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**EFFECTIVE COLLABORATION  
BETWEEN THE COMMUNITY AND LAW ENFORCEMENT**

**A STUDY OF COMMUNITY ORIENTED POLICING**

A thesis submitted to the  
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by

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## **Statement of the Problem**

The twenty-first century has arrived and with it came new concerns for the security and safety of our communities and the quality of life. For years, the motto displayed on police cruisers was “To Protect and Serve”. The communities now understand that all law enforcement can do is to serve. To protect citizens at all times, from crime and the fear of crime is not within the scope and capabilities of law enforcement.

The police cannot own the community’s problems. However, the police are public servants, paid by the community, to serve the needs of the residents. Therefore, this presents a major dilemma. If the community is the sole owner of the community’s problems, which include the problems that effect the quality of life, how are the police who have no ownership in these problems expected to solve them?

There must be collaboration between the community and law enforcement. A mutual partnership must be formed with the premise that by working together, solutions can be identified and implemented. This can only occur when a mutual trust is formed between the police and the community as a collaborative agreement.

Community Oriented Policing (COP) is a new philosophy and organizational strategy that allows the police and the community residents to work closely together in new ways to solve the problems of crime, physical and social disorder and neighborhood decay. The philosophy rests on the belief that the citizens in the community must have input into the police process in exchange for their participation and support. It therefore behooves the residents of the community to come together with the police for the common purpose of taking ownership of their community and its quality of life.

Therefore, the community should enlist the cooperation of the police, and establish a mutual trust between the community and the police. For many years, law enforcement has served the community without any compassion or understanding of the community problems and often expressed anti-community attitudes when called by citizens to render assistance. This has developed into a lack of trust of the police by the community.

Community policing is becoming the operating philosophy in a growing number of police agencies of all sizes throughout the United States and has been shown to be the productive change that America's communities and neighborhoods need. Community policing, when it is allowed to work, is a more powerful way of focusing a police department's energies and talents on the underlying conditions that often give rise to crime and repeated calls for police assistance.

This paper will show the historical trends that have existed over the last one hundred fifty years, and how the new philosophy of community oriented policing is changing individual police officers and police departments by establishing an effective collaboration between the community and the law enforcement agencies.



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## Introduction

### **History of Community Policing: How policing started in England**

The history of policing in the United States goes back hundreds of years to England. With the development of metropolitan communities there was a need for the law and a method of enforcing the law. As early as the time of Robin Hood, methods were devised to address problems in the community. The King at that time, during the fourteenth century established the Constable which was an unpaid position. He was later given the title of Constable on Patrol to keep the King's peace,<sup>1</sup> which then became known as the COP. Even today, members of the police force are referred to as the cop. However, the English communities had many problems which caused the constable to fail in his duties.

The constables were so few in number they had to appoint watchmen to stand guard over the selected districts of the community. These watchmen were just men who worked during the day, usually at a factory or forging mill, and later would be ordered, under the penalty of prison to stand watch throughout the night. Mostly, these men worked twelve hour shifts, six days a week. A man would be walking home from work, as was the usual custom, and the constable on patrol would order him to stand watch for the night.

Electricity was not invented as yet, therefore all buildings were heated by open fireplaces and the light was from kerosene lamps. Therefore an all night security watch was needed for fire protection. When a man was ordered to stand watch for the night, after working twelve hours, he could not go home to tell his family about the assignment

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<sup>1</sup> Geoffrey Alpert & Roger Dunham (1988:19)

and that he would be on fire watch all night. He could not even receive his evening meal. And when the night watch was over, the worker had to return to his job at the factory or mill for his next twelve-hour shift. It was no wonder why the citizens did everything to keep a constable from seeing them. The common phrase was “Here comes the COP”, and it is still used today by juveniles, and those avoiding law enforcement. As Phillip Smith (1985) has noted; The legal system admirably served the purposes of the ruling classes in the pre-industrial age, and was far from being a hindrance to the cause of social order.

From the constable era, the system moved to the Shire Reeve, which today is the sheriff. The duties of the sheriff were expanded to include the duties of tax enforcer and collector, and that of the magistrate. This method of collecting taxes, enforcing and administering laws continued until the eighteenth century<sup>2</sup>. At that time London had grown into a major metropolitan area that required a more organized method of policing that could both enforce the laws and address the needs of the metropolitan community.

In the mid 1700’s, Henry Fielding and his brother Sir John Fielding were responsible for leading an effort to improve policing in London and throughout England. The Fieldings initiated what is now known as community watch or neighborhood crime watch.<sup>3</sup> They published several publications, one being the Covent Garden Journal and the other The Weekly Pursuit. The Fieldings educated the public on issues surrounding crime and the apprehension of criminals. With these publications, descriptions were published ,

<sup>2</sup> Geoffrey Alpert & Roger Dunham (1988:19)

<sup>3</sup> Geoffrey Alpert & Roger Dunham (1988:20)

listing the names and identifying features of known criminals and the crime they had committed. In this way, for the first time some of the responsibility of fighting crime and apprehending criminals was placed in the hands of the community.<sup>4</sup> Huge successes were attributed to the leadership and efforts of the Fielding brothers. One volunteer group known as “The Bow Street Runners” was very instrumental in apprehending wanted criminals. Unfortunately with the death of Henry Fielding in 1754, his brother was unable to maintain the status and integrity of the group.

A few years after Fielding’s death, several events took place that hurried the necessity of organizing a metropolitan police force. First, the Lord Mayor was robbed at gunpoint and soon thereafter the Duke of York and the Prince of Wales were mugged as they walked during daylight hours. In the same period, the Great Seal of England was stolen from the house of the Lord Chancellor and melted down for silver.<sup>5</sup> There was a growing demand for protection of the community members at large as London was changing and the sheriffs, constables and watchmen could not preserve order. Often military troops had to be called out to keep the King’s peace. However the violent tactics of these military troops encouraged the idea that what metropolitan London needed was a civilian police force. This idea was further evidenced by the military response to the Gordon riots in 1780 and the Petterman riots in 1819. These riots produced the most intense mob violence and in the 1819 riot the military killed over 500 rioters and rode off

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<sup>4</sup> William Lee, London (1901)

<sup>5</sup> Jonathan Brbenstein (1973:9)

leaving no paper work.<sup>6</sup> It was ten years after the Petterman riots that Sir Robert Peel, the British Home Secretary, organized “The Police of the Metropolis”, which was later named The London Police force.<sup>7</sup> Robert Peel structured a 3,000 man force commanded by commissioners who reported back to him. Additional engineers of the London police force learned from the previous experiences of the constables and sheriffs that the police officers needed a central administrator, strict discipline and close supervision. They also realized that the public needed a line of communication with the police administration. To enhance this communication endeavor, the police force needed to co-relate with the community and still yet provide police structure. Peel published the “Nine Principles of Policing” in 1828<sup>8</sup>.

1. The basic mission for which the police exists is to prevent crime and disorder.
2. The ability of the police to perform their duties is dependent upon public approval of police actions.
3. Police must secure the willing cooperation of the public in voluntary observance of the law to be able to secure and maintain the respect of the public.
4. The degree of cooperation of the public that can be secured diminishes proportionally to the necessity of the use of force
5. Police seek and preserve public favor not by catering to public opinion but by constantly demonstrating absolute impartial service to the law.
6. Police use physical force to the extent necessary to secure observance of the law or to restore order only when the expertise persuasion, advice and warning is found to be insufficient.

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<sup>6</sup> Chris Braiden (Former Police Supt, Edmonton, Canada - 1993)

<sup>7</sup> Phillip Smith, (1985)

<sup>8</sup> Law Enforcement Resource Center (1997)

7. Police at all time should maintain a relationship with the public that gives reality to the historic tradition; the police are the public and the public are the police. The police being the only full-time individuals charged with the duties that are incumbent on all the citizens.
8. Police should always direct their actions strictly towards their functions and never appear to usurp the powers of the judiciary.
9. The test of police efficiency is the absence of crime and disorder, not the visible evidence of police action in dealing with it.

Reducing crime through order maintenance, in the final analysis requires the exercise of good citizenship. Citizens must accept responsibility both for their own behavior and for helping to ensure the safety and security of fellow citizens. As Robert Peel put it, Police and criminal justice agencies in a democratic society should be part and partial of such communities, both encouraging tolerance for difference and supporting citizen efforts to control the unruly and neighborhood predators.<sup>9</sup>

Citizen or neighborhood –based groups are a key element in this paradigm. They are bound by a common purpose – the restoration of order – and a commitment to prod police and criminal justice agencies into helping them solve neighborhood problems.

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<sup>9</sup> George Keeling & Catherine Coles, (1996)

## **History: Policing comes to America**

By the early 1800's, many immigrants from Europe were coming to America, bringing with them various ethnic traditions and customs. These European immigrants came from England, Germany, Ireland and Italy. The English settlers brought with them institutions that they had known in the old world. These institutions however were gradually transformed to suit the conditions of the new environment. With the great degree of these ethnic traditions being poured into concentrated areas, such as New York and Boston, order maintenance became a serious problem. The colonial cities were filled with disorder and organized rioting was a frequent form of political action.<sup>10</sup>

The American colonies found themselves searching for ways to restore order maintenance, as riots were becoming more common among the ethnic immigrants. They looked to the English tradition but found significant difficulties with the London police and their quality of service. In fact, many of the London officers were recruited from the ranks of the Calvary that were very violent. Nonetheless, the New Police of London with its military organization, attracted rave reviews from abroad, especially from the young developing American cities.<sup>11</sup>

The principle institution of law enforcement in colonial America up to this time was the sheriff, the constable and the watchman. Appointed by the governor of the colony, the sheriff was the principle government official in the county. The constable, like the sheriff

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<sup>10</sup> Samuel Walker (1983; 4)

<sup>11</sup> Geoffrey Alpert & Roger Dunham (1988: 22)

was responsible for a wide range of duties both civil and criminal. Like the sheriff, the position of constable became an appointed position. The watchman resembled the modern day police in many respects, as they protected the city at night from fires and disorder.

The metropolis of Boston was growing rapidly and with the expansion came the problem of maintaining order maintenance. Boston became the scene of numerous riots. Clashes between different ethnic groups, the German and Irish Catholics and the Anglo-Saxon Protestants kept Boston in a constant turmoil. This was also a time when slavery was flourishing and race was becoming a major source of disorder. White rioters attacked the abolitionists and free black citizens. Boston experienced major riots in 1834, 1835 and 1837. In 1838, Abraham Lincoln warned that there had become an increasing disregard for the law. Also, in 1838 Boston created a new police force with nine officers. This new police force was a close resemblance to the watchmen, in that they protected the city during the day and the night from fires, crime and disorder.

The movement to improve policing in America began in New York City. The 1834 riots stimulated the state to pass legislation establishing a full-time preventive police force for New York City<sup>12</sup> The New York law established a force of 800 officers and deliberately placed them under the control of the city government and the elected city politicians. The police chief was given no power to hire officers, assign them duties or to fire them. The law did not require officers to wear uniforms; instead they only needed to carry a badge for identification. The pay scale was high enough to attract good applicants.

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Kenneth Peak (1997:14)

Thus, the position of police officer became a very lucrative position and one which local politicians could use to further their political power. It did not take long for other cities to adopt the model of the New York force. New Orleans and Cincinnati adopted plans for a new police force in 1852; Boston and Philadelphia followed in 1854 and Chicago adapted a plan in 1855. By 1880, virtually every major American city had a police force based on Peel's model as pioneered in New York City.<sup>13</sup>

With the establishment of organized paid police departments a number of important issues began to surface. The first was the absence of uniforms and the lack of identification of individual officers. The matter voided a number of the principles on which the department was organized, which was to prevent crime, as Robert Peel had described in his principles of policing. Officers were to be visible and therefore assessable to the community. The lack of uniforms obscured the officer's identity and the citizens could not seek assistance in an emergency. Officers contended that the uniform would hinder their ability to perform their duties in that they would be visible to not only the citizens but also the criminals who could recognize them and flee. In addition, officers argued that the uniform was demeaning and would destroy their sense of manliness.

As the New York officers were appointed to a four-year term of office, the city officials used this time frame to their advantage. When the officer's four-year term expired, the police commissioner announced that no officer would be rehired who refused

<sup>13</sup> Kenneth Peak (1997:14)

to wear a uniform. Thus, New York was the first American City with an uniformed police force in which the community could openly identify a police officer. This method was also adopted by Boston, Philadelphia, Cincinnati and Chicago. By 1860, although with strong police objection, every major city had changed to a fully uniformed force.

Another major issue that confronted the politicians was the arming of police. This issue was more sensitive than that of the uniforms. Nearly everyone viewed an armed police force with suspicion. Members of the public, especially those with English heritage remember the days in the old world when the armed Calvary would respond to major disturbances. They also cited that the “bobbies” of Robert Peel’s police did not carry weapons, they only needed a uniform and a nightstick. However, America had a long tradition that citizens had the right --- sometimes even the duty --- to own firearms.<sup>14</sup> Armed with only nightsticks, the new police could not withstand an attack by armed criminals. The public approved of the officers carrying guns even though this was a major departure from the English model.

