# The POLICE in the CALIFORNIA COMMUNITY

# Report of the Attorney General's Advisory Commission on Community-Police Relations

EVELLE J. YOUNGER
ATTORNEY GENERAL
State of California

March 31, 1973

Office of the Attorney General

State of California

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A Report of the Attorney General's
Advisory Commission on Community-Police Relations

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March 30, 1973

The Honorable Bob Moretti
Speaker of the Assembly
State Capitol
Sacramento, California 95814

Dear Mr. Speaker:

In response to House Resolution No. 153 passed by the Assembly in March of 1969 and amended by House Resolution No. 61 of May 20, 1971, I am please to submit this report, The Police in the California Community.

The report has been prepared after more than 16 months of deliberations by the Attorney General's Advisory Commission on Community-Police Relations. It reflects a comprehensive examination of community and police relationships throughout the state.

The report offers no easy answers to what is truly a complex social problem. It does make a number of recommendations which can be applied to deal with some aspects of community distrust and hostility toward the police. In the final analysis, however, local communities must develop a partnership in which police officer and citizen assume joint responsibilities for preventing crime and for attacking the broad range of problems currently assigned to the police. There are supportive tasks to be performed by agencies at the state level of government, but the majority of the effort must be at the local level.

I am confident that this report provides a basis for such action. Since the Advisory Commission's funding extends through June 30, I have instructed them to address the implementation of as many of the recommendations as appropriate. Should you or the members of the Assembly have any questions about the report, the Advisory Commission and I are at your service.

Sincerely,

Evelle J. Younger
Attorney General

EVELLE J. YOUNGER
ATTORNEY GENERAL

STATE OF CALIFORNIA

OFFICE OF THE ATTORNEY GENERAL
Department of Justice
STATE BUILDING, SAN FRANCISCO 94102

March 23, 1973

The Honorable Evelle J. Younger
Attorney General
600 State Office Building
217 West First Street
Los Angeles, California 90012

Dear General Younger:

On behalf of the Advisory Commission on Community-Police Relations, we are pleased to submit this report of findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

We have developed a report we believe serves the several functions of setting forth the causal and symptomatic aspects of police and community distrust, lack of confidence, and hostility; providing indications of strategies which may, with modification to meet local conditions, be applied to improve conditions; and serving as a resource document to teachers, trainers, planners and others interested in understanding what is unquestionably a complex social problem. In submitting this report we call upon the many dedicated law enforcement officers, government officials, and citizens who are continuously endeavoring to control crime and to insure the provision of an effective range of police services to consider it carefully. It offers no panacea for the negative feelings which can develop between police and citizens. It does, however, provide the foundation for better understanding the many factors which are a part of the community-police relationship.

Responsibility for developing and maintaining a desirable level of trust and cooperation between police and public rests at the community level. Elected officials, law enforcement officers, and all manners of citizens must share in this responsibility. We are convinced that no less an effort will succeed, and we recommend it as the basis for all laws that this report suggests.

In accordance with your instructions, we are continuing our research effort in a number of areas. As results of this research become available between now and the expiration of our project on June 30, we will issue additional appropriate reports.

In closing I would like to extend the appreciation of the Advisory Commission and staff to you, to the members of the Department of Justice and to the concerned public officials and private citizens from throughout California who have assisted us. The cooperation we have received convinces us of the value of our efforts.

Sincerely,

Stanley P. Hebert

STANLEY P. HEBERT
Chairman
Attorney General's Advisory
Commission on Community-Police Relations



ATTORNEY GENERAL'S ADVISORY COMMISSION

ON

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## Foreword

House resolution No. 153, passed by the California State Assembly on March 28, 1969, and amended by House Resolution No. 61 of May 20, 1971, directs the Attorney General of the State of California "to study the subject of police and community relations within the state," such study to include an "analysis of the expense, scope, degree, and cause of the distrust and lack of confidence between the police and certain groups of citizens throughout California, an evaluation of the effect of such distrust and lack of confidence, and a review of proposals for the improvement of police-community relations" in the State (see Appendix A for the full text of the resolutions).

Attorney General Evelle J. Younger appointed 26 persons representing the criminal justice system, ethnic and racial minority groups, higher education, and the general public to an Advisory Commission on Community-Police Relations to oversee this study and to prepare a report for his consideration (see Appendix B for a list of the members of the Advisory Commission and their affiliations). The Advisory Commission has conducted a year-long examination of the many facets of the complex set of relationships which can exist between police officers and citizens in California (Appendix C outlines the research efforts in detail). This report is the culmination of that research.

The Advisory Commission does not anticipate that the report will elicit universal acceptance. It deals with a controversial and often emotional subject. Despite this, however, the information-gathering efforts of the Advisory Commission during the past year have met with a full measure of cooperation from the California law enforcement profession, from general units of government, and from the many semi-official and private community groups contacted. This cooperation has indeed been gratifying. To those persons who provided information and assistance so willingly, the Advisory Commission extends its appreciation. It is hoped that this report will serve them well in their efforts to forge a meaningful and cooperative community-police relationship.



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# Chapter 1

## INTRODUCTION

This report could start with a long series of startling statements about the prevalence of crime in our society, the appalling loss of life and property which crime causes, the many inadequacies of the system we have designed for preventing and controlling crime, and the impact these things in concert have on the quality of life available to our citizens. By so doing, however, we would only be repeating statements made in a series of similar documents dating from the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice in 1967 and culminating most recently in a January report by the National Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. In the intervening years, there have been other reports, focusing on other subjects, but including the toll of crime.

This report does not have such a beginning because the people of California know only too well the costs of crime and disorder. Our studies illustrate this vividly in the 38 percent of California adults who spontaneously mentioned a crime-related issue as the most pressing problem facing the community in early 1972 (see Chapter 3). More recent data reaffirm this concern with crime; 35 percent of the persons interviewed for the California Poll in February of this year once again chose crime as our most pressing problem.[1]

Certainly, we are as concerned about the toll of crime as anyone else. It is addressed throughout the report. But crime itself is not the specific focus of our research nor our conclusions. Rather, we address a less universal but equally compelling concern, namely: the relationship between our police--the most prevalent and one of the most important agencies of local government--and the communities they serve.

Few relationships between government and governed are more significant than that between police officer and citizen. Beyond the crime-related services which police provide in the community, there lie much broader responsibilities. They include many of the functions which are essential to our society's well-being. The people rely upon and call upon the police for many more services than just those arising from criminal acts.

Given these facts, which are discussed in considerable detail in other chapters, it is crucial to study and to understand the relationship between policeman and citizen. It is even moreso given the ambivalence with which the community regards the police. As the National Commission on Standards and Goals says, "(T)he police are greatly loved, greatly hated, critically important..."[2] The critical importance is accepted and implicit throughout this report. The hate and the love are the reasons for its writing.



## The Report

This written report is the culmination of many months of effort by the Attorney General's Advisory Commission on Community-Police Relations. It represents the distillation of research and sets forth conclusions and recommendations regarding community and police relations in California today.

The report is intended to serve a number of purposes. It is hoped, for example, that it can serve as the stimulus for local communities to examine their own community-police relationships. It provides an analytical framework which can be applied to analyze the local scene.

Further, the report is intended to supplement training and teaching around the State. While its treatment of the subject is not exhaustive, it does provide a framework which accommodates a broad range of factors impinging on citizen and police relations. In concert with other, more specific texts, the report should provide considerable discussion material.

Beyond these purposes, this report serves as testimony to the many efforts being put forth by the California police profession and by countless individuals and community groups who wish to promote positive citizen-police relationships. Although it is inherent in the nature of a report such as this to accent the negative, this emphasis must never overshadow the positive efforts being made. This report is intended to further support such efforts.

## The Advisory Commission

When the current Attorney General assumed the responsibility for completing a study of community and police relations, an advisory group was already in existence. It was comprised of 52 members representing law enforcement, the courts, general government, ethnic and racial minorities, higher education, and the general public. This group was reconstituted into a smaller, 25-member Advisory Commission on Community-Police Relations. The Attorney General charged this Advisory Commission with conducting a comprehensive study in accordance with the instructions of the California Assembly.

The Assembly provided an initial appropriation to fund the study. This appropriation was supplemented by funds provided by the California Council on Criminal Justice and by appropriate assistance from the Department of Justice's Crime Prevention Unit.

The Advisory Commission has had a full-time professional staff throughout its efforts. The staff has been supplemented by consultants as well as internal support from the Department of Justice and from agencies represented by the various members of the Advisory Commission. Administratively located in the Los Angeles Office of the Attorney General, the staff and Commissioners have traveled extensively throughout California in gathering data.



The Advisory Commission itself is divided into six task forces, each concerned with a specialized subject. The task forces include: Minority Police Officer; Citizen Complaint Process; Police Policy-Making Process; Campus and Youth; News Media; and Community Dynamics. Task Force meetings have been held to supplement those of the full Advisory Commission. While the Commission has been responsible for reviewing and analyzing data and passing on conclusions and recommendations, basic responsibility for the design and conduct of specific research efforts has been that of the professional staff.

## Terms and Definitions

Both the terms "community" and "police" are ambiguous, yet they form the basis for this effort. It has been important to the Advisory Commission to develop definitions of these terms to ensure consistency of interpretation. These definitions are set forth here to facilitate the use of the report.

Community, as used most often in the report, refers to the people served by a police agency. It is not restricted by jurisdictional boundaries nor by a specific time frame.

Publics are found in every community. They are used here to indicate the many diverse groups--racial/ethnic groups, business

interests, college students, school teachers, and so forth--who comprise the larger community. The police serve these publics and are perceived by citizens who regard themselves as members of these publics.

The jurisdiction is the legally constituted governmental entity which contains the police agency, usually a city, county, or the state.

Police refers to public law enforcement agencies in California which provide uniformed law enforcement services. The term is used generally throughout the report to refer to municipal police agencies, county sheriff's departments, and, where appropriate, the California Highway Patrol. The report in no way refers to federal police agencies or to private police agencies.

Police agency or police department refers to one of the 429 public law enforcement units in California providing uniformed police services. For analytical purposes, these agencies have been divided into nine categories according to the number of sworn police personnel they employ.

Community-police relations, the ultimate focus of this report, is defined in detail in Chapter 2.



Police Agencies by Size

Category

| Category | Number of Sworn Employees |
|---|---|
| A | 1-15 |
| B | 16-25 |
| C | 26-50 |
| D | 51-100 |
| E | 101-175 |
| F | 176-250 |
| G | 251-500 |
| H | 501-750 |
| I | 751-Over* |

*Five agencies included within this category are considered to be "unique." They are the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department, the Los Angeles Police Department, the San Diego Police Department, the San Francisco Police Department, and the California Highway Patrol.

## Summary of Findings

It is both difficult and perhaps a bit dangerous to abstract specific findings and recommendations from the body of the report for inclusion here. The complexity of community and police relationships which are in a continually dynamic state precludes any simple explanations or answers. We therefore caution the reader to consider fully the context from which the following material is drawn before arriving at any conclusions about its accuracy or appropriateness.

The basic conclusion of the Advisory Commission, and that which underlies the entire report, is that community and police relationships can be neither understood nor enhanced by focusing solely on surface, symptomatic behavior as has been the tendency in the past. Such things as alleged police brutality, harassment of certain segments of the community, and differential provision of police services, to the extent that they occur, reflect deeper and more pervasive problems which must be addressed. Thus, although we may react against the surface problems, truly effective remedies must be directed at other targets. The best way to attack these targets is through structuring the police role in the community in such a fashion that it includes formally identifying the broad range of problems which police encounter and aids in mobilizing effective responses to the problems so identified. The Advisory Commission develops this concept, referred to as "community resource development," in Chapter 13.

We have arrived at this basic conclusion via a circuitous route which started with the traditional symptomatic behaviors and traced their origins and ramifications. It became quickly obvious that there is no uniform attitude toward the police among the general population or even among particular subpopulations. Rather, attitudes, and the relationships upon which they have impact, vary. Advisory Commission Research, reported in Chapter 3, indicates that the vast



majority of the population, including all racial-ethnic groups studied, regard the police favorably. Over 70 percent of the general population think the police are doing a good or excellent job. Despite this general attitude, there is some deviation when age, race, and ethnic background are considered. For example, youth tend to evaluate the police less favorably than do adults. While the majority of both Black and Spanish-surname citizens continue to regard the police as doing a good or excellent job, a substantial portion feel differently. Members of these minority publics are dissatisfied with the job being done by the police in greater proportions than those of the majority public.

Given these facts, we have constructed an analytical framework which accommodates the wide divergence in community attitudes and in relationships which exist in California. Common elements which bind the police to all segments of the community have been identified. Basically, the function of the police as a political unit (political because it is part of government, not in the partisan sense), as well as the nature of the social and law enforcement functions which they perform provide the common themes which connect all citizen-police contacts.

Three dimensions of the community-police relationship identified in Chapter 2, reflect these thematic elements. They are:

(1) the determination of what services the police provide in any community; (2) the determination of how these services will be provided by the police; and (3) the means by which the police and members of the community resolve common problems. Each of these dimensions relates to the political nature of the police mission; they likewise accommodate the full range of services provided by the police. And, finally, they allow focusing on both individual and agency behavior, which, in the final analysis determines citizen and police relationships.

Since the way citizens and police officers behave toward one another is the focus of this study, it is important to understand how behavior is determined. While it is impossible to consider all factors influencing police and citizen behavior, the most crucial have been identified and are discussed in some detail in succeeding chapters. Most of the analysis focuses on the police side of the relationship. It is obviously easier to study the police, since in numbers and accessibility they constitute a much more manageable research subject than the general population. Beyond this, however, the police have responsibility as a government agency to ensure proper performance by their personnel. To do this, they have created a number of managerial techniques and mechanisms which are the basis of many recommendations for changes which this report develops. The community is not ignored, however. Citizens



bear a major share of the responsibility for preventing and controlling crime and for enhancing relationships with police agencies in any community. The citizen role in determining community-police relationships is analyzed and discussed in conjunction with the consideration of the law enforcement aspects.

To accommodate all of these factors in a uniform fashion, we have focused on the police role, how it is developed and how it is maintained. As Chapter 5 indicates, we have found that the police are expected to respond to a wide variety of expectations coming from various segments of the population. These expectations are often contradictory or mutually exclusive. Thus, the police officer and, at a higher level, the police agency must resolve these conflicting expectations and somehow develop their official responses to community problems. These responses are articulated through the behavior of individual police officers as they perform their duties. The Advisory Commission has found that it is in the resolution of these conflicting demands that most problems of community-police relations have their roots. It is less a matter of the specific, symptomatic behaviors which we cited earlier and more a matter of the ways in which the three political questions noted above are answered.

These three questions are addressed by considering the major mechanisms which the police have developed to determine and control officer behavior. Those considered in greatest detail are the policy-making process, the citizen complaint and grievance resolution process, the training process, and the formal community-police

relations process as practiced by police agencies. Also addressed are the various institutional forces in the community which impinge on citizen and police relationships.

Policy Making

Chapter 8 discusses the "Development and Articulation of Policy" and its impact on community-police relationships. Policies are the broad general guidelines which should set forth in writing the philosophy, goals, and role of the police agency. Properly developed and clearly articulated policies provide both the officer and the members of the community with standards against which behavior may be measured. This is extremely important, for unless such standards exist, it is difficult to determine whether current practices are adequately meeting community needs. The development of policy should provide the opportunity for police administrators, line police officers, local government officials, and members of significant publics in the community to determine and judge the appropriateness of the police role.

The Advisory Commission has found that there are many shortcomings both in current policies developed by the police and in the mechanisms for developing those policies. In many cases, law enforcement administrators have not set out policies to cover many of the sensitive areas in which police provide services (specific citations of existence of policy are made in Chapter 8). In addition to



the lack of policy covering certain areas, there is no uniformity of interpretation of policies within a given police agency. When policies are developed, the process is generally restricted to the police agency with little involvement of persons outside the police agency.

Considering the importance of policies as the foundation of all police performance, the Advisory Commission recommends a number of specific changes in regard to their formulation. In essence, the recommendations attempt to ensure that policies are in fact developed; that there is wide participation in their development, or at least in their review; and that they are uniformly interpreted throughout the agency. The policy development process has practical benefits for the professional police agency as well as for the various publics being served.

Providing Avenues for Citizen Complaints

A second mechanism provided by police agencies to maximize control of their operations is the citizen complaint process. Specifically, this is a means for resolving unsatisfactory police-citizen contacts. It allows a citizen who feels he has been wronged by a police officer in the official performance of his duties to seek action against that officer. In this sense, it provides a valuable check on police performance and provides an indication to the police

agency of the appropriateness of its tactics.

The Advisory Commission concludes that the most effective method for overcoming problems associated with perceived or actual police misconduct is through preventive measures applied during recruitment, selection, training, evaluating, and re-training law enforcement personnel. The Advisory Commission further concludes, however, that these mechanisms are not always successful; additional mechanisms, such as the citizen complaint process, are indicated.

The complaint process is indeed a sensitive subject, clouded by considerable emotionalism. Research indicates a significant level of public skepticism about the fairness, thoroughness, and objectivity of current mechanisms. This skepticism is not restricted to the minority publics (see Chapters 3 and 9).

Based upon the importance of a sound complaint process to attaining a degree of community trust and confidence in the police as well as upon its importance as a police management tool, the Advisory Commission recognizes a need to take steps to ensure that it operates fairly and to ensure that the community perceives it so.

Research suggests that the most important steps which can be taken to accomplish these objectives relate to increasing the visibility of certain aspects of the complaint process. For example, complainants are often not adequately informed about the status of actions they may have initiated; even at the conclusion of an investigation of a charge of misconduct, the complainant often receives



only the most cursory explanation of what action was taken by the agency. This does little to dispel beliefs that the police are less than objective in their handling of such matters. It is important that the police agency make efforts to inform complainants as fully as possible about the progress and ultimate disposition of their cases.

Beyond this, law enforcement can take steps to provide other assurances to members of the public that the internal disciplinary machinery of the agency is working well. Publication of disciplinary actions--not in specifics, but to indicate they are in fact being taken--is one means of accomplishing this. There is no practical external way that police conduct can be regulated. It must remain an internal process, but the community's interest in its smooth functioning should be accommodated.

## Police Training and Education

This report spends a considerable amount of time examining police training and education in California. California enjoys the justifiable reputation of being the nation's leader in providing police training. The Advisory Commission has found that the attention paid to training continues. Because training is costly, however, and because its effective application requires particular knowledge and skills, there are many ways in which it can be strengthened.

Many specific recommendations are made in Chapter 10 relating to strengthening law enforcement training and education programs. Basically, they address the need for the local law enforcement agency, as well as the local governing body, to recognize that training is an integral part of the management process. It can ensure that personnel are properly socialized into the police agency and that they have an adequate level of skills to perform necessary tasks. It should further provide machinery through which emerging needs or problems in the community may be accommodated in police operations. Training is a basic adaptive tool the police agency uses to cope with changing service demands.

The Advisory Commission finds that a number of factors can militate against such a use of police training. Limited budgets, lack of trained training officers, and inadequately developed training plans and courses place many police agencies at a disadvantage in their training efforts. The remedies for these shortcomings are not simple. They require personnel, development of training programs oriented toward local needs, and recognition that training is in essence a problem-solving methodology for the police agency.

The current high regard which California law enforcement holds for training will serve it well in efforts to overcome any shortcomings which exist.



Community-Police Relations

A final internal mechanism which police agencies have adopted to assist in their efforts to adapt to community-based problems is the formal community-police relations concept. Over half of California's law enforcement agencies have either designated a specific officer to be responsible for certain community relations duties, or they have created organizational units for the same purposes. Most of these formal mechanisms have been created since the latter years of the decade of the sixties when violent disturbances rocked much of the country. Police agencies recognized the need to respond to problems which its traditional organizational arrangements were not equipped to address.

Advisory Commission research indicates that community relations efforts have been widespread, both geographically and in terms of the efforts made to deal with various kinds of problems. A number of difficulties are associated with these efforts, however, and they should be considered and corrected. For example, in many instances community relations efforts are mitigated by the fact that there is no widespread agreement as to the purposes of the community relations unit. It is often at a distinct disadvantage in competing for budgetary funds and other resources needed to adequately perform its mission.

Additionally, there seems to be little agreement between the stated goals of community relations units and the tasks performed in attempting to attain these goals. Research indicates a considerable divergence between stated goals, identified target groups, and programs implemented. This often results in a less than effective application of already scarce resources.

Chapter 12 considers in detail community relations as it is currently applied by California law enforcement agencies. No specific recommendations are made for improving current operations. The Advisory Commission concludes that to be truly effective, current community relations efforts need to be broadened and included in the concept of community resource development described in Chapter 13. For those police agencies who wish to analyze their current community relations efforts, however, the discussion in Chapter 12 provides an excellent framework.

Minority Employment in Law Enforcement

The basis of support for policing our society must come from all citizens. Given this basic tenet, it follows that police agencies should be representative of the populations they serve. To be otherwise diminishes their ability to respond empathetically to many community concerns and reinforces the perception held by some segments



of the minority public that law enforcement agencies represent the force of the dominant society and are institutionally designed to preserve the status quo.

The Advisory Commission finds that members of the Black, American Indian, Oriental, and Spanish surname publics are underrepresented in the ranks of law enforcement. Although there are some exceptions, those who are employed in law enforcement do not figure significantly above the rank of sergeant. There are a number of reasons which may explain this under-representation. Some of them are structural and relate to the recruiting standards and testing procedures employed by police agencies. Others are attitudinal and relate to the poor image of law enforcement as a potential profession held by many members of the minority public. Both of these kinds of reasons are underscored by the institutional bias which has existed for many years and which has restricted minority assimilation into many kinds of professional employment.

The Advisory Commission concludes that affirmative action is required to increase the representation of minority citizens in the law enforcement profession. Validation of entrance standards and examinations as well as promotional standards and examinations should be of priority concern. While employment of minorities is not similar to the managerial techniques discussed above, it does provide a sound strategy for overcoming some of the elements of distrust and

hostility which exist between police agencies and certain segments of the community. Chapter 11 addresses the issue of minority employment in considerable detail.

Community Forces

Police officer and citizen do not interact in a vacuum. Their relationships are influenced by a host of factors present in every community which help to determine community and police attitudes as well as to structure the circumstances under which face-to-face contacts occur. Thus, other governmental agencies, the news media, the school system, indigenous community groups, and similar institutions in the community must be examined.

It is important to know, for example, how various segments of the community perceive government's attitude generally toward crime and social problems. Police services are provided in the context of the overall governmental structure, and citizens rightly regard the police as part of that structure. If the general governmental posture toward certain kinds of problems is ambivalent, citizens are likely to regard police efforts to deal with those problems in the same way.

In another area, the school system reaches every youth in a community at some time or another. Young people constitute a primary police client group. It is apparent, then, that the schools can be a powerful influence on young people's attitudes toward the police and toward various issues of right and wrong. Unless this is understood and consciously accommodated in police operations, it is



possible that valuable problem-solving resources will be unused.

Chapter 6 considers in great detail the influences which various community forces have on police relationships with the citizenery. The Advisory Commission must conclude that the responsibility for the ultimate state of community and police relations extends across the broad spectrum of community life. While the police are in a position to attack certain negative facets of their relationships with citizens, certain facets are beyond their influence. These must be broached by other segments of the community.

It is not possible to interrelate adequately in these few pages the many aspects of community-police relations which are discussed briefly in the preceding sections. That is the function of the remainder of the report. It is possible, however, to note that widespread efforts are being made in California to promote positive and mutually rewarding police-community relationships. To the extent that this report contributes to the success of these efforts, it accomplishes its most important purpose.

## Summary of Recommendations by Subject Matter

### The Police Role

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT...

... the California Council on Criminal Justice or another appropriate funding source fund a study to determine the effects of initial police training on the development of officers' attitudes and on socialization into the police culture; the results of this study should be made available to all local police agencies to assist them in their training efforts. Page 4-18

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training include in their minimum training requirements a block of time to be devoted to exploring with police officers the personal and social adjustments they may have to make to the police job. Page 4-18

... full consideration be given during police training to the existence of the police "culture" and how it affects officers personally and professionally. Page 4-18

... a balanced picture of the police role be given to all police recruits including consideration of the service tasks involved and pointing out that accomplishment of the crime control task is only part of their total mission. Page 4-18

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training include in their minimum training requirements a block of time devoted to attitude formulation, both on the part of police officers and on the part of members of the community. Page 4-18

... the California Council on Criminal Justice seek a proponent to develop and test a model "police psychological support program" which will include, but not be limited to:

1. Preparing training modules in attitude formulation for use by officers
2. Training of supervisors in techniques of identifying and properly responding to symptoms of emotional problems among police officers
3. Use of "debriefing" conferences to explore with officers the significance of their street experiences and to allow them to "blow off steam."
4. Development of training modules for the families of police officers to assist them in adjusting to the officer's role
5. Research into the sequence of police attitude formulation to identify points in career development when specific intervention to deal with perceptual difficulties is most appropriate. Page 4-18

... law enforcement agencies and local community groups assess the impact the police culture and working personality have on citizen and police relationships and develop cooperative programs for responding to their negative aspects. Page 4-19



... The California Department of Justice develop a series of training seminars on "sensing the environment" to be made available to police administrators and middle managers statewide. Page 5-5

... the concept of sensing the operating environment should be included in police training at all levels, to present:

1. A definition of the process
2. Examples of how it is currently done
3. Analysis of the effectiveness of current methods
4. Suggestions for how it can best be done. Page 5-5

... law enforcement agencies analyze the means by which they currently identify community needs and expectations and develop specific written procedures to ensure it is done adequately. Page 5-5

... all police agencies specifically develop written statements defining their concept of their role, and further that they involve representatives of the local jurisdictional governing body, and representatives of significant community groups in the process. Page 5-17

... law enforcement agencies develop personnel evaluation techniques which consider all aspects of the police officer's role; equal attention should be given to the human relations and social service aspects as to the enforcement aspects. Page 5-17

### Relations With Selected Community Institutions

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT...

... the State Legislature and the California Department of Education take the necessary steps to require courses covering laws, the juvenile justice system, and the consideration of crime and its related problems in elementary and secondary school curricula. Page 6-19

... the California Department of Education stimulate the development of appropriate training courses for teachers to prepare them to teach the courses recommended above. Page 6-19

... campus police and police in the local jurisdiction develop and participate in joint training efforts relating to areas of mutual concer Page 6-23

...the State Legislature include campus police officers under the provisions of the POST reimbursement program. Page 6-23

...campus police develop plans for joint efforts required to deal with the law enforcement and service needs of the campus community. Page 6-23

...local police agencies develop appropriate and formal liasion mechanisms between themselves and the students, faculty, and administration of colleges and universities in their jurisdictions. Page 6-23

... the California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, in cooperation with other criminal justice system agencies, determine the feasibility of developing a special training seminar in media relations for police officers assigned to press relations duties. Page 6-34

... a joint media-police analysis of police related news be conducted to determine the viability of existing information distribution procedures and to develop guidelines for effective police-media relations. Page 6-34

... law enforcement agencies increase the amount of training about the role of the media and media relations for all police officers and that they further emphasize the effective use of the media as a valuable resource in mobilizing community assistance. Page 6-35

... the media assist in promoting community-police relations by publicizing the community resource development concept as defined by this report. Page 6-35

... a joint committee of representatives of the entertainment media, the advertising field, and the police be created to study the portrayal of police, crime, and their impact upon the formulation of citizen attitudes. Page 6-39

Minority Publics and the Police

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT...

... law enforcement administrators publicly recognize both the necessity for and desirability of varying levels of enforcement to respond to community needs which are not constant; further, administrators should set forth the rationales underlying their decisions to provide differing levels of enforcement. Page 7-11

... local jurisdiction officials and law enforcement administrators carefully consider their operations to ascertain where any elements of institutional bias might exist and, if such elements are found, take immediate steps to correct them. Page 7-11

... all such efforts relating to organizational bias include administrators, representatives of line law enforcement, and representatives of all segments of the community. Page 7-11

... law enforcement agencies set forth in writing their rationales regarding deployment patterns, use of preventive patrol techniques, and other pertinent enforcement practices and that they make these available to the public. Page 7-17

... police officers be officially encouraged to make as many non-enforcement oriented citizen contacts during their hours on duty as is possible within the limits of service needs. Page 7-17

... the Department of Justice conduct a study of police workload formulae and develop alternative workload formulae which accommodate community service contacts. Page 7-17



... law enforcement agencies regularly survey the various segments of their communities to determine citizens' perceptions of police goals, tactics, effectiveness, and problems which may develop. Page 7-18

... law enforcement agencies use the results of these surveys in training programs and community meetings involving both police officers and citizens. Page 7-18

... local law enforcement agencies adopt guidelines similar to those set forth by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice:

1. Field interrogations should be conducted only when an officer has reason to believe that a person is about to commit or has committed a crime, or that a crime has been committed and he has knowledge of material valuable to the investigation.
2. Field interrogation should not be used at all for minor crimes like vagrancy or loitering.
3. Adequate reason should be based on the actions of the person, his presence near the scene of a crime, and similar factors raising substantial suspicion, and not on race, poverty, or youth.
4. The stop should be limited in time. The sole purpose should be (a) to obtain the citizen's identification; (b) to verify it by readily available information; (c) to request cooperation in the investigation of a crime; and (d) to verify by readily available information any account of his presence or any other information given by the person.
5. The citizen should be addressed politely and should receive a suitable explanation for the reason for the stop.
6. An officer should be allowed to conduct a search of the person only if he has reason to believe that his safety or the safety of others so require.
7. Officers should be required to file a report each time a stop is made in order to record the circumstances and persons involved. Even greater care should be taken with these records than with arrest records so that the police do not use them to establish the delinquency or bad character of the person stopped. Morever, the records should not be available to persons outside of public law enforcement agencies. Page 7-20

Police Policy Making

... law enforcement agencies develop written policy manuals covering their operations. Page 8-4

... law enforcement agencies (annually or otherwise) regularly review and update all departmental policies. Page 8-4

...law enforcement administrators ensure that police officers at all levels in the agency have an opportunity to participate in the policy development process. Page 8-11

... law enforcement administrators seek greater community involvement and input in policy-making and review. Page 8-8

... local law enforcement agencies involve district attorneys, city

attorneys, city and county executives, and city and county legislators in the review of policy suggested for adoption. Page 8-10

... law enforcement agencies ensure the promulgation of all policies among all personnel and develop methods for determining that such policies are interpreted consistently throughout the department. Page 8-11

Citizen Complaint Process

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT...

... law enforcement administrators regularly encourage all citizens to offer their comments regarding the level of law enforcement services provided in their community. Page 9-2

... when alleged police misconduct has raised tension in the community, written departmental policy should outline the immediate steps that should be taken to meet with appropriate community representatives and jointly mobilize an effective response to the problems. Page 9-2

...law enforcement agencies develop and publish written policies delineating their complaint procedure. Page 9-6

... law enforcement agencies establish study committees composed of police officials, general government officials, and representative citizens to review existing policies and procedures for handling complaints. Page

...local law enforcement agencies determine the major and most frequent causes for complaints against officers, and when necessary, develop and require training programs and clinics designed to respond to the problem identified. Page 9-7

... law enforcement agencies carefully review those policies and procedures which are found to be related to numerous and recurring complaints. Page 9-7

... law enforcement agencies maintain records of all complaints regardless of disposition. Page 9-7

... law enforcement agencies establish a specific unit or assign a carefully selected officer to accept and investigate all complaints filed against the department and/or its personnel. Such officers should be reassigned on a regular basis. Page 9-9

... law enforcement agencies establish procedures by which complaints/commendations can be easily accepted. Such procedures may include:

1. a complaint hotline
2. acceptance of anonymous and unwritten complaints
3. wide distribution and availability of complaint forms
4. assurance that every officer is authorized to accept complaint/commendation forms
5. assurance that every officer on duty maintains an adequate supply of complaint/commendation forms
6. instruction that every officer ensure that a citizen complaint is forwarded to the proper investigatory unit. Page 9-9



... law enforcement agencies ensure that officers not discourage the filing of complaints. Page 9-9

... even if the complainant wishes to drop his complaint the agency complete its investigation. Page 9-9

... records of investigations be made available to complainants regardless of whether the original complaint is sustained. At least the following information should be provided:

1. Summary of the investigative findings
2. Number of witnesses interviewed, as well as all persons, by name, who are suggested for interviewing by the complainant
3. Extent of physical evidence examined, where applicable
4. As much additional information as the chief law enforcement administrator may find practical. Page 9-14

...interim reports of investigations be provided to the complainant at regular intervals when the investigative effort extends over a period of weeks. Page 9-14

... a summary report containing as much information as is legally permissible be provided to the complainant in the event criminal action is initiated against the officer which would otherwise restrict publication of agency findings Page 9-14

...law enforcement agencies publish regularly reports summarizing complaints, dispositions, and disciplinary actions taken. These reports should distinguish between actions based on internal rule infractions and those initiated by a citizen. Page 9-16

... law enforcement agencies publicize those agencies, such as the city manager's office, the district attorney's office, the law enforcement agency, the city council, the county board of supervisors, the state attorney general's office, the FBI, and the legal aid society, which may receive complaints against the police. Page 9-17

Training and Education

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT...

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training encourage law enforcement agencies and community colleges to prepare adequate definitions of the role of the police, reflecting service orientation, and to offer instruction in the role of the police at all department levels. Page 10-4

... law enforcement agencies provide racial and ethnic relations training to all personnel. Page 10-8

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training assist law enforcement agencies in developing curriculum and training for para-professionals. Page 10-8

... police administrators recoguize training as an integral part of the management process and use training as an organization development tool to raise the level of competence and performance of the entire department. Page 10-11

... the State Legislature change the present statute regarding training funds to assure that POST reimbursement funds are channeled through the local governing bodies and into the enforcement agencies. Page 10-13

... the California Council on Criminal Justice encourage further development of regional academies and stimulate development and operation of mobile training programs to provide courses to officers in small, rural, or isolated communities. Page 10-15

...the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training encourage the regional criminal justice training and educational center to operate mobile training units as part of its "outreach" program. Page 10-15

... police administrators and local governing bodies support departmental training activities by providing an adequate training budget and adequately staffed training unit, and by exhibiting positive attitudes toward the time and efforts required to prepare and implement an effective training program. Page 10-17

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training and the training officer associations consolidate and centralize information needed by training officers and disperse the information in an expanded version of POSTscripts or in one new bulletin. Page 10-23

... police training officers develop and maintain catalogs of community and local area agencies and persons and state agencies and associations which can provide or loan resource materials, instructional equipment, assistance or instruction to training programs the officer may develop. Officers should file this information with the POST repository of resources. Page 10-24

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training continue to develop and maintain a central resource repository which all departments can use. The repository should include resource catalogs developed by training or community relations officers. Page 10-24

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training require personnel assigned to training duties to meet certain minimum standards including training in the following areas:

1. How to make a departmental training needs assessment;
2. How to examine the needs in terms of the total organization's development;
3. How to plan a program using assessment feedback, organizational goals, appropriate community and area resources;
4. How to evaluate both the effectiveness of the training program and the trainees' reaction to it. Page 10-25

... law enforcement agencies consider employing qualified civilian trainers within their training unit in order to assure training experience and continuity in the training units. Page 10-26



... police training officers develop training programs to meet identified training needs of their agencies. Evaluations of all programs should be made. Page 10-28

... police training officers and college instructors increase training in skills related to the service aspect of the police task; emphasis on skill building should be expanded to approximate the need for such skills on the job. Page 10-34

... law enforcement agencies strive to improve the quality of roll-call training. Page 10-37

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training encourage a study of the use and comparative effectiveness of various participative and passive training techniques or instructional methods used to teach community relations. The study should include a longitudinal survey of students who receive the different kinds of instruction to see if their professional behavior is related to instruction by any particular teaching technique. Page 10-40

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training develop a new kind of personnel appraisal course which emphasizes the efficiency and effectiveness of personnel evaluators. Page 10-45

... police training officers and college instructors employ more participative learning techniques and experiences in their training programs and human relations courses. Techniques should include role play, simulation exercises, field experiences, and empathy experiences. Page 10-40

...law enforcement select their most esteemed officers, train them in the most effective community relations and service techniques, and teach them how to use their skills to help train recruits and others who work with them. Page 10-43

...the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training seek funding for a definitive and evaluative study of human relations training. The study should examine (a) what human relations training currently includes, (b) how effective and useful such training is, (c) what such training should include, and (d) how its effectiveness can be determined on an on-going basis. Page 10-46

... the State Legislature and local governing bodies take necessary steps to stimulate the provision of Spanish or Asian language training for local law enforcement. Page 10-54

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training require that crisis management training be given greater emphasis in existing certified courses. Participative training which stresses both understanding the conflict and developing skills for handling conflicts or crisis should be provided. Page 10-57

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training stimulate development of an Advanced Supervisor training course to give supervisors new techniques and management tools and feedback on their methods of operation. Page 10-59

... community college law enforcement curriculum committees regularly include members from the smallest concerned enforcement agencies as well as from the larger ones. Page 10-62

... curriculum development committees in educational institutions develop police training activities or programs by:

1. making an informational needs assessment of the departments sending students to the schools;
2. planning a course which meets the needs and uses appropriate local and area resources and participative learning techniques;
3. planning a balance of general information and theory with practical, skill-building opportunities;
4. planning a balance of general information and local application;
5. including evaluation methods to determine whether the instruction is meeting the students' needs effectively. Page 10-63

Minority Citizen in Law Enforcement

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT ...

... the State Legislature by resolution reaffirm their commitment to the value of full employment and utilization of minority citizens in law enforcement. Page 11-5

... local jurisdictions by resolution affirm their commitment to the goal of full employment and utilization of minority citizens in law enforcement. Page 11-5

... law enforcement agencies affirm their commitment to the value of full employment and utilization of minority citizens in law enforcement. Law enforcement agencies must take steps to ensure the adequate representation of racial and ethnic groups in all ranks. Page 11-5

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training continue to implement a statewide recruitment campaign for the purpose of describing the challenge of law enforcement and the available opportunities for qualified candidates within the state of California. Page 11-8

... during the recruitment effort, law enforcement agencies emphasize the human relations and service related aspects of police work. Page 11-8

...minority organizations take an active role in cooperating with and assisting law enforcement in their efforts to attract qualified minority applicants to police work. Page 11-9

... law enforcement agencies also use minority newspapers, television, and radio stations whenever possible in their recruitment effort. Page 11-9



... the State Legislature establish a subsidy program which will pay the partial cost of certain innovative recruitment techniques, such as the minority recruitment task force. Page 11-10

... where possible law enforcement agencies include minority officers within their personnel units, particularly to assist in minority recruitment efforts. Page 11-11

... law enforcement agencies use police officers' associations, including minority peace officers' associations, to recruit and assist minority candidates through the selection process. Page 11-12

...the State Legislature give budgetary support to the State Personnel Board to ensure the development of a validated culturally unbiased entrance examination series for California law enforcement agencies. Page 11-13

...the State Personnel Board do a validation study to determine that promotion and entrance exams are designed to test skills and knowledge which are relevant to the successful performance of the position sought. Page 11-14

... the local personnel boards evaluate police job qualifications to ascertain whether such qualifications are job related and/or discriminate against minority candidates. Page 11-14

...the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training in cooperation with the State Personnel Board complete a feasibility study to determine the feasibility of constructing an unbiased process to be utilized in determining the qualifications for promotions. Page 11-14

... law enforcement agencies serving a population with significant minority elements include representatives of these significant minority groups on all oral boards. Page 11-14

... law enforcement agencies develop and incorporate into their entrance requirements a system of accommodating persons with particular skills or abilities valuable to the agency. Page 11-15

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training continue to develop and require a valid emotional maturity and mental stability assessment for all potential police candidates as part of their minimum standards. Page 11-16

... law enforcement agencies make periodic reassessments of police officers' mental and emotional stability; reassessments should particularly be made of those officers exhibiting behavior patterns suggesting problems. Page 11-16

...law enforcement agencies use their current cadet and para-professional programs as one of the affirmative action tools to assist interested persons meet the required entrance standards. However, such programs should reflect the racial and ethnic balance of the community being served. Page 11-17

... law enforcement agencies expand the use of para-professionals to accommodate both persons who wish to become police officers as well as those who are familiar with the community, its people, and its culture but who may not wish to pursue a sworn police career. Page 11-17

...the State Legislature fund a study to determine the feasibility of open transferability among law enforcement agencies. Page 11-19

...local law enforcement agencies establish a comprehensive career counseling program which includes both developing an extensive career tracking procedure as well as providing training programs designed to enhance employee's promotability within the agency. Page 11-20

... law enforcement agencies encourage minority employees to improve their promotability within the agency by participating in career development programs. Page 11-20.

...the Bureau of Criminal Statistics include the racial and ethnic composition of law enforcement agencies in the appropriate annual report. Page 11-23

...local jurisdictions establish affirmative action programs to assist law enforcement agencies recruit qualified minority candidates. Page 11-23

...the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training through Project MORE study and develop guidelines and standards for affirmative action programs. Page 11-24

...the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training through Project MORE establish an information system which law enforcement agencies can utilize to keep them informed on model affirmative action programs. Page 11-25

Community Resource Development

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT ...

... the current concept of community-police relations should be expanded to become community resource development. Page 13-10

... community resource development be defined as the process by which law enforcement develops and sustains cooperative roles and relationships between police and citizens emphasizing their partnership responsibilities for correcting the problems of crime and providing the social services required of the police. Page 13-10

... law enforcement administrators implement the concept of community resource development and adopt it as a philosophy of the entire agency and not just the responsibility of a single officer or unit, although specialized assignments may be appropriate to ensure adequate performance of certain functions. Page 13-16



...community resource development training programs be developed, both for inclusion as part of existing training programs and for the specialized training of those officers assigned full-time to community resource development duties. Page 13-17

...community resource development concept be integrated into all examinations for promotions within the department. Page 13-17

... law enforcement administrators maximize the participation of citizens in providing police services. Page 13-17

...the California Department of Justice expand the operations of its Crime Prevention Unit to include a leadership role in the development of techniques and programs pertinent to community resource development, in the coordination of information dissemination relating to community resource development, and in the provision of assistance to local jurisdictions endeavoring to implement community resource development programs. Page 13-21

... the Attorney General either continue the Advisory Commission on Community-Police Relations or create a similar advisory group to evaluate the implementation of the recommendations contained in this report and to oversee future endeavors. Page 13-23

... the Attorney General issue an annual report each of the next three years, detailing the progress of efforts to implement the community resource development concept among California law enforcement agencies. Page 13-23

... the State Legislature fund a Community Resource Development Institute within the Crime Prevention Unit of the California Department of Justice to carry out the specific projects recommended in this report. Page 13-23

... the California Council on Criminal Justice require that a community relations impact statement be submitted with all proposals seeking funding for police projects. Page 13-25

... the California Council on Criminal Justice consolidate its current Crime Prevention and Community Relations Task Forces into a single Community Resource Development Task Force. Page 13-25

... the California Council on Criminal Justice emphasize the concept of community resource development in its planning and funding efforts. Page 13-25

## Summary of Recommendations According to Responsibility for Implementation

### Law Enforcement Agencies

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT ...

... full consideration be given during police training to the existence of the police "culture" and how it affects officers personally and professionally. Page 4-18

... a balanced picture of the police role be given to all police recruits including consideration of the service tasks involved and pointing out that accomplishment of the crime control task is only part of their total mission. Page 4-18

... law enforcement agencies and local community groups assess the impact the police culture and working personality have on citizen and police relationships and develop cooperative programs for responding to their negative aspects. Page 4-19

... the concept of sensing the operating environment should be included in police training at all levels, to present:

1. A definition of the process
2. Examples of how it is currently done
3. Analysis of the effectiveness of current methods
4. Suggestions for how it can best be done. Page 5-5

... law enforcement agencies analyze the means by which they currently identify community needs and expectations and develop specific written procedures to ensure it is done adequately. Page 5-5

... all police agencies specifically develop written statements defining their concept of their role, and further that they involve representatives of the local jurisdictional governing body, and representatives of significant community groups in the process. Page 5-17

... law enforcement agencies develop personnel evaluation techniques which consider all aspects of the police officer's role; equal attention should be given to the human relations and social service aspects as to the enforcement aspects. Page 5-17

... campus police and police in the local jurisdiction develop and participate in joint training efforts relating to areas of mutual concern. Page 6-23

... campus police develop plans for joint efforts required to deal with the law enforcement and service needs of the campus community. Page 6-23



... local police agencies develop appropriate and formal liasion mechanisms between themselves and the students, faculty, and administration of colleges and universities in their jurisdictions. Page 6-23

... a joint media-police analysis of police related news be conducted to determine the viability of existing information distribution procedures and to develop guidelines for effective police-media relations. Page 6-34

... law enforcement agencies increase the amount of training about the role of the media and media relations for all police officers and that they further emphasize the effective use of the media as a valuable resource in mobilizing community assistance. Page 6-35

... a joint committee of representatives of the entertainment media, the advertising field, and the police be created to study the portrayal of police, crime, and their impact upon the formulation of citizen attitudes. Page 6-39

... law enforcement administrators publicly recognize both the necessity for and desirability of varying levels of enforcement to respond to community needs which are not constant; further, administrators should set forth rationales underlying their decisions to provide differing levels of enforcement. Page 7-11

... all such efforts relating to organizational bias include administrators, representatives of line law enforcement, and representatives of all segments of the community. Page 7-11

... local jurisdiction officials and law enforcement administrators carefully consider their operations to ascertain where any elements of institutional bias might exist and, if such elements are found, take immediate steps to correct them. Page 7-11

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... law enforcement agencies use the results of these surveys in training programs and community meetings involving both police officers and citizens. Page 7-18

... local law enforcement agencies adopt guidelines similar to those set forth by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administrat of Justice:

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2. Field interrogation should not be used at all for minor crimes like vagrancy or loitering.
3. Adequate reason should be based on the actions of the person, his presence near the scene of a crime, and similar factors raising substantial suspicion, and not on race, poverty, or youth.
4. The stop should be limited in time. The sole purpose should be (a) to obtain the citizen's identification; (b) to verify it by readily available information; (c) to request cooperation in the investigation of a crime; and (d) to verify by readily available information any account of his presence or any other information given by the person.
5. The citizen should be addressed politely and should receive a suitable explanation for the reason for the stop.
6. An officer should be allowed to conduct a search of the person only if he has reason to believe that his safety or the safety of others so require.
7. Officers should be required to file a report each time a stop is made in order to record the circumstances and persons involved. Even greater care should be taken with these records, than with arrest records so that the police do not use them to establish the delinquency or bad character of the person stopped. Morever, the records should not be available to persons outside of public law enforcement agencies. Page 7-20

... law enforcement agencies develop written policy manuals covering their operations. Page 8-4

... law enforcement agencies (annually or otherwise) regularly review and update all departmental policies. Page 8-4

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...local law enforcement agencies determine the major and most frequent causes for complaints against officers, and when necessary, develop and require training programs and clinics designed to respond to the problem identified. Page 9-7

... law enforcement agencies carefully review those policies and procedures which are found to be related to numerous and recurring complaints. Page 9-7

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... law enforcement agencies establish a specific unit or assign a carefully selected officer to accept and investigate all complaints filed against the department and/or its personnel. Such officers should be reassigned on a regular basis. Page 9-9

... law enforcement agencies establish procedures by which complaints/commendations can be easily accepted. Such procedures may include:

1. a complaint hotline
2. acceptance of anonymous and unwritten complaints
3. wide distribution and availability of complaint forms
4. assurance that every officer is authorized to accept complaint/commendation forms
5. assurance that every officer on duty maintains an adequate supply of complaint/commendation forms
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... law enforcement agencies ensure that officers not discourage the filing of complaints. Page 9-9

... even if the complainant wishes to drop his complaint the agency complete its investigation. Page 9-9

...records of investigations be made available to complainants regardless of whether the original complaint is sustained. At least the following information should be provided:

1. Summary of the investigative findings
2. Number of witnesses interviewed, as well as all persons, by name, who are suggested for interviewing by the complainant
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...interim reports of investigations be provided to the complainant at regular intervals when the investigative effort extends over a period of weeks. Page 9-14

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...law enforcement agencies publish regularly reports summarizing complaints, dispositions, and disciplinary actions taken. These reports should distinguish between actions based on internal rule infractions and those initiated by a citizen. Page 9-16

...law enforcement agencies publicize those agencies, such as the city manager's office, the district attorney's office, the law enforcement agency, the city council, the county board of supervisors, the state attorney general's office, the FBI, and the legal aid society, which may receive complaints against the police. Page 9-17

...law enforcement agencies provide racial and ethnic relations training to all personnel. Page 10-8

...police administrators recognize training as an integral part of the management process and use training as an organization development tool to raise the level of competence and performance of the entire department. Page 10-11

...police administrators and local governing bodies support departmental training activities by providing an adequate training budget and adequately staffed training unit, and by exhibiting positive attitudes toward the time and efforts required to prepare and implement an effective training program. Page 10-19

...police training officers develop and maintain catalogs of community and local area agencies and persons and state agencies and associations which can provide or loan resource materials, instructional equipment, assistance or instruction to training programs the officer may develop. Officers should file this information with the POST repository of resources. Page 10-24



...law enforcement agencies consider employing qualified civilian trainers within their training unit in order to assure training experience and continuity in the training units. Page 10-26

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...police training officers and college instructors increase training in skills related to the service aspects of the police task; emphasis on skill building should be expanded to approximate the need for such skills on the job. Page 10-34

...law enforcement agencies strive to improve the quality of roll-call training. Page 10-37

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...law enforcement select their most esteemed officers, train them in the most effective community relations and service techniques, and teach them how to use their skills to help train recruits and others who work with them. Page 10-43

...law enforcement agencies affirm their commitment to the value of full employment and utilization of minority citizens in law enforcement. Law enforcement agencies must take steps to ensure the adequate representation of racial and ethnic groups in all ranks. Page 11-5

...during the recruitment effort, law enforcement agencies emphasize the human relations and service-related aspects of police work. Page 11-8

...law enforcement agencies also use minority newspapers, television and radio stations whenever possible in their recruitment effort. Page 11-9

...where possible law enforcement agencies include minority officers within their personnel units, particularly to assist in minority recruitment efforts. Page 11-11

...law enforcement agencies use police officers' associations, including minority peace officers' associations, to recruit and assist minority candidates through the selection process. Page 11-12

...law enforcement agencies serving a population with significant minority elements include representatives of these significant minority groups on all oral boards. Page 11-14

...law enforcement agencies develop and incorporate into their entrance requirements a system of accommodating persons with particular skills or abilities valuable to the agency. Page 11-15

...law enforcement agencies make periodic reassessments of police officers' mental and emotional stability; reassessments should particularly be made of those officers exhibiting behavior patterns suggesting problems. Page 11-1

...law enforcement agencies use their current cadet and para-professional programs as one of the affirmative action tools to assist interested persons meet the required entrance standards. However, such programs should reflect the racial and ethnic balance of the community being served. Page 11-17

...law enforcement agencies establish a comprehensive career counseling program which includes both developing an extensive career tracking procedure as well as providing training programs designed to enhance employee's promotability within the agency. Page 11-20

...law enforcement agencies encourage minority employees to improve their promotability within the agency by participating in career development programs. Page 11-20

...community resource development concept be integrated into all examinations for promotions within the department. Page 13-17

...law enforcement administrators maximize the participation of citizens in providing police services. Page 13-17

...the current concept of community-police relations should be expanded to become community resource development. Page 13-10

...community resource development be defined as the process by which law enforcement develops and sustains cooperative roles and relationships between police and citizens emphasizing their partnership responsibilities for correcting the problems of crime and providing the social services required of the police. Page 13-10

...law administrators implement the concept of community resource development and adopt it as a philosophy of the entire agency and not just the responsibility of a single officer or unit, although specialized assignments may be appropriate to ensure adequate performance of certain functions. Page 13-16

...community resource development training programs be developed, both for inclusion as part of existing training programs and for the specialized training of those officers assigned full-time to community resource development duties. Page 13-17



Local Governing Bodies

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT...

...local jurisdictions by resolution affirm their commitment to the goal of full employment and utilization of minority citizens in law enforcement. Page 11-5

...local jurisdictions establish affirmative action programs to assist law enforcement agencies recruit qualified minority candidates. Page 11-23

...local jurisdiction officials and law enforcement administrators carefully consider their operations to ascertain where any elements of institutional bias might exist and, if such elements are found, take immediate steps to correct them. Page 7-11

...the local personnel boards evaluate police job qualifications to ascertain whether such qualifications are job related and/or discriminate against minority candidates.

Selected Community Elements

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT...

...minority organizations take an active role in cooperating with and assisting law enforcement in their efforts to attract qualified minority applicants to police work. Page 11-9

...a joint media-police analysis of police related news be conducted to determine the viability of existing information distribution procedures and to develop guidelines for effective police-media relations. Page 6-34

...the media assist in promoting community-police relations by publicizing the community resource development concept as defined by this report. Page 6-35

...a joint committee of representatives of the entertainment media, the advertising field, and the police be created to study the portrayal of police, crime, and their impact upon the formulation of citizen attitudes. Page 6-39

...all such efforts relating to organizational bias include administrators, representatives of line law enforcement, and representatives of all segments of the community. Page 7-11

## Educational System

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT...

...the State Legislature and the California Department of Education take the necessary steps to require courses covering laws, the juvenile justice system, and the consideration of crime and its related problems in elementary and secondary school curricula. Page 6-19

...the California Department of Education stimulate the development of an appropriate training course for teachers to prepare them to teach the courses recommended above. Page 6-19

...community college law enforcement curriculum committees regularly include members from the smallest concerned enforcement agencies as well as from the larger ones. Page 10-62

...curriculum development committees in educational institutions develop police training activities or programs by:

1. making an informational needs assessment of the department's sending students to the schools.
2. planning a course which meets the needs and uses appropriate local and area resources and participative learning techniques;
3. planning a balance of general information and theory with practical, skill-building opportunities;
4. planning a balance of general information and local application;
5. including evaluation methods to determine whether the instruction is meeting the students' needs effectively. Page 10-63



## State Legislature

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT...

...the State Legislature and the California Department of Education take the necessary steps to require courses covering laws, the juvenile justice system, and the consideration of crime and its related problems in elementary and secondary school curricula. Page 6-19

...the State Legislature include campus police officers under the provisions of the POST reimbursement program. Page 6-23

...the State Legislature change the present statute regarding training funds to assure that POST reimbursement funds are channeled through the local governing bodies and into the enforcement agencies. Page 10-13

...the State Legislature and local governing bodies take necessary steps to stimulate the provision of Spanish or Asian language training for local law enforcement. Page 10-54

...the State Legislature by resolution reaffirm their commitment to the value of full employment and utilization of minority citizens in law enforcement. Page 11-5

...the State Legislature establish a subsidy program which will pay the partial cost of certain innovative recruitment techniques, such as the minority recruitment task force. Page 11-10

...the State Legislature give budgetary support to the State Personnel Board to ensure the development of a validated culturally unbiased entrance examination series for California law enforcement agencies. Page 11-13

...the State Legislature fund a study to determine the feasibility of open transferability among law enforcement agencies. Page 11-19

...the State Legislature fund a Community Resource Development Institute within the Crime Prevention Unit of the California Department of Justice to carry out the specific projects recommended in this report. Page 13-23

## California Department of Justice

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT ...

... the California Department of Justice develop a series of training seminars on "sensing the environment" to be made available to police administrators and middle managers statewide. Page 5-5

... the Department of Justice conduct a study of police workload formulae and develop alternative workload formulae which accommodate community service contacts. Page 7-17

... the Bureau of Criminal Statistics include the racial and ethnic composition of law enforcement agencies in the appropriate annual report. Page 11-23

... the Department of Justice expand the operations of its Crime Prevention Division to include a leadership role in the development of techniques and programs pertinent to community resource development, in the coordination of information dissemination relating to community resource development, and in the provision of assistance to local jurisdictions endeavoring to implement community resource development programs. Page 13-21

... the Attorney General either continue the Advisory Commission on Community-Police Relations or create a similar advisory group to evaluate the implementation of the recommendations contained in this report and to oversee future endeavors. Page 13-23

...the Attorney General issue an annual report each of the next three years, detailing the progress of efforts to implement the community resource development concept among California law enforcement agencies. Page 13-23

California Council on Criminal Justice

... the California Council on Criminal Justice or another appropriate funding source fund a study to determine the effects of initial police training on the development of officers' attitudes and on socialization into the police culture; the results of this study should be made available to all local policing agencies to assist them in their training efforts. Page 4-18

... the California Council on Criminal Justice seek a proponent to develop and test a model "police psychological support program" which will include, but not be limited to:

1. Preparing training modules in attitude formulation for use by officers
2. Training of supervisors in techniques of identifying and properly responding to symptoms of emotional problems among police officers
3. Use of "debriefing" conferences to explore with officers the significance of their street experiences and to allow them to "blow off steam"
4. Development of training modules for the families of police officers to assist them in adjusting to the officer's role
5. Research into the sequence of police attitude formulation to identify points in career development when specific intervention to deal with perceptual difficulties is most appropriate. Page 4-18



... the California Council on Criminal Justice encourage further development of regional academies and stimulate development and operation of mobile training programs to provide courses to officers in small, rural or isolated communities. Page 10-15

... the California Council on Criminal Justice consolidate its current Crime Prevention and Community Relations Task Forces into a single Community Resource Development Task Force. Page 13-25

... the California Council on Criminal Justice require that a community relations impact statement be submitted with all proposals seeking funding for police projects. Page 13-25

... the California Council on Criminal Justice emphasize the concept of community resource development in its planning and funding efforts. Page 13-25

Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT ...

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training include in their minimum training requirements a block of time to be devoted to exploring with police officers the personal and social adjustments they may have to make to the police job. Page 4-18

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training include in their minimum training requirements a block of time devoted to attitude formulation, both on the part of police officers and on the part of members of the community. Page 4-18

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training in cooperation with other criminal justice system agencies, determine the feasibility of developing a special training seminar in media relations for police officers assigned to press relations duties. Page 6-34

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training encourage law enforcement agencies and community colleges to prepare adequate definitions of the role of the police, reflecting service orientation, and to offer instruction in the role of the police at all department levels.

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training assist law enforcement agencies in developing curriculum and training for para-professionals. Page 10-8

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training encourage the regional criminal justice training and educational center to operate mobile training units as part of its "outreach" program. Page 10-15

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training continue to develop and maintain a central resource repository which all departments can use. The repository should include resource catalogs developed by training or community relations officers. Page 10-24

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training and the training officer associations consolidate and centralize information needed by training officers and disperse the information in an expanded version of POSTscripts or in one new bulletin. Page 10-23

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training require personnel assigned to training duties to meet certain minimum standards including training in the following areas:

1. How to make a departmental training needs assessment;
2. How to examine the needs in terms of the total organization's development;
3. How to plan a program using assessment feedback, organizationa goals, appropriate community and area resources;
4. How to evaluate both the effectiveness of the training program and the trainees' reaction to it. Page 10-25

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training encourage a study of the use and comparative effectiveness of various participative and passive training techniques or instructional methods used to teach community relations. The study should include a longitudinal survey of students who receive the different kinds of instruction to see if their professional behavior is related to instruction by any particular teaching technique. Page 10-40

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training seek funding for a definitive and evaluative study of human relations training. The study should examine (a) what human relations training currently includes, (b) how effective and useful such training is, (c) what such training should include, and (d) how its effectiveness can be determined on an ongoing basis. Page 10-46

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training require that crisis management training be given greater emphasis in existing certified courses. Participative training which stresses both understanding the conflict and developing skills for handling conflicts or crisis should be provided. Page 10-57

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training stimulate development of an Advanced Supervisor training course to give supervisors new techniques and management tools and feedback on their methods of operation. Page 10-59

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training continue to implement a statewide recruitment campaign for the purpose of describing the challenge of law enforcement and the available opportunities for qualified candidates within the state of California. Page 11-8

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training in cooperation with the State Personnel Board complete a feasibility study to determine the possibility of constructing an unbiased process to be utilized in determining the qualifications for promotions. Page 11-14



... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training continue to develop and require a valid emotional maturity and mental stability assessment for all potential police candidates as part of their minimum standards. Page 11-16

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training through Project MORE study and develop guidelines and standards for affirmative action programs. Page 11-24

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training through Project MORE establish an information system which law enforcement agencies can utilize to keep them informed of model affirmative action programs. Page 11-25

State Personnel Board

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT ...

... the State Personnel Board do a validation study to determine that promotion and entrance examinations are designed to test skills and knowledge which are relevant to the successful performance of the position sought. Page 11-14

... the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training in cooperation with the State Personnel Board complete a feasibility study to determine the possibility of constructing an unbiased process to be utilized in determining the qualifications for promotions. Page 11-14

References

1. Field, Mervin. "Californians Rank Crime as No. 1 Concern, Poll Discloses," Los Angeles Times, 20 March 1973; p.3.

2. National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. Police. Washington, D.C., January 1973.



Chapter 2

THE ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE REPORT

Some basic assumptions about community and police relationships form the basis for the analytical framework which structured the Commission's research. It is felt that local jurisdictions can apply this framework to make a detailed analysis of their citizen-police relationships.

The assumptions are briefly noted here; they are developed further in the remainder of the chapter.

I. The police in California perform a high volume of basically social services. Society has, both directly and indirectly, assigned the police a major role in meeting the conflict management and social service needs which have developed during the urbanization movement of recent decades.

II. The police as an institution are part of the political system. Because the police exercise governmental power through authority vested in them by the people, their operations must be considered as part of the political process. This does not mean political in the partisan sense.

III. The police-community relationship is one of the most significant existing between government and citizen. Considering the public's current concern about crime and the tremendous influence crime and related social problems have on the quality of life experienced by many of our citizens, the relationship between citizen and law enforcement officer is critically important.

IV. Community and police relationships develop through a continuing process of interaction between police and members of the public. Police officer and citizen can deal with one another in two ways or on two levels. The first is through face-to-face contact in which the two directly communicate. The second, and more pervasive, is through attitudes and interpretations based on information provided by third party sources.

V. Relationships are ultimately determined by behavior. Since behavior is influenced by a number of forces, it is appropriate to use role analysis techniques to identify its crucial dimensions. The concept of role as applied by a number of researchers on the police scene facilitates the examination of the many individuals, institutions, and actions that impinge upon police behavior at both the organizational and individual levels.

We emphasize that these assumptions speak not to the character of community and police relationships, but to a method for understanding how the relationships develop, are maintained, and may be changed. Beginning with a definition of community-police relations, the following sections expand upon these assumptions and how they relate to the descriptive material in subsequent chapters.

## Community-Police Relations: A Definition

The term "community-police relations" is difficult to define. Although the concept has enjoyed considerable attention in recent years, its meaning has remained primarily a matter of individual interpretation. Even within a single police agency, several different and often contradictory interpretations are likely to be found.



When the Assembly directed the Attorney General to study the issue of distrust and hostility between some segments of the California population and the police, it was obvious that they were talking about community-police relations. However, it remained for the Advisory Commission and staff to develop a workable definition of the term to guide their efforts.

Research into the general subject of community and police relations has yielded a number of definitions developed both by researchers and by practitioners. They range in length from one line to several paragraphs. They also take several forms, such as a menu of "ingredients" of community relations, a discussion of what behavior promotes or inhibits the development of good community relations, or a straightforward statement of what community relations is thought to be.

The Commission considered many definitions to determine their applicability to this study. It is useful to examine some of them, for they provide a sound indication of the prevailing thought about the issue.

The International City Management Association initially viewed the concept in terms of programs, saying:

> A police-department-initiated program designed to offer an opportunity for police and other public and private agencies and individuals in the community to discover their common problems, ambitions, and responsibilities and to work together toward the solution of community problems and the formulation of positive programs...it is not merely a problem-solving device. It is a problem-avoidance methodology, which, when correctly organized, can create healthy community attitudes.[1]

This definition contrasts somewhat with another made by the same organization in a report issued some three years later.

> At this point, it is obvious that any effective police-community relations effort must be directly involved with basic police operations. It must be concerned with...general police activities such as field practices; service function; recruiting, assigning, and promoting of police personnel; and police training. In fact, a successful police-community relations program must even recognize problems beyond the scope of police work, such as housing, welfare, schools, trash collection, and other services of local government.[2]

By way of definition, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice warned that police-community relations is:

> ...not a public relations program to "sell the police image" to the people. It is not a set of expedients whose purpose is to tranquilize for a time an angry neighborhood by, for example, suddenly promoting a few Negro officers in the wake of a racial disturbance. It is a long-range, full-scale effort to acquaint the police and the community with each other's problems and to stimulate action aimed at solving those problems.[3]

In its Task Force Report: The Police, this same Commission continually linked public hostility to the police with poor community relations,[4] thereby emphasizing the negative aspect of the concept.

Assistant Sheriff Howard Earle of the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department, in his widely used text on the subject, feels that:

> ...community relations per se is so broad as to defy a precise definition. When linked with the term "police," another rather vague concept, the matter of precise definition is further submerged in somewhat unidentifiable jargon.



> We may, however, provide a useful conceptual approach and say that police-community relations is an art; it is concerned with the ability of the police within a given jurisdiction to understand and deal appropriately with that community's problems; it involves the idea of community awareness of the role and difficulties faced by the police; and it involves the honest effort of both the police and the community to share in the common goal of understanding the problems of both with conscientious effort for harmony and cooperation.[5]

The National Center on Police and Community Relations at Michigan State University defines police-community relations in the following fashion:

> Police-Community Relations in its generic sense means the variety of ways in which it may be emphasized that the police are indeed an important part of, not apart from the communities they serve. Properly understood, Police-Community Relations is a concept for total police organization, functionally speaking--a total orientation, not merely the preoccupation of a special unit or bureau within the department. It bears upon administrative policy, it bears upon planning and research, and perhaps more significantly, it bears upon line service through the uniformed patrol division. In short, Police Community Relations, ideally, is an emphasis, an attitude, a way of viewing police responsibilities that ought to permeate the entire organization. Every major issue in American law enforcement today is, in a substantial sense a challenge and an opportunity in terms of Police Community Relations. For it is only in an effective partnership of police and community that there is any prospect of dealing constructively with these issues.[6]

Dr. Lee P. Brown, former San Jose, California, police-community relations director, developed a definition that held community relations to be:

> ...the process by which the police work in conjunction with the community to identify the problems that cause friction between the two groups and then the working together to solve these problems. This entails a meaningful relationship between the police and the community.[7]

These definitions are illustrative of the dozens which have been constructed by various persons concerned with community-police relations. While they are useful and undoubtedly accurate according to the purposes for which they were developed, they do not satisfy the needs of this report, namely to provide a definition which can serve as a standard against which to measure: (1) the quality of the relationships which exist between California law enforcement and citizenry; (2) the extent to which California law enforcement is aware of the nature of their relationships with the citizenry; and (3) the mechanisms which exist both in the law enforcement agency and the community to facilitate the joint identification and resolution of problems.

Obviously, the definitions discussed above speak to these three issues, but none adequately accommodates all of them. Therefore, the Commission developed the following definition of community-police relations to serve as a research standard:

> Community-police relations is a philosophy of administering and providing police services which embodies all activities within a given jurisdiction aimed at involving members of the community and the police in the determination of: (1) what police services will be provided; (2) how they will be provided; (3) how the police and members of the community will resolve common problems.

This definition contains several key points. First, it establishes community-police relations as a philosophy of police administration. Thus, the definition recognizes that the responsibility for community relations is diffused throughout the department; it is intimately a part of all administrative, supportive, and field operations.



Second, the definition focuses both on the police and on the community. The fact that the concept deals with relationships means that there are at least two parties involved and that all parties share a responsibility for the quality of the ultimate relationship.

