

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **COMMUNITY POLICING LITERATURE: A QUALITATIVE VIEW**

In this chapter the researcher will construct a review of relevant community policing efforts in the United States and other selected locations. Only the most important or relevant research writings on community policing from qualified national and international sources and qualified field practitioners' were considered.

Convenient access to several libraries at research institutions and other institutions of higher learning were advantageous to the study. In addition, newly opening electronic access to government-sponsored libraries and research permitted even broader access to critical community policing studies. Essentially, it became possible to obtain in-depth studies as well as current field information from practitioners contributions to government studies or other validated sources.

Much of the current and relevant research found reflected a concerted effort of examples drawn from a broad range of the social sciences and represents criminologists, sociologists, political scientists, psychologists, police scientists and others. During this study of the literature, many publications were discovered, illustrating findings from scientific and professional journals and in many additional forms of research presentations from around the world.

The design of this literature review was focused into three areas that are intertwined and will be viewed both individually and as an interactive whole. The first area studied is a brief historic view of American Policing, one that forms a base on which to build the study. The second, an examination of some successes and failures in the advancing of community policing as a philosophy for change. Lastly, the research drawing from field officer's experience, allows a critical look at the police officer's expanding responsibilities and how this may impact an officer's profile and the level of training essential for community policing success.

These key areas will serve to provide the reasonable incentive for considering changes in current policy and modifying the selection criteria for community police officer candidates. The study will seek to outline a view of current entry training effectiveness which will be considered in two ways; (1) a traditional standpoint and (2) for community police officers. In addition, the researcher will formulate a balanced means for performance and annual review that is inexpensive and easily adapted to many small agencies.

## **2.1 THE NATURE OF A POSITION**

When considering the issue of an officer legally taking a life or suspending a critical right guaranteed by law, or resolving life threatening situations and intervening in a variety of humanitarian emergencies, we convincingly build the justification for a college education requirement. With that justification in place, we should next consider the social science skills, interpersonal communications ability and interactive problem solving demands of a community police officer and then place her or him in a multi-cultural community. To assess

this properly, we must first realize that we are looking at an expanded and more complex policing form.

The very nature of the population in the United States significantly complicates the officer's position when she or he attempts to interact and become problem solvers. If officers fail to provide acceptable resolutions to issues arising in a complex constituency, it could result in the eroding of community confidence. This could lead to the failure of community policing as a philosophy. On a more global perspective, many countries find themselves in the same predicament, especially those who are emerging as democracies. Law enforcement within a constitutional democracy is no simple task and is continually evolving.

In the United States since the early 1960's, an ever changing and controversial role of police has been justifiably placed under constant public scrutiny. This however, has not led the public to a complete understanding of police and their mission. Sometimes the images of police formed by the public and even by those who desire to become police officer candidates are not always correct ones.

## **2.2 DANGERS OF POSITION MISUNDERSTANDING**

Police stereotypes fueled by Hollywood imaging have grown from the friendly “cop on the beat,” to repeated heavy-handed depictions that television electronically beams into millions of homes. Enter “Dirty Harry et al,” these high action programs that erroneously fill in the blanks and often replace real knowledge in the minds of the public, due to the credibility assigned by many to the popular medium of television or Hollywood films.

Additional negative views may come from the few genuine cases of excessive force or abuse of authority that may occur. The result in some cases may be lasting and incorrect opinions of police being formed by the public and, occasionally, by the police themselves as they vicariously view themselves as the ultimate fixer of crime.

The danger of the distortion is twofold; it can create misconceptions for individuals seeking police careers, or it might bias ordinary citizens in their appraisal of police activities. In addition, it is reasonable to understand that in finding true success, we must view the endeavor from a perspective that considers all of the elements. In this case, it is the citizen who may elect to become a police officer, and it is collective public opinion of citizens that will ultimately decide the effectiveness of a police department. With this in mind, the researcher conducted this study giving credibility to citizens as well as the police.

### **2.3 THE POLICE, GOOD OR BAD**

An interesting view in a Police Executive Research Foundation (PERF) report written by David C. Couper (1983), asks critical questions. Couper writes, How then can you tell a good police agency from a bad one? What kinds of things should you look for? To find the elusive and difficult answers to these questions, the public must first develop an understanding of the complexity of police work in modern society. The police are asked to fulfill several complicated and interrelated roles, each involving many functions and tasks. They must control crime, maintain order, and provide a range of general and emergency services, 24 hours a day, to all the areas of the communities they serve. Measuring how well the police are performing requires clear and specific definitions of the agency's goals

and objectives. But these goals are ambiguous, and often are subject to a variety of interpretations. (Couper, 1983, pp. 1-28)

Couper (1983) adds the term “ambiguous goals.” Suggesting a lack of clarity or even some uncertainty. This in turn suggests what may naturally follow is a general lack of ability to understand or measure needs. It then stands to reason, with these factors in place we set up the ongoing and diminishing adaptability of police for change.

Most literature on the subject suggests that police are somewhat secretive. Whether this is by tradition or a well-evolved corporate mentality it probably works to their detriment. This secretive factor may become accelerated by the so-called “Police Personality” affirming ties to tradition with a disregard to change, especially change suggested from outside the agency. The results can, according to Couper, create major misunderstandings.

It should be noted here that the change in question is that which is brought about by normal evolution of the service not the traumatic change brought about by an extraordinary event. Needless to say, this study has only scratched the surface of police complexity on the issue of change, as Couper (1983) notes:

Rating the police is further complicated by unrealistic expectations of what the police can do. Each citizen expects the police to meet many goals, according to his or her own value system and understanding of what the police can and should do. For instance. one person may be satisfied only if an officer is sent out to take all crime reports, regardless of the seriousness

or likelihood of solving the crime, while another person would be satisfied if some crime reports, such as those for auto theft, were taken over the telephone. Again, some citizens may be satisfied only if police officers walk beat patrols, while others prefer the officers to ride around in cars. These expectations are often unrealistic and contradictory and the police cannot begin to satisfy all of them.

Uncertain objectives and unrealistic expectations cause people to rate police agencies in hazy and unspecific terms, largely because they cannot get accurate information with which to judge agency performance. Because many agencies are shrouded in secrecy, there is no way to assess their procedures or how well their officers are performing. Nor can citizens know what the real 'products' of police agencies are: very little hard information is available about what officers actually do to maintain order and provide service—two of the three main functions of the police. The more extensive information on crime control can produce inaccuracy and distortion if citizens try to compare one jurisdiction's crime rates with those of another, because of the variations in social and economic conditions among communities. Lacking the information they need to make rational judgments, people have to rate police on the basis of their own perceptions of what a police agency should do, and they tend to use crime, arrest, and clearance rates as measures of how the police are doing. Those measures, in turn, give rise to a number of myths about what makes a good police agency. (Couper D.C.,

1983, pp. 1-28)

In most cases, whether previously held by individuals or imposed by cultural influence, the possibility of changing internalized beliefs, whether misconceived or otherwise, will not come easily. In fact, some police agencies may even have some difficulty defining who they are or what they are supposed to represent. As a group or as an individual, it may be easier to find self definition in Hollywood rather than the difficult standard of a constitutional ideal.

Police should, within reason, be more transparent in their hiring practices, policies, procedures and even some training. To the more autonomous agencies whose mandate allows ethical, legal and moral issues to be judged internally, total secrecy may prove dangerous, especially when considering the magnetic characteristic of power and authority generally associated with police work.

Cole and Gertz (1998) take this even further stating:

Sociopolitical changes in the United States have added to the tensions between the mandate of the police and their ability to fulfill it. In the past hundred years there have been massive shifts of population from rural areas to the cities. Criminal law has been called upon to serve a variety of purposes that are only tangentially related to law enforcement and order maintenance. Affluence has brought the criminal justice system new problems-such as the ease of communication and the abundance of property. Police have been assigned the tasks of crime prevention, crime detection, and the

apprehension of criminals. Because they have a monopoly on legal violence, they have a mandate that claims to include efficient, apolitical, and professional enforcement of the law. All this is to be accomplished within the bounds dictated by a democratic society that values due process of law.

The mandate given the police is indeed 'impossible.' This will be true so long as there are misunderstandings, on the part of the police and the public, about the nature of law enforcement work, the potential for success in controlling crime, and the role of law in a democratic society. (Cole and Gertz, 1998, pp.78-82 )

## **2.4 NEW WORLD CONGLOMERATE**

Certainly, American policing is more than heavily flavored with European influences. England, France, Spain and Holland are notably found as a testimony to the early colonization period of the United States. Some functions demand secrecy while all require integrity, specialized knowledge and high standards. Police are constantly under scrutiny but in some cases just outside of investigative scrutiny.

This being implied, it is reasonable to suggest that complete citizen understanding of policing may in some cases be arguable. However, this researcher found that citizen respondents were generally eager to be involved and convey their beliefs during this study. Therefore, considering the variety of views from all quarters that seem to abound, and due to the very nature of community policing, this researcher strongly suggests that citizens'



opinions are a key component when moving toward any new policing model. They may even provide valid solutions to some of the questions raised during past research, where their opinions were either not sought, or simply excluded.

Documenting history, Wilbur Miller (2000) writes:

American police forces, in the modern sense of patrols to prevent and detect crime and maintain general order, are products of the nineteenth century. Like their predecessors of colonial times -- constables, sheriffs, and nightwatchmen -- they were adaptations of English institutions to American social conditions and political ideology. Before the rise of large cities and mass immigration in the nineteenth century, policing relied heavily on community consensus and the willingness of citizens to assist in capturing criminals. (Miller, W., 2000, [http://www.findarticles.com/m1373/8\\_50/63986762/p1/article.jhtml](http://www.findarticles.com/m1373/8_50/63986762/p1/article.jhtml).)