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<sup>14</sup> Kenneth Peak (1997:15)

## **The Political Era 1865 to 1930**

This was a time of reconstruction for the country. The civil war had just ended and reconstructing from a war economy to a peace-time economy was very stressful on the inhabitants. Most of the immigrants who recently arrived from their former countries were poor, very poor. Jobs were difficult to find, as was a place for a family to live. Many of the immigrants, be they from Ireland, European Germans and Jews or from Italy, found residence in the five-point section of New York City. Named the five-points because it was a five point intersection in lower New York.<sup>15</sup>

Because of the large influx of people, many gangs were organized, mostly according to the ethnic heritage they possessed, and they preyed upon the immigrants who only recently arrived on the boat. With the potato famine reeking havoc in Ireland, many of these immigrants were Irish. And these Irish immigrants who were destitute and starving did not receive a warm welcome. Therefore, for many that could not find work, crime was the quickest way to the American dream. To the destitute and starving masses, they did not receive a warm welcome. To most of the old immigrants, who had established themselves, the Irish were unwelcome to our shores. And, as the population of the five-points grew, so did the variety and scope of the gang activity. It was a constant event to observe robberies and muggings. Over time, the gangs established well known identifies, such as the Forty Thieves, the Roach Guard, the Shirt Tails and the Plug Ugly's. The police were well aware of the violence of these gangs and never would approach them unless there was a half-dozen

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<sup>15</sup> Prof Daniel Czitron, Mount Holly College, In Search of History

or more police. The immigrant gangs were developing so fast and so powerful, the native residents of the five-points established the American gangs, such as the Bowery Boys, The American Guard and The True Blue.<sup>16</sup>

Some of the worst of the gang riots occurred during this period when the Dead Rabbit gang, comprised of Irish immigrants, raided a saloon which was a hang-out for the Bowery Boys. The fight continued to grow as others, who identified with these two groups, responded from other areas to the five-points to lend their support for their gang. Within hours it became a full-blown riot. The New York police never arrived. There were two separate police departments, and each called themselves the New York Police. One group was hired by and paid by the State of New York, the other was hired by and paid by the City of New York. While the war between the two gangs continued to flourish for days, neither police department would assume authority for that section of town, so the police never responded. The gangs continued to fight with guns, clubs, bricks and bottles. Finally, the State of New York called in two regiments of federal troops, and with fixed bayonets, they brought order to the five-points.

As the century was coming to a close, political power was beginning to raise its ugly head. Many of the immigrants who arrived just twenty or so years ago were making their way into the halls of city hall and within the ranks of authority. One such colorful figure was Big Tim Sullivan, an Irish immigrant who had been raised in the five-point sector, participated in the Irish gangs, managed a whorehouse and a

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<sup>16</sup> Prof Kenneth Jackson, Columbia University, In Search of History

number of Irish saloons. Big Tim, as he was known on the street, ruled the area with an iron hand. Nothing moved without the approval of Big Tim. If there was any dispute between any of the factions of the five-points, it was taken to Big Tim Sullivan for settlement. What ever Big Tim decided, that's the way it would be. In 1886 at the age of 23, Big Tim Sullivan was elected to the United States Congress. As a representative in the federal house, Big Tim's political clout mushroomed to great proportions. He financed his political career with kickbacks from prostitution, gambling, illegal liquor sales and any other illegal method. Big Tim's gambling halls, saloons and prostitution rings ran like a fine oiled machine, and with very little interference from the law.

As mentioned earlier, the police chief was not given power to hire, fire, or even assign the police to specific duties. Carl Klockars argues that when policing is made a full-time, paid vocation and becomes a job, special and powerful means of controlling it becomes possible that was not possible under any of its older avocational forms? The only answer is to have the ability to reprimand, or fire any particular person who holds a full-time position as a police officer and is found to be derelict in his duties.<sup>17</sup> This economic condition gave politicians like Big Tim Sullivan the full opportunity to use the police force as a political wedge in controlling what laws would be enforced, when they would be enforced and against whom they would be enforced. Selection standards for police personnel were nonexistent. Officers obtained their jobs through political contacts. A person's age, health or moral

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<sup>17</sup> Carl B. Klockars (1985:40)

character were not barriers to employment. There was no formal training. Officers would be handed a badge and departmental rules manual and sent out on the street.<sup>18</sup>

The quality of American police services during this political era could not have been worse. The police were completely unprofessional and the police work was dominated by corruption. Control of local government was available to any group that could control a sufficient number of voters. Mayor and chief of police had little real power; the strength of power lay with city councilmen and police captains at the neighborhood level.

As Klockars (1985) argues, any cop who was solidly supported by his alderman or assistant alderman could disobey a police superior with virtual impunity. Politics influenced every aspect of policing, and the police were very instrumental in providing the necessary votes to be cast to retain the elected position of their primary politician.<sup>19</sup> The job of police officer was a highly desirable position since it paid more than most blue-collar jobs. In 1880, most big cities paid the patrol officer about \$900 a year, where a factory worker could only expect to earn about \$450 per year. The higher ranks of sergeant, lieutenant and captain paid even more. However, to be appointed by a politician to the rank required kickbacks. You could literally buy your way into the police department. But this was not without a return on investment. Police corruption was a direct product of the political influence. Also, it was not

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<sup>18</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:7)

<sup>19</sup> International Association of Chiefs of Police (1974)

limited to the police as the entire criminal justice system and all city government was permeated by corruption. Money from regular payoffs was divided among the officers in the area<sup>20</sup>. In the neighborhood, as a police captain, you had complete control of what laws would be enforced, when they would be enforced, and against whom they would be enforced. However, there was absolutely no job security regardless of rank. The officers lost their jobs whenever a rival political party was elected to city office and gained control of the system.

Because the selection of police officers was a product of political patronage, the composition of police forces reflected the turbulent ethnic group of the American cities. The jobs as police officers were prizes that each ethnic group sought for itself. The Irish in Boston were the first to control the police power, and the Irish gained control in other large cities on the Atlantic coast. In Cleveland, Cincinnati, Milwaukee and St. Louis, the German-Americans were strong and fought for their share of the patronage appointments. Blacks gained a foothold in Chicago and other cities because of their political support from the Republican Party. Appointments to the police force of ethnic members of the community by their own group was more than just receiving a job. For immigrant groups it was an important step up the social scale. To wear the uniform and represent the law meant that both the individual and the group had arrived. In terms of law enforcement, order maintenance and service, police work was hopelessly inefficient. In many cities the police did not even attempt to patrol all parts of the city. The officers spent much of their time in saloons,

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<sup>20</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:9)

barbershops and other establishments.<sup>21</sup> The police heavily enforced the code of the ethnic group that supported them. For instance, an Irishman in an Irish sector could behave however he wished, if he was drunk, nothing would be done to control him. He was seen as one of the boys. However, let another person of another ethnic group, such as an Italian, come into the Irish sector, any behavior could be ruled as non-acceptable and he would be run out of town or even thrown into jail.

Policing, as its original principle was stated by Robert Peel, to be that of preventive patrol was far from the rule. Peel professed that the "police are the people and the people are the police". This principle was non-existent during the political era. Officers did not see themselves as professionals with an obligation to serve the public efficiently and impartially. The tradition of police brutality was the product of the twin problems of citizen disrespect and unprofessional officers.

This had truly become a time of discord between the police and the community at large. A major reform was in order and a few professionals around the country were working hard, with the help of the federal government, to bring it about. As research will show us, a reform of police practices did take place but it was not always with the over whelming approval of all law enforcement. There were still some holdovers that liked the old political machine and the power the immigrant groups had because of it.

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<sup>21</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:8)

## **The Reform Era: 1930 to 1970**

As the nineteenth century was coming to a close, many changes were taking place that directed a new focus on law enforcement. The results of the political era had ravaged the principle of law enforcement to a point where only one of Robert Peel's principles of policing could be identified and it was often abused. It was his fifth principle; "Police seek and preserve public favor not by catering to public opinion but by constantly demonstrating absolute impartial service to the law". In establishing law enforcement in England and adopting the principles in America, the public and the community as a whole were the focus of good service and effective law enforcement. Over the sixty years since Peel's writing, many of the principles of good law enforcement had vanished. Law enforcement had become a power base for many politicians and the establishment of power for individual ethnic groups. In some areas of the country, a man must be a member of the ethnic group, (for example, the Irish) to be appointed as a policeman in the Irish community.

A number of factors were beginning to surface that would affect a change in the power base. One was the urbanization of the communities. The standard of living for both Native American's and western Europeans was rising. Second was the industrialization of the areas. New industry was coming to America and factories were being built. These factories needed sober, dependable people who were responsible and had the ability to work with machines. As Peak (1993) argues, factory management pressured the politicians for change. They espoused a police department that would advocate temperance. The factory management needed good qualified labor, regardless of their ethnic background, to produce a quality product. With the

current demeanor of the police, which was to harass any outsider and prevent them from gaining employment. Although many people resisted this attempt of social control and reform, clearly a new age and a new way of thinking had begun.

However, because of the industrialization and a raise in the standard of living, crime and unrest made the old politically dominated system of policing inadequate. A new reformed policing system was needed, one that would address the needs of the community, and effectively deal with criminals, maintain order and prevent crime.<sup>22</sup>

Police reform and the emergence of the concept of a professionalized police force were the direct result of years of unrest concerning who would control the police and what would be the method of policing. Little effort, in the beginning, had been given to the selection of police personnel, training or management. Those who promoted police reform usually represented the respectable groups in society, namely the middle class and the native-born Americans<sup>23</sup>. Their idea of reform was to remove the power of the police from the immigrant political machines and create a more professional force which would be controlled by specialists, who were trained in law enforcement. This was later seen to be a difficult chore, as the strength, magnitude and power of the immigrant political machine was enormous.

As the movement to create a professional police force actually started around the turn of the century but did not take hold until the reform era.. One prominent leader

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<sup>22</sup> Kenneth Peak (1993:11)

<sup>23</sup> Geoffrey Alpert & Roger Dunham (1988:27)

was Richard Sylvester, who was the superintendent of the District of Columbia police department. A convention of police chiefs was held and for their group they adopted the title, the National Chiefs of Police Union, but later changed it to the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP). Sylvester became president of the IACP from 1901 to 1915. He encouraged strong professional development among his officers and transformed the IACP into the leading voice for his ideas of professionalism and a moving force for police reform.<sup>24</sup>

The IACP was studying the political struggle for police power, legislation was being introduced in the federal government to establish a new procedure for employment with the federal government. The Pendleton Act, which was passed a few years earlier by the United States congress introduced civil service as a condition of employment with the federal government employees. In the same year, The State of New York also adopted the civil service provision and became the first state to impose such procedures on local governments.<sup>25</sup>

Another prominent leader, August Vollmer was very instrumental in police reform. Vollmer was the chief of the Berkley, California police department for twenty seven years until 1932. Although Vollmer was better known than Sylvester, he relied on many of Sylvester's ideas on reforming police agencies. Vollmer's major contribution was the integration of education into police work. He hired college

<sup>24</sup> Geoffrey Alpert & Roger Dunham (1988:28)

<sup>25</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:84)

graduates as police officers and, at the University of California, organized the first college-level police related course. He also worked with other universities in developing the most effective courses on how to teach efficient police methods<sup>26</sup>.

One of Vollmer's former "college cops" was Orlando W. Wilson. Wilson later moved to Wichita, Kansas to head that city's police department and became involved in the study of the development of officer's efficiency and effectiveness. These three pioneers were proven examples of the dedication and innovation that moved American policing from its original root of political domination to its current status<sup>27</sup>

By this time the civil service act had been adopted by most of the major cities. The control and policy procedures were specified through state laws and local ordinances. Ultimate authority rested with a board or commission that was appointed by the chief executive. The board or commission usually consists of three to five members. The board then hires a personnel director to administer policy on a day-to-day basis. The civil service boards are responsible for the following eight categories that were proposed by the federal government in the Pendleton Act:

1. Development of job descriptions and pay scales.
2. Development of recruitment criteria
3. Development and administration of recruitment tests.
4. Certification of qualified applicants

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<sup>26</sup> Geoffrey Alpert & Roger Dunham (1988:28)

<sup>27</sup> Geoffrey Alpert & Roger Dunham (1988:29)

5. Development of promotional criteria
6. Development and administration of promotional test
7. Development of disciplinary procedures
8. Final review of disciplinary appeals.

The purpose of the civil service procedures was to ensure that administrative decisions are based on qualification and merit rather than favoritism. These procedures were designed to limit the personal power and discretion of publicly elected officials and top administrative officials in the police department.<sup>28</sup>

The next era of police reform, one that was strongly influenced by Vollmer was the (to be known later as) the Wickersham Commission in an admission that crime control was becoming a national problem. President Coolidge appointed the first National Crime Commission in 1925. To the commission he appointed Charles Hughes, former Chief Justice of the Supreme Court and Navy Secretary Franklin D. Roosevelt. About the same time, the International Association of Chiefs of Police conducted studies on police power and control problem and recommended major changes. Also, at this time, Coolidge created two important new law enforcement agencies to add additional emphasis to the movement of reforming the police. The state police authority for each state and the Federal Bureau of Investigation.