Third, it accommodates the political reality that the police as a government agency using power and authority granted by the people, must establish mechanisms for sensing what the public's needs are and for responding to those needs.

This definition and the several key assumptions about police and community relationships discussed in the remainder of this chapter underlie the research efforts of the Commission.

## The Social Function of the Police

Few agencies of our government engender more interest or stimulate more discussion than the police. Because they are government's most visible and accessible link to the people, the police are viewed as an integral part of local government.

In many respects, the police represent a modern embodiment of the frontier heritage which the American people regard so proudly. Catching crooks and making the streets safe for the "good folk" are solid values of the times; even television often portrays today's police officer doing the job his counterpart western sheriff did years ago.

If the police role in our complex urban society were this simple, interest in the police and support for their efforts would undoubtedly be high. They could continue to satisfy our need for social voyeurism

and remain the folk heroes we have made of frontier lawmen. Unfortunately, this is not the case; today controversy about police purposes and methods often obscures the simple image in the minds of the citizen.

Over the years, society has assigned a wide array of new functions to the police. Most have only a peripheral relationship to enforcing criminal laws and catching crooks. Urbanization, population growth, increased mobility, and the technological changes of the past 50 years have created new pressures for government to resolve social conflict, remedy social inequities, and maintain a minimum level of stability that the developing and adapting mechanisms of society can function. One of government's common responses to these pressures has been to assign the police the initial responsibility for intervening in socially based crises. These social management functions serve basically a political objective. Today they constitute a majority of what the police do. In addition, individual citizens have come to rely more heavily upon the police to resolve their interpersonal conflicts. The realities of a mass society in which most relationships are impersonal have created a need for professional middlemen. Husbands and wives having a domestic spat look to the policeman to intervene. Neighbors disagreeing over a property line or a barking dog call upon the police to settle the issue. And parents who find themselves unable to cope with an incorrigible child expect the local man on the beat to deal with the problem.



Obviously, the police officer in contemporary society wears more hats than that of law enforcer. He deals heavily in social conflict, both between groups of citizens and the established order, and between individuals. His job is not simple; if it results in occasional conflict and controversy, one cannot really expect less.

Police involvement in social conflict is heightened by the increasing public attention being directed to all manner of social problems. Terms such as affirmative action, urban renewal, comprehensive health care, and social action have become a part of every citizen's vocabulary. Such concern has had its impact upon the police. It is impossible to consider unemployment, poverty, or dilapidated housing without recognizing their close relationship to crime and interpersonal conflict. Whenever one finds significant levels of social ills, one also finds the police officer thrust in the milieu as a representative of the government.

The now implicit relationship between the police and social conflict has had considerable impact upon the nature of the people whom the police meet. As their social responsibilities grew, the police came into more frequent contact with offensive but non-criminal behavior; these contacts were basically of low visibility to most of the populace.

Since 1960, however, both the clientele of the police and the visibility of their operations have changed considerably. The civil rights movement and subsequently the anti-war movement placed the police face-to-face with large groups of persons whose crimes, when they committed them, were done in the name of high motives. Increasingly, the con-

frontation was with the white, middle-class student whose relationship to the police previously had seldom been hostile or critical.

In the early stages of these mass movements, the police were caught unprepared. They were inexperienced in handling mass demonstrations, and their tactics were not models of well planned restraint. On-the-spot television coverage of these confrontations introduced to the nation a picture of law enforcement never seen before. Regardless of how one regarded the motives of either side, the impact of seeing the police battling with the young activists raised police operations and tactics to a new level of visibility.

These changes in clientele and visibility have continued through the present. The growth of the drug subculture among the young, again predominantly the white, middle-class young, has added to the police the responsibility for coping with a problem among members of the population who have not historically been major recipients of the police sanction. While the trafficking aspects of drug abuse are within the purview of the police, the tremendous problem of why youngsters use drugs, and how society can change this pattern, is in most respects beyond their role.

The impact of these developments is difficult to assess. Presidential commissions, state and regional study groups, and private organizations have compiled volumes in attempts to do so. Many changes have resulted, particularly in law enforcement, in such areas as patrol force allocation systems, new communication systems, and computer programs. Most of these changes have been technically oriented, however, and have not adequately addressed the community-police relationship as



an integral part of police operations. Still, they have focused further attention on this confusing area and they have stimulated considerable experimentation, much of it among California law enforcement agencies. This, in itself, has been a valuable contribution.

The task, addressed in this report, is to construct an adequate picture of community and police relationships to facilitate understanding their true character. These relationships ultimately determine how successful the police will be in performing the tasks assigned them by society. It has been popular recently to examine police tactics and their implied motives, but these are in many respects only symptoms.

## The Political Function of the Police

The basic social service function of the police in contemporary society has been discussed. Beyond that, it is important to understand that they are also an integral part of the political system, though not in the partisan sense, because they exercise governmental power through authority vested in them by the people. Thus, the extent of police power, the manner in which it is articulated, and the means by which it is exercised and controlled bear greatly upon how members of the public view them. These three dimensions of the political nature of police operations are central to understanding how community and police relationships develop and are maintained.

Ours is a country in which significant decisions affecting peoples' lives are made by two types of representatives of the people. The first type includes elected officials who serve in legislative and executive

positions. The second type includes appointed officials, such as police chiefs, who are required to answer to the elected officials but who exert considerable influence in making major decisions. When considering the police, it is also important to note that line officers, those who occupy the lowest positions in the organization, make very important decisions, since they must make initial decisions in enforcing the law and maintaining order.

By definition, the police in California serve a diverse collection of formal jurisdictions and other "publics" comprised of persons who share common traits or interests. Thus, although the police are formally charged with the general and undifferentiated enforcement of statutes and ordinances for all the people, they are also under constant pressure to respond to the particularistic needs of these many and often changing publics. The "majority" in our system of majority rule is comprised of many diverse interest groups, and the police, as other agencies of government, are expected to respond to the perceived needs of these groups. At least the groups' members expect them to do so, for it is part of our heritage to need and to want to influence the operations of government. This means that the many publics which the police serve are continuously interpreting their behavior according to numerous and often conflicting standards. Depending upon the publics involved, these interpretations are basically of three kinds: subcultural, special interest, and situational.

Subcultural interpretations are made primarily by groups who are bound together by a common racial/ethnic heritage or by a predisposition to share common values and lifestyles. Thus, the population groups which



we normally refer to as minorities fall within this category. The Black, Spanish-surname, Oriental, and American Indian citizens are the subcultural groups most often encountered in California. Additionally, to the extent that juveniles and youth generally meet the definition set forth above, they too can make their own subculturally-oriented interpretations of police behavior.

Special interest interpretations are those made by publics composed of persons whose common ties are not racial/ethnic or cultural, but revolve around shared interests. Examples are business groups, religious denominations, political parties, and civic groups. Each of these can develop fairly unique interpretations of what police goals and tactics should be, and occasionally each makes these interpretations known to the police.

Finally, there are situational interpretations of police behavior. Basically, these interpretations depend upon the role a person is playing in relation to the police at a given time. For example, the complainant or victim of a crime has a unique perspective about the police. By the same token, witnesses, arrestees, or acquaintances of these several persons will often view the same incident of police behavior in very different ways.

The importance of understanding the varying nature of these interpretations of police behavior becomes clear when community and police relationships are examined as dynamic processes of interaction between public official and citizen. Relationships are not static "things" which remain constant. Rather, they are dynamic; they have the potential for changing, and they do change over time. This, of course, implies that

relationships can be manipulated if the significant elements of their dynamics are properly understood.

## Significance of the Community-Police Relationship

We have charged the police in our society with a number of complicated tasks. The police, as part of the total criminal justice system, are an intimate part of the political mechanisms which we have established to maintain that minimum level of internal security and stability necessary for the rest of society to function.

More basic to the daily life of the average citizen, the police perform the vital role of ensuring that degree of safety from crime necessary for people to go about their business comfortably. Through the provision of both crime-related and public service assistance, the police do much to determine the quality of life in our communities. The larger and more urbanized the community, the more true this is.

Obviously, without the cooperation of the public, the police would be hard pressed to accomplish their tasks. In our democratic society, the police, other agencies of government, and the public together must combat crime. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice recognized this when it said:

> The fact is, of course, that even under the most favorable circumstances, the ability of the police to act against crime is limited. The police did not create and cannot resolve the social conditions that stimulate crime. They did not start and cannot stop the convulsive social changes that are taking place in America. They do not enact the laws they are required to enforce, nor do they dispose of the criminals they arrest. The police are only one part of the criminal justice system; the criminal justice system is only one part of the government; and the government is only one part of society.[8]



It seems trite to say that the American system of justice relies heavily upon voluntary compliance with the law. However, if a sizeable proportion of the public did not choose to accept the legitimacy of, or at least the necessity for obeying most laws, the police would be unable to deal with the criminal element. When people are apathetic toward the role of the police, their job is difficult enough. When people are overtly hostile toward them, however, and consciously choose to impede their efforts, the situation is even more serious.

In many respects, this is the issue which this report addresses. It is not just the issue of overt hostility and conflict which exist between the police and some segments of society. It is the broad spectrum of relationships which exist between the police and the numerous and diverse publics which they serve. For the police agency is charged with a crucial social and political mission and is provided with a broad and significant range of sanctions to use in accomplishing that mission. The police are the only agency of government granted the immediate legal authority to restrict a citizen's freedom or take his life; this is an awesome responsibility. The policeman is told to intervene in our crises and yet his presence is seldom welcomed by all involved. His relationship to the people he serves, then, is indeed worthy of the closest scrutiny.

It is fairly easy to conjure up images of the most spectacular examples of citizen and policy conflict or hostility. Police officers shot from ambush, citizens injured when resisting arrest, and the large and small scale riots which have been triggered by routine police operations are perhaps the most common examples. Less spectacular but

equally troublesome are the failures of the citizenry to assume their share of responsibility for controlling crime and for maintaining order. It is appropriate to consider police and citizen relationships as a continuum which ranges from apathy and apparent unconcern to overt hostility and violence.

In the past, attention has focused on community and police relationships at their worst. Charges of police brutality, harassment, or indifference to the needs of some segments of the community, usually racial or ethnic minorities, have dominated most discussions. This report also addresses these and related issues. They are considered, however, in the larger context of the total police mission. The intent of the analytical framework outlined in these pages is to accommodate all of the forces involved in developing and maintaining citizen and police relationships.

Beyond the obvious social and security implications of police and community relationships lies the simple fact that the police probably contact, in a face-to-face manner, more citizens each year than any other agency of government, with the possible exception of the schools. For example, the STAR survey determined that "more that 50% of the California population above the age of 13 apparently has had some kind of contact with a policeman or policewoman of sufficient importance to have resulted in their knowing the officer's name."[9]

## Levels of Community and Police Interaction

The concept of community and police interaction means simply that members of the community and members of the police profession engage in



a process of give and take in their relationships. The behavior of one helps to determine the behavior of the other over a relatively long period of time.

Once again, for analytical purposes, it is valuable to consider citizen and police interaction in two categories or on two levels. These levels are face-to-face and attitudinal.

The face-to-face interaction between citizen and police officer occurs frequently. It basically involves officer and citizen communicating with one another on a one-to-one (or nearly so) basis.

The second level of interaction, more abstract, essentially involves the impersonal experiences people have with the police. It is referred to here as attitudinal for it is represented by attitudes and impressions which people develop about the police based on sources which are primarily secondhand. A person holds an opinion of what the police are and what they do, regardless of whether he has rare or frequent face-to-face contacts with police officers. There is a pervasive and unavoidable police presence in every community. Thus, when the police are observed from a distance performing a task, when their activities are discussed in casual conversation, when a newspaper reports police activities, or when a motorist looks over his shoulder to see if a squad car is nearby, there is a very real and significant kind of interaction occurring.

Most information about the police is acquired through third party sources. This is true both for factual and erroneous information. Families, peer groups, educational institutions, the news media and other

influential social forces in the community do much to mold views of the police. These forces continuously reinforce or modify prevailing views by providing various interpretations of what they see the police doing.

Attitudinal interaction is more pervasive than the personal, face-to-face kind. It is very much a matter of perception (Chapter 3 discusses citizen attitudes toward the police). How a citizen reacts to a police officer during the face-to-face contact is determined in great part by how he has been influenced by his attitudes. In that sense, the forces which help to develop the attitudes can be said to mediate the development of community and police relationships. They do so both directly and indirectly.

The family stimulates attitudes directly through what it teaches children about the police and how its members relate to the police. Indirect stimulation comes through the way parents and other family members react generally to government, authority, crime, and related issues of right and wrong.

Schools provide direct stimulation once again through the process of teaching. To the extent that the police are studied, the school program can transfer impressions to students about this segment of government. Indirect stimulation of attitudes comes through the way schools deal with conflict and similar stituations on campus, and through how they respond to general governmental and social issues in the teaching process.

Peer groups both directly and indirectly stimulate the formation of attitudes through how they regard and behave toward the police and



other authority structures. Peer pressures to conform are significant elements in how many persons react to the police.

The news media influence the development of attitudes about the police in two ways. First, of course, is through the picture of the police role which they portray through their choice of news items involving the police. Second is through any deliberate interpretation of the police role which they may make through specific feature stories or editorials.

The entertainment media's role in attitude formulation is easy to speculate about but difficult to establish. However, the tremendous volume of entertainment specifically oriented toward crime themes provides ample opportunity to convey to audiences various views of the police role.

Indigenous community groups, such as civic organizations and block committees, often take stands on issues involving the police. They also carry on formal relationships with the police through participating in recruiting efforts, crime prevention projects, and so forth, thus contributing to the molding of community attitudes.

Government and social agencies also stimulate attitudes about the police. They often have reason to deal directly with the police in performing their organizational tasks. Beyond that, however, and of equal importance, are the ways in which such agencies handle those social problems and conflicts which can ultimately result in police intervention. The social agency that continuously turns to the police to handle crises can convey to clients the view that the police are in reality the "heavies" called in on a last resort basis.

Finally, attitudes are stimulated by the actions and pronouncements of the governmental and political leadership of a jurisdiction. Executives, legislators, and professional department heads are often called upon to comment about police-related problems. Beyond such direct statements, these key leaders have impact via their public posture toward police or crime-related issues.

These many mediating forces impact upon community and police relationships primarily by influencing the attitudes and perceptions held by citizens. The attitudes in turn affect how a citizen is likely to respond to a policeman in the face-to-face contact, how he is likely to regard his responsibilities in crime prevention and control, and how he is likely to relate to friends and relatives his feelings about the police. The arena in which the citizen-police interaction takes place, then, is heavily affected by these other societal forces.

## The Concept of Role as it Relates to Community and Police Relations

The final element of the analytical framework which underlies the Commission's examination of community and police relations is the concept of role development. Since the ultimate focus of this report is how police officers and members of the public behave toward one another, it is crucial that the concept of behavior be accommodated. Role is the possible range of behaviors which are relevant to the demands and needs of a particular position (in this case, the position of police officer).[10]

Briefly, focusing on role development facilitates analyzing citizen and police relationships because it reduces the behavior of the persons



involved to several specific functions and processes. These can then be used to describe almost any relationship. For this reason, role theory is becoming increasingly popular as a basic research element in all areas of government, including the police.[11]

The application of the role analysis technique in this report is not as scientifically stringent as pure research would require. Rather, it is applied here as a means for identifying and examining those persons and those activities which have a bearing on how the policeman and the citizen, in a general sense, behave toward one another.

Briefly, there are six dimensions to the role development model used here. First, there is the <u>focal person</u> in question. This is the person being studied, including the duties and responsibilities assigned to this person and recognized by society.

Second are the <u>role senders</u> interacting with the position in question, individuals with whom the focal person interacts.

Third, the role senders give signals or cues to the focal person about what they think he should do, how well they think he is doing it, and so forth. These are <u>role expectations</u>; they heavily influence what the person occupying the focal position will do.

Fourth, <u>role conflict</u> results when the focal person receives contradictory expectations from various persons. Responding to one expectation can make it considerably more difficult to respond adequately to the other.

Fifth, <u>role ambiguity</u> results when the focal person does not receive enough information from role senders to determine what he is supposed to do.

Finally, the role behavior is basically what the focal person does as a result of receiving and resolving in his own mind all of the expectations and other cues relevant to his position.

The value of applying this analytical tool can be illustrated by considering a fairly common police-citizen contact, the traffic violation. In this instance, a police officer stops a motorist for exceeding the speed limit. The officer is the focal person. The significant role senders are his supervisor, his fellow officers, the motorist involved, and several pedestrians who are present on the street corner where he has stopped the vehicle.

Obviously, the officer must take some action against the motorist. He has a range of discretion which allows him to write a ticket, issue a written warning or make a verbal warning. The expectation of his supervisor is that, in accordance with departmental regulations and the department's selective enforcement program, he will write the ticket. The expectation of the motorist is that the officer will let him go with a warning, because the motorist has a good driving record, was only a few miles over the posted limit, and was behaving politely and deferentially toward the officer. The expectations of the pedestrians, transmitted through their comments, is that the motorist receive a ticket, because there have been numerous traffic accidents in the area recently and residents are concerned.

The police officer must somehow resolve these various expectations in his own mind. Several are obviously in conflict, so he must assess their relative importance. His decision to issue a ticket to the motorist is based upon his analysis of the importance and accuracy of the several expectations as they relate to his own position.



In some respects, this is an over-simplification of the situation. Consider, for example, that the local news media might also have played a role in this process had they been editorializing for more stringent traffic control measures. Local business might have transmitted an expectation that too stringent control was interfering with business, and so forth.

The real value of using this technique to analyze police and citizen relationships lies in the proper emphasis it places on the numerous persons and institutions involved. While the police must unquestionably assume a major share of the responsibility for understanding and dealing with any community relations problems they may have, the remaining elements in the community must also recognize and assume their responsibilities.

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## Chapter 3

## SELECTED COMMUNITY ATTITUDES

Any attempt to gauge the attitudes of the community toward the police assumes monumental challenges from the outset. Attitudes are highly personal phenomena, molded by several factors in a continually dynamic state. There is considerable evidence that a person often possesses differing, even conflicting, attitudes toward the same thing; which attitude prevails at a given time is a factor of the group one is with, the role one is currently playing, activities and events going on at the time, and so on. Perhaps an excellent example is the citizen who is one day the recipient of a traffic violation notice and the next day the victim of a burglary.

Obviously, it is hazardous to talk of attitudes toward the police as an absolute and unchanging set of feelings shared uniformly by the entire populace. Rather, one must recognize that attitudes are multi-faceted and impermanent. They can and do change.

In addition, attitudes of a particular group may differ in many respects from those held individually by the members. The process of group identification often requires members to adopt the feelings of the other members. What result this has on changing attitudes meaningfully is not known and perhaps is not really germane to the issue here. Rather, the fact that group attitudes exist and that people base their actions on such attitudes is of primary importance.

With these cautionary comments in mind, it is possible to discuss the concept of community attitudes as a useful and appropriate tool in the examination of community-police relations. For, despite their impermanence, attitudes are a major determinant of behavior. How a person regards the police does much to influence how he will react when confronted by an officer. To the extent that the behavior of the officer reinforces the citizen's attitudes, all future contacts between the two, or between the citizen and any law enforcement officer will be affected.

These introductory remarks about the importance of attitudes in understanding community-police relations would be incomplete without considering the concept of "perception". Without belaboring the point, it must be recognized that people do not always see things as they are; one's perception of a set of circumstances may be quite unlike reality and, coincidentally, quite unlike that of other persons considering the same events.

The available evidence indicates that problems of perception, differential perception more accurately, comprise a significant part of the total community-police relations dilemma. The police and various citizen groups sometimes have different, and often equally distorted, views of the same problems. Thus, the always difficult task of improvement is further complicated by an inability to identify mutually agreeable targets.

The significance of these characteristics of attitudes and perception becomes more apparent in the remainder of this and following



chapters. It is important to remember that there is no "right" or "wrong" when dealing with these two elusive phenomena. Rather, to facilitate the targeting of any improvement efforts deemed necessary, the significant variables in community attitudes should be identified and correlated with such socio-demographic factors as age, race, ethnic heritage, income level, residency and employment whenever appropriate.

Representatives of various community publics (especially minority groups) and the police have commented that they have been "studied to death" in recent years. Yet tangible results of such studies are difficult to locate, either as programs resulting from such studies or as written reports of the studies themselves.

However, a few valuable studies have been discovered. Several recount data gathered outside of California; some were conducted a number of years ago. Despite their possible shortcomings, they are included here because they provide important facts about citizen attitudes toward the police. Further, there is reason to believe that substantial transferrance of these facts to the contemporary California situation is justified.

Additional data available for comparative purposes comes from a survey of a random representative sample of the California population. The survey was conducted for the Commission by the Field Research Corporation as part of Project STAR. This is a four-state study to determine the variables of criminal justice roles and to design training approaches for these roles.

Surveys have rather consistently indicated that general public attitudes toward the police are favorable. For instance, a 1967 poll conducted by the National Opinion Research Center (NORC), for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, found that 67 percent of the people surveyed thought that their police did a good or excellent job, 24 percent a fair job, and only 8 percent a poor job in enforcing the laws. The same survey group, when asked about how good a job the police do in giving protection to people in the neighborhood, responded as follows:[1]

| | |
|---|---|
| Very good | 42 percent |
| Pretty good | 35 percent |
| Not so good | 9 percent |
| No opinion | 14 percent |

These opinions are based on surveys of representative samples of the general population. When race, ethnicity, and age are considered, however, there is a significant differentiation in attitudes. For example, the same NORC study above indicated for Blacks that:

> In describing whether police give good protection to citizens, non-whites give a rating of "very good" only half as often as whites and give a "not so good" rating twice as often. These differences are not merely a function of greater poverty among non-whites; they exist at all income levels and for both men and women.[2]

A study conducted in Denver in 1966 extended its concern to both Blacks and Spanish-surnamed people of the city. It found that among the majority (white) population, 27 percent of the respondents thought the police did an excellent job, 58 percent a pretty good job, 2 percent a bad job, and 12 percent didn't know. In contrast, only 12 percent of the Black and 11 percent of the Spanish-surnamed

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responded to excellent, 71 percent of the Blacks and 65 percent of the Spanish-surnamed to pretty good, 7 percent of the Blacks and 13 percent of the Spanish-surnamed to bad, and 10 percent of the Blacks and 9 percent of the Spanish-surnamed to don't know.[3]

As did the President's Commission, the investigators in that survey indicated that "ethnicity is correlative with certain judgments, but...class indicators, such as education, income, and occupation, are not."[4]

The Project STAR survey completed in California in January and February of 1972, asked its respondents what kind of job they felt the police department serving their area was doing. The overwhelming majority--83 percent of adults and 82 percent of teenagers--said that the police were doing a somewhat good, very good, or extremely good job. Only 11 percent of the adults and 10 percent of the teenagers said somewhat poor, very poor, or extremely poor. Interestingly, only 7 percent of the adults and 9 percent of the teenagers expressed a neutral or don't know opinion.[5]

It is important to note that although the majority of the general California population holds a favorable attitude toward the police, there are significant variations in intensity of feelings. Project STAR data indicate that the group which least approves of police actions includes members of the Black community. Twenty-two percent of responding Black citizens appraise the police as doing a poor job, while only 2 percent rate it as extremely good. It is

significant that only 20 percent of the Black survey respondents evaluate the police in the two top categories (very good, extremely good) compared to 50 percent of the white community who do so.

Further, compared to the majority population, Mexican/Chicano citizens are slightly less likely to evaluate the police as doing an excellent job. Only 6 percent of the Mexican/Chicano respondents select the top category when rating the police service provided in their area. At the same time, however, they are not as critical of the police as are Blacks; just 11 percent rate police performance as "poor".[6]



COMPARISON OF RATINGS OF JOB BEING DONE BY[7]
"THE POLICE DEPARTMENT THAT SERVES THIS AREA"
BY ETHNIC CHARACTERISTICS

| | PERCENT RATING POLICE JOB | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| CHARACTERISTICS | Extremely Good | Very Good | Somewhat Good | No Opinion | Somewhat Poor | Extremely Poor |
| Race/Ethnic category | | | | | | |
| White | 11% | 41 | 32 | 7 | 4 | 5 |
| Mexican/Chicano | 6% | 32 | 45 | 6 | 7 | 4 |
| Negro/Black | 2% | 18 | 45 | 13 | 9 | 13 |
| Other Latin American | 15% | 73 | 8 | 4 | - | - |
| Oriental | -% | 33 | 41 | 16 | - | 10 |

Survey statistics indicate that residents of major urban areas in California--particularly the San Francisco and Los Angeles metropolitan areas--are somewhat less enthusiastic in their appraisals of law enforcement than are citizens residing in other areas. The data suggest that they are not necessarily dissatisfied with police performance. They are simply less strong in their endorsements.

THE PUBLIC'S EVALUATION OF THE JOB BEING DONE BY[8]
"THE POLICE DEPARTMENT THAT SERVES THIS AREA"
ADULTS BY AREA OF STATE, AND TEENAGERS

| | PERCENT OF ADULTS RATING POLICE JOB | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| JOB RATING | TOTAL | LOS ANGELES ORANGE CO. AREA | OTHER SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA | S.F. BAY AREA | OTHER NORTHERN CALIFORNIA | PERCENT OF TEENAGERS |
| Extremely good job | 10% | 10 | 13 | 10 | 8 | 6 |
| Very good job | 40% | 37 | 47 | 39 | 41 | 25 |
| Somewhat good job | 33% | 33 | 31 | 33 | 36 | 51 |
| Neutral, don't know | 7% | 10 | 4 | 8 | 4 | 9 |
| Somewhat poor job | 5% | 4 | 3 | 3 | 7 | 7 |
| Very poor job | 4% | 4 | 1 | 5 | 4 | 2 |
| Extremely poor job | 2% | 2 | 1 | 2 | * | 1 |

*Less than ½ of one percent
Note: Columns may not add to exactly 100% because of rounding

Project STAR data regarding young people's attitudes toward the police indicate that youth make consistently less favorable evaluations of police than do adults. In response to the question, "Police officers behave in a way that earns the confidence and support of the public", only 51 percent of California youth responded affirmatively compared to 65 percent of the adult population.[9] Another study, completed in Cincinnati, provides additional data in this area. This study, which illustrates the impact of ethnicity on perceptions of the police, found that 23 percent of young Black men and 13 percent of young Black women believe that police are "mean". This is particularly significant when compared to responses from white children in the same age brackets. When confronted with the statement that "Police represent trouble rather than help", 23 percent of the Black male youths and 10 percent of the Black girls responded in the affirmative compared to 12 percent of the white boys and 5 percent of the white girls.[10] This suggests that not only are the youth generally less favorable in their appraisal of the police, but also that youths from the minority community indicate a greater level of distrust of the police than do their white counterparts.

In summary, when the total public is considered, including all racial and ethnic groups and all ages, the general attitude is favorable. In almost every instance reported, over 70 percent of the total public thought the police were doing an excellent or good job.



However, when the factors of age, race and ethnic background are considered, there is some differentiation in attitude. While large numbers of both Black and Spanish-surnamed people continue to regard the job done by the police as being excellent or good, a substantial portion feel differently. Thus, as the NORC, Project STAR, Denver, and Cincinnati studies indicate, members of minority communities are dissatisfied with the job done by the police in greater proportions than those of the majority community.

To achieve better comprehension of the California public's perception of police, Project STAR surveyed a representative sample of citizens to determine what they consider as desirable and probable police behavior. However, in their analysis, Project STAR staff did not separate responses emanating from the minority community from those given by the white community. In some cases, then, the STAR data blur significantly divergent opinions regarding the minority citizenry's perception of the police function. Since this has some ramifications in terms of the present discussion, such divergences will be noted and additional research support provided where appropriate.

In many ways, it is difficult to separate community attitudes toward the police from feelings about crime in general. In the Project STAR study, respondents were asked to list in order of importance what they thought was desirable and probable police behavior. The responding citizens stated that in their opinion, the number one priority for law enforcers should be "to prevent the occurrence of crime". This finding is supported by evidence collected

by the NORC study. Participants in the NORC survey were asked whether they thought the main concern of the police should be with preventing crimes from happening or with catching criminals. "All but 6 percent of those asked felt they could make a choice between these two emphases--61 percent chose preventing crimes and 31 percent catching criminals."

The Project STAR study asked California respondents, "What do you feel are the most pressing problems facing the people of this community these days?" Thirty-nine percent of the adults responded with an answer related to crime or the police; 44 percent of the teenagers did so.

Further, to determine how concerned citizens are about crime, the Project STAR study asked their population sample the question, "Compared with a year ago, do you feel the danger from crime of all kinds in this city/town has become greater or has become less?" Fifty-three percent of the male adults and slightly more female adults responding to the question indicate they feel that crime danger is greater in their area this year as compared to last year. Fifty percent of California teenagers agree with this appraisal.

In exploring further the community's perception of crime and its impact on their lives, Project STAR asked their respondents, "Have there been times recently when you...stayed at home because you thought it unsafe to go out?" Twenty-eight percent of the male population and 42 percent of the female population responded affirmatively to the inquiry.



In spite of recent crime statistics indicating some decrease in certain crime rates, citizens remain quite concerned about their physical safety and well-being in their homes and on the streets. In all socio-demographic categories, more than half of the citizens believe that crime is up in their particular community. Obviously, this has serious repercussions on community attitudes towards law enforcement. As the above survey statistics suggest, a sizeable proportion of the general population in California restrict their normal daily activities because of their fear of crime.

Project STAR data indicate that 45 percent of their sample population, including members of the sample populations' households, report having been a victim of a crime in the past year. Extending the time period to include the past five years increases to 64 percent the number of persons reporting victimization. Admittedly, this method of collecting data on victimization may be criticized; however, even after applying a correction factor, the STAR researchers indicate that at least 49 percent of the sample population report being the victim of a crime in the past five years. The crimes most often cited as occurring during this period include: malicious mischief (15 percent); burglary (12 percent); auto theft (11 percent); consumer fraud (10 percent); larceny (9 percent); and robbery, assault, forgery, and fraud (3-4 percent).[12]

Fear of crime and its implications directly affect the community's attitude toward its policing agency. This is particularly true in minority communities. The quality of law enforcement service provided is directly related to the community's attitude toward the police.

Where the community attitude is unfavorable and community hostility and anxiety are high, the incidence of crime is usually also high. This is particularly true in minority areas. As reported in the Project STAR study,

> Black people experience nearly twice as much anxiety about going out of their homes for fear of violence as do Whites, Mexican-Americans, or Orientals. They also see their own neighborhoods as being more crime prone than other racial ethnic groups do, and a large majority of them believe crime is greater than it was a year ago.[13]

Further, compared to persons living elsewhere in the State, residents of the Los Angeles/Orange County area have the greatest fear of crime. It is noteworthy that these Southern California residents perceive that the crime problem is escalating significantly each year. This perception is shared, only to a greater extent, by large segments of the Black and Spanish-surnamed citizenry living in this metropolitan region as well.

## Perceptions of Police Concern Within the Community

A major dimension of the public's attitude toward the police is the degree to which the public views law enforcement as being involved with and concerned about the community they serve. For example, survey questions dealing with offensive language, development of good services, and involvement of the citizenry in law enforcement tasks were asked. The responses, presented below,[14] suggest that large portions of the community are not satisfied with current levels of police performance in this regard.



| STATEMENT | PERCENT WHO: AGREE STRONGLY | AGREE | DON'T KNOW NOT SURE | DISAGREE | DISAGREE STRONGLY |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Police Officers on the street behave in a way that earns the confidence and support of the public, | | | | | |
| Adults | 10% | 55 | 17 | 15 | 3 |
| Teenagers | 1% | 50 | 27 | 20 | 1 |
| Police Officers do not give my neighborhood as good services as they do other parts of town, | | | | | |
| Adults | 5% | 12 | 20 | 52 | 11 |
| Teenagers | 6% | 16 | 20 | 49 | 9 |
| The police encourage people in the community to help them in providing law enforcement services, | | | | | |
| Adults | 8% | 50 | 20 | 20 | 3 |
| Teenagers | 7% | 52 | 19 | 22 | 1 |

It is significant that 17 percent and 22 percent respectively of all adults and teenagers responding to the survey perceive that the quality of police service provided to their neighborhood is different than that provided to other neighborhoods, while 20 percent of each group is unsure. A citizen's evaluation of the quality of police service is related to his perception of what services the department should provide. Citizens hold a wide range of opinions about what constitutes proper police performance. Some citizens emphasize the law enforcement nature of police work and consequently evaluate police performance in terms of response times and numbers of crimes solved. Other citizens emphasize order maintenance and community service; consequently, they are more likely to judge police officers on their ability to interact successfully with the community.

A very important factor in the citizen's perception of the quality of police service provided to his community is whether he believes that the police behave in a manner that elicits support and confidence from the public. Over half of all California adults and teenagers indicate that the police in their area behave in such a manner. This suggest a high potential for police to involve residents in their crime control and community service efforts. It has obvious ramifications for community-police relationships, for the task of law enforcement is significantly easier in an atmosphere of support and cooperation.

The quality and effectiveness of law enforcement services within a community are related to the amount of citizen participation encouraged by police agencies. It is interesting to note that of all the general questions covering community cooperation, the most direct question in this area received the lowest response. Only 58 percent of the adults and 59 percent of the teenagers felt that the police encourage people in the community to help them provide law enforcement services.

The Advisory Commission frequently heard minority citizens voice the perception that the police services provided to their communities would improve if more minority citizens were employed in law enforcement jobs. The personnel practices of California law enforcement will be discussed more extensively in Chapter 11 of this report; however, it should be emphasized at this point that minority communities want to be better represented within law enforcement at all ranks. The California population at large appears to feel similarly. In the



Project STAR survey, only 22 percent of both adults and teenagers believe that "Police administrators assign enough minority group officers to minority neighborhoods".[15] The remaining 78 percent of the respondents are either unsure or express dissatisfaction with the number of minority police officers assigned to minority neighborhoods.

Further, slightly more than one-third of the California population believe that it is important that police patrolling a particular community become familiar with the residents in the neighborhood.[16] By knowing the residents in the area, police would be better able to pinpoint trouble spots before they become major sources of tension and/or recognize and rectify unusual criminal activity going on in the community. Community interest would also be served by knowing and establishing a rapport with the officers, thus increasing the level of trust and mutual respect existing between law enforcement and the community.

| STATEMENT | PERCENT WHO: AGREE STRONGLY | AGREE | DON'T KNOW NOT SURE | DISAGREE | DISAGREE STRONGLY |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Police administrators assign enough minority group officers to minority neighborhoods | | | | | |
| Adults | 1% | 21 | 52 | 21 | 4 |
| Teenagers | -% | 22 | 51 | 25 | 2 |
| The police become familiar with residents of the neighborhood they patrol | | | | | |
| Adults | 4% | 28 | 17 | 42 | 9 |
| Teenagers | 7% | 29 | 23 | 33 | 9 |

In order to involve the public in more favorable police contacts, it will be necessary to widen existing communications channels between the police and the publics they serve. When respondents were asked whether police supply citizens sufficient follow-up information about particular cases, almost half of the survey sample indicated that the police did not.[17] Slightly over one-third reported that they didn't know or weren't sure. The data suggest that the citizenry want to be more extensively informed about the disposition of cases in which they are interested. For example, in a home burglary case, involved persons not only want their stolen articles returned, they also desire to know whether the burglar was apprehended, whether he was jailed, and so forth. Of course, citizens need to be made aware that in some cases legal technicalities prevent the police from making a full disclosure of facts. However, in the majority of cases, this does not occur. Therefore, police should be encouraged to provide more information to concerned citizens whenever possible.



| STATEMENT | PERCENT WHO: AGREE STRONGLY | AGREE | DON'T KNOW NOT SURE | DISAGREE | DISAGREE STRONGLY |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| The police don't give people enough follow-up information about what's happening to their cases | | | | | |
| Adults | 8% | 35 | 36 | 18 | 2 |
| Teenagers | 6% | 40 | 34 | 20 | 1 |

## Perceptions of Police Fairness

In terms of fairness, a number of items from the Project STAR survey indicate that the community views law enforcement favorably. For example, 70 percent of the adult population and 60 percent of the teenage population believe that police officers generally do not use offensive language in the performance of their duties.[18] There are indications that some segments of the community do feel that the police use offensive language. They may not mean obscene language, but may include generally condescending tones of voice or the use of slang terms particularly offensive to certain minority groups. During its interviews, the Commission heard numerous reports of such language usage.

| STATEMENT | PERCENT WHO: AGREE STRONGLY | AGREE | DON'T KNOW NOT SURE | DISAGREE | DISAGREE STRONGLY |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| The police often use offensive language when dealing with the public | | | | | |
| Adults | 4% | 10 | 16 | 53 | 17 |
| Teenagers | 5% | 11 | 24 | 47 | 13 |

As the STAR data show, adults and teenagers significantly diverge in opinion about whether police treat young people fairly.[19] Forty percent of youth respondents indicate that they believe the police pick on them unfairly. Generally suspicious of police behavior, youth anticipate unfavorable contacts with officers of the law. The fact that peace officers are required to enforce curfews and similar kinds of youth-targeted norms intensifies normal youthful antipathy toward authority figures. Youth perceive that they are unfairly picked on because many of the things that bring them into contact with law enforcement officers are activities which are legal for adults.

| STATEMENT | PERCENT WHO: AGREE STRONGLY | AGREE | DON'T KNOW NOT SURE | DISAGREE | DISAGREE STRONGLY |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| The police have it in for young people and pick on them unfairly | | | | | |
| Adults | 8% | 20 | 11 | 52 | 8 |
| Teenagers | 9% | 31 | 18 | 33 | 8 |

To the statement that "the police are more likely to arrest someone who displays what they consider to be a bad attitude", 77 percent of the sample indicate they believe this would occur.[20] This question has significance in terms of the previous question which dealt with young people and the perception of being unfairly picked on. It follows that those youths who generally display a "bad attitude" would feel that the police were unfairly picking on them.



| STATEMENT | PERCENT WHO: AGREE STRONGLY | AGREE | DON'T KNOW NOT SURE | DISAGREE | DISAGREE STRONGLY |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| The police are more likely to arrest a person who displays what they consider to be a bad attitude | | | | | |
| Adult | 15% | 62 | 8 | 13 | 1 |
| Teenager | 10% | 67 | 14 | 8 | 1 |

The process of arrest is an interpersonal action between a peace officer and a citizen. The survey indicates that 50 percent of California adults and 42 percent of the teenagers believe that police usually do not employ excessive force in making an arrest. In contrast, 30 percent of the adults and 37 percent of the teenagers feel excessive force is often used.[21]

| STATEMENT | PERCENT WHO: AGREE STRONGLY | AGREE | DON'T KNOW NOT SURE | DISAGREE | DISAGREE STRONGLY |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| The police often use excessive force in making arrests | | | | | |
| Adults | 7% | 23 | 19 | 44 | 6 |
| Teenagers | 5% | 32 | 20 | 38 | 4 |

With respect to police response to complaints of officer misconduct, one-third of Project STAR's sample population believes that a citizen with a complaint against a police officer will have a hard time getting the authorities to look into the matter.[22] The detrimental impact of such a perception will be discussed more extensively

in Chapter 9. However, it is significant to emphasize here that a sizeable portion of the general public perceives that a complaint filed with a law enforcement agency will not receive adequate attention from the proper reviewing authorities.

Very much related to the perception that complaints are not appropriately handled by authorities is the public's perception of the fairness and/or thoroughness of police investigation of citizen's complaints. Again, one-third of California's adults and teenagers disagree with the statement that police investigations of citizen's complaints are always fair and thorough.[23] It is significant that one-third of the respondents indicate that they "don't know" or are "not sure" about the fairness of the complaint process. The impact of the public's perception on the complaint procedure is yet to be determined. It is difficult to ascertain how many citizen complaints against a department go unfiled because the potential complainant perceives that his complaint will not receive fair or adequate attention from the department. The fact that such a large portion of the population regard the police complaint process with such suspicion has significant impact on the police-community relationship.

| STATEMENT | PERCENT WHO: AGREE STRONGLY | AGREE | DON'T KNOW NOT SURE | DISAGREE | DISAGREE STRONGLY |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A citizen who has a complaint against a police officer will have a hard time getting the authorities to look into the matter | | | | | |
| Adults | 8% | 22 | 21 | 42 | 6 |
| Teenagers | 7% | 30 | 24 | 36 | 2 |
| Police investigations of complaints about police misconduct are always fair and thorough | | | | | |
| Adults | 5% | 27 | 34 | 27 | 7 |
| Teenagers | 2% | 31 | 32 | 32 | 3 |



Using the following questions, Project STAR attempted to elicit attitudes about police treatment considering the variables of race/ethnicity, economic status, age, and demeanor.

In the first instance, it is posited that "The police treat all people alike regardless of race or nationality."[24]

| STATEMENT | PERCENT WHO: AGREE STRONGLY | AGREE | DON'T KNOW NOT SURE | DISAGREE | DISAGREE STRONGLY |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| The police treat all people alike regardless of race or nationality | | | | | |
| Adults | 8% | 27 | 12 | 34 | 19 |
| Teenagers | 11% | 23 | 20 | 40 | 8 |

In response to the statement "Police give more considerate treatment to rich than to poor people", adult responses are quite close to those described above while teenagers are less negative.[25]

| STATEMENT | PERCENT WHO: AGREE STRONGLY | AGREE | DON'T KNOW NOT SURE | DISAGREE | DISAGREE STRONGLY |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Police give more considerate treatment to rich than to poor people | | | | | |
| Adults | 18% | 34 | 16 | 27 | 6 |
| Teenagers | 9% | 23 | 20 | 40 | 8 |

It is true that the police do treat people differently and that the public perceives it to be so. This is required by nature of the police job and by the widely different situations which they face. The issue is whether the differential treatment is a factor of race,

ethnic background, income, or age; or, conversely, a factor of the real and significant differences in the law enforcement needs of the communities involved. Many people, particularly minorities, feel that the former is the case. This topic is treated more extensively in Chapter 7.

This perception often translates into charges that the police are "harassing" minorities. Disproportionate representation of minorities in arrest statistics, more police per mile and per thousand population in minority neighborhoods, the feeling that minorities are stopped more often than others for field interrogations, and the feeling that the police use psychological and physical brutality against minorities more often than against members of the majority community combine to create a polarized "we-they" situation. This has significant impact on the community's relationships with the police, regardless of the extent to which some of these perceptions are based on fact.

## Summary

Briefly summarizing, the data we have examined indicate that the general California population holds a favorable attitude toward the police. The citizen perceives California law enforcers as doing a good to excellent job in the performance of their responsibilities. Some divergence of attitudes is apparent when minority and youth responses are separated from the responses given by the population at large. The ramifications of these divergent attitudes will be treated more extensively elsewhere in the report. It is interesting to note that in items relating to fairness the public evaluates the police performance level as being slightly lower than police performance of community service tasks. Major



portions of the public perceive that the police are more likely to treat the rich better than the poor, the person displaying a "good" attitude better than the person who is behaving poorly, and so forth.

Due to the state-wide nature of the survey, unique local differences may be obscured. It is the obligation of the local policing agency to make regular assessments of the community it serves and, where necessary, to take appropriate action to ameliorate potentially tense situations before major hostility between the police and the public occurs.

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# Chapter 4

# THE POLICE

There are some 429 police and sheriffs' departments in California. Collectively, they employ more than 40,000 sworn police personnel. These personnel are not dispersed equally among the agencies. The five largest departments providing uniformed police services (Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department, Los Angeles Police Department, California Highway Patrol, San Francisco Police Department, and San Diego Police Department) contain over 50 percent of the total.

Fifty-eight of the enforcement agencies considered in this report are county sheriff's departments. Three hundred and seventy are municipal agencies, and one is a state agency. The geographic dispersal pattern finds most municipal agencies located in the metropolitan areas of the state.

This array of agencies, each of which is locally administered, encompasses a wide range of individual discretion in matters of policy and operations. Such variety points up the difficulty inherent in any attempt to make broad, general statements about the "police" as a California institution. Obviously, local differences exist and there will be many exceptions to any generalities this report may develop.

A number of factors do mitigate this, however. For example, through its Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST),

California has stimulated the adoption of high standards of employment and training statewide. Although compliance is voluntary, agencies employing more than 99 percent of the state's law enforcement officers adhere to a set of minimum standards established by this state agency. In fact, many agencies have increased their local standards beyond POST minimums.

Also, the basic legal foundations of police authority in California flow primarily from the State. This means that the underlying authority of all law enforcement agencies regardless of size or location is the same. These legal foundations are found in the various California codes, in case law handed down by the courts, and in the historical and traditional precedents which have been accepted and institutionalized over the years.

Finally, there is another factor which causes some continuity of structure and operating philosophies throughout the state. California is essentially the source of the professional police administration movement. It has consistently been in the forefront of developing educational programs, minimum standards, and to some degree common values among its police personnel. The result has been a relatively widespread application of similar procedures and organizational structures among these agencies.



## The California Police System

In many respects, California has an integrated police system. We noted earlier that the basic legal foundations of the police authority stem from state statutes and decisions of state courts. In addition, a number of other circumstances exert pressures toward the attainment of integrated status. Dr. John P. Kenney describes the phenomena in the following fashion:

> California does not have a centralized administrative organization for performing the police function. Integration and synthesis for administration of the police function has been achieved by establishment of a set of relationships between the state, the primary police agencies, universities and colleges, and police associations. In a sense, a decentralized organizational system has been evolved through which integrative cooperative action takes place. The State provides coordination and supervision of communications, investigation, and criminal information processing services essential for control of major criminal activity within the state. In addition, state administration of training and personnel standards programs contributes to the upgrading of personnel. University and college police education programs supplement state and local agency programs for upgrading personnel. Police associations provide the political vehicles through which agency programs are implemented. They also facilitate the communication process so that an optimum exchange of general information is achieved.[1]

In addition to the cooperative approach to law enforcement assumed by state, county, and local agencies, the structural position of the law enforcement agency within local government provides commonality in the state. There are basically five variations of

placement for police or sheriff's departments in the local government structure.

The first and most common structural arrangement among small cities is the mayor-council system in which each operating department has an appointed department head to coordinate its functions. The strong mayor variation of this system has an elected mayor personally running the city operations. The weak mayor variation places a professional city administrative officer in charge of the actual administration; however, the mayor may control some of the departments.

A second council-mayor arrangement is based on the commission concept. Each councilman acts as a city commissioner with responsibility for various activities. Commonly, one councilman will be commissioner of public safety with administrative responsibility for the functions of the police, fire, and public health departments.

Third, in a council-city administrator form of government the city administrator serves in a staff capacity to the council. The mayor is usually elected from within the council and serves only as a figurehead. Under this arrangement, the city administrator frequently assumes duties normally associated with those of a city manager.

The council-city manager arrangement is the fourth commonly found in California. It is characterized by a charter which puts the city manager in direct charge of the city departments. Most



department heads report directly to the manager, who reports to the council.

The fifth system describes county sheriff's departments. The county sheriff is an independently elected official who is responsible to the electorate for the performance of his assigned functions. However, he is tied to the county board of supervisors because they must allocate his operating funds as part of the county budget.

The implications of the law enforcement agency's relationship to the rest of local government is considered in greater detail in subsequent chapters. The structures are introduced here to indicate the commonality which prevails in the state. When considering California, one is apt to assume diversity even when it does not necessarily exist.

The traditional development of police department organizational structures is a third integrating factor. Until recent years, police departments were organized by specific functions with little attempt at integration internally. Today, however, depending on the size of the agency, there is a tendency to group like functions. One emerging concept is to create an "office of the chief of police" which draws certain sensitive operations directly under the control of the chief administrator.

The integrated approach to policing taken by California, the commonality of government structures, and the traditional internal

development of police agencies have all tended to create a continuity of structure and operating philosophy throughout the state.

## The California Policeman

In the final analysis, the police organization is nothing more than a planned method for managing the people who are to perform necessary tasks. It is the behavior of these people which must ultimately be considered. Police officers, even in a state as large and diverse as California, share a number of common characteristics. Their experience after becoming police officers, moreover, tends to build upon these common characteristics and draw them closer together as a group.

Novice policemen, for example, go through a number of similar experiences regardless of where they may be employed. First, the police recruit is the product of a selection process based upon paralleled standards for every agency. Second, he undergoes a training process which is based upon common standards. In both cases, the basic standards are set by POST; local agencies can influence the exact curriculum and teaching techniques and can increase the amount of training provided, but at least a minimum amount of hours in specific subjects is mandated.

Finally, the on-the-job experiences of police officers are comparable. This is primarily because the police responsibility for enforcing criminal and traffic statutes is statewide. Although



amounts of crime and to some degree kinds of crime vary according to the size of the jurisdiction, the characteristics of the crimes themselves are relatively constant. A murder is the same, according to the law, whether it occurs in Los Angeles or the Redwood country. This is the substantive side of the law. The procedural side, which comprises the set of rules laid down by statute and court decision to govern enforcement decisions, is also statewide in scope. This results in at least a minimal amount of central coordination of how police perform certain enforcement-related tasks.

There are a number of things happening in California today that may result in significant changes in these several common characteristics of police officers. Although it is not anticipated that they will become less homogeneous as a group, it is quite possible that the characteristics they share will differ significantly.

In the area of education, there is a growing tendency for police officers to seek a college degree. California has numerous college programs in police science and administration of justice. Many agencies emphasize the value of college training for their officers; some go so far as to provide monetary incentives for completion of college courses. The time is not far away when college units or degrees will be mandatory for entrance and promotion in many police agencies.

In part as an outgrowth of the increasing education and growing professional outlook of police officers, there seems to be an increasing rate of job mobility. Although substantial obstacles stand in the way

of making lateral transfer a reality on a statewide basis, there is still more possibility today that an officer will change police employers during his career. The certification program coordinated by POST gives added impetus to this trend by providing assurance that officers share at least a minimum amount of common education, training, and experience. A nationwide study conducted under the auspices of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration on transferable retirement programs should also stimulate mobility.

Another factor which appears to be having impact on the police officer is the greater breadth of responsibility he has been given in recent years. Chapter 2 discussed the social nature of many police tasks. As the police have assumed responsibility for such tasks, and as that responsibility has become more widely known in the community, their stature has tended to increase. More people are aware of the complexities involved in managing social crises. This awareness has stimulated greater interest in police training and education and has promoted an image of the police job, if not of the police officer, that is complicated and demanding.

Finally, there is a trend toward greater militancy developing among line level police organizations in California. The idea of police unionization is still distasteful to the majority of officers. However, associations are seeking an expanded role in the decision-making processes of their agencies. Indeed, the phenomenon of active police associations came to the forefront with the passage of the



Meyers, Millius, Brown Act which permitted the recognition of associations as legitimate bargaining agents for police officers. Because of the relatively high level of salaries and benefits provided in the state, much of the militancy is directed toward what have traditionally been management prerogatives, such as policy-making.

If these trends continue, they will undoubtedly result in a police population which is considerably different from that of the recent past. Just how this will affect police operations and relationships with the community is speculative. It would seem, however, that higher levels of education, a broader professional perspective and accompanying job mobility, recognition of the complex nature of the tasks they perform, and the assertion of their perceived right to be a part of the agency's decision-making process should make the policeman of the immediate future particularly attuned to the concept of the changing police role developed later in this report. Since these changes must take place in the context of the current police culture, that subject must be considered as well.

## The Police Culture

As an occupational group, the police are as much of a "public" as those discussed in Chapter 2. They share a common interest and a significant number of common values. Commonly referred to as the police culture, the police public has been the focus of considerable study in recent years.

Researchers have made many attempts to develop a psychological profile of the average policeman, hoping through such a profile to explain the major attributes of the police culture. Although the results of this research are interesting, they cannot be widely generalized; differences in location, age, and time appear to affect the results of the tests used, limiting their usefulness.

Although difficulties have developed in the use of the psychological approach, it has still been possible to identify a number of characteristics of the police culture which will pass the test for generalizing. Additionally, there is fairly wide agreement on the factors which comprise these characteristics.

The commonality of backgrounds and initial experiences in police work, already discussed, significantly influence the creation of police culture. For example, police officers begin to develop a feeling of camaraderie during their recruit academy training. They essentially undergo a major change in their lifestyles, and they become aware of the fact that people will look at them differently as police officers. This makes them acutely sensitive to behavioral cues from those already in the police culture. The need for acceptance as an officer is a major concern during this initiation into the police service.

As they progress in their careers, officers are drawn more closely together by the unique nature of the tasks they perform. Few other professions, if any, become involved in such a wide variety of tasks on what is basically an emergency basis. While doctors



handle medical emergencies, they seldom come face to face with armed robbers. While social workers counsel families with marital problems, they seldom spend hours searching for a lost child. While lawyers deal in the fine points of the law, they seldom have to resolve questions of due process at the scene of a narcotics raid. Police officers, however, do all of these things, and they often do them during a single week's work. They know this sets them apart from others in society, and they both like and dislike its consequences.

Another characteristic of their jobs which policemen regard ambivalently is the potential danger inherent in so many calls for assistance. Because one facet of the policeman's job requires that he deal with criminals, and because there is a well-entrenched tradition of violence in our country, the officer must always be alert for danger. This is drummed into his subconscious during police training, and it is reinforced every time an officer is wounded or killed in the line of duty. Skolnick[2], in his consideration of the influence symbolic danger has on the policeman's working personality, notes that it results in a high need for regularity and predictability. Those things that are irregular and unpredictable herald possible danger; hence, the policeman is very concerned with them, which stimulates persistent suspicion. This suspicion is not confined to the officer's street contacts, nor is it shared by persons in other occupations. It reinforces the tendency for policemen to remain close-knit.

If the police regard themselves as different from most others in society, their tendency to do so is not much less than that of the general public. People do regard the police as different. We have already noted public interest in the police. There is also a public awareness of the authoritative responsibilities they have; this often creates a social distance between citizen and officer.

Taken together, these several aspects of the policeman's job result in the development of a police culture which emphasizes a high degree of group solidarity; social isolation from other occupational groups in the general public; a high level of cynicism; defensiveness when someone challenges them or their role; a one-track life in which they become very much police-centered; and the tendency to look at things in "we-they" terms, "we" being policemen and "they" being everyone else.[3]

As a number of commentators have pointed out, these cultural aspects of police life are reflected in how the officer relates to the public. Individually, they result in certain behavioral perspectives. Collectively, they play a major part in defining the institutional thrust of the police agency as it is perceived and interpreted by the many publics it serves.

The characteristics of group solidarity, social isolation, defensiveness, and a "we-they" outlook are very closely related; they stem from many of the same factors and reinforce one another. Their ultimate effect, of course, is to drive a wedge between police officers



and other groups in the public. Policemen are quick to tell stories of how their social lives deteriorate after they go on the job. Former friends suddenly regard them differently; they're "cops". Their behavior is measured according to different standards. They are held accountable for every bad experience every person has had with policemen.

The natural tendency for officers perceiving this change in their relationships is to avoid social contacts with non-police people. This tendency begins very early in their careers. In combination with their urge to be accepted by their brother officers and their early fascination with the job, it creates tremendous pressures for restricting all contacts to the police fraternity.

This occupational introversion has obvious implications for both the emotional well-being of the officer and his face-to-face relationships with members of the community. Perhaps the most significant is that it restricts his openness to different points of view and provides continuous reinforcement of his perceptions, regardless of their accuracy. Policemen deal with all members of the community, representing diverse backgrounds and viewpoints. When the officer is basically unfamiliar with many of these backgrounds and viewpoints, and when he has few relationships which bring them to his attention, there is a high probability that he will occasionally react inappropriately to public needs.

Added to this common lack of communication with non-police persons is the defensiveness which characterizes the police culture.

This has been described by one police officer in the following fashion:

> This defensiveness is manifested in many ways. It is displayed most graphically when we are reluctant to explain police actions to nonpolice persons, even those with a legitimate interest in them. It is demonstrated when we answer such an inquiry with "It's police business." Of course there are times, especially in instances involving confidential information, in which a reply such as this is entirely justified. Unfortunately, however, it is used unnecessarily at times. The police culture shows a reluctance, at times, to give up some of its more traditional responsibilities, such as freeway patrol to state police agencies, drunk detention to detoxification centers, etc. Some members of the culture see these things as a general weakening of that nebulous thing called "police power" (the power to govern men and things).
>
> Defensiveness is manifested when we show a hypersensitivity to criticism, even of a constructive type. Again we sometimes respond by indicating that such things are best left to the judgment of the "experienced" (despite the fact that many of our officers who are actually engaged daily in enforcement activities are oftentimes inexperienced, both in the mechanical aspects of the job itself and in sound human relations practices). We tend to argue or rationalize when presented with what a "citizen" considers a legitimate complaint, and actually tend to investigate his complaint with the express purpose of proving the officer "right" and the citizen "wrong".[4]

Members of the community are quick to recognize the defensiveness of the police. As Chapter 9 indicates, one common complaint people have about current citizen grievance procedures is that they are dominated by the police culture; significant numbers of citizens question the fairness of the entire process.

Defensiveness is very much a part of the "we-they" syndrome. The police tendency to regard all non-police persons as somehow uninformed about the true nature of modern life (life, as the policeman sees it,



can be dismal indeed) combines with their high need for regularity and predictability and results in considerable stereotyping of people and events. Policemen are suspicious. They quickly learn to identify those irregularities in physical conditions or behavior which have in the past correlated with disorder, and they are quick to react to such irregularities when they occur again. Minority neighborhoods are prime consumers of police services, both crime-related and socially derived. This results in a high frequency of face-to-face contacts under circumstances which are often unfamiliar to police officers who are predominantly of another cultural milieu. When police correlate minority neighborhoods with a high crime rate and with the need for a high volume of conflict intervention (which are often valid correlations in terms of called-for police services), it is then easy to correlate minority citizens with crime or with disorderly behavior. Hence, the minority citizen can easily become stereotyped as a particular segment of the "they" part of the community.

Certainly this is an oversimplification of what is an extremely complex process. However, it does point up several elements of the police culture that are widely accepted not only by members of the community but by members of the police profession as well.

It would be hard to deny the strain this can put on the individual officer, on his close personal relationships, and on his relationships with the publics he serves. Despite acceptance of the

fact that the culture exists, little effort has been made to mitigate either its development or its effects.

This failing is indeed unfortunate, for the police officer is placed in a sensitive position by factors over which he has little influence. Although the individual may choose to become a policeman, he does not necessarily choose to become a part of the police culture. That is very much an after-the-fact process related directly to the government's employment of him to fulfill certain of its responsibilities. Under these circumstances it is important to seek ways of minimizing any damaging aspects the culture may possess.

James W. Sterling of the International Association of Chiefs of Police has conducted an excellent study on the changes in role concept which police officers experience during their initial training.[5] As a result, he has developed a number of recommendations to facilitate recognizing and adapting to the reality that these early training experiences introduce the police officer into the police culture.

Sterling notes that police experience results in some personality changes in officers. These changes were considered above as aspects of the police culture. About these changes, however, Sterling says:

> ...it is unrealistic to lament the changes in personality which police experience seems to produce. As with the surgeon, the client of the police may also have to learn to put up with a degree of aggressiveness and bluntness knowing that these characteristics are necessary for the effective performance of the police role in controlling crime.[6]

And:

> Implied in the foregoing is the appeal that the public should be more tolerant of the police personality and the way in which they do their work. Though this is a necessary recommendation, it is not sufficient since there are a number of things the police can do directly to ameliorate the apparent incompatibility between the emergent personality needs of the police and the major element of service in their role.[7]



These points are indeed crucial, for they accept the fact that the novice police officer is likely to undergo some changes in individual personality, that some of these changes are probably unavoidable and possibly goal-oriented, and that there is a shared responsibility between police profession and community for recognizing and understanding these facts. Implicit in this is also the fact that "Since the changes in personality needs were predictable, it is accepted that they can be controlled."[8]

The subjects of this research were all from eastern police departments. While this may have some influence on its generalizability to California law enforcement, the general conclusions and recommendations for dealing with problems identified are sound. Still, there is a need to develop a data base about California law enforcement officers which will facilitate the measurement of their role perceptions, their susceptibility to new ideas, and their changes in behavior during early years in law enforcement.

In the interim before the establishment of such a data base, however, there are a number of steps which can be taken to deal with aspects of the acculturation process. Most of these steps must logically be taken by police administrators, but there are some which

are susceptible to community action. These steps are set forth below as recommendations of the Advisory Commission.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the California Council on Criminal Justice or another appropriate funding source fund a study to determine the effects of initial police training on the development of officers' attitudes and on socialization into the police culture; the results of this study should be made available to all local police agencies to assist them in their training efforts.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training include in their minimum training requirements a block of time to be devoted to exploring with police officers the personal and social adjustments they may have to make to the police job.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT full consideration be given during police training to the existence of the police "culture" and how it affects officers personally and professionally.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT a balanced picture of the police role be given to all police recruits, including consideration of the service tasks involved and pointing out that accomplishment of the crime control task is only part of their total mission.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training include in their minimum training requirements a block of time devoted to attitude formulation, both on the part of police officers and on the part of members of the community.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the California Council on Criminal Justice seek a proponent to develop and test a model "police psychological support program" which will include, but not be limited to:

1. Preparing training modules in attitude formulation for use by officers
2. Training of supervisors in techniques of identifying and properly responding to symptoms of emotional problems among police officers
3. Use of "debriefing" conferences to explore with officers the significance of their street experiences and to allow them to "blow off steam"
4. Development of training modules for the families of police officers to assist them in adjusting to the officer's role
5. Research into the sequence of police attitude formulation to identify points in career development when specific intervention to deal with perceptual difficulties is most appropriate



THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies and local community groups assess the impact the police culture and working personality have on citizen and police relationships and develop cooperative programs for responding to their negative aspects.

These recommendations address certain aspects of the police culture. The following chapter further focuses on how the police officer's role develops. The preceding recommendations relate equally well to that discussion.

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## Chapter 5

## THE POLICE ROLE IN THE COMMUNITY

It is difficult to separate the notions of police culture and police role, for they are both manifested in the behavior of individual officers. They are different, however, and the analytical model upon which this report is based requires that they be separately considered.

Briefly, role has been defined as the range of possible behaviors which are relevant to the demands and needs of a particular position. This definition applies to individual roles. The concept of institutional or organizational role is also relevant to our consideration of community and police relationships. At the organizational level, role is the total complex of individual behaviors which are directed at accomplishing an organization's perceived goals.

Both kinds of role develop in response to cues and pressures which exist in the operating environment of the police agency. With respect to the organization's role, these pressures are exerted by the role senders, persons who have some interest in what the police do. Role senders can be legislators, businessmen, lawyers, judges, members of civic organizations, or any other individuals or groups which express an opinion about a police-related issue. Role pressures are also the constraints which limit or guide police activity. Examples are statutes, ordinances, and court rulings which establish specific requirements police must meet.

The most significant role senders for a police agency generally include professional police associations, legislators, elected and appointed executives, business interests, racial-ethnic groups, client

groups (e.g. complainants, victims, arrestees), and ad hoc groups interested in special issues.

The expectations which these role senders make known to the police vary according to the group and issue involved. In most instances, they are of two basic types. The first, fairly long-term, include such things as general feelings that crime should be curtailed, the police should catch criminals, the police should conduct traffic safety programs, and so forth. The second type include expectations that are precipitated by special issues, often crises, such as rising gang violence, a series of particularly vicious rapes, or a violent street disturbance. Even in the latter instance, however, the expectations which the police perceive coming from many segments of the community are very general and simplistic. They often amount to little more than calls to stop the violence, make the streets safe, or be less repressive in controlling crime.

Such generalized expectations result in some ambiguity for the police. They leave a wide degree of latitude for the police to interpret their meanings and to determine responses. Additionally, to the extent that senders express different expectations about the same subject the police experience some degree of conflict.

Conflict can arise because of the variety of expectations received in a given time frame; because expectations often imply dissatisfaction with current police operations yet do not specify methods for correcting them; because they require that police change methods or divert already scarce resources from current endeavors; because they come from people who the police feel don't really understand police problems; or because they require tradeoffs between current operations and proposed operations, and the relative values of the two are difficult to establish.



In order to cope with the expectations which exist in their communities, the police as an institution have developed mechanisms for identifying, sorting, evaluating, and responding to the cues and pressures coming from the community. These mechanisms translate the expectations of the role senders into organizational behaviors; their purpose is to promote and ensure police behavior which meets the established standards of the agency.

## Receiving and Identifying Information

Information about expectations is generally received from police personnel or written documents provided to the agency. Thus all officers are sources of information. In their contacts with the average citizen, line officers acquire information basically related to the tasks they perform.

Supervisory and middle management officers receive information from their subordinates and from analyzing the reports of activities performed by their subordinates. When they deal with persons outside the agency, their information usually comes from business people, members of civic organizations, and others who have attained some status in the community.

Management level officers receive information from their middle management subordinates and from their counterpart department heads in the jurisdiction. Outside contacts also tend to be at the group level, involving many key citizens of the community.

In many respects, the significance of information varies according to the rank of the officer providing it. Further, officers personal methods for collecting information and passing it on to key decision makers in the agency vary greatly. Most policemen are aware that their contacts

in the community at large are sources of important data. However, rather than consider the information in general terms, officers frequently personalize it as a comment by Mayor Jones, a complaint passed along by Councilman Sanders, or a request for special enforcement by socialite Hatchard. This reflects officers' awareness of the political nature of their role, in the sense of determining who will receive what government services and to what degree. It is important, however, that the police go beyond this pragmatic level and examine the means they have established for receiving, evaluating, and interpreting the information which constitutes expectations from the community.

Modern management theory emphasizes the need for management to sense significant information in the operating environment. In commenting specifically about the information needs of the contemporary law enforcement agency, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, through its Operational Task Force for Police, says:

> In defining the objectives, priorities, and policies which govern delivery of police services, a police chief executive must ensure that he has adequate information about the needs and expectations of his community. He should adopt specific programs for direct public involvement in the formulation of basic objectives and priorities governing the delivery of police service. Additionally, he must develop methods of measuring his agency's effectiveness in delivering those services.[1]

This implies understanding the process of sensing community needs and expectations; it goes on to suggest the formalization of certain processes to ensure that appropriate needs and expectations are received. The Advisory Commission concurs and suggests a number of ways such formalizati can be accomplished.



**THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the California Department of Justice develop a series of training seminars on "sensing the environment" to be made available to police administrators and middle managers statewide.**

**THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the concept of sensing the operating environment should be included in police training at all levels, to present:**

1. **A definition of the process**
2. **Examples of how it is currently done**
3. **Analysis of the effectiveness on current methods**
4. **Suggestions for how it can best be done.**

**THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies analyze the means by which they currently identify community needs and expectations and develop** specific written procedures to ensure it is done adequately.

When participative techniques are used to solicit citizen input, the agency must be prepared to use it. The agency will create more problems than it may solve if citizen participants sense they are being paid lip service and their input is not seriously considered or if their participation is restricted to mundane, non-critical issues.

## Evaluating and Reacting to Information and Expectations

Identifying information and ensuring that it enters the agency is only the first step in the role development process. Once it is received, the information must be evaluated and translated into agency behavior. Initially, this entails assessing its importance.

The importance ascribed to information is largely based on how the agency regards the sender's power, defined basically as his ability to influence or cause changes in the agency. There are five factors which influence the degree of importance attached to information by key police decision makers.

The first factor is control. Persons who have a fairly direct capability to control police behavior, such as legislators, city or county administrators, or the judiciary, generally find their expectations are given considerable attention.

Second, the congruence of the sender's expectations with the current beliefs and behaviors of the agency is a consideration. The police are more likely to accept expectations which reinforce their own beliefs. (See the section on Police Culture, Chapter 4).