## **2.5 1800s - 2000**

Miller (2000), goes on after establishing the validity of the citizen to proceed into a more historical deliberation of American policing and after comments on its Old World roots, reflected on police development in many cities including the important move into full-time policing in Boston, Massachusetts and New York, New York:

Boston adopted small daytime patrols in 1838 but did not consolidate day and night policing until the 1850s. New York's police, organised in 1845 after years of debate and political wrangling, combined day and night forces and

were centrally directed. A large force walked regular beats, and they had the power to arrest without warrant -- features that reflected the London model. The new force was distinctly American, however, in that the men who served in it were originally appointed for limited terms by local politicians, did not wear uniforms until 1853, and began to carry revolvers by the end of the 1850s. Originally armed only with a club, policemen's use of revolvers developed informally without an official order or specialised training. (Miller, 2000, [\http://www.findarticles.com/m1373/8\\_50/63986762/p1/article.jhtml](http://www.findarticles.com/m1373/8_50/63986762/p1/article.jhtml).)\

With evolution comes change and with change comes problems, and American Policing has had several that are considered noteworthy. Supporting an historic perspective, Monkkonen (1991) states:

Major investigations of police malpractice came about every twenty years after the Lexow investigation—in the Progressive Era, during the 1930s (the Wickersham Commission), in individual cities in the early 1950s, and most notably in the mid-1960s with the President's Commission on the Causes of Violence.

There is also a structural feature of policing unique to the United States its multiple criminal codes and literally thousands of police departments. When, in the nineteenth century, crime or conflict ranged across jurisdictions, there was no single agency to turn to. Early forms of crime, for example, occurred on railroads, by their nature spread across policed cities, unpoliced

countrysides and villages, and often across states, each with a different criminal code. Catching and prosecuting anyone stealing from a train conductor, or a conductor stealing from his employer, was difficult for local police, whose jurisdiction ended at the city limits. Similarly, a criminal operating across a broad district, such as counterfeiters, could easily avoid the local police.

Private detective companies Allan Pinkerton's was the most famous offered a solution to this problem for those with the money to hire them. Pinkerton exploited and gave a public relations spin to his operations in a series of thrillers, which he started publishing in 1874. Highlighting his radical activities in Scotland and his service to the Union during the Civil War, Pinkerton created a dramatic image of the intelligent detective versus the evildoer. (Monkkonen, E. H., 1991 p. 847)

In the distant or perhaps not too distant past, some police believed they enjoyed special sanctions that allowed them to take advantage of their unique status in society. Today, although still not completely open to view, changes have occurred. A police officer must approach the office knowing that he or she will be functioning under more bright light than at any previous time.

Serious study and a realistic approach to hiring and training the most intelligent and educated people available for the position of police officer is critical. We must remain

mindful that at some point in their various careers, many of these newly hired and trained police candidates will become the future leaders of law enforcement, so we must realize the nature of a system that self-perpetuates.

Modern law enforcement as a whole is shaped by many forces. It is not stagnant; it is a dynamic system consisting of thousands of subsystems. It represents agencies that may have thousands of officers or others with only one part-time employee. The United States Department of Justice periodically records and studies the numbers of officers and costs of local police and county enforcement. These data attest to the size, growth and economic importance of enforcement agencies and although past studies have called for more police education and the position seems to demand more, additional education for police officers seems to have remained virtually unanswered.

The Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics concluded in a 1999 update of state and local law enforcement statistics on employment that only small advances have been made in areas like increasing officer education, even though a major change in policing, the move toward community policing, was developing steadily. Their data has been the basis for many reports or studies including this one and is solidly confirmed by other government-funded research.

The data indicated agencies with a college requirement and also focused on costing issues, finding under personnel that:

As of June 30, 1999, local police departments had an estimated 556,631 full-

time employees (table 1). About 436,000, or 78%, of full-time local police department employees were sworn officers. This accounted for nearly two-thirds (64%) of full-time officers working for State and local general purpose law enforcement agencies nationwide. Local police departments also employed about 28,000 part-time sworn officers.

The estimated 120,449 full-time non-sworn local police employees comprised nearly half (47%) of all non-sworn employees in general purpose law enforcement agencies. Local police departments had about 36,000 part-time non-sworn employees. From 1990 to 1999, local police employment increased by about 97,000, or 21% C an average of 2.3% annually. The number of fulltime sworn officers increased by about 73,000, or 20%, during this period.

There were about 25,000 more fulltime local police employees in 1999 than in 1997, an increase of 4.7%. When only sworn personnel are considered, local police employment increased by about 16,000, or 3.8%, from 1997 to 1999. From 1990 to 1999, the number of fulltime civilian local police employees rose from 96,890 to 120,449, an increase of 24.3%. This included an increase of about 9,000, or 8.2%, from 1997 to 1999. Nationwide, 573, or 4.2%, of local police departments employed at least 100 sworn personnel (table 2). This included 46 departments with 1,000 or more officers.

An estimated 7,095, or 52.4%, of departments employed fewer than 10 sworn personnel, including nearly 800 with just 1 officer. About a third of all full-time local police officers were employed by a department with 1,000 or more officers, and about three-fifths were employed by a department with at least 100 officers. Departments with fewer than 10 sworn personnel accounted for about 5% of all local police officers.

Although 77% of local police departments served fewer than 10,000 residents, these agencies employed just 15% of all local police officers. About half of all officers served a jurisdiction with 100,000 or more residents, including nearly a fourth in jurisdictions with 1 million or more residents. With 39,099 officers, New York City had a police force about 3 times as large as Chicago, the city with the second largest force. While departments serving the largest cities had thousands of officers on average, those serving fewer than 2,500 residents had an average of just 3 full-time officers each. (Hickman and Reaves, 2001 pp. 1-4, <http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/abstract/lpd99.htm>)

As evidenced in the Hickman and Reaves report (2001) Personnel numbers have been increasing and officers directly assigned to community policing are also increasing, as indicated in an assessment of 1999 data compiled for the US Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics:

In 1999, nearly two-thirds of county (66%) and municipal (62%) police

agencies with 100 or more officers had a formally written community policing plan, as did nearly half of sheriffs' departments (46%). For each type of local agency, the percentage with a written plan was higher than in 1997. In both years, nearly a third of State police agencies had a written plan. Nearly all larger county (97%) and municipal (95%) police departments had full-time community policing officers, as did 88% of sheriffs' departments. About half of State police agencies had them. For all types of agencies, these percentages represented substantial increases over 1997.

In 1999, larger local law enforcement agencies had a total of about 59,000 full-time sworn personnel serving as community policing officers. This was about 5 times as many as was reported in 1997. In more than four-fifths of county (87%) and municipal (81%) police departments with 100 or more officers, all new officer recruits received community policing training. This was true in about three-fifths of sheriffs' departments and just over half of State police agencies. For each type of agency, these percentages were higher than in 1997.

(Reaves and Hart, 1999, <http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/abstract/lemas99.htm>)

Interestingly, recruit training began to include some forms of community police training although the extent of the training was not quantified in the Reaves and Hart (1999) report. The timing was apparently right for increased expansion of law enforcement supported by funds made available through federal programs that infused necessary capital for the new

policing movement. In a later report entitled "Local Police Departments 2000," by Hickman and Reaves (2003), authors note:

A fundamental shift from traditional reactive policing, community policing stresses the prevention of crime before it occurs. The implementation of a community policing plan supports and empowers front-line officers, decentralizes command, and encourages innovative problem solving.

In 2000, 18% of local police departments, employing 52% of all local police officers, had a formally written community policing plan. More than three-fifths of departments serving 100,000 or more residents had a formal plan, as did about half of those serving a population of 50,000 to 99,999. In all population categories, a majority of departments had either a formal, written community policing plan or an informal, unwritten plan.

Departments serving a population of less than 50,000 were more likely to have an informal, unwritten plan than a formal, written one. Overall, 90% of local police officers worked for a department with some type of community policing plan. (Hickman and Reaves, 2003, pp. 1-15)

Perhaps the move toward a community policing orientation suggested additional education for officers should be given another chance as requirements for education did begin to change. Hours of training also increased in some programs however; training hours in some subjects decreased. In a Department of Justice Report (2000) education of officers



was addressed noting:

In 2000, 15% of local police departments and 11% of sheriffs' offices had some type of college education requirement for new officers. In 2000, new local police recruits were required to complete an average of about 1,600 hours of academy and field training in departments serving 100,000 or more residents, compared to about 800 hours in those serving a population of less than 2,500. New deputy recruits in sheriffs' offices serving 100,000 or more residents were required to complete an average of 1,400 hours of training compared to about 780 hours in those serving a population of less than 10,000.(U.S.DepartmentofJustice2000,<http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/sandlle.htm#personnel>)

Just as in previous studies, personnel numbers, training, recruitment criteria and taxpayer dollars are only part of the overall picture. Many government-funded studies have opened new and broader possibilities for law enforcement agencies that are fortunate enough to have progressive leaders. But, even in such agencies, resistance to change being always present has managed to slow the improvement process.

## **2.6 KANSAS CITY AND BEYOND**

Past research has provided the groundwork for philosophical change, even though in the past many findings have been ignored, such as the call for a minimum of four years of college education by 1982. Other studies have opened new views of the patrol function and suggested the inefficiencies of past practices. In a research report for the National Institute

of Justice by Blumstein and Petersilia (1994) entitled, *Years of Criminal Justice Research*, The National Institute of Justice December 1994:

Many attribute those changes to the influence of a series of NIJ-funded studies that challenged traditional assumptions and methods, tested research recommendations, and widely disseminated novel police practices. "Patrols and response time. The first and best-known of these studies was the Kansas City (Missouri) Preventive Patrol Experiment, conducted by researchers at the Police Foundation. Police administrators had always assumed that by driving more or less randomly in a given area, patrol cars prevented crime, made citizens feel more secure, and could respond more quickly to calls after a crime had been committed, thus increasing the chances of arresting the suspect. Preventive patrol and the pressure for quick-response time increased requirements for sworn personnel, cars, sophisticated communications systems, and other technological innovations.

As the strain on police budgets grew, police administrators needed to know whether their assumptions about these practices were valid and justified the expense. To test the effects of preventive patrol, researchers randomly assigned neighborhoods to three different patrolling techniques: (1) no preventive patrol activities (police cars entered the area only to answer specific calls), (2) customary service, or (3) increased preventive patrol (cars cruised the streets two to three times more frequently than normal).

These experimental conditions remained in effect for 1 year. The results showed that neither crime rates nor citizens' perception of their safety were significantly affected by changes in these levels of random preventive patrol. The study concluded that preventive patrol did not necessarily prevent crime or reassure the citizens.

Similar experiments with similar results were subsequently conducted in St. Louis, Missouri, and Minneapolis, Minnesota. The findings made national news and produced intense debate and some shock waves in the policing community. Police chiefs criticized the research design and questioned its conclusions.