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<sup>28</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:85)

The leaders of the police professional movement, Sylvester, Vollmer and Wilson agreed on the basic agenda for the police reform. The overall goal was to “get politics out of the police and get the police out of politics”. The first item they considered on the reform agenda was to recommend the hiring of experienced executives to run the police departments. They considered looking into the military or to private industry to provide such leaders. And to further curb the influence of politicians, it was recommended that police executives should enjoy job security, under the guidelines of the civil service act, therefore their jobs would be guaranteed for several years.

The second item on the reform agenda involved centralizing the police command and control within the department at a central location. The reformers also advocated installing centralized record systems at the command center so that the ward politicians could not gain ready access to police files.

The third item was the raising of the personnel standards. Again, Vollmer took the lead by emphasizing that higher education was paramount for police officers, when most police officers lacked even a high school education. Also, screening for mental and physical health problems as well as applicants with criminal records.

The fourth item was the development of specialized units. Until this time, police departments were very unspecialized; usually being divided into two groups; patrol and detectives. New specialties would be incorporated to raise the level of effectiveness, like vice control, traffic investigation, juvenile rehabilitation units, record keeping and so forth. Thereby, police departments would become an increasingly complex and an effective bureaucracy.

The fifth and last item on the agenda was the development of a sense of mission. Each department should have a mission statement that declares what their mission is as a law enforcement agency, and how they are going to complete that mission. They believed that the police, like other professions, had a special mission or a calling; to protect and serve the public and the community as a whole in an efficient and impartial manner<sup>29</sup>. The police agencies should adhere to the principles of good policing, as referenced by Robert Peel, as he described his seventh principle; “the police are the public and the public are the police”

In the decades before 1960, the police profession made slow but steady progress, but new problems emerged. Progress in professionalism was offset by higher public expectations about the quality of police service. The most important development was a revolution in police work brought about by changes in technology.<sup>30</sup>

While most states have some form of “full-enforcement statute”, which is a law providing that the police shall enforce all laws, it often becomes a matter of discretion as to how the laws will be enforced. As mentioned earlier, technical innovations brought about a revolution in American police work. The introduction of the patrol car, the two-way radio and the telephone has placed the police officer at your fingertip. Research has shown that the full-enforcement statutes are rarely enforced, however, many members of the public believe that all laws should be enforced. The volume of calls for service and the number of patrol cars on duty, it becomes a matter

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<sup>29</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:11)

<sup>30</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:13)

of discretion as how the calls can be or even will be answered. That still leaves law enforcement with a dilemma, by statute, selective enforcement of the law is illegal.<sup>31</sup>

After President Collidge convened the Wickersham Commission, he could offer little to its accomplishments. That was left to his successor, President Herbert Hoover. Fourteen reports were submitted by the various committees toward the national study of crime and criminal justice. Report 11 on the “Lawlessness in Law Enforcement” was the most sensational. The report examined and exposed the problem of police brutality. The report concluded that, “The Third Degree – the inflicting of pain, physical or mental, to extract confessions or statements” was extremely practiced. Research has shown that the police were commonly using beating, threats and illegal detention to obtain the information they desired. Some even more bizarre techniques were used to extract a confession, like holding a suspect out a third-story window by his ankles until he confessed. When confronted with these facts, the chief of the Buffalo, New York police department simply said, “to hell with the Constitution”.<sup>32</sup> Having experienced the political era of policing, the public was becoming more concerned about the reform that was taking place. With the modern technologies that were added and the understanding that policing was going to get better, the public was becoming very disillusioned by the events that were being reported. Police brutality had been on the rise since the turn of the century. Newspaper and magazine publications were devoting more and more articles describing the problem, while victims of police misconduct brought suits in increasing

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<sup>31</sup> Carl Klockars (1985:94)

<sup>32</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:15)

numbers. The Wickersham Commission report created an even greater sensation and aroused public opinion even more. The leaders of the police professionalism movement were deeply embarrassed as the stories of widespread brutality damaged their claim that policing was an honorable profession.

Report 14, entitled “The Police” which dealt mainly with police administration was principally written by August Vollmer. While it contained nothing new, it restated the agenda of police professionalism, which gave the movement a needed boost. The report affirmed that police chief executives should be selected on merit and patrol officers should be tested and meet prescribed educational and physical standards. The commission also called for the use of women in law enforcement, especially in the specialized areas of female contacts and juvenile cases.<sup>33</sup>

Although President Hoover had inherited the Wickersham Commission from his predecessor, his administration could do little more than report the recommendations before he left office. President Franklin D. Roosevelt’s administration provided the funding and leadership that was necessary for implementing the Wickersham Commission report in the states.

As previously mentioned, the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) had been created and funded through the Department of Justice Appropriation Act of 1908. Originally staffed with 35 agents, it originally had no specific duties other than the prosecution of crimes, focusing on bankruptcy frauds and antitrust crimes.

Involvement in espionage and sabotage incidents during World War I and coupled

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<sup>33</sup> Kenneth Peak (1993:29)

with charges of political corruption reaching all the way to the Department of Justice and within the Bureau itself, and angry demands by citizens and politicians called for reform and changes. In 1924, J. Edgar Hoover was appointed director of the Bureau and he proceeded to clean up the agency. The FBI emerged as another powerful voice for police professionalism in the 1930s.

New federal laws in the 1930s gave the Bureau jurisdiction over new areas of criminal activity. The size of the Bureau grew and Hoover became a master of public relations. The Bureau gained responsibility for the new Uniform Crime Report (UCR), and despite its many weaknesses, it was the first national system of crime statistics in America. The FBI became the unofficial voice of American policing. In 1935, the Bureau opened the National Training Academy where it provided training for police officers from local departments. This was in line with what Vollmer had stressed, that police should be well trained and present a professional image. With the national academy and a new crime lab, the Bureau established itself as the new leader in police professionalism.<sup>34</sup>

To Herbert Hoover and the FBI, professionalism had a special meaning. Hoover believed his agents were trained professionals, however, they always presented themselves as tough and fearless crime fighters. Therefore, as a consequence of this training, the crime fighting or law enforcement aspects of the police role overshadowed all other aspects of the community. The aspects of order maintenance and community service, which had been highly promoted by the police

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<sup>34</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:16)

professionalism movement of Sylvester, Vollmer and Wilson sank to second-class status. Officers rendered the aspects of order-maintenance and community service as not being “real” police work. This dramatic shift in the police role occurred at about the same time that the content of actual police work was moving more to order-maintenance and community service. Technological innovations resulted in the police being more involved in minor disputes. As mentioned earlier, the patrol car, radio and telephone had put the police officer at everyone’s fingertip. The police were seeing themselves as peacemakers while their public image emphasized crime fighting. This psychological dilemma deeply disturbed many officers. However, experts did not fully recognize this inconsistency between the police image and actual enforcement reality until the 1960s.<sup>35</sup>

California had been a leader in the movement for police professionalism since the days of August Vollmer when he was chief of the Berkley police department. California established itself as a leader among the police departments in the forty-eight states. By 1950, the most famous California police official was William Parker, chief of the Los Angeles police department. Parker assumed control of a department, which had its share of scandals, and quickly transformed it into an efficient, corruption-free agency. Parker’s transformation of the Los Angeles police department came through a combination of authoritarian administration practices and

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<sup>35</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:16)

intense public relations. Officers who questioned Chief Parker's policies soon found their careers blocked. Parker's public relation campaign included skillful manipulation of the media.<sup>36</sup>

Chief Parker cooperated very closely with the producers of the popular television show, *Dragnet*, as the show equated the Los Angeles police with the relentless, efficient and quiet professionalism of his department. He continually emphasized the crime-fighting role and the police as the "thin blue line". He also emphasized the role of the citizen as "its us versus them". Parker attacked all court decisions that limited police power and regarded all critics as "subversive". However, Parker's style of professionalism was incapable of dealing with the negativity that was eroding the police, and community relations. Relations between the police and the black community also became increasingly strained during the 1950s as a result of both the steady migration of blacks to the big cities and the growing momentum of the civil rights movement. It became obvious that issues concerning the police and the community were emerging that would eventually explode in the major cities. A number of factors could be observed, one being the police-community relations and the other police unionism. The relations between the police and the public varied on a wide scope from positive to physically coercive, depending on whom you asked. While the majority of the middle-class approved of police practices, the members of the lower-class minority felt oppressed<sup>37</sup>.

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<sup>36</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:17)

<sup>37</sup> Geoffrey Alpert & Roger Dunham (1988:29)

As mentioned, a major problem surfaced as the police involved on the frontline increased their efforts to unionize. As we have seen during the political era, the police were found to be at the mercy of the politicians. As the notion of police professionalism matured, more officers thought in terms of an organized effort to develop and protect their interests. Police found themselves isolated from the rest of society, as their description of the common citizens was “its’ us versus them”. When the police found that they were only working and socializing with other police, they became very cynical toward the citizens. Police social clubs were formed by this bond and this formed the beginnings of the police unions<sup>38</sup>

The 1960s was certainly an era in which problematic issues converged in a volatile manner. Police had become better trained, better educated and more professional than in the past. Along with these improvements came more social responsibilities and increased expectations by members of the community. During this period the people expressed their dissatisfaction with racial discrimination, and the United States involvement in the Vietnam war. The public’s response to these issues was to riot. The proverbial straw that broke the camel’s back, happened again in 1964, when an off-duty New York policeman shot and killed a black youth, which in turn fueled other riots that same year. The Watts riot in Los Angeles broke out in 1965 in which the Watts community rioted against police brutality. But perhaps the worst of the riots occurred in Detroit in 1967 after police raided an after-hours bar.

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<sup>38</sup> Geoffery Alpert & Roger Durham (1988:30)

The rioters literally firebombed blocks of businesses and residential dwellings. The two threads that tied all of these community disturbances together were race relations and police responses.<sup>39</sup>

As mentioned above, the riots and civil disturbances were spreading throughout the country. The college campuses were becoming battlegrounds. The Vietnam War was a major factor in dividing the public into two camps, those who supported the war and its principles and those who opposed the war with public displays of violence toward the government and the police. On May 4, 1970 at Kent State University, the Ohio National Guard was called in to squelch a riot. Four students were killed and nine wounded at by the National Guard. Ten days later, in Jackson, Mississippi, the Mississippi Guard killed two students and wounded twelve. It had become very evident; the current method of policing was no longer effective in controlling discord in the community. It was time to develop a new model of policing. A model that collaborated law enforcement with the community.

<sup>39</sup> Geoffrey Alperet & Roger Dunham (1988:30)

## **The Modern Era: 1970 to the present**

As Herman Goldstein, law professor and police scholar, pointed out in 1977, “Many police departments had achieved such degrees of autonomy that they were virtually unaccountable to local government.” He claimed that policing had become something being done to the people, instead of something being done with the people.<sup>40</sup>

It had been previously asserted, but now research has confirmed, (i.e. Herman Goldstein, 1990) that the community must be included in the policing process if order-maintenance is to prevail. But, first of all, a clarification must be established, “Who is the community?”

Some people think of a community as just residential neighborhood while others envision it as a city, or even a county. Regardless of a person’s geographical description, the people who live there have sentimental feelings about their community, and as responsible citizens, they have a stake in what controls their quality of life. Law enforcement that serves their community has a major impact on their quality of life and citizens want a voice in how the law will be enforced. Rather than have the law always “done to them, they want the law to assist them”. Citizens are seeking a dialogue with the police to collectively solve their community problems.

Whatever has been defined as the geographical location of the community, the community will always have individual characteristics that make it unique. There are ethnic, cultural and social groups who refer to themselves as a community within a

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<sup>40</sup> Law Enforcement Resource Center (1997)

community who have common shared interests. These groups are Latin, Hispanic, and Asian Americans, also African Americans and even European Americans. Currently, the United States census shows that the Hispanic and Asian populations are growing larger and faster than any other ethnic or racial group. As of 2002, the Hispanic-Asian population makes up the majority of the population in the State of California. Predictions that by the year 2042, the Hispanic-Asian population will be the majority of the population in the United States. Both of these groups, as mentioned above, have their own common interest, and these interest are unique to their culture. Accordingly, for community policing to be successful, the police must have a firm understanding of the community's dynamics. Furthermore, with this understanding, the police must take a leadership role in organizing homogeneous segments of these populations into focal groups for the establishment of community policing initiatives.

Police departments tend to define communities as jurisdictional districts with predetermined precinct lines or designated areas in public housing developments. Therefore, the community, which should be the core of the community policing initiative, is often defined more by police administrative parameters than by carefully assessing who the stakeholders are, and how can the police best serve them.