Third, the importance of the sender's support to the accomplishment of the police mission influences the evaluation of his expectations. If he is crucial to the accomplishment of the mission, as is the prosecuting attorney, his opinions are likely to be regarded more highly than if he has no relationship to the mission.

Fourth, there are situational imperatives which can make a role sender particularly influential. For example, a civic leader appointed to chair a blue ribbon committee investigating crime is likely to find that his expectations are given careful consideration by police administrators.

Finally, the proximity of the source of the expectations to actual police operations helps determine importance. Information coming from political or social sources not intimately a part of the justice system is not considered as carefully as information coming from police, client, court, or immediate governing body sources.

Few police officers consciously recognize that they assign relative values to expectations in the above manner. Nonetheless, they do it as an essential step in reducing large amounts of information to a manageable quantity.



After the importance of the information has been assessed, the agency must interpret it and translate it into behavior. The interpretation process is extremely difficult to describe, for it is primarily intuitive.

While analysis of information may include comparing it against some previously established standards, as in the case of comparing the frequency of citizen complaints against the number of field contacts made by officers during a reporting period, the judgements based upon the analysis are still essentially personal decisions made by key individuals. Once the interpretation has been made, however, the agency normally reacts to the information via one or more of four channels.

First, the key agency member who has interpreted the information and arrived at a judgement may informally react to it. For example, the chief can resolve a minor complaint of discourtesy by making a telephone call. This is a very common means of coping informally with minor issues; it conserves organizational energy and helps keep relatively insignificant issues from overloading the system.

The remaining three channels for reaction are part of the formal management and administrative processes in the agency. First, the agency may react to expectations through one of the mechanisms used to <u>guide</u> agency operations. The guiding mechanisms are essentially policy development, procedure development, and the process of leadership. They are referred to as <u>guiding</u> because their basic function is to provide standards or guidelines against which officers may measure behavior and performance.

The second set of mechanisms through which the agency may react to expectations received from the operating environment are those which control individual behaviors. These are rules and regulations, supervisory practices, and external control mechanisms, e.g. citizen complaint procedures. These are called controlling because their function is specifically to limit the behavior of officers.

Finally, the agency may react through its adaptive mechanisms: the planning and research process, training, and community-police relations. These activities are established to help the agency respond to new problems and to maintain a relatively predictable level of operation.

The most influential of these several reactive mechanisms are discussed in detail in subsequent chapters. They are mentioned here because they comprise the organizational machinery which transforms information from the environment into police behavior.

## The Police Concept of Their Role

The ultimate goal of the process described briefly in the preceding sections is to control police behavior at the individual level. Police agencies receive information and expectations from statutes, ordinances, court decisions, and influential role senders. They combine it with their internally generated information on crime and service patterns and devise an official response. This response is articulated as police behavior; over a period of time it becomes institutionalized as the police role. To develop an adequate understanding of community and police relationships, one must consider some widely accepted, salient



characteristics of the police role. It is helpful to look at them in the structure of our definition of community-police relations: what police services will be provided; how they will be provided; and how the police and members of the community will resolve common problems.

### What Services the Police Provide

Society has assigned the police responsibility for maintaining the minimum level of social order necessary for its smooth function. Thus social services collectively constitute the order maintenance function of the police. The crime-oriented tasks of the police can be described collectively as their legalistic function. Police are specifically charged by statute and ordinance with enforcing certain behavioral norms in society.

Most police services involve non-criminal activities. While exact proportions vary, most studies indicate that from 60 to 75 percent of police workload includes providing social services, performing regulatory duties, or performing duties related to the administration of the agency. Thus, only 25 to 40 percent of the policeman's activities over a period of time involve crime and criminals.

In many cases the police administrator must decide between limiting officers to law enforcement duties or making them available to handle social problems. In fact, this is one of the basic issues underlying much criticism of the police concept of their role. It poses the dilemma of the appropriate enforcement-service balance.

The resolution of this dilemma is at the root of many, if not most, community-police relations problems. It reflects a conflict between the police view of their primary mission and the realities of the work they are asked to perform. It is complicated by the fact that the police

view, crime-oriented as it is, generally coincides with that of the community. That is, the public wants the police to be available when trouble occurs; they need the security of knowing that if they or their property are in danger, the police will be readily available. When this orientation tends to obscure the human relations and public service aspects of the police role, however, difficulties often arise. James Fisk notes:

> The policeman's primary sense of mission was and is crime oriented. He knew from experience that his presence was urgently sought by citizens at times of crisis, particularly the emergencies resulting from the presence or threat of crime. The policeman was constantly observing the conduct of individuals and classifying that conduct as "lawful" or "unlawful" behavior. He tended to oversimplify his categorizing of persons into "good guys" and "bad guys," using the simplistic, but to him necessarily very meaningful criterion of legality of their behavior.[2]

The crime orientation of the individual police officer also characterizes the orientation of the police agency. Police training is heavily weighted toward dealing with aspects of police work that involve law enforcement (see Chapter 10). Police officers are in large part attracted to the work because of their enforcement image of what the policeman does; they regard duties which take them away from crime control with something less than enthusiasm. Departmental management practices support officers' notions of what police work should be. For example, one commentator notes "Traditional methods for measuring and rewarding the efficiency of both individual officers and organizational units place no positive value on the quality of the police response in other than crime-related situations."[3] This reflects the common police practice of using personnel evaluation techniques which



consider enforcement activities--primarily through the medium of production statistics--as their basic measures of police performance. They do not systematically include analysis of how officers may relate to the members of the public in the total context of their job.

The tendency for officers and agencies to emphasize the legalistic aspects of their responsibilities results in role conflict. Line officers receive cues from administrators and certain segments of the community telling them to come down hard on crime in the streets. When they do so, other segments of the community exert new pressures for police to be less repressive, to overlook certain offenses which police regard as fair targets for suppression, and to show more concern for the non-criminal problems in the community. However, when the police respond to the community's requests for social service, the conflict is often heightened. The nature of the service delivery system frequently does not allow police to distinguish between crime and social service requests. If the officer is oriented toward the enforcement aspects of police work, he may respond to social service requests as if they were crime-related calls.

For example, service calls involving family or neighborhood disputes are regarded in terms of their potential criminal content. This combines with the officer's perception of potential danger and causes him to approach the situation in a way that emphasizes his authority and power, neither of which is necessarily the most effective tool for resolving the problem.

When officers must resolve non-criminal problems, they commonly rely on the legalistic sanctions inherent in their authority. Police have institutionalized their legalistic orientation so that it receives priority emphasis in their training, even though legal intervention should probably be the last resort in dealing with many socially-based problems. Further, the police officer generally is evaluated more on the basis of his quantitative accomplishments in enforcement activities than in his ability to deal effectively and empathetically with the community.

This enforcement orientation is certainly not contrary to the primary and unique function of the police as the input mechanism to the criminal justice system. It nonetheless can result in emphasizing the negative, enforcement aspects of the police role in contacts with citizens. When the officer's tactics emphasize control, the citizen's range of responses is basically restricted to deference or conflict. There is little room for mutual respect.

How the Police Provide Their Services

The question of tactics concerns the manner in which the police provide services. Once again, Fisk notes:

> A trust-inhibiting tension between constituents and their police is inevitable because of the nature of the police function, particularly when the police seek to prevent crime by their presence and patrol tactics. If the police were just reactive to public demands for service at times of crisis, the possibility of conflict would be substantially reduced. But one of the characteristics of police professionalization has been the increased emphasis upon crime prevention. The use of computerized information about descriptions of crime suspects and persons interrogated by the police places an emphasis upon observing the behavior of citizens on the streets and requiring an explanation by them for their presence.



> One of the cues relied upon by the police to determine the need for further investigation is incongruity. When a person or a set of circumstances doesn't fit into the usual pattern for that community, or the policeman's interpretation of normality, the policeman is trained to seek an explanation.[4]

Police professionalism has become synonymous with the use of aggressive techniques for identifying possible problem behavior and for intervening before its potential becomes manifest. Preventive patrol is at the heart of police crime prevention efforts. The philosophy underlying preventive patrol is that the uniformed officer's basic task--after that of responding to requests for service--is to suppress criminal activity. Traditionally, the community has regarded this as solely the policeman's responsibility. The police have responded by devising techniques which reflect their view of their most important function, law enforcement. Preventive patrol thus emphasizes making the police presence felt in the community as a deterrent to criminals. Plainly marked police cars are put on the streets. Traffic laws are strictly enforced. Persons who appear suspicious to patrolling officers are stopped and interrogated. In short, preventive patrol relies heavily on police-initiated contacts with citizens which emphasize the power and authority difference between the two. The policeman, through the assertion of command presence*, lets the citizen know who is in charge and that no nonsense will be tolerated.

*Command presence, a concept taught to policemen, means that in dealing with citizens the officer should assume a posture which clearly establishes that he is in charge and will tolerate no disagreement. It is meant to reduce the possibility that citizens will take advantage of any apparent weakness on the officer's part and attempt to take over.

The prevailing concept of police professionalism has also been reflected in such support activities as improving the police response time (which benefits both crime-related and service-related calls for service) and providing officers accurate, computerized information on crimes. In recent years millions of dollars of federal grant-in-aid funds have been used to develop computerized information and dispatch systems for police. Significantly less has gone into efforts to improve their conflict management and social service capabilities.

Since police tactics are effected through the behavior of individual officers, they are appropriately considered as part of role. The broad range of duties the officer performs requires that he have the discretion to choose from among several alternative courses of action. Within the limits of his discretion, he must respond to pressures from various role senders. Which of the thousands of laws police choose to enforce, how they enforce them, in what intensity and against which groups are matters which the police determine regularly. The resolution of such matters will inevitably result in some dissatisfaction.

Indeed, the police are often criticized by certain segments of the minority community who feel that they are treated differently than are members of the majority community. The complainants feel their different treatment is due to institutional and individual bias on the part of police. Both Chapter 3 on public attitudes toward the police and Chapter on the police and the minority community address these issues. What is important here is to point out that the criticisms are based primarily on public perceptions of the police role.



How the officer ultimately handles a specific call for service depends on his analysis of:

1. Department policies
2. Department procedures
3. What the department leadership wants him to do
4. Pertinent rules and regulations
5. What his supervisor wants him to do
6. What elements of his training are appropriate to the situation
7. What his peers expect him to do
8. What significant role senders other than the preceding may expect him to do, e.g. the victim, witnesses, news reporters, suspect.

This analysis is a highly individualized, intuitive process. As Chapter 9 notes, police officers receive little training in discretionary decision-making at any level. Consequently, they integrate their observations of other officers' behaviors with their own perceptions of the imperatives of the situation. They then draw from their repertoire of potential responses and take formal action. Obviously, if that repertoire is heavily restricted to enforcement-oriented behaviors, the probability that the response will be legalistic is great.

Since most of his activity is performed without the benefit of immediate supervision and in instances of relatively low visibility, it is important that an officer understand how he determines a course of action. The National Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, Operational Task Force on Police, says:

> A police officer often sees people at their worst and seldom sees them at their best. It is inevitable that his personal concept of role will be largely formed from what he sees and hears during his daily encounters with the public he serves. If he is not given a clear understanding of what the police agency expects of him, he will be guided solely by that personal concept of his role, which may not be consistent with that of the agency.[5]

The National Commission goes on to discuss the importance of involving police officers themselves in the development of a role policy statement within their agencies and in providing training in the role so that officers clearly understand its parameters.

The Advisory Commission must concur. It is obvious that police tactics as expressed through individual behavior have the potential for stimulating distrust, conflict, and hostility between police and segments of the community. It is equally important, however, that members of the public be exposed to the police role as their law enforcement agency defines it. As discussed in Chapter 2, the publics in a free society expect to have some influence in the determination of how police will provide their services; it is inherent in our form of government that the citizenry be given a voice in the operations of governmental agencies.

Chapter 7 considers several symptomatic characteristics of poor community and police relationships, all of which involve operational procedures. As a first step toward resolving some of these symptomatic difficulties, the following recommendations are made. In several instances, they parallel those made by the National Commission on Standards and Goals. They were arrived at independently, however, a fact which should give them added significance.



> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT all police agencies specifically develop written statements defining their concept of their role, and further that they involve representatives of all police ranks, representatives of the local jurisdictional governing body, and representatives of significant community groups in the process.
>
> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies develop personnel evaluation techniques which consider all aspects of the police officer's role; equal attention should be given to the human relations and social service aspects as to the enforcement aspects.

## How the Police and Members of the Community Resolve Common Problems

It is once again appropriate to consider Fisk's discussion of the political nature of the police system. He postulates that "Collateral to political power is the responsibility of police decision makers to win the confidence of their constituency and to build in opportunities for appropriate influence by them."[7] In other words, the police have an obligation to develop ongoing mechanisms for soliciting and using public information.

We have discussed in preceding sections the ways in which police decision makers currently respond to pressures from their operating environments. We have also suggested a number of recommendations designed to respond to inadequacies in the current techniques. It is appropriate at this point, however, to consider briefly why regular and formal citizen participation can be important to police management.

Police management is aware of its basic role; it understands the thrust and the goals inherent in the role officers are acting out. Basically, management is responsible for ensuring that role behaviors coincide with role objectives. This implies less concern with determining

whether role is accurate and acceptable to the community and more concern with maintaining it. A decision by police management to reanalyze its role (which is implicit in the above recommendations) and to include both line level and non-police participants in the process has major import.

Once management makes this decision, it must be prepared to follow through with changes in its other managerial processes. For example, merely having a voice in determining what police will do is not likely to satisfy segments of the public concerned with the behaviors of individual policemen; they recognize that the discretionary nature of the police role allows the officer to consider a wide range of approaches to handling problems. Management must provide assurances that their other role development mechanisms, e.g. those which are controlling (rules and regulations, supervisory practices, and citizen complaint mechanisms), and those which are adaptive (planning and research, training, and community-police relations) also respond adequately to citizen pressures for influence.

Openness and responsiveness to the various publics in the community must become a part of all management processes. This requires that law enforcement consider carefully how it trains its line officers, supervisors, middle managers, and administrators. They must become aware of the benefits which will accrue to the agency if they institutionalize joint problem resolution methodologies, and they must be trained to work within the confines of such methodologies. Chapters 8, 9, 10, and 12 examine the implications of these changes for the major guiding, controll and adaptive tools of management.



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# Chapter 6

## SELECTED FORCES INFLUENCING COMMUNITY-POLICE RELATIONS

Community and police contacts do not occur in a vacuum. Both the police officer and any citizen he interacts with have attitudes toward crime, justice, the police, and the situation which is bringing them together. These attitudes, as we noted in Chapter 2, are generally the products of information and experiences which citizens receive from various social and information-disseminating forces in society. Now, more than at any other time in our history, people rely on third party sources for most of their information. The average citizen feels competent to speak on a variety of subjects ranging from economics to surgical transplants, regardless of the fact that he has never studied demand and supply theory or medical biology. The fact that he has an opinion and is willing to voice it stems from his ready access to third party information sources.

In a real sense, this is also true of citizen perceptions of the police and of the police role. Although there are literally millions of face-to-face contacts between police officers and citizens in California each year, these really constitute only a portion of the information upon which people base their perceptions of the police. They receive most of their information from other sources.

The community-police relationship is not one-sided. Since community-police relations are ultimately a factor of behavior, it is crucial that

the community side of the relationships be examined. Citizens, too, have a range of behaviors they may exhibit toward the police. While it is not possible to construct a profile of a "citizen culture" as we have done for the police, it is nonetheless possible to consider in general terms roles and responsibilities.

As the role theory paradigm which underlies this report indicates, behavior is in part a factor of sensing, evaluating, and responding to pressures from various significant persons or groups in one's immediate environment. This has particular significance for a government agency, such as the police, which is one step removed from direct control by the people, and for the police personnel, who are even further removed. The discretion granted the police in performing their sensitive role makes them particularly susceptible to pressures from the various forces in society which impinge on citizen-police interaction.

We have traditionally placed the burden for controlling crime and providing a wide range of social services upon the police agency. In reality, the police are only one agency of government; the problems with which they deal have ramifications for all other agencies of government. Until this is understood and until local government takes steps to ensure that there is a coordinated attack on the social ills which go hand in hand with crime and order maintenance needs in society, the police will continue to experience a significant amount of role conflict and ambiguity. They are receiving contradictory and often unattainable



expectations, not because they are able to solve society's problems, but because, by default, they have become government's professional middlemen.

Chapter 13 discusses in detail how the police can and should capitalize upon their unique position as the "pipeline" for moving perceptions of society's needs to government decision-makers and resources. The remainder of this chapter considers how the arena in which citizen and police officer face one another is influenced by a wide range of forces, each of which has impact on community-police relationships. These forces mediate the community-police interaction. Their current role and their responsibilities--whether currently met or unmet--must be understood.

## Government Influences

The police must be considered in the context of the governmental structure which embraces them. They provide only a portion of the services local government directs at the community. Thus, they are subject to the controls inherent in our democratic system and they respond to pressures brought to bear by other units of government.

### Legislative Bodies

The State Legislatur obviously has impact on local police agencies. This impact is primarily in the area of criminal laws. The state has preempted legislative responsibility for most fields of criminal behavior

and stimulates the vast majority of criminal statutes which the police enforce.

Local legislatures (county boards of supervisors and city councils), in contrast, have considerably more impact upon police operations. As the discussion in Chapter 4 indicates, police agencies, with the exception of sheriffs' departments, are usually under the control of either an elected mayor or an appointed city manager or administrator. They are essentially responsible to these legislative bodies for the acceptable performance of their tasks. (The county sheriff, as an independently elected official, does not fit into this category; while the sheriff does depend upon the county board for his operating funds, he is nonetheless directly responsible to the electorate for the operation of his department.)

Local legislative bodies exert control and influence over police agencies in a number of ways. The most common is through the provision of budgetary funds to support police operations. Beyond that, legislative bodies enact ordinances which often require police enforcement, and they occasionally assign other regulatory tasks, such as bicycle licensing, to the police department.

Considering the critical and sensitive nature of the police mission, local legislatures make few direct attempts to control police operations. This is due to a number of factors, perhaps the most important of which are the high level of professional independence demanded by the California



police and the relatively graft-free reputation they have justifiably earned. Modern California's cities have experienced a rapid growth which has not included the development of strong political cliques which characterize metropolitan areas in other parts of the country. Police agencies have likewise grown rapidly and have retained significant control over their own destinies.

Chapter 8 notes that local legislative bodies have little direct involvement in the development and articulation of police policy. They generally practice management by exception. That is, they react when a particular problem develops and is brought to their attention. If problems are not brought to their attention, they "let well enough alone."

This tendency is heightened in those cities which have city managers; it is often easy for the local legislative body to delegate responsibility for oversight of police operations to the manager or administrative officer. This is certainly part of his function. However, it is easy for him to become a permanent buffer between police and legislature.

This does not mean that the legislative body does not make its priorities known, either to the police department or to the citizenry. Some indications come through their allocation of budget funds requested by the police agency. If the legislative body consistently funds enforcement tools and rejects social service projects, it transmits some fairly definite signals. Certainly, budgetary limitations may preclude the funding of all but essential law enforcement necessities. If this is the case, however, there should be public recognition that the police

will probably not be able to respond to certain kinds of social service calls. Local government should make other accommodations to cope with such calls. To the extent that they do not make such accommodations, the police will continue to experience conflict.

Beyond their funding of police operations, local legislative bodies transmit other signals to police and to public. Legislators are, by definition, community leaders. They have access to the news media. Their meetings are forums for the discussion of local problems. They have constituencies who follow their opinions. Thus, by their examples they contribute to the development and maintenance of attitudes toward crime, social problems, and the police. If the local governing body consistently understates the importance of the many social problems which correlate with crime, the police may rightly feel that they need not be particularly concerned with certain social service aspects of their job.

We noted in Chapter 2 that our system of government allows significant decisions to be made by two types of people. The first type includes those in the executive and legislative branches who are elected directly by the citizenry. The second type includes those "professionals" who are appointed or otherwise employed to head any of the several functional units which comprise local government. The police chief is included in the latter category. Police officers, because of the wide latitude they possess in the performance of their many duties, also make significant



decisions, and their chain of responsibility to the directly elected legislator is often difficult to establish.

This clearly establishes the importance of the legislator as a bridge between the people and the police agency. In many cases, the legislator is not playing that role. He need not--indeed, should not--directly administer the police department. He should, however, play a strong role in reviewing and analyzing police policy and in working with both community groups and police professionals to develop a police role which is appropriate to the problems of the community in question. Unless local legislative bodies are willing to play both their policy-making and leadership roles in a formal and coherent fashion, police and public are likely to continue to judge them through their less specific behaviors.

Professional Managers and Administrative Officers

California is in many respects the center of the professional city management ethos. Dozens of communities employ persons educated in management and public administration to conduct local government operations under the policy control and guidance of the legislative body. In many respects, this is a healthy system. It removes much of the extraneous and often partisan political pressure from department heads--including the police chief--and helps ensure professional planning and coordination of the government's service delivery system. It can have negative implications, however, as when the legislative body becomes too reliant on the

administrator and fails to consider general questions of policy regarding such sensitive agencies as the police.

The city manager can be a key figure in developing the role of the police in the local community. He has definite ideas about what police services should be provided and about how they should be provided. As the architect of the final budget which goes to the city council, the manager exerts considerable influence over which police operations are funded. When the police chief has problems, the city manager is his direct superior and link to the legislative body.

Given these characteristics of the manager's role, it is obvious that the police chief will pay considerable deference to his opinions. Problems can develop, however, when the opinions of the manager and the police chief conflict on significant issues. Basically, the city manager has no widespread constituency. He is relatively unknown beyond government circles. The police, in contrast, have a constituency which is both broad and significant. As earlier attitude data indicate, most citizens regard the police rather highly. While they may not know the chief of police by name, they do know that he and his department are important to their safety and well-being.

This means that the police chief has a potential power base beyond that of his immediate superior, the city manager. While his power base is not often used, it nonetheless affects relationships between the two. On occasion it combines with the traditional independence of the police and results in a tendency for the manger to resort to management by



exception as discussed in relation to the legislative body. When this occurs, the potential benefits to be gained from the professional input of the manager are lost. His impact on the determination of the police role is diminished.

In those cities in which the police chief and the city manager or administrator work cooperatively to develop programs which respond to the needs of the community, the final service product is considerably strengthened. It is critical that these key figures develop the kind of working relationship which emphasizes mutual problem identification and solution.

Other Government Agencies

The police are part of a vast complex of government agencies that both supplement and complement one another. Since there are obvious relationships between these other agencies and the law enforcement and social service functions of the police, it is proper to consider how they relate and contribute to the definition of the police role. These other agencies can be considered usefully in two categories: those comprising the criminal justice system and those comprising general government.

Agencies of the Criminal Justice System. Basically, the criminal justice system includes those agencies of government whose primary functions relate to maintaining a minimum level of stability in society. They include the police, the courts, and corrections. Within the courts are the judiciary, the prosecutive agency, and the defense mechanism.

The police are the "gatekeepers" of the criminal justice system. They provide the input and the remaining agencies process the input in various ways. Despite the fact that most students of the criminal process regard it as our "non-system system," it still holds together, based primarily upon the fact that the clientele is passed along from one agency to the next in some regularized fashion.

The public tends to regard the police in many respects as having primary responsibility for controlling crime. The STAR survey indicates that of all of the components of the system, the police are the most familiar to the public and the most highly regarded by them. This is not unexpected, for the police are its most visible and accessible element.

The police are not solely responsible for reducing or controlling crime, however. This emphasis must be made in a responsible fashion, however, or it will likely increase tensions which already exist between the various agencies involved.

The police often regard the courts and correctional agencies as being "soft" on crime; they are not hesitant to condemn what they feel are unjustifiably lenient sentences, dangerous community based correctional programs, or inadequate supervision of parolees. On the other hand, defense attorneys and correctional officers may decry police repression, insensitivity, and failure to consider the behavioral attributes of urban crime.



Obviously, these tensions, when perceived by the public, do little to stimulate high regard for the capabilities of the criminal justice system. They result in considerable stereotyping and assignment of blame rather than sober reflection on what the problems really are and what can be done to correct them. No single agency of the justice system is responsible for all of the inadequacies we may experience in dealing with the problems related to criminal behavior. They all encompass shortcomings. At this point in time, however, there is too much energy spent in casting blame and not enough in working together to develop solutions.

The criminal justice system has generated considerable news in recent years. Law and order have been major issues in several recent political campaigns. Crime is of concern to almost every citizen. In light of this, all of the components of the system are receiving pressures from various legislative and citizen groups to "do something about crime." They are in turn exerting pressures on one another which are in many cases unrealistic. For example, attributing responsibility for increases in youth violence to a certain element of the justice system does not contribute to finding a solution to what is a social tragedy. Neither does it enhance the images of the agencies involved in the eyes of citizens.

Much of the information upon which the public bases its perceptions of the agencies in the criminal justice system, both individually and collectively, comes from their published comments about one another. In

light of this, it is incumbent upon all to cooperate more fully in the consideration of crime-related problems and in the development of common goals, objectives and programs. Disregarding the medium of the regional criminal justice planning boards, which primarily coordinate the distribution of federal grant-in-aid funds at the local level, few police administrators indicate that they regularly meet with representatives of the other segments of the justice system to discuss common problems or possible solutions. This is a shortcoming which should undoubtedly be rectified. Such regular, intra-system communication will give each segment a better understanding of the frame of reference of each other and will promote more effective system problem-solving. It is also likely to mutually reinforce the images of the several agencies involved in the eyes of the community.

General Government. The police agency is only one of several departments established by local jurisdictions to provide a wide range of government services. Public works departments, planning departments, fire departments, human relations agencies, personnel units, and numerous other functional specialists are found at both the municipal and county levels of government. Each of these units has its own responsibilities, and many of them have an opportunity to stimulate various perceptions about the police among citizens in the community.

With the exception of the fire department, the police are the only agency normally available to the public on an around-the-clock basis. Even the fire department is not present on the streets of the community



in constant interaction with citizens. Thus, in many respects, the police receive the dubious "benefit" of representing all of local government to a wide range of the local populace. In the same vein, they receive considerable displaced hostility which people feel toward other agencies of government but are unable to directly transmit. For example, the resident whose sidewalk is badly in need of repair often vents his anger on the police officer who stops to write a traffic citation or take a malicious mischief report.

A different kind of displaced hostility is typified by the minority citizen who is frustrated by his inability to resolve a rent dispute with his landlord. Unable to unravel the intricacies of the local bureaucracy, he ends up in an altercation with the landlord. The police are called. The officer is suddenly more than just a peace officer; he represents the government structure which was unresponsive to the citizen's needs.

This is a continuing dilemma for the contemporary police officer. He receives numerous pressures to provide order maintenance and social services which are occasioned by citizens' failures to reach the proper agencies of government. If he is unable to respond adequately to these pressures, he falls short in the eyes of the citizen. If he endeavors to prompt the proper agency to respond, he encounters resistance because that agency does not regard this as a proper part of the police role.

Police problems arise from a variety of circumstances. Poor physical planning can result in a burglary-prone apartment building. The proper

response is not for the police to capture the burglars, but for the planning department and the police to cooperatively develop appropriate standards for building secure structures.

A significant number of calls to the police to provide first aid or ambulance services in a particular neighborhood can mean the presence of particularly unhealthy or unsafe conditions. The proper response is not for the police simply to continue providing first aid. Rather, it is for the police, the health department, the sanitation department, and other concerned agencies to develop a response which attacks the causes of the underlying conditions.

When such responses are not forthcoming, and when the public continues to call upon the police, conflict, tension, and hostility are inevitable. The police do not regard such social services as their primary role, yet they must respond when people call for assistance. They are usually unable to correct the underlying conditions which cause the problems, so the citizens regard them as ineffective. Yet, there are seldom effective mechanisms established to stimulate a coordinated, interagency response.

The police are being forced into a failure syndrome in the eyes of the public. In this sense, other agencies of general local government structure the conditions under which the police make many field contacts.

Adopting a leadership stance in mobilizing community resources as suggested in Chapter 13 will do much to alleviate this particular



facet of the community-police hostility syndrome. Beyond that, however, and important to this discussion is the need for local government to coordinate as closely as possible all of its service systems. When any single agency is required to assume responsibility for services beyond its capabilities, conflict is likely to result. As long as the police are the ones who receive the majority of such displaced service requests, and as long as they are able to apply only superficial remedies, they will continue to experience conflicting pressures.

## Educational Institutions

One of the most potent forces in the community is the educational system. From the elementary grades through high school and college, the school system reaches virtually every citizen of California at some time in his life. More importantly, the schools play a major role in the socialization of young persons. They influence concepts of right and wrong; they provide students with most of their information on the specifics of our government; and they determine to a considerable degree the attitudes young people hold toward the social problems of our society.

Given these attributes of the educational system, it is critical that it be considered in light of its impact upon the relationships people develop and maintain with the police.

### Elementary and Secondary Schools

California's elementary and secondary schools reach the majority of young people in the crime-prone age brackets. The police have long

recognized the significant influence of the schools, and they have developed a number of techniques for reaching youngsters through the medium of the classroom. Safety lectures, distribution of pamphlets on child molesters, and participation in driver education programs are among the more traditional programs which police use in cooperation with school officials.

More recently, the police have moved into the classroom as teachers and into the administrative offices as counselors. A number of innovative programs variously title School Liaison Officer, School Resource Officer, or Student and the Law have been developed. The Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department, in fact, has won a Freedoms Foundation award for their Student and the Law program. Commission research indicates that almost 30 percent of the programs reported in its survey of police-community relations efforts are focused on the schools (see Chapter 12 for elaboration).

Police involvement in school programs is undoubtedly a sound use of resources. While this study did not evaluate the effectiveness of such programs per se, it did uncover considerable information indicating that they have positive benefits when properly integrated into both the police agency's and the school's overall activities. Beyond recognizing the value of police involvement on the school grounds, however, it is appropriate to consider how the educational system generally influences the development of attitudes toward the police and how it mediates the face-to-face citizen contact.



First and foremost, the teaching role of the educational system makes it be a major source of information about government, social problems and to a considerable degree the prevailing philosophy of right and wrong in our society. Historically, the school curriculum has not focused on the police as a major segment of government. Civics courses have emphasized the federal government, the structures of state and local governments, and generally the way democratic theory prescribes their activities should occur. With the exception of infrequent "social problems" courses generally offered on an elective basis, students did not critically analyze the roles of the various forces in society, such as the criminal justice system.

In recent years, this trend has changed. Greater student interest in the tumultuous social changes occurring around them has stimulated the development of more comprehensive courses on government and social problems. There is a realization that young people, who constitute a primary source of face-to-face contacts with the police, really have little objective information upon which to base their perceptions. Most of their information about the police and about the propriety of the police role and police tactics is provided by families and peer relationships. Neither these sources nor the picture they may paint of the police are necessarily objective.

The school system also stimulates perceptions of the police role through the way it responds to conflict situations which can require police intervention. For example, if the police are only brought onto

the school campus to quell serious disturbances or to make arrests for serious criminal offenses, this is likely to convey a heavily enforcement-oriented and control image of the police. Students quickly perceive how the authority system of the school relates to the authority system of the community at large. Behavior often impresses them more deeply than textbooks or lectures.

Both the police and the school system must recognize the nature of the school's impact upon student attitudes toward law enforcement. The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals recognizes the centrality of the educational system to accomplishing the necessary task of developing a public understanding of the police role. They stress the need for the police to participate in the programs of every school in the jurisdiction. They also emphasize the need for cooperative school-police development of curriculum materials.

The schools and the police exist side by side in every community. They serve the same people and many of their objectives are parallel. That they currently influence one another's efforts to accomplish objectives is undeniable. What remains is for them to work cooperatively to mediate the development of student attitudes toward law enforcement and the administration of justice.

It is not sufficient that local school districts singly determine that classes stressing law enforcement should be offered to students. The pervasiveness of youth-police problems demands a broader attack than that. School programs through California should, in a uniform fashion, attack the many facets of this sensitive need.



THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the State Legislature and the California Department of Education take the necessary steps to require courses covering laws, the juvenile justice system, and the consideration of crime and its related problems in elementary and secondary school curricula.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the California Department of Education stimulate the development of appropriate training courses for teachers to prepare them to teach the courses recommended above.

## Colleges and Universities

The relationship of the police to colleges and universities is considerably different than to elementary and secondary schools. The campus-based violence of the mid- to late sixties did much to alienate police and campus from one another. Few successful efforts have been made since that time to bring them closer together.

Once again, the significance of this segment of the educational system to the development and maintenance of attitudes toward the police is based partly on the numbers of persons it affects. While college enrollment has slowed its rate of increase, we still have more students involved in some form of higher education than at any time in our history. From the community colleges to the most highly acclaimed graduate universities, thousands of Californians are studying thousands of subjects.

Every one of these institutions of higher learning is located in the jurisdiction of at least one general enforcement police agency. Thus, although the campus may have its own police or security force, it is bounded by another agency with broader powers and responsibilities.

Typically, large numbers of the students reside in the surrounding jurisdiction and interact regularly with the local police agency.

Over the years, a negative relationship has developed between law enforcement and most colleges and universities. Even those campuses with large administration of justice or police administration programs have experienced tension. The many riots of the past several years polarized attitudes significantly, and we continue to experience the ramifications of this today.

The college student is encouraged by the system of higher education to be more inquisitive, more questioning about relationships in society. This extends to questioning prevailing values as expressed through the existing mechanisms of social development and control, including the police. Additionally, the college community is closely identified with the liberated lifestyle which can include drug use, long hair, and casual dress. These are all things which the police generally correlate with potential disorder and criminal behavior.

It is not unusual for the college student to have a number of bad experiences with the police. Even if he is not personally involved in a negative contact, everyday on campus he hears stories of those his associates have had. Since the campus and his peers constitute his primary social contacts, it is not unusual to develop an extremely negative perception of the police; this perception receives constant reinforcement, particularly if the basic mode of contact with the police continues to be through enforcement-oriented interactions.



On many campuses, the fact that there is a campus police unit further exacerbates this dilemma. Often, two standards of behavior prevail. The campus police take a more liberal view toward behavior that local police officers regard as suspicious or potentially disorderly. When this double standard occurs, it reinforces the perception of the local police as a repressive agency of government.

Once again, as in the case of the secondary schools, the posture taken by the college administration toward conflict-ridden situations which may ultimately require police intervention can reinforce or alter student perceptions of the police. If the administration only deals with the local police agency during periods of high conflict or violence, the perception of the police as an armed tool of the establishment is reinforced.

This is not to suggest that administrators do not have a valid concern in wanting campuses to retain a free atmosphere for study and inquiry. It does suggest, however, that administrators and local police officials should endeavor to emphasize interactions in situations which have not escalated to the level of confrontation.

For example, the resources of any college or university campus can be helpful to the police in refining their responses to local problems of crime and social services. Despite this, most police agencies restrict their contacts on campus to the police administration programs, ignoring the valuable resources of the psychology, sociology, law, education, or physical education departments. There are literally thousands of students

and faculty members who could contribute to surveys of the local community, provision of diversionary counselling for juvenile offenders, or analysis of crime and service needs.

Beyond cooperative use of campus resources, there is room for campus police and local police to cooperate in the delivery of necessary services to the campus community. The University of California at Santa Barbara, in cooperation with the Santa Barbara County Sheriff's Department, for example, have developed a cooperative storefront police center in the Isla Vista residential area adjoining the university campus. Campus officers and sheriff's deputies jointly patrol the area on foot and on bicycles. The student response to this project has indeed been encouraging.

It is extremely important that campus police officers and the local police agency develop contingency plans for the various problems which occur on the campus. Thefts, assaults, and rapes are unfortunately not uncommon in the campus environs. Responsible officials should definitely articulate joint plans for responding to these needs. Additionally, joint training of campus police and local officers could begin to deal with the double standard of enforcement which contributes to the tension surrounding the police-campus interface.

The obvious conflicting pressures exerted by a campus public which wishes to retain some significant degree of freedom from external police involvement and yet wishes to be as crime free as other segments of the community are difficult for the police to resolve. They are unwilling to



accept any suggestion of ignoring drug violations, for example, while enforcing the major criminal laws. There is even occasional pressure from students to ignore the burglar as long as the property is recovered.

There are no easy ways to deal with such conflicting pressures. The philosophical argument over the propriety of police on campus is likely to continue for some time. In the interim, it appears that only conscious effort on the part of police and campus administrators to develop joint problem-solving strategies, such as police-campus advisory committees, are likely to help.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT campus police and police in the local jurisdiction develop and participate in joint training efforts relating to areas of mutual concern.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the State Legislature include campus police officers under the provisions of the POST reimbursement program.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT campus police develop plans for joint efforts required to deal with the law enforcement and service needs of the campus community.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT local police agencies develop appropriate and formal liaison mechanisms between themselves and the students, faculty, and administration of colleges and universities in their jurisdictions.

## The News Media

The news media are one of the most influential forces affecting police-citizen interaction. The media represent the most accessible source of a variety of information about current events available to the public. This is particularly true for information about crime and

the police. The public's fascination with the crime theme is reflected in the large volume of crime-related news which may be read in every daily newspaper or heard on every radio and television news broadcast.

The police and the news media have a truly unique and in some respects dependent relationship. Few organizations which operate in the public arena are so consistently covered by the media which, by its very nature, places great significance on what may be isolated or chance incidents. The very nature of police activities, the kinds of individual and community crises with which they deal, their power in the community, and the sanctions they can impose combine to make a large portion of their activities newsworthy. The media rely on such news as a staple for their publications and broadcasts. The police, in turn, rely on the press as an informational outlet to tell their story to the public.

The press role in the community is two-fold. Through its coverage of the news, the press informs the public about significant activities which have impact upon their daily lives. Through their editorials, the press endeavors to serve as a prod to the public conscience, highlighting those things which its representatives feel are particularly right, particularly wrong, or simply worthy of special note.

Obviously, the picture of the police, of crime, and of related social problems reflected through stories in the news media affects citizens' perceptions. Additionally, the police role as interpreted by the media's feature coverage of the police and by any editorial



opinions expressed about police-related issues also contributes to attitude formulation. In light of these factors, it is essential that the news media be included in any analysis of the community and police interface.

## Formalized Police-Media Relationships

A high degree of formalization characterizes police and media relationships. The police perceive a need for such formalization, for they feel a responsibility to control media access to certain kinds of information. This results from the confidentiality of many police operations; the nature of many investigative activities, as well as the sensitive nature of many of the personal relationships which become known to police in the performance of their duties, requires the exercise of some discretion by those involved. Formalization is characterized by the existence of both written policies and written procedures governing police interaction with newsmen and includes the issuance of press passes by the police to members of the press.

Commission research examined a number of issues related to police-media relations. Over 50 percent of the California law enforcement agencies provided information. A majority of the responding departments indicated that they have written policies (77.4 percent) and/or procedures (75.5 percent) governing relationships with the media.* In both cases, departments with formally established community-police relations units replied affirmatively over 96 percent of the time.

*Statistical information is considered in greater detail in Chapter 12.

In over 70 percent of all departments responding, there was at least one person designated through which all public information is routed. This is especially true for agencies with community-police relations units, indicating that this unit probably has collateral responsibility for public information.

This is particularly significant in light of the fact that the police are the source of most news relating to crime. All news gathering and disseminating organizations are limited by a number of factors in their efforts to obtain information, synthesize it into a story for release, and ultimately publicize it through their particular medium. All media, with the possible exception of the weekly newspaper, are constrained by the news deadline. This limits their ability to spend time investigating and getting background on stories and can result in occasional superficiality. In the case of the radio broadcast field, many on-the-scene reporters broadcast remote "flashes" with virtually no editorial review or verification; they additionally broadcast segments of developing stories as they occur, a fact which can result in a confusing picture of developments.

Other constraints which force news representatives to rely heavily on police news sources include the limited number of reporters themselves. Quite often, the police beat reporter also covers other government agencies. His limited time forces him to rely upon written police reports and interviews with police agency representatives for much of his information.

The heavy media reliance on the police has resulted in no small amount of criticism of the press for being less than objective in its reporting of



some incidents. It is interesting to note that the police tend to be critical of the news media and also to believe that reporting is often inaccurate; this despite the fact that police sources account for much of the information upon which stories are based. This is discussed in greater detail in a later section, Police-Media Perceptions.

Closely related to the fact that the police are prime information sources, is the issuance of press passes to members of the news media. Members of the press are authorized to enter certain areas closed to the general public for the purpose of gathering news. Many police agencies are concerned that without some controls, free access could deteriorate into a problem with many different people representing full-time, part-time, or free-lance interests claiming press privileges. They thus have developed a system for issuing passes to newsmen. The passes are generally restricted to full-time representatives of news media outlets which regularly cover police news.

Some difficulties have arisen between various news media and the police over the issuance of press passes. The original purpose of the pass system was to protect the reporter and to identify him to the police as an authorized news gatherer. Over the years, additional benefits have accrued to the holder of the press pass. They have been used by some members of the press to acquire privileges totally unrelated to the practice of reporting news. The police recognize such problems and have taken steps to tighten up their press pass policies as a result.

Nonetheless, it is important to realize that the press pass has taken on a significance that implies accreditation as well as identification.

This creates a number of difficulties. Large metropolitan news outlets which have no problem obtaining press passes seem generally satisfied with the process. Smaller newspapers or broadcast stations, however, particularly those in the minority community which may employ large numbers of part-time reporters, question the propriety of the police basically controlling access to the news. They argue that a legitimate news gathering agency may not necessarily be interested in reporting daily crime news, but may have a very real interest in press conferences and other major police news.

Few people question the fact that some form of uniformly recognizable identification is necessary. They do question, however, whether current regulations governing issuance of passes is working to the disadvantage of certain segments of the media. Many law enforcement agencies are responding to this difficulty by considering modifying their current policies to accommodate the weekly or special interest news outlet. It would seem that joint police and press consideration of policies might stimulate reasonable alternatives to current methods. Additionally, they might develop regional passes designed to serve the needs of all police and press interests in a given area. To a large degree, this is accomplished in the Los Angeles metropolitan area where most police agencies honor the press passes issued by the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department or the Los Angeles Police Department.



## Police-Media Perceptions

Despite the close relationship which exists between police and news media, there is evidence of significant tension between the two institutions and between the persons who comprise them. Naturally, the traditional "watchdog" aspect of the press role has particular connotations for an agency such as the police which exercises tremendous discretion and is often involved in incidents of violence. Beyond this, however, interviews conducted with both police officers and representatives of the press indicate that there are often other elements of tension and distrust underlying their relationships.

The establishment of official police channels for routing information to the press have reduced much potential friction between the police and press as agencies. While ideological differences still occur on this level, often expressed as public disagreements between police executives and editors, the channels remain fairly open.

Most newsmen and police officers interviewed by Advisory Commission staff agree that individual attitudes are generally involved in most police-press conflict. Conflicts can arise from inexperience, overeagerness, personal style, or external pressures inherent in many of the emotional situations which throw policemen and reporters together. The most common experience that seems to turn an officer against the press is an instance of misquoting or distortion. The officer often assumes this is intentional newstwisting, although in the overwhelming number of cases it seems to be another structurally defined problem due to pressures of time and the procedural difficulties of recording each word.

Negative press perceptions of the police seem to revolve around the belief that the police are hypocritical in their use of the media. The perception that the police want to print only those things that make them look good and to ignore negative aspects of performance was mentioned to Commission interviewers by several reporters. There is also the occasional suggestion that the police try to keep too much information from the press; reporters recognize the need for confidentiality in many police matters, but they often perceive the police as using confidentiality as an excuse to restrict information in non-sensitive matters (see Chapter 4 for a discussion of this by a California law enforcement administrator).

Some degree of tension between police and press is inherent in the nature of their relationships. Our democratic system demands that the press play the role of community guardian. This obligates them to be occasionally critical of all agencies of government. Considering the tremendous influence which the press has on community attitudes toward crime, the police, and social problems, it is crucial that any unnecessary tensions be avoided.

Unfortunately, there is little information available on the dynamics of police and press interaction. It would be extremely valuable to be able to identify when attitude changes occur. The police, for example, receive a minimum amount of press training in their basic academies. Our survey data indicate that some 46 percent of the police agencies responding provide training in press relations; 84 percent of those agencies provide it as recruit training and 74.7 percent provide it as refresher



or in-service training. Further data suggest that about 2.8 hours per year per officer is the average of press-related training (see Chapter 12).

As we indicated in Chapter 2, it seems possible to predict when police officers are most susceptible to various socializing influences during their training and early police experience. It would be appropriate to identify when they are susceptible to an intensive consideration of the role of the press vis à vis the police and the police mission. Such additional training could do much to mitigate the development of negative attitudes.

It is more difficult to deal with press attitudes toward the police. At the outset, one must be aware of the dangers inherent in any attempt to "train" reporters or to manipulate their attitudes toward any agency of government. This is not the intent of this discussion. It does seem important, however, that members of the press be made more aware of the police role, police operations, and police methodologies if they are to adequately deal with the news generated by this segment of local government. This could be accomplished in a number of ways, such as through participation of reporters in police training programs, development of police-press ridealong programs, or occasional informative meetings at which the two parties discuss subjects of mutual interest. The Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department regularly holds luncheons for members of the press at which the department's organization, mission, and other pertinent subjects are discussed.

Media Portrayal of the Police Role

The media influence the perceptions of, and attitudes toward, the

police developed by the citizens in any community. Further, they influence the extent to which people retain or alter their perceptions and attitudes. In most instances, the media influence is only one of many. The pervasiveness of the news media, however, and the unique role they fulfill of providing the majority of the crime-related information which the public receives makes them particularly important.

The picture of the police role portrayed by the news media is heavily weighted toward its law enforcement aspects. This is understandable considering the media's sensitivity to what the public likes to read or hear and what constitute significant occurrences in the community. The emphasis on crime and law enforcement duties tends to obscure what the police spend more of their time doing, however, namely providing a wide variety of social services.

Even in stories which could discuss the wide range of non-criminal tasks performed by the police, the emphasis remains on "cops and robbers". For example, recent stories about the future of women police officers concentrated heavily on their performance in potential criminal activities and treated the benefits they may bring to solving social problems lightly if at all.

In some respects, the police themselves contribute to this portrayal of their role. They identify heavily with the law enforcement elements of their jobs, and they reflect this in the news they provide through their internal information channels. The abundance of crime news is to some degree a factor of the easy access which the media have to police incident reports. The police are a primary source of newsworthy information for the press, and the most available information is crime related.



Certainly the police disseminate internally-prepared news releases which describe other kinds of activities. In the main, however, these releases deal with academy graduations, medal of honor awards, athletic teams, and other image-building items. Much of this material ends up in media wastebaskets labeled "unnewsworthy". The exception, occasionally, is the smaller news outlet which prints such stories because they involve a member of the community who is well known there.

There are indications that the media treat police news releases which directly affect the community in a different manner. Such releases relate to basic car programs, anti-burglary information, or tips on how to deal with other problems of concern to residents. A frequent concern expressed by representatives of the minority media, for example, is that their communities feel isolated from the mainstream of society and that they, as community spokesmen and communicators, would welcome police news that attempts to bridge the gap.

We perceive a general failure of the police to use the media creatively as part of its efforts to provide a broad range of community services. Such creative use speaks not to image-enhancing stories of what good humans the police are, but rather addresses the real problems which the community and the police must attack cooperatively. Any police news program which regards itself solely as a public relations device is not likely to experience significant success. When the police work through the media to identify local problems, to generate discussion of causes and possible cures, and to mobilize broad-scale efforts to ameliorate them, they will indeed tap a major resource for community improvement.

It seems obvious that the media's influence on attitude formulation will continue. It will also likely retain a heavy law enforcement orientation. This is inherent in the police role and in the public's interest in that role. There are ways in which a more accurate picture of the police can be portrayed, however. Their success and impactwill depend upon the police and media outlets. The police must be willing to deal openly with a wide range of problems; they must actively and creatively use the media as an extension of their efforts to provide community services. The media must be willing to serve this function and must occasionally interpret the police role in the community in much more detail, including more than just the "cops and robbers" aspects. They must critically analyze the complexity of the tasks the police perform and their relationship to the quality of community life.

It is always sensitive when any agency of government solicits press advocacy of a particular approach to its duties. Every local jurisdiction will have to work out its own relationships between police and press. This might well be accomplished through the establishment of local police-press forums to regularly discuss problems of mutual concern and to devise methods of working together for the good of the community.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the California Commission on Peace Officers Standards and Training, in cooperation with other criminal justice system agencies, determine the feasibility of developing a special training seminar in media relations for police officers assigned to press relations duties.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT a joint media-police analysis of police related news be conducted to determine the viability of existing information distribution procedures and to develop guidelines for effective police-media relations.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies increase the amount of training about the role of the media and media relations for all police officers and that they further emphasize the effective use of the media as a valuable resource in mobilizing community assistance.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the media assist in promoting community-police relations by publicizing the community resource development concept as defined by this report (see Chapter 13).

## The Entertainment Media

It is difficult to pinpoint the exact nature of the relationship between news media coverage and attitudes toward the police. It is even more difficult to pinpoint such a relationship between the entertainment media's portrayal of crime and the police and public attitudes and perceptions. There seems to be a relationship, however, if only because of the tremendous volume of police-related material comprising the popular media today. For example, a Los Angeles Times story noted in the fall of 1972, that eighteen and one-half of the 63 hours of prime time network television were devoted to law enforcement themes of one kind or another.[2] The shows involved include two in western settings, a number of spy thrillers, and several of the private eye genre. In each, however, the theme is the battle between crook and crook catcher.

This preoccupation of the entertainment media with crime themes is not new. Any cursory look at best seller lists, movie listings, or comic strips over the period of the last thirty or forty years will show a similar balance. It once again reflects the public's fascination with the doing and trappings of crime. Too often, however, the media portrayal of this theme has resulted in a far from accurate picture of the real world.

An article prepared by Dr. Robert M. Carter of the University of Southern California in conjunction with the law enforcement students of the 52nd Class of the Delinquency Control Institution points up quite well what the thrust of the entertainment media's portrayal of cops and criminals has been. Titled "Supercop and Supercriminal", this article traces the path of the cops and robbers theme through the last 40 years.[3] Carter develops a typology of media portrayal of this theme which he calls the "Dick Tracy mentality". The essential features of the typology include:

☐ "The crimefighter is no mere mortal, but rather a SUPERcrimefighter." Noteworthy examples, of course, are Dick Tracy, Superman, and the Green Hornet.

☐ "The criminal is distinctive, unique, readily identifiable, and different." From Batman's nemesis the Penguin through the gangsters in pinstriped suits of the 30's, one can always tell the crook from the good citizen.

☐ "The best way to stamp out crime is through the use of gimmicks and hardware". Wrist radios, Batmobiles, and the crime lab personify law enforcement's superiority over the criminal.

☐ "Good always triumphs over evil; crime does not pay." In the entertainment media, the evildoers are virtually always caught and punished.

☐ "Members of ethnic minorities may fight crime, but only in a supporting role". The "deputy supercrimefighter" is very often a member of a minority group; Tonto assisted the Lone Ranger and Kato supported the Green Hornet.

☐ "Violence is central to the crime problem." Every entertainment depiction of crime includes its fight scenes, gunfights, and in modern day versions, high speed automobile chases with fiery crashes at the end.

☐ "Uniforms, costumes, and masks provide the crimefighter with anonymity and identity and conceal any emotional involvement in crimefighting." The crimefighter must at all costs remain unknown to the public. He must never become emotionally involved, for his objectivity is part of his superiority over the criminal element.



☐ "Operating outside the law is appropriate in dealing with major crime and criminals". Such a value is in part reflected in the private detective shows so popular on television. When crime problems cannot be solved within the law by the establishment's police, the independent investigator contrives to stretch the rules a bit and saves the day.

☐ "There are two kinds of people in society--good guys and bad." This simplistic dichotomy, of course, lies at the heart of the media's portrayal of the crime drama.

It is useful to consider verbatim Carter's concluding summary which reacts to the "Dick Tracy mentality", for it focuses on the basic issues underlying the entertainment media's portrayal of one of our more significant social problems.

> It is impossible to evaluate precisely whether the public does or does not believe one or more of these recurrent themes. But it seems reasonable to assume that if a 30-second television commercial can persuade millions of Americans that life can be more beautiful by unclogging nasal passages or using particular underarm deodorants and cleaning dentures with an opposite-sex-appealing product, a 40-year barrage of these crime themes has had some impact.
>
> The tragedy is, of course, that the themes are erroneous:
>
> Police are not superhuman; criminals cannot be identified by looking at them;
>
> Gimmickry cannot alleviate or control the conditions which generate crime and delinquency;
>
> Crime, for some people, does pay;
>
> Minority-group members have more than a subservient role to play in crime control;
>
> Violence is but a part of the total crime problem;
>
> Being anonymous yet identifiable and concealing all display of emotion produces more problems than it solves;
>
> Operating outside the law presents a basic threat to the system of law; and, the world is not made up only of "us" and "them".

> To the extent the public believes these themes, the chances of meaningfully meeting the challenge of crime in a free society are reduced; to the extent the police and other criminal-justice personnel themselves believe these themes, an operational tragedy exists.

It is questionable whether such themes play a significant role in structuring the police response to problems of crime. It does not seem unlikely, however, that they do affect the public's perceptions of what the police do. In addition to family, peers, and news stories, the entertainment media's portrayal of crime and the police is perhaps the most significant source of people's information about crime and the police.

In light of this, it is more than appropriate that the police and various representatives of the entertainment media give serious consideration to the impact of such portrayals on public attitudes. While it cannot be said that the entertainment media have an obligation to portray the police role in minute detail, it can be said that they should have an interest in providing a picture more congruent with realities. One noteworthy exception to the normal television portrayal of the police role is a television show where the officers in uniform far outnumber those in plain clothes, despite television's emphasis to the contrary--and it further shows that they don't always catch the transgressors.

The Commission is unable to make any specific recommendations about how to deal with the inaccurate portrayal of the police which so often surfaces through the various entertainment media. We can suggest, however, that some cooperative efforts be undertaken to identify ways to make the portrayal more congruent with reality. Additionally, we can suggest that the police and the media consider the possibilities of

State of California — Department of Justice

# Memorandum

To : Those requesting a copy of the Report of the Attorney General's Advisory Commission on Community-Police Relations

Date :

File No.:

From : **Office of the Attorney General**

Subject: Attached Copy

We are very pleased that through the Office of Criminal Justice Planning, we were able to reproduce a limited number of additional copies of the Attorney General's Advisory Commission Report, "The Police in the California Community".

Therefore, we are sending you the attached copy per your previous request.

Due to the limited number of copies that have been made available, and the large amount of requests we have received from interested agencies and organizations throughout the state, we are forced to limit our response to one copy per organization.

Your organization is free, of course, to reproduce any of the materials contained in this report, with appropriate credit to the Advisory Commission.

Thank you for your interest.

June Sherwood

Mrs. June Sherwood
Director, Crime Prevention

mci
Attachment

conveying the police mission, the need for citizen involvement in crime control, and similar social service messages to the public. A United States Senate Committee recently heard testimony that a youngster today who watches television to a "moderate" degree will likely be exposed to some 80,000 commercial announcements by the time he reaches the age of 16 years.[4] It seems possible that at least a few of these commercials could include themes related to citizen's responsibilities for controlling crime and helping to solve other social ills.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT a joint committee of representatives of the entertainment media, the advertising field, and the police be created to study the portrayal of police, crime and their impact upon the formulation of citizen attitudes.

## Community Organizations

Law enforcement exhibits many characteristics of a closed "system". This fact has been alluded to by many authors and mentioned in other chapters of this report. Even for those holding this opinion, however, there is the realization that the police exist with a larger system - a dynamic system that can be described as "open".

This open system is society; it is the environment, the interrelationships between people, the problems ensuing from those interrelationships that circumscribe the dimensions of a police department's sphere of influence, and the community forces described in previous sections of this chapter.

An important set of interrelationships in this open system includes those that define community organizations. These are organizations that are both intergroup and intragroup mechanisms for the socialization and/or politicization of the individual - including individual police officers.

They constitute a crucial variable in the formulation of perceptions that condition behavior in the police-citizen interaction.

"Community organization" can be loosely defined as any group of people following some common means to achieve a generally accepted goal. This definition allows for a broad range of behaviors, and it implies that a majority of the population are involved in a broad network of community organization types. Furthermore, unlike governmental or business organizations, community organizations are not necessarily bound by written rules or constitutions, regular meetings and fixed meeting sites, appointed or elected hierarchies, or treasuries and letterheads. There can be meetings at the local coffee shop whenever people happen to show up, or telephone networks and mass letter-writing by anonymous but limited segments of the population. Thus the behavior of community organizations is, in general, less predictable and less easily regulated than traditional formal organizations. This has a great impact on the police-citizen interaction: the exercise of discretion by an officer toward a citizen is made without the officer's being aware of the network of community organizations of which the citizen may be a member. On the other hand, the impact may be intensified if the officer qualifies his response due to perceptions of community organization membership by the affected citizen.

Using the context of the police as focal persons, these heterogeneous community organizations can be considered as a specific set of forces, or role senders, influencing the impact of police-citizen contacts (see the description of the role paradigm developed in Chapter 2). These organizations transmit role expectations to the police; the messages can be representative of a wide range of opinion and behavior, and are often conflicting and distorted.



Prior to analyzing the structure of these expectations, and the communication mechanisms by which community organizations make them known to the police, the major groupings of these organization will be identified. This task of identification is one that every law enforcement agency should systematically undertake within the context of its service role. Though this is done more often for intelligence purposes in the enforcement-order maintenance framework, it is also a critical prerequisite for the kind of community-police relations programming designed to respond most effectively to community needs.

Role Senders: Catalog of Community Organizations

The following catalog of community organizations is neither exhaustive nor completely representative of every community. The purpose of this section is to pinpoint the major kinds of community organizations, as role senders, of which the police should be aware. Though the police may choose not to respond to the role expectations of all of these groups, circumstances may arise that will provoke a response to an identifiable group or its representative. In this case, a knowledge of the structure and orientation of the community organizations within a particular police jurisdiction, as well as those external organizations having impact on local groups, will aid the police in making an effective response that will go beyond order maintenance to the establishment of a positive police-citizen contact.

Civic Groups. Within every community there are groups whose existence is based on "civic pride", "community esprit", and the "duty" of every citizen to support local government. These groups meet regularly, have some written rules and procedures, and exhibit continuity relative to local government. They are usually pseudo-participants in the governing

process, though some can be provoked into a watchdog role.

As Chapter 12 will illustrate, civic groups are more often viewed by police, especially in larger cities, as self-sufficient loci of support for police programs rather than the target groups of these programs. The perceptions of these groups are more likely to be included in the formulation of police policy as indices of acceptance for actions directed at other community organizations.

Civic groups can be generally classified as organized either by purpose with regard to local government or by orientation to a particular social class. They are most often composed of volunteers. Those civic groups organized by purpose with regard to government are usually supportive and vehicles for the maintenance of political order in the community. In either case, these groups pay heed to government process. Whether it be to support or reform this process, they exhibit regular behavior with regard to government functions and utilize the "proper channels".

Civic groups develop primarily as a result of the existence of government. However, there are some civic groups that may display very similar behavior with regard to government, but are initiated by the presence of distinct social strata in a community. These groups are founded by people who are members of similar economic and social classes; for example, they often are bound by similar tastes for the use of leisure time. Because of the resources they have to offer, their interest in efficient local government and social order, and the contribution of many from their ranks to elected and high appointed positions in government, they choose involvement in government as one of their organizational goals even though their primary goal remains to meet socially.



Civic groups can represent a great challenge to the police. Not only do they have the resources to effectively communicate their expectations to the police, they often have the power to make their dissatisfactions felt. The police, as focal persons, must be able to evaluate the representativeness of civic group expectations and resolve any subsequent conflicts between perceived power and the broader police mission.

Service Clubs. Another set of community organizations draw some of their members from the same social interest and civic groups described above. These groups, however, have a broader base of membership and are founded on a community service base. Their organizational goals imply more than supportive consent and acceptance; they are more often doers, and they focus on goal actualization rather than goal development.

Service clubs are usually well organized under a written framework, and are characterized by a relatively low turnover of membership. They exhibit wide variations in member participation and are committed to the concept of volunteerism, though some have limited paid staff support.

Some of these service clubs are founded upon a commitment to ideology, e.g., Shriners, Daughters of the American Revolution, religious clubs, etc. They promote community service as an application of their ideological commitment. The police must consider how this ideology compares with the beliefs of individual officers, and anticipate the repercussions of ideological discrepancies in police-citizen contacts.

A second type of service club is that based on camaraderie and the social and character development needs of members as an adjunct to community service, e.g., fraternal organizations, Rotary, Toastmasters, etc.

Like civic groups, service clubs are most often viewed as supportive

by police. For example, service clubs are often the co-sponsors of community-police relations programs. Furthermore, the perceptual alignment of police and service clubs may approach uniformity since officers often compose a significant portion of these clubs' membership.

Social Service Agencies. Another set of community organizations devoted to service include those that do not consider among their organizational goals a conscious response to the social needs of members. In these organizations, a paid staff may generate volunteer support, rather than the previous cases where a large organization of volunteers finds that a paid staff member is needed. These are usually referred to as "non-profit" organizations; their services are usually free, though some require payment of a minimal fee.

The social service agencies can be divided into two groups; this division illustrates some dimensions of community-law enforcement support and acceptance. The first type provides supportive social services the local government is not able to provide, or that citizens choose to provide in lieu of government. These include the Red Cross, rehabilitation services for the retarded, services to senior citizens and other protective services. These agencies engender little conflict and much cooperative effort with the police. Their expectations of the police are clearly defined and rarely misperceived.

The second classification of social service agencies is more likely to stimulate non-support from a broad-base of the community and a skeptical view from the police. These include abortion clinics, drug counseling, and legal aid. These may be services that local government and/or other "legitimate" social service agencies are unwilling to provide. They may



challenge the standard-bearers of community values. However, due to the nature of the problems at which these services are directed, these agencies may have staff and clientele that cross social and economic strata; they are thus quite likely to generate conflicting and distorted messages on needs and support from other community organizations.

Special Interest Groups. Every community has a network of special interest groups; their membership, resources, and goals tend to overlap and often form a basis for conflict. They are characterized by great diversities in structure, continuity, and community support. They may control a community or be sublimated by it. They may be supportive of and supported by the police, or antagonistic toward and negatively regarded by law enforcement. Here we have identified seven classifications of special interest community organizations: unions, business, ethnic groups, local political groups, homeowners and tenants, transient sub-populations, and issue-oriented groups.

There are two major types of business interests in a community: (1) internally based, with complete operation within community boundaries, and (2) externally based, with subsidiaries or branches located in the community. These are then divided into those providing services or goods directly to the citizens (markets, car dealers, hardware stores, etc.), and those involved in activities with little or no direct contact with the public (factories, shippers, distributors, etc.).

The acceptance of these business interests and their subsequent role relationship with the police will derive from several factors:

1. dependency of the community on the service or goods provided;
2. fiscal dependency of the economic base of the community on the business, i. e., tax base;

3. dependency of the local labor market on the business;

4. the level of conflict of interest between business and other groups (e.g., zoning, pollution, etc.); and

5. integration of the firm's employees with local government and significant community groups' members.

With regard to this last factor, the local Chamber of Commerce provides a mitigating force between business, community, and local government. It stands as a legitimizing agent for business/commercial involvement in community affairs, and can act as an intermediary between business interests and the police.

Contrasting the community organization represented by business interests are those represented by employee interests--unions. In this case it is necessary to make a distinction between three types of unions: (1) public employee unions, (2) private industry and service unions, and (3) public safety employee unions (police and fire). The precisely defined interests of each of these union-types indicates:

1. the extent to which they can affect or stimulate community support or antagonism;

2. the measure of success they will achieve through the application of various bargaining and conflict-resolution techniques;

3. the potential for involvement in or conflict with local government and/or the police;

4. the potential for communicating conflicting expectations bordering on community crises, e. g. a police strike.

Unions have historically stimulated a major expectational conflict among their members with regard to police. Though union members traditionally are of a law and order orientation and often share a similar socio-economic status with police personnel, the nature of their bargaining tactics have provoked countless confrontations with law enforcement. The conflicting messages and expectations received by the police from some union members reached a peak in the late 1960's when some workers attempted to



"take the law into their own hands" to provide "support" for the police against student rioters.

The residential patterns of most communities have great impact on the expectations for and delivery of police service. Homeowners and tenants are an informally organized but potentially powerful constituency of both the police and local government. They can represent a significant base of support or a challenging agent of antagonism against imposed policy. This is demonstrated in Chapter 12 by the presence of community-police relations programs to protect these groups (vacation house checks), to elicit support in preventing crime (neighborhood alerts, block parents), and to resolve conflict (landlord-tenant programs).

Every community has some configuration of partisan and non-partisan local political groups. Their importance to the police in the determination and implementation of policy is related to the following factors:

1. the representativeness of their constituencies, i. e., the breadth of their base of support in the community;

2. the integration of these groups with the local government power structure (city council, civil servants, boards and commissions);

3. the representation of these groups within the police department;

4. the relationship between these groups and significant
   a. business interests
   b. union interests
   c. minority interests

The police have been characterized in this report as being part of the political system. Although police are not involved in partisan politics, the strength of local political groups and the expectations they communicate will often have an impact on certain police-community group contacts.

Many communities are inhabited by highly visible transient sub-populations that can have a great effect on local policy, particularly

in terms of police response. These include college students, farm-workers, and workers living outside of the community. They act as role senders to police and local government by:

1. competing for resources with established community interests;
2. making demands on existing service levels and calling for additional services; and
3. claiming a voice in the determination and implementation of local policy.

These sub-populations, by their very nature, are not structured in the sense that other community "organizations" are, nor are they bound by written rules or regular meetings. However, they may exhibit a purposive and homogeneous behavior, and this behavior can have great impact on the police relative to the expectations of traditional community groups.

Issue-Oriented groups are perhaps the most difficult to describe due to their short life-span, yet they present some of the most challenging demands on the police. These groups may be highly organized but their longevity and membership are unpredictable. Their existence usually implies a threat to some established interest in the community, whether it be oriented toward a controversial local election issue, anti-war sentiment, the environment, an extremist political ideology, or an anti-police stance. Since these groups do not expend great amounts of resources on organizational maintenance functions, they can mobilize a much greater portion of their constituencies and resources in the achievement of their goals. This fact, together with conflicting expectations from a traditional community organization, complicate the police ability to respond to their service needs.



Finally, a crucial community organization category is represented by racial/ethnic groups. As a sub-population and as represented by various minority organizations, racial/ethnic groups may encompass all of the above types of community organizations. They are the most identifiable groups either due to color, geographic concentration, or socio-economic status. As evidenced by recent modifications in government and law enforcement responses to their needs and/or attitudes toward the rest of society, they are important role senders. They can have impact as organizations based on one or a combination of the following:

1. promoting civil rights;
2. ensuring minority welfare;
3. gaining minority participation in police and government policy-making.

## Alternative Classifications of Role-Senders

The analysis of the relationship between the police and community organizations may be strengthened by utilizing more general systems of classification. This is most efficiently achieved by developing a framework with the goal in mind of maximizing perception of needs and effectiveness of response for the police. These alternatives include focusing on (1) the source of a community organization's initiative for its creation and maintenance, (2) its permanence, and (3) its goal-orientation.

Sources of Initiative. First, a community organization may be initiated by either public or private sources, i.e., government or citizens. Public agencies may communicate to the community that they wish to see a particular kind of community organization created or an existing one maintained or enlarged. These public agency initiated groups may include those acting as mediators between the government and a group it is having

difficulty dealing with; groups to stimulate support for government policy; or groups to provide challenges to other governmental units which are competing with this agency.