Some argued that the 'no patrol' condition was not maintained, since police cars were going to and from other areas through that police beat. But most police chiefs stated that regardless of the methodology, the findings were consistent with their own experience.

Like the other policing studies, the Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment was important because it challenged a traditional police practice and gave police managers latitude to experiment with alternative strategies. Following the study, many police departments assigned patrol units to proactive patrol, that is, they gave patrol officers specific proactive assignments rather than having them randomly cruise the streets.

Another major study, conducted again by Police Foundation researchers working with the Kansas City, Missouri, Police Department, studied the effects of police response time. Their results indicated that police response time was unrelated to the probability of making an arrest or locating a witness, and that neither dispatch nor travel time were strongly associated with citizen satisfaction.

The researchers discovered that the time it takes a citizen to report a crime—not the speed with which police respond—was the major determinant of whether an on-scene arrest took place and whether witnesses could be located. Furthermore, citizen reporting delays constitute a significant proportion of the total recorded police response time.

According to the study, if the victim or witness waited an hour before calling the police, the speed with which the police subsequently responded was likely to be unimportant the perpetrator of the crime had ample time to flee the scene. The researchers concluded that 'because of the time citizens take to report crimes, the application of technological innovations and human resources to reduce police response time will have negligible impact on crime outcomes.'

NIJ-supported replications of the Kansas City Response Time Study in Jacksonville, Florida; San Diego, California; Peoria, Illinois; and Rochester, New York, basically confirmed the Kansas City findings. (Blumstein and Petersilia, 1994, <http://www.ncjrs.org/txtfiles/yea.txt> )

## **2.7 THE VOLLMER EFFECT**

Here is where friction points may develop, for the use of science and research as tools may not be thoroughly understood or assigned credibility by some individuals. This may result in legitimate research findings on the subject of police operational effectiveness, or other issues, being ignored. The processes, although tested and retested, are not always accepted. What is necessary in a new measure for police? Where will the new model police officer be found and do we even need one? Certainly, perception as well as education becomes necessary when interpreting scientific concepts. The research suggests that change is needed.

This point is brought home by Professor Barbara Raffel Price of John Jay College in New York City (1995) in Law Enforcement News and reproduced in Criminal Justice Annual Editions in 1998:

Since the early 1900s, under the leadership of August Vollmer, the father of American policing, law enforcement has been fascinated by the possibilities of professionalism. For the police in those early years, professionalism meant control of their work world with an end to interference from corrupt politicians who appointed unqualified patrolmen and interfered with or controlled hiring,

firing and assignment. For Vollmer, professionalism also held a loftier meaning-something he called 'scientific policing,' which emphasized a style of policing that was detached, objective and, especially, adopted techniques that took advantage of the latest scientific advances in detecting and solving crimes and in approaches to patrolling a community.

Soon after Vollmer appeared on the scene, the police incorporated the term 'professionalism' into their public rhetoric. However, policing remained an occupation that had far to go before it would be considered a profession. The principal barrier to professionalism, then as now, is the fact that policing is in one fundamental way unlike any other field striving to professionalize: It has the duty and the right to use coercion, an act that fosters a work culture antithetical to professionalism (which is usually understood to mean service to the client). (Price, B. R., 1995 p. 78)

The insightful writings of Dr. Price (1995) goes beyond the separation of policing from politics and suggests the way shown by Vollmer and the direction toward education found in the 1973 report on the National Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals is valid. Dr. Price with an additional insightful point on officer intelligence and education writes:

Central to that effort over the years--dating back at least to the Wickersham Commission in 1931--has been an insistence that educational levels of police be raised. More recently, in 1973, the National Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals urged that by 1982, every police department in

the United States require four years of college education. In 1995, however, only a relative handful of departments require recruits to have a college degree. It bears mentioning, too, that most police unions have vehemently opposed education for recruits, as they have other components of professionalization, including peer review and accountability.

Why is professionalism a goal of law enforcement? The most basic answer is that public confidence in the police is essential for order maintenance and stability in the community. When the police are distrusted, government itself is undermined. Professionalism instills confidence and respect because it means to the public that the practitioners have internalized values of service, even altruism, self-control and commitment to high ideals of behavior.

Further, professionalism implies higher education. Many have argue that higher education will help police gain an understanding of their role in a democratic society and a fuller comprehension of the responsibilities that come with police power. The President's Crime Commission in 1967 observed that the complexities of policing. dictate that officers posses a high degree of intelligence, education, tact and judgment" and said it was 'essential. . . that the requirements to serve in law enforcement reflect the awesome responsibility' facing the personnel selected. (Price, B. R., 1995, p. 78)

Additionally, Brandl and Barlow (1966) focus on the term "professionalism," and allude to some traits that may be considered as intrinsic to the police personality, while framing

police as strictly part of a more disassociated bureaucratic structure, one that requires closer scrutiny when it comes to their fulfilling the requirements of professionalism noting:

The two primary aims of most bureaucracies, the police included, are the maintenance of their organizational autonomy and the security of their members. To accomplish these aims, they adopt a pattern of institutional action that can best be described as professionalism. This word, with its many connotations and definitions, cloaks all the many kinds of actions carried out by the police.

The guise of professionalism embodied in a bureaucratic organization is the most important strategy employed by the police to defend their mandate and thereby to build self-esteem, organizational autonomy and occupational solidarity or cohesiveness. The professionalization drives of the police are no more suspect than the campaigns of other striving, upwardly mobile occupational groups.

However, since the police have a monopoly on legal violence, since they are the active enforcers of the public will, serving theoretically in the best interests of the public, the consequences of their yearnings for prestige and power are imbued with far greater social ramifications than the relatively harmless attempts of florists, funeral directors, and accountants to attain public stature. Disinterested law enforcement through bureaucratic means is an essential in our society and in any democracy, and the American police



are certainly closer to attaining this ideal than they were in 1931 at the time of the Wickersham report. Professionalism qua professionalism is unquestionably desirable in the police. But if in striving for the heights of prestige they fail to serve the altruistic values of professionalism, if their professionalism means that a faulty portrait of the social reality of crime is being painted, if their professionalism conceals more than it reveals about the true nature of their operations, then a close analysis of police professionalism is in order.

Police professionalism cannot be easily separated in practice from the bureaucratic ideal epitomized in modern police practice. The bureaucratic ideal is established as a means of obtaining a commitment from personnel to organizational and occupational norms. This bureaucratic commitment is designed to supersede commitments to competing norms, such as obligations to friends or kin or members of the same racial or ethnic group. Unlike medicine and law, professions that developed outside the context of bureaucracies, policing has always been carried out, if done on a full-time basis, as a bureaucratic function. (Brandl and Barlow, 1996 pp. 233-234)

## **2.8 COMMUNITY POLICING AND CULTURE POWER**

A brief statement about the police subculture is probably in order, Peak (1996) adds importance to the officer culture and the value of an environment that could influence officer cultural values:

Police agencies have a life and culture of their own. Powerful forces within the police establishment have a much stronger influence over how a department conducts its business than do managers of the department, the courts, legislatures, politicians, and members of the community. A powerful police subculture can easily dismiss efforts to influence officer behavior. (Peak and Glensor, 1996, p. 140)

Even with all of the positive steps toward modern policing and Community-Oriented Policing (COP) that have been taken, there remains the adverse effect of subculture issues that must be dealt with. These may be negative or positive depending on the cultural group, agency environment and their own individualized social makeup. In many cases police subcultures have emerged as a negative. Although, during this study a positive cultural effect was discovered that may change the way many feel about a new officer selection criterion.

The importance of these issues is outlined in a study by Haught, in the state of Washington. This insider view allowed for a reasonable explanation of cultural responses occurring within a modern police agency. Haught (1998) during a research study writes:

As an evaluator who routinely works with police and sheriffs' departments, I became interested in the dynamics occurring inside agencies as I witnessed some of them transitioning to the community policing operational philosophy. To satisfy my curiosity, and to perform research for a graduate paper, I received permission to spend a year (1996) at a sheriff's department, interviewing and observing sworn officers, and reading memos, minutes and

promotional exams of officers at all levels. I was eager to see what was involved in the transition, and to understand what the new philosophy meant to the officers, how it affected their roles and relationships, and what unexpected results they experienced. (Haught, L., 1998, p.15)

Haught (1998), then goes on to comment on the underlying reasons for the lack of meaningful change in many areas of policing and in commenting on change resistance and sabotage Haught points out that sabotage as is the most deviant, he writes:

#### Resistance

Resistance, I had heard, was a problem commonly faced by departments trying to implement community policing. I observed that managers most often used the term to describe employees who were not doing what the supervisors obviously thought they should have been to support the model. But from what I saw, community policing being a philosophy rather than a program made it more difficult for management to describe, and consequently, for the officers to implement. Many officers who were said to be resistant were actually just trying to figure out what community policing meant in relation to how they were currently doing their jobs. These deputies responded not unlike any people trying to adapt to a new culture. Basically, they were just determining what the differences were and deciding if any of these new strategies really mattered.

Moreover, as today's police agencies 'try on' new operating procedures for size, resistance is just one way that staff has of finding out how serious leadership is about institutionalizing the changes. Rather than judging staff as resistant, consider that they may be 'checking things out.' By not assuming that most acts are resistant (read: negative), departments can be more flexible and clear in their implementation.

### Sabotage

Sometimes, however, employee resistance is exactly what is stated and more. When it is more, it becomes sabotage. I still remember the pin-drop silence that occurred when I asked a command officer about this unexpected, unintended aspect of implementing community policing. 'There have been people in the organization who say they support this philosophy, but I've learned later that they are obstructionists,' the commander said slowly. 'I've found areas where they've contaminated quite a few employees. It's a real tough one to deal with.'

One of the deputies I interviewed reported that some supervisors would wait until a ranking officer was out of ear shot before proceeding to tell their staff 'how it's really going to be.' I guess it's natural for people to want to maintain their power base. Let me just say that sabotage is very difficult to manage without the benefit of an implementation team whose job it is to find out what's really going on in the department and to address the problem people. (Haught, L., 1998, p.15)

Since August Vollmer began his movement toward an educated, scientifically sound police officer there has been and will continue to be resistance to the change. This continual resistance to well-developed change may place the new era shakers and movers on a collision course with the so called “Old Guard.” This point is also one that has been hotly debated since the college education recommendation of the 1967 President’s Commission on Law Enforcement and Justice Report and other studies such as the Kansas City, Missouri, Preventative Patrol. This researcher recalls the many disparaging remarks being made about new, younger officers, many with advanced degrees and who were entering law enforcement at pay grades higher than some senior officers.