The typical police method of defining communities for community-policing initiatives, is functional only insofar as jurisdictional, district or precinct boundaries are concerned. Nevertheless, the selected communities do tend to be primarily residential, and only include the small businesses that interact with the residential areas. These communities usually experience a high percentage of crime and have

difficulty establishing quality of life issues. While the typical police methods to establish community policing have practical advantages, it also has disadvantages that often inhibit the success of community policing initiatives. First, a stakeholder such as a small business owner, often will not reside within the confines of the same police jurisdictional boundary as where his business is located. Although he will be a taxpayer to the community, he often is regarded as not having a legal voice established by voting privileges. Second, certain groups of stakeholders, such as those of ethnic heritage, fall within the jurisdiction but do not fall into tidy residential neighborhoods. Often, isolated groups are regarded as outcasts and not accepted by a community because of their ethnic heritage. It is not easy for the police to enter into partnerships with incomplete groups of stakeholders. This is where the police must take the leadership role in organizing homogeneous community policing initiatives.

Another disadvantage to police partnerships with the community is that many shortcomings may not be readily apparent. It is relatively easy to achieve positive, short-term public satisfaction, but long term effects are much more difficult to achieve. The interventions between the police and the community that are most likely to have long-term positive effects are those that are the result of skillful problem solving initiatives. There must be a serious partnership formed, with the police and with as many stakeholders as possible. Most groups respond well to their newly empowered status as stakeholders and the enhanced attention from the police. Through this partnership, the group should display a valid performance of problem solving skills and operate as a comprehensive community unit.

As Herman Goldstein wrote, the police must do more than they have in the past to engage the citizenry in the overall task of policing. The police have erred in pretending for all these years that they could take upon themselves -- and successfully discharge --all the responsibilities that they now find to be theirs.<sup>41</sup>

Robert Trojanowicz, who is considered the founder of community policing described the philosophy of community policing as follows. Community policing is a philosophy and an organizational strategy that promotes a new partnership between people and their police. It is based on the premise that both the police and the community must work together to identify, prioritize and solve contemporary problems. Problems such as crime, drugs, fear of crime, social and physical disorder, and overall neighborhood decay, with the goal of improving the overall quality of life in the area.<sup>42</sup>

Trojanowicz further indicated that community policing requires a department wide commitment from everyone, civilian and sworn personnel, to the community policing philosophy. It also challenges all personnel to find ways to express this new philosophy in their jobs. Thereby balancing the need to maintain an immediate and effective police response to individual crime incidents and emergencies. The overall goal, of the civilian and sworn personnel, is the exploring of new proactive initiatives aimed at solving problems before they occur or escalate. Community policing also rests on establishing community police officers as decentralized “mini-chiefs” in permanent beats. They will enjoy the freedom and autonomy to operate as

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<sup>41</sup> Herman Goldstein (1990:2)

community-based problem solvers. These officers work directly with the community, making their neighborhoods better and safer places in which to live and work.<sup>43</sup>

To better understand the scope of neighborhood decay, and the escalating effects it has on crime, an article by James Q. Wilson and George L. Kelling appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly* in March 1982, entitled, “Broken Windows”. At first the article did not draw much attention, by either law enforcement or criminalist, to the problem of crime and neighborhood decay. If there was a relationship, it was not at first evident as to how one condition effected the other. However, in the years since its original publication the article has served as a roadmap to understanding how neighborhoods succumb to decay, and become havens for criminal activity. Order-maintenance is no longer pliable as long as the decay is evident in the community.

In 1964, crime had become a major issue in the presidential campaign. Lyndon Johnson campaigned on tougher crime control. After his election, Johnson initiated the Commission on Law Enforcement to study crime and society’s response to it. This was the first national crime study since the Wickersham study in the 1930s. Social researchers like Albert Biderman presented important findings from citizen surveys that strongly related to the existence of disorderly conditions in neighborhoods and communities. Implications of these findings should have been critical to the formation of public policy and the shaping of police practices. However, the relationship between fear and disorder was largely ignored. It was well into the 1980s before social science researchers identified the links between crime, the fear of

<sup>42</sup> Robert Trojanowicz & Bonnie Bucqueroux (1994:2)

<sup>43</sup> Robert Trojanowicz & Bonnie Bucqueroux (1994:3)

crime and disorder. Scholars and practitioners focused almost exclusively on “serious crimes”, those that were the most consequential for the victims, such as murder, rape, robbery, assault and burglary<sup>44</sup>.

While the police and criminal justice practitioners ignored neighborhood and community disorder, citizens and local officials did not. During the mid-1970s, George Kelling conducted the Newark, New Jersey Foot Patrol Experiment. While popular with many citizens and local politicians at the time, foot patrol was viewed by most police executives as a waste of valuable resources, that could be better used for “real policing”, which would keep police officers in their cars. Nevertheless, foot patrol was conducted as an add-on program with the Newark police department. Immersing themselves in the lives of their neighborhoods, the police officers were becoming well-known, often by their names, to area regular-residents, merchants and street people. The police also began to recognize and identify many of these individual residents by name.

Foot patrol officers were able to keep abreast of local problems, assumed special responsibility for particular locations or persons, and developed regular sources of valuable information. Finally, in collaboration with the citizens, officers established “rules of the street” that were commonly known and widely accepted by “responsible people” as well as “street people.”<sup>45</sup>

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<sup>44</sup> George Kelling & Catherine Coles (1996:11)

<sup>45</sup> George Kelling & Catherine Coles (1996:17)

Most New Jersey police chiefs were dismayed with what they learned from program evaluations from the officers, who were supposed to be “fighting crime”, but were actually doing foot patrol. For example, one officer reported that while responding to the same bar for the second time that evening, to break up a bar fight, he took a proactive approach and closed the bar for the night. When his chief heard about this proactive decision, “he said in disgust, if that decision was made in another (unnamed) department he would be fired”. Even if the police administration was unimpressed with foot patrol, citizen responses were very positive, even in predominately black neighborhoods patrolled by white officers. Overwhelmingly, fear declined and citizen appreciation for police soared. Although foot patrol did not reduce the incidence of serious crime, residents of the foot-patrolled neighborhoods felt more secure than did those in other, non-foot patrolled areas, and actually believed that crime had been reduced. <sup>46</sup>

During the 1970s a number of studies were conducted to evaluate new methods of policing. It was very clear; the traditional method of policing was outdated. In 1974, one such study took place in Kansas City. The preventative patrol experiment had little impact on crime or citizen’s attitudes. The city was divided into five sectors. In sector one, maximum patrol was assigned so the police would have a large degree of visibility. In sectors two, three and four, various amounts of random patrol were assigned depending on the geographic nature of the area and the criminal activity in the area, patrol cars would respond when available. In sector five, which had a

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<sup>46</sup> George Kelling & Catherine Coles (1996:18)

reasonably high amount of crime and neighborhood decay, there were no random patrol units assigned. However, when a call for service was received from sector five, two or three patrol cars would be dispatched to the call. The cars would arrive in the minimum amount of time. A survey was conducted of all the sectors as to their evaluation of the police and response to call request. All sectors were very pleased, that their request was being answered. Even in sector five, which had no assigned patrol, the citizens were very please and indicated that they were given adequate police service. Although, crime had not gone down, it was the contention of the survey participants, especially those in sector five, that they thought it might have, because their fear of crime had gone down. The results were so shocking to the police administration and survey evaluators that the study was repeated in 1978, using exactly the same control model. Once again, the results were repeated, the people were very happy, and although crime did not go down by any appreciable extent, the people though it did, and they were not as afraid.<sup>47</sup>

John Eck and William Spelman analyzed these finding and they summarized the following. First, the Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment questioned the usefulness of random patrol in police cars. Second, studies of response time undermined the premise that the police must rapidly send officers to all calls. Third, research suggested, and experiments confirmed, that the public does not always expect fast service from the police for non-emergency calls.<sup>48</sup>

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<sup>47</sup> Law Enforcement Resource Center (1997)

<sup>48</sup> Herman Goldstein (1990:12)

After Kansas City, many additional studies were conducted to validate this new policing initiative, and ascertain that the results that were recorded in Kansas City could be replicated in other cities. Some of the cities that studied and applied the results in their area were, Flint, (Michigan), New York City, Boston, Baltimore, Fort Worth, Nashville, Houston, Los Angeles and Washington, D.C.

Flint's Foot Patrol Program began in 1979, and placed a police officer in each of the 64 areas into which the city was divided. It incorporated many of the basic elements of problem-oriented policing as recorded by Goldstein. One major context of the project was building a partnership between the police and the community. The project dealt with problems that the community identified. The assigned police officers in that area of the neighborhood developed solutions, thus becoming a problem-solvers. The police administration in Flint relieved most of the neighborhood officers from reactive patrol and encouraged them to work on neighborhood problems from the beginning through to the solution. Systematic processes for identification and analysis of problems was not used; nor did the department identify and address problems that extended beyond the boundaries of the individual beat. Support for the project faltered in 1987 accompanied by changes in the mayor and police chief positions.<sup>49</sup>

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<sup>49</sup> Herman Goldstein (1990:57)

Once again, a project must be adopted with a long-term commitment or it will fail. Total commitment is required at all levels of policing if collaboration with the community is to be effective. In Houston, Texas, the Houston Police Department also initiated a number of extraordinary changes within their department. In 1982, with the appointment of Lee Brown as chief of police, a wide range of innovations took place. New insights in policing and various studies from Kansas City and Flint, Michigan, contributed significantly to these changes. One essential characteristic was the fashioning of a partnership with each neighborhood; thereby implementing a concept of Goldstein's problem-oriented policing. But unlike the Flint Police department, the Houston officers would continue to respond to calls for service but they would also be expected to initiate "self-directed activities", defined as actions taken by the officer in collaboration with their neighborhood. The administration encouraged officers to think about their work in more abstract ways and to examine conditions that cause and perpetuated problems. The community policing initiative as adopted in Houston was defined as an interactive process in which the police and the community jointly define problems and determine the best ways of addressing them. Numerous steps have been taken to create a working environment that supports the individual officer. In addition, and unlike Flint, Houston has undertaken a study of methods to address substantive problems that cut across many neighborhood boundaries.<sup>50</sup>

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<sup>50</sup> Herman Goldstein (1990:59)

## **The Introduction of Community Policing**

Community policing has made the transition from being a promising experiment to becoming the new model of policing for the future. The results of the Kansas City, Flint and Houston studies clearly identified the community's problems. For the police to be a viable factor in the community, the department must adopt the long-term goal of being a partner and a problem solver to the community. Yet confusion still persists concerning what community policing really is, and what does it take to make it work. Community policing cannot be a program, as programs have beginnings and endings. Community policing cannot be an isolated strategy, because strategies have individual goals and conceptions that are not open to immediate re-consideration. Earlier, as Trojanowicz described it, community policing must be a philosophy that is incorporated throughout the police department, and designed to work in harmony with the citizens of the community. Ultimate success or failure rest on reaching a consensus about how to define, what is the community of interest. Also, in relation to that community of interest, define what community policing can do or what it cannot do to identify and solve the community problems

Traditionally, police have defined communities singularly or by some combination that includes: police organizational designation (beats, percents or districts), socio-economic neighborhoods such as housing developments, racially or culturally homogeneous neighborhoods, and finally, geographically defined areas bounded by natural or man made barriers. One of the crucial issues to those concerned with establishing the community policing initiatives is what type of community is being highlighted for service.

Some cities and suburbs have developed so rapidly; that what is typically referred to as community by sociologists can not be found. Factors that are important for police departments to define communities must include several factors; first is geography. Inherent in the fundamental concept of a community is people who live and work together in a given place. Second is a shared character or identity. Groups of people who merely live or work together in the same geographical area do not make a community. They must share in other characteristics, such as ethnicity, age, religion or homeownership. Finally, do they share common problems? For people, such as homeowners to join together and attain a consensus on issues, they must be in collaboration with the police who also share knowledge and have a common concern for their problem.<sup>51</sup>

The article by Wilson and Kelling, “Broken Windows” was not recognized for its content until years later. Only when the philosophy of community policing started to take hold on a national level, was it deemed that the theory of broken windows had applicable value. As Goldstein argues, there is a need to engage the community, but we must first evaluate what is the overall social economic condition of the community of interest.

Broken Windows gives us a method of evaluating the condition of that community. In their article, Wilson and Kelling use the term broken window to describe an overall condition. For example, if one window is broken in an office building or factory, and it is not replaced in a reasonable time, other windows will be broken by juveniles or street gangs, just for the fun of it. That will only be the start, as other vandalism will follow until the building is trashed. Then, as described in broken windows, other buildings and

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<sup>51</sup> Daniel Flynn (1998:7,8,9)

property in the vicinity will be vandalized and suffer the same fate. Eventually the entire neighborhood will be in decay.

The theory is not limited to a broken window or a vandalized building; it also applies to the up-keep of private property. If a home were in need of painting and the yard full of litter with grass that needs cutting, a logical person would say that the owner or resident of that house don't care. Even though the resident has a reasonable responsibility to maintain the property, which will enhance the value of the entire neighborhood, they are silently saying, we don't care.