These community organizations can thus have an important impact on police policy-making and response according to the degree to which their alignments with local government parallel each other and are perceived as legitimate.

Citizen-initiated community organizations are created in response to a diversity of needs. These include socio-economic status, political mobility, geographic location, community power base, perception of social welfare, etc. These factors are highly diversified and often difficult to anticipate. They can function as both a stimulus of and reaction to the police behavior. They must be carefully considered. Any action directed toward them may generate unanticipated consequences.

Organizational Permanence. A second method for analyzing community organizations is to examine their longevity. Police behavior must respond to long-range consequences as well as short-term goals. Thus, an organization exhibiting a high degree of longevity and continuity is dealt with in a different manner than one which is oriented to a cause or issue with a short life expectancy.

Goal Orientation. Finally, community organizations can be classified by the type of goals they are pursuing. This is an important analytical framework for policy makers to utilize since it helps them pinpoint potential goal conflicts and misperceptions between groups or between a group and the police.

A group may pursue one or a combination of the following types of goals:



1. social satisfaction;
2. maintenance of status quo;
3. change-agent;
4. appeal-redress;
5. promotional;
6. financial; and
7. conflict resolution.

Role Expectation: The Law Enforcement Function

Following the preceding description of community organizations the police should consider as role senders, it is appropriate to consider the role expectations of these groups. If certain expectations of community organizations are not embodied in the execution of the police mission, then some degree of conflict must be anticipated.

It is helpful to examine these expectations in terms of the two primary police functions - law enforcement and community service.

One can make the generalization that conflict between community organizations and law enforcement over the law enforcement function is focused on the nature of a police response, i.e., it is a reaction. On the other hand, conflict over the service function is most often action stimulated by a perceived lack of police responsiveness.

In analyzing the role expectations of community organizations for the police with regard to the law enforcement function, there are four major factors that may influence their character: (1) legal interpretations, (2) selective enforcement, (3) enforcement capability, and (4) enforcement target groups.

Legal Interpretations. Given the volume of laws and ordinances which govern our actions, expectations of community organizations will often depend on how they interpret the meaning and impact of those laws. Of course the primary conflict occurs over laws that regulate morality or that have a tendency to isolate enforcement on particular groups.

Expectations based on legal interpretations are manifested in three forms. The first is legal initiative, or the expectation that new laws should be made. The second is legal reform, or the need for changing old laws. The last is legal maintenance--keeping the old laws just the way they are.

Selective Enforcement. Except in the case of local ordinances, which are infrequently the subject of any substantive conflict, community organizations will not impose expectations for legal reform or initiative on the police. Alternatively, they focus on selective enforcement, which is a very sensitive area of police-citizen interaction. In particular, selective enforcement expectations by community organizations imply (1) perceptions of which laws should be enforced with regard to themselves, and (2) perceptions of which laws should be enforced with regard to other groups in the community. The impact of these perceptions will be determined by the ability of the police to ascertain acceptance of these standards by other groups. Moreover, police responses to these expectations will depend upon whether the police have historically incorporated public perceptions of selective enforcement into their decision-making process.



Enforcement Capability. Apart from communicating expectations of what laws should be enforced, community organizations often react to perceptions of police willingness to enforce particular laws. They may further have expectations about the ability of the police to enforce certain laws. These revolve around community perceptions of availability of manpower and equipment, levels of training, and so forth.

Finally, various community organizations relate expectations reflecting their awareness of pressures outside of their police agency that influence the capability to enforce laws. These may include pressures from other law enforcement agencies, higher levels of government, the courts, industry, etc. A good example of how these expectations can create distortion of the messages received by the police and how they translate these into police-citizen contacts is the landmark Miranda decision. The decision by local law enforcement to accede to the Supreme Court's orders certainly is influenced by the expectations of various groups for the police to do so.

Enforcement Target Groups. Related to legal interpretations and selective enforcement are the expectations relating to whom should be the subject of order-maintenance police responses. Expectations of this sort communicated to the police are easily distorted by differential perceptions of need versus application. Thus, while certain groups in the community may communicate to the police a desire to have certain other groups heavily policed, the police response will be tempered by a host of other considerations.

## Role Expectations: The Service Function

The police and a significant segment of the community have historically given the law enforcement function the highest priority--while the police were allocating the majority of their time to service tasks. This fact, together with the nature of service expectations which are often poorly articulated, can result in a weakened ability of police to assimilate service expectations from community role senders. This in part explains why the task of assimilation has fallen heavily upon community relations personnel.

Perception of Needs. Community organizations communicate a variety of perceptions concerning their own service needs and those of others. These depend on the goal orientation of the organization, i.e., whether police service is directly needed or whether it is needed peripherally to help the group accomplish other goals. Often a group will act as spokesman for another group which for some reason is unable to articulate its needs to the police. The nuances in emphasis of needs and to whom the response should be directed must be carefully examined by police administrators in order to formulate clear and concise service policies.

Service Capability. Like the previous discussion of the law enforcement function, community organizations express ideas on the police desire and ability to provide services. However, these are much more difficult to conceptualize for the service function. Furthermore, since service is more difficult to measure in terms of resources utilized and success achieved, community organizations may exhibit a variety of methods for indicating perceptions of police ability to provide services.



## Expectation Communication Mechanisms

The role senders and their expectations of the police have been discussed. However, when the police evaluate the expectations of a community organization they consider more than the nature of the expectation and its source. A critical appraisal is made of the mechanism used to communicate the expectation to the police. Moreover, circumstances may arise that will result in the communication mechanism's being most scrutinized.

These mechanisms can be divided into two basic categories, direct and indirect. Direct mechanisms include positive and negative face-to-face contacts between community organizations and the police. A positive contact, for example, could be a program jointly sponsored by the police and a community organization. The most obvious examples of a negative contact are the riots and campus disturbances of the 1960's.

A second category of direct communication mechanisms of community organizations for the police focus on access to police policy makers. These include advisory bodies, personal contacts, and non-work-related group affiliations. They also consist of resource contributions, such as financial and personnel contributions to support various police programs.

Community organizations relate their expectations through other mechanisms as well, e.g. voting and mass correspondence, and reactive devices such as boycotts and acts of civil disobedience.

Indirect mechanisms are also available to community organizations. These primarily depend upon the police perceptions of the group and the police role as observer of community activity. Thus, internal group

conflict, group interaction, action taken on a related issue or toward a particular group, and messages communicated through other means may be effective ways of making a point.

Communication Interference Factors

Police policies and responses, and the anticipated consequences of police responses by community organizations, may be significantly influenced by the presence of interference factors during the process of communicating expectations. For example, intergroup conflict may result in confusing the sources of expectations such that the police do not know to whom to respond. Another interference may occur when messages are communicated through a third party; the third party may then relate a distorted interpretation of the original message to the police.

## Summary

It is obvious from the preceding discussion that the pervasiveness and diversity of community groups militate against any simple explanation of their impact upon community and police relationships. Likewise, it is not possible to make precise recommendations which will have wide applicability. A few general statements are in order, however.

First, it is extremely important that law enforcement administrators take stock of the significant community groups present in their communities. Whether the typologies in this chapter are used, or whether the administrator devises his own categories, it is to his advantage that he know how citizens have organized themselves and for what reasons. Parenthetically, it is crucial to the concept of community resource development suggested in Chapter 13 that such groups be identified.



Second, administrators should examine their agencies' communication channels with various community groups. These groups often express expectations about police services, and the members of the groups partly judge police effectiveness on the basis of how well they meet such expectations. Therefore, the law enforcement agency definitely has an interest in assuring open and regular communication. It need not be continuous, but it should not be obstructed during the important times when expectations are being articulated.

Third, police administrators should ensure that all personnel are trained in the various aspects of community organization. Officers are pragmatically aware of the dynamics involved in receiving and interpreting expectations from various forces in the community. It is important that they be trained in the proper ways to react to such expectations, rather than learning them on the job.

Fourth, members of the community should also be made aware of the conflicting expectations which they may be placing on the police. Obviously, police priorities result from a choice among several alternative courses of action; not every person who makes his expectations known to the police can be satisfied. Dissatisfaction and misperception of police motives can often be lessened if the police agency makes the reasons for its enforcement and service decisions known.

Finally, it is important that the police take every opportunity to work with community groups in programs of mutual interest. We are truly an organized society, and when a few persons, such as the local police force, need to communicate with many persons, organizations provide a useful medium. This does not refer only to making speeches and distributing pamphlets. It refers to conscious efforts to stimulate cooperative activities for community improvement (see Chapter 13).



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# Chapter 7

## MINORITIES AND THE POLICE

The Assembly Resolution which resulted in this study was primarily concerned with the distrust, hostility, and conflict which often characterize relationships between the police and certain groups of citizens throughout California. This leads us to an examination of certain racial and ethnic minority groups where distrust has historically existed. The minority groups specifically addressed include those American Indian, Black, Oriental, and Spanish-surname citizens of California.

At the outset, it must be emphasized that there is no monolithic minority attitude toward the police. The minority segment of the community is composed of as many varying interests and viewpoints as any other. Chapter 3 pointed out that even among minority citizens, the greater segment of the community is favorably inclined toward the police. Still, the proportion of minorities who do express dissatisfaction is significant. It is far greater than that for the majority white community, and it reflects one of the most difficult community-police relations problems we face. Namely, that the minority citizen, regardless of his initial attitude toward the police, is more susceptible to developping negative attitudes than are members of the dominant public.

Volumes have been written about minority-police relations. Every major presidential study of social problems of the past decade has

considered them. Literally hundreds of recommendations for alleviating various facets of minority-police conflict and hostility have been made. Some of these recommendations have been adopted; most have not.

Despite such intense interest and attention, this report once again finds itself dealing with the issue. And once again, it is necessary to say things which have been said before. There is hopefully a difference in our approach, however. Much of the past effort has recognized that the complex issue of minority-police relations has two dimensions. The first is the symptomatic level of disputed police tactics, such as alleged harassment, brutality, or other prejudicial behavior. The second level is that of root causes, basically the pervasive social and institutional biases against certain racial and ethnic minorities in our society. Too often, however, improvement strategies have ignored methods for reacting to the institutional characteristics of the minority-police conflict syndrome and have concentrated instead on the symptomatic behaviors.

By considering police and community relationships from a role development perspective, this report provides an opportunity to remedy this shortcoming of earlier approaches. While it has not been possible to consider in-depth all the dynamics involved in police role development, it nonetheless has been possible to identify most of them and, more importantly, to establish how efforts directed at consciously altering the police role can ameliorate symptomatic difficulties, facilitate their elimination, and help to ensure that future symptomatic problems can be responsibly attacked.



Obviously, to the extent that such things as harassment, intimidation, and brutality exist, they require immediate attention. It will take time to institute the kinds of role development mechanisms suggested elsewhere in the report. Therefore, this chapter also considers the most common symptomatic issues and makes some recommendations for their short-term alleviation.

## Underlying Minority Concerns

The underlying minority group concerns with law enforcement can be reduced to the same three political dimensions as we have considered elsewhere. They wish to have some impact on determining what the police do in the community, how the police do it, and how they can cooperate in the resolution of common difficulties. Thus, although the most vocal minority citizen may decry specific police practices, he is not likely to be satisfied with only having them changed. On the contrary, he would prefer to have assurances that an ongoing problem-solving methodology is available to ensure both that the currently questionable practices do not recur and that future police responses to community crime and service problems will consider his input.

James Fisk, who is quoted several times in this report, has developed a cogent analysis of the basic underlying concerns of minority citizens regarding law enforcement. Accepting the basic political nature of the police function, Fisk goes on to note that the minority citizen (specifically the Black citizen) has never developed a sense of trust in government. He has never been able to establish influential commu-

nication channels with "city hall".[1] This means he has been alienated from government to a significant degree, and collaterally, that government has generally not made sufficient effort to overcome this alienation.

Since the police are the omnipresent representatives of government, especially in minority neighborhoods which are often high crime areas, the sense of alienation among minorities applies especially to them. Lacking influence in government power circles, minority citizens have come to regard police actions as manifestations of the conscious intent of the majority society, through the government, to exclude them from participation.

If, as we have postulated, the police role is the embodiment of police behaviors or practices; and further, if that role is developed partly by sensing and analyzing expectations coming from significant segments of the community, then there is some credence to this minority perception. They, more than other segments of the community, lack the wherewithal to attain an influential relationship vis á vis the police. The major police role senders were identified in Chapter 5 as being police professionals themselves, legislators, elected and appointed executives, business interests, racial-ethnic groups, client groups, and ad hoc groups interested in special issues. This is particularly noteworthy when one realizes that minority citizens are grossly under-represented in the ranks of professional law enforcement (see Chapter 11); they have historically not comprised significant proportions of local legislative bodies; few are in city management positions; and they have generally been under-represented in business. Thus, only through



their own racial-ethnic organizations and through interest in special issues which mobilize broad community support have minorities really been able to exert meaningful pressures upon law enforcement. They have regularly exerted what many law enforcement officials consider negative pressures, such as complaints about police practices, but they have lacked the power necessary to make their pressures consistently felt.

An effective response to the conflict and hostility which are more likely to exist among the minority publics than other segments of the community requires that the police understand and take steps to accommodate minorities in its goal-setting and role development processes. The National Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals also recognizes this necessity when it says:

> Every police agency which has racial and ethnic minority groups of significant size within its jurisdiction should recognize their police needs and should where appropriate develop means to ensure effective communication with such groups.[2]

The opening of such communication channels is a significant start. It will not successfully alleviate the distrust, however, if there is any perception on the part of the concerned minority publics that the communication process goes only one way or that it does not include serious consideration of what they are saying.

The specific recommendations relating to changing the institutional (role development) characteristics which are a part of the community-minority distrust problem are contained in other sections of the report, especially in Chapter 13. We only note here that the law enforcement administrator is in a unique position to develop community outreach

tactics which can help to alleviate specific symptoms of community and police conflict and to improve the ability of the police agency to prevent crime, apprehend criminals, and provide an effective range of social services.

## The Symptoms of Minority-Police Conflict

A careful examination of the negative aspects of community police relations most often cited by minority citizens reveals that they fall into four areas: (1) provision of different services in the minority community than in the majority community; (2) use of tactics designed to intentionally harass minority citizens; (3) use of both psychologically demoralizing and physically brutal tactics against minority citizens; and (4) thwarting of the fair and thorough investigation and adjudication of citizen complaints about officer misconduct. The latter subject is discussed in some detail in Chapter 9. The remainder are considered here.

### Perceptions of Differential Enforcement

The police cannot enforce all of the laws in an equal manner all of the time. Not only the monumental number of laws precludes this, but in addition the wide variety of subjects the laws cover requires that some priorities of enforcement be established. Recognizing this, the spirit of American law enforcement has traditionally allowed the police agency and the police officer considerable flexibility to consider the circumstances leading up to many violations, particularly minor ones. He is able to consider the appropriateness of applying



one of the various sanctions at his disposal. Beyond simply ignoring the situation, sanctions include issuing a verbal warning, issuing a written warning (in certain regulatory matters), making an arrest, or otherwise resolving the immediate difficulty (for example referring the parties in a neighborhood dispute to small claims court; it doesn't resolve the precipitating issue, but it can put an end to immediate tension).

This, of course, describes the discretionary attribute of the police job. The police recognize and defend discretionary latitude as necessary if they are to adequately respond to the complex interplay of laws, social conditions, and motivating circumstances which underlie the incidents they handle. Even while defending the desirability of discretion, however, many police officers and administrators still assert publicly that they do provide equal enforcement. It is not uncommon for police agencies to include this in their motto.

The STAR survey results indicate very clearly that members of the community do not believe police assertions of equal enforcement. For example, 53 percent of the adults and 52 percent of the teenage respondents do not feel that the police treat all persons alike regardless of race or nationality. They also feel that although the police should be aware of the problems of racial discrimination, they are underemphasizing this to a considerable degree in the performance of their role.[3]

The impact of maintaining that enforcement is equal in the face of a public which believes in significant numbers that it is unequal is unrealistic and damages the police image. To a considerable degree,

police administrators feel that equality of enforcement is an essential obligation and that to admit in any way that it does not prevail is to admit that they are falling short of their professional standards of attainment. Unequal enforcement is not necessarily bad, however. The community expects neither total enforcement nor completely equal enforcement. It does expect that the rationale for less than equal enforcement be objective, logical, and visible. Thus, the basic issue is not whether there is unequal enforcement over time; rather, it is whether the unequal enforcement is a product of reason or of individual or institutional bias.

Both kinds of bias obviously exist. One cannot examine the history of major ethnic and racial minorities in this country without recognizing that their exclusion from policy-making and administrative roles in government has resulted in a system for exercising governmental sanctions which is ethnocentrically rigid. It is dominated by the majority segment of the community and until recent years there was relatively little motivation to respond equally to minority needs.

In the same way, individual bias cannot be totally avoided when one considers the extent and depth of sentiments held about race, ethnic heritage, religion, and similar values. They are emotional subjects to start with, and the violence of recent years which many people associate with the civil rights movement or simply with racial-ethnic groups has in most instances exacerbated the problem.

Contrary to the beliefs of many, individual bias can be adequately controlled in the context of organizational behaviors, but only if



the organization itself provides appropriate mechanisms for ensuring that bias does not exist at the institutional level. To the extent that the organization espouses biased values, individually biased behavior will be reinforced and on occasion rewarded.

Police organizations are aware of this. They have taken a number of steps to ensure that individual behavior is appropriately controlled. In many respects, however, they have not sufficiently removed those elements of institutional bias which can reinforce less than objective practices at the officer level.

Chapter 11 discusses under-representation of minority citizens in law enforcement employment, particularly at the supervisory and policy-making levels. This, plus the fact that few minority citizens hold significant power positions in the legislative or executive branches means that law enforcement policies are overwhelmingly developed by members of the majority public. This often results in distorted or imprecise perceptions among key police decision makers about the minority community, its culture, its problems, and its needs.

Many people are unwilling to accept the assertion that institutional bias exists in law enforcement agencies. Included in this group are most police officers. There is the belief that to admit the possibility of bias, as in the case of unequal enforcement, is to admit a failure. The emotionalism which characterizes the issue does not make achieving consensus any easier.

The defensiveness, cohesiveness, and "we-they" attributes of the police culture are significant factors in this problem. Not only do

police officers find it difficult to accept the charges of the "outsiders", but also they regard them as attempts to weaken the police role. Change is difficult for anyone to accept; it is even more so when one is a member of a fraternity as closely knit as the police.

Overcoming problems of institutional bias requires the concerted effort of all segments of the community. First and foremost, it requires that the elected and appointed officials responsible for administering government services analyze the local situation, determine the existence of biasing factors, publicly recognize these factors, and cooperatively, with representatives of all segments of the community, develop plans for improvement. At the agency level, the chief law enforcement administrator can do this regardless of the stance taken by the rest of the agencies in the jurisdiction. In doing so, however, he must recognize the sensitivity of the issue. He must carefully prepare his department and the remainder of the community for the very painful process of developing a plan. It is of utmost importance that he emphasize that by ensuring the participation of all segments of the community in the decision-making process regarding law enforcement, the police mission will ultimately be strengthened.

Increasing the number of minority citizens in law enforcement positions, particularly at management levels, should have salutary effects over the long run. In the meantime, however, police agencies can usefully find other ways to include citizens from all segments of the community in their crime control and public service tasks. The



STAR survey noted the perception of many citizens that the police were not adequately involving them in their operations. Chapter 13 also considers this in terms of adopting an affirmative resource development stance in providing police services. It is sufficient to note here that local law enforcement administrators should consider ways in which community representatives can cooperate in their operations, including service as police reserves, in neighborhood level advisory committees, as paraprofessional community workers, or in performing other useful tasks.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement administrators publicly recognize both the necessity for and desirability of varying levels of enforcement to respond to community needs which are not constant; further, administrators should set forth the rationales underlying their decisions to provide differing levels of enforcement.
>
> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT local jurisdiction officials and law enforcement administrators carefully consider their operations to ascertain where any elements of institutional bias might exist and, if such elements are found, take immediate steps to correct them.
>
> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT all such efforts relating to organizational bias include administrators, representatives of line law enforcement, and representatives of all segments of the community.

Obviously, removing elements of organizational bias will take time. Organizations are made up of people whose very humanness is at the heart of the issue. Changing attitudes that may be deeply held will not be easy. Beyond that is the practical consideration that increasing minority representation in law enforcement and other decision-making agencies of government will take many years.

It is questionable whether many minority citizens will be content to wait for many years for action directed against what they perceive as individually biased behavior. This includes intentional prejudicial behavior on the part of individual policemen or standard operating procedures which appear to discriminate against the minority public.

The Advisory Commission firmly believes that there are few police officers among the 40,000 in California who are so prejudiced that it results in substantial harm to the people they serve. However, every human has prejudices; occasionally, these prejudices can overcome all mediating forces of conscience or management and affect an officer's behavior. All the police agency can do to prevent this is to take reasonable steps to ensure adequate psychological testing of candidates for the police service, proper training, supervision and direction, and means for identifying and rectifying unacceptable behavior. These steps are required to control all governmental employees who wield power over the citizenry. They are discussed in various sections of this report as they relate specifically to the police. It is important at this juncture to consider some of the specific perceptions of differential or prejudicial treatment which some minority citizens commonly perceive.

Harassment

Many racial and ethnic monority neighborhoods are concomitantly high crime areas. In fact, they have a broader range of social problems than most neighborhoods in the majority section of the community. This means that police are heavily deployed in such neighborhoods.



That the police are there is not the issue with most residents. The minority citizen is as anxious as any other to have crime curtailed. He wants the security of knowing that his streets are safe to walk and that his home is safe from the threat of criminal invasion. However, with the police presence in the community comes the corollary attention to motor vehicle equipment statutes, moving traffic violations, disorderly conduct, curfew, and public drunkenness infractions. This is a factor both of having numerous police on the streets and of the prevailing philosophy of preventive patrol.

Too often, however, the citizen does not see the relationship between the enforcement of such apparently minor regulations and the major crimes of burglary, robbery, rape and murder which are occurring around him. Rather, he regards them as nitpicking efforts by the police to make things difficult. The residents of these neighborhoods often lack the means to maintain automobiles in the best of condition. They are more likely to use the front yard, street corner, or neighborhood store as extensions of their homes than their majority counterparts. Social and cultural patterns find them congregating in these places, particularly in the hot summer months.

When a police officer who has been socialized into a different culture enters such a neighborhood, he is likely not to understand many of these relationships. His sense of his responsibilities tells him to prevent crime, and his police training tells him that he prevents crime by emphasizing interrogatory contacts with citizens. Obviously, there are enough unusual occurrences going on to support his stopping many persons. Often, however, his perception of unusual

does not coincide with that of the local resident.

In such instances, the officer is not necessarily acting out of personal prejudice. Hostile reactions from the people he stops can combine with the high frequency of actual criminal incidents to reinforce any prejudices he may possess, however, and it does not take long to convince him that any "we-they" perception he has is probably accurate.

The minority citizen is not the only one with a perception of differential treatment at this point. The officer also can develop the perception that such treatment is justified, for he has personally seen that the minority neighborhood, crime, and hostility correlate with one another. An unfortunate cycle can result.

The cycle is a product of misperceptions on both sides. The policeman and the minority citizen have basically the same goals, but they can distrust one another so much that they are unable to agree on common techniques for accomplishing the goals. The greater share of responsibility for resolving this rests with law enforcement. As an agency of government, it is charged to respond affirmatively to community needs. This requires reaching out when problems of communication develop.

It is particularly important that law enforcement administrators explain to the various segments of the community the reasons underlying their enforcement policies and practices. This requires more effort than just placing a copy of the policy manual in the local division station or library. It requires face-to-face communication



between citizens and police, both at the level of the black and white patrol car and at the level of the manager in charge of the division. Decentralized police structures, such as that developed recently by the Los Angeles Police Department and augmented by their basic car concept, have such communication as a primary objective. The depersonalized mode of policing which has prevailed for the past two decades is once again giving way to the value of face-to-face contact.

Such face-to-face contact must be supported by other evidence that the police truly understand the impact of their tactics on the minority populace. For example, aggressive patrol, once explained, can still result in a major burden on residents of the minority community who feel in many ways as though they are under the watchful eye of an occupying police force from another cultural world. The benefits of an appropriately aggressive police presence need not be surrendered simply because alternatives to some of its negative aspects may be in order. For example, greater use of foot patrolmen, perhaps operating out of storefront centers, can develop more channels of communication and information than a patrol car which only provides the opportunity to talk to citizens during an enforcement contact. The police are still there. With mobile radios, they are still in communications with headquarters. But, and this is critical, they are more apt to be regarded as working with the community than working against them.

Certainly, this mode of delivering police services is more expensive than the vehicle-based type. Such a cost standard, however, is

an excellent example of the efficiency/effectiveness dichotomy. While patrol cars may be the most cost-efficient method of responding to calls for service, its effectiveness may be extremely low in terms of the alienation, lack of cooperation, and outright hostility it can help to generate among a populace which sees policemen only through the window of the squad car or during a police-initiated enforcement or interrogatory contact.

Beyond getting police officers out of their squad cars and into face-to-face communication with residents, there are other alternatives which can help to mitigate the negative aspects of aggressive patrol. For example, it might be possible to develop, through high school or college vocational education programs, systems by which vehicles cited for equipment violations could be repaired by students; the value of such a technique is that it can be provided to the entire community if they desire, but it can specifically benefit the low income resident who is particularly handicapped if his driving privileges are restricted for failure to bring his vehicle up to standards.

Other approaches to mitigating citizen-police conflict rely upon technological devices which have become standard police tools in recent years. For example, the Porterville Police Department has equipped each of its patrol officers with a cassette tape recorder with which he records each face-to-face contact. The recordings serve a number of purposes. They provide a record of each citizen contact; concomitantly, since the officer tells the citizen that he is recording their contact, notice is served that any misconduct on the part of either will inescapably be captured. Additionally, the recordings



prove a boon to the officer when he must fill out the inevitable police forms. He is able to replay the recording to refresh his memory and assure accuracy.

Another technological tool receiving increasing police use is the videotape. Erasable, audio-visual recordings are widely used in training and in recording sobriety tests given to suspected drunken drivers. It would seem that they could also be used in other circumstances, such as to record continuously police booking areas. Many complaints of alleged police misconduct arise from the booking process. Since most police radio transmissions are recorded, it would seem a similar record of all bookings might preclude many difficulties.

Of course, these and other strategic changes that might be developed work only to lessen a perspective of differential enforcement. which is based largely upon matters of circumstance; high crime, low income, large numbers of police. When deliberate harassment or unequal enforcement exist, other corrective measures must be taken. They are discussed in later sections of this report.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies set forth in writing their rationales regarding deployment patterns, use of preventive patrol techniques, and other pertinent enforcement practices and that they make these available to the public.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT police officers be officially encouraged to make as many non-enforcement oriented citizen contacts during their hours on duty as is possible within the limits of service needs.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the Department of Justice conduct a study of police workload formulae and develop alternative workload formulae which accommodate community service contacts.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies regularly survey the various segments of their communities to determine citizens' perceptions of police goals, tactics, effectiveness, and problems which may develop.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies use the results of these surveys in training programs and community meetings involving both police officers and citizens.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the California Council on Criminal Justice fund an evaluative study of the effects of officer-carried audio recording devices on citizen-police contacts.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the California Council on Criminal Justice fund an evaluative study of the effects of videotape recording systems mounted in police booking areas to film all booking procedures.

Field Interrogation

One particular police procedure is inevitably mentioned by citizens in the minority neighborhood when they bring up differential treatment or harassment. That is the use of the field interrogation. A common police technique, the field interrogation consists of the completion of an informational identification card about a citizen who is stopped on the street. The card elicits information about the person's identification and description, and an explanation for his presence in that place at that time.

Police agencies developed this information-gathering card primarily as a means of capitalizing upon the experiences of field officers. By examining the information in various combinations, they can construct profiles of the movements of criminals. The recurrence of a



particular name, always in close proximity to the location of a particular kind of crime, merits further investigation. The San Diego Police Department has done an excellent job in analyzing uses of the field interrogation card.

The obvious value of such information to investigators following up on burglaries and other crimes cannot be underestimated. Properly used, the field interrogation is a sound police procedure. There are indications, however, that it is often used less for its investigative purposes than to support the principle of preventive patrol and to provide statistical evidence that the field officer is aggressively patrolling. Many agencies visited by the Commission's staff do no systematic follow-up processing of field interrogation cards to see if they do in fact provide possible crime leads. Some agencies file the cards directly in their master index files. There are no uniform purging policies, and some detectives indicate that they have never used a field interrogation card as the basis for investigatory action. Sixty-five percent of the agencies responding to the Advisory Commission's survey say they have no written policy governing the use of field interrogation; 58 percent report having no written procedures (Chapter 8).

It is important to consider that the police officer, who perceives part of his responsibility as being crime prevention, knows that the field interrogation process does have an impact on reducing certain kinds of crime. Since the officer also perceives that the public wants him to prevent crimes, he often finds it difficult to understand why

a proven prevention tactic generates such an emotional reaction. He must recognize that the citizen often finds it difficult to understand why an officer stops him to determine his identity, where he is coming from, and where he is going. If the officer politely and cogently explains that a particular crime problem in the area has led to the contact, the citizen may well be receptive. If the officer does not do so, however, and if in fact the purpose for stopping the citizen is primarily to reinforce the police presence or to provide a statistical product for the logbook, the citizen is justified in any dissatisfaction he may express.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT local law enforcement agencies adopt guidelines similar to those set forth by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice:*

(1) Field Interrogation should be conducted only when an officer has reason to believe that a person is about to commit or has committed a crime, or that a crime has been committed and he has knowledge of material valuable to the investigation.

(2) Field interrogation should not be used at all for minor crimes like vagrancy or loitering.

(3) Adequate reason should be based on the actions of the person, his presence near the scene of a crime, and similar factors raising substantial suspicion, and not on race, poverty, or youth.

(4) The stop should be limited in time. The sole purposes should be (a) to obtain the citizen's identification; (b) to verify it by readily available information; (c) to request cooperation in the investigation of a crime, and (d) to verify by readily available information any account of his presence or any other information given by the person.

*These specifics drawn from the President's Commission are suggestions only. Certain specifics may not apply to California.



(5) The citizen should be addressed politely and should receive a suitable explanation of the reason for the stop.

(6) An officer should be allowed to conduct a search of the person only if he has reason to believe that his safety or the safety of others so require.*

(7) Officers should be required to file a report each time a stop is made in order to record the circumstances and persons involved. Even greater care should be taken with these records than with arrest records so that the police do not use them to establish the delinquency or bad character of the person stopped. Moreover, the records should not be available to persons outside of public law enforcement agencies.

In summary, the deployment of large numbers of police officers using aggressive patrol tactics in minority neighborhoods unavoidably results in large numbers of citizen and police contacts. To the extent that these contacts are justified in the eyes of the citizens and the police, there will be few problems. To the extent that they are not justified in the eyes of either, there is potential for conflict. The police agency must accept as paramount the need to allow citizens who are the recipients of police service to have a part in the determination of how it will be provided. When citizens and police together consider the impact certain police practices can have on overall attitudes and relationships, they may well be able to determine mutually acceptable ways for accommodating them.

*There is specific statutory and case law governing this subject.

## Police Brutality

The most sensitive issue raised by those citizens who are dissatisfied with the police role in the minority neighborhood is that of brutality. While the term "police brutality" suggests physical violence, the use of excessive force by officers in the performance of their duties, it really encompasses a much broader range of behaviors. The public construes brutality as going beyond physical harm to include verbal abuse, discourtesy, and a generally superior and condescending attitude on the part of the police officer. It is, in fact, the latter manifestations of "psychological brutality" which most directly lead to charges of prejudice and bias.

Data from the STAR survey show some ambivalence in public perceptions of the two kinds of brutality. Thirty percent of the adult respondents and 37 percent of the teenage respondents think the police often use excessive force in making arrests. However, only 14 percent of the adults and 16 percent of the teenagers think that the police often use offensive language in dealing with the public (see Chapter 3). Although these responses were not differentiated according to the racial or ethnic backgrounds of the respondents, examination of other research data suggests that negative perceptions would be more prevalent among minority citizens. For example, a survey conducted several years ago in the Watts area of Los Angeles found that 47 percent of all respondents and 60 percent of those from 15 to 29 years of age believed that there was at least some police brutality. It is important to note that of those who felt that there was brutality,



about half said they had witnessed instances of its occurrence.[4]

Of another survey conducted in the same area, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice said:

> This study also shows that males below the age of 35 years were most critical of the police. For example, 53 percent of young males reported they had been subjected to insulting language; 44 percent to a roust, frisk or search without good reason; 22 percent to unnecessary force in being arrested; and 10 percent to being beaten up while in custody. Well over 90 percent of young males believed that each of these kinds of incidents occurred in the area and 45 to 63 percent claimed to have seen at least one of them. There were no substantial differences based on economic levels. Negroes with higher education reported more insults, searches without cause, and stopping of cars without cause.[5]

Psychological brutality, including discourtesy and abusive language, does appear to occur frequently in California. Commissioners and Commission staff members have themselves witnessed its occurrence both before and during the course of this study. While police officers are much less likely to use trigger words such as "nigger" or "greaser" than they may have been in the past, these have by no means disappeared from the vocabulary.

Subtler forms of this psychologically demoralizing behavior are more common than outright abusive language. For example, a condescending tone of voice, the use of the first name during interrogation, or holding a youth up to ridicule in front of his friends is not uncommon.

Physical brutality is much less frequent than its psychological counterpart. It is extremely difficult to establish just how frequently it does occur, for there are seldom objective witnesses when it is alleged to take place. The citizen who believes he has been abused is as vehement in his charges as the police officer is in his denials. Witnesses, when they can be found, are usually so closely

related to the parties involved or to the circumstances leading up to the incident that their testimony is equally untrustworthy. The emotion and confusion which surround most incidents of alleged brutality do not make it any easier to determine objectively who is right.

Both types of brutality must be controlled through the articulation of policies and procedures governing the conduct of policemen. These policies and procedures must be supported by proper training, adequate supervision, and the provision of objective mechanisms for receiving and processing a citizen's complaints about officer misconduct. None of these will be truly effective however, if the administrative leadership of the law enforcement agency and of the local jurisdiction do not take a strong stand against such behavior. Through their public statements and through the attention which they give to complaints of misconduct, police chiefs, sheriffs, councilmen, county supervisors, police commissioners, and others must let both the public and the law enforcement officers in their employ know that extra-legal behavior will be detected and corrected. The external means for attending to this are discussed in Chapter 8. Some internal agency management considerations are addressed here.

The articulation of policies and procedures to constrain police discretionary decisions is likely to be less than effective if appropriate steps are not taken to ensure that they are understood and appropriately interpreted by officers at all levels of the organization. This must be done through training and supervision. All policies and



procedures relating to officer behavior should be the subject of regular training programs. Beyond this, supervisors must always be aware of officer behavior to determine if it is consistent with agency standards. A primary responsibility of the supervisor is to identify performance deficiencies and to develop individualized plans for officer improvement.

Simply defining this responsibility as part of the supervisor's role is not likely to be sufficient unless it is institutionalized through the media of written reports, performance evaluations, and promotional examinations. For example, every police agency should undoubtedly require that officers file written reports with their supervisors each time they use any but the most minimal force in effecting an arrest; certainly such reports should be required each time an officer's nightstick, service weapon, or other item of defensive equipment is used.

There is a definite role for the performance evaluation process in determining that officer conduct is appropriately channeled. We have discussed earlier the fact that the quarterly or semiannual performance evaluation in the police agency often emphasizes the enforcement and production aspects of the police function. Beyond this, it rarely involves a determination of whether the officer is aware of any new policies, procedures, rules, regulations, laws, court decisions, or other developments of which he should be cognizant. It would seem that if the evaluation process is to serve its primary function, namely, to ensure that the officer's abilities are adequate and that he is capably performing his job, an assessment of knowledge

and skills factors should be a part of the process. Unless he is competing in the promotional process, this is not often done. Many evaluation forms ask supervisors to rate an officer's skills in and knowledge of certain aspects of the job, but they require no affirmative demonstration by the officer that he does indeed possess them. Too often, the evaluation process is regarded as a housekeeping chore which occurs every three or six months. In truth, it must be an ongoing process, integrally a part of the agency's assessment of its ability to adequately meet its goals.

Since policies and procedures are crucial to ensuring appropriate behavior, and since they serve the corollary function of setting forth the agency's objectives, they should also be considered in the promotional process at all levels. Questions regarding policies and procedures should appear in both the written and oral segments of the promotional process. The use of hypothetical cases requiring essay interpretation of policies might prove extremely useful in this regard.

Once again, however, we must face the certainty that merely affirming the importance of such procedures in eliminating arbitrary or extra-legal behavior by police officers will not immediately satisfy many minority citizens. Many will see them as inadequate to overcome the problem of police behavior as they perceive it today. For these people, we can offer no easy remedies. To the extent that excessive use of force and psychological brutality exist in any community, they must be eliminated by local efforts. We can only suggest here that local governing bodies, police administrators, and citizen representatives join together to analyze their unique local conditions and to



stimulate corrective action where appropriate. Additonally, police officers themselves individually and through their various professional associations, should publicly disclaim any questionable tactics and should cooperate in broader community efforts to ensure that they do not occur. It is no more admirable for police officers to be blindly defensive than it is for members of the community to be blindly accusatory. Effective crime control and police services depend upon at least a minimal amount of trust and cooperation between officer and citizen.

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3. Field Research Corporation. Public Opinion of Criminal Justice in California, Project STAR (Systems and Training Analysis of Requirements), April 15, 1972, pp. 41-42.

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# Chapter 8

## DEVELOPMENT AND ARTICULATION OF POLICY

Properly developed and clearly enunciated policies comprise a police agency's primary mechanism for guiding the behavior of its personnel. Policies are the broad general guidelines which underlie the operations of a department; a perusal of policy should quickly indicate the basic values which the police agency is endeavoring to articulate through its operations.

Wilson and McLaren note that:

> Although policy can be defined to mean a guideline for carrying out even the most detailed action, the term usually refers to the broad statement of principle. Unless a policy is further defined and restricted, it allows a degree of flexibility within the limits set out by the policy maker.[1]

Policy statements reflect the agency's perception of its missions and role. They set forth what the agency feels should be done and what basic methods are appropriate to do so. Within the broad limits established by policy, officers are free to perform their duties. They are further constrained by procedures and rules, but the latter are more specific and generally relate to the "how-to-do-it" elements of the task.

Law enforcement policies are particularly important to the citizens in any community, for they are in the final analysis the police agency's primary source of guidance. To the extent that policies are clearly enunciated and widely known, citizens can judge

the appropriateness of their police agency's role, philosophy, and performance. To the extent that policies are not clear, or to the extent that they are not known to the citizenry, judgments about police performance must be based upon personal interpretations of police acts, as perceived individually and collectively by members of the public.

There is obvious value, then, in establishing objective policy statements. They provide standards against which both the agency administration and members of the community may measure police performance and effectiveness. They further provide an opportunity for police administrators to test their perceptions of priority problems against those of the citizenry. In many respects, the development of policies provides an excellent opportunity for law enforcement administration, general government representatives, and citizens to cooperatively consider the role they wish their police to play in the community.

Historically, little has been recorded about the policy-making process within law enforcement. This is in part the result of no standard, widely accepted definition of police policy or of the process itself. Further, it was hypothesized by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice that this is a consequence of the paramilitary organizational structure adopted by law enforcement agencies.[2] The internal management of such paramilitary organizations emphasizes the proliferation of standard operating procedures and elaborate rules and regulations. These procedures and regulations are usually internally oriented and seldom deal with



the really significant aspects of the discretionary decision-making responsibilities of the police (see Chapter 10 for a consideration of training for discretionary decision-making). Whether this hypothesis is valid is not as significant as the fact that police administrators have generally failed to take an aggressive stance in developing policies.

Police agencies too seldom formulate lucid policies to govern their interaction with the community. Instead of assuming a proactive stance by developing policies designed to anticipate issues, police officials have generally chosen to react to problems with after-the-fact policy-making. Most often, judicial authority has stimulated the formulation of policy in police organizations. Recent judicial history is replete with examples of this. The regulations now established as policy governing police behavior in the areas of search and seizure, stop and frisk, and field interrogations are basically the consequences of judicial initiative. Prior to the precipitation of policy development by the judiciary, federal and state legislatures were often the sources of police policy. Police officials depended upon legislatures, via their lawmaking function, to establish enforcement guidelines; all too frequently, police departments adopted statutes as policy instead of using them as bases from which to build their own policies.

Since one of the purposes which policies serve is to guide the behavior of police officers (a fact which is particularly significant in terms of the development of the police role), it is clearly important that every police agency develop them. We concur with the

President's Commission which said in 1967 that:

> Police departments should develop and enunciate policies that give police personnel specific guidance for the common situations requiring exercise of police discretion. Policies should cover such matters, among others, as the issuance of orders to citizens regarding their movements or activities, the handling of minor disputes, the safe-guarding of the rights of free speech and free assembly, the selection and use of investigative methods, and the decision whether or not to arrest in specific situations involving specific crimes.[3]

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies develop written policy manuals covering their operations.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies (annually or otherwise) regularly review and update all departmental policies.

## The Policy-Maker's Dilemma

James Q. Wilson discusses police policy-making as a dilemma of conflicting parts.[4] The initial part of the dilemma involves an area which Wilson terms as "order maintenance", situations such as a family quarrel, bar brawls and arguments, landlord-tenant disputes, and similar encroachments on the public peace. In order maintenance situations, the citizen wants something done by the police, but seldom is there any desire even on the part of the complaining party to have any drastic action taken, such as the making of an arrest. Normally the mediation which is desired is a "sidewalk" solution which requires the officer to be both policeman and judge. It is the peace officer's responsibility to collect facts, to determine guilt, and to return the situation to a state of normalcy as quickly as possible.

The second part of the dilemma is incorporated within the more traditional functions of law enforcement, These are the law enforcement functions where the application of legal sanctions such as arrest are



in order. Burglary, robbery, purse-snatching, auto theft, and murder are specific examples of crimes which are included under this rubric and for which a police officer is either responsible for preventing the crime from occurring or for making an arrest.

The dilemma faced by law enforcement administrators is to provide policies which govern the performance of order maintenance functions as well as the provision of strict law enforcement services.

The consequences of this dilemma in smaller more homogeneous communities are much less serious than in those communities whose boundaries are diverse. In the homogeneous community, guiding norms and value systems are normally well defined and accepted. Police agencies in these communities experience less difficulty in understanding what specific modes of organizational behavior the community will accept. A problem can develop in smaller communities because administrators sometimes lack training and consultative expertise necessary for the development of effective policies, but the impact is generally not significant.

In the larger, less homogeneous communities, it is much more difficult to identify and understand community norms and values. Due to the complex nature of metropolitan areas in California, law enforcement agencies experience difficulty in sensing the needs of the community they must serve. Often, conflicting expectations are transmitted to the police department by various publics comprising the community. Without the ability to adequately sense their

operating environment (see Chapter 5), law enforcers cannot comprehend all of the various community stimuli they receive.

The National Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals indicated in their January, 1973 Conference that law enforcement administrators need to ensure that adequate information about the needs and expectations of the community is known before policies, objectives, and priorities of police service can be formulated.[5] Administrators need to adopt specific programs for public involvement in the formulation of policies. Beyond that, administrators need to formulate measures to determine an agency's effectiveness in delivering police services. The major challenge to the development of police policy is to deal adequately with the complex problems involved and to do so in a manner that is clear and sufficiently precise to be meaningful to the officer at the operating level whose responsibility it is to implement the policy created.

During Commission interviews, it was noted that there is increasing disenchantment among certain segments of the population regarding the system of policy formulation applied by law enforcement. A major source of frustration frequently mentioned is that the community being served by a law enforcement agency is either unaware of policy decisions internally arrived at or resents the lack of community input into the policy-making process.

These perceptions are further reinforced by Commission research data which indicate that few of the agencies surveyed utilize any non-police input at the policy development level. Of the 53 agencies



which responded to the Commission's survey of selected law enforcement agencies, only 3 agencies utilize any source outside of government on an official basis to give feedback on policy decisions or formulation. When there is official, non-police input, city council members and county supervisors account for the largest civilian input. Interestingly, the bulk of citizen input in police policy-making occurs in the smaller law enforcement agencies employing from one to one hundred sworn officers. Unofficial participation in the process follows a similar pattern. It appears that the larger the department, the less likely it is to encourage non-police participation in policy formulation.

Police administrators should recognize the importance of communication with the public and seek to improve the department's efforts in this regard. It is vital that police agencies logically and formally determine community needs and expectations and react to them. The National Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals offers some assistance through the following recommendations.

> Every police agency should immediately adopt policies and procedures which provide for effective communication with the public through agency employees. Those policies and procedures should:
>
> a. Ensure that every employee having duties which involve public contact has sufficient information with which to respond to questions regarding agency policies; and
> b. Ensure that information which he receives is transmitted through the chain of command and acted upon at the appropriate level.[6]

Equally important is the need to involve the citizenry in this process. Evidence suggests that the community is given little encourage-

ment to participate in police policy development. Fewer than 33 percent of the agencies surveyed indicate that they utilize external private groups or citizens in the formulating of department policy. As a corollary, citizens are provided with little or no opportunity to review, either informally or formally, the policies developed. By not soliciting community input in the determination of their policies, police administrators leave the door open for continued discontent.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement administrators seek greater community involvement and input in policy-making and review.

It is interesting to note that while federal and state legislatures have had impact on the policy process, little has been accomplished at the local legislative level. County boards of supervisors, city councils, and other local governmental bodies seldom involve themselves in police policy-making. Less than 30 percent of the law enforcement agencies visited by the Commission's staff indicated that their local legislative bodies have official roles in the development of policy. In some cases, local legislators have not seen the police department's policy manual and can only assume that one exists. In other cases, local legislators show little interest in the quality of policy developed by law enforcement agencies. There is a tendency to leave the management to the police professionals until an accident precipitates widespread citizen concern and attention. Then, after the fact, local legislators become very interested in policy and operations.



Considering the impact police operations have in the local community, it is important that local legislators and executives be continuously aware of and involved in policy development. This can be accomplished both formally and informally, but it essentially requires that police management regard the policy-making process as an open system. This means policy should be developed and reviewed on the basis of information coming in from all segments of the community who have an interest in the provision of police services. The information can come as totally new input or as the result of feedback on actions taken or policies already implemented. In either case, it requires that the agency accommodate as many information sources as appropriate and feasible.

The Commission's field interviews with 53 selected agencies indicate that the primary participants in developing law enforcement policy are the police chief or sheriff and his command staff. In departments in size categories A through D (employing from 1 to 100 sworn officers), the survey indicates there is some effort to include city managers, city attorneys, district attorneys, county administrative officers, city councilmen, and county supervisors both formally and informally in the process. In the larger categories E through I (101 to 1,000 or more officers), little involvement of such persons is indicated.

A number of reasons might account for this difference in involvement levels of non-police persons. Certainly the size of the community has a bearing, for in a smaller community there is likely to be a higher

degree of interaction between the principals on a regular basis. The reasons for the difference are perhaps less important than the realization that effective law enforcement requires accurate information on community needs and resources. An adequate range of information requires input from a broad range of sources. Collaterally, open lines of communication between police and significant citizen groups is an essential element of a trusting relationship between the two.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT local law enforcement agencies involve district attorneys, city attorneys, city and county executives, and city and county legislators in the review of policy suggested for adoption.

Beyond the involvement of community and government representatives, it is important that each police agency involve patrol officers, first line supervisors, and middle managers in the policy development process. Chief Justice Burger recently pointed out:

> No law book, no lawyer, no judge can really tell the police on the beat how to exercise this discretion perfectly in every one of the thousand of different situations that can arise in the hour-to-hour work of the policeman. Yet we must recognize that we need not choose between no guidelines at all and perfect guidelines. There must be some guidance by way of basic concepts that will assist the officer in these circumstances.[7]

Suprisingly, few policemen on the street are consulted about potential policy that will directly affect their performance on the job. There is a need for increased participation within the ranks, and its absence suggests a communication gap between the command staff and the working patrolman. In any police organization, open lines of communication ensure that the command staff receives vital "street" information essential for effective policy development. Therefore, it is important that intra-organizational channels of communication facilitate patrolman input. The major burden of responsibility for this must be borne by the department's chief executive and other management personnel who must instruct and communicate by example.



> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement administrators ensure that police officers at all levels in the agency have an opportunity to participate in the policy development process.

While input of an informational variety is important, so is the need to distribute policy information. Every police officer in the agency should receive a copy of the written policies. It is essential that all employees within law enforcement be aware of and fully implement departmental policies which relate to the performance of their respective jobs.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies ensure the promulgation of all policies among all personnel and develop methods for determining that such policies are interpreted consistently throughout the department.

## Policy Coverage

The Commission's research into the extent of current policy has exposed several weaknesses. First, there are a number of areas where policy statements are either non-existent or are so poorly articulated that they are virtually ineffective. These include: field

interrogations where 65 percent of the agencies responding to the Commission's survey have no policy statement; the use of non-deadly force, where 37 percent have no policy statement; citizen grievance procedures, where 50 percent of the agencies have no policy statement; and finally, the area of civil disturbances, where 50 percent of the Commission's sample indicate that they have no policy statement. A positive note is the indication that 69 percent of the agencies surveyed have written policies covering the use of deadly force. It does concern the Commission, however, that 31 percent of those agencies surveyed do not have such a policy.

Second, it has been noted that policy established in the traditional manner is usually reactive. Many policies are developed as a consequence of a management crisis or a failure to sense the needs of the environment. They appear to have been established to protect the department from future crises.

A number of reasons have been offered by law enforcement administrators for their reluctance to enunciate and promulgate policies. First, law enforcement administrators believe that widespread community knowledge of police policy may have a damaging effect on the department's ability to solve crime; they see a need for some element of secrecy to protect the effectiveness of tactics. Second, police administrators believe that the guidelines established by the courts and state legislature are sufficient to meet their organizational needs. Third, police officials are not confident that their policies, if subject to public perusal, will not be construed to be exceeding the boundaries of order maintenance and bordering on harassment. Fourth, police



officials are wary that precisely articulated policy statements can result in reducing flexibility and in causing the public to evaluate police performance against the policy standards. This could result in a greater frequency of civil suits, especially if field performance is perceived as departing from the policy statement. Last, police administrators conjecture that crime might increase if the citizenry were aware of established "tolerance" levels maintained by some departments. Regardless of the extent of their validity, these reasons are frequently given by law enforcement to explain a lack of articulated policies.

Unwillingness to develop policy is surprising in view of the police willingness to formulate procedures. The paramilitary style of police organizations requires highly formalized operating procedures. These procedures are designed to facilitate uniform and orderly police response to certain kinds of service demands. Administratively, the formulation of procedure is a selective process, restricted to narrow boundaries and to areas where little discretion is required. The care of equipment, the scheduling of court appearances, the transporting of prisoners, and the proper way to conduct a vehicle stop are areas in which procedures are easily articulated.

It is obvious that standard operating procedures are a necessary part of police administration and that they have practical impact on street practices. It is disconcerting that these procedures rarely address the discretionary choices that police officers are forced to make on a daily basis. Procedures, unlike policies, do not provide a

framework from which an officer can base his actions. As noted in the Challenge of Crime in a Free Society, procedures do not affect those problems which determine "to a large degree the safety of the community, the attitude of the public toward the police, and the substance of court rulings on police procedures."[8]

Commission research has documented that community distrust can be heightened by the failure to develop clear policy, or, as mentioned earlier, the failure to inform the citizenry of existing policy directives. The community perception of those areas where distrust is most acute include: police contacts on the street; field interrogations; arrest; the use of deadly force and non-deadly force; patrol tactics and assignments; investigative techniques; the complaint or grievance process; and tactics for handling disorders, demonstrations and riots. Of course, there are other aspects of the police function which raise important policy questions. However, the preceding problems seem to be most relevant to community concerns.

Obviously, police and community relationships are partly determined by the manner in which the police agency guides its officers in the performance of their individual and institutional roles. Policies comprise the foundation of all other guidance mechanisms developed for this purpose. Thus, there is at least a minimal law enforcement responsibility to use the policy development process as an appropriate avenue for transforming citizen needs into police services. Doing so has obvious benefits for the professional police agency and for the various publics it serves.



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# Chapter 9

## RESOLVING CITIZEN COMPLAINTS

One of the mechanisms which police agencies use to control officer behavior is the citizen grievance and complaint process. Through this formal procedure, citizens who feel they have been wronged by a law enforcement officer officially performing his duty may express their grievance. The action resulting from such a complaint may include departmental discipline, criminal prosecution, or exoneration.

While it is doubtful that the complaint procedure is ever a pleasant experience, it is necessary. It furnishes citizens with a number of alternatives in seeking redress for an action taken by the police agency or an agent of that organization in responding to a citizen's need for police service. Many times, the procedure is simply a safety valve for citizens to let off steam, while in other situations there may be serious questions as to whether an officer abused his authority. The complaint procedure, then, is one of the department's external feedback channels for developing an understanding of how citizens perceive the behavior of individual officers or the total department. If the process works well, it can successfully short circuit much of the hostility, conflict, and distrust which normally disrupt an agency's ability to provide truly effective police services.

The discussion in this chapter addresses primarily the non-criminal complaint or the criminal complaint prior to the point at which criminal charges are contemplated. When suspicion focuses on an officer and criminal charges appear to be imminent, the priorities of the legal action must take precedence over the less rigid, departmental procedural rules.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement administrators regularly encourage all citizens to offer their comments regarding the level of law enforcement service provided in their community.
>
> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT when alleged police misconduct has raised tension in the community, written departmental policy should outline the appropriate immediate steps that should be taken to meet with community representatives and jointly mobilize an effective response to the problems.

Citizen initiation is not the only method for generating a complaint against a police officer. Through internal department channels, a supervisor, fellow officer, or member of the administrative staff may initiate and register complaints against an officer who, in the performance of his official duties, is thought to be in violation of a departmental procedure or regulation. The alternative actions taken as a result of a departmentally initiated complaint are essentially the same as those resulting from the citizen complaint. Most often these internal complaints result in disciplinary action, infrequently in criminal charges. They are basically unseen or unheard of by the general public.

The citizen complaint process, in contrast, has high visibility at the outset. It is a method for providing citizens with a mechanism



for reacting against what they perceive as officer misconduct. As a technique of police administration, it serves a number of extremely important purposes. First, of course, it provides an opportunity for the community to critique police operations and to bring to administrators' attention performance which is below acceptable standards. Second, it provides a means by which administrators can identify developing problems involving either individual officers or agency practices. And finally, it provides a trust-building mechanism which police agencies can use to show the general public their commitment to objective law enforcement.

Law enforcement and order maintenance require cooperation between law enforcement agencies and the general public. The cooperation must be achieved through communication and the development and nurturance of a high level of trust.

The considerable discretionary authority given to the police raises a potential barrier to gaining the public's trust. Too frequently, segments of the public perceive the police as employing their discretion in ways that appear unfair and discriminatory.

Regardless of the mechanisms devised by departments to screen law enforcement personnel and regardless of other devices administrators employ to eliminate the opportunity for misconduct and abuse, the reality of the situation facing almost every law enforcement agency is that some personnel will probably on one occasion or another exhibit some form of misconduct. As stated above, the misconduct will either be discovered by a fellow officer and handled internally or it will be observed and reported by a private citizen.

The internal method provides an individual police officer with an avenue through which he can register a declaration of misconduct against another police officer. This process, entirely pursued by the organization, does not directly involve the community. The process is initiated by a police officer against another police officer. The investigation of the allegation is conducted by a police board, and finally action is taken.

This internal procedure is normally used either by supervisors responding to improper behavior or by internal investigators who may have uncovered illegal behavior. On rare occasions, it is used by officers who, because of their professional pride and commitment to the high standards of performance, feel obligated to react against behavior they feel is unacceptable. One of the legitimate complaints offered by the police is that in the reverse situation civilian witnesses often refuse or fail to relate without bias facts which they have observed and about which they are asked to testify.

An individual who assumes the role of a police officer accepts the responsibilities which accompany that role. The average police officer in California is expected to handle both a law enforcement function and an order maintenance function. The very nature of these functions brings police officers into personal interactions with citizens which are seldom tranquil. A traffic accident, robbery, mugging, assault, or even a follow-up investigation regarding an incident which transpired a month or a year before may create the kind of emotionalism which precipitates charges of police misconduct.



Normally, a complaint against an officer is filed at either the headquarters or a division sub-station of the police department. Complaints are generally in writing on a form designed to facilitate further action. The individual receiving the complaint is usually the watch commander or the desk officer located at the police station. He is responsible for accepting and routing the complaint information to the proper investigative unit within the police agency. From the average law enforcement agency's standpoint, the organization which follows this particular approach to the complaint procedure is considered to have at least an adequate procedure for receiving, recording, investigating and resolving a complaint registered against a police officer.

The complaint process is an integral part of effective police administration as well as effective community-police relations as defined by the Advisory Commission. Most sources, such as the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, the National Commission on Standards and Goals[2], O. W. Wilson in Police Administration [3] and Howard H. Earle in Police Community Relations,[4] generally agree that effective police administration requires not only an avenue for citizen communication, but a well articulated citizen complaint process as well. Earle notes that "(O)ne of the prime requisites to any adequate community relations program is an effective system by which an aggrieved citizen can allege his complaints."[5] The Advisory Commission surveyed a selected sample of police organizations and discovered that only 50 percent of the agencies have a written policy governing the citizen grievance procedure. Further, only 54 percent of the agencies surveyed have written

procedures covering the grievance area. Without guidance from written policies or procedures, it is most difficult to provide citizens with a relatively uniform application of any citizen complaint process.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies develop and publish written policies delineating their complaint procedures.
>
> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies establish study committees composed of police officials, general government officials, and representative citizens to review existing policies and procedures for handling complaints.

While an inconsistent approach to handling complaints is better than no complaint process, it is far superior to develop a procedure in writing and then apply it effectively.

The institution of an effective external complaint procedure is not a tactic designed to limit an agency's legitimate activities. Quite the contrary, an effective and properly administered external complaint procedure can be beneficial for the public, the officer, and the agency. It reassures the general public that the police agency respects the rights of citizens and corrects inappropriate behavior. If utilized properly, the complaint process is an asset to the police officer because it assures him that if he conducts himself in a proper manner he will be protected from unwarranted criticism and discipline.

As a management technique, it is a cogent device to measure the validity of certain policy and procedural statements. Properly utilized, the complaint process serves management by providing statistical evidence of any conflict which exists between the community and the department's policies and procedures. Similarly, continuing



evidence of conflicts between individual officers and citizens is a useful indication of emotional problems affecting a particular officer or an indication that a particular policy may not have been well understood by all officers, whether because of poor communications or ineffective training.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT local law enforcement agencies determine the major and most frequent causes for complaints against officers, and when necessary, develop and require training programs and clinics designed to respond to the problems identified.
>
> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies carefully review those policies and procedures which are found to be related to numerous and recurring complaints.
>
> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies maintain records of all complaints regardless of disposition.

Earlier in this chapter a description was offered in an attempt to clarify the exact procedures common in the complaint process. Briefly, those procedures include: alternative methods of complaint reception, an agency investigation, a report of findings, and agency action.

## Complaint Reception

Traditionally, the location for receiving complaints is at the local police headquarters, in care of the watch commander or desk sergeant. However, in a number of the larger agencies, responsibility for receiving and investigating citizen complaints rests with an internal affairs unit. The Advisory Commission's research data indicate that within the state of California, there are a variety of methods established for receiving citizen complaints. Indeed, almost

all agencies have unique methods of reception.

The Advisory Commission also attempted to determine if there was any consistency in the investigation of complaints. Once again, while some agencies surveyed indicate that they utilize an internal affairs unit, there are equally as many agencies who use detectives, investigators, and command staff. One problem pin-pointed in a study by the University of California at Davis is that it can be most difficult to locate police officers responsible for investigating citizens complaints.[6] This can have ramifications for the average citizen who is frustrated by the process. The National Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals[7] offers some valuable assistance in formulating effective procedures for overcoming some of the conflict inherent in the complaint process.

Police agencies need to implement procedures which will facilitate making a complaint alleging employee misconduct, whether that complaint is initiated internally or externally. Individual police agencies could usefully develop a complete but simple complaint/commendation form. This could be used both to initiate complaints about officer misconduct as well as to commend particularly good police performance. Providing checklists for such things as physical evidence, statements by witnesses, accurate dates and times, and similar facts would ensure complete and accurate information collection.

Making a complaint should not be accompanied in any manner by the fear of reprisal or harassment. Every person making a complaint should receive a receipt verifying reception of the complaint by the police agency. This receipt should contain a general description of the



investigative process and appeal provisions. Further support for this approach can be found in the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice.[8]

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies establish a specific unit or assign a carefully selected officer to accept and investigate all complaints filed against the department and/or its personnel. Such officers should be re-assigned on a regular basis.
>
> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies establish procedures by which complaints/commendations can be easily accepted. Such procedures may include:
>
> 1. a complaint hot line
> 2. acceptance of anonymous and unwritten complaints
> 3. wide distribution and availability of complaint forms
> 4. Assurance that every officer is authorized to accept complaint/commendation forms
> 5. Assurance that every officer on duty maintains an adequate supply of complaint/commendation forms
> 6. Instruction that every officer ensure that a citizen complaint is forwarded to the proper investigating unit.
>
> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies ensure that officers not discourage the filing of complaints.
>
> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT even if the complainant wishes to drop his complaint the agency complete its investigation.

## Complaint Investigation

Once the reception portion of the complaint process is completed, the investigation begins. It is at this point where a major portion of community distrust, whether real or imagined, develops. Earle points out that "Perhaps as important to the citizen as the ease of access to the grievance process is the belief that his complaint will

be thoroughly and impartially investigated and that real sanctions will be imposed against officers found derelict."[9] Generally, the investigation of citizen complaints is conducted by an agent employed by the organization against which the complaint is lodged. A complaint against an individual officer is, by extension, a complaint against the agency, for the officer is its representative.

While approximately 50 percent of the agencies surveyed by the Advisory Commission have indicated that they do have an established grievance procedure, the major issue of citizen distrust is the legitimacy of that procedure.

Concerned citizens question how a police agency can be counted on to remain objective when investigating an allegation either against itself or one of its agents. Distrust, however significant or slight, exists; some of it can be directly tied to a perception that there is within the "thin blue line" a spirit of fraternalism which is stronger than the commitment to public service.

Some police science theoreticians argue that most professions investigate their peers when there has been an allegation of malpractice. For the private sectors of business, law and medicine, that approach may in fact be adequate. But where a public service agency which has been entrusted with the safety of the community is concerned, the development of public trust may override all of these other considerations. The trust and confidence of the community served should be a paramount issue for considering a change in the investigatory portion of the complaint process. In a comment from the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, a deputy chief



of police from Cincinnati summed up his observations this way:

> The thing that bothers me is that police continue to receive huge numbers of complaints but there are only a few instances where the complainant is upheld. They can't be wrong that much--and we can't be right that much.[10]

The above concern is supported by data from the STAR attitude survey. To the statement that "Police investigations of complaints about police misconduct are always fair and thorough", 32 percent of the adults, 33 percent of the teenagers, and 43 percent of the working police officers responded in the affirmative. It is significant, however, that 34 percent of the adults, 35 percent of the teenagers, and 32 percent of the working police officers disagreed with the statement. Over one-third of the police sample question the objectivity of the current process.[11]

Obviously, this indicates a significant dilemma for law enforcement. If they wish to continue their current methods for investigating complaints alleging officer misconduct, they do so at the peril of continuing public mistrust. However, if they consider significant changes in their current methods, they face the problem of surrendering what they consider to be a vital internal management function. Obviously, it is necessary to discover some middle ground which speaks to both community perceptions of lack of objectivity and police perceptions of the need to control their own disciplinary machinery.

There are several benefits to such an approach. It removes the responsibility for investigation from the immediate agency; it facilitates the use of officers who are not part of the agency under investigation; and it allows agency administrators the freedom to retain

internal disciplinary machinery which they consider appropriate. A concept similar to this is currently applied in Santa Clara County, where the District Attorney's office coordinates investigations of alleged police misconduct in particularly serious cases.

At the conclusion of the investigative segment of the complaint process, a report of findings is presented to the requesting authority within the police agency. Normally this requesting authority is the chief of police or sheriff. This report of findings, as well as any other information collected in the case, becomes the property of the investigating agency; seldom is it made public knowledge. Fears that the organization may be biased are not allayed by this secretiveness and resultant lack of information inherent in the current complaint process.

In response to the Advisory Commission's survey question "Are the records of investigations of citizen complaints open to public examination, almost 84 percent of the 248 responding agencies indicated a negative response (see Appendix D for a complete breakdown). Thus, according to the Commission's research efforts, the investigatory report in most cases is not available for public perusal.

The Advisory Commission survey questionnaire further asked if the findings of investigations of grievances and/or complaints were made known to the complainants. Ninety-four percent of the 252 agencies responding to the question report that they do inform the complainant of the findings in their case (see Appendix). However, various segments of the community question the methods law enforcement agencies employ to transmit to a complainant information relating to his complaint.



A common police response to a citizen complaint which may have taken several days or weeks of intensive investigation is a form letter which discusses in non-specific terms whether the alleged misconduct was deemed to have basis, and whether the complaint was sustained or unsustained by departmental authorities.

Although a personal interview is the best procedure for notifying a citizen about the disposition of a complaint which he registered, it is expensive both in terms of time and money. Perhaps the next most feasible means of notification is by individual correspondence. However, Advisory Commission research indicates that in this approach the past has proven somewhat unsatisfactory to the complainant. Too often, a written follow-up to a citizen complaint is too sketchy in detail and seldom personal enough to give the citizen the feeling that he has accomplished anything by taking the time to file a citizen complaint.

Specifically, law enforcement agencies should spend more time developing an effective response vehicle for answering a complaint. That vehicle, whether it be a personal interview or a written statement, should be personal and should contain specific kinds of information which indicate to the complainant the exact nature of the outcome of his case. Regarding complaints which may take several weeks or months to investigate, it is suggested that police administrators contact the complainant at specific time intervals in order to keep the complainant up-to-date.

Finally, Advisory Commission research indicates that it is rare for an agency when corresponding with or otherwise informing a complainant about the disposition of his complaint to refer specifically to the

disciplinary action taken by the agency. Too often, the citizen who takes the time to complain about police misconduct is made to feel as if he, not the officer against whom he is lodging a complaint, is guilty of misconduct.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT records of investigations be made available to complainants regardless of whether the original complaint is sustained. At least the following information should be provided:
>
> 1. Summary of the investigative findings.
> 2. Number of witnesses interviewed, as well as all persons, by name, who were suggested for interviewing by the complainant.
> 3. Extent of physical evidence examined, where applicable.
> 4. As much additional information as the chief law enforcement administrator may find practicable.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT interim reports of investigations be provided to complainants at regular intervals when the investigative effort extends over a period of weeks.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT a summary report containing as much information as is legally permissible be provided to the complainant in the event criminal action is initiated against the officer which would otherwise restrict publication of agency findings.

## Disciplinary Action

Following the investigation, the police agency is obligated either to formally exonerate the officer against whom a charge has been filed, or take some form of disciplinary action against him. When a disciplinary action is initiated by the department, neither the complainant nor any other non-police witnesses are typically allowed to be present. Rather, the investigating officer presents the case, stating his interpretation of what the people he interviewed said. The department essentially assumes the role of complainant in such proceedings,



rationalizing that the officer has violated departmental regulations; thus it punishes the officer for that violation, not specifically for wronging the complainant.