## **2.9 CHANGING THE CULTURE**

Certainly the 1967 President’s Commission on Law Enforcement and Justice and the Kansas City study were very controversial. They hit traditional police practice head on and shook traditionalists to the core. Further studies continued to provoke controversy and initiate a cycle of change that remains with us today. Studies such as these are healthy; they reveal shortfalls, although they are feared by some as an erosion of their autonomy.

These findings and other social changes taking place in the United States and indeed, around the world, opened an internal challenge to traditional policing practices that may someday be viewed as historic to policing as England’s Metropolitan Police Act was to its beginning. The results of earlier studies would soon impact all police in the United States, from the rank of chief to the entering patrol officer. Community oriented policing was now destined to become a reality and with it a need to refine recruitment to meet the new

demands. This necessity of change, given a basic or philosophical transformation, should be viewed as a routine part of an evolutionary process. It should not become a source of fear or aversion. When commenting on community policing Blumstein and Petersilia (1994), writes:

These early studies paved the way for modern policing strategies, with a strong emphasis on community-based policing. In particular, they caused police to recognize the critical role of the community in crime prevention and control. Police began to look beyond incident-oriented policing and experiment with innovative responses to crime that took a broader view of law enforcement. Police began to look beyond incident-oriented policing and experiment with innovative responses to crime that took a broader view of law enforcement. (Blumstein and Petersilia, 1994,<http://www.ncjrs.org>.)

The esteemed researcher, author, and colleague of the late Dr. Robert Trojanowicz, Dr. Bonnie Bucqueroux (1995) writing for Community Policing Exchange highlights a changing paradigm, community policing misconceptions and the importance of true effort, Doctor Bucqueroux writes:

The Trojanowicz legacy underscores the importance of bringing key stakeholders together as equals, since solutions always benefit from including as many perspectives as possible. The police alone cannot make communities safe, and tapping the eyes, ears, minds, and energies of law-abiding citizens increases the likelihood of success. Add to that the Goldstein contribution of the SARA (Scanning, Analysis, Response, Assessment)

model, which elevates policing from catching the bad guys to exploring the underlying dynamics that allow problems to persist--as profound a shift as from checkers to chess.

Operationalizing the philosophy can differ in terms of specific strategies and tactics, as part of tailoring the approach to local resources and needs, but the major challenge facing police managers lies in harnessing the full power of this potent new paradigm. In this climate, the allegation that community policing has yet to be defined threatens its future. For one thing, it blurs the standards by which we can hold departments accountable, allowing any police agency that jumps on the community policing bandwagon the potential to dilute what it stands for.

For another, it allows police a tempting loophole to avoid the hard work of fundamental change, particularly the daunting challenge of engaging the community fully in the following steps: determining the vision, values, and mission of the department recruiting, selecting, training, evaluating, promoting, and rewarding personnel and participating directly in problem solving and assessment. (Bucqueroux, B., 1995, [http://www.communitypolicing.org/publications/exchange/a\\_m-j95.htm](http://www.communitypolicing.org/publications/exchange/a_m-j95.htm))

In noting the possibility of failure to recognize the challenge of community policing whether by ignorance or design, Doctor Bucqueroux (1995) adds a warning that has been brought

to reality in several states, that of citizens disbanding their police departments or replacing them with private services. Policing change has become a demand from the outside in as the complexity of problems besetting police become more challenging each day of the new millennium:

The reality is that the choice is not among the four options of traditional, community, problem-oriented, or crime-specific policing, but between public and private policing. Community policing did not emerge because it is easy to implement and to do, but because the traditional system is failing. Where a decade ago there were three private security guards for each police officer, there are now four to one. As those who can afford to do so increasingly isolate themselves in high-rise fortresses and walled suburban communities, the public police find themselves left to protect 'consumers' who cannot 'shop' elsewhere for their safety. What will happen if frustrated taxpayers lose their taste for supporting an unresponsive system that they themselves no longer use?

The question is not whether any new strategy can effect a temporary decline in a handful of selected crime rates, but whether a philosophy of policing helps to inform the use of existing police resources as the catalyst in making trouble neighborhoods safer. As Bob Trojanowicz used to remind us, community policing recognizes that until we are all safe, no one is truly safe.

(Bucqueroux, B., 1995,  
[http://www.communitypolicing.org/publications/exchange/a\\_m-j95.htm](http://www.communitypolicing.org/publications/exchange/a_m-j95.htm))



Doctor David Carter (1995) writing a study for the Bureau of Justice Assistance and in comparing acceptance of the innovative “Drug Abuse Resistance Education,” (D.A.R.E.) to community oriented policing writes:

The emergence of community policing presents a challenge for law enforcement because it requires a fundamental shift in the longstanding philosophy underlying the maintenance of law and order. Many envision community policing as one specific program; others generalize it as "social work" that is 'soft on crime.' In reality, the concept is one of full-service law enforcement that addresses specific citizen concerns and provides high-quality police efforts. Robert Trojanowicz, one of the earliest proponents of community policing, characterized it as: . . . a new philosophy of policing, based on the concept that police officers and private citizens working together in creative ways can help solve contemporary community problems related to crime, fear of crime, social and physical disorder, and neighborhood decay.

The philosophy is predicated on the belief that achieving these goals requires that police departments develop a new relationship with the law-abiding people in the community, allowing them a greater voice in setting local priorities, and involving them in efforts to improve the overall quality of life in their neighborhoods. It shifts the focus of police work from handling random calls to solving problems.

Community policing did not suddenly materialize as a new idea; rather, it evolved from research conducted by a wide range of scholars and police research organizations. (Carter,D.L.,1995, <http://www.ncjrs.org/txtfiles/comdare.txt>)

After similarly establishing the community policing evolution as did Doctor Bucqueroux, Doctor Carter then goes to the heart of the matter with a comparison to the “Drug Abuse Resistance Education” (D.A.R.E.) initiative highlighting the reasons for potential failure:

Community policing and D.A.R.E. are evolving initiatives that can respond to changing social problems and demands. However, many of the challenges faced by both programs arise out of the fundamentals of human nature.

Among the greatest barriers to overcome are:

- o The resistance to change that affects law enforcement and communities alike.
- o The desire to see successes in the short term when change requires a long-term goal of resocialization.
- o The natural human tendency to settle for the status quo rather than risk change.
- o The unwillingness to recognize that even in failure, knowledge is gained--knowledge that includes insight on how to modify an initiative to ultimately achieve success.
- o The lack of sincere commitment to invest effort, resources, and patience in a nontraditional venture.

(Carter, D. L., 1995, <http://www.ncjrs.org/txtfiles/comdare.txt>)

In viewing the barriers suggested by Doctor Carter we see issues like the “resistance to change,” lack of patience, adherence to the “status quo,” not taking risks, and lack of “sincere commitment.” This raises the question: will individuals not having the academic or perhaps, intellectual preparation necessary for grasping theoretical concepts, be able to step into the realms of philosophical change? If personal insecurity and lack of vision are allowed to gain strength of numbers within a department sub-culture, change will not take place.

## **2.10 TRAINING AND COMMENTS FROM THE FIELD**

Selection of properly educated officers becomes even more apparent when dealing with complex societal issues and interactive cross-cultural community planning. This may even be the most difficult area for the community policing department and add to the need for proper application and design of correct policies or other adaptations.

Commenting from the field and forwarding a heavy accent on training as becoming central to success, Lieutenant Susie Mowry (1996) with the Newport News, Virginia Police Department writes:

To be effective, businesses focus on what they're selling (their products) and who their customers are. Though not businesses in the strictest sense, police agencies can rely on this same model to promote success. Newport News Police Department (NNPD) views its products as delivering police services, maintaining order, solving problems and enforcing laws. Newport News citizens are the department's customers. Thoroughly trained officers are key to NNPD providing high-quality products to its customers.

Community policing is not new to the Newport News police, and in fact, has been an integral part of the department's operation since 1984. A department-wide commitment to training was central to institutionalizing the philosophy. All Newport News officers, including telecommunicators, received community policing training, with a heavy emphasis on problem solving. All sworn officers are expected to know and use problem-solving techniques, which are considered to be one of the department's greatest strengths. The command staff has willingly included the community in problem-solving exercises, and the resulting partnerships have directly led to reducing violence and improving the quality of life in Newport News. (Mowry, S.,1996 p. 15, <http://www.communitypolicing.org/publications/exchange/e8mowry.htm>)

The Chicago Police Department after serious effort during their second year evaluation of their program, "Chicago's Alternative Policing Strategy" (CAPS) a National Institute of Justice produced study written and later discussed with a body of researchers and practitioners by Doctor Wesley Skogan (1995), found citizens' positive perceptions of police and services can take place however, some police may yet remain skeptical. There is an emerging value suggesting the police get in touch with their constituents. Doctor Skogan writes:

Citizen assessments of police. Whether homeowners or renters, most respondents registered positive attitudes toward the police. African-American and white residents perceived a significant increase in police responsiveness to public concerns, but the views of Hispanic residents did not change.

Although program recognition was somewhat higher in the prototype districts than in non-CAPS comparison areas, on a citywide basis, program visibility decreased after 1 year--more among African-Americans than among whites.

Police opinions. In the spring of 1994, researchers compared views of the program held by 'veteran' CAPS police with those who had served in non-CAPS districts during the previous year. Prototype supervisors were much more optimistic than their counterparts about the impact of CAPS on:

- o Addressing traditional policing concerns (e.g., increased arrests, police responsiveness, balanced officer deployment).
- o Reducing opportunities for corruption.
- o Resolving neighborhood problems.

However, the CAPS supervisors were no more optimistic than their counterparts about the program's impact on police-community relations, relations with minorities, the effective use of crime information, or police autonomy. They were as likely as non-CAPS supervisors to fear being burdened with too many problems and unreasonable demands and as wary about the blurring of boundaries between police and citizen authority. In addition, they were equally skeptical of the impact of CAPS on the rate of citizen complaints about police.

