading to a Master of Arts in Criminal Justice Leadership and Policy (MACJLP) degree. The program was designed with the working professional in mind and is entirely online and can be completed in two years (three full semesters, two mods or half semesters).

CMU's criminal justice faculty bring years of academic and practical experience to the classroom. They have each earned a doctorate, and their professional backgrounds span the fields of policing, courts and corrections. The combination of academic rigor and professional experience provides students with the highest quality of education. Graduates of the program will be prepared and qualified when seeking employment or promotion in various criminal justice fields.

Why choose the Criminal Justice Leadership and Policy degree at CMU?

This program was designed to develop emerging leaders and prepare them to assume positions of greater responsibility in the criminal justice field. CMU takes a holistic approach to the leadership, administration and management of criminal justice organizations (i.e., police, courts and corrections), and exposes students to unique aspects in the field of criminal justice.

Pursuing a graduate degree can be difficult for working professionals. Many students are assigned to shift work or have constantly changing schedules, so this program was designed with flexibility in mind. The program's online format allows students to study when and where it is convenient for them. Additionally, the program's accelerated format allows working students to focus on each course while still completing two classes per semester (one in each 8-week mod) to stay on track and graduate within two years.

Career opportunities

This program enables students to pursue numerous career paths and promotional opportunities within the criminal justice field. Graduates of the program are well-positioned to secure opportunities in policing, the courts, corrections or continuing graduate studies. The program faculty collaborate with various agencies within the criminal justice system to help students secure and enhance their professional or academic careers.

Program acceptance

- Must have a baccalaureate degree awarded by an accredited institution of higher learning (a non-criminal justice degree may require leveling courses).
- A final undergraduate grade point average (GPA) of 3.0 or higher.
- No GRE is required.
- Undergraduate students within 6 credit hours of graduation may be accepted on a provisional basis.



An entirely online program that may be completed in two years.

Academic curriculum

Master of Arts in Criminal Justice Leadership and Policy is a 33 semester-hour program.

The program's required courses (21 hours) include:

- Advanced Criminological Theory
- Ethics in Criminal Justice Leadership
- Foundational Seminar
- Leadership in Criminal Justice
- Public Policy Analysis
- Research Methods and Data Analysis
- Master's Culminating Experience

The program's elective courses (12 hours) include:

- Budgeting and Finance in Criminal Justice
- Contemporary Issues in Criminal Justice
- Critical Issues in Corrections
- Legal Issues in Criminal Justice
- Police Management and Administration
- Program Development and Evaluation
- Strategic Planning for Criminal Justice Agencies

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Program Overview

The criminal justice majors and minors are for students interested in pursuing careers in law enforcement; the courts; the practice of law; corrections; probation and parole; private and corporate security; criminal forensics; or criminological research.

CMU's criminal justice faculty bring years of academic and practical experience to the classroom. They have each earned a doctorate and their professional backgrounds span the fields of policing, courts and corrections. The combination of academic rigor and professional experience provides students with strong academic degrees, and makes them highly competitive when seeking employment in various criminal justice career fields.

Why Choose Criminal Justice at CMU

There are several academic options available to students through the CMU criminal justice program. Those options include the Bachelor of Arts (BA) in Criminal Justice, Bachelor of Applied Science (BAS) with POST Academy certification, and minors in criminal justice or forensic investigation. The BAS track allows students to earn academic credit towards their baccalaureate degree for attending the Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST) Academy. Students completing the BAS leave CMU with both a bachelor's degree and Colorado POST certification, which makes them able to immediately seek employment with law enforcement agencies throughout the state of Colorado.

The criminal justice program also facilitates internships with many local, state and federal agencies, and provides a variety of other opportunities for students to participate in experiential learning and research. As a result, CMU's criminal justice students are well positioned to pursue graduate school or employment.



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Career Opportunities

Colorado Mesa University criminal justice graduates may secure positions in policing; probation and parole; the forensic sciences; victim advocacy; and in many more exciting professional positions at federal, state and local levels.

Additionally, many students use their CMU criminal justice degree as a starting point to pursue a law degree or other graduate degrees.

The need for well-educated public safety professionals is ever expanding, and careers in the criminal justice community offer exciting challenges in varying disciplines and diverse locations. The employment opportunities for CMU's criminal justice graduates are abundant.



Academic Curriculum

Criminal justice education is the professional study of the practices and institutions of governance dedicated to upholding ethical social control; deterring and mitigating crime; sanctioning those who violate laws through criminal penalties; and rehabilitating offenders so they may successfully reintegrate into society. CMU's criminal justice curricula includes general education requirements and study within all three core components of the American criminal justice system (i.e., policing, courts and corrections); as well as, research-related course work and other electives.

Typical BA course content includes:

Orientation to Criminal Justice Inquiry • Introduction to Criminal Justice • Police Process • Criminology • Corrections • American Court Systems • Criminal Law • Criminal Procedure • Ethics • Social Science Statistics • Research Methods • Other Criminal Justice Electives & Internships

BAS with POST Academy additional course content includes:

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Prospective students can explore CMU's Credit for Prior Learning program at coloradomesa.edu/academics/programs/credit-prior-learning

The BAS in Criminal Justice at CMU combines technical skills, required for policing positions, with the academic rigor of a bachelor's degree; positioning graduates for accelerated career advancements. Many classes in the program are offered online.

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