The underlying basis for this approach to internal disciplinary procedures is the belief that control of police behavior is an integral management function. Police administrators strongly believe, and understandably so, that they should control the discipline of their officers. They feel that to surrender the disciplinary power in any way would be to surrender both a major personnel control mechanism and a basic managerial responsibility.

It is difficult to dispute the logic of this stand, for it is well grounded in management theory. However, without surrendering the ultimate disciplinary authority, administrators can find alternatives to rigid police domination of the process. It is not a strict "either-or" situation. In light of the crucial relationship of the complaint process to overall community-police relations, it would appear that steps to increase the visibility of the process and otherwise restore faith in its objectivity might well be more important to the effectiveness of law enforcement than insistence upon maintaining the status quo.

The Advisory Commission's survey of California law enforcement agencies attempted to determine the extent of citizen involvement in disciplinary proceedings and the extent to which citizens are informed of the results of disciplinary action taken. Eighty-five percent of the responding agencies (246) indicate that they inform complainants about disciplinary action taken. Eighty percent of the agencies indicate, however, that they do not inform the general public. (See Appendix D for a complete breakdown.)

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies regularly publish reports summarizing complaints, dispositions, and disciplinary actions taken. These reports should distinguish between actions based on internal rule infractions and those initiated by a citizen.

On the question of complainant representation during the disciplinary proceedings whether in person, by an attorney, or by another person of his choice, the responses were not sufficient to draw any solid conclusion. However, citizen participation appears to be severely proscribed.

Given these facts, it appears that some accommodation is in order which will retain the basic features of the current disciplinary process as an integral management function and still allow the complainant, who has as much at stake in the outcome of the proceedings as the agency, to have some assurance of its thoroughness and objectivity. One alternative which might prove particularly useful is the application of a technique similar to that used by the grand jury. For example, several police agencies on an experimental basis might allow the complainant or complainant and his attorney to be present during the disciplinary proceeding, but not to participate actively such as by cross examination of witnesses. In this way, the complainant and his attorney would be privy to the proceedings, but the agency would retain control. The complainant would then be able to question in writing or in some fashion any discrepancies or shortcomings he identified in the proceedings.



## Alternative Complaint Mechanisms

There are a variety of agencies which can receive, investigate, or otherwise process citizen complaints against a police officer or enforcement agency. These include the district attorney's office, the city manager's office, the city council, the board of supervisors, the state attorney general's office, the grand jury, and the Federal Bureau of Investigation. Alternatives in the private sector include the legal aid society, the American Civil Liberties Union, and similar kinds of public interest groups.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies publicize those agencies, such as the city manager's office, the district attorney's office, the law enforcement agencies, the city council, the county board of supervisors, the state attorney generals office, the FBI, and the legal aid society, which may receive complaints against the police.

Some of these public agencies, it is charged, have such close and frequent interaction with the police that they are likely to be biased in law enforcement's favor. In the Project STAR survey, the following statement was made: "A citizen who has a complaint against a police officer will have a hard time getting the authorities to look into the matter." While 48 percent of the adults and 38 percent of the teenagers disagree with this statement, fully 30 percent of the adults and 37 percent of the teenagers agree. Even when the arena of action is broadened to include the non-specific term "authorities", there is considerable skepticism about government's response.[12] It is important that law enforcement agencies and the other elements of government concerned with citizen complaints against police officers take all possible steps to restore any citizen faith lost as a result of percep-

tions of lack of fairness or objectivity in the complaint process.

Skepticism about the propriety of the way the complaint process works is not restricted to members of the public. Police officers themselves question, often with good cause, some uses of the complaint machinery. There are indications that the frivolous and malicious filing of complaints is becoming a serious problem. It is not unheard of, for example, to have complaints of police misconduct filed as a pro forma matter each time certain persons have contact with a police officer.

Legitimate grievances about such use of the complaint mechanism is combining with other factors to create a considerable negative reaction from organized peace officers groups against the current complaint and disciplinary machinery. Police officers are exerting influence wherever possible to promote adoption of the Policeman's Bill of Rights, which contains detailed provisions protecting officers' rights, including a number of due process provisions. They include right to counsel or advice during interrogations by investigators, restricted use of "off the record" interviews, and the right to refuse to answer questions under certain circumstances (usually restricted to non-criminal matters).

The matter of appropriateness of the Policeman's Bill of Rights is not at issue in this report. Its applicability is being determined through collective bargaining in California today. It is germane to the Advisory Commission's efforts, however, to make several points. First, the police officer should not be subjected to frivolous or malicious charges for any reason.



Second, officers' rights should be clearly set forth in departmental rules and regulations, and members of the public should be informed and aware of these rights.

Finally, police officers and police administrators equally have an interest in fair and uniform disciplinary machinery. They should concentrate their energies positively on the joint development of acceptable machinery which has too often not characterized past attempts to remedy inequities.

## The Need for Change

Whether a citizen's complaint is filed or not filed, whether it is warranted or not warranted, or whether the outcome of the investigation is to sustain the complaint or not is in many ways of little consequence. What is significant is the community's perception of the access to the complaint process, and of the equality, fairness, and impartiality of the investigation and disposition provided through established complaint procedures. It is apparent that several segments of the community believe the current system is lacking they concomitantly fear that a major element of control over police behavior is not effective. This obviously affects the general attitude those people hold toward the police.

Given the significance of the police role in our society, it is obvious that the community's opinion of the complaint process is indeed worthy of serious consideration. It is a major barrier to attaining that level of trust which is crucial to the improvement of community-police relations, the enhancement of the quality of life, and the promotion of cooperation in the fight against crime.

The Advisory Commission finds it necessary to go beyond this perceptual rationale to justify changes in citizen complaint mechanisms, however. Surveys and interviews have provided evidence which suggests that the current process is indeed less than objective. It is for this reason more than any other that changes must be initiated. These changes may take several forms. The broadest and most candid consideration should be given to ways of restoring citizen faith in the mechanisms which the police use to ensure fair and impartial law enforcement.

The Advisory Commission concludes that the most effective methods for overcoming the problems associated with police misconduct or malpractice are preventive measures employed during recruitment, screening, training, evaluating, and retraining law enforcement personnel. To the extent that these methods fail, it can be expected that the public will look to the complaint process for redress.



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4. Earle, Howard H. Police Community Relations: Crisis in Our Time. Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1970, pp. 147-149.
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8. President's Commission, op. cit., p. 195.
9. Earle, op. cit., p. 147.
10. President's Commission, op. cit., p. 196.
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12. Ibid., p. 42.

# Chapter 10

## TRAINING AND EDUCATION

Training is one of the adaptive mechanisms that police agencies use to respond to problems and to maintain a relatively stable level of operation. Both training and education are methods for promoting behaviors which are congruent with and supportive of the role objectives of the agency. Further, training and education are methods by which organizations and individuals can mutually raise their levels of performance, effectiveness, and efficiency.

The quality of the response police individuals and organizations make to community needs and expectations is directly affected by the quality of training provided. Despite the critical effect that training has on police performance and community relations, police management often fails to regard training as an integral part of the management process. As a consequence, police training programs and activities may relate only peripherally to accomplishing agency goals and objectives and may fail to provide reinforcement of appropriate police role behaviors.

To achieve high quality training, it is essential to view training as a process, a series of commitments and steps which must be made and implemented to assure the effectiveness and impact of the entire procedure. This chapter discusses police training and education within the framework of the steps required to produce effective, quality training activities and programs--whether in-house or external to the agency. The discussion examines the potential benefits of training for both personal and organizational needs in the police service and concurrently points out the weaknesses and problems inherent in most areas of present police training prac-

tices. Examples of good training procedures, often drawn from model programs, are provided.

## Training the Individual in the Police Service

In 1959, the State of California, recognizing the importance of carefully selected and adequately trained enforcement personnel, established the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST). POST has set minimum standards for selection, training, and education which the department and individual officers must meet in order to be certificated. Certification is now required by departments serving approximately 99 percent of the state's population.

By providing financial reimbursement for training, POST makes it easier for eligible local law enforcement agencies to send personnel for training and education necessary to perform their duties and obtain certification. To remain eligible for reimbursement, departments must meet the minimum standards for selection and training set forth in the POST regulations. In 1972, 24 small departments, serving less than one percent of the state's population, did not participate in the POST program.

There is considerable effort to make training and education conveniently available to the police officer. Most of the POST training courses, which cover basic, supervisory, advanced officer, middle-management, executive, and special and technical areas, are given at local community colleges and police academies in proximity to most of the trainees' agencies. The trend toward establishment of regional training centers will eventually make training available to departments previously isolated from educational institutions.

# CONTINUED

# 3 OF 6

Adaptation to the Police Role

Training is an important means of adapting the recruit to the police role through the process of socializing him and helping him build the minimum level of skill necessary to perform and survive until he cumulatively develops a broad range of appropriate behaviors.

Socialization. Training during a police officer's early employment helps socialize him into the agency culture and introduces him to the behavior patterns which the prevailing view of the police role requires. (See Chapter 5). This is an extremely important function, for it helps ensure predictability of behavior.

For the in-service officer, training reinforces the prevailing concept of the role of the police by emphasizing various aspects of the role in course content or in the types of courses offered. Thus the image of the police role presented in community college courses is of interest.

A survey of community colleges providing POST-certified courses indicated the following: of the 21 colleges responding with a role definition, 8 categorically view the role of the police as that of a social or public service agency. Four additional respondents qualify the service role by reinforcing the fact that the officer represents a law enforcement agency. Other respondents express the role in terms of the justice system or view their task as helping the officer understand himself and his relationship to the community. Another said that officers should understand that people want to share in the way laws are administered.

Some instructors commented that because the police are one of the only resources available to the community 24 hours a day, officers should be better trained to meet the demands made on them. Others indicated an attempt to help officers understand themselves and their role position in relation to the attitudes and expectations of the community.

Interestingly, a number of police training officers interviewed had a slightly different view of the police role. Of those departments offering " Role of Police" subjects, most indicate that they describe the way the police officer fits into the justice system, detailing what he "is supposed to do"; they provide a "balance" of enforcement and service orientation. Several officers state that 75 to 80 percent of an officer's time is consumed by service calls, and imply that they offer a balance emphasizing the service aspect of the job.

The role of the police, when adequately defined, should be taught at all police levels. Instructions should be given to supervisors on how to reinforce the role orientation for their trainees.[1]

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST encourage law enforcement agencies and community colleges to prepare adequate definitions of the role of the police, reflecting service orientation, and to offer instruction in the role of the police at all department levels.

Knowledge and skills. Within the POST-required certified program, there are a number of courses which address themselves to building officers' skills and to integrating officers into the police organization. These courses are supplemented by activities devised by police training officers to meet local or immediate needs.



In spite of the obvious importance of training to the police officer and the efforts exerted by POST, the Advisory Commission found that there were many areas in which trained men and existing training programs were lacking. In some departments, men may be academy trained before they go on the streets. Many medium and small departments provide an in-house, mini-basic training course which must suffice until the recruit can be placed in an academy or until he can be enrolled in community college courses.

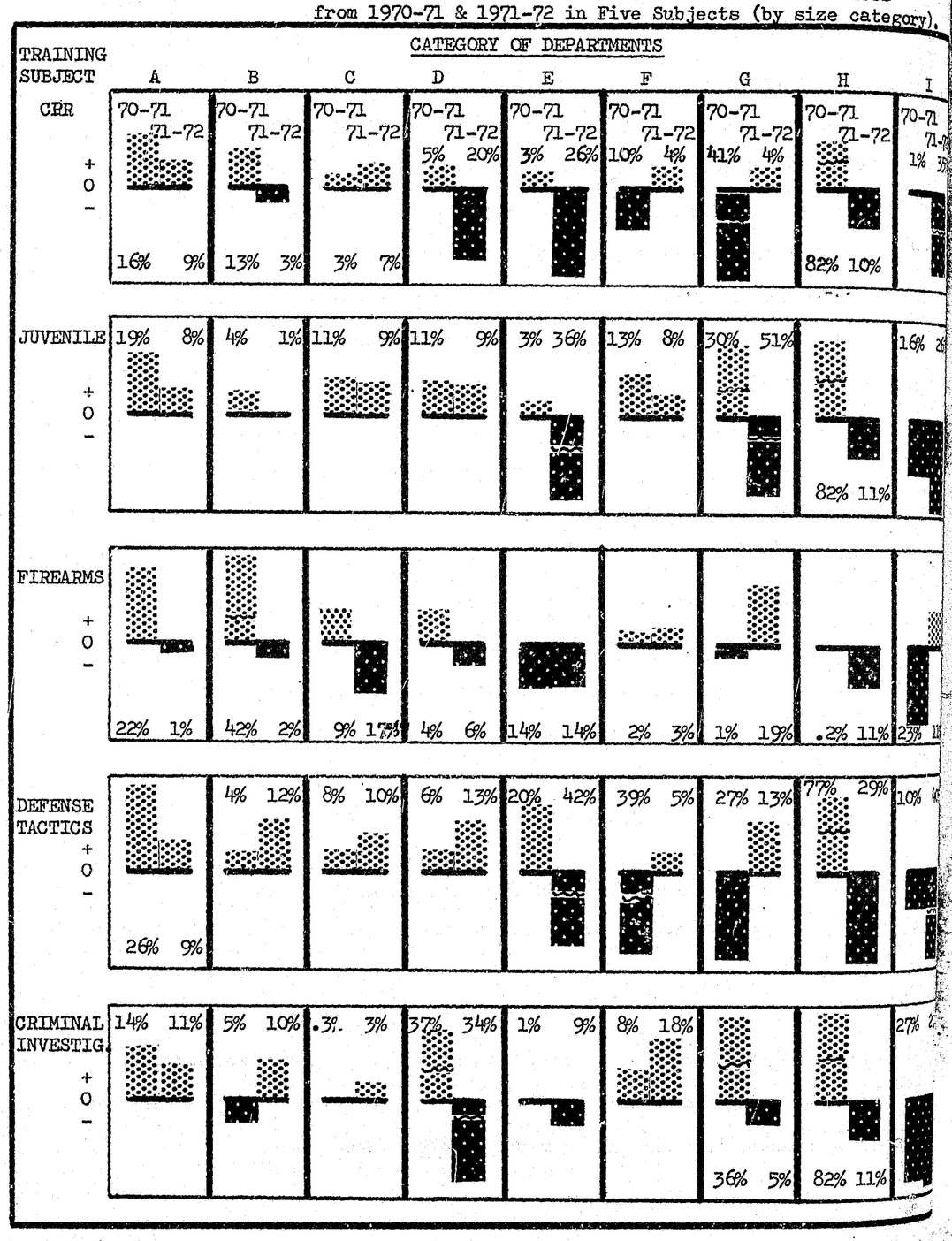
Training by departments having 101 or more sworn personnel decreased from 1970 to 1972 (see Figure 10-1). In some of these departments, the number of trainees in community-police relations subjects decreased markedly. Some of the smaller departments, employing up to 100 sworn personnel, increased training to some extent during the same three year period; in some cases, trainees in community-police relations subjects decreased.

Lack of training seriously affects the officer's ability to perform his role adequately. It can result in unsatisfactory police service which creates a negative image of the police officer and his organization.

## Implications for the Police Organization

Training addresses not only individual needs, but also system needs. It is the most important means by which an organization can create a management atmosphere that supports and gives substance to the organization's philosophies and goals. Further, it is a vital adaptive mechanism for strengthening the organization's capability to respond satisfactorily to the community's needs and to changing role expectations.

**FIGURE 10-1** Percent of Increase or Decrease in Number of Trainees from 1970-71 & 1971-72 in Five Subjects (by size category).




A: N=25(32%) B: N=13(42%) C: N=34(55%) D: N=17(45%) E: N=6(35%) F: N=4(66%)
G: N=7(88%) H: N=3(75%) I: N=3(75%)



The following are examples of ways in which training, properly managed, can strengthen the organization internally and in its relationships with the public:

...Establishment of good, clear communications between individuals and units within the department and development of satisfactory interpersonal relationships are important to an optimally functioning organization. Adequate communication at all levels can result in better informed police. It can eliminate redundant activities and improve information flow between components of the organization.

...Better communication can also improve the chances that all personnel interpret departmental policy consistently and can eliminate discrepancies in interpretation between administrators and patrolmen. A recent study by Gerald F. Uelmen of Loyola Law School showed that police officers indeed do not often interpret or understand departmental policies as intended by the administration. Uelman said, "Most remarkable, of course, is the diversity of responses within the same departments, indicating a good deal of confusion as to just what departmental policy was...It is somewhat alarming that 83 percent of the officers (in one department) view their departmental policy as allowing the use of deadly force in the third hypothetical (case), and 72 percent in the fourth hypothetical, differing with the interpretation of their chief on both counts."[2] Obviously, this indicates a breakdown in internal communication. The consequences for individual officers and for the community could be extremely serious.

...Currently, many departments are developing minority recruitment programs which do not include components for preparing the present staff to work with the minority group officers. Better understanding of racial and ethnic relations can help promote a supportive environment within the department for minority officers. This could preclude interpersonal problems between white and minority officers and could cut down on minorities leaving police work because of racial tensions within the department. A model program in minority recruitment and acculturation into the police department is being run by the Oakland, Berkeley, Richmond, and San Francisco Police Departments, funded by a CCCJ grant.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies provide racial and ethnic relations training to all personnel.

...Human relations training can be helpful in decreasing the number of citizen complaints about police service and for improving community perceptions of the police. In the Oakland and Daly City Police Departments which, respectively, have made efforts to train personnel in crisis intervention and have used police and community training sessions, there have been noticeable changes in the perceptions of the police by the community (see Appendix E).

...Training of paraprofessionals who assist in the police agency can up-grade their ability to provide services and can prepare them to take on additional responsibilities to free officers for more important tasks.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST assist law enforcement agencies in developing curricula and training for paraprofessionals.



Clearly, training activities have many ramifications for enforcement agencies and their communities. Yet the Advisory Commission has found that not many police agencies take full advantage of training as a management tool.

Where training is well done, it has great potential for developing the individual and the organization. Where it is poorly done, it wastes manpower, time, and budget. But, more important, consistently poor training produces negative attitudes and hostility toward training in general. As one officer said, "Since most training is bad, police expect all training to be bad." Such an attitude creates a barrier to learning which is difficult for even superior training activities to overcome.

Police administrators should influence the quality of training offered in their own departments and at local colleges. The following discussion primarily concerns in-house training which agencies develop to meet local or specific agency needs. The emphasis on the need for high quality in-house training programs in no way implies that these programs should compete with POST-sponsored or regional training and educational activities. Indeed, many of the points made below pertain equally to programs conducted by colleges and external agencies. The intent of the discussion is to encourage up-grading of training by advising coordination of in-house and outside activities and by stressing the importance of training as a method for improving the entire police organization.

To provide good training which can be an effective adaptive mechanism, police administrators must make some serious commitments and take

positive action. At the very minimum, a good training program and function requires support for the training activity, assessment of the organization's training needs, proper planning of the training activity or program, evaluation procedures, reinforcement of the trainees' learnings, and feedback to trainees regarding their performance and behavioral changes.

Administrative Support for Training

First, effective administrative support of the training function is crucial to quality training programs and activities. The police administration can support training most effectively if it views training as an integral part of the management function. Training can promote behaviors that facilitate achieving organizational goals; thus administrators should specify agency goals so those responsible for training clearly understand what the goals of training should be. Training is more effective when it is carried out in an integrated, rather than segmented way. So administrators should require coordination of training activities which meet the needs of the entire organization, not only units.

Administrators can support training and enhance its impact by encouraging integration of training and other departmental functions. For example, training and community relations personnel, personnel evaluators, and complaint investigators can provide each other information and expertise that should raise the level of personnel training and development and improve community relations.



The Advisory Commission's survey shows that of departments with community relations units, 46.4 percent of the units regularly participate in training the agency's personnel. Their activities should certainly be coordinated with those of other trainers.

Further, it is important to maintain continuity of support to assure that training is implemented as the ongoing, organization-maintaining process it is. Administrators should establish policies which emphasize commitment to developing the police organization's potential through ongoing training programs. Very few departments make commitments to training by adopting strong training policies. Consequently, with a change in chief or sheriff, there may be a hiatus in training.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT police administrators recognize training as a integral part of the management process and use training as an organization development tool to raise the level of competence and performance of the entire department.

In addition to providing administrative and organizational support in these areas, administrators must give support in four other areas: administrative sanctions, budget, time for training, and adequate training staff (who are themselves properly trained).

Administrative Sanctions

When the chief and other high ranking officers express their approval of training activities and make clear their interest to all personnel, the training activity is more likely to succeed. This is important, because officers frequently are resistent to training, particularly community-police relations training.

Those training officers who highly praise the support provided them by their superiors also comment on the high level of trainee participation they experience.[3]

The attitude of the administration toward newly trained personnel and toward new ideas or techniques brought back to the department by these personnel can crucially influence a man's motivation to be trained and to put his training into effect. Far too many trainees take a "what's the use" attitude that no matter how many good ideas they take back, they will not be allowed to implement them. To prevent trained personnel from acting on their training is to waste vital departmental resources.

Our study indicates that although administrators in many smaller departments affirm the importance of training and education, they are unable to offer their men substantial training experiences either in-house or in academy courses. This is most often due to lack of replacement manpower to free men for training, inadequate budget, and lack of training personnel. Indeed, lack of replacement manpower is a universal problem for departments of all sizes.

Enforcement agencies have attempted to find workable solutions to the manpower problem. In some cases adjoining cities contract with each other to cover manpower needs. To test the concept of creating regional manpower pools, men have been exchanged between departments. The difficulty with both approaches is that it takes time for exchanged officers to become sufficiently acclimated to the new area to be effective. Another possible solution, used often in smaller departments is that some men work extra hours to cover for those in training.



A more effective way of relieving some of the pressures on departments is to assure that departments have access to POST training reimbursement funds. Currently these funds are deposited with the local governing body with the intent that they be transferred to the enforcement agency to cover POST-certified training received by personnel. However, the total POST allotments do not always reach the enforcement agency; they remain in the jurisdiction's general fund. This cripples the agency's capability to train its men.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the State Legislature change the present statute regarding training funds to assure that POST reimbursement funds are channeled through the local governing bodies and into the enforcement agencies.

Some training officers in small departments (1-50 sworn personnel) indicate that few educational opportunities are available to their men due to the rural location or isolation of their departments or due to the paucity of offerings at the nearest college.

The California Council on Criminal Justice (CCCJ) is attempting to alleviate some of these problems by implementing the concept of regional education and training. The first regional center, The Regional Criminal Justice Education, Training, and Resource Center in Modesto, is in its third grant year of operation. Courses for various components of the justice system are given at the Center. Training materials, books, and other resources maintained at the Center are loaned to local police training officers and are rotated out to four Center satellites.

The Center's outreach program involves satellite training sites in four of the five mountain counties within the region. These sites are equipped with overhead projectors, video tapes, various films, and individual study carrels which use the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) Training Key series. In-service personnel proximate to the training site can view training materials at their own convenience. Courses are also presented at the sites.

An advisory committee including representatives from all over the eight county region assists with assessments of training needs and curriculum development. POST also provides support in this area and in evaluating the program. Courses reflect the Center's philosophy that the police officer should use his mind and understanding to cope with problems rather than rely only on handcuffs and guns; the service aspect of police work is emphasized.

When funding ends, the Center will become self-supporting through the clientele it has built up and through POST reimbursements of courses which are tied into local community colleges. Currently, the Center is advising persons from Riverside, the Bay Area, and Northern California who are interested in developing similar regional centers. Appendix E discusses the Center in further detail.

Mobile classrooms might be included in the regional concept to facilitate taking training to departments that are isolated even from satellite training areas. Preliminary planning for mobile training should include (a) assessment of local resources on which trainers could draw, (b) assessment of departments' training needs, (c) development of suitable programs, and (d) evaluation and follow-up. POST could encourage



development of these units. However, it should not carry out the training, but should remain a catalytic and quality control agency.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT CCCJ encourage further development of regional academies and stimulate development and operation of mobile training programs to provide courses to officers in small, rural, or isolated communities.
>
> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST encourage the regional criminal justice training and education center to operate mobile training units as part of its "outreach" program.

Budget. Training can be costly in terms of trainees and replacement manpower salaries; training personnel salaries and unit costs; equipment, instructors, materials, and facility costs; and non-reimbursable course costs.

A satisfactory training budget permits the training officer to schedule most of the courses required by the department to maintain its personnel's skills, rather than solely courses required to maintain men's certificates. It also allows use of up-to-date training techniques, adequate training staff, and monies for specialist training at seminars and institutes.

In general, the Commission has found that budget allotments for training are frequently inadequate. Where monies are available, they are budgeted primarily for technical subjects. Lack of training funds is cited as a problem by a number of training officers interviewed.

Only 17 percent of all respondents to the Commission's questionnaire provide any numerical data for any budget category. Thus, our impression of budget allotments is probably not representative. However, it is useful to consider it.

Twenty-nine percent of departments responding to the budget section of the questionnaire state they do not have a training budget. Twenty-one

percent of these are departments in size categories A (9 percent), B (6 percent), and C (6 percent), the smallest departments (1-50 sworn personnel). This is not a surprising finding. In spite of budget problems, many of the smaller departments are able to provide some training by relying on POST-reimbursable training or by sharing other agency facilities at no cost. Indeed, 43 percent of all budget respondents use POST community college courses in lieu of or in addition to budgeted training. The impact of total reliance on outside training is expressed in training officers' comments that the broad, general college courses are not meeting local needs--so the men may not be properly attuned to their own communities.

Some respondents say that training money is hidden in salaries or in other department budget items. A few departments have separate budgets for items such as firearms and community-police relations.

In four categories (C,E,F,H), representing small, medium, and large departments, the lowest budget item is defense; in another four categories (A,G,H,I), the smallest and three largest, the lowest budget item is juvenile. Category D (51-100 sworn personnel) departments budget the highest percentages of all categories in five areas: first aid, traffic, criminal investigation, and juvenile. Category I, the largest departments, budgets the lowest percentages of all categories in four areas: firearms, civil disturbance, law, and teargas.

Insufficient budget for training has considerable impact on enforcement personnel and on the community. When men do not receive adequate training before they take active responsibility for fulfilling the police role, they do not acquire the proper skills or knowledges for carrying out their job.



Further, their learning by experience may or may not help them develop role behaviors which result in effective or adequate responses to community needs and expectations.

Insufficient funds also affect the availability of proper training equipment and facilities, the types of training techniques that can be used, and the amount of training that can be done. The consequence is usually poor training which does not prepare officers to do their job in a manner that creates and sustains good community-police relations.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT police administrators and local governing bodies support departmental training activities by providing an adequate training budget and adequately staffed training unit, and by exhibiting positive attitudes toward the time and efforts required to prepare and implement an effective training program.

Time. Adequate time must be set aside for training activities. Two hours of training per year in vital subjects is hardly enough to make an impression on the trainee; yet this is all many departments in our sample offer.

Budget, trainee availability, and POST requirements influence time available for training. To offer higher quality training, instructors often must provide more than the recommended minimum hours. When new courses are required by POST, training time has to be taken from quality-time and from training aimed at satisfying unique local needs.

Law enforcement administrators should examine priorities in assigning time requirements to training. Training officers should learn how to maximize the training time they do have by planning carefully, drawing on local resources, and using powerful instructional techniques.

Training Personnel. To provide adequate training for police, it is mandatory that departments have well-trained, experienced training personnel

who are capable of devising and implementing effective training programs. There should be sufficient training staff to support the training needs of the department.

Questionnaire data show that 79 percent of all 248 departments returning questionnaires have training units, training officers only, or both units and officers. For several reasons, data on presence or absence of training units and officers must be interpreted with caution. First, it is difficult to believe that 10 percent of Category A departments actually have training units (see Figure 10-2). The five A respondents reporting units employ a minimum of four and a maximum of 13 sworn personnel. In at least two cases, the number of personnel hardly seems to justify the presence of a unit.

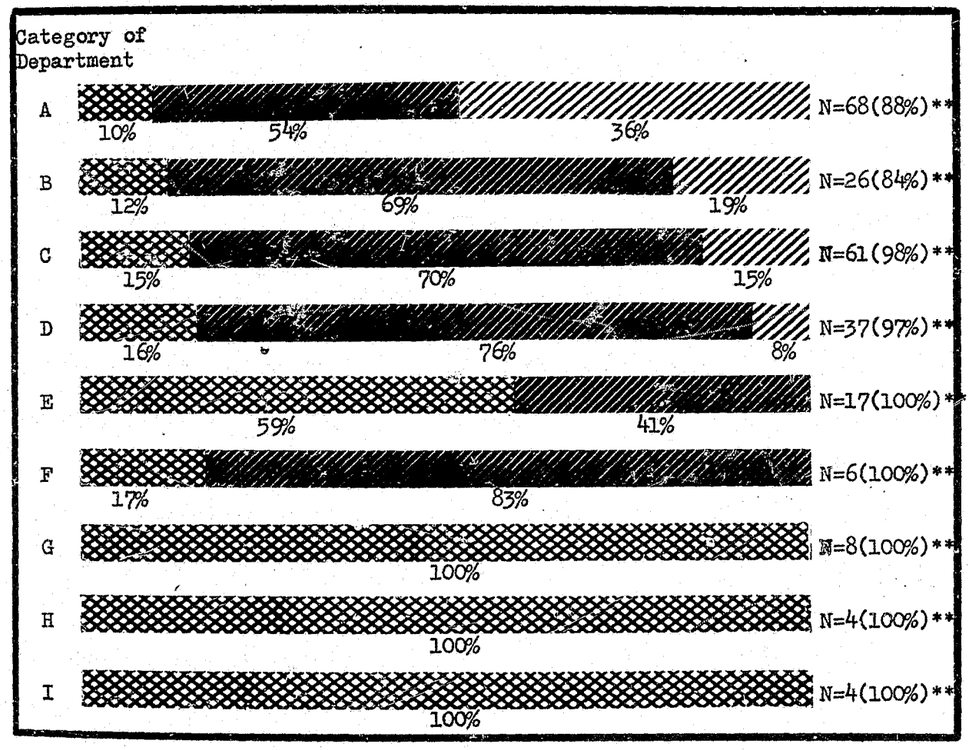
A few B and C category respondents state they have part-time training officers. Follow-up interviews with a number of training officers indicate that even more departments have part-time officers; these departments did not provide such data on the questionnaire. Further, some telephone calls to Category A departments reporting training officers suggest that they do not actually have training officers.

According to the data, all the larger departments (Categories G,H, and I) ranging upward from 251 sworn employees, have training units and officers. Only the four categories of smaller departments include departments having no officer or unit.

A January 1973 report on training officers' training needs, by Brooks Wilson, provides additional information on this subject. Wilson's data are based on responses from 80 randomly selected police and sheriff's agencies; agencies employing less than 10 sworn personnel (the



**FIGURE 10-2** Percent of Respondents Having Training Units, Training Officers Only, or Neither Unit or Officer.




*All training units have training officers.

**percent of departments responding.

TRAINING UNIT*

OFFICER ONLY

NEITHER

Advisory Commission's Category A) were excluded from his sample. The following finding are reported:[4]

1. "In departments with less than 100 sworn personnel, the training unit is typically a one-man operation, usually part-time (p.37)."

2. In departments employing 10-18 sworn personnel, the training officer devoted an average of 25 percent of his time to training; in departments with 19-28 sworn, 23 percent; in departments with 29-49 sworn, 29 percent; and in departments with 50-99 sworn, 75 percent.

3. In departments with over 100 sworn personnel, training was a full-time activity in all but the 4 smallest of the 14 departments responding.

4. "In approximately 88 percent of all departments responding, the training officer was less than full-time. Sixty-four percent of the training officers devote less than 33 percent of their time to training responsibilities (p. 37)."

Interviews by Advisory Commission staff explored the backgrounds and training of fifteen training officers from various size departments. Many have an AA or BA degree and have teaching certificates; some also have experience conducting training in the military service or teaching at the junior college or college level. A number of officers have moved up through the ranks within the department and have learned about training by doing it or by taking POST supervisory courses. Many officers have attended at least one seminar for training officers. Some said they benefit from sharing ideas and experiences with their counterparts in other departments in their areas; others find their membership in a training officer organization useful (see Appendix E).

In constructing a profile of training officers in California law enforcement agencies, Wilson found that 35 percent of training officers are sergeants and 21 percent lieutenants; this finding held in all his



size groups. Regarding the experience of the average training officer, the report states: "Forty percent have less than two years experience. Eighty-two percent have less than four years experience. This lack of experience probably indicates a high rate of turnover, underscoring a need for an active training program."[5]

The Advisory Commission found that some training officers, new to their jobs, feel they need to learn what training techniques are available and how to use them.

Wilson's investigation of training officers' training needs revealed a generally high need for training in 21 specified areas. Among those areas were the following:[6]

1. "How to plan, develop, and implement a department-wide internal training program." Need for training was expressed by 88 percent of respondents, with a range from 71 to 100 percent.

2. "How to motivate trainees in the importance of training and education." Need for training was expressed by 88 percent of respondents.

3. "How to prepare and justify training budgets." Need for training was expressed by 85 percent of respondents, with a range from 79 to 100 percent.

4. "Knowledge of the latest training techniques, opportunities, and financial support programs by maintaining liaison with the groups that provide such services and information." Need for training was expressed by 84 percent of respondents, with a range from 60 to 100 percent.

5. "How to continually determine training and education needs of departmental personnel on both a department-wide and an individual basis." Need for training was expressed by 81 percent of respondents, with a range from 64 to 89 percent.

6. "How to counsel departmental personnel, individually, regarding their educational and training needs as they relate to career development, and to maintain records of individual officers toward the accomplishment of training and educational goals." Need for training was expressed by 81 percent of respondents, with a range from 71 to 94 percent.

7. "How to conduct job analysis to determine the minimum training required for all departmental assignments." Need for training was expressed by 75 percent of respondents, with a range from 64 to 79 percent.

8. "Knowledge of resources and expertise, outside the law enforcement discipline, providing assistance for special training needs." Need was expressed by 70 percent of respondents, with a range from 57 to 79 percent.

9. "How to advise the chief of police regarding departmental training and education needs and programs." Need was expressed by 66 percent of respondents, with a range from 57 to 79 percent.

The fact that not only the expressed needs but also the ranges are high in these areas is a strong indication that training officers must be provided proper training in how to perform tasks required by their role.

Obviously the quality of the training officer's own training, as well as his expertise, affect the quality and cogency of the training program. The Advisory Commission found that the range of expertise of California police training officers includes persons new to the job and totally unfamiliar with training practices; small-department chiefs who are responsible for training in addition to their other duties; part-time officers who, when they can be spared, attend training seminars and run training activities; experienced officers who have developed fairly sophisticated training philosophies and programs; and officers who have access to a staff psychologist experienced in the design and evaluation of training efforts.

Up-to-date information is important to the development of expertise. Many training officers interviewed say they do not receive adequate information about new training techniques. Though others feel they receive



sufficient information, they say they often lack time to read all the training bulletins or use many of the techniques. This may be because the training officer is responsible for other functions as well as training, because the number of training personnel is inadequate, or because training time is limited and manpower constraints make it difficult to schedule training activities.

Sometimes training officers do not receive or pay attention to information that could be vitally important to their execution of their job. For example, POST provides a consulting service to all training officers who wish assistance in learning their roles or in planning and implementing training programs to meet their departments' needs. However, it is clear that not all training officers are aware of the existence of this service.

Although training officers need more information on several subjects, the solution is not to send them more bulletins. Rather, consolidation and centralization of information should be considered. For example, POST, in conjunction with the training officer associations, could either expand its current bulletin, POSTscripts, or create a single bulletin to meet information needs. It is more likely that training officers would read one highly informative bulletin than several less significant ones.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST and the training officer associations consolidate and centralize information needed by training officers and disperse the information in an expanded version of POSTscripts or in one new bulletin.

The resourceful training officer can compensate for his own lack of expertise, lack of information, and limited budget by drawing on resources available in his community or local area. He should be able to find local area persons, justice system and social service agencies, schools and organizations willing to exchange or share training modules and programs or share or loan equipment for training. For example, working with a community relations officer, he could survey local organizations to determine how they could assist the enforcement agency in the areas of crime prevention, service and enforcement-related activities, and training. Data obtained could be compiled in a resource catalog to be used by both training and community relations units. The planned POST repository of resources could also benefit the training officer as could exchanging information about training techniques and ideas with other training officers.

Further, police training officers and administrators should consider maximizing their resources by pooling, consolidating, and coordinating resources, facilities, budgets, and expertise and working jointly with other area enforcement agencies, criminal justice training centers, and regional POST training consultants.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT police training officers develop and maintain catalogs of community and local area agencies and persons and state agencies and associations which can provide or loan resource materials, instructional equipment, assistance or instruction to training programs the officer may develop. Officers should file this information with the POST repository of resources.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST continue to develop and maintain a central resource repository which all departments can use. The repository should include resource catalogs developed by training or community relations officers.



In summary, the training officer in most departments is in an unenviable position. Though he is responsible for a most important management function, he is often not given adequate administrative support; he is sometimes required to wear several hats, with training the lowest priority one; he is often not trained to carry out the functions he is supposed to perform. Many officers reach the position of training officer through the rotation process regardless of their affinity for the job or of any qualifications or abilities they may or may not have. By the time the neophyte receives training or learns by experience, he will probably be rotated out; this precludes any continuity in the training process. It is especially damaging if the officer has been offering high quality training.

Solutions to this problem include hiring qualified civilian trainers to assist in the development and implementation of all departmental training programs and activities. To help the civilian understand police work and establish credibility with department personnel, the civilian should be given some police training and should ride patrol. Solutions also include encouraging training officers to develop and maintain closer coordination of their efforts with those of regional and POST training consultants.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST require personnel assigned to training duties to meet certain minimum standards including training in the following areas:

1. How to make a departmental training needs assessment;
2. How to examine the needs in terms of the total organization's development;
3. How to plan a program using assessment feedback, organizational goals, appropriate community and area resources, and effective training techniques;

4. How to evaluate both the effectiveness of the program and the trainees' reaction to it.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies consider employing qualified civilian trainers within their training units in order to assure training experience and continuity in the training units.

Assessment of Training Needs

We have seen the importance of adequate support for training. Relevance of a training program or activity to trainees' and the organization's needs is a second major requirement to assure the impact of training. To integrate training and other functions and to encourage cooperation and effective operation throughout the organization, it is necessary to determine relevance within the organizational or system context. Thus the training officer, in conjunction with the administration, must make a formal assessment of the entire department's training needs.

Generally, training activities are specifically developed to teach skills or impart knowledge necessary to the improved performance of a particular role. To this end, the training officer must evaluate training needs in terms of the department's perception of the police role and of its own organizational goals and methods for fulfilling these. Thus, before devising police training of any kind, it is necessary to define the police role.

Two organizations are beginning to define the police role and make job analyses which will underlie future training modules. With an eye to improving its basic course, POST is assessing the needs and defining the role of the recruit. Project STAR (Systems and Training Analysis of Requirements) is also determining the parameters of the police role



"...through identification of their roles, functions, objectives, knowledge and skill requirements..." for the purpose of "develop(ing)... needed educational recommendations and training programs."[7]

However, with respect to in-house training programs, the Advisory Commission found no evidence that training officers systematically define a role of the police from which they develop training modules. This is probably also true of much externally developed training. Some consultants, in the process of determining what steps officers go through in accomplishing certain tasks and in making decisions, do, to some extent, define the role and use their findings in planning training activities.

With regard to assessment of training needs, only 6 of the 15 training officers interviewed indicate they make any kind of assessment prior to developing training activities. Three officers say they make this assessment by giving the men questionnaires or by surveying them; four (including one who used questionnaires) say they examine complaints or problem areas to determine needs, Several indicate that officers or supervisors suggest areas for training; usually these requests concern up-dating in laws and patrol procedures. Many officers say they do not offer the men any choice of topics but simply decide what training to offer.

Some information about needs comes from the community's perceptions of the way the police carry out their role. Questionnaire data show that in departments claiming community relations units, 31.6 percent of the units indicate they regularly survey community attitudes about important issues; 43.9 percent occasionally do so; 15.8 percent seldom and 8.8 percent never do so. It is not known whether the results of such surveys are made available to training officers and, if so, if they are used to plan training activities. Since community attitudes and expectations bear

heavily on training requirements, there should be exchange of this type of information between training and community relations units. Training officers from the smaller departments more often state they are in close touch with the community and so know the training needs without resorting to formal means.

If the sample interviewed is at all representative, most departments, especially smaller ones, are not using formal assessment methods to determine training needs in their departments.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT police training officers develop training programs to meet identified training needs of their agencies. Evaluations of all programs should be made.

Planning Training Programs

Development of a plan and program structure which promotes optimal learning is the third requirement for effective training. Good planning includes designing an integrated program, providing a balance of subject matters that approximates the balance of skills and knowledge used in the job, and selecting teaching techniques which maximize learning.

There is a considerable body of knowledge about how people learn and about what methods and techniques promote optimal learning. However, police training planners seem to be ignoring the great bulk of research that has been done on learning and organizational-educational theory. Rather than use proven methodologies, too many planners seem to start from scratch, devising their own methods or trying to see if older methods will work for police. It would be far better for persons involved in building police training programs to work with educators who, though they may not understand police work, do understand learning theory that is applicable to all humans.



What is critically important is that proven methods be employed or adapted to meet specific, identified training needs. In this regard, it is important that departments establish policy concerning consultants or instructors who either assist in developing training programs or develop them themselves. Too frequently, consultants attempt to impose programs that have little relevance for the particular department; or they make no effort to establish rapport with the men to be trained. Consequently, programs fail, leaving the trainees with one more piece of evidence that training is a waste of time.

To mitigate this problem, police training officers and administrators should require training program consultants to spend some time riding patrol, familiarizing themselves with departmental procedures, and developing an understanding of the particular problems and concerns of the department and community.

A well planned training or educational program progresses in logical, sequential steps. If one is developing the police role in the course of a training program, then one must discover what sequence of subjects and of skill-building sessions is most effectual.

When sequencing police training, planners should consider that police work involves a great deal of conflict and self-reliance in critical situations. Development of self-awareness, self-understanding, and self-acceptance should be addressed first in police training to provide a foundation on which to build understanding and awareness of others. Actually, very little is done to heighten officers' self-awareness. In some cases, this type of training is avoided because police fear it or resent it as intrusive.

Following self-awareness training, skill-building should be sequenced in conjunction with field experience which provides opportunities to utilize the training and test the skills being built. Decision-making, use of discretion, and human and community relations training should not only be offered as separate courses, but should also be included as a crucial part of every skill-building course. The complexity of the police task should thus be addressed by interweaving and interrelating all elements of police work.

At some time in their careers, officers are probably optimally ready for instruction or skill-building related to specific job tasks. A study should be made to determine when optimal readiness to learn specific subjects occurs for most officers. To ensure the greatest impact and learning, officers should then be trained in subjects at the time they are optimally ready.

The Advisory Commission has found that even when training officers obtain information on training needs, there is no guarantee that they will use those needs to (a) structure an organized and integrated program which speaks to the department's goals, or (b) see that personnel are sent to the appropriate POST or external agency courses. The result is segmentation, inappropriate balance of subjects, and poor learning due to use of inadequate instructional techniques.

Segmentation of Training. In general, training is segmented into patrol, specialist, or supervisory/management activities. This can dissipate the impact that training should have on the organization. When supervisors receive the same training as their men, they are better prepared to deal with potential changes in procedures and in the officers' behaviors and attitudes.[8] While supervisors and patrolmen do need separate courses, they



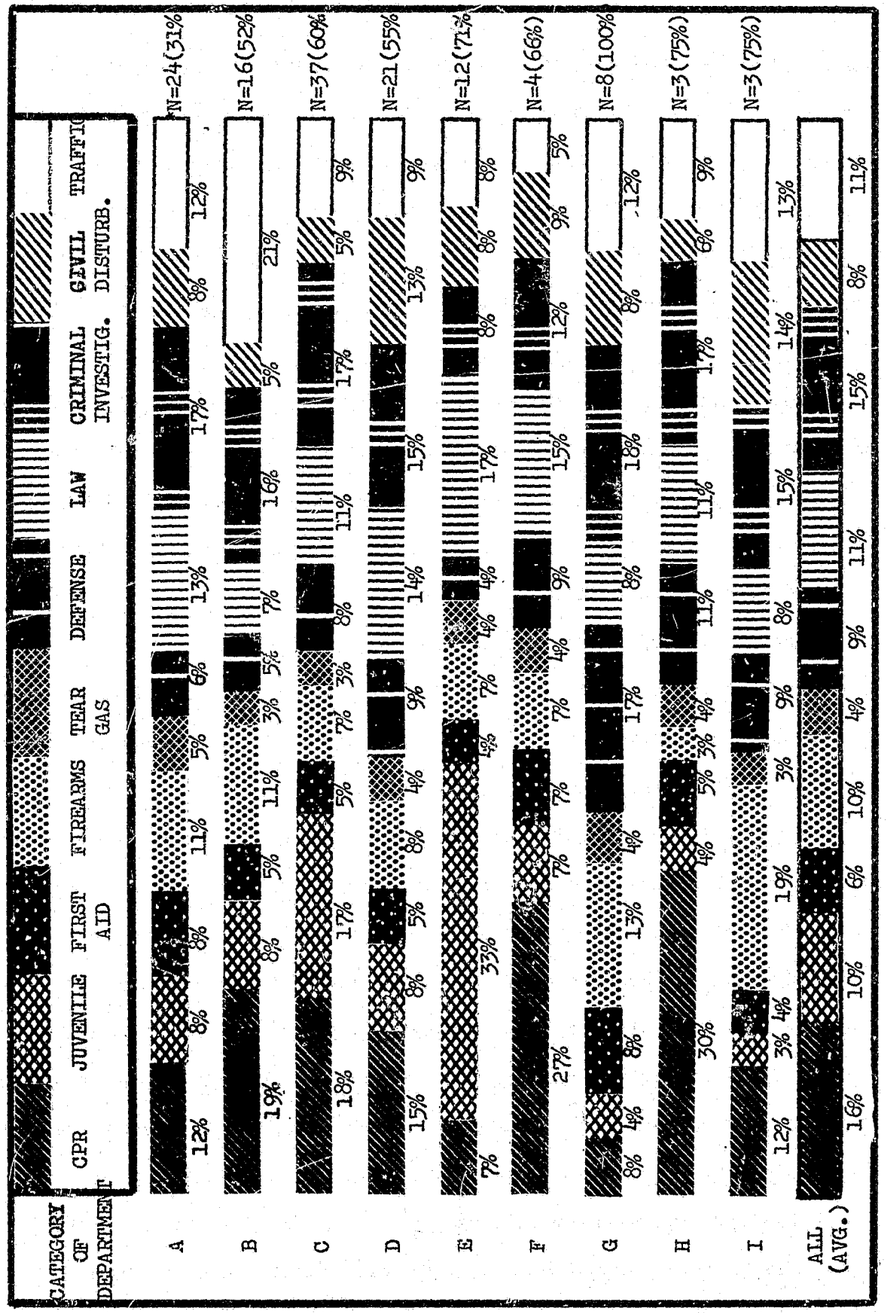
also need major programs, such as crisis intervention or community relations, devoted to full staff participation. These courses can be provided in-house as are some of the successful programs in Bay Area departments (for example, Richmond, Oakland, and San Francisco, which are discussed later in this chapter). Or departments can send personnel to established courses such as the Community-Police Relations Leadership course at California State University, San Jose.

Segmentation occurs because courses are frequently offered without planning for continuity of learning and without concern for logical or sequential structuring. Theory and information are not usually combined with development of related job skills, even though this is requisite to improved learning capability.

Further, training is segmented into enforcement- and service-oriented subjects. Though many firearms and defense courses include discussions of discretion, they infrequently include the impact of the subject on community relations. This also contributes to segmentation.

Balance of Training. The amount of training given in any subject should be related to the actual use of that information or skill on the job and to the subject's complexity and importance to the trainee's role and job. Figure 10-3 shows the percent of average hours of training devoted to ten subjects in 1971. Clearly, departments in different size categories vary widely in the amount of time they devote to some of the same subjects. In most cases, correlation of training time and use of the subject matter on the job is low.

Unusually high percents of hours are shown for Category B traffic, E juvenile, and Categories F and H community-police relations. In each case, either one trainee or two from the same department attended a 100




*percent of departments responding.

FIGURE 10-3 Percent of Average Hours Spent in 1971 by Training Officers in Ten Subjects (by size category).



hour or more course. Thus, one may conclude that isolated departments spent a high percent of training time in these areas; the percent does not reflect the average training hours of the majority of departments in the category.

Since the selected list of training subjects is heavily loaded with enforcement-oriented subjects, it is not fair to interpret the data as overly emphasizing enforcement. But it is of interest to look at the proportionate balance of enforcement- and service- (first aid, community-police relations, juvenile) oriented training (see Table 10-1). The high percent of training time that Categories A,B,D,G, and H devote to enforcement subjects, and the average for all categories suggest that time spent in enforcement- or service-oriented training does not come close to corresponding with the 60 to 75 percent of time actually devoted to service (or community-police relations related) activities and 25 to 40 percent of time to enforcement activities.

Table 10-1
Percent of Average Hours Devoted to Enforcement- or Service-Oriented Subjects
(1971)

| Category of Department | | Percent of Time | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | enforcement | service |
| A | 1-100 sworn | 72 | 28 |
| B | | 68 | 32 |
| C | | 60 | 40 |
| D | | 72 | 28 |
| E | 101-500 sworn | 56 | 44 |
| F | | 59 | 41 |
| G | | 80 | 20 |
| H | 500+ sworn | 61 | 39 |
| I | | 81 | 19 |
| all(average) | | 68 | 32 |

One training officer said, "There is a great need to teach the men

that all training is community-police relations training; when to use a weapon has its community relations aspects." If officers are to gain the confidence and skills requisite to an adequate job, then they must be trained as thoroughly in the human and community relations aspects of their enforcement role as they are in the mechanics of firing a gun or defending themselves.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT police training officers and college instructors assure that every subject taught to police include an analysis of its impact on community-police relations and on community resource development.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT police training officers and college instructors increase training in skills related to the service aspect of the police task; emphasis on skill-building should be expanded to approximate the need for such skills on the job.

Training Techniques. The type of training techniques employed in teaching any subject matter can influence the effectiveness of the training or education. Active techniques, such as role play, group discussion, sensitivity, are generally preferable to passive techniques, such as lecture, handouts, or films, because they involve the trainee in the learning process. When the trainee participates, he learns more effectively. Use of active, participative training techniques is vitally important to the effectiveness of community-police relations-related training which deals with human interaction and response.

This study found that, in general, the larger the police agency, the more likely it is to use a wider variety of training techniques. Further, the larger agencies are more likely to use techniques that involve trainees actively. The International City Management Association made these same observations in its study of community-police relations.[9] The smaller departments often do not have budget, facilities, time, or personnel to



employ the more effective techniques or carry out a well-planned training program. There are some exceptions, usually departments located in an area with many training and educational resources easily available.

Table 10-2 shows the percent of respondents using the various training techniques listed on the Advisory Commission's questionnaire. Lecture is used by a considerably higher percent of departments than are other techniques. Figure 10-4 also illustrates the predominant use of lecture by departments but shows that group discussion is most frequently used by Category D departments and is used equally with lectures and role play by Category F departments. Lecture may include roll-call training; talks by community people, a psychiatrist, a representative from the district attorney's office, or the chief or deputy chief.

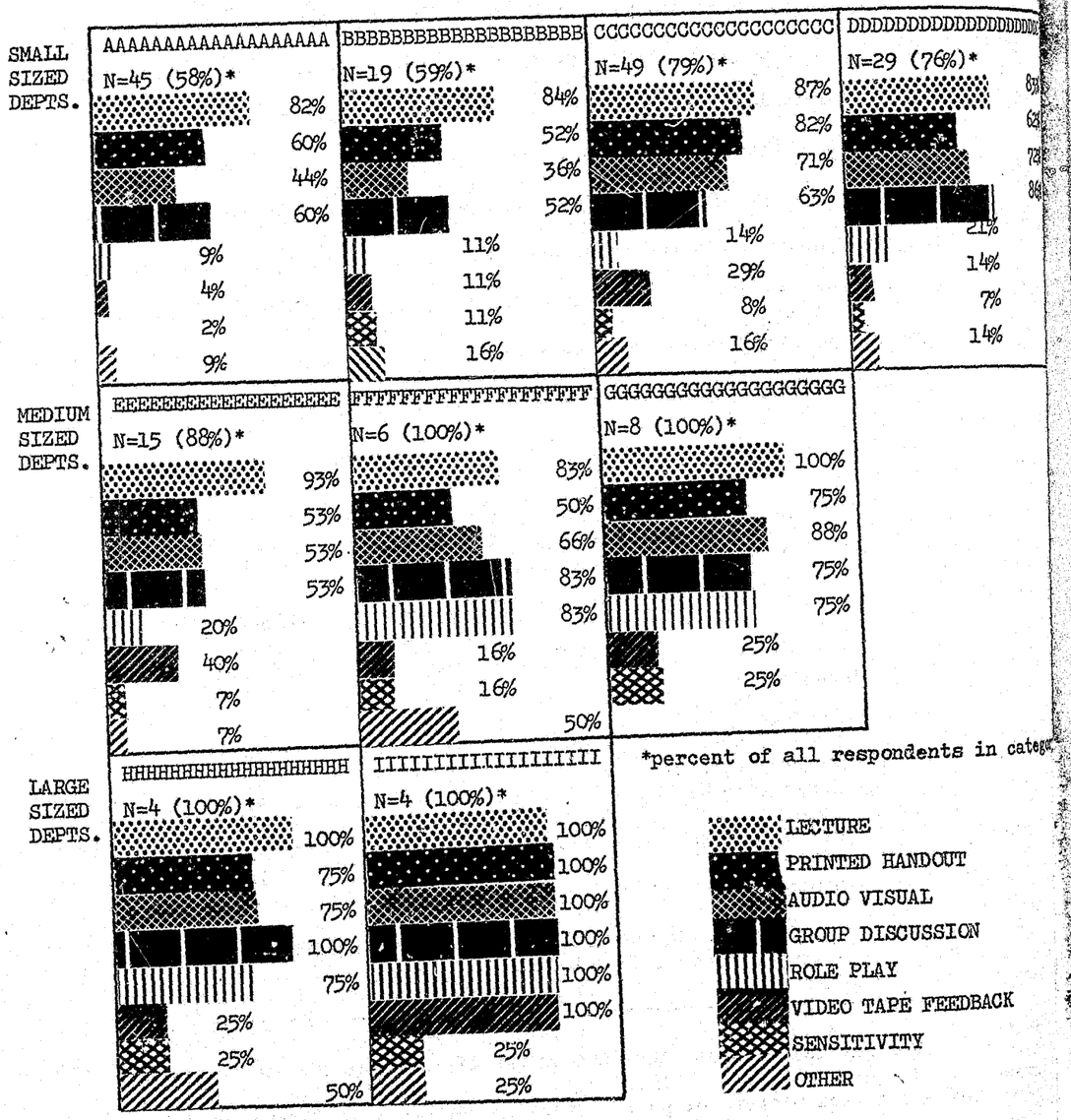
Table 10-2
Percent of Respondents Using Various Training Techniques

| Technique | Percent of Respondents to Question (N=179) | Percent of Sample Respondents (N=248) |
|---|---|---|
| Lecture | 87 | 63 |
| Group discussion | 67 | 48 |
| Printed handout | 66 | 48 |
| Audio visual | 61 | 44 |
| Role play | 22 | 16 |
| Video feedback | 20 | 13 |
| Other | 15 | 10 |
| Sensitivity | 8 | 6 |

Percents do not add to 100 because respondents used several techniques.

For several reasons, the data on use of training techniques may not reflect a true picture of police training methods. In Categories A and

FIGURE 10-4 Percents of Respondents Listing Various Training Techniques, by Category and by Grouping of Categories.






B, the smallest departments (1-25 sworn personnel), only 58 percent and 59 percent of the possible respondents answered the question; the 82 percent of A respondents using lecture techniques thus constitute only 48 percent of all possible A respondents. In Categories C,D, and E, 79 percent, 76 percent, and 88 percent answered. Second, it has been noted that some respondents may have misinterpreted this question, for they apparently construed "techniques" as those used in community relations programs, rather than in police training.

Follow-up interviews have shed some light on use of various training techniques and practices. Interviews indicate that much of the training is simply roll-call training given by the supervisor; such "training" usually involves 10 to 15 minutes of lecture, reading bulletins, or question and answer. In most cases, it is considered highly ineffective, even by police. Supervisory personnel should be encouraged to take greater responsibility for providing adequate roll-call training.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies strive to improve the quality of roll-call training.

With the exception of most of the smaller departments, a great many departments of various sizes set up simulated incidents for recruits to handle; training officers frequently refer to this as role play. Simulation is widely used to train in crime scene analysis, stop and search, moot court exercises, accident investigation, crisis situations, arrests of drunks and prostitutes, and abuse situations. These are all subjects for which simulation is a highly and perhaps uniquely effective teaching technique. Simulation also provides a good way to test-evaluate personnel. A trainee's participation in a simulated incident may reveal his lack of skill in a particular area; he can then be retrained to an acceptable skill

level.

Eight percent of departments providing information on techniques reported using sensitivity training. This was interesting as police generally are resistent to such training activities. The term "sensitivity" can be interpreted quite widely, however. Many of those using this technique stated in interviews that the sessions are awareness training not deep, interpersonal encounters. A few departments do provide encounter experiences either within the department or with department and community persons. The stated objectives are to allow people to say what is bothering them about other personnel, about department policies, or about community-police relations, and to achieve some better working relationships.

The category "other" includes a day spent at the probation facility, internship programs, ride-along programs, and empathy experiences. The Covina Police Department has sent many of its officers on empathy experiences leaving them on skid row to survive for an evening and make their way back to the department, or putting them in jail. Such experiences also include assigning the men to visit welfare agencies as clients. These training methods help the men understand something about the poor and the value of sending people to jail. Their success suggests that more training programs, both in-house and external agency-initiated, could usefully include empathy experiences.

A number of departments also use the International Association of Chiefs of Police Training Keys. This series includes 60 different "keys". Each key concerns an aspect of police work, for example, search and seizure; it consists of 30 to 60 slides plus a tape recording. Each key runs for 10 to 15 minutes. One or several officers can use the keys at any time, as they can plug into the system with earphones or can, as a group, hear the



sound portion over a speaker.

Departments also use half hour per month sessions with a representative of the district attorney's office, the Department of Justice closed-circuit television programs, and films. Though some rich training experiences are cited under "other", they are used by very few departments. Indeed, most departments listing other techniques are in size categories C,D, and F, the smaller and medium size departments.

As discussed above, the training officer's knowledge of training may derive only from a seminar or from unguided experience. Obviously, the officer's ability to use techniques effectively affects the quality of the training he can provide; his confidence in his own ability also determines to some degree what techniques he uses. Therefore, it is vital that all officers responsible for implementing training receive adequate instruction and practice in the availability and use of training techniques and resources.

Training officers should particularly be made aware of the advantages of using participative instructional techniques. They are probably the most effective means of teaching police, for they either provide experience or the next best thing to street experience, and they provide an opportunity to practice skills and refine them. These are important factors in overcoming the disinterestedness of officers who believe their street experiences are far better teachers than any training.

To summarize, then, the Advisory Commission has found that in-house police training activities are often poorly planned and, for the most part, are not likely to provide experiences for optimal learning and skill development. Activities and programs are too frequently segmented; lacking in service-oriented subject matter, even though the majority of police time

is spent in service tasks; and lacking in techniques which involve the trainees in the learning process. There appear to be sporadic efforts to coordinate in-house activities with regional programs.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST encourage a study of the use and comparative effectiveness of various participative and passive training techniques or instructional methods used to teach community-police relations subject matter. The study should include a longitudinal survey of students who receive the different kinds of instruction to see if their professional behavior is related to instruction by any particular teaching techniques.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT police training officers and college instructors employ more participative learning techniques and experiences in their training programs and human relations courses. Techniques should include role play, simulation exercises, field experiences, empathy experiences.

Evaluation of Training

The fourth requirement for an acceptable training function is that training programs be formally evaluated. Evaluations of training programs provide information regarding the effectiveness of the training and any necessity for change in program format, materials, or instructions. Only by assessing the value of their training activities and programs can training officers determine whether they are doing an adequate job.

To this end, training officers should develop methods of obtaining feedback, not only on trainees' immediate reactions to the program, but also on any behavioral changes or attitude changes that may be related to a training effort.

None of the training officers interviewed indicate that formal evaluation procedures are designed and employed to test the value of their training. In several cases, officers note that some training, such as firearms, driver education, and self-defense, could be evaluated



by means of proficiency tests. They feel there is no way to evaluate non-technical subjects to decide how well the trainee would actually perform in the field. However, test-evaluations of non-technical subjects have been done using simulation and peer evaluation of the trainee's ability to handle given situations. Other than direct observation of the trainee in the field, this provides the best measure of learning in non-technical courses.

Two training officers say they observe whether training has helped eliminate problems in the department and the community. One other officer states that although no formal evaluation was built into an original crisis intervention program in his department, staff are examining data on injuries to officers, call-backs, and so on, and comparing them to data prior to training.

Community relations officers were asked by our survey if the community relations unit analyzes the agency's training program (see Chapter 12). Over 70 percent say they regularly or occasionally do. This is encouraging considering the critical role training plays as an adaptive mechanism for achieving and maintaining good community relations. It is suggested that training units or officers and community relations units or officers jointly develop analysis and feedback procedures to evaluate community relations training on an ongoing basis.

Several training officers report that they ask trainees for feedback regarding their feelings about the training activity; many officers do not even do that. Where feedback is obtained, the officer can modify future programs or materials. However, in most cases there appears to be little concern with future activities or programs. Further, many departments do not monitor outside speakers, instructors, or programs and activities

designed by consultants; this is despite the fact that some officers perceive a great need to monitor instructors and eliminate unsatisfactory ones.

In general, training evaluation is inadequate. However, in one notable case, an evaluation component was emphasized in the San Francisco Police Department's crisis intervention program.[10] Staff of the Langley Porter Neuropsychiatric Institute conducted a series of interviews with participants and nonparticipants in the training program; made field observations of four participants at work; and examined course materials. Their evaluation report is extensive and quite thorough. This evaluation model should be examined by persons designing police training programs and evaluations. It would also be a useful model for colleges and agencies that present police training seminars and courses.

Trainees As Resources

When personnel are trained, they become valuable resources to their organization. Placing trainees where they can practice the skills they have learned reinforces training; this is a requirement for a properly managed training function. Further, under certain conditions--not with trainees completing basic training--pairing of trainees with officers who did not receive special training provides an opportunity to disseminate the effects of the training in the department.

The Advisory Commission found that too frequently the trainee is not allowed to maximize the value of his training for his organization or himself. One reason is that he is often placed where he cannot use the training he received. In many sheriff's departments, for example, deputies are assigned to jail duty immediately after basic training. It might be better to train a man partially, put him on jail duty, and let him complete



the training relevant to street duty before he starts street service.

Another constraint on trainees is the attitude of administrators and supervisors toward new ideas brought back by trainees. Comfortable with the status quo, administrators may resist attempts at change. Trainees soon learn that no one is interested in their ideas or new skills--and revert to older, safer modes of behavior. In this case training has failed to adapt the trainee to his role and the organization to the trainee.

In contrast, the Los Angeles Sheriff's Department operates a Most Esteemed Officer Program in which selected officers are trained in the need for and advantages of good community-police relations. This model employs the peer influence of Esteemed Officers to set and maintain standards of behavior and proficiency. Further, it provides an opportunity to develop a cadre of "trainers" who perpetually train new personnel in a chain process.[11] This type of activity maximizes training and personnel resources.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies select their most esteemed officers, train them in the most effective community relations and service techniques, and teach them how to use their skills to help train recruits and others who work with them.

Feedback to Trainees

A final requirement is that feedback be given to persons who have been trained. Providing feedback to personnel subsequent to their training can reinforce their learning and help them see themselves as evolving in their role, profiting from their experiences, and modifying their behaviors and attitudes as needed. It is particularly important that feedback be given when personnel have handled service-related tasks well. Rewards for high quality service behavior should be as attractive as those for enforcement behavior.

The Advisory Commission found that with the exception of routine performance evaluations, little feedback is given to personnel subsequent to their participation in a training activity. Notably, trainee follow-up was an optional part of Oakland's crisis intervention program. Officers could return to families whose disputes they had mediated and could see if the families had used referrals suggested by the officers. Trainees found that over one-third of the families had made appointments for assistance; 80 percent of these actually kept their appointments.[12] Thus trainees perceived that their interventions had in many cases produced good results. They received direct feedback from the persons most intimately involved--their clients.

A profession which requires human beings to deal with persons who repeatedly make the same mistakes can be very discouraging and demoralizing. Police officers often shake their heads and say "What's the use?" Thus feedback which gives a glimmer of hope that the officer can effect change for the better is a critical factor in changing the police perception of both their own role and of certain publics; it is also extremely important in effecting better community-police relationships.

Personnel Evaluators. One of the persons who does provide feedback to officers on a regular basis is the personnel evaluator. Some evaluators receive training in evaluation methods; many do not. Departments would be well advised to train their evaluators in order to make them more capable and better equipped to deal with personnel as resources vital to the organization.

Training for personnel evaluators and promotional oral board members should be standardized so that all evaluators receive the same training in basic methods of determining criteria to be considered and assessed, in interview techniques, objective assessment, and evaluative counseling. To



develop the standardized program, a Delphi technique or Policy Capturing method could be used to determine what criteria are important to effective performance in the various police ranks.

Well trained evaluators can reinforce and enhance training efforts by providing feedback on changes in an officer's behavior or attitudes and by counseling him on needed change. The effectiveness of a trained evaluator may be further increased if he correlates personnel inputs from the training officer, the community relations officer, and the complaint unit, with his own information.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST develop a new type of personnel appraisal course which emphasizes the efficiency and effectiveness of personnel evaluators.

Summary

In summary, the Advisory Commission has found that many police organizations in California do not sufficiently use training as a tool for accomplishing the vital management task of developing behavior which is responsive to a broad range of agency, community, and officer needs; further, very few departments make commitments or take actions described herein as essential to an adequate departmental training function.

## Community-Police Relations Training and Education

> Current training programs, for the most part, prepare an officer to perform police work mechanically, but do not prepare him to understand his community, the police role, or the imperfections of the criminal justice system.[13]

The purpose of community-police relations training is purportedly to help police officers develop understanding of the various publics they serve, of their role, and the function of police in the society and in the context of the justice system. It further attempts to give officers opportunities to examine their attitudes and prejudices regarding their

interactions with citizens and to help them realize, if only cursorily, the many ways in which their behavior can influence all police and community relationships.

Too often community relations courses have gained a reputation for being a waste of time. The chairman of the criminology department of one community college stated, "I feel that the result of some of the poorly conducted classes is to have developed a 'psychological block' to the title 'Police Community Relations' rather than an understanding of the need for, or concepts of, Community Relations."

Hostility to training in this subject area was expressed by one training officer interviewed, "There's only so much community relations you can cram down their throats--we don't offer much." Another said it is necessary to sensitize officers to community relations by "devious ways" such as ride-along programs in which the officers explain their roles to civilians; coffee klatches; and meet the people programs. Ostensibly community relations activities for the benefit of the public, these techniques are also used to expose the recruit to the public and help him learn something about his community.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST seek funding for a definitive and evaluative study of human relations training. The study should examine (a) what human relations training currently includes, (b) how effective and useful such training is, (c) what such training should include, and (d) how its effectiveness can be determined on an ongoing basis.