(Skogan, W. G., 1995, p.5, <http://www.ncjrs.org/pdffiles/chicago.pdf>)

The Edmonton, Alberta Canada Police Service expertly used research techniques and commissioned a service-oriented research study to evaluate their community oriented policing strategy, according to Sergeant David Veitch (1996) of that agency writing for the “Community Policing Exchange,” in a piece published by the Community Policing Consortium. Sergeant Veitch, citing a department commissioned study, outlines environmental changes in the organization that allowed for positive outcomes:

In 1988, the Edmonton Police Service (EPS) conducted a study of their repeat calls for service. The study showed that 21 'hot spots' accounted for almost 60 percent of the calls received. The department assigned a beat officer trained in problem solving to each of the 21 areas and gave each a mandate to work with the community to identify and solve problems. This Neighborhood Foot Patrol Program (NFPP) tested the concepts of community policing and its success was critical to EPS making an organizational transition to the philosophy.

Dr. J. Hornick et al. (1990), evaluated the NFPP and found that as calls for service went down, police and public satisfaction rose. The results convinced citizens, politicians and the police that community policing was the way to go. EPS's Executive Officers Team (EOT) committed themselves to leading the organizational change to support community policing. (Veitch, D., 1996, p. 12, <http://www.communitypolicing.org/publications/exchange/e8veitch.htm>)

Sheriff Johnny Mack Brown (1996) of Greenville County South Carolina in another focus on training adds an interesting field and administrators' perspective in "Sheriff Times." The sheriff focuses on specialized community policing training and the personal forms of interaction necessary for success. The article also shows the need for individual comprehension and analytical skills:

In a 1989, the Greenville County Sheriff's Office began training all command personnel, supervisors and deputies to implement community law enforcement. We brought in trainers and held classes, conducted workshops and brainstorming sessions and went to great lengths to see that everyone understood what was involved and what was expected. Then, as today, there was no universally accepted definition for community policing, but most would agree its two fundamental elements are problem solving and community partnerships.

Early in the training process, one deputy said, 'I don't see what all the fuss is about. This is pretty much what I've been doing all along.' It's true that this successful young deputy was already applying many of community policing's concepts. For instance, he had put a good deal of effort into getting to know residents in his area and treated them with respect. Consequently, the deputy knew who was doing what and where to find them if he needed to. The citizens in his neighborhood grew to trust him and the deputy was thus able to take the information provided him and make numerous arrests and solid cases.

This deputy had reduced community policing to its essence: An officer must work 'with' the community to find the problems and then root them out. Initially, the deputy applied this method only to conducting investigations and making arrests. It was only after he gleaned new ideas from the training classes that he saw how to broaden his approach to help residents solve non-criminal neighborhood problems such as poor street lighting, derelict cars, vacant houses, illegal dumping and other ills that afflict low-income communities and contribute to crime. (Brown, J. M., 1996, <http://www.communitypolicing.org/publications/shtimes/s1brown.htm>)

In a National Institute of Justice, Research in Brief article Sadd and Grinc (1996) brought a view of different eight city programs forward. They cite the “failure of traditional policing” and speak to a “new orthodoxy”:

Community policing could arguably be called the new orthodoxy of law enforcement in the United States. It has become an increasingly popular alternative to what many police administrators perceive as the failure of traditional policing to deal effectively with street crime, especially crimes of violence and drug trafficking. Although the concept is defined in varying ways and its ability to meet its goals remains largely untested, community policing has gained widespread acceptance. According to one source, about 40 percent of the Nation's larger police departments have adopted it.” (Sadd and Grinc, 1996, p 1 <http://www.ncjrs.org/pdffiles/implcp.pdf> )



In the Sadd and Grinc (1996) study, the 40 percent adoption of a concept is not the issue; the police community in their haste to embrace the heavily funded concept must keep in mind prior planning and reasonable adjustment will prevent failure. They are not the only service entity that has had to change methods in how they apply their services. In addition, due to the very nature of their services they should at least study who may best be entrusted with that application and how the programs will prosper after funding ceases.

An illustration of how programs with good potential are left to die by resistance or sabotage is found in the police officers education movement. The same U.S. Government that provided the dollars for community policing, also funded the move toward college educated officers by 1982. The latter movement has slowed and almost stopped since funding expired. Could community policing suffer the same fate? Will it happen to the concept if the proper officers are not placed into key community contact positions? Reflect for a moment on an officer being forced into a work situation that he/she philosophically does not, will not, or cannot understand.

## **2.11 THE OFFICER**

When dealing with the operational strategy, ability, or success of organizations one must look toward the element of the endeavor where the work is ultimately accomplished. In this study the critical link is viewed at the patrol officer level. In this last area of literature review intense study will be made at the officer level in an attempt to find common areas for success or failure in the field and within research.

The initial step into police service is taken at the recruitment level. After initial processing and becoming officer candidates, some of these individuals may, at some point during their careers, have the opportunity to become chief administrators. Essentially, no matter where the officer's career ends, it all begins at the recruitment, application and measurement to the current established hiring criteria. Recruitment is where change should begin if community policing is to have the best chance for success.

The traditionalists are opposed to change; the progressives want change and the lines are drawn. An insightful view featured in an inaugural issue staff article in the Community Police Exchange commenting on the natural evolution of community policing. It is noted that:

Community policing is an evolutionary, rather than a revolutionary idea. Since the late 1970s, it has cropped up as a police strategy in various ways, in various places, under various names, including team policing, problem oriented policing, and community oriented policing. While programs in most instances could hardly be called identical, they all had one common element. The police were supposed to get out of their patrol cars and into their neighborhoods. For decades prior, conventional wisdom had held that omnipresent motor patrol would deter crime. Research in the early 1970s proved that assumption to be false. (Community Policing Consortium Staff, 1995,<http://www.communitypolicing.org/publications/exchange/e1hamilt.htm>)

Successful evolution suggests adapting to the new environment. Some creatures have been successful and others are only found in museums. The complexity of the police issue as a unique “cultural dimension,” acting on behavior as a “unit” or as an “individual” is indicated by Cole and Gertz (1998):

The position of 'police officer' is more than a cluster of formally prescribed duties and role expectations held jointly by criminal justice officials and members of the political community. In addition to the formal administrative language that specifies duties and responsibilities, there is a cultural dimension to the position that has a profound influence on the operational code of the police, both as a unit and as individuals behaving within a bureaucratic framework.

Social scientists have demonstrated that there is a definite relationship between one's occupational environment and the way one interprets events; an occupation may be seen as a major badge of identity that an individual acts to protect as a facet of his or her self-esteem and person. Thus, entry requirements, training, and professional socialization produce a homogeneity of attitudes that guides the police in their daily work. (Cole and Gertz, 1998, pp. 78-82)

Cole and Gertz (1998) hit upon the perception issues expanded upon earlier in this chapter. What then is the impact of individuals misinterpreting who or what the police are? This is important to all, whether the person is a citizen, recent candidate officer or police veteran officer. Officers must be able to approach who they are with a mature, intellectually based

and confident view. This goes to the heart of a revised criterion for the selection of police officers and suggests a molding characteristic may be part of the mix.

Large and positive strides have been made; nationally and internationally many successes have been recorded, and enormous amounts of time and money expended for research and support since the advent of the movement toward a community-oriented policing philosophy began. In order to allow its value to be realized, we must view this movement as another evolutionary step in policing, a natural and self-sustaining new level of the science.

As stated in the classic research work by William Ker Muir Jr. (1977) his observations conducted on a police agency in the nineteen seventies remains true today, Muir indicates:

Nonetheless, I think it fair to say that at present we lack scholarship concerning the development of professional policemen. The police literature does not contain descriptions of how policemen come to reconcile the sometimes necessary extortionate practices of authority with their previously felt obligations to be reasonable, kind, empathetic, and creative. It provides no explanation of how the professional policeman maintains a complex sense of 'right' and 'wrong' without a loss of self esteem or of belief in civility. The literature does not tell us how a policeman can develop a morality enabling him to be mean opportunistically without becoming mean compulsively.

Moreover, the police literature says nothing about the professional

policeman's sense of place, time, and purpose, or of how he cultivates an awareness of the trends of past and future, or of his development of a standard of success for his individual actions in keeping with both the limits of his individual capacities and his impulse for public service. The literature points to the necessity that a policeman have such a social, historical, and ethical perspective and how it would be useful in compensating for the unique distortions of information which befall the policeman-distortions resulting from a steady diet of life's pathologies, from the organizational necessities of maintaining intensely high morale (to overcome fear, hardship, and frustration) and from the authority of office. The literature simply has not described the means of acquiring such a perspective. (Ker Muir, 1977, p. 296)

Breci, in speculating on higher education in his writing "Higher Education for Law Enforcement: The Minnesota Model," in the Federal Bureau of Investigation's "Law Enforcement Bulletin," states:

For decades, the call for professionalism in the law enforcement field focused on increasing the educational levels of police officers. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967) and the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1973) both supported the 4-year degree as a prerequisite for employment in law enforcement. The President's Commission accurately predicted that the complexities of policing would require higher levels of education.

Indeed, since the 1960's, policing has become increasingly complex. For example, many police agencies have implemented community policing, which is based on the premise that police officers can better address crime problems by examining complex social issues and developing solutions that involve the police and the community working together. Effective community policing requires skills officers acquire through higher education-research, critical thinking, problem solving, effective oral and written communication, and an understanding of group and community dynamics. Recognizing the need for highly educated officers, the Minnesota legislature took the initiative to implement minimum entry-level educational requirements beyond high school. In 1977, it created the Peace Officers Standards and Training (POST) Board. The POST Board adopted the position that law enforcement, as a profession, requires a broad-based education. Therefore, it mandated increased levels of education for police officers, while creating standards to ensure the safety of citizens in the State. To accomplish this, the board required that prospective law enforcement officers complete a 2-year degree program in order to be licensed in the State of Minnesota. (Breci, M. G., 1994, pp. 1-4)

## **2.12 A VIEW TOWARD OFFICER SUCCESS**

It should be noted that even with the increasing complexity of police strategies, philosophies and everyday change, there are successful developments and progress occurring within policing agencies. In a field commentary for Community Policing Exchange, Corporal Jim

Watson (1995) in Caldwell, Idaho writes about decision making and shared governance that can only come from viewing patrol officers in a different manner and how recruiting new officers from colleges has helped:

Caldwell, like many other small towns with limited resources, has had to develop new ways to cope with the ever increasing cost of crime--and most of these ways center around community policing. The department adopted a philosophy of shared responsibility and connection between law enforcement and citizens in order to make our city a better place to live. Consequently, all of our line officers were in essence, made 'mini-police chiefs' and were given the freedom and authorization to make proactive decisions within their assigned districts. Other goals were realized through the implementation of a number of high quality community policing programs--ones that officers here are proud to be a part of. We are well aware though, that a new mindset and increased community-police programs would be nothing without the support of our citizens.