The same theory applies to vagrants who hangout on street corners. They have no legitimate reason for being there except to congregate. Their presence is a sign that idle people with no legitimate purpose often get involved in vandalism and crime. As one philosopher said, "An idle mind is the devil's workshop".

The scenarios described above indicate that the neighborhood of interest is in decay. To other vagrants, criminals and drug dealers who observe this condition, it sends a signal that this area is a prime location to set up an illegal shop, or an area to conduct illegal activities, because the residents have already declared, although silently, come on in, we don't care. And with that invitation, the criminal element moves in, continues to desecrate the area until the entire neighborhood and even adjoining neighborhoods are destroyed.

As Wilson and Kelling have so adequately described it, a perfect remedy to offset these conditions, as evidenced by the success of the Newark experiment is police foot patrol. The neighborhood officer enters the picture and assesses what needs to be done to stop decay. The officer cannot solve the problem alone. The actual problem lies within the

community, and only a collaboration of the community residents with the police will solve the problem. This bona fide collaboration raises community policing to the highest level.<sup>52</sup>

Robert Trojanowicz (1983) started the National Center for Community Policing at Michigan State University. He then conducted many training sessions, both on and off campus to provide technical support to many police organizations and numerous communities. In his book "Community Policing --- How to get started", Trojanowicz defines many factors affecting the police and the community that are necessary for community policing to be successful. As we have seen in previously mentioned studies, the entire program must be put in place and adopted by the entire police department on the long-term.

To get started, you must first be able to identify and define all the players in the game. He calls them the "Big 6", which are the Police, Community, Elected Officials, Business Community, Other Agencies and the Media. To define them and establish their purpose in the community policing picture, lets look at each one individually.

The Police Department -- This includes all personnel, from the commissioner, the chief, all supervisors, and every patrol officer. Any person who represents the department, civilian or sworn, is included as a representative of the community policing initiative.

The Community -- Includes everyone, from formal and informal community leaders such as presidents of civic groups, ministers, business owners, educators and community organizers. It also includes the average citizen on the street. In essence, it includes every one who lives, works or just visits the community regardless of age, race, or gender.

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<sup>52</sup> Wilson & Kelling, Atlantic Monthly, (1982)

Elected Civic Officials -- This includes judges, the mayor, city manager, and city council members who are elected, and any county, state and federal officials who have access to this community and whose support can affect community policing's future.

The Business Community -- This includes the full range of business, from a major business to a small corner store. Many entrepreneurs do not live in the community where their business is located, however they are taxpayers to the community and offer a vital link to the collaboration that must exist in the community with the police.

Other Agencies -- This is by far the largest and most diversified group. This includes all public and private agencies; profit and non-profit. Such as churches, schools, youth clubs, and volunteer groups like the American Red Cross and the Salvation Army. This group is a catch all for any public assistance agency.

The Media -- This is a very important component. The media can offer great assistance to the formation of neighborhood units with positive press releases. The transfer of information to the public, both electronic and print form, enhances the effect of the police to enlighten the public about this new initiative.<sup>53</sup>

Now that we know who the players are, we need to develop a transition plan. A community policing initiative is going to be new to all parties. After all, the players have spent many years in their own world, existing with the only methods they knew, survive against all odds. Now with community collaboration, it will take some adjustment to make the transition.

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<sup>53</sup> Robert Trojanowicz & Bonnie Bucqueroux (1994:2)

Starting with the police, they need to rebuild the organization. Traditional law enforcement has always been reactive with its primary focus on emergency response. Problem solving was not a primary goal, as their efficiency was with reactive response. This preoccupation with operating efficiency has resulted in a troublesome imbalance between procedural and substantive concerns. Numerous conflicts continue to haunt the police. Conflicts, for example, between public expectations and the reality of what the police can do. Moreover, the police unlike other professions (e.g., medical) “do not have an established body of knowledge about the various behaviors and conditions that they are expected to prevent and treat.” In transition, the police must devote more effort to understanding the conditions and behaviors they are expected to prevent and treat.

The transition must have a plan. It is going to take time for the implementation. Both Goldstein and Trojanowicz said it would take years, ten to fifteen, to fully implement a community policing initiative. With the police department alone, a ten-year transition plan could be reasonable. Many of the department’s manpower resources have been exhausted over the past few years by the urgent need to redirect all available sworn personnel to battle the rapidly growing gang and drug problems. However, the department must maximize the operating efficiency of existing resources so additional resources for Community Policing will be wisely deployed. While rebuilding the department, the department must begin laying the foundation for Community Policing by rewarding officers for promoting community-policing initiatives. The installation of Community Policing will not become reality by merely reorganizing the agency. It requires a complete

cultural revision of all personnel. It calls for a revised commitment at every level and activity within the department. This as we shall see later, this is not an easy transition.<sup>54</sup>

To clarify the elements of this initiative and resolve many of the hidden obstacles, we must understand the total depth of the perimeters that we are facing. Very simply, two words describe the width and depth of this complex matter; they are unity and diversity.

First we must achieve unity, or a state of oneness, thereby establishing a condition of harmony between the police and the community. For many years, the police and the community have operated as separate entities. Each is expecting the other to take full ownership of the problem, which exists in the community and to solve it.

Diversity is something we have always had but not in the correct perspective. The definition of diversity is to balance defensively by dividing. This definition seems to contradict what we just established with unity, but it does not. Diversity says to balance defensively, which calls each element of the police and the community to maintain their individual identity and meet collectively through collaboration to defensively improve the quality of life in the community.

Earlier, we described how modern policing was established in England in 1829, and how Robert Peel's Nine Principles of Policing provided the format for the Community-Police relationship that we still use today. Over one hundred and fifty years later, a new format of principles was published that enhanced the Community-policing relationship for the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Robert Trojanowicz (1983), who many acclaim to be the father of community policing, published these Ten Principles of Community Policing.

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<sup>54</sup> Community Oriented Policing (1995:61)

As Trojanowicz stated, these ten principles should inform all policies, procedures and practices associated with community policing. Groups should use them as a guide when writing their plans, referring to specific principles as justification for or explanation of certain decisions or actions.

1. **Philosophy and Organizational Strategy.**  
Community policing is both a philosophy (a way of thinking) and an organizational strategy (a way to carry out the philosophy) that allows the police and the community to work closely together in new ways to solve the problems of crime, illicit drugs, fear of crime, physical and social disorder (from graffiti to addition), neighborhood decay, and the overall quality of life in the community. The philosophy rests on the belief that people deserve input into the police process, in exchange for their participation and support. It also rest on the belief that solutions to today's community problems demand freeing both people and the police to explore creative, new ways to address neighborhood concerns beyond a narrow focus on individual crime incidents.
  
2. **Commitment to Community Empowerment.**  
Community policing's organizational strategy first demands that everyone in the police department, including both civilian and sworn personnel, must investigate ways to translate the philosophy of power-sharing into practice. This demands making a subtle but sophisticated shift so that everyone in the department understands the need to focus on solving community problems in creative, new ways that can include challenging and enlightening people in the process of policing themselves. Community policing implies a shift within the department that grants greater autonomy (freedom to make decisions) to line officers, which also implies enhanced respect for their judgement as police professionals. Within the community, citizens must share in the rights and responsibilities implicit in identifying, prioritizing, and solving problems, as full-fledged partners with the police.

3. **Decentralized and Personalized Policing**  
To implement true community policing, police departments must also create and develop a new breed of line officer who acts as a direct link between the police and the people in the community. As the department's community outreach specialist, community policing officers must be freed from the isolation of the patrol car and the demands of the police radio so that they can maintain daily, direct, face-to-face contact with the people they serve in a clearly defined beat area. Ultimately, all officers should practice the community policing approach.
4. **Immediate and Long-Term Proactive Problem Solving**  
The community policing officer's broad role demands continuous, sustained contact with the law-abiding people in the community, so that together they can explore creative new solutions to local concerns, with private citizens serving as supporters and as volunteers. As law enforcement officers, community policing officers respond to calls for service and make arrest, but they also go beyond this narrow focus to develop and monitor broad-based, long-term initiatives that can involve all elements of the community in efforts to improve the overall quality of life. As the community's ombudsman, the community policing officer also acts as a link to other public and private agencies that can help in a given situation.
5. **Ethics, Legality, Responsibility, and Trust**  
Community policing implies a new contract between the police and the citizens they serve, one that offers hope of overcoming widespread apathy while restraining any impulse of vigilantism. This new relationship based on mutual trust and respect, also suggest that the police can serve as a catalyst, challenging people to accept their share of the responsibility for the overall quality of life in the community. Community policing means that citizens will be asked to handle more of their minor concerns themselves, but in exchange, this will free police to work with people on developing immediate as well as long-term solutions for community concerns in ways that encourage mutual accountability and respect.

6. **Expanding the Police Mandate**  
Community policing adds a vital, proactive element to the traditional reactive role of the police, resulting in full-spectrum police service. As the only agency of social control open 24 hours a day, seven days a week, the police must maintain the ability to respond immediately to crisis and crime incidents, but community policing broadens the police role so that they can make a greater impact on making changes today that hold the promise of making communities safer and more attractive places to live tomorrow.
  
7. **Helping Those with Special Needs**  
Community policing stresses exploring new ways to protect and enhance the lives of those who are most vulnerable --- juveniles, the elderly, minorities, the poor, the disabled, and the homeless. It both assimilates and broadens the scope of previous outreach efforts such as crime prevention and police-community relations.
  
8. **Grass-Roots Creativity and Support**  
Community policing promotes the judicious use of technology, but it also rests on the belief that nothing surpasses what dedicated human beings, talking and working together, can achieve. It invests trust in those who are on the front lines together on the street, relying on their combined judgement, wisdom, and experience to fashion creative new approaches to contemporary community concerns.
  
9. **Internal Change**  
Community policing must be a fully integrated approach that involves everyone in the department, with community policing officers serving as generalists who bridge the gap between the police and the people they serve. The community policing approach plays a crucial role internally by providing information about and awareness of the community and its problems, and by enlisting broad-based community support for the department's overall objectives. Once community policing is accepted as the long-term strategy, all officers should practice it. This could take as long as ten to fifteen years.

#### 10. Building for the Future

Community policing provides decentralized, personalized police service to the community. It recognizes that the police cannot impose order on the community from the outside, but that people must be encouraged to think of the police as resource that they can use in helping to solve contemporary community concerns. It is not a tactic to be applied and then abandoned, but a new philosophy and organizational strategy that provides the flexibility to meet local needs and priorities them as they change over time.<sup>55</sup>

Trojanowicz has authored the principles from which every police department can collaborate with its community to establish community policing. He has emphasized the strong point that we must have unity, but not complete uniformity. The principles describe why the community deserves input to the police department but not ownership of the police mandate, which is to provide law enforcement. It is through this structured diversity that the police can focus on solving community problems. The new community-policing officer will be a new breed of line officer, one that desires to understand the community and its needs. Therefore, he will create a new partnership and establish sustained contact with law-abiding people. He will be a problem-solver and overcome the old obstacle of mistrust, which always divided the community from the police. He will establish unity through diversity.

Earlier it was mentioned that a revised departmental commitment was necessary. Trojanowicz now calls for that new breed of officer and internal change in the department. The department must have a fully integrated approach to community policing in which everyone comes on board. As the concept of community policing is established, all officers

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<sup>55</sup> Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux (1994:6)

should adopt the philosophy and practice it. It is at this point where we see old obstacles resurface and become a hindrance to the community policing initiatives.

Traditional policing was basically established during the reform era. It was during this period that the police chief and his command staff were freed from the dominating power of the politicians, and could establish their own administrative structure. Over the years this has become known as traditional policing. Often the tendencies of the police agency was only that of efficiency. Handling calls was a routine priority and any incidents that were discovered were the focus of standard police work. The call could be done as quickly as possible so the officer could be back in service. The officers found themselves returning again and again to the same location for a similar incident, with no concept that there was a need for a problem-solving initiative. The officers operated with the premise “We know what the problems are”, we will handle them. It was the same one line answer that Sgt. Joe Friday used in the Dragnet TV show, “Just the facts mam, just the facts”. In reality, the traditional police officers operate under a like premise “We have got our minds made up, don’t confuse us with the facts”.

The chief and his command had primary control and all decision making was within their discretion. Criminal law was the primary solution to almost all problems. Even today, there are many departments that still operate under the traditional policing philosophy, and naturally, there are old die-hard officers who will adhere to that philosophy until they retire. It is refreshing that many of the new recruits, who are replacing the old guard, are a new breed of officer and are taking the reigns of the new community policing initiative.

In addition to traditional policing, other factors continue to surface that often alienate the community policing initiative. One of those is the police unions. As Samuel Walker describes it, it is a hidden revolution. It effected the police administration by giving the line officers a voice in administration matters.<sup>56</sup> This transfer of power from the chief to the union has been unnoticed by many police management experts. The impact of police unions has been felt in several areas that should be highlighted. Salaries and fringe benefits are one of the major areas. The unions are largely responsible for the significant improvement in these police benefits. Another area is personnel management. The unions now have a significant voice in crucial personnel management decisions. Union contracts usually specify formal grievance procedures, which can protect individual officers from arbitrary punishment. Unionization has also served to protect individual officers who either fail to do their jobs, or who push the limits of legal and ethical behavior. .