POST attempted to improve the image and impact of community relations courses by providing a Community-Police Relations Leadership course which included experiential as well as lecture instructional situations. The course was offered at California State Universities at San Jose and San Diego and at the University of California at Los Angeles so that officers



from all over the state could attend at a location reasonably near their homes. After three courses, the UCLA course closed due to insufficient enrollment; this school's evaluation of the impact of the courses given shows little implementation of learnings. However, impact does not always show immediately; too little time has elapsed to draw conclusions regarding the effectiveness of the course. The course at San Diego met problems created by militant groups which did not want police on the campus. Currently only the State University at San Jose is still offering the course.

The course at San Jose is a six week live-in course for community relations officers from all over the state. Guest speakers discuss subjects ranging from crime prevention and minority recruitment to management by objectives. Students participate in a class project which requires them to plan a community relations survey, develop a questionnaire, and then go out in the local San Jose area to interview people. These people may be students, businessmen, citizens in general. The students discuss the results obtained and evaluate them; they then make a presentation of their study and findings to an audience that may include their chiefs and city managers.

Although class size is limited to 20, the second offering of the course this year only attracted 10 students; 15 are signed up for the third offering. It is unlikely the course will be given next year, largely due to inadequate attendance.

Sometimes poor attendance at courses is due to a poor evaluation; but this course received praise from those who have taken it. Sometimes few people learn that a course is being presented; but the University mailed 2000 flyers provided by POST to law enforcement agencies and organizations throughout the state. It may be that the length of the course prohibited some officers from attending.

This presents a dilemma: police are not motivated to attend training courses unless they feel the courses will be worthwhile. But schools and agencies offering training activities are not motivated to put forth the effort to provide high quality learning experiences if they cannot find adequate support to make the presentations worthwhile. Resolution of such dilemmas requires communication of needs, expectations, and desire for commitment. Police agencies and colleges must coordinate their interactions more effectively.

Community Relations Courses

Courses in community-police relations and related subjects are given at POST-certified colleges and academies, at individual enforcement agencies, and at some external agencies. Table 10-3 shows the percent of respondents citing various persons and agencies providing them the community-police relations related subjects listed in Table 10-4.

Table 10-3
Percent of Respondents Citing Various Persons or Agencies Providing Community Relations-Related Training (1971)

| Person/Agency | | Number/Percent Citing | |
|---|---|---|---|
| POST | | (65) | 88% |
| POST courses | (40) 54% | | |
| police academies | (10) 14 | | |
| sheriff's dept. | ( 9) 12 | | |
| FBI | ( 6) 8 | | |
| Own department | | (32) | 55* |
| Other agencies | | ( 9) | 12 |
| District Attorney's office | | ( 4) | 5 |
| Psychologists | | ( 4) | 5 |
| DCI | | ( 3) | 4 |

Percents do not add to 100 because respondents use several sources of training.

*22% of this figure is clearly roll-call training. The remainder includes training by chief, training officer, staff, and possibly unspecified roll call.



Table 10-4
Community-Police Relations Related Courses Attended by Trainees from Each Size Category of Departments (1971)

| Course | Percent of Categories Citing Course | Category of Departments A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | I |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| CPR | 100% | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Ethnic relations | 77 | | X | X | X | | X | X | X | X |
| News relations | 77 | | | X | 0 | 0 | X | X | 0 | X |
| Public relations | 64 | | | X | X | X | X | X | | X |
| Role of police | 64 | | 0 | X | | X | X | X | | X |
| Decision making | 64 | | | 0 | 0 | X | 0 | | 0 | X |
| Role play demo. | 64 | | | X | X | X | X | X | | X |
| Human relations | 55 | | | X | | 0 | 0 | X | | X |
| Procedures | 55 | | | X | | X | | | X | X |
| Crisis interv. | 55 | | X | X | 0 | X | 0 | | | |
| Ethics | 55 | | | X | X | 0 | | X | | X |
| Disorder | 44 | | | X | | | X | | X | X |
| Juvenile | 44 | X | X | X | | | | | | X |
| Psychology | 44 | | X | | X | X | | | | X |

X = 4 or more hours per man per year of training in course.
0 = 2 or 3 hours per man per year of training in course.

The courses listed in Table 10-4 are cited by departments in at least four of the nine size categories as community relations-related courses taken by their personnel in 1971. In addition, there are isolated courses covering: the criminal justice system, administration of justice, industrial and labor relations, changing society, crime and violence, history and development of revolutionary factors, family services, semantics, and community service assistance programs. These are termed isolated, as departments in only one or two categories mention them and list as few as two or three hours for some of them.

The figure shows that departments in Category A (1-15 sworn personnel) send trainees to very few courses. Those in Catgories B and H send trainees to a few of the courses listed; however, Category B (16-25 sworn personnel) cites a number of courses mentioned above as isolated. Of the group of smaller departments (A-D), Category C (26-50 sworn personnel) cites the most courses, as many, in fact, as the category of largest departments (I).

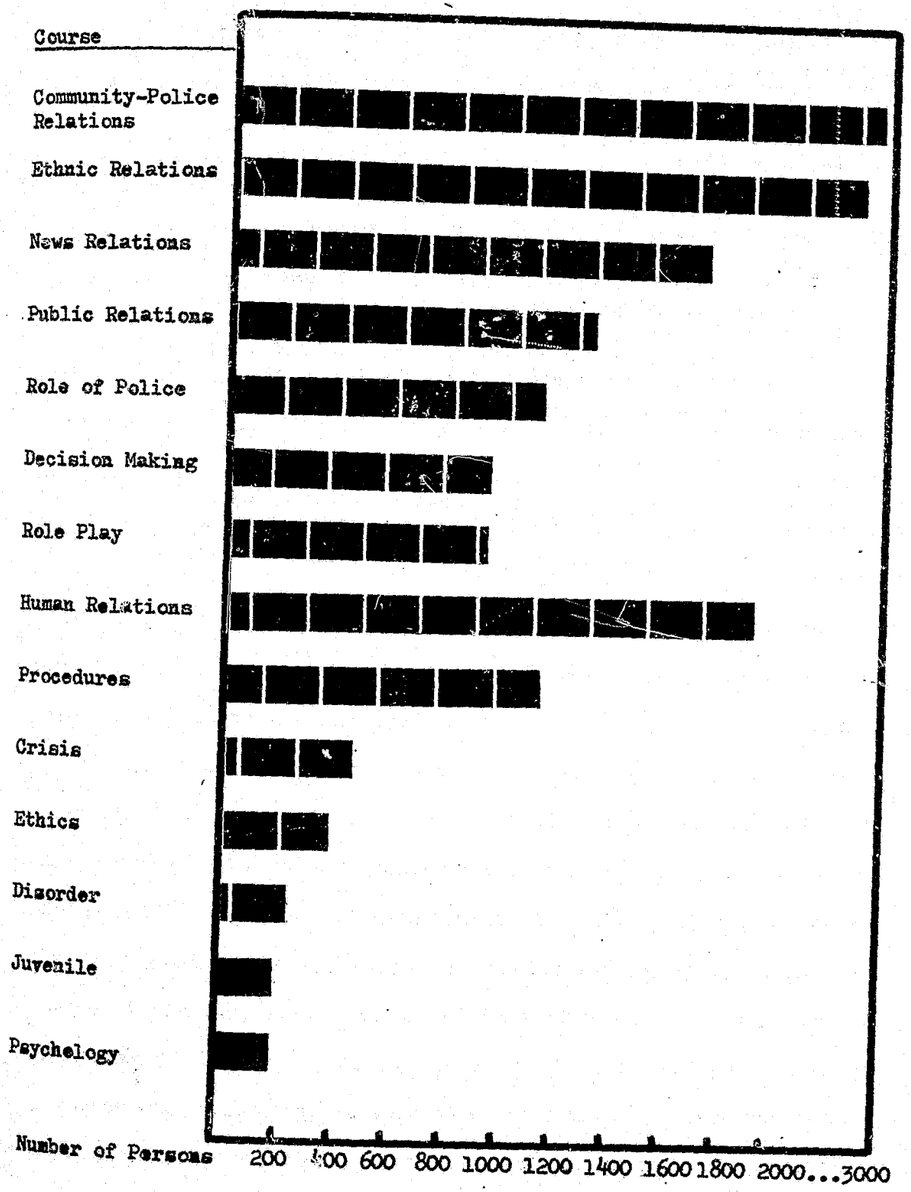
Course Attendance

As shown in Figure 10-5, community-police relations, race and ethnic relations, human relations, news media relations, and public relations are the topics most trainees are exposed to; however, it is important to note that trainees from departments in three size categories receive only two to three hours of news media training per person per year. This is a somewhat cursory exposure to an important topic. (See Chapters 6 and 12)

Courses titled "CPR" (community-police relations) are taken by most persons. Some of the training offered under the title "CPR" may be specific, locally developed courses; most is attributable to POST-certified community police relations courses. The POST course unit, comprising 20 percent of the 200 hour basic course, includes decision-making, general public relations



FIGURE 10-5: Total Number of Persons Taking Various CPR-Related Courses (1971)



human relations, news media relations, race and ethnic relations, role of the police, and role play demonstrations. Therefore, these subjects are probably taken by considerably more people than is indicated in the data. Correspondingly, more people may be taking the community-police relations course units.

The quality of these courses is highly variable, as is the amount of time devoted to them. Except for race relations and news media relations, the top five topics stress the relationships between police and community in what might be termed general or public relations terms. There is not much emphasis on the urban scene, the politics of the community, cultural implications in the community, and so on. In this sense, the highly specified courses described above as isolated appear to offer much needed subject matter; it is unfortunate that so few trainees are exposed to these courses.

One way of up-grading community relations courses and making them more stimulating is to present the courses on an interdisciplinary basis. Indeed, persons responsible for designing community relations training, whether in-house, at colleges, or external agencies, should consider the benefits of interdisciplinary training. Exposing police officers to points of view different from those promulgated by the police perspective can have a positive impact on police-community relations. Some attempts are being made to encourage combined justice system personnel training; for example, Delinquency Control Institute classes now include a good number of probation officers among the juvenile officers. In community college courses (see Appendix F ), police are generally outnumbered by non-police; instructors should maximize the situation by encouraging exchange of viewpoints. Efforts should be made to increase interdisciplinary training.



Training Inadequacies and Models for Change

Data presented in earlier chapters indicate that there are many problems in the areas of ethnic relations, community-police relations, citizen complaints, and media relations. Many of the causes for police inadequacies can be traced to inadequate and insufficient training and education. Officers must be taught the skills and knowledges they need to carry out their role in a manner that satisfactorily meets the expectations of the community. Further, officers must be given opportunities to up-grade their skills to meet changing needs and technologies and must be provided learning experiences which allow them to assess their own attitudes and behaviors. Sterling says:

> Police experience appears to modify a man's personality so as to make him less able to perform the major part of his job, service to people, without abrasiveness and conflict. On the face of it, one is led to deplore what police work does to policemen in terms of their ability to carry out their service functions.[14]

This points up the importance of ongoing training and educational experiences to help officers handle the conflict inherent in their role and attempt to establish and maintain a level of performance that provides good service to the public.

The Advisory Commission found numerous inadequacies in community relations-related training; at the same time, it discovered some exciting model and experimental programs and activities which seem to be successful in creating positive police-community relations in the communities exposed to them.

Language Training. Although California includes some substantial minority groups which speak a non-English language, most enforcement agencies expend little effort in encouraging police officers to learn the languages of dominant minority groups in their communities. Some do make it attractive

for their men to learn a second language by offering classes through the department and by offering bonuses to those who can demonstrate their proficiency. POST sponsors three reimbursable Spanish language courses.

All departments which serve areas including a large non-English-speaking population should offer bonuses to officers for learning the local second language. Proficiency should be developed in enforcement- and service-oriented vocabulary. Training in local languages should improve officers' ability to communicate with minority group persons and should improve the minority group's perception of the police.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the State Legislature and local governing bodies take necessary steps to stimulate the provision of Spanish or Asian language training for local law enforcement officers.

Decision-Making and Discretion. Decision-making and use of discretion are the essence of the police role. Yet officers receive very little training in these vital processes. Though decision-making is listed by at least one department in each of six size categories (there are nine total), it is offered for only two hours per man per year by departments in three categories. Follow-up interviews with training officers of various size departments indicate that discretionary decision-making is mentioned in most courses; rarely is decision-making handled as a separate topic in which it is presented as a process requiring certain skills and certain steps. It is absolutely necessary that discretionary decision-making be a substantial part of all courses taught police; this topic must not be brushed over lightly.

Community college instructors were asked to state what techniques they use to teach decision-making and discretion. It should be noted that most instructors use several techniques for each subject. Of 18 respondents who



cite techniques for decision-making courses, 11 use role play; 5 use audio visuals or film; 4 each use video tape or small group discussion; and 3 each use lecture/speaker or problem solving. Methods mentioned only once include research, community activity work, reports, conference method, handouts.

Seventeen respondents cite techniques for teaching discretion. Ten use role play; 6 utilize audio visuals or film; 4 use lecture/speaker formats; and 3 each use video tape or problem-solving decision situations. Others use case studies, research, community activity, reports, panel discussions, and handouts.

It is not sufficient to lecture to police on the use of discretion and on decision-making; officers must be given an opportunity to practice decision-making and refine their decision skills. Participative learning techniques must be employed in training police in these subjects. Thus, it is encouraging to see the predominant use of role play and the use of problem-solving techniques.

Juvenile Training. The need for training both juvenile officers and patrol officers in juvenile procedures courses is ongoing. However, departments in less than half the size categories report courses in juvenile matters; these categories include the smallest three (A,B,C) and the largest one (I). It is interesting that departments having 1 to 50 sworn personnel seem to be doing more training in this area than medium size and some large departments. This may be because personnel in smaller departments must be generalists; larger departments more likely have several juvenile specialists. Also, it should be noted that, almost in conflict with the above finding, some Category A departments allocate their lowest percent of budget funds to juvenile training.

Category E departments spend the highest number of average hours for

juvenile training reported on the questionnaire chart of training subjects; none of these departments mention juvenile courses in response to the question requesting a list of courses considered pertinent to community-police relations. Departments in Categories G and H report the lowest average hours of departments in all categories for juvenile training.

Patrol officers as well as specialists should receive training in the handling of juvenile offenders; this can improve the application of justice by helping patrol officers understand what happens to the juvenile after he is arrested. Patrol officers' training should include decision-making regarding field dispositions of juveniles, and the community relations aspects of handling juveniles.

Of the 17 community college instructors providing data on training techniques used in juvenile courses, 8 use audio visuals or films; 6 use lecture/speaker formats; and 4 each use role play and video tape. Others use problem solving, reports, field trips, case studies, group discussions, discussions with delinquents, and projects. Role play, video tape, and the techniques listed under other are excellent teaching methods for courses in juvenile procedures and practices.

Crisis Intervention and Management. Despite the growing tendency to use police as professional mediators in disputes, surprisingly few departments give many personnel training in crisis intervention or crisis management. Departments in only five of the categories list crisis intervention; two of these offer only two hours per man per year of training in handling crises. One training officer said, "The men don't like to handle family disputes and crisis situations because they don't have the confidence they can deal with the problems; they need training to help them build the confidence."

Lack of crisis management training is extremely unfortunate, as the



manner in which police handle crisis situations of all kinds--family and neighborhood disputes, landlords and tenants, gangs, students-- has considerable impact on the way the community perceives the police. Further, ineffective management of crises frequently results in injuries to officers and call-backs. Thus it is important to the individual officer, the department, and the community that crisis management training be increased.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST require that crisis management training be given greater emphasis in existing certified courses. Participative training which stresses both understanding the conflict and developing skills for handling conflicts and crises should be provided.

The Oakland, Richmond, and San Francisco police departments have developed model training programs in crisis intervention. The Oakland program is of particular interest because it used peer trainers and required trainees to make follow-up visits to families whose disputes they mediated. In many cases, officers found that the families had actually gone to referral agencies; further, the rate of call-back dropped to two per family for most of those involved.[15]

The Richmond crisis training program, developed by staff psychologists, was the first in the nation to attempt training an entire department. The psychologists made concerted efforts to understand departmental procedures and policies, to ride patrol, and to gain understanding of the problems faced by the department. Their program combines lecture, programmed learning, role play, and other participative techniques to give trainees a firm foundation in the subject matter and help them build specific skills.

The Richmond program was modified and used for the San Francisco Police Department; as mentioned above under evaluation of programs, an extensive evaluation was made by an outside agency. In general, the evaluators considered the program highly successful; they stated that

personnel who were not trained frequently asked trainees for suggestions on how to handle crisis interventions. Trained personnel apparently behaved more effectively in intervention situations; they stated the training techniques also helped them in other, non-crisis situations. Thus the training was highly transferrable to other aspects of police work.[16]

It is strongly recommended that police agencies familiarize themselves with the Oakland and San Francisco intervention programs and consider using these programs as models for training. The San Francisco model is currently used in the local college for basic training.

It will also be important to watch the POST-certified Richmond program for juvenile officer training. Developed by the team that designed the crisis intervention program, and based on concepts similar to those underlying the crisis training, this program is being operationalized this spring. If this course receives as high an evaluation as did the San Francisco program, it should be made available in community colleges throughout the state.

Police and Community. Police and community do not often work together in training programs or activities to develop skills or attitudes that would help them achieve a common goal. However, the Daly City Police Department has engaged in a police-community sensitivity session. The department has a committee of community people, primarily minorities, who act as a buffer between the community and the police. Complaints are channeled into this group before they reach the police.

This committee and members of the police department, including the community-police relations unit and the training officer, spent a day and a half meeting to deal with the problems the community people brought. Each component of the group stated, then discussed, what its members felt the



role of the police should be. According to department spokesmen, the session appears to have made a difference in community relations in that the committee now trusts the police and listens to the police view. This is vitally important in any community with large minority populations.

It is suggested that all police departments consider designing and implementing training activities that can include police and community. This particular type of activity requires careful coordination by training and community relations personnel.

There is great need for wider use of training and educational programs and activities such as those described above. Rather than build such programs from the ground up, training officers and college instructors should employ successful, evaluated programs, adapting them as necessary to meet local needs. To facilitate wider use of good training models, information about the models should be made available to training officers and instructors through the centralized bulletin recommended earlier.

In addition to training activities specifically oriented toward community relations, expanded activities for in-service personnel and supervisors are needed. Maintaining an up-to-date, skilled personnel force is as crucial to community relations as is establishing a trained force. Training officers want more POST courses for the "man on the beat", follow-up for supervisory personnel, and an expanded Advanced Officer course to accommodate the needs of in-service personnel. Some officers would like more specialist courses offered in their communities.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST stimulate the development of an Advanced Supervisor training course to give supervisors new techniques and management tools and feedback on their methods of operation.

## Community Colleges

Community colleges offer most of the certified community relations courses. Of the 29 POST-certified junior colleges responding to the Advisory Commission's survey, 22 indicate they provide a police-community relations course; 20 of these require the course for a degree. Eight offer community relations courses and two offer ethnic group relations courses. One offers a course titled "Black Man and the Law", one a course on the "Minority Police Officer". There is great need for the latter course. One school's course in juvenile procedure emphasizes community relations; another offers "Interpersonal Relations for Peace Officers".

While most schools follow a fairly standard format, a few appear to be striking out in new directions. One offers courses "concerned with the entire community, not only segments": "Black Political Problems", "Urban Development and Problems", "Social Problems", "Minority Society and Minority Psychology", and a number of behavioral science courses.

Miramar College provides a course outline that sets forth what appears to be a very well planned training and educational program. Each session includes background information, information on techniques for handling the subject being discussed, and practical experience (role play) in using the techniques. For example, the topic "Juvenile" subsumes: (a) background of juvenile delinquents; (b) techniques for talking to juveniles; and (c) practical experience in conducting field interrogations with juveniles. "Introduction to Local Social Service Agency Personnel" subsumes: (a) presentation of local service agencies, their specialties, clientele, and operating procedures, and (b) compilation of a list of referral agencies for field use by class members. The practical experiences used in the beginning of the course are situations selected by the instructors; at



the end of the course, students select and participate in situations relevant to their specific needs.

This format is unique among those submitted. It would be of great interest to evaluate the performance of students who attend courses of this type compared to the performance of students attending more traditional courses. It is hypothesized that students who immediately practice what they have learned will retain the learnings longer and will exhibit more skill in the behaviors being taught.

## Commitment to Quality Training

The steps described early in this chapter as vital to a quality training function must be applied to all training and education, whether it takes place in an enforcement agency (as was emphasized above) or a community college, university, or external agency.

The impression gleaned from the community college data is that schools are offering courses which are not, for the most part, very challenging or effective for police officers. Lecture is the predominant instructional method. Techniques which involve the trainee in the learning process could be used more frequently, especially since the subject matter being addressed in most of the courses concerns the officer's behavior in interpersonal interactions with the community (see Appendix F ).

There is also considerable question whether the courses are providing the kind of information and skill-building activities that police officers really need. Police training officers, especially those from smaller departments, frequently say that small departments have little or no voice in planning course curricula. The result is courses selected and put together by the colleges, with insufficient heed to local applications. One officer said he felt such "training" wasted his department's manpower

and budget.

There are several possibilities for improving the situation. To increase the relevance of courses, colleges should conduct a needs assessment among departments sending students and should use data so-generated to plan their courses. Representatives from concerned departments might help develop course plans.

Curriculum development committees for the community colleges should include representatives from the smaller departments and should accord their needs the same attention as the needs of the larger departments. In an effort to move ahead in developing the regional education concept, Santa Clara County enforcement agencies and POST-accredited schools are consolidating the POST courses in one area academy. The curriculum development committee for the consolidated schools includes chiefs or representatives of small departments in the county; their opinions and needs are considered as important as those of the two largest departments in the area. A serendipitous consequence of this program is that personnel from the larger departments are learning from those in smaller departments, becoming aware of small departments' problems and methods of operation.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT community college law enforcement curriculum committees regularly include several members from the smallest concerned enforcement agencies as well as from the larger ones.

Another way to meet local needs is to offer a POST core course which meets for a specified portion of the required hours and a local applications course which is conducted locally for the balance of hours. The local portion would concentrate on how to apply theories and techniques learned in the core course to the needs of a specific community; it could be given by the department, following a POST format, or given by a POST course



instructor. This concept is quite compatible with the regional training concept.

Such steps might help make training more effective for the officer who, aware of his own time constraints and energy expenditures, constantly asks, "How can this help me on my job?" Emphasis on local applications would certainly benefit the community which is, after all, paying its men to serve and learn to serve the local needs.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT curriculum development committees in educational institutions develop police training activities or programs by:
>
> 1. Making an informational needs assessment of the departments sending students to the school;
> 2. Planning a course which meets the needs and uses appropriate local and area resources and participative learning techniques;
> 3. Planning a balance of general information and theory with practical, skill-building opportunities;
> 4. Planning a balance of general information and local applications;
> 5. Including evaluation methods to determine whether the instruction is meeting the students' needs effectively.

## Summary

Some of the problems associated with police training are obviously more amenable to solution than others. The manpower, time, and budget constraints are universal despite departmental size and sometimes despite administrative and governing body support. Problems created by these constraints are more difficult for outside forces, such as the Advisory Commission, to influence.

However, there is much that can be done to provide integrated training; service-oriented training commensurate with the service-oriented nature of

police work; and localization of courses and subject matter. Prerequisite to changes in these areas are (a) developing and implementing required, adequate training for all training officers or officers who must conduct any training; and (b) skillful and explicit correlation and coordination of the educational and training goals of the police department and the educational institutions offering POST-certified courses. Efforts in these areas must be based on good communication between police administrators, training officers, college instructors, and others who influence police training, including the trainees. Goals, police roles, and training needs and expectations must be defined and made explicit.

To provide good training departments need training officers who have knowledge about how to do needs survey, even a simple one, within their department; how to plan and implement an integrated program or activities; how to find resources within the community and local area to support training indicated by the survey; how to evaluate the effectiveness of their activities; and how to develop a resource sharing program with other area departments or agencies.

At the present time, not all administrators are willing to accept the need for such sophistication or for well planned training programs. Yet awareness of community resources and sharing of resources are very effective means of getting around budget limitations on training and concomitantly of moving toward community resource development as discussed in Chapter 13. Evaluating instructors or training activities provides an economical basis for deciding cost-benefits the next time an instructor is hired or an activity planned.

Similarly, educational institutions must make more attempts to evaluate what is needed by departments sending trainees to their courses. If it is



not feasible to develop the suggested main course/local applications course, then it is necessary to think about projects or other methods for making a general course meaningful on the local level. Departments can no longer afford to spend their manpower and budget on training that is not applicable where it is needed most.

Above all, both training officers and educational institutions should be taught how to use their training and teaching time and budgets more effectively. This may require an analysis of the training methods and techniques used and a future emphasis on methods that involve the trainee more actively in the training or learning process. It may mean that courses must be revamped so that the learning process and experience provide a dynamic integration of subjects, concepts, and skills vital to the police role.

In order to provide the kind of education and training that is needed to prepare police adequately for their roles, educators and trainers must reevaluate their own roles and activities. Considerable effort will be required to provide effective, challenging education and training programs.

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## Chapter 11

## THE MINORITY IN LAW ENFORCEMENT

Law enforcement administrators whose departments serve communities with significant minority populations are increasingly cognizant of the importance of employing minority citizens. Since the basis of support for policing our society must come from all citizens, it follows that police agencies should be representative of the population they serve. To be otherwise reinforces the perceptions held by some minority citizens that law enforcement agencies represent the force of the dominant society and are institutionally designed to maintain the status quo. This has obvious ramifications for police-community relationships.

Besides enhancing the image of the police in the eyes of minority citizens, a realistic evaluation of law enforcement problems in minority communities suggests that improved minority representation will have practical operational significance. It has been suggested by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice as well as other research studies that the interaction of white officers with officers from minority groups on an equal basis can assist in reducing commonly held stereotypes and prejudices. Officers from the minority community can provide a knowledge of its neighborhoods, its subculture, and its language. During Advisory Commission interviews held throughout California, minority citizens spoke often of unnecessary police-

community conflicts which might have been avoided had the beat officer understood the mores and language of the area in which he was working. As most policemen know, personal knowledge of the community often leads to information not otherwise available, to earlier detection of potential problems, and to increased solutions of crimes committed. Thus, the employment of qualified minority citizens in police work cannot be viewed as a measure designed simply to pacify vocal minority publics. Instead, it is a realistic means for improving the modern police agency's capability to provide an effective range of services.

## The Dimensions of the Problem

In order to determine whether California police agencies are in fact representative of the populations they serve, the Advisory Commission surveyed 429 state, county, and municipal law enforcement agencies to ascertain their minority recruitment and employment practices. Interviews were also held in several locations to provide opportunities for law enforcement officers, personnel departments, concerned citizens, and community action groups to comment on this sensitive area. Much information was gleaned from these endeavors. The personnel data from the survey indicate that California law enforcement agencies often do not reflect the publics they serve. Black, American Indian, Oriental, and Spanish-surname citizens are consistently under-represented in the ranks of law enforcement. Some members of these publics are employed in police



work, but seldom in proportion to their presence in the community. Generally, it is the line officer level which has the highest rate of minority group employment. This is expected considering that this is the entrance level for sworn personnel. Of significance, however, is the observation that greater minority citizen employment in policy-making ranks is achieved in the smaller departments than in the larger agencies. In the larger departments, minority citizens do not appear in significant numbers above the rank of sergeant. However, in spite of the fact that minority citizens are able to achieve higher ranks in smaller departments, the Advisory Commission's data indicate that a sizeable number report leaving the smaller agencies in search of greater promotional opportunities in larger departments. In the smaller police agencies there is a lower turnover of personnel at policy-determining levels. Consequently, although minority citizens may be more readily accepted into policy-making ranks in smaller departments, there are generally few of these positions available.

Employment of minority group personnel in a civilian capacity is much more common than employment as sworn personnel. As might be anticipated, minority group employment is highest in metropolitan areas and lowest in the rural areas of California. Of the four major minority groups, Spanish-surname citizens are the more widely represented and have achieved higher ranks within law enforcement. Graphic evidence of these findings is displayed in Appendix G.

The fact that the personnel structure of California law enforcement

does not reflect the general population can have serious ramifications for community-police relationships. During Advisory Commission interviews, certain segments of various minority communities indicated a hesitancy to call upon the police for assistance in times of emergency. Minority communities and police officers often suspect one another's motives and intentions. Many people within the various minority communities do not believe that they have sufficient input or influence with police policy makers. They see themselves in the role of powerless clients of the police profession. Many minority citizens are unaware of much that the police department in their community is doing on their behalf. Much positive police community work goes unnoticed because of insufficient or improper communication between the police and the minority publics. Instead, as we discussed in Chapter 7, some minority citizens believe that the treatment they receive from police departments is of poorer quality than that provided to other segments of the community.

It is generally accepted that an individual's perception of a situation defines that person's reality. Whatever justice the above perceptions have, it is significant that minority citizens often believe that they receive differential treatment from the existing police force. They further believe that the situation could be ameliorated by hiring additional minority law enforcement officers; this would enhance the image of the police as the legal guardian of all the public.

The public opinion survey (Project STAR) participated in by the



Advisory Commission indicates that only 22 percent of the sample population believe that police administrators assign enough minority group officers to minority neighborhoods. Elected and appointed officials should publicly affirm their support of law enforcement efforts to attract qualified minority citizens into the police profession. In order to achieve a personnel structure that is reflective of the community being served, all elements of the system must cooperate with enforcement agencies. Consequently, it is important that the State Legislature, local governing bodies, and law enforcement agencies respond to the population's perception of the situation.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the State Legislature by resolution reaffirm their commitment to the value of full employment and utilization of minority citizens in law enforcement.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT local jurisdictions by resolution affirm their commitment to the goal of full employment and utilization of minority citizens in law enforcement.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies affirm their commitment to the value of full employment and utilization of minority citizens in law enforcement. Law enforcement agencies must take steps to ensure the adequate representation of racial and ethnic groups in all ranks.

Recruitment

Much of the hostility held by some segments of the minority community is a consequence of historic police-community relationships. A brief review of some historical causes for under-representation of minorities will suggest the magnitude of today's problems in attracting

them into the police profession.

The police have continually noted a lack of qualified minority candidates. According to police agencies, many minority citizens who were interested in law enforcement careers were unable to meet satisfactorily at least one of the five basic entrance requirements: the written examination; the oral interview; the background investigation; the physical examination; or the physical agility test. Also, although departments varied in their requirements for applicant height and education, most agencies specified a minimum height of five feet eight inches (or taller) and a minimum of a high school education. Generally persons with a history of juvenile or adult misbehavior were not seriously considered.

The corollary to the lack of qualified candidates has been that the minority citizen who could successfully meet the requirements was also eligible for more appealing jobs in private enterprise. Police agencies have not traditionally viewed themselves as being able to compete successfully with the private sector.

The police explanation for under-representation of minorities is questionable. Generally speaking, in the past, most minority group members were not seriously considered for employment with salaries commensurate to those offered by law enforcement. Instead, they were channeled into more menial tasks such as farm and custodial labor. Perhaps a more factual explanation for the dearth of minorities in police positions is that historically they were not seriously recruited and were in fact discouraged from applying. The few



minority citizens who did become police officers were segregated into special units and assigned to patrol with members of their own race. A subtle yet systematic pattern of exclusion was evident which ensured that few minority officers would ever achieve policy-making ranks. The prevailing sentiment during this time was that police work was an occupation reserved for white citizens.

Of the departments that responded to the Advisory Commission's questionnaire survey, the over-whelming majority indicate that they experience major difficulties in recruiting personnel from minority communities. The data indicate that some of the most common problems interfering with successful recruitment include: the poor image of the police profession held by segments of the minority community; failure of many minority applicants to meet entrance requirements; the belief held by many minority citizens that the selection procedure in terms of entrance and promotions is discriminatory; the police department's perceived inability to compete with private enterprise in hiring competent minority citizens; and the turnover rate of minority officers once admitted into the ranks.

Any recruitment program designed to increase minority representation within a police force must deal with all of these factors; it must begin by persuading qualified candidates to apply. Recruiting competent minorities into law enforcement work will require developing a more attractive police image. To sell police work to young minority men and women, agencies should emphasize the human

relations aspects. By informing the citizenry of the tremendous amount of service-related functions performed by police agencies, the sometimes negatively valued enforcement aspects of police work can be placed in their proper perspective. This should de-emphasize the militaristic image often held of the police department.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST continue to implement a state-wide recruitment campaign for the purpose of describing the challenge of law enforcement and the available opportunities for qualified candidates within the state of California.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT during the recruitment effort, law enforcement agencies emphasize the human relations and service related aspects of police work.

To reach potentially interested minority citizens, law enforcement agencies must utilize recruitment sources in the minority community. In addition to the usual recruitment vehicles of newspapers, television, radio, posters, and employment agencies, police departments need to aim their recruitment efforts directly at minorities. They can advertise through minority newspapers and radio stations where these are available. Community service centers, minority organizations, and church organizations need to get involved in the recruitment effort as well. Indigenous minority organizations such as the Urban League, NAACP, MAPA, LULAC, Chinese and Japanese Citizen Leagues, and Indian organizations are valuable resources which must be incorporated into any recruitment endeavor. They are key organizations and exert vital influence in the minority community. If willing and sufficiently motivated by the sincerity



of the police recruitment effort, these groups can act as referral agencies by directing recruitment material through their communication channels, assuring that it reaches interested and qualified candidates. These groups are also in a position to reinforce young men's and women's interest in the law enforcement profession. Further, they can be valuable in police attempts to reduce the stereotyped image of the "cop" in the squad car.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT minority organizations take an active role in cooperating with and assisting law enforcement agencies in their efforts to attract qualified minority applicants to police work.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies also use minority newspapers, television, and radio stations whenever possible in their recruitment campaigns.

Obviously, California minority communities are not monolithic in their opinions regarding law enforcement. A few citizens are genuinely supportive of police recruiting effors. They perceive that change must occur both in their own communities' actions as well as within police agencies and are cognizant of the important role the community must play in improving community-police relationships. At the opposite end of the continuum is another segment of the minority community. This portion perceives the police as being the most visible arm of a powerful white society. The police are enemies to be dealt with severely. This minority public distrusts and ostracizes the minority member who joins the police force. Epithets of "oreo", "Uncle Tom", "Tio Taco", and "coconut" are frequently used to describe these minority officers. The implication

is that a minority citizen forfeits his minority identification when he is assimilated into the police structure. The minority officer faces a real dilemma: should he be loyal to his community first or to his profession. It weighs heavily on the minds of potential recruits.

In order to partly counteract this problem, minority police officers can be used extensively in recruitment efforts directed at the minority community. A minority officer is better able to relate to a potential minority candidate's concerns about the impact of joining a police department. The minority officer task force, an innovative approach utilized by the Los Angeles Police Department, is producing encouraging results. A number of minority police officers have been assigned to recruit in the minority communities on a full-time basis. Not only are they responsible for attracting minority candidates, but more significantly, they are charged with assisting the candidates through the application process. This promising technique should be tested in other metropolitan areas throughout California. For optimal results, the concentration of recruitment efforts may best be aimed at the inner city. This would have obvious practical significance to the success of minority recruitment efforts.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the State Legislature establish a subsidy program which will pay the partial cost of certain innovative recruitment techniques, such as the minority recruitment task force.



THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT whenever possible law enforcement agencies include minority officers within their personnel units, particularly to assist in minority recruitment efforts.

The success of any recruitment drive is determined in large part by the ability to stimulate qualified candidates to apply. In order to attract qualified minority citizens, police departments must make a sincere effort to improve the image of their departments in various California minority communities. Qualified minority candidates must be convinced that once accepted into police ranks they will experience equal treatment. Past discrimination or even the belief that discrimination does or has existed within a department, unless it is objectively disproved, has much the same impact as present discrimination. Quite obviously, this sentiment can seriously threaten the success of any recruitment drive aimed at the minority community.

Selection

During the recruitment effort, it is important that standards as well as the selection process be carefully explained to the potential minority candidate. Misunderstanding can develop if selection criteria are not properly understood. The time period required for completion of the process must be emphasized to the potential minority recruit. Some minority applicants are disenchanted by the process, particularly if they are not immediately accepted for employment. This is of particular concern today when

so many police agencies have long lists of certified candidates. Natural emotions of frustration and animosity occur unless forestalled by positive and supportive police contact during this time.

Acceptance into the ranks of the department requires that all applicants successfully complete five basic steps: the written examination; the oral interview; the background investigation; the physical examination; and the physical agility test. Special efforts may be required to assist the minority candidate through the various steps of the application process. Several minority police officers' associations have initiated programs to do this. The Oscar Joel Bryant League, the Black peace officer's association connected with Los Angeles Police Department, provides a good example of what can be accomplished when the desire to assist is genuine. This organization of officers has established classes designed to prepare minority applicants to pass entrance exams. While this type of assistance is really too new to evaluate statistically, it appears to offer great promise. It provides a realistic means for law enforcement agencies to attract recruits from low-income minority groups without lowering police standards.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies use police officers' associations, including minority peace officers' associations, to recruit and assist minority candidates through the selection process.

The Validity of Entrance Requirements

This is not to say, however, that police forces should not re-examine their entrance requirements. The Commission discovered



that some basic qualifications probably have the unintended consequence of barring minority applicants who could adequately perform police work. The minimum height requirement prevents many Spanish-surname and Oriental citizens from joining police departments. Eyesight standards cause further problems for many otherwise interested Orientals. The relationship between such physical standards and the officer's ability to perform successfully on the job has yet to be determined. Further, no Commission data from either the questionnaire survey or the statewide hearings indicate that comprehensive studies have been conducted to determine the relevance of the complex of selection standards to job performance.

There is also the possibility that the required written examination may have a cultural bias which favors the dominant white society. Recent federal action requires that these tests be impartially validated.[1] The Fair Employment Practices Commission (FEPC) and the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) have developed criteria to assist in determining the validity of various law enforcement examinations.[2] If police agencies would use examinations that had been validated both in terms of job relevance and cultural bias, it would do much to restore an image of impartiality in the recruitment process.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the State Legislature give budgetary support to the State Personnel Board to ensure the development of a validated culturally unbiased entrance examination series for California law enforcement agencies.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the State Personnel Board do a validation study to determine that promotion and entrance exams are designed to test skills and knowledge which are relevant to the successful performance of the position sought.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the local personnel boards evaluate police job qualifications to ascertain whether such qualifications are job related and/or discriminate against minority candidates.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST, in cooperation with the State Personnel Board, complete a feasibility study to determine the possibility of constructing an unbiased process for determing qualifications for promotions.

One technique which can have positive results in achieving impartiality in selection is the inclusion of representatives of minority publics in the process. This can have the additional value of showing the minority group it has a voice in selecting police personnel.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies serving a population with significant minority elements include representatives of these significant minority groups on all oral interview boards.

Careful consideration of the background investigation process suggests that the minority citizen who has grown up in a high crime area runs a high risk of acquiring a police record. In view of this, arrest records or convictions for minor offenses cannot automatically be assumed to be valid indicators of irresponsible behavior. Unless certain crime patterns can be established, the record can only be evaluated realistically in terms of the total character of the applicant and not as a basis for automatic disqualification.

Almost as a recognition of the problems associated with certain



entrance requirements, some agencies in California have implemented a credit system which gives them the flexibility to waive certain physical requirements when the applicant possesses skills and qualities particularly valuable to police work. For example, the candidate who is bilingual can be accepted into the department despite his failure to meet the established height requirement. The credit system appears to be a cogent adjustment to the expanding needs of the professional police department. Realizing the organizational problems associated with implementing this system, it appears that some sort of incentive program might stimulate adoption of the credit concept.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies develop and incorporate into their entrance requirements a system for accomodating persons with particular skills or abilities valuable to the agency.

Due to the complexity of police work, the fact that police officers are required to make decisions which affect the quality of life enjoyed in the community, and the realization that police officers are frequently placed in stress and conflict-ridden situations, it is important that as part of the entrance requirements applicants be examined for emotional stability and mental maturity. POST alludes to this necessity in their regulations relating to the purpose of the physical exam. Many police agencies already require this type of examination, but as of yet, no uniform standard exists.

Where appropriate, psychiatric interviews can supplement written examinations to identify and pinpoint serious character disorders

expressed by potential police recruits. Early detection of an applicant's emotional problems can prevent future embarrassment to the agency and can assist in improving police relations with the community.

Equally important to identifying emotional problems in potential recruits is the early identification and treatment of behavior problems among veteran police personnel. The law enforcement profession requires that instanteous decisions be made by its personnel which may ultimately affect the safety of the police officer, the citizen, and the community at large. Therefore, law enforcement administrators should develop and utilize means for assessing an individual's mental stability. Periodic assessments should be a standard procedure for all police personnel, but particular attention should be directed to those members of the police force who experience major difficulties in interacting with the public or who exhibit a greater willingness to employ force when dealing with the citizenry.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST continue efforts to develop and require a valid emotional maturity and mental stability assessment for all potential police candidates as part of their mimimum standards.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies make periodic reassessments of police officers' mental and emotional stability; reassessments should particularly be made of those officers exhibiting behavior patterns suggesting problems.

One effective method for increasing the social base of the police profession is to increase the use of the para-professional. By utilizing the position of the para-professional as a basis for recruiting into the police force, minority citizens who are temporarily unable to meet certain entrance requirements can provide useful assistance to police departments. For those para-professionals who are interested in eventually becoming police officers, the para-professional position provides a way to gradually work toward fulfilling all entrance requirements. For example, para-professionals who have a sub-standard educational background can attend school on a part-time basis in order to eventually meet this standard. For those who are solely interested in community service in a non-sworn capacity, the para-professional position provides ample opportunity to improve police relations with the community. Additionally, law enforcement administrators should direct efforts toward the development of a career ladder for para-professionals within their departments. In order to attract talented civilians, the para-professional position must offer both a challenge as well as promotional opportunities. This requires that the position be integrated fully into the department.



THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies expand the use of para-professionals to accommodate both persons who wish to become police officers as well as those who are familiar with the community, its people, and its culture but who may not wish to pursue a sworn police career.

Further, police cadet programs can be utilized in the same manner, thereby expanding the recruitment bases of law enforcement.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies use their current cadet and para-professional programs as one of their affirmative action tools to assist interested persons

to meet required entrance standards; such programs should reflect the racial and ethnic balance of the community being served.

Promotion

Very closely associated with the success of minority recruitment is the assessment minority group members make of their opportunities for promotion once employed. Increasing the number of minority police officers at policy-making ranks is as important as recruiting new minority officers into police agencies. It is important that minority citizens see members of their minority group participating in police policy-making. Unless a minority citizen believes he can contribute to an agency and/or has sufficient opportunities available for promotion, he will more than likely avoid that particular agency. It is noteworthy that data from the Advisory Commission's survey of law enforcement personnel practices show members of minority groups resigning from police agencies in order to accept employment in other law enforcement agencies. (See Appendix G ). Particularly in the smaller departments, minority employees indicated in supplementary comments that there were too few avenues of promotion available in the agencies which they were leaving. It is significant that our data indicate most of the minority employees leaving police agencies report that they are leaving to join another law enforcement agency. This suggests that although minority employees believe that some police departments lack promotional opportunities, they do not perceive this as a reason



for changing occupations; hence, they are willing to accept employment in another department.

This points up the need for further study of lateral entry. If, as our data suggest, minority officers are willing to move to the agencies where promotional opportunities are more numerous, then we should determine the feasibility of developing and implementing a system for open transfer of qualified personnel among California police agencies. This could prove valuable to all California police officers and could enhance the general quality of police service provided to California communities.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the State Legislature fund a study to determine the feasibility of open transferability among law enforcement agencies.

Minority citizens do not figure significantly at the ranks where policy is determined and crucial decisions made. As the President's Crime Commission indicated, there is an obvious disproportion of minority police supervisors to minority police officers when compared to their white counterparts.[3] Obviously, some of this disproportion is a function of the recency of minority employment in law enforcement. The Advisory Commission is aware that it will take several years of diligent effort before recent minority recruits will be eligible for promotional consideration. Because some minority officers do not possess the levels of education required or have not developed other skills sufficiently to qualify for promotional consideration, remedial action may be in order.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT local law enforcement agencies establish comprehensive career counseling programs which include both developing extensive career tracking procedures as well as providing training programs designed to enhance employees' promotability within the agencies.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement agencies encourage minority employees to improve their promotability by participating in career development programs.

Discriminatory practices affecting promotional considerations are difficult to pinpoint. Several factors intervene which affect the final outcome. Crucial decisions are made by supervisors throughout the agency about the quality, efficiency, and ability of all officers. This process can have a detrimental impact on minority officers unless supervisorial opportunities for expressing ethnic prejudice are minimized by proper training and peer reinforcement. This is discussed somewhat in Chapter 10.

Competition from the Private Sector

The final aspect of minority employment to be considered is the belief of police departments that they are unable to compete with private enterprise. This has obvious ramifications for their recruiting efforts. Law enforcement agencies often do not view themselves as being able to offer the tangible incentives, such as higher salaries and automatic promotions, that private enterprise does in its attempts to lure qualified minority citizens. However, again referring to the Advisory Commission survey data on personnel, few minority citizens employed in law enforcement list this as a reason for their resigning from the department. (See Appendix G ).



Our data on turnover indicate that not all minority officers leave the department to join private industry. Many leave to join other police departments. The combination of starting salaries and fringe benefits available to California law enforcement officers today is competitive with private enterprise. Civil service status, the service orientation of the police function, and the variety inherent in the police job serve to make law enforcement employment attractive. Consequently, it appears that the threat posed by private enterprise is less significant than other circumstances considered earlier in this chapter. Unfortunately, this will not be positively established until police assume an appropriately aggressive stance in their minority recruitment efforts.

Affirmative Action Programs

Much of what has been described, analyzed, or recommended in this report revolves around the central concept of affirmative action. The term "affirmative action" as defined by the Department of Labor in the "Federal Register" is "action to ensure that applicants or employees are treated without regard to race, color, religion, sex, or national origins." It is further described as a "positive action in affording employment and training to all persons regardless of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin." [4] Affirmative action programming in no way suggests the imposition of a quota system.

As of March 1972, with the amendment extending Title 7 of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 to all governments and governmental agencies, it is illegal to discriminate on the basis of race, color, religion,

sex, age, or national origin unless such exclusion is based on a bona fide operational occupational qualification which is uniformly enforced.[5] There are several legal subtleties involved in equal employment, but basically as it relates to this portion of our report, it is illegal for a law enforcement agency to discriminate in its personnel practices against racial or ethnic minorities. If minority citizens believe themselves to be discriminated against in terms of hiring or promotional opportunities, they may file a complaint with the Fair Employment Practices Commission (FEPC) or the Equal Employment Opportunities Commission (EEOC) who will investigate the allegation. If the allegation is deemed valid, legal proceedings can be initiated against the offending police agencies. If the complaint is sustained, the offending department will be required to ameliorate the complaint by positive remedial action. In the last 2 years, FEPC has handled 12 such complaints against California law enforcement agencies.[6]

It is important to remember that neither federal nor state law requires the implementation of affirmative action programs. Instead, an affirmative action program must be voluntarily developed by an organization. However, judging from the volume of federal and state laws that relate to equal employment opportunities, it is becoming increasingly important for law enforcement agencies to respond proactively in this area.



**THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT local jurisdictions establish affirmative action programs to assist law enforcement agencies recruit qualified minority candidates.**

**THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the Bureau of Criminal Statistics include the racial and ethnic composition of law enforcement agencies in its appropriate annual reports.**

It is not sufficient for law enforcement agencies to pursue neutral employment practices. Rather, law enforcement administrators must take positive steps toward assuring that their agencies follow equal employment practices. Development of an affirmative action program includes a policy statement; an evaluation of police recruiting techniques to ascertain whether they are inadvertently discriminatory; validation of all exams utilized by the department for entrance and promotional considerations; an analysis of the available minority labor population and an identification of problem areas; an analysis of the personnel structure of the department; development of timetables and goals to correct existing personnel deficiencies; and an evaluation component to ascertain the level of success achieved by the affirmative action program.[7]

As Appendix G indicates, many California law enforcement agencies have already enunciated and implemented affirmative action employment programs. At least half of the large police agencies responding to the Commission's questionnaire report that their departments have ongoing affirmative action programs. Since the majority of California law enforcement affirmative action programs were initiated in 1971 and 1972, they are too recent to evaluate in

terms of their success in attraction of qualified candidates.

Because the concept of affirmative action programming is relatively new, no specific guidelines or standards have been developed that specifically relate to law enforcement agencies. As mentioned earlier, the FEPC and the EEOC have offered some direction in this area. However, because of the unique role of police agencies in society as well as their unique personnel needs, it is important to the ultimate success of affirmative action programming that guidance be provided to law enforcement administrators to develop and to implement realistic and effective affirmative action programs.

Many federal, state, regional, county, and city resources are available to law enforcement to provide valuable assistance in the establishment of affirmative action programs. However, as is too often the case, law enforcement agencies are not sufficiently informed of their availability or are not aware of the services they provide. POST can provide a valuable service to law enforcement administrators by developing and implementing an information center of affirmative action programs in the state of California. Useful information relating to innovative techniques in recruitment and promotion could be circulated to interested police agencies through this center resulting in obvious benefits to both the community at large and the police department.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST through Project MORE study and develop guidelines and standards for affirmative action programs.



THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT POST through Project MORE establish an information system which law enforcement agencies can utilize to keep law enforcement agencies informed on model affirmative action programs.

In conclusion, the Commission can only re-emphasize the need for California law enforcement agencies to actively seek out, to hire, and to promote qualified minority citizens. By doing so, the cause of positive community-police relationships will be furthered.

## References


1. Two major court cases in this area are:
   Griggs v. Duke Power Company, 39 U.S.L.W. 4317 (U.S. March 8, 1971)
   Carter v. Gallagher, 452 F.2d315 (1971)

2. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. Rules and Regulations. Washington, D.C.: October 27, 1971, paragraph 1607.5, p. 27.

3. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. Task Force Report: The Police. Washington, D.C.: Governemnt Printing Office, 1967, p. 172.

4. Federal Register, 35 Labor, paragraph 1607.14, August 1, 1970. p. 12333.

5. Pitt, Paul J. "EEOC and the Grantee", The Police Chief, February, 1973, p. 28.

6. Ordin, Andrea. State of California Memorandum: Fair Employment Practices Commission, "Complaints Filed Against Law Enforcement Agencies", February 13, 1973.

7. California Fair Employment Practices Commission. "Equal Employment Opportunity and Affirmative Action Programs." Los Angeles, p. 1-3.




# Chapter 12

## THE CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY-POLICE RELATIONS AS APPLIED BY THE POLICE

The police have long been aware that their relationships with the community are in a constant state of flux. It is seldom possible to predict when a particularly sensitive incident - a sensational crime, an accidental shooting, or a riot - will precipitate significant changes in community attitudes and behaviors toward the police. Such occurrences and the probability that they will affect citizen and police relationships are inherent in the police role. When the exceptional incident occurs, crisis management techniques are required. However, the effectiveness of such techniques and, in fact, the impact of exceptional occurrences on community-police relationships are directly related to the level of trust, understanding, and communication which prevails between the police and significant publics in the community.

Chapter 5 discussed briefly the three kinds of management processes which together control police behavior at the individual level. Several aspects of these guiding, controlling, and adapting mechanisms have been discussed prior to this point. This chapter addresses the final mechanism and that which is most directly related to the concern of the report: the concept of community-police relations as it has been institutionalized by the California police.

A number of definitions of community-police relations were examined in Chapter 2. We noted there the difficulty of developing an adequate definition of a concept which engenders considerable

emotionalism and lacks any significant consensus on either its substance or its form. These difficulties complicated the Advisory Commission's endeavors to obtain information on what police agencies were doing in the area of community-police relations. We accomodated the lack of a precise definition in our research by asking simply that police agencies cooperating in our survey efforts describe those activities which they individually identified as being part of community-police relations. Their responses were then analyzed to uncover the trends which form the basis for the discussions in this chapter.

In many respects, community-police relations as a concept separate and distinct from the general value of being "people-minded" in the performance of the police role is a product of the turmoil of recent years. It has never been well-received by the rank and file police officer, who too often feels that community relations programs detract from the performance of basic law enforcement tasks and further serve to weaken the police position in the face of their detractors. Such attitudes have worked against the community relations concept from the beginning. The success of some community relations programs has largely been due to the efforts of community relations officers and administrators who have seen the value of the concept in improving the capability of the police to provide their full range of services.

The fact that the community relations concept was conceived partly in reaction to exceptional occurrences such as the riots of the mid-sixties emphasizes its role as an adaptive mechanism of police management. Police administrators realized that traditional mechanisms were not adequate to respond to the issues underlying the riots and disturbances. They reacted by establishing new organizational units whose



responsibility was to sense, analyze, and develop responses to symptomatic issues of hostility and conflict. These typically have been identified as Community-Police Relations Units.

A paper distributed at the National Conference on Criminal Justice (January 1973), The Community and Criminal Justice: A Guide for Organizing Action, emphasizes a point that should be an underlying factor in all police-community relations programming:[1]

> ...Americans can no longer rest on the comfortable assumption that the establishment of institutional machinery to deal with crime constitutes an adequate response to the problem...Citizen concern about crime must be translated into action.

## Community-Police Relations in California

### Police Agency Organization

#### Composition of Sample

Of the 429 law enforcement agencies in California, 248 responded to Part D of the Advisory Commission's questionnaire: Community-Police Relations. This represents a significant sample of 57.8 percent of the State's police and sheriff agencies.

Complementing the questionnaire section were individual data collection sheets for specific community-police relations programs. Over 70 percent of the responding departments submitted at least one program sheet.

Community-Police Relations "Units." In response to questions regarding the presence of community relations in the organization of the law enforcement agency, 60 departments indicated that they have formally constituted community-police relations (CPR) units. These represent almost 14 percent of the law enforcement agencies in the

State and 24.2 percent of the Advisory Commission's responding sample (see Tables 12-1 and 12-2).

As expected, the majority of these units are in larger departments. Of departments with more than 50 sworn personnel (size categories D through I), 51.8 percent have community-police relations units. Seventeen departments (10.3 percent of the sample) in size categories A through C (1-50 sworn personnel) indicate the presence of community-police relations units; however, the Advisory Commission questions the definition of a formal CPR unit in these smaller agencies (see Tables 12-3, 12-4, and 12-5).

International City Management Association Survey. The above data roughly correlate with the International City Management Association's 1970 survey of 650 cities nationwide.[2] The ICMA results showed that 44 percent of the responding departments had a community-police relations program. Of the cities polled, all but one of the cities with over 250,000 population had such a program, while only 22 percent of cities with populations between 10,000 and 25,000 had community-police relations programs.

Police-Community Relations Officers. The survey information can be further expanded because community-police relations "program" may not indicate a formal unit but instead refer to a designated police-community relations "officer." Eighty California departments, 32.3 percent of the Advisory Commission's sample of 248 departments, indicated that at least one officer is assigned police-community relations responsibilities on either a full- or part-time basis (see Tables 12-1 and 12-2).

One-third of the agencies with 50 or less sworn personnel responded



Table 12-1
Respondents to CPR Section of the Questionnaire:
Numerical Distribution of Departments

| Size Category | w/CPR Units* | w/PCR Officer** | Other*** | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | 2 | 21 | 50 | 73 |
| B | 5 | 11 | 15 | 31 |
| C | 10 | 23 | 28 | 61 |
| D | 14 | 18 | 9 | 41 |
| E | 12 | 4 | 2 | 18 |
| F | 5 | 0 | 1 | 6 |
| G | 5 | 1 | 3 | 9 |
| H | 3 | 1 | 0 | 4 |
| I | 4 | 1 | 0 | 5 |
| Total | 60 | 80 | 108 | 248 |

*agencies indicating the presence of a CPR unit.
**agencies indicating the presence of a PCR officer, but no CPR unit.
***agencies having neither a CPR unit or PCR officer.

Table 12-2
Respondents to CPR Section of the Questionnaire:
Percentage Distribution of Departments

| Size Category | Percentage of Size Category Total | | | | Percentage of CPR Organization Category Total | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Units | Off. | Other | Total | Units | Off. | Other | Total |
| A | 2.7 | 28.7 | 68.6 | 100% | 3.3 | 26.3 | 46.3 | 29.4 |
| B | 16.1 | 35.5 | 48.4 | 100% | 8.3 | 13.8 | 13.9 | 12.5 |
| C | 16.4 | 37.8 | 45.9 | 100% | 16.7 | 28.8 | 25.9 | 24.6 |
| D | 34.2 | 43.9 | 21.9 | 100% | 23.3 | 22.5 | 8.3 | 16.5 |
| E | 66.7 | 22.3 | 11.1 | 100% | 20.0 | 5.0 | 1.9 | 7.3 |
| F | 83.3 | 0.0 | 16.7 | 100% | 8.3 | 0.0 | 0.9 | 2.4 |
| G | 55.6 | 11.1 | 33.3 | 100% | 8.3 | 1.3 | 2.8 | 3.6 |
| H | 75.0 | 25.0 | 0.0 | 100% | 5.0 | 1.3 | 0.0 | 1.6 |
| I | 80.0 | 20.0 | 0.0 | 100% | 6.7 | 1.3 | 0.0 | 2.0 |
| Total | 24.2 | 32.3 | 43.5 | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% |

that they have a "PCR officer" but no community-police relations unit. Just under one-third (30.1 percent) of the larger agencies (over 50 sworn personnel) designated a PCR officer. Therefore, the presence of a PCR officer is not significantly related to agency size; this is not surprising because this assignment is not necessarily tied to organizational constraints such as manpower and budget.

Over 56 percent of the responding sample have some form of community-police relations organization, either in the form of a unit or a designated officer. The size categories A through C (1-50 sworn personnel) contained 86.1 percent of the sample agencies responding negatively to both questions regarding the presence of formal CPR organization.

Relationship with Programs. An important criterion for measuring the impact of these community-police relations units and officers is through evaluation of the types of community-police relations programs being conducted by the department. Over 85 percent of the departments responding with CPR units, and 81.3 percent of the agencies responding with PCR officers, returned specific program data.

Full-time and Part-time Officers. Designated Police-Community Relations Officers fall into two categories: full-time and part-time. Seventeen of the 80 agencies in the PCR officer group respond that at least one officer has full-time police-community relations responsibilities. Though the sample is not large, it is significant, and there is a tendency for full-time assignment to be directly related to agency size. This, as with the formal CPR unit distribution, is also expected, as officers in smaller departments are more likely to

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**Table 12-3**

Respondents to CPR Section of the Questionnaire:
Numerical Distribution of Departments by Size Group

| Size Group | w/CPR Units | w/PCR Officer | Other | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Small* | 31 | 73 | 102 | 206 |
| Medium** | 22 | 5 | 6 | 33 |
| Large*** | 7 | 2 | 0 | 9 |
| Total | 60 | 80 | 108 | 248 |

**Table 12-4**

Respondents to CPR Section of the Questionnaire:
Distribution of Departments by Percentage of Size Category Total

| Size Group | w/CPR Units | w/PCR Officer | Other | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Small* | 15.1 | 35.4 | 49.5 | 100% |
| Medium** | 66.7 | 15.2 | 18.2 | 100% |
| Large*** | 77.8 | 22.2 | 0.0 | 100% |
| Total | 24.2 | 32.3 | 43.6 | 100% |

**Table 12-5**

Respondents to CPR Section of the Questionnaire:
Distribution of Departments by Percentage of CPR Organization Category Total

| Size Group | w/CPR Units | w/PCR Officer | Other | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Small* | 51.7 | 91.3 | 94.4 | 83.1 |
| Medium** | 36.7 | 6.3 | 5.6 | 13.3 |
| Large*** | 11.7 | 2.5 | 0.0 | 3.6 |
| Total | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% |

*departments in size categories A-D, 1-100 sworn personnel

**departments in size categories E-G, 101-500 sworn personnel

***departments in size categories H-I, over 500 sworn personnel

have their time divided among a number of other duties, such as training, records, etc.

Conceptual Problems in CPR Classifications

There are some possible discrepancies in the responses to the community-police relations section of the questionnaire. First, many agencies regard community-police relations as the duty of every officer; that is, all the officer's contacts with the public involve community relations. Agencies professing this philosophy could have responded affirmatively or negatively to either of the questions regarding the presence of a CPR unit or PCR officer.

Second, as demonstrated in part by the presence of CPR "units" among the smallest departments, there could be some misunderstanding of what constitutes a "unit" as opposed to a full-time PCR officer (just as some of these smaller agencies indicated that they have training "units" when, in fact, interviews revealed that they have only one officer who is assigned training as part of his regular work load - see Chapter 10).

It appears, therefore, that the size of the agency will indicate to a great extent the status of community-police relations in the formal organizational structure of the agency. It is postulated that this might not be true in only two cases:

1. Those agencies with chiefs adhering to a generalist theory of community-police relations, in which community-police relations is consciously subscribed to as a vital component of every existing function of the department; and

2. Agencies bound by a traditional view of the law enforcement function, in which community-police relations is treated as a desired, but not actively sought after, by-product of regular police operations, where if the officer performs his "peace officer" functions efficiently, there is no need for any assigned community-police relations unit or designated personnel.



Regrettably, few large departments exist in municipalities where the boundaries of the law enforcement function permit the latter idealistic view of efficiency. The constantly changing relationships of individuals and groups prevent a policeman from being a "generalist" expert on people.

Verification of Need for Formal Community-Police Relations

The need for consciously applied community-police relations in California is supported by the International City Management Association survey referred to previously. In 1970 the Western region of the country, which is dominated by California, had a higher propensity for community-police relations organizations and programming than other regions. Certainly in part this is due to the dynamic nature of the demography in which the Western police must work. The need for community relations specialists and directed community-police relations programs has become apparent as, unlike some portions of the East and South, the police officer finds he does not know, much less understand, all of the people and value systems that pervade his assigned jurisdiction.

California police officers are more likely to need a consciously applied philosophy of community relations as an orientation mechanism to integrate the new officer into the community he will be serving. The officer in California, unlike many of his counterparts in other sections of the country, usually does not grow up, attend school, and then work as a policeman in the same community. Moreover, when he joins a particular police force, he may not know the community - its problems, leaders, civic groups, merchants, minority representation, or even other officers on the force. The officer may not be aware of

local socio-political factors that affect the police response to particular community needs and crises; he may have to learn which individuals the department is more sensitive to when police-citizen contacts occur.

California has developed the reputation as a national "trend-setter" in the experimentation with and adoption of new life styles and, on occasion, has experienced citizen violence challenging various values of the establishment. The police are ultimately involved in the dynamics of these trends in one or a combination of the following ways:

1. As implementors of the "establishment" response to challenges by some segment of the community, either by enforcing controversial laws or by maintaining order;
2. As the object of the discontent of a particular group;
3. As independent protectors of traditional values and community standards.

As a result of the constantly changing conditions and demographic patterns of individual communities that elicit these police responses, the officer is inextricably involved in the ongoing "relations" of the community. His response must be founded on continually revised policy and legal interpretation, rather than traditionally held and taken-for-granted principles of the police mission.

Therefore, community-police relations, as a philosophy of police response, becomes a vitally needed tool for continued revision of the policy guiding an officer's behavior in a particular situation. In California, as much or more than in any other part of the country, community-police relations is required as an initial component of recruit orientation and the continuing education of every officer, thus enabling them to better understand the community they serve and empathize with the fluctuating needs of its citizens.



## Formal Organization of Community-Police Relations

Community-police relations, formally constituted, is a relatively new phenomenon in police organizations. It remains in a state of flux, as its substantive boundaries are largely undetermined; there is no consensus regarding the relationship of community-police relations to other components of the police organization.

### Development of Community-Police Relations Organization

Sixty-nine of the 140 CPR units/officers responding indicated the years in which their formal community-police relations programs were established. The earliest was begun in 1962. However, over 60 percent are less than four years old. (See Table 12-6.)

As expected, the larger departments have taken the lead in establishing formalized community-police relations programs. Of the 27 agencies with a unit or PCR officer established prior to 1969, all but one were in departments employing more than 50 sworn personnel. This result is clearly consistent with the fact that community-police relations developed in response to turbulence directed at central cities with large metropolitan police departments.

Furthermore, a majority of the violence of the 1960's was racial in nature; the original philosophy of "CPR" as defined by the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders is almost totally committed to the improvement of police relations with the minority community.[3] Again, this would explain the leadership of large police agencies in the community relations field.

Medium size departments, in satellite suburban communities on the periphery of most of the conflict, began to develop CPR units and programs more as a preventive measure in response to citizen fears.

Table 12-6
Distribution of Departments by
Dates When Community-Police
Relations Units Were Established*

| Size Category | 1962 | 1965 | 1966 | 1967 | 1968 | 1969 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 1 | 2 | -- | 3 |
| B | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | 4 | 1 | 5 |
| C | -- | -- | -- | -- | 1 | 5 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 13 |
| D | -- | 1 | -- | 2 | 5 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 19 |
| E | -- | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 2 | -- | 12 |
| F | -- | 2 | -- | -- | 2 | -- | 1 | -- | -- | 5 |
| G | -- | 2 | -- | -- | 1 | 2 | -- | -- | -- | 5 |
| H | -- | -- | -- | 1 | 1 | -- | -- | 1 | -- | 3 |
| I | 1 | 2 | -- | -- | 1 | -- | -- | -- | -- | 4 |
| Total | 1 | 8 | 1 | 4 | 12 | 14 | 10 | 16 | 3 | 69 |
| Percent | 1.5 | 11.6 | 1.5 | 5.8 | 17.4 | 20.3 | 14.5 | 23.2 | 4.4 | 100% |

*12 of the 69 respondents were departments indicating they had a PCR officer but not a CPR unit; the 57 remaining departments have CPR units and constitute 95% of the sample CPR units.

Command Structure of Community-Police Relations

Considering the seriousness of the crises which provoked the initial creation of CPR units, it is not surprising that of the 61 agencies responding that they have PCR officers, 53 answered that this officer reports directly to the chief administrator (chief of police or sheriff). For the remaining 13.1 percent, the PCR officers' supervisors are located in the administrative, services, patrol, or investigative units. (See Table 12-7.)

Apparently there is a realization on the part of law enforcement administrators that successful community-police relations will have a bearing on the necessity for and resultant dimensions of police responses to citizen needs. This in turn depends in large part on the quality of the job performed by the PCR officer in two main areas:



1. Communicating positive images of the police to potentially antagonistic segments of the community; and

2. Communicating symptoms and signals of potential conflict back to the agency.

Certainly the chief wishes to be the primary transmitter of the former and the initial receiver and translator into policy of the latter. This directly implies that the chief of police provides the primary leadership for community-police relations.

Due to the position that a majority of CPR units and officers occupy in the command structure, they may depend only on the chief for resources, conceptual orientation, and programmatic direction (hence survival). This can mean that the CPR unit/officer does not become institutionalized within the formal organization structure of the department. This sometimes has the following ramifications:

1. Established units, such as patrol and investigation, have historical claims on resources, and thus have a competitive edge in the allocation of resources. In terms of programmatic effectiveness, this can neutralize whatever advantage the PCR officer may have in direct communication with the chief.

2. If the chief gives preference to community-police relations due to its status in the organizational hierarchy, community-police relations program effectiveness can be detrimentally affected as a result of hostility from other departmental units (if it is assumed that CPR units should include among their functions the stimulation of positive community relations among the rest of the department's personnel).