Although Caldwell didn't officially start community policing until October 1992, in reality, we were already operating under this philosophy through our 'Cops in the Schools' program. So the foundation was already there when the decision was made to implement community policing department-wide. 'We've been fortunate,' remarks Lt. Allan Laird, 'good recruitment and hiring from local law enforcement college programs has given us a head start. The graduates from these programs already know about community policing and

support it.

From a hiring standpoint, it's great for us because in most cases, this is their first job and there are no conventional policing habits to change.'

Once hired, officers, while not required, are strongly encouraged to live in Caldwell city limits. And most of the officers do--making them that much more tied to the concept of community policing. The department's goal is to make Caldwell a better place to live, not just for citizens, but for us too. Detective Corporal Matt Murphy is one example of an officer who lives in the same district that he is assigned to work in. 'After meeting with my district residents and getting to know them, I found that I could deal with them as neighbors, even while in uniform.' Murphy comments that being a COP officer has made him more comfortable in dealing with people in general, 'before, I was hesitant when talking with people, because I felt as a police officer I had to be perfect.'

Caldwell's police department is a young one. In fact, Chief Doug Law, at age 39, is one of the older members of the department. Chief Law believes that to some degree, 'Caldwell's success in community policing is due to the youthfulness of our officers--not necessarily in age but in experience. It's sometimes easier to change to proactive policing if there is not a long history of reactive policing to overcome.' Law goes on to say that, 'Our greatest single achievement since converting to community policing is that our department now functions as a team, and problem solving involves everyone--now it's just a natural part of the job.'



We have shown that in Caldwell, by living the community policing concept, and by encouraging community involvement, we are effectively dealing with crime. Even with an increase in population in the last few years, the quality of life here in Caldwell continues to improve. Statistically, we have seen this confirmed by a continual decrease in our Crime Index figures over the last three-years running. (Watson, J., 1995, pp. 1-15)

In the United States there have been innovative programs designed that attempt to bring professionals back into the urban communities. One program assists officers in obtaining low interest loans for reclaimed housing in their assigned areas. This program affiliated with the United States Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) has assisted cities in providing housing for police officers, teachers and various other professionals considered critical in rebuilding neighborhoods.

In this section of literature research, the focus will be on line or patrol officers. It must also be noted that this researcher does not intend any portion of this study to diminish the importance of current or past patrol officers, either before or after the arrival of community policing. Rather, the work is intended to show avenues for possible improvement and plant the seeds for change.

The first official level of involvement for persons choosing police service as a career usually takes place in police agency recruiting offices or city personnel departments. Historically, there are a myriad of forms to fill out and waivers to be signed allowing official background

or criminal history checks.

Although there is some similarity found in police employment standards or practices in the United States, many small differences may exist and all local police employment has historically been governed by home rule rather than federal regulation. Some state involvement occurs in certain laws governing police certification before full employment can take place or possibly in civil service regulations.

For the most part the literature search has provided information that the recruiting standard has not changed much since the author first applied for police service in 1966. The basic entry requirements still are primarily physically oriented with minimum ages between eighteen and twenty-one, a physical examination, strength test, some written testing, possibly a psychological test, oral interview and United States citizenship.

Community policing by definition is a philosophy, one that differs from past police practices in its application. It is proactive, with a high amount of interactive and positive contact with citizens. It will require different qualifications than traditional policing. In a written piece published by the Community Policing Consortium, by Doctor William Bloss (1999) of the Citadel, Doctor Bloss notes substantial reasons for a demand driven new model for recruitment:

When recruiting, the law enforcement agency must have a realistic and clear vision of the personnel attributes most desirable for meeting programmatic and community needs. Consideration must be given to compatibility with the agency's needs, objectives and goals.

The traits sought by community policing tend to go beyond the cursory requirements of basic aptitude, fitness, appropriate background and trainability, which are of greatest importance to traditional-model agencies. Candidates should possess a propensity for learning and 'self-educating.' Because police training candidates tend to be malleable, it has been traditionally possible to train them in hands-on skills, procedures and policies.

However, a greater challenge for community policing agencies is to select candidates who are not only trainable but have the capacity and flexibility to think analytically, critically and independently as problem solvers. Because of the proactive and interactive nature of community policing, officers who are effective communicators are vital to its success. The shared role of crime prevention and accountability for neighborhood welfare and safety suggests that community police officers must develop objectives and goals jointly with the community. This process requires officers who are not only sensitive to the perspectives of a diverse populace, but who can communicate potential solutions to all participants in the process.

The selection and screening processes must seek to identify the most effective critical thinkers, problem solvers and communicators. Added selection and screening mechanisms to help measure skill levels in these areas should be built into the assessment process. (Bloss, W. P.,1999, [http://www.communitypolicing.org/publications/exchange/e25\\_99/e25bloss](http://www.communitypolicing.org/publications/exchange/e25_99/e25bloss))

In order to further accentuate issues surrounding officer recruitment and furthers the argument for some college experience, In a key observation by the renowned police

researcher and writer David L. Carter, Ph. D, School of Criminal Justice, Michigan State University, Doctor Carter reflects in an article entitled “Human Resource Issues for Community Policing” as part of an Executive Summary Series:

What are the most desirable characteristics of community police officers? In community policing, officers are called upon to be particularly thoughtful, creative problem solvers. They are asked to listen to the concerns of community members, to logically reason out the roots of problems, to identify and research potential answers, to implement solutions, and to assess results.

Education: Preliminary findings suggest that police officers with some exposure to college education have an advantage in performing these tasks. Higher education can provide a framework for the particular tasks associated with community policing, as well as help develop research and reasoning abilities.

Personality: Most importantly, officers who are ethical and responsible are sought for community policing posts. People with a record of using good judgement in their discretionary decisions, while abiding by the do no harm ethical credo, are good candidates.

In addition, the ability to communicate effectively is crucial for community police officers. They must establish rapport with diverse groups in order to resolve problems and disputes. The most important communication skills are an even temper, empathy, helpfulness, and a positive outlook.

#### Policy Implications

The selection process should assess applicants' characteristics and identify the best candidates. A requirement of at least two years of college should be established.

#### RECRUITMENT

The recruitment process must not only identify suitable candidates, it must also be active in promoting the police agency as a good employer. Police administrators identify three main barriers to successful recruitment: 1) law enforcement agencies' salaries and benefit levels are not competitive, 2) few college graduates are drawn to work in local police agencies, 3) very few college-educated minority group members are interested in local law enforcement. Yet, research reveals much evidence to contradict these

presumptions.Carter,D.L.,1997,http://www.cj.msu.edu/~  
people/cp/humres.html)

Doctor Carter brings home the issues of recruitment and accentuates the two-year college requirement and reasonable at entry level. This level should also be viewed as an economical approach as well. Then, in addressing the issue of minority recruiting and educated minority candidates he makes a positive note:

Finally, although there is a smaller pool of college-educated law enforcement candidates who are minority group members, research indicates that a significant proportion of minority members in college are enrolled in the social sciences--many are in criminal justice programs.

(Carter, D. L., 1997, <http://www.cj.msu.edu/~people/cp/humres.html>)

In an address presented to a forum at the Center for Research in Law and Justice, University of Illinois Chicago, by Doctor James Travis (1995), Director of the National Institute of Justice, Dr. Travis advocating for college education for police officers Director Travis stated:

The issue of education as it relates to the police is a long-standing one -- in fact, of longer standing than some might think. The most familiar accounting of the roots of the issue takes us back to the 1960's, to the various blue ribbon commissions established partly in response to the misconduct of some police officers during the urban riots of the time and the consequent need for greater

professionalization. We all know that one of the recommendations of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, established in 1967, was 'that all police personnel with general enforcement powers have baccalaureate degrees. (Travis, J., 1995, <http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij/speeches/police.htm>)

Police education when challenged in the courts resulted in an affirming on the side of higher education. In the year 2000, Dr. Louis Mayo Executive Director, Police Association for College Education (PACE) wrote an open letter to all chiefs of police and government officials advocating a strong national approach for elevating the education criteria for police officers. Dr. Mayo cited:

The Federal Courts (including the U.S. Supreme Court by denying certiorari) have ruled on the duties and requirements to be a competent police officer. Failure to make the correct discretionary decision can have severe results including the unnecessary loss of life, analogous to the responsibility of a commercial airline pilot. 'Thus, police officers are left with their more essential task which includes social control in a period of increasing social turmoil, preservation of our constitutional guarantees, and exercise of the broadest discretion - sometimes involving life and death decisions -of any government service. The need for police officers who are intelligent, articulate, mature, and

knowledgeable about social and political conditions is apparent. (A) college education develops and imparts the requisite level of knowledge.' (Davis v. Dallas) (Emphasis added) 777 F. 2d 205 (6th Cir.1985, Certiorari denied to Supreme Court May 19, 1986.) (Mayo, L. A., 2000, <http://www.police-association.org/pace1/Main.aspx>)

Doctor Mayo in his open letter reaffirms the need and right for demanding college education when hiring police officers. The research and even the courts have weighed in on the issue and yet the system has not embraced the idea in total. Certainly it would be easy for the government to attach the requirement to their grant money as they have to many other initiatives.

Dr. Jeremy Travis (1995), Director of the National Institute of Justice, U.S. Department of Justice, indicates a new officer profile and further notes education and training changes requiring a new focus and acceptance:

Change requires a commensurate response, and not just in the technology used to deal with whatever way the crime problem manifests itself. If the broader goal is better policing, and higher education becomes only one means toward that end, it would be to our advantage to look in a lot of directions to find other means, other models. So I would like to broaden our vision of the



education process, and to suggest 'inventorying' and rethinking the multiple components of that process -- in the way education/training is structured, in the curricula, in the way we seek to attract recruits, in the way we build leadership, in the way we 'deliver' education/training 'products,' and so on. This exploration itself has to be an ongoing process, a continuous pursuit of new methods and structures to meet new needs. It is going to further blur the distinction between education and training.