Neiderhoffer (1967) described it as such, new police officers, out to change the world, work very hard. However, in time, many become dissatisfied with their police efforts and become cynical.<sup>57</sup> Neiderhoffer presents a diagram of this behavior pattern as such. A new officer comes on board with professionalism or commitment, but with time, failure and/or frustration lead to disenchantment of his/her position in police work. They openly wonder if they made the right decision to follow a career in law enforcement. This disillusionment

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<sup>56</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:25)

<sup>57</sup> Langworthy & Travis (1999:247)

therefore leads to a dysfunctional attitude. As this attitude is conveyed to every person the officer encounters in his/her official duty and the person remembers the officers poor demeanor and the police department they represent. This personal defeat often leads the officer to be cynical and thus subscribe to a delinquent subculture. The officer may commit acts outside the law, such as drug dealing, or may become dependent on alcohol. In any case, often the officer feels he has a bargaining chip, in that the union will run his defense. It depends on the size of the police department and the strength of the union. In some cases the officer will be successful in defeating any charges, but in many cases it becomes a false sense of security because the officer is highly disciplined for his conduct. Also, a lot depends on the officer's years of experience. More experienced officers are likely to have learned the "tricks of the trade" and thereby knows what behavior modifications are necessary to dispel any personal guilt for their actions. Further studies of police cynicism and other police officer attitudes indicate that both cynicism and personal job satisfaction are correlated. To a modest degree, with the length of service, those officers with much more experience tend to be both less cynical and more satisfied with their work<sup>58</sup>. Often, it is seasoned officers, who come to a cross-road in their career, and choose to re-commit themselves, and find community policing to be a very worthwhile career saving initiative.

Areas where unions have had a major impact is police-community relation. Police unions are especially active in this area. They have successfully defeated citizen review board proposals in several cities. The impact of police unions on the professionalism of the police is a matter of great controversy. In 1958 the IACP labeled unions the "death knell

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<sup>58</sup> Langworthy & Travis (1999:247)

of professionalism". On the other hand, the National Symposium on Police Labor Relations in 1974 declared that unions were a "positive force for effective labor relations, which is a key to good police administration".<sup>59</sup> While unions now exercise a strong voice in shaping law enforcement policies, the unions are not evenly distributed among police departments. The big city departments are the most unionized, and the small departments the least unionized. In cities with populations between 10,000 and 25,000 population, only 37 percent of the police are unionized. These figures parallel the extent of union membership in the private sector.<sup>60</sup> Although police unions can be a major factor in the implementation of community-policing initiatives, it often depends on the temperament of the union toward the community's need and what percentage of officer's feel they want to continue to work in the traditional mode. To illustrate the point, the City of Cincinnati Police Division has two very active unions. One, the Fraternal Order of Police is open to all officers, and the other, the Centenals primarily represents only the African-American officers. It is not unusual to find these two groups at odds over issues concerning police conduct and the quality of police services that can be delivered to the city of Cincinnati. As Samuel Walker noted, police unions were formed in an atmosphere of conflict and controversy. Police officers themselves were angry, and the struggle to form unions often embittered public officials and other groups in the community. In particular, the police union movement was created by and was a contributor to the police-community relations

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<sup>59</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:285)

<sup>60</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:289)

crisis. “As Hoover and DeLord (1995:792) put it, “The police labor movement today is best described as fragmented”. Without a national organization representing police employees, there is no police officer voice for the creation of national standards, policies, and procedures. National standards, such as law-enforcement accreditation, would support and encourage more uniformity in policing. But because of the local orientation of most police unions, these groups can thwart the spread of national movements and prevent or delay the adoption of policies and procedures at the local level. As Guyot and Martensen (1991:445) observed, “Police unions seldom initiate change but often use government institutions to delay or overturn police management decisions.” Pfuhl (1995:749) claims that unionization, including the right to strike, serves to reduce the barrier between the police and citizens by defining the police as labor, rather than crime-fighting specialists.<sup>61</sup> In large cities in particular, unionism was stimulated by police officer opposition to liberal mayors who proposed police-community relations programs.<sup>62</sup> Today, these programs are known as Community Oriented Policing (COP) initiatives. Therefore, the implementation of community policing, if implemented under duress conditions, often lies with the discretion of the chief of police, his administration and the individual officers who see the needs of the community and the benefits of implementing community policing.

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<sup>61</sup> Langworthy & Travis (1999:434)

<sup>62</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:288)

## **New Approaches to Policing**

The Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) came into existence in the 60s, as the result of the President's Crime Commission. As to the amount of improvement it brought to policing remains in doubt, however it clearly became a financial bonanza for the American police. In 1969 the LEAA began a national program with a budget of \$63 million which reached a peak budget of \$895 million by 1975. LEAA funds were largely responsible for, what could be called a police revolution. Social scientists had largely neglected the police in their studies. However, by the 1970s scientific research on the police turned into a flood. The research revolution, based on college and university campuses, was designed to encourage police officers and criminal justice personnel to obtain a college education. The number of undergraduate-degree programs increased from 39 in 1967 to 376 in 1977.<sup>63</sup>

As mentioned above, during the years from 1969 to 1975 the LEAA was very active. In addition to research and education, the program also aided communities in the hiring of new police officers by supporting the base pay rates. With the low pay police were receiving, recruiting good officers, especially by small communities, was very difficult. Through the LEAA program, the community could hire a new officer and have his pay supplemented by up to 25% of the rate with LEAA funds. During this same period for example, the Cincinnati Police Department initiated and was financed for the Community Sector Team Policy Experiment (COMSEC) in 1971. Team policing was highly encouraged through the LEAA National Evaluation Program, which involved four parts.

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<sup>63</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:23)

1. The use of basic patrol teams, 2. The use of patrol investigation teams, 3. Patrol-community service teams with responsibility for community relations, and finally, full-service teams giving responsibility for all basic police service to decentralized, geographically based teams. The Cincinnati COMSEC program was not successful and was reorganized in 1973. The reorganized program fell to the same fate and was disbanded in September 1975<sup>64</sup>. This was about the same time that LEAA began its decline and many programs were cut which resulted in many of the new hires that were brought in under COMSEC to lose their position with the police department. Also, many other new police officers in various communities found their salaries cut 25% because of the reduced funding. Many of these officers left police work for other employment.

In 1979, LEAA started another program, when it awarded \$1.5 million to four professional police organizations to develop accreditation standards for police departments. The four agencies were the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), the National Organization of Black Law Enforcement (NOBLE), the National Sheriff's Association and the Police Executives' Research Forum (PERF).<sup>65</sup>

The concept of accreditation was new to the police and criminal justice, but had a long history in other fields. Minimum standards for accreditation are defined and then used to evaluate the quality of the individual agency. Accreditation is a peer-review process, since professionals working in the field do the development and enforcement of standards.

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<sup>64</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:93)

<sup>65</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:324)

Colleges for example are accredited by groups of professionals from the field of higher education. Law enforcement would be accredited by one or more of the four groups mentioned above. Accreditation is a voluntary process; thus the denial of accreditation carries only indirect sanctions.<sup>66</sup> Since accreditation in police departments is a voluntary program, there would not necessarily be any sanctions for departments that fail to meet the standards. The LEAA program was eliminated in 1982 and this elimination of federal financial assistance to the police and the criminal justice system could cause problems for the future of the accreditation movement.<sup>67</sup>

However, the demise of LEAA did not stop the flood of research that had been started on the university campuses and it accelerated to an even higher level when this research came to the attention of the criminal justice experts. In 1979, Herman Goldstein, Professor of Law at the University of Wisconsin published his book on “Problem-Oriented Policing” which brought to the attention of national law enforcement, that the major key to controlling the elements of crime was actually understanding problem-solving.<sup>68</sup>

Robert Trojanowicz, University of Michigan, with co-author Bonnie Bucqueroux of the National Center for Community Policing (1982), published “Community Policing and How to get Started.” Trojanowicz saw from his research that the community was a principle player in the new policy model and there must be a collaboration of the police and the community to collectively solve the crime and neighborhood problems.<sup>69</sup>

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<sup>66</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:323)

<sup>67</sup> Samuel Walker (1983:324)

<sup>68</sup> Herman Goldstein (1990)

<sup>69</sup> Robert Trojanowicz & Bonnie Bucqueroux (1998)

George Kelling, Rutgers University and James Q. Wilson, Harvard University (1982) published an article in the Atlantic Monthly entitled, "Broken Windows". They described how decay of a neighborhood creates a haven for people who are prone to commit crimes, because the residence of the area are silently advertising to prospective criminals, we don't care about our community. We have discarded our quality of life principles and it is ok for people to promote criminal activities in this area.<sup>70</sup>

This new criminal justice research, generated at the universities could be compared to a botanist at a university who develops a new seed, for a new plant, that would grow, become self-staining and provide a harvest. In the science of botany a seed is developed from cross-pollination to produce a desired plant. Likewise, to develop community policing from the start, there must be a cross-pollination between the police and the community. Naturally, as with any young seed it must be nurtured and fertilized so it can develop. This science runs parallel with the development of community policing. Once the plant is stable it will continue to grow with proper care. With time, the expected harvest will occur in which both the police and the community can reap the fruit of their labor. This harvest will come in as community policing, which is desperately needed, as the crime rate cannot be controlled without it. However, the fields must be weeded, as we all well know, every good crop always gets its share of weeds. Those working in the police field, who know that policing needs a revision, that traditional policing has come off the tracks, can see the potential value of community policing. A major revision would again up-right the system and provide a harvest to the police departments and the communities. They

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<sup>70</sup> George Kelling & James Q. Wilson (1982)

also saw the endless labor that it would take to sustain good growth. And as with any field that is planted to produce a harvest, you must control the weeds. One of the weeds in the criminal justice system that hinders the growth of community policing is the original form of traditional policing. Those officers who continue to police according to the “thin blue line” and “it’s us versus them” are not going to accept anything different. They have achieved the sworn status of a law enforcement officer, were trained in the form of traditional policing and nothing will alter that mind-set. Fortunately, there are some officers who took the lead and openly promoted the benefits of community policing. For those officers who had run the entire range of Neiderhoffer’s behavior cycle, and were in the clutches of cynicism, and possibly the end of their police career, they had a renewed vision through the community policing philosophy and their career was saved. Once these officers received the basic training on how to communicate with the civilian population they were revitalized. They were no longer locked in the mind-set, “it’s us versus them”, but realized that most people, of good will, and will help the officer.

It took the better part of ten years for the results of the research to be productive, but community policing had taken root and is growing. By the early 1990s the expected harvest was about to be achieved. The President’s Crime Bill of 1992 was to put an additional 100,000 police officers on the street, and in addition, it would train all the police officers, both the old timers and the new recruits in the philosophy of community policing.

Under the direction of the Department of Justice, the Community Policing Consortium was established to fulfill the training mandate that was deemed necessary to revitalize the police mandate and provide a solution to the crime rate. The Consortium

was charged with the writing and coordinating of training throughout the United States. Police officers, criminal justice professionals and civilians, would be trained in the philosophy of community policing.

In Cincinnati area, the Tri-State Regional Community Policing Institute (RCPI) was established under the direction of retired lieutenant Roger McHugh of the Forest Park Police Department. The Forest Park department was one more advanced community policing agencies in the area. Lt. McHugh was truly ahead of his counterparts in this area. He brought progressive ideas and programs to the Forest Park department long before others saw the values of community policing. Currently, under the direction of Chief Ken Hughes, the Forest Park department is still an advanced leader and sets the direction for other departments to follow. The scope of the Tri-State Institute's teaching, under the guidance of the Consortium was designed to cover all of the State of Ohio, Eastern Indiana and Northern Kentucky.

The Consortium's initial training consisted of six basic modules, taught separately in eight-hour blocks. The modules consisted of 1 - History of Community Oriented Policing, 2 - Establishing effective partnerships with the community, 3 - Problem-solving in the community, 4 - Organizational and community assessment, 5 - Cultural diversity and awareness, 6 - Ethics and integrity in policing.

As previously noted, most of the senior officers were trained under the original traditional methods, and as it has been said before, it is very hard to teach an old dog new tricks, but that is exactly what the programs were designed to do. Naturally the instruction is not always readily accepted. Some officers who continue to abide by the traditional model will note on their required course and instructor critiques, that they

attended the training only because it was mandatory. It can be stated with relative certainty, that these officers do not see the benefits of community collaboration through community policing.

In keeping with his tradition of leadership established at the Forest Park department, Mr. McHugh has guided the Tri-State Institute into a place of honor for all training centers. The staff and the instructors that were selected, are all professionals in the community policing philosophy and have the ability to teach others to understand the philosophy. The Community Policing Consortium has deemed the Tri-State Community Policing Institute to be one of the top three training institutes in the county.