3. If a change in the chief administrator is impending, the dependency of the CPR unit/officer on the chief can create a hesitancy among both agency personnel and community to invest resources and trust in community-police relations programs.

In their initial stages of development, there are substantial reasons for placing the CPR unit/officer under the direct command of the chief. Primarily, these reasons focus on the agency's ability to respond quickly and efficiently to community needs. The chief can

Table 12-7
Command Under Which the PCR Officer is Assigned

| Size Category | Chief of Police | Sheriff | Admin. Section | Services Section | Patrol | Investigation | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | 16 | --- | --- | --- | 1 | --- | 17 |
| B | 10 | --- | --- | --- | 1 | --- | 11 |
| C | 14 | 4 | --- | 1 | --- | 2 | 21 |
| D | 6 | 2 | 1 | --- | --- | --- | 9 |
| E | 1 | --- | --- | 1 | 1 | --- | 3 |
| F | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | 0 |
| G | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | 0 |
| H | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | 0 |
| I | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | 0 |
| Total | 47 | 6 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 61* |
| Percent | 77.1% | 9.8% | 1.6% | 3.3% | 4.9% | 3.3% | 100% |

*this total represents 76.3% of the sample PCR officers.

Table 12-8
Distribution of PCR Officers by Percentage of Time Assigned to Community-Police Relations

| Size Category | 0-10 | 11-20 | 21-30 | 31-40 | 41-50 | 51-60 | 61-70 | 71+ | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | 3 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 1 | --- | --- | 14 |
| B | --- | 3 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 1 | --- | 1 | 11 |
| C | 3 | 5 | 4 | 2 | 4 | 2 | --- | 2 | 22 |
| D | 2 | 3 | 5 | 2 | --- | --- | 1 | --- | 13 |
| E | --- | 1 | --- | --- | 1 | --- | --- | --- | 2 |
| F | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | 0 |
| G | 1 | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | 1 |
| H | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | 0 |
| I | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | 0 |
| Total | 9 | 13 | 16 | 10 | 7 | 4 | 1 | 3 | 63* |
| Percent | 13.3% | 20.6% | 25.4% | 15.9% | 11.1% | 6.4% | 1.6% | 4.8% | 100% |

*this total represents 78.8% of the sample PCR offers.



create an optimum resolution of the friction between the agency's capacity to respond and the expectations of the community for a particular response. With regard to the latter, the chief should best be able to ascertain loci of community support and resources which may minimize the commitment of police responses while optimizing response effectiveness. One important function of the CPR unit/officer, and thus a justification for a direct line to the chief, is to provide this continual assessment of community needs and resources.

The unit's placement in the command structure, therefore, should depend on the following basic factors:

1. Initiative for the creation of the unit or position (i.e., criticality of the provoking issues), and the willingness to consider the impetus that "can come from the criminal justice system professional who identifies and recruits community resources for application to existing programs or for the development of new efforts;"(4)

2. Size of the agency and projected dimensions of the CPR operation;

3. Relationship of the community-police relations unit or officer to functions of other units in the agency (e.g., youth bureaus, traffic);

4. The community relations goal orientation of the department.

Commitment of Part-Time PCR Officers

Almost 80 percent of those departments indicating the presence of a PCR officer gave data on the percentage of time that officer devotes to community-police relations activities. Over 85 percent stated that at least one officer is assigned CPR duties for less than 50 percent of his time. (See Table 12-8.)

Of the 104 sample departments in the small size group (size categories A through D, departments with under 100 sworn personnel) that indicated some community-police relations organization, 73

designate a PCR officer. Only 12 of these are full-time assignments. The Advisory Commission estimates that when this data is combined with previously presented data, approximately 70 percent of the 206 responding departments in size categories A through D have either no formal CPR unit or officer, or at best one man devoting less than 50 percent of his time to CPR-oriented activities.

These facts are further magnified by the possible intensity of the duties occupying the remainder of the officer's time. If no clear priorities are established, then a part-time PCR officer's job can become very difficult. For example, if a community crisis arises, the PCR officer should be able to be on the scene immediately. If he is committed to a non-CPR function that prevents his immediate attention to the problem, his response and the response of the police department in general may be seriously impaired.

Of course, the impact of this will in great measure depend upon the overall community relations training level of the remainder of the department.

Community-Police Relations Budget

Of the 248 departments submitting the community-police relations portion of the Advisory Commission's questionnaire, only 34.3 percent answered questions on the CPR budget. However, of the departments indicating the presence of a CPR unit, 80 percent responded.

Internal Budget Allocations for CPR. Of the sample departments with CPR units, 85.4 percent indicated that their agency has a distinct budget for community-police relations. Overall, 72.9 percent of the responding departments indicated that a budget category exists for CPR.

About half of the responding non-CPR unit departments have a



Table 12-9
Community-Police Relations Budget:
Distribution of Respondents by
Departmental Organization of CPR

| Community-Police Relations Organization | Have CPR Budget | | Do Not Have CPR Budget | | Percent of Sample* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | # | % | # | % | # | % |
| Community-Police Relations "Unit" | 41 | 85.4 | 7 | 14.6 | 48 | 80.0 |
| Police-Community Relations "Officer" (Full- & Part-Time) | 19 | 57.6 | 14 | 42.4 | 33 | 41.3 |
| Neither CPR Unit or PCR Officer: "Other" | 2 | 50.0 | 2 | 50.0 | 4 | 37.0 |
| Total | 62 | 72.9% | 23 | 27.1% | 85 | 34.3% |

*The total sample is comprised of 248 law enforcement agencies; this includes 60 agencies with CPR Units, 80 agencies with PCR Officers, and 108 "other" agencies.

Table 12-10
Outside Funding for CPR:
Distribution of Respondents by
Departmental Organization of CPR

| Community-Police Relations Organization | Receive Outside Funding | | Do Not Receive Outside Funding | | Percent of Sample* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | # | % | # | % | # | % |
| Community-Police Relations "Unit" | 24 | 43.6 | 31 | 56.4 | 55 | 91.7 |
| Police-Community Relations "Officer" (Full- & Part-Time) | 11 | 29.7 | 26 | 70.3 | 37 | 46.3 |
| Neither CPR Unit or PCR Officer: "Other" | 3 | 42.9 | 4 | 57.1 | 7 | 6.5 |
| Total | 38 | 38.4 | 61 | 61.6 | 99 | 39.9 |

*The total sample is comprised of 248 law enforcement agencies; this includes 60 agencies with CPR Units, 80 agencies with PCR Officers, and 108 "other" agencies.

community-police relations budget. These are predominantly departments with designated PCR officers. By size category, there is almost an equal likelihood that a department with a CPR unit has a CPR budget: 74.1 percent for departments in the small size group (1-100 sworn personnel); 70.6 percent for medium size departments (101-500 sworn personnel); and 71.4 percent for large departments (over 500 sworn personnel). (See Table 12-9.)

Outside Funding for CPR. A majority of the departments indicated that they receive no funds from any source outside of the agency budget. By size group, medium size departments were the least likely (73.9 percent) to utilize outside support. It seems that the very large and small departments more typically receive funds from outside sources. (See Table 12-10.)

Very few departments provided specific budget category data, especially in terms of revenue from external sources. In general, most of this external money originates from the Federal government, private foundations and service organizations, and state agencies. The major share of this funding is provided by the Federal government through the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. The Advisory Commission has no hard empirical evidence to establish a direct correlation between the establishment of CPR units and the passage of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968; however, it is interesting to note that a majority of sample departments established CPR units or designated PCR officer positions after the passage of the Safe Streets Act. The Act provided a major conceptual and fiscal stimulus which, combined with the social and political pressures of that era, invoked the primary motivating force for community-police relations organizations and an awareness of the non-"law enforcement" dimension of the police



mission.

Based on the results of the International City Management Association's 1969 survey of police departments across the country, it can be estimated that roughly a third of the California agencies with community-police relations programs utilized Federal funding to promote these programs.[5]

Police departments have been stereotyped as representative of the classical bureaucratic model. As do all bureaucratic organizations, police departments actively join in the "battle of the budget," the "scramble for funds," and the desperate effort to gain a "piece of the pie." It seems likely that this fiscal response to the recent availability of Federal funds was responsible for the initiation of many community-police relations labeled programs, not all of which had the benefit of a conceptual framework. From a fiscal standpoint, community-police relations programs are certainly the most difficult to evaluate in terms of the relationship of dollars spent to results, or to fit into a cost-benefit framework.

Community-Police Relations Training

In many departments there is a close relationship between training and community-police relations. This relationship can have a very positive impact on the quality and consistency of application of the police response.

Participation in Agency Training. Of those responding to a question on whether the CPR unit participates in training agency personnel, 46.4 percent of the agencies with CPR units in the sample indicated that they "regularly" do so, while only 7.1 percent said they never do. All of the latter are in size categories A through D

(less than 100 sworn personnel). This is interesting, since these agencies are less likely to have a formal training unit or officer, and officers are likely to wear more than one hat (especially CPR and training officers). The answer may be that the agency depends on an academy for most of its training while sponsoring little recruit or in-service/refresher training itself. (See Table 12-11.)

All but one of the responding agencies in size categories E through I (over 100 sworn personnel) answered that they "regularly" or "occasionally" participate in training agency personnel. The direct implication is that when an agency runs its own training programs, it utilizes its own CPR personnel to handle at least some of the community relations training.

CPR Analysis of Agency Training. A second question demonstrates a further relationship between CPR units and training. Though 15.8 percent of the responding CPR units indicated they never analyze agency training programs, over 70 percent said they regularly or occasionally provide this evaluative input. (See Table 12-11.)

This is a very crucial aspect of community-police relations. Since most agencies, particularly larger ones, probably construed this question as applying to refresher/in-service training, the CPR unit has a major influence on the character of the police response as it is projected through training. If the CPR unit is performing its job well, it can inject into the police training programs community variables and social indicators by which a police officer or field supervisor might estimate the sensitivity of a desired police response.



CPR Influence on Policy Making and the Police Response

Based on responses to further questions, the CPR unit has the potential for both planning and monitoring the implementation of a "community-related" police response. There is however one major inhibiting factor, as will be demonstrated later in this section.

First, the largest percentage of CPR units responding "regularly" review complaints made by citizens (56.9 percent), and "occasionally" (43.9 percent) or "regularly" (31.6 percent) survey community attitudes about important issues (see Table 12-11). This would demonstrate that a majority of responding CPR units fulfill the responsibility to provide community feedback and information to the department. This is crucial for effective community-police relations, as indicated by the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals:[6]

> The American police service is founded upon the principle that the police are a part of and not apart from the people...This principle dictates that the police make a determined effort to seek information from the public, to weigh conflicting demands and ideas and to arrive at considered judgments. It also requires that the police inform the people how to protect themselves against crime as well as how to cooperate with police to reduce crime.

Second, the largest percentage of the responding CPR units "regularly" review agency policies and procedures prior to their implementation. Therefore, the CPR unit may influence policy making by providing decision-making information to administrators and then, after this information has been translated into policy, by providing further input on probable community response to a selected police response. From the community's standpoint, if the CPR unit is objectively doing its job, an effective communication-monitoring device is therefore available. In a sense, the CPR unit can provide the capability

Table 12-11
Summary of Questions Directed to the Internal Relationships of Community-Police Relations with Other Police Operations



| Does the CPR Unit/ Officer... | Percent of Respondents Answering: Regularly | Occasionally | Seldom | Never | Percent of Sample |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A. SURVEY COMMUNITY ATTITUDES ABOUT IMPORTANT ISSUES? | | | | | |
| CPR Units | 31.6 | 43.9 | 15.8 | 8.8 | 95.0 |
| PCR Officers | 20.0 | 28.0 | 40.0 | 12.0 | 31.3 |
| Other | 40.0 | 20.0 | 40.0 | 0.0 | 4.6 |
| Total | 28.7% | 37.9% | 24.1% | 9.2% | 35.1% |
| B. ANALYZE AGENCY TRAINING PROGRAMS? | | | | | |
| CPR Units | 35.1 | 36.8 | 12.3 | 15.8 | 95.0 |
| PCR Officers | 39.1 | 26.1 | 21.7 | 13.0 | 28.8 |
| Other | 40.0 | 20.0 | 20.0 | 20.0 | 4.6 |
| Total | 36.5% | 32.9% | 15.3% | 15.3% | 34.3% |
| C. PARTICIPATE IN TRAINING? | | | | | |
| CPR Units | 46.4 | 35.7 | 10.7 | 7.1 | 93.3 |
| PCR Officers | 37.5 | 37.5 | 16.7 | 8.3 | 30.0 |
| Other | 75.0 | 25.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 3.7 |
| Total | 45.2% | 35.7% | 11.9% | 7.1% | 33.9% |
| D. REVIEW AGENCY POLICIES AND PROCEDURES? | | | | | |
| CPR Units | 39.3 | 30.4 | 12.5 | 17.9 | 93.3 |
| PCR Officers | 30.4 | 21.7 | 21.7 | 26.1 | 28.8 |
| Other | 100.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 4.6 |
| Total | 40.5% | 26.2% | 14.3% | 19.1% | 33.9% |
| E. REVIEW CITIZEN COMPLAINTS? | | | | | |
| CPR Units | 56.9 | 12.1 | 13.8 | 17.2 | 96.7 |
| PCR Officers | 41.7 | 20.8 | 12.5 | 25.0 | 30.0 |
| Other | 100.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 8.3 |
| Total | 57.1% | 13.2% | 12.1% | 17.6% | 36.7% |
| F. REVIEW OFFICER EVALUATION REPORTS | | | | | |
| CPR Units | 22.8 | 7.0 | 21.1 | 49.1 | 95.0 |
| PCR Officers | 29.6 | 18.5 | 7.4 | 44.4 | 33.8 |
| Other | 80.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 20.0 | 4.6 |
| Total | 28.1% | 10.1% | 15.7% | 46.1% | 35.9% |



to test-evaluate policy. Furthermore,[7]

> ...most desirable as a foundation for the development of programs and activities is an overall evaluation of the local criminal justice system to identify priority needs. What also must be recognized and used to advantage is the vast reservoir of skill and expertise that exists within the private sector of the community.

Thus an effective use of this assessment-review process not only mitigates the potential for conflict in police-citizen contacts, it also stimulates positive interaction in the application of citizen resources to police problems. (See Table 12-11.)

Unfortunately, the inhibiting factor, which can and often does cause this process to become less consequential, is that almost 50 percent of the responding CPR units "never," and 21.1 percent "seldom" review officer evaluation reports as a means of identifying and solving problems (see Table 12-11). The previous policy-making process can be a waste of effort, especially in terms of community-police relations problems, if there is no review on the basically independent discretionary action of the officers who will represent and implement the police response by those charged with the duty of "knowing" the community.

Thus the exclusion of CPR officers from the evaluation process means that (1) important measures, such as the effect of an officer's performance on relations with the community, are not being considered, or (2) the officer's execution of his duties is being considered by persons who are not intimately aware of developing community problems.

The character of a department's personnel policy can be illustrated in somewhat more depth by correlating size of departments and CPR intervention in the officer's evaluation. The small departments equally responded at the extreme: "regularly" (10 departments) and "never" (also 10 departments). The medium size departments over-

whelmingly replied "never," while large departments were evenly divided at the extremes.

Personnel Management Applications. This data may illustrate the nature of personnel management as applied to police behavior. The departments at the top and bottom of the size scale exhibit similar characteristics in terms of the relationship between their CPR units and officer evaluations. One possible explanation for the definite negative response to this question by the medium size departments with 101 to 500 sworn personnel is that they are generally found in communities characterized by various combinations of the following:

--dynamically shifting population bases

--close proximity to major urban areas

--relatively higher income levels

--relatively higher educational achievement levels

--a greater degree of political flux among party organizations and governmental administrators

--relatively lower percentages of ethnic and economic minorities

--higher proportions of property crimes than violent crimes.

There are other factors, but the above are sufficient to state the point: officers in the medium size departments may be less willing to be subjected to CPR intervention in the officer evaluation process because of the political, social, and economic pressures that exert control over the execution of their duties. In very large departments, this is not as great a factor due to such intervening conditions as impersonality and a tendency for greater specificity in the range of assignments. In smaller departments, every one knows everyone else, so it doesn't matter: everyone will inevitably have an evaluative input into every other officer's standing regardless of the prescribed



formal procedure.

The preceding data on policy making and the police response must be qualified on two levels: (1) the time frame involved, and (2) the dimensions and character of the survey and review instruments. For example, if a department answered the question on surveying the community regarding its own policies, it may "regularly" survey the community only every three or four years. On the second level, some agencies may see reviewing policy as merely getting advance notice of impending action. Also, community surveying may only involve such measures as random polls of participants in ride-alongs or open house tours.

## Orientation and Direction of Community-Police Relations

### Stated Goals of Community-Police Relations

Community-police relations is certainly one component of the police function upon which no purposive consensus has yet been reached. During the 1960's, the major purpose or goal of Community-Police Relations units was to improve minority relations and reduce racial conflict. The boundaries of community-police relations have since broadened immensely; this breadth is illustrated by data describing programs ranging from transsexual counseling to police-sponsored Easter egg hunts, burglary prevention to police honor guards, and so forth.

A CPR unit must have clearly defined goals in order to be an effective adaptive mechanism for the police, a vital input agent to the overall police response, and an objective agent of the community.

These goals must exhibit three important characteristics:

1. Both short-range and long-range components;
2. Realistic expectations of success;
3. An optimum resolution of expressed community needs and action necessary to secure overall law enforcement objectives.

Goals are meaningless if they do not provide the guiding framework for action, i.e., if they are not executed. The Advisory Commission has found, as will be shown later, that this execution is not generally goal-directed; that there is little clear and definitive correlation between stated goals and current programming efforts.

This is a difficult area to evaluate due to differential perceptions of goals by various administrators. Thus one administrator may perceive the goal "to promote understanding" as a successful ride-along program, while another may actualize this goal as an intensive citizen contact program in a high crime area.

The goals most often listed by agencies with CPR units in the sample are to "promote understanding" and to "open communication channels." These represent 19.6 percent and 12.0 percent, respectively, of the responses to the question "What are the stated goals of this (CPR) unit?" (See Table 12-12.)

The questionnaire data illustrate the lack of relationship between stated goals, target groups, and actual programs. For example, the tenth ranked goal is "to improve youth," yet youth is the most often identified target group and is the subject of the most programs.

The third ranked goal is to "identify and solve community problems." These three top-ranked goals represent over 40 percent of the response. In contrast, the following two goals comprise less than



Table 12-12
Selection of Goals for Community-Police Relations Programs:
Percentage Distribution of Responses

| Goals Identified | Community-Police Relations Units | All Respondents |
|---|---|---|
| Promote Understanding | 18.5% | 19.6% |
| Open Communication Channels | 12.6 | 12.0 |
| Identify & Solve Community Problems | 9.2 | 8.2 |
| Crime Prevention | 6.7 | 8.2 |
| Develop Police-Community Involvement | 6.7 | 7.0 |
| Community Resource | 6.7 | 7.0 |
| Community-Police Relations | 5.9 | 6.3 |
| Human Relations Training for the Police | 5.9 | 5.1 |
| Department Resource | 4.2 | 4.4 |
| Improve Youth | 5.0 | 3.8 |
| Others* | 18.5 | 18.4 |

*Others include:
--improve community-police relations
--improve police image
--diversion, delinquency prevention
--make field officer's job simpler
--improve minority relations
--investigate community complaints
--improve school relations
--support chief
--press relations

7 percent of the responses: "improve police image" and "make the field officer's job simpler." However, this is not reflective of the fact that 25.1 percent of all programs submitted fall into the public information typology (to be defined in the following section of this chapter) in which most "public relations" or image enhancement type programs are located.

For all respondents, the goal of "improving minority relations" represent less than two percent of the goals listed. This is interesting in that ethnic and economic minorities are listed as target groups in 22.9 percent of the responses. Moreover, this represents a major conceptual change from the community relations emphasis of the 1960's. It should be emphasized again that this data is related to stated goals.

Altogether, 19 different goals were listed by the respondents. This indicates to us some major trends in community-police relations thought:

1. There is no consensus of goal orientation for CPR units.
2. There is a lack of resolution between action theorized and theory applied; this is demonstrated by the discrepancies between stated goals, target groups, and programs.
3. This lack of goal consensus could explain the tendency to merely group existing programs of a community nature under a new organizational label - community-police relations.

Program Applications. Twelve of the 19 goals listed relate to "improving" relations or existing conditions with some segments of the community or to some problematic issue afflicting the community. The other seven are either directly related to prevention or are directed toward improvement of the department's resources and/or internal relationships. These seven represent 17.7 percent of the responses.



The remaining 82.3 percent, therefore, imply a change-agent, evaluative role for the CPR unit. This means more than public relations or public education or "crime specific" type prevention programs. If one were to project the major thrust of CPR programs according to these goals, the major concentration of programs should be in the program typologies representing police strategy changes, police work role and work conduct changes, and police training (these will be discussed in the following section). Some would fall within the youth education and services area. However, if the youth area is held constant in both goals and program areas, 78.5 percent of the stated goals and only 7.6 percent of the programs submitted by agencies in the sample are in this change-agent category.

It is therefore clear that departments are not applying their intention to their programs. Especially in the case of change-agent programs, there are several possible mitigating factors:

1. Inability to get resources to conduct the programs - either new resources or resources that would have to be drawn away from existing programs of a more traditional orientation;
2. Internal conflict between administrators promoting the goals and officers who would have to execute them (and possibly the reverse situation);
3. Intervention from external sources, such as local politicians, business interests, or strong community groups that do not wish to see the programs implemented.

Clearly, to maintain an efficient capability to execute desired community-police relations goals, a department must gain community support and possess effective leadership among its administrators. For example, the recommendations of the Community Crime Prevention Task Force of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals are based on the assumption that the national

impact on crime must include responsible, purposeful, and concerted involvement of people in local communities and neighborhoods.[8]

The rankings of goals vary somewhat among size groups. "To promote understanding" remains the number one ranked goal for the medium and large departments, and is number two ranked for the small agencies. "Opening communication channels" is the number two preference for large departments and number three ranked for medium size agencies. The "other" category is ranked one by small departments and two by medium size departments. Small departments rate "community-police relations" as their number three goal.

From this information, it would seem that a certain goal consensus is reached as department size increases. This follows from the larger departments' greater capacity for planning and functional allocation of tasks.

In 1969, the International Association of Chiefs of Police polled the attitudes of policemen in 286 state and local law enforcement agencies across the country.[9] Sixty-nine percent of these officers felt that community-police relations programs were important vehicles for departments "to open lines of communication, build respect, and gain citizen cooperation." This certainly corresponds with the goal priorities of our respondents, yet the discrepancy between this ideal and existing programs remains.

Target Groups of Community-Police Relations Programs

A major component of the establishment of community-police relations goals is the identification of target groups. This is essential since a large portion of CPR-related programs are directed at particular segments of the community or their design limits the practical size of



their audience.

Furthermore, the target group selected may greatly modify the expectations for goal success. For example, the goal of "promoting understanding" with local businessmen is much different from that of promoting understanding with rival ethnic gangs.

The data relating to the groups targeted by law enforcement agencies for community-police relations efforts is divided into five major categories: (1) ethnic and economic minorities; (2) civic and service clubs; (3) youth and the elderly; (4) general public; and (5) other. (See Table 12-13.)

The ethnic and economic minorities category includes the following specified groups: Blacks, Spanish-surname, and Asian. Indians and Orientals were not listed as target groups on any of the returned surveys. Some responses indicated the general ethnic-racial groupings as a target population, and some agencies made reference to "poverty groups."

The second category includes agencies of a private and service nature; for example, local chambers of commerce, P.T.A., Y.M.C.A., Rotary Clubs, etc..

The third category specifies age groups. This is a youth dominated category; only two responses related to the elderly.

The general public constitutes the fourth target group category and includes responses listing "all" as the target population.

Finally, the "other" category incorporates all other responses not included in the above groupings. These represent a wide range of target groups, both in terms of significance and program/policy application. In order of number of responses, these are:

Table 12-13
Percent of Respondents Indicating
Target Groups Identified for CPR Programs
By Type of CPR Organization

| Type of CPR Organization in Agency | Ethnic & Economic Minorities | Civic & Service Clubs | Youth & Elderly | General Public | Other* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Community-Police Relations Units | 24.3% | 11.8% | 30.9% | 18.4% | 14.7% |
| Police-Community Relations Officers (Full & Part-Time) | 17.9 | 23.1 | 33.3 | 12.8 | 12.8 |
| Neither CPR Unit or PCR Officer: "Other" | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 0.0 |
| Total of Respondents | 22.9% | 14.5% | 31.3% | 17.3% | 14.0% |

* "Other" includes: own agency, merchants, press, homeowners, parents, and bicyclists.

Table 12-14
Percent of Respondents Indicating
Target Groups Identified for CPR Programs
by Department Size Group

| Department Size Group | Ethnic & Economic Minorities | Civic & Service Clubs | Youth & Elderly | General Public | Other* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Categories A-D: Small Departments (1-100 sworn) | 15.2% | 16.2% | 36.4% | 16.2% | 15.2% |
| Categories E-G: Medium Depts. (101-500 sworn) | 30.4 | 12.5 | 28.6 | 14.3 | 14.3 |
| Categories H-I: Large Departments (over 500 sworn) | 37.5 | 8.3 | 16.7 | 29.2 | 8.3 |

* "Other" includes: own agency, merchants, press, homeowners, parents, and bicyclists.



--merchants (9)

--homeowners (6)

--the responding agency (4)

--press (2)

--bicyclists (2)

--parents (2)

Using the framework established earlier, i.e., dividing agencies into "CPR units," "PCR officers," and "others," significant differences can be seen between the espoused target groups and the emphasis of actual programs.

The youth category is the most heavily emphasized. This is complemented by the data on individual programs which shows over ten percent greater emphasis on youth services and education programs than on any other area.

The divergence is seen in the second ranked categories among target groups and program typologies. Every type of agency category (CPR unit, PCR officer, and other) shows ethnic minorities as the second most important target group. However, the programs which are primarily oriented toward ethnic groups are included in the typologies representing only 7.6 percent of all community-police relations programs submitted. The second ranking typology is public information, which most often includes the general public and civic/service club target groups.

Minorities. It is possible that many programs directed at the whole community may have the most impact on minorities. Certainly any police program focusing on improving the police image is seen by law enforcement as most needed in youth and ethnic minority sub-

populations. The fact remains, however, that programs implemented may not reach the desired target groups set forth by the agency.

"Other." The "other" category demonstrates that the variety of groups falling under the CPR umbrella is limited only by practical constraints, articulation of group needs, and the imagination and innovation of police policy makers and CPR personnel.

CPR Units. Furthermore, the relatively recent development of CPR as a formal component of the law enforcement organization engenders much indecisiveness over its role. This explains in part why four "CPR unit" agencies listed themselves as target groups.

Merchants. Merchants represent almost five percent of the target groups specified. Supported by the data on commercial crime prevention programs, merchants are an important community-police relations constituency.

Civic Groups. One possible explanation for this configuration is that organized CPR units envision civic groups and service clubs more as a supporting base for community-police relations programs than as a target group. Many of the most successful community-police relations programs are conducted under the joint auspices of police departments and service organizations. This reflects the assertion that "whatever the catalytic agent, crime prevention activities must be sponsored and organized."[10]

As was noted previously, almost 50 percent of the CPR units in our sample receive some funding for programs from sources outside of the agency budget; though the Federal government provides the majority of this funding, a significant portion is solicited from and/or donated by private groups. Moreover, these groups constitute an extremely



valuable resource in terms of volunteer time they contribute to community-police relations programs.

Civic groups may have some effect on the program emphasis on youth and ethnic minority groups. Considering the two major thrusts behind a CPR program, (1) antagonism by an easily definable group and (2) perception of needs for help by peripheral groups, police and service clubs may both see themselves as playing a helper or intervening role with youth and minorities.

General Public. Though public information programs are among the most prolific, the "general public" is a relatively low-status target group. This may be because it is much easier for law enforcement agencies to conduct such programs within traditional organizational boundaries and resource constraints. It is relatively easy to send officers out to speak, to get funding for pamphlets, to get public service time on the radio, to conduct tours of the department and hold open houses. Given the financial constraints and police personality framework, it is much more difficult to design and implement in-depth, objective community analyses followed by comprehensive attacks on identified problems. This is particularly true if the apparent solutions rest on the service side of the dichotomous law enforcement/service view of the police mission.

Within the size categories, and focusing on agencies with CPR units, only Category A (1-15 sworn personnel) does not list ethnic minorities as a target group, while five categories (A, B, F, H, and I) do not list civic and service clubs. Size categories C, D, and E are the only ones listing every target group category at least once.

Trends by Agency Size Groups. Further illustration can be made by examining the sample by size groups. The following major trends develop (see Table 12-14):

1. Interest in ethnic minorities increases with size of the department. This is not surprising since larger agencies are more likely to have high concentrations of minorities in their jurisdictions, as well as a historical emphasis on minorities as a major stimulus of CPR efforts.

2. The targeting of youth decreases with agency size. This can be explained by the increase in minority emphasis since undoubtedly a good portion of the minority group referred to is also in the youth age bracket.

3. As mentioned in the goals section, larger departments are more likely to have clearly defined guidelines for target groups; thus the "other" category declines as agency size increases.

4. Interest in civic groups and service clubs shows a decline with agency size increase. On the other hand, the general public category decreases between the small and medium size groups, and then is doubled in the large size group. This may further substantiate the notion presented earlier that formal private organizations, relatively speaking, are looked upon by larger agencies more as supportive groups than as targets for CPR efforts. Also, since minorities comprise a significant part of the "general public" in larger communities, there may be some program overlap in target group selection.

The priority given to the youth and ethnic minority categories should be considered a reflection of the CPR unit's commitment to surveying of community issues and reviewing citizen complaints. Roughly speaking, the goals and target group priorities would indicate that the needs assessment function of the CPR organization is being fulfilled. The gap is created when this assessment is translated into dynamic programs reflecting changing needs.

Training Applications. Training should be influenced by this target group identification. Certainly the policy impact on the police response to group targeting is critical; if this is not reflected in



training, officers may not be properly prepared to execute policy. Furthermore, if a particularly sensitive group is targeted for CPR response, a lack of proper training may only exacerbate an already difficult police problem.

Finally, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice asserts that improving community relations involves the re-examination of fundamental attitudes, as well as instituting programs and changing procedures and practices.[11] This can be accomplished only if police policy-makers and the community mutually wish to make an objective assessment of their needs and resources in order to arrive at an optimal solution; and if police can begin to resolve intradepartmental problems of cooperation involving training, budgeting, and so on.

## Community-Police Relations Programs

The final product of community-police relations needs assessment, policy making, policy review, and resources assessment, is the community-police relations program. This is the mechanism through which the police and community will, at least theoretically, interact.

### Sources of Program Information

Due to the relatively recent appearance of community-police relations programs in formal police organization, many agencies must rely on outside sources of information about new or existing programs in other jurisdictions. Such information is frequently useful to agencies planning their own programs. Furthermore, the "grass roots development of a lay component to the criminal justice system often occurs in response to information programs defining problems related

to crime."[12]

The responses to a question on the Advisory Commission's questionnaire regarding these sources of information are divided into two major categories: criminal justice oriented and non-criminal justice. Each of these has four subcategories:

1. Criminal Justice
   a. professional publications and organizations
   b. non-local law enforcement agencies
   c. other police agencies
   d. community-police relations organizations
2. Non-Criminal Justice
   a. community agencies/commissions
   b. personal contacts
   c. news media
   d. other

Criminal Justice Sources. Over 50 percent of the responses are accounted for by the categories "professional publications and organizations" (30.6 percent) and "other police agencies" (21.0 percent). Overall, the criminal justice sources are indicated in 72.9 percent of the responses. Agencies without a CPR unit have a slightly higher tendency to rely on these sources (75.9 percent) than agencies with CPR units (70.9 percent) or with PCR officers (72.0 percent). Thus, in general, the nature of the community-police relations organization does not make any significant difference in the utilization of criminal justice versus non-criminal justice sources. (See Table 12-15.)

However, within these categories there are some major differences. Responding departments with CPR units relied on non-local law enforcement agencies only 7.4 percent of the time, while 23.1 percent of the "other" agency category used these sources. This is probably due in part to the heavy dependency of small departments (which dominate the



Table 12-15
Percentage Distribution of Respondents:
Sources of Information for CPR Programs
By Type of CPR Organization

| Sources of Information | CPR Units | PCR Officers | Other Agencies | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Professional Publications & Organizations | 25.6% | 34.2% | 32.4% | 30.6% |
| 2. Non-Local Law Enforcement Agencies | 7.4 | 9.7 | 23.1 | 13.1 |
| 3. Other Police Agencies | 23.1 | 21.1 | 18.5 | 21.0 |
| 4. CPR Organizations | 14.8 | 7.0 | 1.9 | 8.2 |
| 5. Community Agencies & Commissions | 4.1 | 7.0 | 2.8 | 4.7 |
| 6. Personal Contacts | 13.2 | 10.5 | 3.7 | 9.3 |
| 7. News Media | 8.3 | 6.1 | 6.5 | 7.0 |
| 8. Other | 3.3 | 4.4 | 11.1 | 6.1 |
| Criminal Justice(1-4) | 70.9 | 72.0 | 75.9 | 72.9 |
| Non-Criminal Justice(5-8) | 29.1 | 28.0 | 24.1 | 27.1 |

Table 12-16
Percentage Distribution of Respondents:
Sources of Information for CPR Programs
By Departmental Size Group

| Sources of Information | Categ. A-D 1-100 Sworn | Categ. E-G 101-500 Swn | Categ. H-I Over 500 Swn | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Professional Publications & Organizations | 30.5% | 20.0% | 23.5% | 30.6% |
| 2. Non-Local Law Enforcement Agencies | 13.6 | 2.2 | 0.0 | 13.1 |
| 3. Other Police Agencies | 20.3 | 26.7 | 23.5 | 21.0 |
| 4. CPR Organizations | 13.6 | 17.8 | 11.8 | 8.2 |
| 5. Community Agencies & Commissions | 1.7 | 8.9 | 0.0 | 4.7 |
| 6. Personal Contacts | 13.6 | 11.1 | 17.7 | 9.3 |
| 7. News Media | 1.7 | 11.1 | 23.5 | 7.0 |
| 8. Other | 5.1 | 2.2 | 0.0 | 6.1 |
| Criminal Justice (1-4) | 78.0 | 66.7 | 58.8 | 72.9 |
| Non-Criminal Justice (5-8) | 22.0 | 33.3 | 41.2 | 27.1 |

"other" category) on California Council on Criminal Justice (CCCJ), California Youth Authority, and Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST) resources. As expected, a much greater percentage of CPR units (14.8 percent) utilize community-police relations organizations for information than do "other" agencies (1.9 percent).

Non-Criminal Justice Sources. Within the non-criminal justice category, the only significant factor is that there is no difference of any consequence between unit, officer and other agencies except in the "other" category of information sources. The agencies with no CPR unit or officer have three times as many responses in the "other" category as those with units and officers.

In analyzing this data by size group, there is a reduced tendency to rely on criminal justice sources as agency size increases: 78.0 percent of the small departments' responses are in the criminal justice category, while only 66.7 percent of the medium and 58.8 percent of the large departments fall into this category. (See Table 12-16.)

Possibly due to the quality of the metropolitan printed and electronic media, there is a very direct relationship between agency size and dependency on news media sources. Only 1.7 percent of small departments utilize these sources and 11.1 percent of the medium size group, but 23.5 percent of the large size group rely on news media for information.

Medium size departments indicate a greater response in the "other police agencies" and "CPR organizations" subcategories than either the small or the large departments.

The data on information sources implies that there are apparently no regular information channels that cut across organization and agency



size boundaries. More important, departments do not appear to depend on the input of community or academic sources; this violates one of the goals of the CPR mission, i.e., to survey and assess community needs and resources. Certainly many programs in their conceptual form could draw heavily from a broad base of community knowledge and expertise.

Concepts of Program Development

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice identified a number of principles for community-police relations programs. These include the fact that community-police relations is not merely a public relations effort; it is "a long-range, full-scale effort to acquaint the police and the community with each other's problems and to stimulate action aimed at solving those problems; and the CPR business is not exclusively that of a unit, but of the whole department.[13]

Dr. Bruce Olson lists three primary ways of initiating a community-police relations program:[14]

1. Use a program model that has been successful elsewhere;
2. Adopt a program which a local interest group is demanding;
3. Develop new programs based on existing resources and interests in the department.

However, as Olson points out, none of the above necessarily respond to the actual needs of the total community. He suggests an alternative utilizing a marketing research methodology. This plan has two primary objectives:[15]

1. To determine which community-police relations programs would be "consumed by the most residents in a community; and
2. To examine how socio-political consumer differences may be related to program differences.

Dan G. Pursuit, John D. Gerletti, et. al., in their book Police Programs for Preventing Crime and Delinquency, discussed a number of types of community-police relations programs as models for development by departments around the country. They used the following criteria:[16]

> Programs selected were those which had one or more of the following characteristics: were innovative, used evaluation procedures, made maximum use of officer time at reasonable cost, used volunteers, could be implemented in various sized communities, involved citizens effectively, reached youth at various stage of development, and tended to improve the police image because of more service oriented activities.

Inherent in the selection of programs, which implies the selection of community-police relations goals and target groups, are problems similar to those experienced in programs to maximize prevention. For example, Carl Shoup states that the goal of minimizing crime for the total community is likely to be accompanied by the cost of distributing police protection unequally.[17] In Shoup's example, the community would desire the ideal of equal distribution of police protection; similarly, the community would desire, and probably expect, an equal distribution of community-police relations programs (in terms of police effort, not necessarily types of programs). However, equality of distribution does not necessarily imply an "equitable" distribution of programs, particularly in large metropolitan areas with many disparate socio-economic classes of publics with varying needs.

Public policy, as Joseph Metz advocates, must identify the sources and amounts of needed funds to executive community-police relations programs; this assumes that another mechanism, ideally the CPR unit, has identified the programs most needed and desired by the targeted groups. Metz cautions policy makers to establish an objective cost-benefit analysis



so that certain costs of the problem (i.e., community costs such as security guards, alarm systems, etc.) are not excluded from police calculations.[18]

Furthermore, costs of a somewhat intangible dimension, such as personal harm, must somehow be included. Effective community-police relations programs do not necessarily have to involve a complex cost-benefit analysis, such as the above implies. However, this may be critical for long-range success and for diagnosing the potential for community acceptance if the program must exist in a dynamic demographic system and a department burdened with intense competition for resources.[19]

In The Community and Criminal Justice: A Guide for Organizing Action, communities unfamiliar with the processes involved in the development of community-police relations programs are urged to review the experiences of selected existing programs. The manuscript, prepared for the National Conference on Criminal Justice, lists the following as program considerations for decision makers:[20]

--needs of the population to be served

--classification of individuals, organizations, or agencies to be involved

--definition of components or activities

--criteria for participation of target population

--time span for conduct of activities

--number of individuals to be involved over time span

--determination of resource requirements

--determination of costs of resource requirements

--identification of source and amount of funds to implement programs

Programs Identified in the Questionnaire

Based on the survey question regarding number of community relations programs conducted by the agency in each of the years from 1968-1972, the data from the individual program sheets represents a significant sample of programs.

Over 90 percent of the general program figures submitted in response to the survey question were conducted by agencies with CPR units or officers. In contrast, 63.9 percent of the departments submitting program sheets were agencies with CPR units or officers.

Rather than analyzing the raw numbers of programs indicated in the survey, a brief examination will be made of the percentage increase/decrease in number of programs listed between 1968 and 1972.

Total programs increased by 148.6 percent. However, the effect of the creation of the majority of CPR units after 1969 is shown by the 251.8 percent increase in the programs conducted by CPR unit agencies over this period.

Within the category of CPR units, the relative increases are greatest among larger agencies. Programs indicated by respondents in the small size group (under 100 sworn personnel) increased by 170 percent between 1968 and 1972; in the medium size group (101 to 500 sworn personnel), by 420 percent; and in the large size group, by 595 percent. (See Table 12-17.)

This illustrates the advantage in resources, program needs, and possible conceptual motivation of the larger departments.



Table 12-17
Percentage Increase/Decrease in Programs
Conducted Between the Years 1968-1972
By Type of CPR Organization

| Size Category | CPR Units | PCR Officers | Other Depts. | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | 0.0% | 244.4% | 150.0% | 190.5% |
| B | -200.0 | 416.7 | 0.0 | 312.5 |
| C | 590.0 | 128.8 | 225.0 | 137.8 |
| D | 140.4 | 1763.6 | -100.0 | 228.4 |
| E | 760.0 | -39.7 | 0.0 | -4.5 |
| F | 500.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 500.0 |
| G | 285.7 | -16.6 | 400.0 | 102.9 |
| H | 300.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 300.0 |
| I | 846.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 846.2 |
| Total | 251.8% | 124.8% | 168.4% | 148.6% |
| Small Depts. A-D | 170.0% | | | |
| Medium Depts. E-G | 420.9% | | | |
| Large Depts. H-I | 595.8% | | | |

Development of a Typological Framework

There are many views on what programs properly fall within the boundaries of community-police relations. For example, in its report, State-Local Relations in the Criminal Justice System, the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations (ACIR) suggested that there be an increased emphasis on the role of the citizen in crime reduction and prevention. The ACIR encourages the citizen to provide three services: (1) informing, (2) testifying, and (3) reforming and revitalizing. These could be translated into such community-police relations programs as policy boards, information booklets, crime "alerts," and aiding in

police recruitment. The ACIR further advocates that police be increasingly integrated into the life of the community they serve.[21]

The Task Force on Police of the President's Commission suggested the following program areas for community-police relations:[22]

1. educating the public concerning some of the aspects of police work;
2. programs to prevent crimes;
3. programs to provide services other than law enforcement to the community.

The International City Management Association, in Municipal Police Administration, outlines the three basic "legs" that community relations stands on:[23] (1) public relations; (2) community service; (3) community participation. These are then manifested in the following types of community-police relations programs:[24] (1) educational (including police and community leaders); (2) police institutes in community relations; (3) police training; (4) metropolitan police and community relations programs; (5) special theme projects.

In 1968, the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders established the following guidelines for response to minority relations problems:[25]

1. effective communication between ghetto residents and local government;
2. improved ability of local government to respond to needs and problems of ghetto residents;
3. expanded opportunities for indigenous leadership to participate in shaping decisions and policies affecting their community;
4. increased accountability of public officials.



These can be adapted into a framework for community-police relations programs by generalizing them to encompass the entire community:

--effective communication between police and community;

--ability of police to respond to needs and problems of the people;

--provision of opportunities for active involvement of community members in program leadership roles;

--through review of citizen complaints and survey of issues, provide for accountability of police in their responses to citizen problems.

In 1970, the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, through its Task Force on Law and Law Enforcement, re-emphasized the importance of individual community members' involvement in crime prevention and community relations. The Task Force, placing an additional emphasis on personal responsibility, suggested the following citizen-police programs:[26]

--improved crime reporting;

--preventive patrol;

--community centers;

--anti-crime organizations;

--auxiliary groups;

--block mothers;

--youth patrols;

--youth activities.

O. W. Wilson and Roy McLaren, in Police Administration (third edition), provide four classifications of police-community relations programs:[27] (1) training; (2) storefront centers; (3) preventive services; (4) community councils. Wilson and McLaren reiterate the importance of public support for effective police administration. It is crucial that the police engender both support and personal responsiblity among citizens.

The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Standards and Goals listed several alternative plans for citizen action related to the criminal justice system:[28]

> --crime-reporting campaigns including such neighborhood efforts as Crime-Stop, Project Alert, Community Radio Watch, and informer-oriented programs such as Project TIP (Turn in a Pusher). Other types of community anti-crime programs include street-lighting campaigns and programs to reduce auto theft.
>
> --the Commission also lists recreational programs such as summer camps for disadvantaged youth, sports activities and tournaments, though these are not viewed as a panacea for crime.
>
> --the Commission indicates the purposes of Youth Service Bureaus to be the diversion of youth from the criminal justice system; advocacy, brokerage, and crisis intervention on behalf of youth; and youth development.

Program Classification. There are, as demonstrated above, a great variety of ways to classify community-police relations programs. One method is to divide them according to their client group, e.g., youth, minority, merchant. Another is to classify them according to the process by which the program is achieving a goal: diversion, public information,



training. A third method is that of classifying programs by their purpose: crime prevention, traffic safety, police strategy change.

There are few available resources that list existing community-police relations programs according to the framework we envision here. One example is given by Pursuit and Gerletti who utilize a programmatic division in their book on police prevention programs which has the following framework: (1) community relations, including Basic Radio Car Plan, community service unit, coffee klatch, mini-town meetings, youth bureaus; (2) prevention programs for specific offenses, including family crisis intervention, Operation Identification,burglary and auto theft prevention, block parents, drug abuse prevention; (3) educational and school related programs, including cop on campus, cadets, Officer Friendly, ride-alongs, and school resource officers; (4) recreational programs and youth involvement, including clubs, sports and activities leagues; (5) and technological programs, including "Sky Knight" and computerized crime fighting.[29]

Olson's Typology. The most complete model, utilizing all of the above methods, was constructed by Dr. Bruce T. Olson, who has granted the Commission permission to use his basic catalog of types of community-police relations programs.[30]

The Commission staff has made some modifications and developed general categories within each of Dr. Olson's seven typologies. These are not meant to be exhaustive, but merely reflective of the programs submitted to the Commission:

A. PUBLIC INFORMATION

1. Police Image Reinforcement
2. Community Exposure to Police Operations
3. Community Education-Awareness Services

B. CRIME PREVENTION

1. Crime Specific
2. Business-Commercial Protection
3. Residential Protection
4. Personal Protection
5. Citizen Support Recognition

C. TRAFFIC

1. General Traffic Safety
2. Bicycle-Pedestrian Safety
3. Motor Vehicle Safety

D. POLICE STRATEGY CHANGES

1. Community Involvement in the Police Function
2. Community Research and Resource Development
3. Rehabilitation and Counseling Services
4. Community Outreach and Police Image Rejuvenation
5. Police Innovation and Functional Diversification

E. YOUTH EDUCATION AND SERVICES PROGRAMS

1. Youth Exposure to Police Operations
2. Youth Services Organizations
3. Youth Development
4. Education and Training

F. POLICE WORK ROLE AND WORK CONDUCT CHANGES

1. Image Modification
2. Interagency Cooperation
3. Citizen Policy/ Operations Intervention

G. POLICE TRAINING

1. Career Development
2. Pre-Service Training and Orientation
3. Auxiliary Services
4. Minority Recruitment and Development



There are three major assumptions in this typological framework:

1. a majority of the programs are of a traditional orientation, and are thus present in four of the seven typologies;

2. community-police relations is a dynamic field with a potentially major impact on police policy making and the role of the individual officer; this is reflected in two typologies;

3. there is an inextricable relationship between community-police relations and police training, as represented by the final typology.

Appendix H will include a discussion of specific program examples within five of the program typologies.

General Respondent Data

Of the 248 agencies returning the community-police relations section of the Advisory Commission's questionnaire, 180 or 72.6 percent, of them also submitted program sheets. These 180 agencies include:

--52 with community-police relations units (28.9 percent)

--63 with police-community relations officers (35.0 percent)

--65 with no designated CPR unit or officer (36.1 percent).

Thus almost 65 percent have some formally designated CPR organization, either a unit or officer. This compares with only 56.5 percent of the total respondent sample that have a CPR unit or officer. However, it is not surprising that these agencies are more likely to submit program data since they have specifically directed some segment of their department to conduct such programs.

The analysis of the programs of these 180 agencies is viewed as significant; the agencies represent 42 percent of all law enforcement agencies in California.

Eight of the 60 law enforcement agencies in the sample with CPR units and 15 of the eighty agencies with designated PCR officers did not submit program data. Only four of these 23 departments fall into the medium or large size groups. These 23 agencies represent 9.3 percent of the sample. Some factors explaining their lack of program response include:

--newly created positions responding to the very recent and pervasive trends toward police-community relations;

--different typological conceptions of the community-police relations philosophy.

Integration of Actual Programs and the Typological Framework

Using the typological framework outlined previously, the program types submitted by the sample agencies are classified. This should give a clearer picture of the boundaries implied by each typology and each category within the typology:

A. PUBLIC INFORMATION

1. Police Image Reinforcement
   --honor guard
   --police appreciation week
   --welcome programs
   --displays and exhibits
   --participation in civic meetings
   --speakers bureaus

2. Community Exposure to Police Operations
   --ride-alongs for the general public
   --tours/open houses

3. Community Education/Awareness Services
   --hunter safety
   --general safety
   --radio and television spots



   --rumor control
   --public information requests
   --pamphlets
   --"koffee klatches"
   --radio alert
   --senior citizen classes

B. CRIME PREVENTION

1. Crime Specific
   --crime prevention aids
   --Operation Identification
   --anti-fraud program
   --auto-theft prevention
   --burglary-theft prevention, general

2. Business/Commercial Protection
   --burglary prevention
   --shoplifting prevention
   --check alert

3. Residential Protection
   --vacation house check
   --citizen/neighborhood alert
   --residential burglary/theft protection

4. Personal Protection
   --female defense tactics
   --senior citizen protection
   --anti-child molesting program

5. Citizen Support Recognition
   --awards to citizens

C. TRAFFIC

1. General Traffic Safety
   --general traffic safety education
   --hitchhiking

2. Bicycle-Pedestrian Safety
   --bicycle safety
   --pedestrian safety
   --safety patrol

3. Motor Vehicle Safety
   --vehicle safety
   --drivers education
   --motorcycle, dune buggy, trail bike safety

D. POLICE STRATEGY CHANGES

1. Community Involvement in the Police Function
   --community liaison officer
   --agent programs
   --citizen report form
   --community/minority advisory councils
   --neighborhood workshops
   --clergy patrol

2. Community Research and Resource Development
   --general employment referrals
   --law enforcement career development for minorities
   --urban study
   --community survey

3. Rehabilitation and Counseling Services
   --prisoner work program
   --drunk rehabilitation
   --transsexual counseling
   --English school

4. Community Outreach and Image Rejuvenation
   --community special events
   --boosters clubs
   --police choral groups, bands, horse troopers
   --social use of the pistol range
   --emergency gas

5. Police Innovation and Functional Diversification
   --Basic Car Plan
   --police dog program
   --neighborhood police service center
   --community-police relations unit development
   --staff briefings
   --judges' luncheon

E. YOUTH EDUCATION AND SERVICE PROGRAMS

1. Youth Exposure to Police Operations
   --youth ride-along program
   --government day
   --court visits

2. Youth Service Organizations
   --youth services bureaus
   --teen councils
   --community service officers



3. Youth Development
   --Explorers, Boy Scouts
   --police cadets
   --police and sheriff activities leagues
   --sports programs
   --special program (e.g., summer camps)

4. Education and Training
   --school classes
   --rap sessions
   --School Resource Officers, Cops on Campus
   --Officer Bill, Officer Friendly
   --drug education
   --field trips
   --non-school classes
   --liaison with educational administrators

F. POLICE WORK ROLE AND WORK CONDUCT CHANGES

1. Image Modification
   --officer of the month/year
   --non-uniform blazer

2. Interagency Cooperation
   --foreign internship

3. Citizen Policy/Operations Intervention
   --citizen jailer
   --campus police
   --citizen gram

G. POLICE TRAINING

1. Career Development
   --career development training
   --deputy training
   --police reserves

2. Pre-Service Training and Orientation
   --pre-civil service test school
   --recruit orientation

3. Auxiliary Services
   --women's auxiliary

4. Minority Recruitment and Development
   --minority police internship

Obviously there are a number of program types that are not included above, including some very crucial ones such as community-police relations training under the final typology. However, it must be emphasized that we have developed this framework from Dr. Olson's outline as an example of how community-police relations programs may be classified. This serves the purpose of our examination of the program data. This framework can, and should, be modified by each law enforcement agency to conform to the community needs and departmental resources present.

Analysis of Specific Program Data: Agency Participation

An examination of the participation of agencies in each of the program typologies demonstrates the differences in individual agencies' program emphases and diversification. The following data was based on the number of agencies submitting at least one program in a particular typology.

Distribution by Size Category. There are no real surprises in this general ranking of typologies by percentage of sample departments submitting programs in each typology:

1. youth education and services (90.6 percent)
2. public information (65.6 percent)
3. crime prevention (60.0 percent)
4. traffic (50.0 percent)
5. police strategy changes (16.7 percent)
6. police work role and work conduct changes (3.9 percent)
7. police training (3.3 percent)

Size categories A, B, F, and H have no programs in the police work role and work conduct changes typology; size categories A, D, E, and F have



no programs in the police training typology. With these exceptions, each size category is represented in every typology. (See Table 12-18.)

The typologies previously identified as being of a more traditional orientation - (A) Public Information, (b) Crime Prevention, (c) Traffic, and (E) Youth Education and Services - have a much higher average level of agency participation than the other typologies, 70.8 percent to 16.6 percent.

Distribution by Size Group. When the size categories are broken down into size groups, a major shift in typology priority develops between the small and medium size group ( under 500 sworn personnel) and the large size group. The rankings of typologies for the small and medium size departments parallels that listed above for the overall sample. For large departments, youth services and public information are also ranked first and second; however, police strategy changes and crime prevention are juxtaposed in the third and fifth positions, as are police work role and work conduct changes and police training in the sixth and seventh positions. Traffic remains fourth ranked. (See Table 12-19.)

In terms of relative commitment to individual program typologies, the larger departments are much more likely to participate in the non-traditional typologies than are small or medium size departments. Also, large departments are more involved in public information programs and less committed to crime prevention programs than small or medium size agencies. Departments in the small size category have a lower level of participation than medium or large departments in every typology except crime prevention.

Table 12-18
Numerical and Percentage Distribution of Departments
Submitting Programs in Each Typology by Size Category

| Size Category | Number of Departments in Each Typology A | B | C | D | E | F | G | Total Departments |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | 19 | 17 | 18 | 2 | 30 | ---- | ---- | 40 |
| % of departments | 47.5 | 42.5 | 45.0 | 5.0 | 75.0 | | | 100% |
| B | 13 | 12 | 11 | 1 | 18 | ---- | 1 | 20 |
| % of departments | 65.0 | 60.0 | 55.0 | 5.0 | 90.0 | | 0.5 | 100% |
| C | 29 | 35 | 26 | 6 | 49 | 2 | 1 | 50 |
| % of departments | 58.0 | 70.0 | 52.0 | 12.0 | 98.0 | 4.0 | 2.0 | 100% |
| D | 28 | 22 | 13 | 4 | 31 | 2 | ---- | 34 |
| % of departments | 82.0 | 64.7 | 38.2 | 11.8 | 91.2 | 5.9 | | 100% |
| E | 12 | 10 | 12 | 6 | 15 | 1 | ---- | 16 |
| % of departments | 75.0 | 62.5 | 75.0 | 37.5 | 93.8 | 6.3 | | 100% |
| F | 5 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 6 | ---- | ---- | 6 |
| % of departments | 83.3 | 83.3 | 16.7 | 33.3 | 100.0 | | | 100% |
| G | 6 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 7 | 1 | 2 | 7 |
| % of departments | 85.7 | 57.1 | 71.4 | 57.1 | 100.0 | 14.3 | 28.6 | 100% |
| H | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | ---- | 1 | 2 |
| % of departments | 100.0 | 100.0 | 50.0 | 50.0 | 100.0 | | 50.0 | 100% |
| I | 4 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 5 |
| % of departments | 80.0 | 20.0 | 60.0 | 80.0 | 100.0 | 20.0 | 20.0 | 100% |
| Total | 118 | 108 | 90 | 30 | 163 | 7 | 6 | 180 |
| % of departments | 65.6 | 60.0 | 50.0 | 16.7 | 90.6 | 3.9 | 3.3 | 100% |

Table 12-19
Numerical and Percentage Distribution of Departments
Submitting Programs in Each Typology by Size Group

| Size Group | Number of Departments in Each Typology A | B | C | D | E | F | G | Total Departments |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A - D (under 100 sworn) | 89 | 86 | 68 | 13 | 128 | 4 | 2 | 144 |
| % of departments | 61.8 | 59.7 | 47.2 | 9.0 | 88.9 | 2.8 | 1.4 | 100% |
| E - G (101-500 sworn) | 23 | 19 | 18 | 12 | 28 | 2 | 2 | 29 |
| % of departments | 79.3 | 65.5 | 62.1 | 41.4 | 96.6 | 6.9 | 6.9 | 100% |
| H - I (over 500 sworn) | 6 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 7 | 1 | 2 | 7 |
| % of departments | 85.7 | 42.9 | 57.1 | 71.4 | 100.0 | 14.3 | 28.6 | 100% |
| Total | 118 | 108 | 90 | 30 | 163 | 7 | 6 | 180 |
| % of departments | 65.6 | 60.0 | 50.0 | 16.7 | 90.6 | 3.9 | 3.3 | 100% |



Program diversification, in terms of general agency participation, can also be measured by the number of various size departments in each size category submitting programs in several different typologies. For example, no department in Category A has more than four typologies represented, whereas no department in Category G has less than three typologies represented. There is a direct relationship between agency size and the number of typologies represented. (See Table 12-21.)

Distribution by CPR Organization. Referring back to typology rankings, there are some significant differences between the participation levels of agencies with CPR units and those without. As would be expected, these roughly correspond with the differences attributed to agency size. For example, 32.7 percent of the agencies with CPR units have programs in the police strategy change typology; only 7.7 percent of the agencies without any formal CPR unit or officer are represented by this typology. Those agencies in this "other" category made up this difference by a much higher concentration in the youth services typology (95.4 percent to 80.8 percent for agencies with CPR units). (See Table 12-20.)

## Analysis of Program Data: Program Distribution

A more reliable evaluation of the community-police relations programming effort can be gained by using the distribution of the programs themselves as one dimension for analysis, rather than general agency participation levels. Overall, the rankings of typologies are not significantly different between the program and agency participation dimensions, but the relative indices of commitment to various types of programs are quite changed. For example, in the previous discussion the small agency size

Table 12-20
Numerical and Percentage Distribution of Departments
Submitting Programs in Each Typology by CPR Organization

| Typology | CPR Units # | CPR Units % | Full-Time Officers # | Full-Time Officers % | Part-Time Officers # | Part-Time Officers % | Other # | Other % | Total # | Total % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | 39 | 75.0 | 12 | 85.7 | 31 | 63.3 | 36 | 55.4 | 118 | 65.6 |
| B | 39 | 75.0 | 7 | 50.0 | 30 | 61.2 | 32 | 49.2 | 108 | 60.0 |
| C | 34 | 65.8 | 7 | 50.0 | 20 | 40.8 | 29 | 44.6 | 90 | 50.0 |
| D | 17 | 32.7 | 4 | 28.6 | 4 | 8.2 | 5 | 7.7 | 30 | 16.7 |
| E | 42 | 80.8 | 12 | 85.7 | 47 | 95.9 | 62 | 95.4 | 163 | 90.6 |
| F | 2 | 3.9 | 3 | 21.4 | ---- | ---- | 2 | 3.1 | 7 | 3.9 |
| G | 4 | 7.7 | 1 | 7.4 | 1 | 2.0 | ---- | ---- | 6 | 3.3 |
| Total | 52 | 100% | 14 | 100% | 49 | 100% | 65 | 100% | 180 | 100% |

Table 12-21
Numerical and Percentage Distribution of Departments
by Number of Typologies Represented Among Submitted Programs
Within Each Size Category

| Size Category | | # of depts. with programs in 1-7 typol. 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Total Departments |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | # | 11 | 17 | 8 | 4 | ---- | ---- | ---- | 40 |
| | % | 27.5 | 42.5 | 20.0 | 10.0 | | | | 100% |
| B | # | 3 | 4 | 7 | 6 | ---- | ---- | ---- | 20 |
| | % | 15.0 | 20.0 | 35.0 | 30.0 | | | | 100% |
| C | # | 10 | 7 | 11 | 19 | 2 | 1 | ---- | 50 |
| | % | 20.0 | 14.0 | 22.0 | 38.0 | 4.0 | 2.0 | | 100% |
| D | # | 4 | 7 | 12 | 7 | 3 | 1 | ---- | 34 |
| | % | 11.8 | 20.6 | 35.3 | 20.6 | 8.8 | 2.9 | | 100% |
| E | # | ---- | 4 | 4 | 5 | 2 | 1 | ---- | 16 |
| | % | | 25.0 | 25.0 | 31.2 | 12.5 | 6.3 | | 100% |
| F | # | ---- | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | ---- | ---- | 6 |
| | % | | 33.3 | 33.3 | 16.7 | 16.7 | | | 100% |
| G | # | ---- | ---- | 3 | 1 | 2 | 1 | ---- | 7 |
| | % | | | 42.9 | 14.3 | 28.6 | 14.3 | | 100% |
| H | # | ---- | ---- | ---- | 1 | 1 | ---- | ---- | 2 |
| | % | | | | 50.0 | 50.0 | | | 100% |
| I | # | ---- | 1 | 2 | 1 | ---- | ---- | 1 | 5 |
| | % | | 20.0 | 40.0 | 20.0 | | | 20.0 | 100% |



group (under 100 sworn personnel) has a higher participation level than the larger group in only one typology. However, when using the measure of percentage emphasis on individual typolcgies (i.e., percentage of the total programs in this size category in an individual typology), the small departments showed more emphasis than large departments in three typologies. (See Table 12-23.)

In terms of general program development, agencies with CPR units seem to be more productive. Of agencies submitting program data, CPR units represent only 28.9 percent of the sample and have 43.4 percent of the programs submitted. In contrast, agencies with no identifiable CPR unit or officer represent 36.1 percent of the sample and possess only 25.5 percent of the programs. (See Table 12-24.)

However, there is a much more important conclusion that impinges on the conduct of community-police relations in California.

With the exception of Police Strategy Changes (admittedly, an important exception), there are no significant differences between the percentage distribution of program typologies in departments with CPR units and "other" departments. In other words, on a relative basis, both departments with CPR units and those without are executing basically the same types of programs.

In both of these types of departments, youth education and services represents the heaviest program concentration. This is followed in order by public information, crime prevention, and traffic. Note that these are the four typologies previously identified as "traditional." Furthermore, these two types of departments closely approximate the average distribution (across size categories) of program typologies.

Table 12-22
Numerical and Percentage Distribution of Community-Police Relations Programs in Each Typology By Size Category

| Typology*/ Size Category | A # | A % | B # | B % | C # | C % | D # | D % | E # | E % | F # | F % | G # | G % | TOTAL # | TOTAL % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | 27 | 10.1 | 20 | 10.8 | 21 | 15.7 | 2 | 3.2 | 47 | 11.7 | ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- | 117 | 10.9 |
| (% of category) | (23.1) | | (17.1) | | (17.9) | | ( 1.7) | | (40.2) | | | | | | (100%) | |
| B | 23 | 8.6 | 14 | 7.6 | 15 | 11.2 | 1 | 1.6 | 37 | 9.2 | ---- | ---- | 1 | 9.1 | 91 | 8.5 |
| (% of category) | (25.3) | | (15.4) | | (16.5) | | ( 1.1) | | (40.7) | | | | ( 1.1) | | (100%) | |
| C | 78 | 29.1 | 59 | 31.9 | 35 | 26.1 | 8 | 12.7 | 111 | 27.6 | 2 | 28.6 | 1 | 9.1 | 294 | 27.5 |
| (% of category) | (26.5) | | (20.1) | | (11.9) | | ( 2.7) | | (37.8) | | ( 0.7) | | ( 0.3) | | (100%) | |
| D | 62 | 23.1 | 41 | 22.2 | 29 | 21.6 | 5 | 7.9 | 80 | 19.9 | 2 | 28.9 | ---- | ---- | 219 | 20.5 |
| (% of category) | (28.3) | | (18.7) | | (13.2) | | ( 2.3) | | (36.5) | | ( 0.9) | | | | (100%) | |
| E | 29 | 10.8 | 19 | 10.3 | 15 | 11.2 | 9 | 14.3 | 38 | 9.5 | 1 | 14.3 | ---- | ---- | 111 | 10.4 |
| (% of category) | (26.1) | | (17.1) | | (13.5) | | ( 8.1) | | (34.2) | | ( 0.9) | | | | (100%) | |
| F | 11 | 4.1 | 13 | 7.0 | 1 | 0.7 | 2 | 3.2 | 18 | 4.5 | ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- | 45 | 4.2 |
| (% of category) | (24.4) | | (28.9) | | ( 2.2) | | ( 4.4) | | (40.0) | | | | | | (100%) | |
| G | 17 | 6.3 | 8 | 4.3 | 5 | 3.7 | 4 | 6.4 | 19 | 4.7 | 1 | 14.3 | 4 | 36.4 | 58 | 5.4 |
| (% of category) | (29.3) | | (13.8) | | ( 8.6) | | ( 6.9) | | (32.8) | | ( 1.7) | | ( 6.9) | | (100%) | |
| H | 3 | 1.1 | 5 | 2.7 | 2 | 1.5 | 2 | 3.2 | 9 | 2.2 | ---- | ---- | 1 | 9.1 | 22 | 2.1 |
| (% of category) | (13.6) | | (22.7) | | ( 9.1) | | ( 9.1) | | (40.9) | | | | ( 4.6) | | (100%) | |
| I | 18 | 6.7 | 6 | 3.2 | 11 | 8.2 | 30 | 47.6 | 43 | 10.7 | 1 | 14.3 | 4 | 36.4 | 113 | 10.6 |
| (% of category) | (15.9) | | ( 5.3) | | ( 9.7) | | (26.6) | | (38.1) | | ( 0.9) | | ( 3.5) | | (100%) | |
| TOTAL | 268 | 100% | 185 | 100% | 134 | 100% | 63 | 100% | 402 | 100% | 7 | 100% | 11 | 100% | 1070 | 100% |
| (% of category) | (25.1) | | (17.3) | | (12.5) | | ( 5.9) | | (37.6) | | ( 0.7) | | ( 1.0) | | (100%) | |

*TYPOLOGIES: A = Public Information, B = Crime Prevention, C = Traffic, D = Police Strategy Changes, E = Youth Education & Services, F = Police Work Role & Work Conduct Changes, G = Police Training



Table 12-23
Numerical and Percentage Distribution of Community-Police Relations Programs in Each Typology by Size Group

| Size Category | Number of Programs in Each Typology A | B | C | D | E | F | G | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A - D (under 100 sworn) | 190 | 134 | 100 | 16 | 275 | 4 | 2 | 721 |
| % of category | 26.4 | 18.6 | 13.9 | 2.2 | 38.1 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 100% |
| E - G (101-500 sworn) | 57 | 40 | 21 | 15 | 75 | 2 | 4 | 214 |
| % of category | 26.6 | 18.7 | 9.8 | 7.0 | 35.1 | 0.9 | 1.9 | 100% |
| H - I (over 500 sworn) | 21 | 11 | 13 | 32 | 52 | 1 | 5 | 135 |
| % of category | 15.6 | 8.2 | 9.6 | 23.7 | 38.5 | 0.7 | 3.7 | 100% |
| Total | 268 | 185 | 134 | 63 | 402 | 7 | 11 | 1070 |
| % of category | 25.1 | 17.3 | 12.5 | 5.9 | 37.6 | 0.7 | 1.0 | 100% |

Table 12-24
Numerical and Percentage Distribution of Community-Police Relations Programs in Each Typology by CPR Organization

| Typology | CPR Unit # | CPR Unit % | Officer FT* # | Officer FT* % | Officer PT** # | Officer PT** % | Other # | Other % | Total # | Total % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A (%) | 101 | 21.7 | 38 | 38.8 | 58 | 24.8 | 71 | 26.0 | 268 | 25.1 |
| | (37.7) | | (14.2) | | (21.6) | | (26.5) | | (100%) | |
| B (%) | 85 | 18.3 | 14 | 14.3 | 36 | 15.4 | 50 | 18.3 | 185 | 17.3 |
| | (45.9) | | ( 7.6) | | (19.5) | | (27.0) | | (100%) | |
| C (%) | 47 | 10.1 | 8 | 8.2 | 39 | 16.7 | 40 | 14.6 | 134 | 12.5 |
| | (35.1) | | ( 6.0) | | (29.1) | | (29.9) | | (100%) | |
| D (%) | 46 | 9.9 | 7 | 7.1 | 4 | 1.7 | 6 | 2.2 | 63 | 5.0 |
| | (73.0) | | (11.1) | | ( 6.4) | | ( 9.5) | | (100%) | |
| E (%) | 175 | 37.6 | 27 | 27.6 | 96 | 41.0 | 104 | 38.1 | 402 | 37.6 |
| | (43.5) | | ( 6.7) | | (23.9) | | (25.9) | | (100%) | |
| F (%) | 2 | 0.4 | 3 | 3.1 | --- | ---- | 2 | 0.7 | 7 | 0.7 |
| | (28.6) | | (42.9) | | | | (28.6) | | (100%) | |
| G (%) | 9 | 1.9 | 1 | 1.0 | 1 | 0.4 | --- | --- | 11 | 1.0 |
| | (81.8) | | ( 9.1) | | ( 9.1) | | | | (100%) | |
| Total (%) | 465 | 100% | 98 | 100% | 234 | 100% | 273 | 100% | 1070 | 100% |
| | (43.5) | | ( 9.2) | | (21.9) | | (25.5) | | (100%) | |

*FT = Full-Time PCR Officer **PT = Part-Time Officer

We conclude from the above that the major stimulus for change and innovation in community-police relations is difference in agency size, not the presence of any formally constituted CPR unit.