Change in the academies. Departments adopting or considering adopting community policing may feel the college-educated officer is the preferred candidate. But they may also want to explore additional options that shape the experiences of recruits. The New Haven, Connecticut, Police Department is an example of an agency that has taken this latter route. It has adopted a radically new education model.

The model has several components: Abandonment of the paramilitary structure of the academy and its replacement with one that more closely resembles an institution of higher education. Recruits no longer wear uniforms, and the academy (renamed the 'Division of Training and Education')

is headed by a civilian director.

A refocusing of the curriculum -- arguably a more important change. Formerly the emphasis was on rigorous physical training, with frequent use of the familiar battleground metaphors. Now all training centers on community policing, and the emphasis is on problem-solving, conflict resolution, diversity training, , bias and hate crimes, HIV-AIDS, stress, and violence against and acquiring organizational skills. Previously, only the minimum State requirements were taught. Now, recruits study such problems as sexual harassment women.(Travis, 1995, J.,<http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij/speeches/police.htm>)

### **2.13 REVERSALS BY BUREAUCRATS**

The fact that this very progressive issue remains in a state of modified confusion is not surprising. After the citing of New Haven, Connecticut as a model in forward movement, an interesting almost pathetic reversal occurs. Connecticut a state sometimes referred to as a “belwether” state received a fair amount of negative publicity when a large Connecticut city denied access to an open police position because the applicant had placed too high on the police entry test. Their excuse or rationale was that the applicant, essentially was too smart.

The Associated Press in a followup-article to the original story noted: A man whose bid to become a police officer was rejected after he scored too high on an intelligence test has lost an appeal in his federal lawsuit against the city. The 2nd U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals in New York upheld a lower court's decision that the city did not discriminate against Robert Jordan because the same standards were applied to everyone who took the test. 'This kind of puts an official face on discrimination in America against people of a certain class, Jordan said today from his Waterford home. 'I maintain you have no more control over your basic intelligence than your eye color or your gender or anything else. He said he does not plan to take any further legal action. Jordan, a 49-year-old college graduate, took the exam in 1996 and scored 33 points, the equivalent of an IQ of 125. But New London police interviewed only candidates who scored 20 to 27, on the theory that those who scored too high could get bored with police work and leave soon after undergoing costly training. (Associated, 2000, <http://abcnews.go.com/sections/us/DailyNews/toosmart000908.html>)

The amazing mixing of messages experienced in the United States and the manipulation of views by interest groups may very well hold back progress in this area of policing. Human resource departments without any line officer experience may make arbitrary decisions avoiding what police research may suggest. The public, on the other hand, whether

informed or not, has its own perceptions of it's police officers and how they feel they should be qualified.

Ms. Catherine Cole's, Research Associate with the Program in Criminal Justice Policy and Management at the John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University, conducted a review of the Savannah Georgia Police Department outlining their approach to a variety of issues. The most disturbing of these moves officer criteria from a one-year college minimum to the more traditional high school or G.E.D. test even-though their list of applicants was full, their attempt at community policing had mixed results: This was interesting in that the report also indicated that a former chief during the 70's had a PHD and encouraging recruitment of college educated officers even during that early time. The study adds:

The Department has recently begun to conduct a review and re-evaluation of past recruitment criteria, in part by looking at individuals previously hired and assessing whether they actually met the needs of the community and the Department. Behind this action lies the belief that adopting COP and POP requires SPD to develop new recruitment criteria.

Prior to implementing COP, the Department's selection process focused primarily on traditional police values such as 'integrity, stamina, and individual courage.' After implementing COP and POP, the Department began to look for potential officers who were already thinking about community-oriented policing. In the

current interviewing process, applicants are asked questions to determine whether they have an understanding of what community-oriented policing is, and its importance; attention is paid to whether they possess skills in social interaction and problem-solving.

For a few years in the mid-90's, applicants were required to have one year of college. However, the City's Human Resources Department eliminated this requirement around 1996, concluding that college-level education was not a necessary pre-requisite to becoming a police officer. Minimum training and qualifications were returned to the pre-COP levels: a high school diploma or equivalent, Georgia P.O.S.T. certification, and age of 21 years.

The Department has generally maintained a register of about 300 applicants in a pool that could be drawn upon for new hires whenever officers are lost, so recruiting has not usually been difficult. A conscientious effort is made to recruit minorities and women: in a city with a 51% minority population, sworn personnel are 44% minority and females comprise 12% of sworn officers.

(Coles, C., 1999, [http://www.ncjrs.org/nij/cops\\_casestudy/savanna2.html](http://www.ncjrs.org/nij/cops_casestudy/savanna2.html))

Human resource departments represent a force to be reckoned with. Decisions having a major impact on agencies should not be made arbitrarily and an applicant pool may only suggest a political expedient. The long term goals of well educated officers moving from the beat to the front office cannot be facilitated without encouragement at the entry level. Politics and political expedience has a history of injury when found in a close association with police.

Change should be validated, tested and then retested for a confirmation of validity.

As we look at other statements about the police hiring we learn that in some cases the chief has little input on who is to be hired, at least in civil service agencies. Dantzker (1995) writes:

Police executives whose agency is under civil service are no longer allowed any input in who is hired. The lack of sufficient funding has also forced many police agencies to stop active recruiting. Instead, they must now rely on the city personnel office to do the initial attracting and testing of applicants. Since personnel departments have a variety of city departments to recruit for and limited funds with which to do so, policing needs do not always receive the attention necessary to recruit candidates. In many instances, a notice on a bulletin board outside the personnel office or an advertisement in the local newspaper is the extent of the recruitment effort. This may limit the number of qualified applicants. Those agencies that control and maintain their own recruiters have a tremendous advantage over less fortunate agencies. (Dantzker, M. L., 1995, pp. 212-214)

## **2.14 REVERSING BUREAUCRATIC TRENDS**

The importance of an aggressive recruitment program featuring proper hiring results is certainly at the top of any chief administrator's list of priorities. Such aggressive recruitment actions depicting how to use certain personnel systems as a benefit were noted in a case study for Harvard University's, John F. Kennedy School of Government, Program in

Criminal Justice Policy and Management, for the Urban Institute, by researcher David Thatcher (1997). Thatcher, quoting Deputy Chief Coker of the Knoxville, Tennessee Police Department notes:

Finally, the department has used personnel systems to influence what type of people work for the agency to begin with. First, as described above, turnover definitely fed into the new administration's change efforts. Deputy Chief Coker explains: "We had decided that after a while, you can only leave the door open for change for so long and you're either for it or against. And if you're against it, it's probably time to go on and look at a different opportunity."

History conspired with the administration to make turnover a feasible strategy for change: Knoxville had annexed an enormous amount of territory around 1963, and the many new hires the department took on at that time were reaching the 25-year retirement mark when Keith took over the department. But retirements were only half of the equation between turnover and change: The other half concerned how the department would fill its newly-vacant positions (and, for that matter, the many new positions the department added in the years after Keith took over the KPD). To this end, the department revamped its hiring policies and practices in order to bring in new officers who would contribute to the agency's changing mission.

For example, minority hiring became an important area of concern, and the KPD stepped-up its recruitment efforts by enlisting the help of community leaders (such as area pastors or representatives from the Urban League) and

by contacting minority colleges throughout the nation (the department had traditionally recruited primarily from the state of Tennessee). As a result, the number of minorities in the KPD's ranks has doubled since 1989, though the agency recognizes that it still has more work to do, as its makeup does not completely reflect the community it polices. (Thacher, D.,1997, [http://www.ncjrs.org/nij/cops\\_casestudy/knoxvil2.html](http://www.ncjrs.org/nij/cops_casestudy/knoxvil2.html))

Dr. William Rohe makes key observations during his research study of North Carolina, community police agencies. As an member of the study team, this researcher fully understands the importance of the statements quoted here, showing the traditionally valued traits and some of the differing skills necessary for community policing:

Prior to training, an integral component to community policing is recruiting the right kind of person. Traditionally, ideal officers tended to be distant and impersonal in their dealing with community residents, followed rules and procedures, and were, rightly or wrongly, perceived by some segments of society as overly aggressive in their use of force. Departments also tended to hire people who liked to make arrests, write tickets, and, in general, act aggressively toward suspects. These were people who enjoyed the adventure of police work.

A different set of skills is needed, however, for community policing. For example, COP requires good communications skills, the capability for developing rapport with local residents, and the ability to conceive innovative



solutions to local problems. Should good communication and social skills be a precondition of employment or should training target any deficiencies after hiring? Most of the chiefs in this study contend that a 'good' hire is someone who at least is willing to acquire the skills and knowledge necessary for COP. The chiefs also like recruits who are willing to take risks and rock the boat when attempting to solve local problems. (Rohe, W. M., et al, 1996, p. 119)

As researcher after researcher proposes the importance of hiring and the many issues political and otherwise that surround it, a clear view from the field is cited. This work was written by a chief for the Community Police Consortium, Community Police Exchange, by Chief Bill Whitworth (1999) of Richmond, Texas Police Department. The chief brings a very insightful field perspective with his comments, one that is featured in this research:

Under the community policing philosophy the model employee would seem to be an individual that can maintain order, operate under stress and at the same time relate to the community with understanding and concern. The questions for agency administrators are: Where do we find such people and how do we evaluate them as applicants? Is the military still the best place to recruit current law enforcement employees?