The basic six modules consisted of the following curriculum. The history of community policing (module # 1) as discussed earlier, describes the many conflicts that the police and the communities faced in establishing our present system.

Partnerships (module # 2) has been mentioned many times as a key ingredient to community mobilization. Community policing must start with the police establishing partnerships. Once you have partnered with another person you will be never be a stranger again. After all, the police are the sworn members of the collaboration and the only group that is on duty 24 / 7. The key elements of this partnership module consist of eight steps, 1 - Identify you partner (know who the law-abiding and supporting citizen is and where they live). 2 - Develop a community profile. Know the economic status and the cultural status of the neighborhood. 3 - Initiate a dialogue. Let the residence know that you, as their police officer, are approachable. 4 - Organize community meetings. Bring people together in a collaborative spirit to identify the most pressing problems of their area. 5 - Identify individual issues that must be addressed as a collaborative unit. 6 - Formulate a

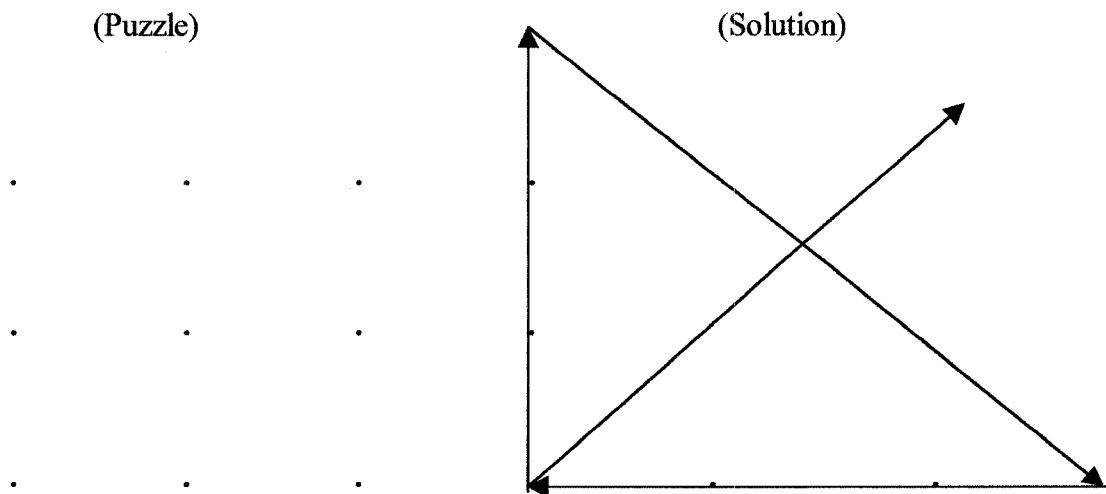
plan to analyze those issues. The plan should not be too broad or too vague, but have content to show that successful elimination or control is possible. 7 - Take action. Bring action to the front, so others who may be doubters will come on board and join in the collaboration. And finally,

8 - Maintenance. Be sure to re-assess your accomplishments and do a follow-up to be sure the successes gained are not lost.

Problem-solving (module # 3) is the cornerstone of community policing. It combines strategies that include successful approaches. Because problem solving is the core of community policing and often relies on models that encourage the detailed understanding of problems, careful analysis of potential solutions, implementation of comprehensive responses, and ongoing assessments is imperative. No effective collaboration between the community and the police can take place without effective problem solving. The Consortium placed a very high priority on this module and recommended it be taught to every police officer and criminal justice specialist if possible. Many police departments did that, and mandated that every officer in their department, from patrol to administration take the course. For example, both the City of Columbus with over 1500 police officers, and the City of Toledo with 740 officers made it a mandatory course.

As the curriculum for problem solving states, "Putting out fires is not enough". You must understand why the fire is happening in the first place. Often we look for solutions to be simple and compact, when in essence, the problem cannot be solved working within its perimeters. In community-policing problems, this is often the case. Actually you must look outside the box to find the solution.

To illustrate this point, the nine dot puzzle is often used. The puzzle asks participants to draw a straight line which will cross through all nine dots without lifting their pen.



Most people see the nine dots as an imaginary boundary, and going beyond them violates their sense of order. That same sense of order helps hold society together, and provides a certain comfort zone for people. However, sometimes the natural tendency to remain inside your comfort zone can cause you to overlook the obvious<sup>71</sup> *Get outside the box!*

A new approach to problem solving is the S.A.R.A. model. In traditional policing for many years, the police academy only taught that there were only two responses to a call for service, scan the scene to establish there was a problem and respond to take necessary action to resolve the problem. As mentioned in Neiderhoffer's behavior pattern, the police

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<sup>71</sup> Law Enforcement Resource Center (1997)

officer becomes frustrated and feels no sense of accomplishment when he continues to answer call after call to the same location. The S.A.R.A. problem-solving model gives the police officer more tools to use in actually solving the problem. S.A.R.A. stands for Scanning, Analysis, Response and Assessment. Scanning identifies all the underlying patterns and conditions that the officer can consider as a basis for the problem. In the partnership phase, the community identified many of these conditions. This list should be very extensive. Analysis is to understand the patterns and conditions that have been identified. Some problem conditions are fairly simple for the police to identify. Others may not be simple and only after careful analysis can a logical assumption be made about a possible solution. This phase should require the most in-depth study. The degree of success for a solution mainly depends on the correctness of the analysis. This will be verified later in the assessment. Response should only be applied when all elements of the scan have been analyzed. The response should be tailored to deal with a specific identified problem, and it should only be implemented after the analysis has been completely exhausted. At that point, a number of responses may be considered as adequate.

A -- Eliminate the problem completely,

B -- Reduce the harm from the problem

C -- Handling of the problem for future calls is greatly reduced.

Assessment is only a gage. Once you have implemented you response, its impact must be evaluated to see if the goals that you set in the analysis and response phases were achieved. You must determine why the response was successful or why it was not successful. Some situations are easier to assess than others. It's not as simple as the original traditional model, which only needed to count arrest. In the S.A.R.A. model, you

assess your total success or failure rate. If you failed in a large degree, it may be because you did not scan in depth and you missed some very important underlining factors, or your analysis was faulty. Very often faulty analysis is the problem, Because in-depth analysis of problem solving is new to the police procedure, is often skimmed over or completely overlooked. The best indication of success may be an impression in the residents' perception of their quality of life. That measurement is a little more difficult to achieve, but not impossible. Other standards that are easier to measure include;

- A -- Reduction in calls for service
- B -- Fewer complaints from residents
- C -- Increase in officer's job satisfaction and an improvement in disposition.

Good documentation is very important. Without it you cannot assess the effectiveness of your work. It will also ensure that you will get the credit for your successes. If you fail to document what you did on a project, you may have trouble proving that any improvements are the result of your personnel efforts. As mentioned earlier, in traditional policing all they did was count arrest, the numbers game. Community policing requires a different mind-set.<sup>72</sup>

Organizational Assessment (module # 4) reminds us that it is evaluation, not revolution. A good example is the United States automobile industry. For many years, the industry in Detroit produced automobiles according to their traditional standards. Then a major event happened that would get their attention. Automobiles with the name Toyota began arriving at our seaports. The autos were compatible with the U.S. models except

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<sup>72</sup> Law Enforcement Resource Center (1997)

the Toyota's selling price was much less than the American brands. The Toyota Corporation in Japan was threatening the domination of the U.S. market and the corporations in Detroit were financially hurting. The U.S. car makers sent experts to Japan to learn what changes they made in manufacture. The experts came back with an amazing report. Japan was using the same technology as the United States except for one element. Japan was working very closely with its factory workers on the production line and incorporating their ideas into the overall plan to produce automobiles faster and cheaper. The Japanese workers reduced production cost by showing more dedication, which resulted in less downtime, and less absenteeism. With this new information, the Detroit corporations published a production newsletter to all their employees entitled, "If Japan can, why can't we?". It brought about an evolution in the automobile industry. To imitate Japan, management threw out the old traditional styles and started working closely with the factory production workers. Previously, all decisions were made on the basis of "Top to the Bottom", now the communication goes both ways. They developed Quality Control Circles (QCC) in which communication could flow from the bottom to the top and management took note and implemented the cost reducing ideas. Because the Detroit corporations saw the need to change, they discarded the traditional style.

The police in the United States have a similar dilemma. They must restructure the old traditional methods if community policing is to succeed in their community. And most of all, it is mandatory that the Chief of Police be on board as a leader. The chief always sets the tone for the entire department and he must be a active promoter of the philosophy.

Community policing involves transferring much of the day-to-day decision-making to the line officers. The chief must notify the community that the new change is genuine, and he must back it up with positive action from the chief's office.

Thorough planning is critical, even good ideas can fail if they are insufficiently prepared or poorly executed. Because every community is unique, there is no single "right" way to plan and implement the initiative but with planning, evaluating and proper action, a workable plan will be identified. Also, police departments with unions must have union representation on the planning committee.

Proper evaluating of community policing officers is also very critical. The department must adjust officers' performance measurements to fit their changing responsibilities. In community policing as with traditional, arrest and traffic tickets are all things you can count, but now you must also measure the community's satisfaction with an individual officer and the police department in general. One way is to track identified problems and determine if the problem was reduced or eliminated. Also, the officer's activity sheets can be evaluated as to his/her involvement with community activities and their attendance at civic meetings. Unless these new measures are included, the old measure of only counting arrest and traffic tickets will only benefit the rating of the traditional officer, not the community policing officer.

Another major factor is, don't ignore the non-sworn and civilian personnel. Implementation of community policing requires the maximum input from all personnel, sworn and civilian. Often civilian personnel have good constructive ideas that should be

considered for departmental value. To ignore them is to make them feel like second-class citizens<sup>73</sup>

Cultural Diversity and Awareness (module # 5) teaches police how to identify the culture of the neighborhood. Like trees in a vast forest, humans come in a variety of sizes, shapes and colors. Each person has dimensions of diversity that we term primary, and because they are primary they are not changeable. Examples are, age, gender, race, ethnicity and physical abilities. These dimensions are apparent and easily recognized when a person is encountered for the first time. However, there are secondary dimensions of diversity that we don't see immediately, such as, educational background, income level, military experience, religious beliefs, criminal associations and intent, geographic residency, marital status, parental status, and work experience. These are hidden dimensions that gives a person certain characteristics. An informed, law abiding person, will understand and respond to commands more readily than an uninformed person who may have associations with non-law abiding people. However, secondary dimensions are changeable while primary dimensions are not. A person can obtain an education, increase their income level and become law abiding. These changes always have a definite effect on the persons character. Community policing officers must have knowledge about these dimensions and how they can communicate with individuals. A community policing officer must understand the analysis of the ice-burg, in that you can never see more than ten percent of its surface. Ninety percent is always hidden from view. This same analysis applies to every human being. The part you see is the primary person, what you don't see

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<sup>73</sup> Law Enforcement Resource Center (1997)

is the secondary person. This experience is what separates the community policing specialist from the old traditional officer. Community policing creates partnerships and understanding with individuals.

Ethics and Integrity (module # 6) is primary in establishing effective collaboration between the community and law enforcement. As previously discussed, the history of how policing was established in the United States still lingers with minorities and senior citizens. It has not been too many years, since law enforcement went through the reform era. Many of these citizens can still recall those days and the events in which the police displayed absolute control. Officers were not hired because of their skill to serve the public, but were hired because they had connections with the current police administrators and politicians. Over the years, some police officers have displayed conduct that has lead the public to evaluate them as just criminals who can hide behind a badge. Evaluations of this magnitude are a major detriment to the establishing effective collaboration with the community. Thankfully, much of this characterization was changed in the 1980s with the adoption of the modern era of policing and the introduction of community policing.

Today, honesty, integrity, personal education skills and character have been established as primary credentials for the hiring of police officers. These credentials represent the values, principles and morals that qualifies that person to be a police officer. To the community policing officer, it must be to discern what is right and what is wrong, and act accordingly even if it is at the personal at personal cost of the officer.<sup>74</sup>

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<sup>74</sup> Community Policing Core Curriculum, DOJ. (1998)

## **Implementing a Community Policing Strategy**

The Implementation of a community policing strategy is a complicated and multi-faceted process that in essence requires planning and managing for change. Community policing cannot be established through a mere modification of existing policy; profound changes must occur on every level and in every area of a police agency – from patrol officer to chief executive and from training to technology. A commitment to community policing must guide every decision and every action of the department.

Implementation plans will vary from department to department and from community to community. The most appropriate implementation method will depend, in part, on internal and external conditions facing the police department. Communication must be timely, comprehensive, and direct. The chief executive must explain the concepts of community policing thoroughly to the entire police organization, the local political leadership, public and private agencies, and the community at large. All participants, public and private, must understand their role in the community policing initiative.