Are universities providing the type of people that are interested in becoming community policing officers? Is there a need for a physical agility exam that excludes 60 percent of all applicants? Is there a need to be a trained social worker to properly perform community policing activities? I do not presume to

have the answers to these questions. I do however, think that many agencies have not updated their recruitment and hiring practices, and are therefore negatively affecting their ability to deliver quality community policing services to their communities. If agencies are still hiring under the policies developed when traditional policing was the accepted model, the best applicants for a community policing agency may be passed over. We as the law enforcement profession need to conduct studies to look at current model employees who are successfully handling the wide range of responsibilities that a community policing officer must perform well. (Whitworth, B., 1999, pp.1-14,[http://www.communitypolicing.org/publications/exchange/e25\\_99/e25whitw.htm](http://www.communitypolicing.org/publications/exchange/e25_99/e25whitw.htm) )

Chief Whitworth validates the absolute need for continued work by researchers in police science and in other related sciences. Today, after reviewing many police hiring and training practices and after sampling respondents attitudes illustrated during this study, the researcher believes that we have reached a crossroad similar to our experience in 1982. Dr. Rhonda K. DeLong (1999) of Indiana University, South Bend Indiana in a study of the issue of police recruiting in Lawrence, Michigan ponders several possibilities for future candidate officer screening. Writing her observations for the Community Police Exchange, Doctor DeLong cites traditional and nontraditional views of recruitment and recruiting philosophy and addresses some shortfall issues. Lastly, and pertinent to this study, Doctor DeLong mentions a post-secondary education goal, development of critical thinking skills:

Traditional recruitment and selection practices may overlook methods that would help identify suitable community policing candidates. Typically, police

departments go through a set of testing procedures designed to 'weed out' unsuitable candidates.

Although this process serves to narrow the applicant pool, it may not isolate those candidates who have adopted the community policing philosophy. The selection process may be better served by seeking to identify the 'good' candidates rather than identifying those who are not appropriate for the job. Written tests frequently rely on observational skills as well as memorization of items viewed on a test page (license plate numbers, descriptions of autos, people, street names, etc.). While these are all important skills for an officer

to have, other skills such as identifying and solving community problems are essential to successful community policing. Incorporating problem-solving scenarios would improve the selection process because it would help identify those individuals who have developed critical-thinking skills along with having a desire to serve the community. (DeLong, R.K., 1999, <http://www.communitypolicing.org/publications/exchange/e2599/e25delong.htm>)

## **2.15 MINORITY AND WOMEN OFFICERS**

The last issue to be dealt with in the area of personnel recruitment is that of hiring minority and female officers. Both have historically been the focus of heated debates and federal demands over the years. Community policing may open doors for both groups as police non-criminal involvement with citizens increases. If correctly viewed, citizens expectations may force departments to redesign hiring standards, opening the door for access by more females and minority candidates.

The Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA) is responsible for conducting and funding research and many other criminal justice oriented issues. Their works are appropriately quoted in this

study and deal with the hiring of women and minorities and the inappropriate stereotyping of what an officer represents. The study cites:

Problems recruiting women and minorities are even more severe and represent major challenges of most agencies. In order to recruit more women into policing, law enforcement agencies must overcome the common perception that policing is a 'male-oriented profession' limited to duties that require only physical strength. Movies and television programs frequently show law enforcement officers in high-speed pursuits, fistfights, shoot-outs, hostage situations, and other highly dramatic situations. The reality is that day-to-day law enforcement work is seldom this eventful. Yet this stereotype of law enforcement creates serious problems for departments interested in recruiting women and men more interested in a community-oriented career. Indeed, the media stereotype of police officers contributes enormously to dissuading people who would make excellent officers under a community-policing model from pursuing a career in law enforcement. Because many women are not drawn to 'use of force' as a style of law enforcement they often do not apply for jobs with law enforcement, agencies-even though in reality they have the potential to perform as well as male officers.

Defining the 'Ideal' Officer :Some law enforcement agencies have failed to re-define skills, experience, and background qualifications they are seeking in law enforcement officers to reflect contemporary community policing values. This has seriously compromised recruiting and hiring practices in those

agencies. In other words, law enforcement agencies are frequently looking for the 'wrong' type of person in the 'wrong' types of places.' (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2000, p. 281, <http://www.ncjrs.org/txtfiles1/bja/185235.txt>)

Interestingly the United States is not the only country that has had problems in recruiting women or treating them fairly. Although affirmative action has leveled the playing field to some extent, the real or imagined issue of police-image remains, and will keep many viable candidates away. (Studies have shown women and minorities in policing generally have a higher percentage of years in college than do their white male counterparts.)

In order to recruit the best and brightest, the traditional approach to policing as well as the Hollywood hyped mystique would have to change. Wilkinson and Froyland (1996) writing for Crime and Justice International on women in Australian policing note:

In spite of the fact that the participation of women in policing is a fairly recent phenomenon, it now seems absurd that their value could have been doubted for so long. Whether their contribution is the same as that of their male counterparts or different is academic. The important point is that they have a significant contribution to make to policing modern Australian communities. Legislation has made the participation of women in policing possible but that participation is still limited. It is counterproductive to look for blame for this but as the contribution of women is recognized it would be productive to look to ways to overcome the barriers to their full participation in our police services.

The next steps in the maximization of the contribution of women must be system changes, information changes and attitude changes. The actors who can make these possible are the police leaders (of both genders and at all levels of the organization) and the police academics. They have a professional responsibility to address the issues discussed here and together they have the resources to do this. Attitude changes are slightly more difficult but still possible for men and women of goodwill.

To some extent, time alone will assist this process, but time is a slow and costly agent. If police leaders and police academics acknowledge that women have a contribution to make in all aspects of policing in Australia, they can significantly increase both the quantity and the quality of women's contribution by their public support of effective women police.

There is no place in Australian policing for ineffective officers of either gender; the contribution to be made by token women is debatable but the potential contribution of carefully selected and well trained women is enormous. This will only be achieved by significant effort on the part of every officer in a position of leadership. (Wilkinson, and Froyland, 1996, <http://158.135.23.21/cjcweb/college/cji/index.cfm?ID=490>)

Chief Penny Harrington (1999), Director for the National Center for Women and Policing and highly regarded author, administrator and experienced line officer writes:

To often, we attempt to use outdated job descriptions and selection procedures to hire officers for an entirely different type of policing. Another obstacle to recruiting women is the way policing is portrayed in movies and television shows. Women are not generally attracted to a job that requires a lot of shooting, killing, fighting and high-speed car chases. Those of us in law enforcement know that these types of activities are a small part of the actual job of a police officer. Our challenge is to educate the public about the real job of police officers--community service and problem solving. A comprehensive recruitment plan must be developed and a diverse recruiting team selected to achieve the department's goals. No matter how small the recruiting budget, there are innovative ways to increase the numbers of women officers.

Obstacles that eliminate women during the selection process must be examined for gender bias and either changed or removed. The academy training program must be examined to determine that the correct training is occurring and that women are given an equal opportunity to succeed. And, the field training program must be examined to eliminate any biases against women recruits. This may seem like a daunting challenge. But it is not an impossible task. Many agencies have been able to recruit and retain larger numbers of women. Pittsburgh, Washington Metropolitan, Philadelphia, Detroit, Metro-Dade, Madison and Toledo police agencies each has more than 20 percent women.

Agencies wishing to increase the representation of females can turn to our organization, which has been studying issues of women in policing. Our annual conference addresses recruiting and retention of women police officers in addition to other important issues. We also are in the process of developing a 'self-assessment guide' for law enforcement agencies to use in identifying and eliminating obstacles to hiring more female officers. If community policing is your goal, then having more women on the force is just the right thing to do.

(Harrington, P., 1999, p. 15 [http://www.communitypolicing.org/publications/exchange/e25\\_99/e25harri.htm](http://www.communitypolicing.org/publications/exchange/e25_99/e25harri.htm))

Minority recruitment has also been difficult. Affirmative action has worked here as well; however, it does not represent the ultimate solution. The courts have been instrumental in resolving many of the legal issues including those of a qualitative nature involving education. In particular, a legal issue that has served to validate standards used for police hiring and retention, is found in *Davis v The City of Dallas*. This controversial case set the stage for revised hiring criteria, and helped to set what was considered reasonable and enforceable standards.

The case: *Davis v. City of Dallas* 777 F .2d 205 (5th Cir. 1985) The Dallas Police Department required that applicants meet certain criteria for positions on its police force. One rule was directed at education. The candidate was to have completed 45 semester hours with at least a "C" average. The credit was to have been obtained at an accredited post secondary institution. The candidate was also required to be drug free, complete the



training academy and the field training process prior to certification. In *Davis v. The City of Dallas*, the court upheld the pre-employment requirements, which included certification of 45 hours of college education, citing many recommendations made by various commissions from 1931 to the present advocating for higher education as a Bona Fide Occupational Qualification (BFOQ). Evidence at the trial established several significant studies outlining higher performance by college educated officers. Davis, who was a minority candidate, was denied by the court and did not receive a position.

## **2. 16 CONCLUSION**

In concluding this chapter we find that our study of policing in the United States has undergone a supposed major change. The police have been prompted to shift their mission from the traditional reactive model to the proactive community policing model.

The importance of the study began to unfold in a way that had been previously unanticipated. Certainly, the coercive nature of policing and the ability of officers to use deadly force, make life and death decisions, diagnose problems and interact with a variety of persons from various cultures will always remain a part of the police function. Given this, it may be reasonable to conclude that members of society cannot be excluded when designing a process for selection of proper persons for police positions. This researcher felt they had to be taken into consideration for the validity this study.

It was reasonable that observations made during this research could show who should

be trained, what needs or expectations of the public should be considered, what levels of selection or training were suitable, and what may need to be changed in the future?

Essentially, the philosophy applied to modern policing has shifted from reactive to proactive, from crime fighter to problem resolver and with this shift, higher expectations of those persons being placed into police officer positions have arisen.

The complexity found in actual job demands and in revised department mission statements has essentially changed the police profile. Selection and training of the community police officer today demands more, and the growing body of community policing literature has generally supported this point. The literature research in this chapter has opened an opportunity for gathering line officers' opinions on the subjects of officer selection, recruitment, and training . It has underscored possible police culture issues and even indicates police training and attitudes toward change have been slow-paced toward change.

Current training may even be adequate for the traditional police mission however, field experts continually note the importance of training and adaptation. It must be assumed when viewed in the community policing context current training may be found to be satisfactory. This notion will be tested in a broader context at a later time in this study, with a focus on its relationship to the emerging mission of community policing.

Lastly, the numbers of contradictions found were illustrative of issues preventing the rapid advancement to full professional status for police officers. The needs expressed by field experts and the findings of notable police and social scientists appear to be easily negated by bureaucrats. Human resource departments arbitrarily change rules, civil service takes away rights of chief administrators and discriminatory practices are used against a candidate considered to smart. The possibility of political expedience being present is appalling and may even provide inadvertent shelter for those resisting change to the traditional form.