The long term success of community policing in transforming the law enforcement profession and the general community depends on the willingness of local government to pursue effective integration. Elected and appointed administrators must understand the implementation strategy and participate in its development. Mayors, city managers, and

other government executives must not be passive partners in this process; they must guide the expansion of this movement toward “community-oriented government”.<sup>75</sup>

Collaboration between the police department, local government officials and the community leaders is essential. Routinely, assistance is required by agencies within the local government as the collaboration in identifying and solving community problems is presented. Depending on the nature and scope of the problem addressed, the composition of problem solving teams could be restricted to police personnel for law enforcement or could include representatives from the community, other governmental agencies and social agencies. The police department must develop close cooperative links with all community policing partners who contribute to the problem-solving process and explicit procedures must be established that facilitate the appropriate use of resources.

There is no “right” way to implement community policing. However, it is essential that a plan be established before a program is implemented. Implementing with little planning will quickly launch the department into community policing and the action phase, but then based on current feedback, the department will need to retool the effort and begin the cycle again.

At the Tri-State Regional Policing Institute in Cincinnati, the curriculum specialist studied the ramifications of implementing community policing in various size departments and recommended that a plan be established by the department before implementation.

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<sup>75</sup> Community Policing Consortium (2000: Chapter 4:2)

The curriculum staff, consisting of retired police officers and sheriff deputies, found effective planning and communication between the police, elected officials and community leaders to be an absolute necessity for implementing the community policing initiative.

For over a hundred years, the police department has been very secretive. Only those people who were members of the “thin blue line” had access to police procedures. The staff specialist saw this closed door procedure to be a major barrier in establishing effective collaboration with the community. Many members of the community were fearful of the police and had no knowledge of their procedures. The police had to open up to the law abiding citizens and share some of the secrets of their profession. This could only happen with organized training, provided by the police officers to selected members of the community.

The Tri-State Institutes (RCPI) curriculum staff designed three training modules to facilitate this instruction and create partnerships between the police and the community.

1. Citizen Police Academy – a ten session training module for adult civilians.
2. Student Police Academy – a three day training module for high school students.
3. Business Police Academy – a three day training module for business leaders.

These training academy’s consist of up to twenty students and are normally held at the police department. The time structure of the classes depends on the individual academy. All academy students are screened and cleared with background checks. The most popular of the academy’s is the Citizen Police Academy, which is held one evening a week for three hours, normally from 6:30 to 9:30, and instructed by officers from that police

department. Students are provided with golf shirts that identifies them as Citizen Police Academy Cadets.

The recommended ten week training schedule should include a representation of the following. The schedule listed below is taken from the Forest Park Police Department

Week 1 Orientation, Student Introductions, Employment Requirements

Week 2 Function of City Government, Ordinance Violations, Records / Dispatcher

Week 3 Uniformed Patrol Functions, Bike / Motorcycle, Canine

Week 4 Community Policing Initiatives, Crime Prevention

Week 5 Traffic Laws, Traffic Accident Investigation, DUI Apprehension

Week 6 Judicial System, Narcotics Investigation, D.A.R.E.

Week 7 Domestic Violence, Human Diversity, Internal Affairs

Week 8 Weapon Familiarization, Range Safety & Using firearms

Week 9 Criminal Investigations, Crime Scene Processing, Forensic Art

Week 10 Regional Programs for Alumni, Critique of Students & Graduation

Also, during the ten week course, the students are encouraged to sign up for the ride along program. It is available during the day or evening and provide the student with actual experience of being in a police cruiser and responding to calls for service. Students have said this was the most exciting time, and an experience they would never forget.

The student academy is structured for high school students and consist of three days with six hour sessions. The curriculum is structured to introduce students to the police in a setting they would never see otherwise and prepare them for adulthood. In place of the actual live firing range, the students are given instruction about weapons by using the Fire Arms Training Simulator (FATS).

The business academy is structured to establish partnerships between the police and business professionals and consist of three days with eight hours sessions. Special instruction for their curriculum includes Use of Force, Shoot / Don't Shoot, Criminal Law, Robbery Prevention, Victim's Rights, Permits and Licensing and tours of the Criminal Justice Center.

These tree academies have proven themselves to be of extreme value in establishing partnerships between the student alumni and the police department. The alumni have found the police officers, especially those involved in the academy training to be very friendly. Because of these friendships, many of the alumni have returned to establish personal partnerships with the department by assisting officers in various duties. Many of the alumni have created departmental associations that hold annual dances, have bake sales and other events to raise money for departmental equipment. At the time of this writing, Forest Park is currently instructing its fourteenth citizens police academy.

Successful implementation of community policing is more readily assured if the complement of the department is less than seventy officers. In very large departments, implementation may not include the entire agency but only selected districts. In the larger departments, officer evaluation is often a major factor. As cited earlier, special consideration must be given to community policing initiatives, otherwise only the number of traffic citations and arrest will show accepted value points. While the community policing officer continues to exercise these functions, it will not be to the degree of the traditional patrol officer, therefore, his/her evaluation will be sub-standard according to departmental guidelines.

Approximately eight ago, the Cincinnati Police Division with 1030 sworn officers, instituted a program called CNAS which is the Cincinnati Neighborhood Action Strategy, CNAS is a process involving citizens and City staff, working as partners, to identify and address strengths, opportunities and challenges within Cincinnati's neighborhoods. The city has been divided into 52 neighborhood sections. Every city employee has a role to play in CNAS. They are either on a team or supporting a team. For city residents, CNAS can serve as a direct link to city authorities. It can also empower the residents to be a part of improving the living environment of their neighborhoods. The police department has also established offsite community precincts at various locations and inside major shopping areas to bring more visibility of the police to the public.

However, an area of concern is the police performance evaluation program. The current Cincinnati Police Performance Evaluation was approved by the Civil Service commission in 1978 and covers ten areas of performance, 1 - Quality of Work, 2 - Judgement, 3 - Attendance & Punctuality, 4 - Completion of Assignment, 5 -Grooming & Dress, 6 - Maintaining Equipment, 7 - Physical Conditioning, 8 - Attitude toward division policy, 9 - Meeting and dealing with the public, 10 - Developing and assisting other officers.

While the Cincinnati Police department has continued to venture into many areas of neighborhood collaboration, it has not restructured its officer evaluation program to encourage its officers to promote the benefits of community policing. Considering all the areas of performance listed above, number nine more closely identifies with community collaboration with the public. Number nine reads as follows, "Handles all dealings with

the public in an extremely professional manner. Is highly receptive to individual problems and makes a special effort to provide assistance or answer questions”.

No emphasis is placed by the Cincinnati department on individual problem solving and use of the S A R A model by individual officers in their district. As recommended by the Community Policing Consortium, community policing cannot be a mere modification of existing policy. Changes must occur at every level and in every area of the police agency. The department must make the collaboration with the community as the principle reason for their existence.

The Community Policing Consortium places a high emphasis on police officer performance evaluation and reward. Conclusive performance evaluation can be a valuable management tool for facilitating change and can help communicate agency priorities to the employees. Systems for evaluating police personnel should reflect the goals of community policing. Patrol officers could be evaluated on how well they know their neighborhoods and how effectively they and their supervisor have adopted problem-solving techniques.<sup>76</sup>

Evaluations should consider that occasional mistakes made by an officer seeking to solve community issues in a proactive manner would be an inappropriate measure of performance. “Managers cannot have it both ways. They cannot ask officers to be risk-takers and then discipline them when an occasional mistake occurs”. Retaining the services of police personnel who are skilled in community policing depends, in large part, on appropriate rewards for solid performance. Rewards must be consistent with the values and methods associated with community policing.

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<sup>76</sup> Community Policing Consortium (2000: Chapter 4:9)

Patrol officers and supervisors should be evaluated and rewarded for exceptional skills in problem solving and/or community mobilization efforts. Rewards should also include the establishment of well-defined and suitable career paths for all personnel of the department.

The San Diego Police Department with over 2100 sworn officers was also reviewed. The department has received high evaluations from many criminal justice researchers including John Eck of the University of Cincinnati for their community wide implementation of the community policing initiative. The officers are trained to see the positive aspects of the program, and most of all that community policing should be fun. It is accepted that some tough nosed law enforcement is necessary, and pursuing at high speed in a cruiser is fun. But, successful performance in community policing initiatives also brings bragging right for the officers and their families, especially if they are new to the force. As a reward, the officers are heaped with praise and recognition both internal and external sources. Sergeant Randy Mills, who heads a community policing team, stated that four of his community policing teams have either won the "Herman Goldstein Award" or finished as a finalist. They have received "National Attention" and presented on local news services. It gets them in front of people (both cops and community) and they can publicly tell their story. It gives them "face time" which enhances their desire to always perform at their best. Organizationally, for exceptional service, the officer is rewarded by receiving Commanding Officer Citations or City Council Resolutions.

The San Diego Police Department makes problem solving part of the promotional process at every level. During annual performance interviews, the officer is asked to tell about the Problem Oriented Project (POP) that they did and describe the analysis they

used in establishing a solution. The police administration frequently reviews projects by command to determine if problem solving is being applied, where the cases stand, and what officers are working on them. Furthermore, sergeants have the authority to adjust officers schedules per their request so they can work on problems of special interest.

The San Diego Police department evaluation and performance plan consist of fourteen areas of evaluation. 1 – Driving, 2 – Equal Employment, 3 – Interpersonal Skills, 4 – Investigative Ability, 5 – Judgement and Initiative, 6 – Legal Aspects, Policies and Procedures, 7 – Officer Safety, 8 – Proactive Enforcement, 9 – Problem Solving, 10 – Teamwork, 11 – Technical Proficiency and Specialized Assignment, 12 – Using Resources, 13 – Verbal Communications, 14 – Written Communications.

As problem solving is a critical element in the evaluation, it listed as number nine on the form and reads as follows, “Demonstrated in-depth knowledge of community and crime related issues; used superior skills and effective problem solving processes to fight crime, and to significantly improve the quality of life”.

The San Diego Police Department was extremely foresighted when it recognized the value of introducing civilian volunteers to the police world. In addition to the 700 civilian employees, the department has 900 civilian volunteers, who perform a wide variety of various task for the department. The volunteers who perform outside task have uniforms, different from the police, however it identifies them as associates to the police agency. Those outside, check vacation homes, check on the elderly, problem solve w/direction, deliver packages to the District Attorney and City Attorney offices, direct traffic and also dust for latent prints when directed. Those volunteers working inside, without uniforms, do clerical work, crime prevention studies, (CPTED – crime prevention through

environmental design), data processing, work with juveniles, and help analyze financial documents for crimes by sorting through spread sheets and accounting books. The calculated savings that they volunteers provide for the department is extreme. The variety of experience that these volunteers bring with them is tremendous. The list includes a retired NFL football coach, former principals of schools, founders of airlines, the head of heart surgery at Kaiser hospital, priest, janitors and one retired military general, and this is only to name a few.

Because of the dedication of these volunteers to the department, San Diego has only 1.6 police officers per 1,000 residents, and the lowest per capita spending ratios for police departments anywhere. In addition, crime is down in San Diego. For the year 2002, overall crime decreased 0.6%. Violent crimes – murder, rape, and aggravated assault – decreased 2.9%. Property crimes – burglary, larceny, and motor vehicle theft – decreased 0.3%. As Chief David Bejarano stated in his news release, January 23, 2003, “There is good news for San Diego. Despite the low ratio of officers to residents, we remain truly one of the safest cities in the United States. I am extremely proud of our sworn and civilian members, who work hard to fight crime. We are also fortunate to have many involved and supportive community members who contribute to making our city safe”.

Community policing is truly the product of the future. Cities like San Diego who are incorporating this initiative into their programs are reaping the harvest of their work. They have eliminated the weeds of discontent and are continuing to nurture the good crop by rewarding those who are making it happen. It is time to apply effective collaboration between the communities and all the police departments across the United States with the establishment of community policing.

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Joe Stutler is a former city commissioner for the City of Park Hills, Kentucky. During his terms as commissioner he served in the capacity of Public Safety Director, Police Commissioner and Vice Mayor. Also, during those terms, he held elected offices with the Northern Kentucky Area Planning Commission, two terms as Vice President and one term as President of the Commission.

Park Hills is a sixth class city in Northern Kentucky. It is a middle to upper class residential community with a population of about 5,000 residents. The Northern Kentucky Area Planning Commission at that time comprised two counties, Kenton and Campbell with 38 cities and two fiscal courts.

Stutler also held an executive sales position during his years in public service. For over twenty years, he worked for the Western Paper Goods Company in Cincinnati, and concluded that position as National Sales Manager for distributor accounts.

In 1987, Stutler returned to policing, as a special training instructor with the University of Cincinnati Police Department until his retirement in 1999. At the university he was certified with Development Dimensions International (DDI) for maximizing performance.

Stutler received his Associate in Arts degree from The University of Kentucky, Bachelor of Science in Education/Criminal Justice from the University of Cincinnati, and has completed the requirements for a Master of Science in Education/Criminal Justice at the University of Cincinnati. He is also a member of Kappa Delta Pi, International Honor Society for Educational Excellence.

Stutler continues to teach in his retirement. He is currently a lead instructor for the Tri-State Regional Community Policing Institute.