It is significant that agencies identifying part-time CPR officers (27.2 percent of those submitting program data) have the highest concentration of youth and traffic programs and the lowest concentrations of police strategy changes and police work role and work conduct changes types of programs.

In contrast, those agencies having full-time personnel but no formal units, have the lowest concentration of youth and traffic programs, but the highest concentration of public information programs. However, this represents only 7.9 percent of the sample agencies and only 9.2 percent of the programs.

The greatest number of police strategy changes and police training typologies are in the CPR unit agencies. However, these also represent a majority of the agencies responding in these categories.

Another major point is that the agencies with CPR units are more likely to have traffic programs than are "other" agencies. Based on data for all program respondents, there is a 50 percent chance that an agency will have a program falling within the framework of the traffic typology. The likelihood for agencies with formal CPR units is 65.8 percent, while for agencies in the "other" category it is only 44.6 percent. Also, CPR units are more likely to have youth service programs than are agencies in the "other" category.



This fact, combined with the lack of any difference in program diversification, has great bearing on the supposed purpose of CPR units and innovation stimulated by the creation of these units. Admittedly, this does not take into account that, over time, departments may develop more sophisticated and extensive programs within the traditional typologies.

This diversification factor further implies that the programmatic application of a community relations philosophy depends on factors other than the functional specialization equated with size. These other factors may include:

1. attitude of the chief and his commitment to community relations;
2. statewide trends in program application;
3. community needs of a commonly accepted nature;
4. availability of common conceptual and informational resources related to specific types of programs;
5. programs related to the operational routine of the police mission (e.g., bicycle safety, displays, tours, operation identification);
6. availability of financial resources to undertake particular kinds of programs.

Two factors, attitude of the chief and perception and demonstration of community needs, particularly influence the programs falling within innovative, change-agent typologies.

Most Common CPR Programs. The listing of the 14 most often listed community-police relations programs (see Table 12-25) illustrates the

Table 12-25

Selected Community-Police Relations Programs

| Program | # of programs | % of typology | % of total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Typology A: Public Information | | 74.3% | 18.6% |
| Public Ride-Along | 71 | 26.5 | 6.6 |
| Speakers Bureaus | 75 | 28.0 | 7.0 |
| Tour/Open Houses | 53 | 19.8 | 5.0 |
| Typology B: Crime Prevention | | 61.6% | 10.6% |
| Operation Identification | 89 | 48.1 | 8.3 |
| Business Protection | 25 | 13.5 | 2.3 |
| Typology C: Traffic | | 85.9% | 10.8% |
| Bicycle-Pedestrian Safety | 94 | 70.2 | 8.8 |
| Vehicle Safety/Drivers Ed. | 21 | 15.7 | 2.0 |
| Typology E: Youth Services | | 69.0% | 25.7% |
| Explorers, BSA | 72 | 17.9 | 6.7 |
| School Classes | 55 | 13.7 | 5.1 |
| Drug Education | 40 | 10.0 | 3.7 |
| Officer Bill | 31 | 7.7 | 2.9 |
| Ride-Along | 28 | 7.0 | 2.6 |
| SRO's/Cop on Campus | 27 | 6.7 | 2.5 |
| Rap Sessions | 24 | 6.0 | 2.2 |
| TOTAL..... | 705 | | 65.9%* |

*Total number of programs reported = 1070.

dependency of this "new wave" of community relations enthusiasm on programs related to either historical precedence, narrow and/or outmoded perceptions of community needs and desires, or the basic functions of the police mission. For example, the total programs submitted for the three typologies previously identified as "non-traditional" number less than the Operation Identification programs reported. Furthermore, the "community-police relations" program most often identified was bicycle-pedestrian safety.



## Community-Police Relations and the News Media

A significant portion of the total survey respondents (over 75 percent and up to 93 percent on specific questions) provided answers on the questions examined below. Thus answers were obtained from over 50 percent of the law enforcement agencies in California. (See Table 12-26.)

Written Policies and Procedures. A majority of the responding departments indicated that they have written policies (77.4 percent) and/or procedures (75.5 percent) governing relationships with the media. In both cases, departments with formal community-police relations units replied affirmatively over 96 percent of the time, while departments with only PCR officers or those in the "other" category were in the 66 to 77 percent range. It thus appears that the presence of a CPR unit implies a greater cognizance of the need for established relationships with the press.

The above is supported by the fact that a majority of the departments with CPR units provided training in press relations, while only 36.7 percent of the departments in the "other" category did so. Only 46.1 percent of all respondents in the sample provided such training.

Press Relations Training. For those departments providing press relations training, 84 percent provided it as recruit academy training and 74.7 percent as refresher/in-service training.

About half of those indicating that press relations training was available provided data on number of hours per person per year spent on this training. For both in-service/refresher and recruit academy, this worked out to about 2.8 hours per year per person.

Table 12-26
Summary of Questions Directed to the
Relationship of Community-Police Relations to the Media
By Type of CPR Organization

| Percentage of Respondents Answering: | CPR Units | PCR Officers | Other Agencies | Total Respondents |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ***DOES YOUR AGENCY HAVE WRITTEN POLICIES GOVERNING RELATIONS WITH THE MEDIA?*** | | | | |
| Yes | 96.0% | 67.2% | 68.8% | 75.5% |
| No | 4.0 | 32.8 | 31.2 | 24.5 |
| % of Sample | 83.3% | 76.3% | 71.3% | 75.8% |
| ***DOES YOUR AGENCY HAVE WRITTEN PROCEDURES GOVERNING RELATIONS WITH MEDIA?*** | | | | |
| Yes | 96.4 | 77.1 | 66.3 | 77.4 |
| No | 3.6 | 22.9 | 33.7 | 22.6 |
| % of Sample | 91.7% | 87.5% | 85.2% | 87.5% |
| ***HAS YOUR AGENCY DESIGNATED PERSON(S) THROUGH WHICH ALL PRESS INFORMATION IS ROUTED?*** | | | | |
| Yes | 87.9 | 71.6 | 75.8 | 77.5 |
| No | 12.1 | 28.4 | 24.2 | 22.5 |
| % of Sample | 96.7% | 92.5% | 91.7% | 93.2% |
| ***DOES YOUR AGENCY PROVIDE TRAINING IN PRESS RELATIONS FOR PERSONNEL?*** | | | | |
| Yes | 67.2 | 41.9 | 36.7 | 46.1 |
| No | 32.8 | 58.1 | 63.3 | 53.9 |
| % of Sample | 96.7% | 92.5% | 90.7% | 92.7% |
| ***IS THE TRAINING PROVIDED AS RECRUIT ACADEMY?*** | | | | |
| Yes | 82.5 | 77.8 | 92.6 | 84.0 |
| No | 17.5 | 22.2 | 7.4 | 16.0 |
| % of Sample | 66.7% | 33.8% | 25.0% | 37.9% |
| ***IS THE TRAINING PROVIDED AS REFRESHER/IN-SERVICE TRAINING?*** | | | | |
| Yes | 62.9 | 91.7 | 75.0 | 74.7 |
| No | 37.1 | 8.3 | 25.0 | 25.3 |
| % of Sample | 58.3% | 30.6% | 29.6% | 36.7% |
| ***DOES YOUR AGENCY ISSUE PRESS PASSES TO MEDIA REPRESENTATIVES?*** | | | | |
| Yes | 42.1 | 27.8 | 19.4 | 27.8 |
| No | 57.9 | 72.2 | 80.6 | 72.2 |
| % of Sample | 95.0% | 90.0% | 90.7% | 91.5% |
| ***ARE THESE PRESS PASSES GOVERNED AND AUTHORIZED BY: *** | | | | |
| Local Ordinance | 11.5 | 9.5 | 0.0 | 7.7 |
| Agency Policy | 80.8 | 85.7 | 83.3 | 83.1 |
| Neither | 0.0 | 0.0 | 11.1 | 3.1 |
| Other | 7.7 | 4.8 | 5.6 | 6.2 |
| %of Sample | 43.3% | 26.3% | 16.7% | 26.2% |



Designated Information Officer. Over 70 percent of all departments responding designate at least one person through whom all public information is routed. This is especially true for agencies with CPR units. This data combined with data on written policies and procedures, makes it apparent that the police feel a great need to control and manage information emanating from the department.

Press Passes. Of those responding to a question on police agency issuance of press passes to media representative, only 27.8 percent indicated that they do so. The affirmative response was much higher for agencies with CPR units (42.1 percent). Furthermore, of those CPR unit agencies issuing press passes, 80.8 percent of the passes are governed by local ordinance.

The major implication is that law enforcement is by choice regulating interaction with the media. The fact that this seems to be more common in agencies with CPR units implies that they feel a great pressure to control the image of police and police activities as it is projected by the media.

Size Group Trends. Some other interesting dimensions emerge from examination of the data by size groups (see Table 12-27).

1. Larger departments (over 500 sworn personnel) are more likely to have press passes and also to have them governed and authorized by local ordinance.

2. Over 80 percent of small departments (under 100 sworn personnel) indicated that they do not issue press passes, while 59.4 percent of the medium departments (101-500 sworn personnel) and 88.9 percent of the large departments said they do issue press passes.

Table 12-27
Summary of Questions Directed to the
Relationship of Community-Police Relations to the Media
By Departmental Size Group

| Percentage of Respondents Answering: | SMALL Categ. A-D 1-100 sworn | MEDIUM Categ. E-G 101-500 swn | LARGE Categ. H-I over 500 swn | Total Respondents |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ***DOES YOUR AGENCY HAVE WRITTEN POLICIES GOVERNING RELATIONS WITH MEDIA?*** | | | | |
| Yes | 72.8% | 96.9% | 100.0% | 75.5% |
| No | 27.2 | 3.1 | 0.0 | 24.5 |
| % of Sample | 85.9% | 96.9% | 88.8% | 75.8% |
| ***DOES YOUR AGENCY HAVE WRITTEN PROCEDURES GOVERNING RELATIONS WITH MEDIA?*** | | | | |
| Yes | 71.1 | 96.3 | 88.9 | 77.4 |
| No | 28.9 | 18.2 | 11.1 | 22.6 |
| % of Sample | 73.7% | 81.8% | 100.0% | 87.5% |
| ***HAS YOUR AGENCY DESIGNATED PERSON(S) THROUGH WHICH ALL PRESS INFORMATION IS ROUTED?*** | | | | |
| Yes | 75.8 | 93.8 | 55.6 | 77.5 |
| No | 24.2 | 6.2 | 44.4 | 22.5 |
| % of Sample | 92.2% | 96.6% | 100.0% | 93.2% |
| ***DOES YOUR AGENCY PROVIDE TRAINING IN PRESS RELATIONS FOR PERSONNEL?*** | | | | |
| Yes | 41.0 | 63.6 | 100.0 | 46.1 |
| No | 59.0 | 36.4 | 0.0 | 53.9 |
| % of Sample | 91.2% | 100.0% | 88.8% | 92.7% |
| ***IS THE TRAINING PROVIDED AS RECRUIT ACADEMY?*** | | | | |
| Yes | 79.4 | 94.4 | 100.0 | 84.0 |
| No | 20.6 | 5.6 | 0.0 | 16.0 |
| % of Sample | 33.0% | 54.5% | 88.8% | 37.9% |
| ***IS THE TRAINING PROVIDED AS REFRESHER/IN-SERVICE TRAINING?*** | | | | |
| Yes | 78.3 | 60.0 | 71.4 | 74.7 |
| No | 21.7 | 40.0 | 28.6 | 25.3 |
| % of Sample | 33.4% | 45.4% | 77.7% | 36.7% |
| ***DOES YOUR AGENCY ISSUE PRESS PASSES TO MEDIA REPRESENTATIVES?*** | | | | |
| Yes | 19.3 | 59.4 | 88.9 | 27.8 |
| No | 80.7 | 40.6 | 11.1 | 72.2 |
| % of Sample | 90.2% | 96.9% | 100.0% | 91.5% |
| ***ARE THESE PRESS PASSES GOVERNED AND AUTHORIZED BY: *** | | | | |
| Local Ordinance | 2.8 | 0.0 | 40.0 | 7.7 |
| Agency Policy | 85.7 | 95.0 | 50.0 | 83.1 |
| Neither | 5.7 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 3.1 |
| Other | 5.7 | 5.0 | 10.0 | 6.2 |
| % of Sample | 16.9% | 60.6% | 100.0% | 26.2% |



3. Small and medium size departments are more likely to have designated a person through whom all information is routed (75.8 and 93.8 percent) than are larger departments (55.6).

4. Smaller departments do not usually provide press relations training (41.0 percent), while medium (63.6 percent) and large departments (100 percent) usually do.

Small departments are not as likely to have a need for control of information and press relations training, particularly in relation to urban areas, because:

1. the unity of command is much tighter and generally prohibits wide-ranging flows of information;

2. the presence of electronic media is not as intense as in large metropolitan areas;

3. smaller departments are not as likely to come under the scrutiny of a wide variety of media outlets, especially non-local ones;

4. the nature of crime and subsequent police response in small departments' jurisdictions are not as likely to bring the police into the spotlight.

## Chapter Summary

The following is a summary of the findings of the Advisory Commission included in this chapter:

1. The presence of a formal CPR unit in a police agency is directly related to the agency's size.

2. The presence of a designated PCR officer in a police agency is <u>not</u> directly related to the agency's size.

3. Less than fifty percent of the PCR officers' time is allocated to community-police relations for the majority of PCR officers in responding agencies that had no formal CPR unit.

4. The overwhelming majority of designated PCR officers answer directly to the chief administrator of the agency (chief of police or sheriff).

5. A majority of the CPR units in our sample were established following the turbulent era of the 1960's, and after the passage of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968.

6. A majority of the CPR units have a designated share of the agency budget, but most of them do not receive significant funding from outside sources.

7. A majority of the responding CPR units participate in and analyze agency training programs.

8. A majority of the sample CPR units review complaints by citizens, survey community attitudes on important issues, and review agency policies and procedures prior to their implementation.

9. A majority of the sample CPR units do not review officer evaluation reports as a means of identifying and solving problems.

10. The stated goals of community-police relations most often listed by departments in our sample were: a) to promote understanding; b) to open communication channels; and (c) to identify and solve community problems.

11. Among the goals least often listed were those applying to improving relations with youths and minorities.

12. Youth and minority groups were the most often identified target groups of community-relations programs.

13. Agencies most heavily rely on criminal justice sources for information on CPR programs - primarily professional publications and organizations, and other police agencies.

14. Larger agencies have increased their CPR programming at a greater rate than smaller agencies.

15. Traditional programs - bicycle-pedestrian safety, Operation Identification, ride-alongs, speakers, and Explorers - were those most often identified by responding agencies.

16. The majority of programs submitted fell into the youth education and services typology, followed by public information crime prevention, and traffic; larger departments tended to have more program diversity.



17. A majority of the responding departments have written policies and procedures on the media; a majority also have press relations training and a designated person through whom all public information is routed.

18. A majority of responding departments do not issue press passes; of those agencies that do, primarily the larger departments, press passes are authorized and governed by the agency rather than local ordinance.

The following are selected conclusions derived from the above findings of the Advisory Commission:

1. Community-police relations in California has not yet achieved an established place in the police organization relative to the traditional organizational divisions of police administration; thus it has not developed the bargaining power required for intra-departmental competition for personnel or fiscal resources, or a credible base of legitimate policy from which to engender broad community support.

2. The influence of community-police relations personnel in the policy-making and training phases of police operations is mitigated by the tendency to exclude CPR from participation in the evaluation of the personnel who will execute policy and apply training through police-citizen contacts.

3. There is a lack of goal consensus among community-police relations personnel and units; depending on the socio-economic and political environment in which the agency operates, CPR is limited either to race relations, public relations, or delinquency prevention, rather than being viewed as a broad philosophy of community resource development.

4. There is little relationship between stated goals, identified target groups, and the programs implemented; this results in a retardation of innovative processes, a distortion of community needs assessment as measured by its actualization, and a reduction in overall police accountability for the service aspects of the police mission.

5. Program diversification and innovation is hindered by a lack of established channels of communication on CPR program information that cut across organizational, size, and geographical dimension.

6. In general, CPR programs do not reflect innovative, change-agent program typologies; while there are many specific programs of this type in existence, a majority of departments adhere to a policy which has created new organizational compartments in the form of CPR units to house traditional programs.

7. Both agencies with CPR units and those without are conducting programs within the same range of diversity and program-typology emphasis; thus major changes in community-police relations are more directly related to agency size than to the presence of a CPR unit; while it may be argued that this is due to the philosophy that CPR is the duty of every officer in the department, rather than a special unit, the prevalence of this way of thinking is not supported by data on agency-wide community relations training.

8. Police agencies, especially those with CPR units, have by choice regulated police interaction with the media and the flow of information to the public through devices (written policies and procedures, public information officers, press passes, and public relations programs) intended to stimulate police image reinforcement among the many "publics" the police serve.



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## Chapter 13

## A STRATEGIC RESPONSE TO IMPROVING COMMUNITY AND POLICE RELATIONSHIPS: THE CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

The concept of community-police relations, as it is currently applied, has a number of weaknesses. In the main, these weaknesses stem from the fact that there has been neither a specific definition of what community relations specialists and units are supposed to do, nor a widely successful effort to integrate community relations activities into the fabric of the police role as it is perceived and acted out by the police. We noted in Chapter 2 that community relations is, in essence, a philosophy of police administration. To be effective, it must pervade every element of administrative, supportive and field operations. The evidence presented in the preceding chapter suggests that this pervasive influence does not exist currently.

This is not to say that good and sound efforts have not been made to establish community relations as an integral part of modern policing. Many inroads have been made; much wisdom has been collected. It appears that now, however, considering the prominence of the crime and violence issues, is a most opportune time to capitalize upon both the wisdom of past endeavors and the growing public concern with the criminal justice system. It is a good time to devise an approach to enhancing community and police relationships while concurrently improving the police capability to provide their wide range of services.

This chapter suggests a realistic approach to achieving these two desirable ends. It does so by capitalizing upon the unique characteristics of the police role in society and by paying deference to the three

political dimensions of the community-police relations dilemma, namely: what services the police provide; how they provide them; and how the police and the members of the community resolve common problems.

## Designing a Multi-Purpose Response to Problems of Community Police Relations

Any effort to respond adequately to the many elements of the community relations complex must be acceptable to the members of the police profession and the various publics most intimately involved. The objectives of such a response must concurrently address the needs and concerns of both. As a minimum, the response must:

1. Optimize accomplishment of police goals without compromising either the law enforcement or service needs of the community.
2. Optimize citizen involvement in the accomplishment of mutually valued goals.
3. Provide viable mechanisms for ensuring that the above purposes are accomplished.

This once again reduces to a question of behavior, both at the individual and institutional levels. Thus, efforts to enhance community-police relations must include the identification of those conditions under which the various elements of the social-order system function most effectively. This includes inter-agency relationships and interpersonal relationships. In the case of the latter, it includes identifying those conditions which promote trust and other qualities which are essential to an effective one-to-one working relationship. This



effective, one-to-one relationship is a prerequisite to any cooperative efforts.

Developing trust is obviously not an easy task, particularly considering that the police function as authority figures. They are often mistrusted by members of the community, basically because they must make people adhere to a set of standards so diverse and so all-encompassing that everyone at some time violates one or more. Beyond that, the police are regarded by large segments of the minority public as consciously keeping them out of the mainstream of society.

There will likely always be some degree of distrust of the police if only because they do have enforcement responsibilities. This does not imply that inroads cannot be made into distrust. For instance, an affirmative police response to the problems identified in the citizen complaint procedure can begin to reduce some distrust. In the same fashion, increasing the numbers of minority citizens employed as police officers can mitigate the perception of some that the police are exclusively a white man's tool for maintaining the status quo. These tactics focus basically upon surface issues, however, and they will not be sufficient to promote the kind of trust which will maximize partnership efforts in controlling crime and providing services.

Just as many of the tasks inherent in the current police role stimulate much of the distrust, other tasks hold the key to easing it on both the individual and institutional levels. These include basically the social service and order maintenance tasks of the police.

They, more than any agency of government, are in a position to identify the social problems which correlate with crime and disorder and to bring them to the attention of the appropriate persons or agencies who can ameliorate them.

We considered in Chapter 6 that the police officer is often forced into a failure syndrome when he is unable to respond adequately to the wide range of needs which underlie many of the calls for assistance he receives. He is generally restricted either to applying a "band aid" by commiserating with the individual involved, or he resorts to his unique power and authority to take some legal action. In either case, he is unable to provide much-needed help, a fact which is lost neither on him nor the citizen. Such failure can be construed as incompetence, insensitivity, or deliberate lack of concern. More often than not, it is just a matter of not being geared up to deal with root causes. The police react to surface behaviors and their repertoire of responses is singularly restricted to dealing with such behaviors.

Given these facts, it would seem that one way of increasing the level of trust people have in the police is to use their unique, front-line exposure to all manner of social problems as the first step in a process of getting the kind of help needed to people who need it. There are numerous benefits which would accrue both to the police and to the community if law enforcement were to undertake such a mission.



On the police side, it is envisioned that it would:

1. Enhance the image of the police and improve levels of trust and communication with the various publics they serve.

2. Provide an additional opportunity to reduce crime by attacking causal factors as well as symptoms.

3. Facilitate the assignment of dealing with such social problems to other, more appropriate agencies whose personnel and resources are capable of providing requisite services.

On the public side, it is envisioned that such a role would eventually result in:

1. Institutionalizing a problem identification and response mechanism which can deal with both symptomatic and causal problems.

2. Establishing a greater level of trust in the agency of government which is most accessible to them at all times.

3. Providing greater opportunities for participation in the determination of specific police services that are appropriate to the needs of a particular public.

## The Concept of Community Resource Development

The role we are suggesting is one which the police are uniquely qualified to fill. It does not require that they surrender their responsibilities for responding to the problems associated with crime. It simply capitalizes upon their current use by the community as a multi-purpose problem solver. That the police alone cannot solve all of the problems with which the community confronts them is obvious.

As Fisk points out:

> The police are only a subsystem which in turn functions within a larger system to produce a livable society. There are organic functions and relationships within these systems. While these subsystems do have a discreteness, their effectiveness is nullified or reduced by functioning as entities. The community at large contains most of the resources necessary to establish the desirable level of social order. But they are not likely to be used most effectively unless the police assume the role of mobilizing these resources and producing a cohesive effort.[1]

It is not sufficient merely to identify problems. All possible resources for solving problems must be identified and convinced as to the value of being involved in the overall effort. We are talking about a police role which includes the responsibility for the development of community problem-solving resources, including:

1. Sensing and identifying a wide range of social and criminal problems.
2. Identifying the resources in the community which can attack the problems identified.
3. Working with various publics in the community to establish priorities, including consideration of which problems are best served by a direct police response and which should be passed on to other agencies.
4. Stimulating an appropriate response to various problems, including institutionalizing on-going mechanisms.
5. Analyzing and providing feedback on the effectiveness of the process.

By assuming responsibility for community resource development, the police will be filling a void which too often exists at the local



government level. At the present time, there is a proliferation of public and private agencies which are supposed to deal with social problems. Their services are often limited, however, by an eight-to-five working day and by the fact that people in need of help must come to the agency. Additionally, there are many problems which exist in segments of the community not identified as "socially deprived" which go unanswered by both governmental and private resources. Problems of family deterioration, alcoholism, drug use, and poor physical planning of public facilities are not restricted to the ghetto or barrio of the urban center. Inevitably, the police officer encounters symptoms of these problems wherever they occur.

Obviously, the concept of community resource development would address many of the weaknesses of the current community relations approach by laying basic responsibility for the bulk of the task on the shoulders of the line patrol officer. It would also require diffusion of responsibility through the administrative and supportive elements of the agency by requiring that deployment formulae, training programs, and communications systems accommodate the needs of sensing, identifying, and reacting to a broad range of problems beyond the traditional law enforcement genre. In effect, it further professionalizes the job of the line police officer by consciously recognizing that he deals with the same kinds of complex problems as other professionals.

We are essentially suggesting that the police broaden their current repertoire of responses to the problems they encounter. This may entail

training to enable the officer to handle family crises on the scene; or, it may entail providing him with the option of referring a husband and wife to a family counseling center or of bringing a family counsellor to the scene of the dispute with him. Whatever the case, broadening the repertoire of potential police responses is not without risk.

Some of the risks are external. The community is composed of many publics. Each of these publics, as we have noted, has its own sense of needs and priorities. There is little guarantee that any one of these publics truly reflects the sentiments of the particular segment of the community they purpose to represent. Therefore, when a government agency like the police publicly recognizes such a group it implies some degree of legitimacy. It can, in effect, give credibility to the group which it does not deserve. The police have historically been wary of this. They have preferred to deal with the various publics through the formal medium of elected representatives. Adopting the concept of community resource development would require that they forego this "safe" approach and establish liaisons with many publics. Inherent in the concept of resource development and mobilization is the need for the police to work with a wide diversity of community groups. This cannot be taken lightly. It is a realistic problem. It would seem, however, that a forthright and publicly visible effort to deal with community problems provides a vehicle which can minimize the dangers of manipulation by unscrupulous interests.



There are counterpart internal problems to the adoption of community resource development as an integral part of the police role. For example, one might anticipate some resistance by the rank and file police officer who is likely to regard the concept as further encroachment of social welfare duties into what should be a basic law enforcement role. However, the police are already called upon to deal with the symptomatic behaviors of social problems. They are responding to these behaviors under a severe handicap. What we are suggesting in essence gives them alternatives to the failure syndrome which they so often face today. Additionally, community resource development is not restricted to purely social problems. It also applies concretely to problems of crime. Community resources can be applied effectively to control and prevent crime just as they can be applied to ameliorate social ills. Neighborhood alert groups, for instance, can reduce the number of burglaries occurring in residential areas. Concerned citizens willing to act as counselors to pre-delinquent youth can help to reduce the desire to commit antisocial acts on the part of many youngsters. And, the development of a higher level of trust between the police and public can result in a more cooperative attitude when it comes to providing information on criminal activities.

These and many other risks or problems will confront the police agency which endeavors to adopt the concept of community resource development. A well-planned response to the problems, however, can do much to minimize their detrimental effects.

THE COMMISSION CONCLUDES THAT the current concept of community-police relations should be expanded to become community resource development.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT community resource development be defined as the process by which law enforcement develops and sustains cooperative roles and relationships between police and citizens emphasizing their partnership responsibilities for correcting the problems of crime and providing the social services required of the police.

## Local Responsibilities

Since we are dealing with a philosophy of providing police services, in essence a question of role, it is important that all segments of the local community be included in its development (see Chapter 5 for a discussion of the importance of broad involvement in the determination of police role statements). The parties who should be involved include the local governing body, the administrative leadership of the jurisdiction, police administrators, line police personnel, other government agencies, and significant interest groups. The major implications for action rest with the police.

### Police Action Required

The police administrator is the key figure in stimulating consideration of community resource development as a viable part of the police role. He must ultimately bear the responsibility for making the concept work. Regardless of how many other groups become involved in helping the police to control crime and provide public services, the chief of police or sheriff remains the accountable figure.



The administrator's first task is to achieve some consensus on the concept of community resource development and its applicability to the local scene. Just as communities vary, so will the need for, and parameters of, programs designed to meet citizens' needs. The police agency must very early analyze its actual workload to determine its service-enforcement balance and to identify those tasks which officers are clearly handling inadequately. This will require careful examination both of the substance of various calls for service and of the behaviors officers apply to bring closure to such calls. The best source of such information is the field officer himself; he should be encouraged to give his opinions of strengths and weaknesses in current role performance.

The official police perception of significant problems is only part of the identification process. It is also important to determine the perceptions of needs held by various significant publics in the community; their sense of priorities is equally appropriate. The variety of public interests depends upon the structure of the community involved. In the small, homogeneous community, they may be easily identified. In the larger, heterogeneous community, in an urban setting, it may be necessary to divide the jurisdiction into several more or less homogeneous neighborhoods.

Concurrently with the identification of community problems, there should be an intensive effort to locate those social agencies, government

agencies, and individuals in the area who can be mobilized to deal with specific problems. Many police juvenile units have compiled resource lists of youth-serving agencies in their jurisdictions. Similar efforts are in order to create a file of a broader range of resources. Additionally, officials should not overlook the fact that citizens in the community themselves constitute a valuable resource. Given adequate direction and support, they can solve many of their own problems.

When problems and appropriate resources have been identified, the police agency may well experiment with a few initial targets to test the concept of mobilizing resources and to identify weaknesses which will inevitably arise. Fisk says that the need is "to discover those universal needs that can unite communities, that provide the basis for universal support."[2] Thus, in one neighborhood, the need may be to cut down on juvenile street violence. Resources which might be mobilized include more police patrols, provision of probation counselling via a local storefront center, opening of local school grounds or churches as recreation centers, and stimulation of public service jobs to provide pocket money. In another neighborhood, the need may be to deal with substandard housing which is resulting in a high frequency of burglaries, vandalism, and personal injuries to which police must respond. Concurrently to reacting to these basic crime and service problems, the police can also mobilize such resources as building inspections, fire code inspections, classes in carpentry and home repairs



through the vocational program of the local high school, and the focusing of attention on the problem through local government leadership. In both cases, the problems attacked are those which attract broad local support and which the police are in a unique position to see during the performance of their normal range of duties.

If the local police agency gets as far as testing its mobilizing capability, it will unquestionably have encountered a number of procedural difficulties along the way. For example, the mobilization concept requires a rather significant shift in the traditional behaviors of police officers. They will be encouraged to consider the many causal factors underlying calls for service to determine whether a response other than the giving of advice or the making of an arrest is in order. Officers must be adequately prepared for such a shift. (Chapter 10 addresses a number of training issues related to this need.)

Additionally, there will be a change in the relationships between officers and some publics in the community. The police will be called upon to emphasize their partnership responsibilities for controlling crime and providing services. Traditionally, the police have assumed almost the full measure of responsibility for these functions. There will undoubtedly be a strain as officers pass along to citizens the responsibility for taking action on problems they have formerly handled themselves.

This strain may include a new version of the familiar police role conflict. The diversity of groups purporting to represent segments of

the community results in a number of conflicting demands and perceptions. The officer will not throw off the problem of conflicting expectations. He can make them less severe, however, because the partnership role is emphasized considerably more than in traditional community-police relationships.

Finally, there are political considerations. While these will basically have to be resolved at the administrator's level, the line police officer will nonetheless be acutely aware of them. For example, focusing on many criminal and social service problems can result in calling into question certain social values prevailing in the community at large. Many people undoubtedly feel that this is not an appropriate function for the police. The only response must be that the police are an agency of government. Their every action is already political in the sense that it involves applying the force of government authority. Thus, by endeavoring to mobilize additional resources for dealing with community problems, the police are essentially expanding their current decision-making function to a broader range of participation and making it more democratic.

All of these changes will require conscious attention. Administrators and supervisors must be aware of the dynamics involved in community resource development and they must take care to reinforce behaviors congruent with the concept. All of the recommendations made earlier in this report relating to expanding the base of the personnel evaluation



process and providing more training in discretionary decision-making and human relations speak to these issues.

In order to ensure that adequate attention is paid to these issues, as well as to provide certain crisis management functions during critical times, it is suggested that there be specialized staff support for community resource development. In smaller agencies, this may be either the chief administrator (with special training) or it may be a community resource development officer (the current community relations officer with additional training). In larger agencies, it should undoubtedly be a unit appropriately staffed and located in close proximity to the chief administrator.

The responsibilities of such units or individuals should include:

1. Analysis of policies and procedures and preparation of community impact reports when appropriate; the analysis should include both the semantics of the policies and procedures as well as their content.
2. Analysis of training programs to ensure that they adequately emphasize human relations and community resource issues; participation in training when appropriate.
3. Analysis of citizen complaints against police officers to identify and respond to problems which appear to be susceptible to remedy through changes in procedures or through training.
4. Monitoring of field community resource programs to ensure their proper functioning.
5. Liaison with community groups.
6. Performance of crisis intervention in the field during periods of high community-police tension.
7. Design of procedures for bringing community problems and community resources together.

Beyond designating specialists in community resource development, the success of the concept will depend to some degree on how close the police are able to get to the people they serve. Dean Richard Myren holds:

> It is possible for the citizenry being policed to participate in the process in at least four ways: the simple lending of support of various kinds to the police agency, actual assumption of police duties under the direction of regular police officers, formal evaluation of police performance, and the setting of policy for police operations.[3]

Various combinations of these four techniques are being tried in California and elsewhere in the country. Many California communities use a variety of support-lending techniques, such as neighborhood alert groups and citizen advisory committees. Reserve police officer programs allow citizens to perform actual police duties under appropriate supervision. Formal evaluation of police performance is not widely used, but both the Los Angeles Police Department and the Menlo Park Police Department have surveyed community residents for their reactions to the police services provided. And finally, although no California jurisdictions are known to do so, the Dayton Police Department is experimenting with citizen participation in policy-making.

Each community will have to determine what combination of community involvement strategies is appropriate for its needs. Regardless of the combination, the value of maximizing citizen participation must be stressed.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement administrators implement the concept of community resource development and adopt it as a philosophy of the entire agency and not just the responsibility of a single officer or unit, although specialized assignments may be appropriate to ensure adequate performance of certain functions.



> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT community resource development training programs be developed, both for inclusion as part of existing training programs and for the specialized training of those officers assigned full-time to community resource development duties.
>
> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT community resource development concepts be integrated into all examinations for promotions within the department.
>
> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT law enforcement administrators maximize the participation of citizens in providing police services.

## Local Government Action Required

As we noted early in this section, the police alone cannot ensure the success of the resource development concept. The remainder of local government must also support it. Basically, this support includes three components: a strong leadership stance; coordination of the cooperation of other departments; and adequate financial resources.

First, the political leadership of the jurisdiction must understand and publicly support the concept. While the police department can make some inroads on its own, major success will depend on the backing of those persons responsible for the full range of government services. The police will merely be playing a mobilization role; responsibility for many of the actual services will remain primarily with other agencies of government. The adequacy of their responses will depend to a great degree upon the stance taken by the mayor, councilmen or supervisors, and manager or administrative officer.

Second, the other departments in the governmental structure, as we note above, must cooperate in the effort. It is important that they do not feel that the police are usurping any of their reponsibilities. Rather, a partnership role must be stressed which regards the police as an integral part of their problem-sensing mechanisms.

Finally, adequate financing must be available for the concept to work. If the police are able only to identify problems and not to mobilize adequate responses due to lack of financial support, the concept will have little impact on community and police relationships. It will simply be a slightly different version of the old failure syndrome in the eyes of many segments of the community.

Private Sector Action Required

There are concomitant responsibilities at the local level for those forces in the private sector which impinge on community relationships. The news media, for example, can be instrumental in the success of community resource mobilization by publicizing the efforts made by the police to deal more adequately with community problems. They can also serve as a prod to the public conscience, stimulating cooperation and involvement by other agencies and individuals in the community. At the same time, the press will continue to serve the function of critic, identifying the shortcomings of programs and endeavoring to stimulate their correction.

Civic organizations, social welfare agencies, and other community groups will also be instrumental to the success of this concept. They



constitute both sources of information on community problems and significant resources to attack the problems. They share a great deal of the responsibility for the degree of effectiveness the concept may attain.

State Leadership Role

Implementation of community resource development programs will be the responsibility of local units of government. However, in light of the newness of the concept and the fact that there is little available information on techniques of implementation, there is a need for strong coordinative and leadership effort. Such effort is best assigned to the state level of government. The importance of the concept and the fact that it has applicability across the broad spectrum of California communities makes a state interest in its development both sensible and timely.

There are at least four basic needs which should constitute the state effort:

1. Promotion of the value of community resource development as part of the police role.
2. Development and testing of techniques for sensing community problems, identifying resources, and mobilizing responses.
3. Design and testing of alternative models for implementing community resource development techniques in communities of various sizes and with various population characteristics.
4. Provision of supportive services to local communities to help them implement the techniques successfully.

One of the difficulties associated with past efforts to improve community and police relationships has been their impermanence. Other study commissions have come into being, written reports, and disappeared. The lack of a concentrated follow-up effort has been taken by many as evidence that the intent to improve conditions never really existed. This should certainly not happen in the current instance, especially since there are available resources to carry on the effort.

There are logically three units of state government which should have a role in the promotion of the concept. They are the California Department of Justice, the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, and the California Council on Criminal Justice. The support and assistance of the State Legislature and other elements of the state government system are also crucial to the success of the concept, but the direct, daily working relationship which the former agencies have with law enforcement mandates their immediate and direct involvement.

It is the Commission's feeling that the Department of Justice, as one of the integrative elements of the California police system discussed in Chapter 4, should play a strong leadership role in refining and promoting the concept throughout the state. The Department of Justice, through its Crime Prevention Unit, is already practicing some facets of community resource development. They are actively working to mobilize young people and senior citizens as active crime preventers in selected communities. It seems logical that such efforts should be



extended and expanded to encompass the total concept of community resource development.

> THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the California Department of Justice expand the operations of its Crime Prevention Unit to include a leadership role in the development of techniques and programs pertinent to community resource development, in the coordination of information dissemination relating to community resource development, and in the provision of assistance to local jurisdictions endeavoring to implement community resource development programs.

The development of techniques and programs for community resource mobilization and development will require both original research to define the parameters of the concept as well as the identification, analysis, and promulgation of existing programs which are achieving promising results. The efforts of the Advisory Commission will continue in this regard until June 30. We are conducting additional research in the areas of minority employment, the role of the community relations officer, and the content of community relations-community resource development programs. We are also compiling the initial data base for a community resource information system which can be available to all interested agencies in the state.

Beyond these efforts, there is a need for additional undertakings. For example, there should be, as a minimum:

1. Development of a system, including materials and techniques, which local jurisdictions can use to survey their communities' needs and resources.

2. Development of model guidelines for evaluating community relations and community resource development programs.

3. Development of model policy and procedure statements for consideration by California law enforcement agencies.

4. Analysis of current manpower utilization practices and development of alternative practices which embrace the techniques appropriate to community resource development.

5. Analysis of current personnel evaluation procedures and development of alternative procedures which consider community services practices.

The dissemination of information and the provision of services to local communities would basically entail:

1. Gathering pertinent information and establishing a system whereby it is accessible to concerned agencies on request.

2. Facilitating translating of pertinent publications into Spanish and Oriental languages.

3. Facilitating the consideration of pertinent issues by all California law enforcement agencies, such as through a regularly issued bulletin.

These tasks are crucial. They should be performed by professionals who are knowledgeable about the operations of the criminal justice system as well as attuned to the concept of community resource development. Additionally, they require guidance and review from a broadly representative body. The Advisory Commission hesitates to recommend its own continuation, but it would seem that a similarly constituted group might valuably contribute to future endeavors. Beyond this, it is important that



research and implementation efforts be both concentrated and continuous during the foreseeable future. The Advisory Commission believes that a full-time effort is in order.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the Attorney General either continue the Advisory Commission on Community-Police Relations or create a similar advisory group to evaluate the implementation of the recommendations contained in this report and to oversee future endeavors.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the Attorney General issue an annual report during each of the next three years, detailing the progress of efforts to implement the community resource development concept among California law enforcement agencies.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the State Legislature fund a Community Resource Development Institute within the Crime Prevention Unit of the California Department of Justice to carry out the specific projects recommended in this report.

A number of specific recommendations are directed at the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training in other sections of this report. They embrace a wide range of subjects intimately related to community and police relationships and to the concept of community resource development. The obvious key role POST must play in the success of this concept, through its certified training programs and through its provision of administrative counseling services, need not be belabored here. We need only note that they should be closely involved in the research and development programs undertaken by the Department of Justice and by other concerned agencies.

We must give more specific consideration to the role of the California Council on Criminal Justice, however, for, as Chapter 12 indicates, this agency is intimately involved in stimulating those community relations and crime prevention efforts which are included under the umbrella of community resource development. It is anticipated that CCCJ will continue to provide funding for innovative projects in these areas.

There are basically two methods by which CCCJ can assist in successful promotion and implementation of community resource development techniques and projects. The first is to require that all agencies applying for grants submit a written assessment of the impact their proposed project will have on community and police relationships. Some projects may have little or no impact; most, however, even those with a highly technical nature such as communications projects, can be expected to have some impact.

Agencies contemplating such projects should ensure the funding agency that they have considered the potential results in terms of community relations.

A second way in which CCCJ can encourage the adoption of community resource development is through the consolidation of its current Crime Prevention and Community Relations Task Forces. The community resource development concept we are suggesting essentially involves the consolidation of these currently discrete areas at the local level. Recognition granted by CCCJ through parallel consolidation would provide a meaningful illustration of what the concept entails.



THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT California Council on Criminal Justice require that a community relations impact statement be submitted with all proposals seeking funding for police projects.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the California Council on Criminal Justice consolidate its current Crime Prevention and Community Relations Task Forces into a single Community Resource Development Task Force.

THE COMMISSION RECOMMENDS THAT the California Council on Criminal Justice emphasize the concept of community resource development in its planning and funding efforts.

## Conclusion

Community resource development is obviously not a panacea for all problems of the community and police relationship. The complexity of this relationship is too great for any single solution. The Commission feels very strongly, however, that this concept provides a sound basis from which to launch other efforts aimed at ameliorating specific, usually symptomatic difficulties. It does so by providing an opportunity for police and community representatives to join together in determining police service needs and responses, and in providing the vehicle for mutual problem-solving. How well the concept succeeds will depend upon the commitment and concern of the various publics which comprise every community.

## References

1. Fisk, James G. Police Decision Making: Its Relationship to the Legitimacy of the Political System, Institute for Government and Public Affairs, UCLA. 1972, p. 21.

2. Ibid., p.3.

3. Myren, Richard A. "Decentralization and Citizen Participation in Criminal Justice Systems," Public Administration Review, XXXII:Special (October 1973), p. 724.

CONTINUED

5 OF 6

Appendix A

STATE ASSEMBLY RESOLUTIONS

Appendix A

House Resolution No. 153

Relative to police-community relations

WHEREAS, A policeman is a symbol of law, law enforcement, and criminal justice, and as such is a symbol to many people of the increasing social debate over law and law enforcement and of the society from which many citizens feel alienated; and

WHEREAS, Widespread concern has been expressed over the lack of confidence between various groups of citizens--especially minority communities and young people--and the police; and

WHEREAS, There is in some areas of California society a substantial distrust of policemen; and

WHEREAS, The effect of such distrust and lack of confidence is debilitating to our society and has contributed to open hostility and violence in various communities; and

WHEREAS, A major contributor to hostility between the police and various citizens is a lack of effective communication channels; and

WHEREAS, Police-community relations programs are essential in increasing communication and decreasing hostility; and

WHEREAS, Objective evaluation, analysis, and innovation on this subject in California are necessary; now therefore be it

Resolved by the Assembly of the State of California, That the Members request the Attorney General to study the subject of police and community relations within the state; and be it further

Resolved, That this study shall include, but not be limited to, an analysis of the expense, scope, degree, and cause of the distrust and lack of confidence between the police and certain groups of citizens throughout California, an evaluation of the effect of such distrust and lack of confidence, and a review of proposals for the improvement of police-community relations in California; and be it further

Resolved, That this study shall also include an extensive investigation and evaluation of existing police-community relations departments in various police agencies; and be it further

Resolved, That the Attorney General shall report his findings, conclusions, and recommendations to the Assembly not later than the fifth legislative day of the 1971 Regular Session of the Legislature.

Resolution read, and referred by the Speaker pro Tempore to the Committee on Rules.

House Resolution No. 61, as Amended
By Assemblyman Ralph:

House Resolution No. 61

Relative to a study to be prepared by the Attorney General to examine the subject of police and community relations within the State of California

WHEREAS, On June 6, 1969, the Assembly adopted House Resolution No. 153, as printed on pages 1473 and 1474 of the Journal of the Assembly for March 28, 1969; and

WHEREAS, The fourth Resolved clause requests the Attorney General to report his findings, conclusions, and recommendations to the Assembly not later than the fifth legislative day of the 1971 Regular Session of the Legislature; now, therefore, be it

Resolved by the Assembly of the State of California, That the time given to the Attorney General to report his findings, conclusions, and recommendations as requested by House Resolution No. 153 of the 1969 Regular Session of the Legislature be extended to the fifth legislative day of the 1973 Regular Session of the Legislature.

Resolution, as amended, ordered to the Consent Calendar.

## Appendix B

## ATTORNEY GENERAL'S ADVISORY COMMISSION ON COMMUNITY-POLICE RELATIONS

Appendix B

ATTORNEY GENERAL'S ADVISORY COMMISSION
ON
COMMUNITY-POLICE RELATIONS

Stanley P. Hebert, Esq., Chairman
Vice President for Urban Affairs
Bank of America
San Francisco

Edward L. Barrett, Jr.
Professor of Law
University of California at Davis
Davis

The Honorable Louis P. Bergna
District Attorney
Santa Clara County
San Jose

Jess Brewer
Lieutenant
Director of Community Relations
Los Angeles Police Department
Los Angeles

Alberto C. Diaz
Publisher
Belvedere Citizen News
Los Angeles

Howard Earle
Assistant Sheriff
Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department
Los Angeles

John Fabbri
Chief of Police
Fremont

James Fisk
Institute of Government and Public Affairs
University of California at Los Angeles
Los Angeles

The Honorable James Geary
Sheriff
Santa Clara County
San Jose

Hector Godinez
Postmaster
Santa Ana

Robert L. Hanna
Legislative Advocate
California Council of Carpenters
Sacramento

Leon Harrison
President
Harrison-Ross Funeral Home
Los Angeles

Matthew Hogan
Student
University of California at Davis
Davis

Phillip Kazanjian
Student
Lincoln University Law School
San Francisco

Mrs. Louis Lancaster
Trustee
California State Colleges and Universities
Santa Barbara

The Honorable Harry Low
Judge of the Municipal Court
San Francisco

* Irvin Mazzei
President
Los Angeles County Federation of Labor
Los Angeles

Carl B. Metoyer
Attorney-at-Law
Oakland

Gene S. Muehleisen
Executive Officer
Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training
Sacramento

Martin Ortiz
Director
Mexican-American Studies
Whittier College
Whittier



Frank Price
Consultant
Copley Press
La Jolla

Andrew Pringle, Jr.
Detective
Richmond Police Department
Richmond

The Honorable Leon Ralph
Member of the Assembly
Los Angeles

Mrs. Mary Rubio
Sergeant
Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department
Los Angeles

Milton Senn
Director
Anti-Defamation League
Los Angeles

Ray Tompkins
Student
San Francisco State University
San Francisco

Mrs. June Sherwood
Director
Crime Prevention
Office of the Attorney General
Los Angeles

* Deceased

# Appendix C

## OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH EFFORTS

Appendix C

OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH EFFORTS

The research program undertaken by the Advisory Commission was divided basically into five elements. They include:

1. Review of literature and previous research efforts
2. Identification of issue areas for further examination
3. Gathering of information on selected issue areas
4. Analysis of information collected
5. Review of information and determination of findings and conclusions

## Review of Literature

Early in our efforts, the Advisory Commission resolved to make this study more than a mere repetition of work done by earlier groups. The subject of community-police relations has received considerable attention in recent years, primarily since the Watts riot of 1965. Studies completed at the national, state, and regional levels have focused on community-police relationships and have offered numerous recommendations for their enhancement.

More than a dozen of these prior efforts were reviewed by Advisory Commission staff during the first months of the current project. Drawing upon these as well as several academic research works and books, a study document was prepared detailing the symptomatic and underlying aspects of citizen distrust and hostility which they set forth. Recommendations for improvement were analyzed and categorized according to subject matter. This study document became the basis of

a strategy meeting during which the staff and the Advisory Commission determined the specific areas they wished to examine in greater detail. These included:

--Analysis of police department organizational structures for community relations operations

--Analysis of community relations programs in existence

--Analysis of probable impact of common police procedures on community relations

--Analysis of police training as it relates to community relations

--Analysis of minority employment in law enforcement

--Analysis of police policy formulation

--Survey of selected community and police attitudes toward community relations issues

--Analysis of citizen complaint and grievance mechanisms

--Analysis of the role of the news and entertainment media *vis à vis* community-police relations

--Analysis of the community relations problems unique to the campus and general youth populations

--Development of strategic responses designed to improve community-police relationships

## Problem Identification

After these initial areas were determined, steps were taken to determine their congruence with the priority issues in community-police relations perceived by members of the law enforcement profession and by segments of the community involved in related fields. A series of eight "problem identification sessions" were held around the state, bringing together police community relations specialists. Brainstorming and similar group-oriented techniques were used to elicit their perceptions of critical issues.



At the same time, local human relations agencies, prosecutors' offices, and community organizations were contacted to determine their perceptions of problems. The information gleaned from these sources was correlated with that provided by the literature review and by the Advisory Commission membership. Essentially, the subject areas described above continued to apply, and they were formally adopted for in-depth examination.

## Information Gathering

Information on these several areas was gathered through three basic media: (1) a mass distribution questionnaire to all law enforcement agencies in California providing uniformed police services; (2) on-site interviews and observation of operations with a selected representative sample of California law enforcement agencies; and (3) public interviews held at various locations throughout the state.

### Questionnaire Distributed

A comprehensive questionnaire was developed to elicit information from police agencies in five categories: (1) descriptive characteristics of the agency and the jurisdiction; (2) agency personnel characteristics and selected practices; (3) training techniques employed; (4) procedures for processing citizen-initiated complaints about officer behavior; and (5) the agency's approach to community relations as a concept. The questionnaire was 20 pages in length and was sent to each of the 429 law enforcement agencies listed on the California Department of Justice directory of agencies at that time. Approximately 60 percent of the agencies responded to the questionnaire. Response levels to specific questions varied.

On-site Interviews

Following initial analysis of the data provided by the mass distribution questionnaire, a follow-up questionnaire was developed. It was essentially an interview guide for use in on-site visitations of police agencies. It went into greater depth in certain areas including: policy formulation and review; selected personnel practices; turnover rates for minority personnel; and roles of community relations personnel/units.

A selected sample of 57 law enforcement agencies was created. This sample was based upon geographic location and agency size (number of sworn police employees). Each of these agencies was visited by a staff member of the Advisory Commission, of the Crime Prevention Unit of the Department of Justice, or of the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training. Fifty-three of the agencies provided at least some information to the interviewers.

Public Interviews

Concurrently with and following this data-gathering effort directed at law enforcement agencies, a series of public interviews were held in various locations in California to allow members of the general public as well as representatives of interested groups to provide information to the Advisory Commission. The interviews were publicized through the local news media. Additionally, local human relations agencies and other groups cooperated in identifying interested parties. The interviews, held in San Diego, East Los Angeles, South Central Los Angeles, Downtown Los Angeles, Fresno, San Jose, San Francisco, and Oakland, facilitated input from approximately 90 citizens and representatives of



other interested groups.

Two additional interview sessions were held in Los Angeles and San Francisco by the Advisory Commission's Minority Police Officer Task Force. These interviews specifically addressed problems relating to attracting, hiring, and retaining minority citizens in law enforcement careers. Representatives from various minority organizations, city and county personnel agencies, and law enforcement units presented their views.

Analysis of Information

All of the information gathered through the techniques discussed in the preceding section as well as through other channels (for example, many police agencies and community groups submitted information to the Advisory Commission through the mail or through telephone conversations) was subjected to a number of analytic processes. These basically involved substantive review of material and statistical analysis where appropriate.

Substantive Review

Given the complexity of community and police relationships, it was necessary to interrelate information from a number of discrete subject areas. For example, police policy making affects almost all of the other areas on the police side of the relationship; its ramifications for citizen complaint processing, training, and enforcement tactics had to be considered. Additionally, it was necessary to identify those elements of distrust and hostility identified in earlier reports which recurred in our own research data.

The substantive areas were woven into the overall framework of the final report, which considered basically the development of the police role in the community. This approach facilitated considering all

of the many forces at work in the community-police interface.

Beyond substantive analysis of the data, certain statistical analyses were conducted. They applied primarily to the community police relations subject area. They basically tested the extent to which values implied in police agency goal statements and workload assignments compared with practice as reflected by programs implemented and tasks performed. It is hoped that the data can be further refined and examined in the future to make a wider variety of correlative studies.

## Review and Determination of Findings and Conclusions

The analyzed data was organized into several staff reports for consideration by the Advisory Commission. Recommendations were developed to address the basic needs identified by staff. These recommendations were then considered by the Advisory Commission; changes thought to be appropriate were made and a draft report, incorporating the recommendations, the staff reports, and the findings and conclusions of the Advisory Commission into the framework of role development, was prepared. This report was then reviewed by the Advisory Commission and became the basis for the current document.

# Appendix D

# THE COMPLAINT/GRIEVANCE PROCESS

Appendix D

THE COMPLAINT/GRIEVANCE PROCESS

In the complaint grievance section of the in-depth questionnaire sent to the 429 California law enforcement agencies, the Advisory Commission attempted to determine the various methods established for receiving and processing citizen complaints/grievances against police officers. The responses to the following questions are illustrated in this appendix:

- Are the records of investigations of citizen complaints open to public examination? (Figure D-1)
- Are the findings of investigations of grievances and/or complaints made known to the complainant? (Figure D-2)
- Are the dispositions of disciplinary action taken as a result of citizen complaints/grievances made known to the complainants? (Figure D-3)
- Are the dispositions of disciplinary actions taken as a result of citizen complaints/grievances made known to the general public? (Figure D-4)

Approximately 52 percent of the 429 California law enforcement agencies responded to this section of the questionnaire. While the answers recorded in this section are primarily yes and no responses, they do not constitute the total responses available for the questions presented. Some agencies responded to the question with either "no answer" or "not applicable" (N/A). Still other agencies indicated that while they may or may not have permitted information to be presented to an individual complainant or to the general public, they could not answer an unqualified yes or no to the questions asked. Therefore, several agencies responded by qualifying that there are times when information would be released to either a complainant or the general public. These qualified responses are indicated in the figures.

Survey Section C, **Figure D-1:** ARE THE RECORDS OF INVESTIGATIONS OF CITIZEN COMPLAINTS OPEN TO PUBLIC EXAMINATION?

A

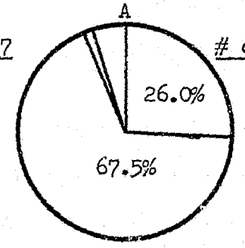
# of Respondents=77

YES=26.0%

NO =67.5%

NA = 5.2%

QUALIFIED
NO = 1.0%

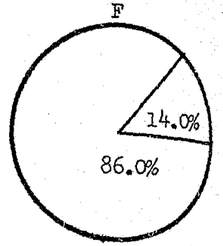



F

# of Respondents=7

NO =86.0%

NA =14.0%

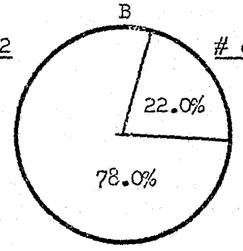



B

# of Respondents=32

YES=22.0%

NO =78.0%

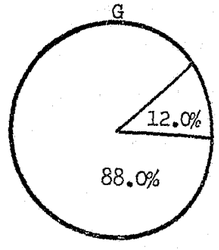



G

# of Respondents=9

NO =88.0%

NA =12.0%



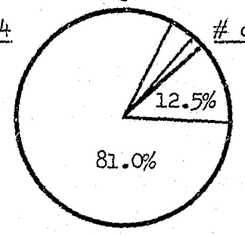

C

# of Respondents=64

YES=12.5%

NO =81.0%

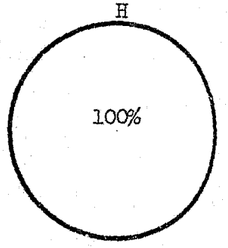
QUALIFIED
YES= 4.6%
NO = 1.5%




H

# of Respondents=4

NO=100%



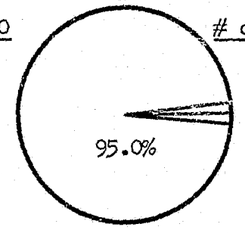

D

# of Respondents=40

YES= 2.5%

NO =95.0%

QUALIFIED
NO= 2.5%

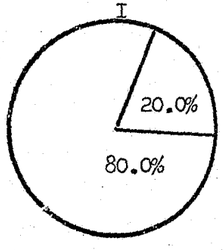



I

# of Respondents=5

NO =80.0%

NA =20.0%



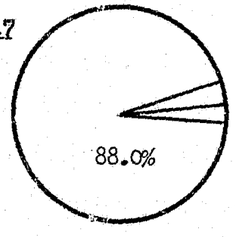

E

# of Respondents=17

YES= 5.9%

NO =88.0%

QUALIFIED
NO = 5.9%




All Respondents=255

YES = 16.1% (40)
NO = 83.9% (208)

NA = 7



Survey Section C, **Figure D-2:** ARE THE FINDINGS OF INVESTIGATIONS OF GRIEVANCES AND/OR COMPLAINTS MADE KNOWN TO COMPLAINANTS?

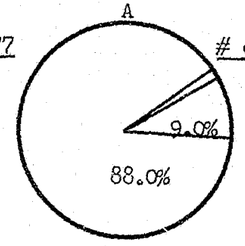
A

# of Respondents=77

YES= 88.0%

NO = 9.0%

NA = 2.5%

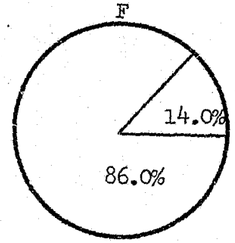



F

# of Respondents=7

YES= 86.0%

NO = 14.0%

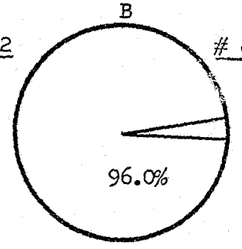



B

# of Respondents=32

YES= 96.0%

NO = 4.0%



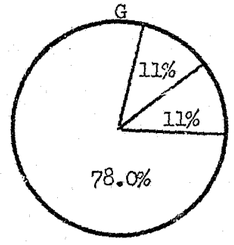

G

# of Respondents=9

YES= 78.0%

NO = 11.0%

NA = 11.0%

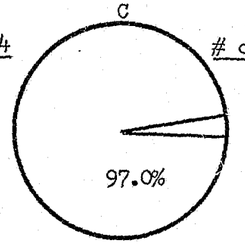



C

# of Respondents=64

YES= 97.0%

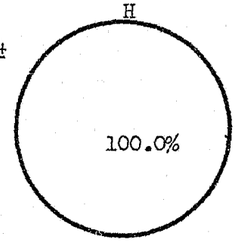
NO = 3.0%




H

# of Respondents=4

YES=100.0%

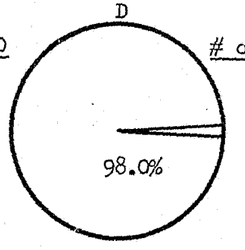



D

# of Respondents=40

YES=98.0%

NO = 2.0%

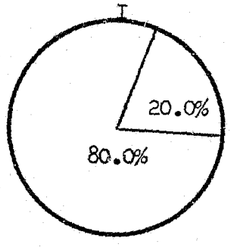



I

# of Respondents=5

YES= 80.0%

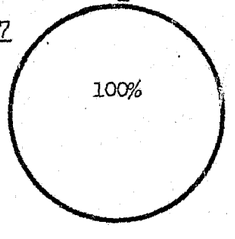
NO = 20.0%




E

# of Respondents=17

YES=100%




All Respondents=255

YES = 94.4% (238)
NO = 5.6% ( 14)

NA = 5

Survey Section C, **Figure D-3:** ARE THE DISPOSITIONS OF DISCIPLINARY ACTIONS TAKEN AS A RESULT OF CITIZEN COMPLAINTS/ GRIEVANCES MADE KNOWN TO COMPLAINANTS?

A

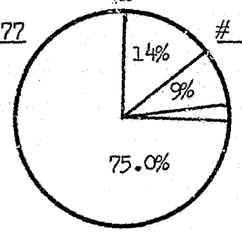
# of Respondents= 77

YES= 75.0%

NO = 14.0%

NA = 9.0%

QUALIFIED YES= 2.0%

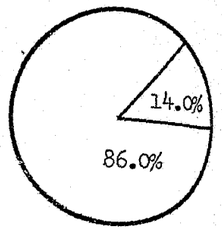



F

# of Respondents=7

YES= 86.0%

NA = 14.0%

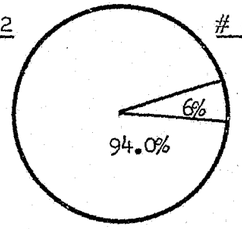



B

# of Respondents=32

YES= 94.0%

NO = 6.0%



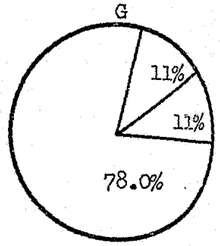

G

# of Respondents=9

YES= 78.0%

NO = 11.0%

NA = 11.0%



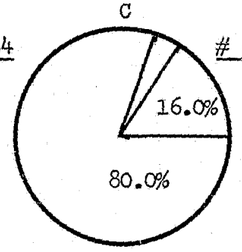

C

# of Respondents=64

YES= 80.0%

NO = 4.0%

QUALIFIED YES= 16.0%

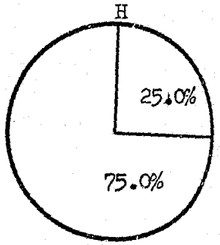



H

# of Respondents=4

YES= 75.0%

QUALIFIED YES= 25.0%



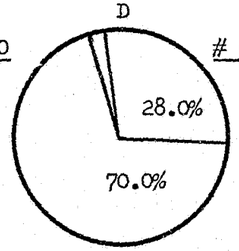

D

# of Respondents=40

YES= 70.0%

NO = 28.0%

QUALIFIED YES= 2.0%

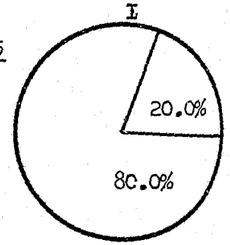



I

# of Respondents=5

YES= 80.0%

NO = 20.0%



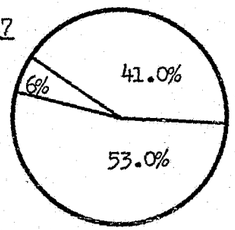

E

# of Respondents=17

YES= 53.0%

NO = 41.0%

QUALIFIED YES= 6.0%




**All Respondents=255**

YES = 85.4% (210)
NO = 14.6% ( 36)
NA = 9

Survey Section C, **Figure D-4:** ARE THE DISPOSITIONS OF DISCIPLINARY ACTIONS TAKEN AS A RESULT OF CITIZEN COMPLAINTS/ GRIEVANCES MADE KNOWN TO THE GENERAL PUBLIC?

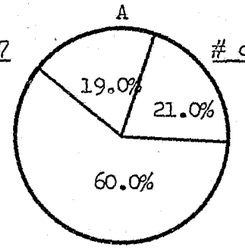
A

# of Respondents=77

YES= 19.0%

NO = 60.0%

NA = 21.0%



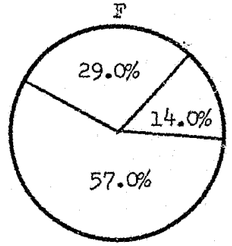

F

# of Respondents=7

YES= 29.0%

NO = 57.0%

NA = 14.0%



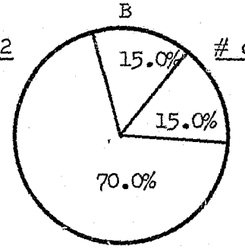

B

# of Respondents=32

YES= 15.0%

NO = 70.0%

NA = 15.0%



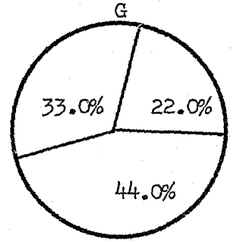

G

# of Respondents=9

YES= 33.0%

NO = 44.0%

NA = 22.0%



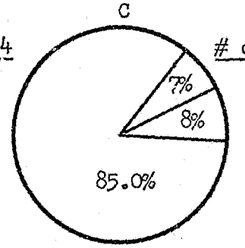

C

# of Respondents=64

YES= 8.0%

NO = 85.0%

NA = 7.0%



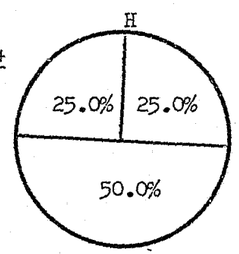

H

# of Respondents=4

YES= 25.0%

NO = 50.0%

QUALIFIED YES= 25.0%



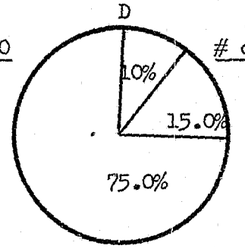

D

# of Respondents=40

YES= 15.0%

NO = 75.0%

NA = 10.0%



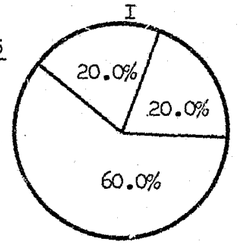

I

# of Respondents=5

YES= 60.0%

NO = 20.0%

NA = 20.0%



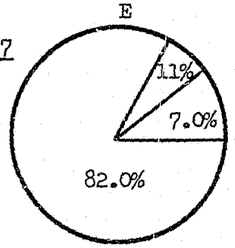

E

# of Respondents=17

YES= 11.0%

NO = 82.0%

NA = 7.0%




**All Respondents=255**

YES = 19.9% ( 44)
NO = 80.1% (177)
NA = 34

# Appendix E

## OAKLAND POLICE DEPARTMENT: SELECTED TRAINING ACTIVITIES

## THE REGIONAL CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION, TRAINING, AND RESOURCE CENTER

## CALIFORNIA ASSOCIATION OF POLICE TRAINING OFFICERS

Appendix E

OAKLAND POLICE DEPARTMENT: SELECTED TRAINING ACTIVITIES

The Oakland Police Department has developed several important training activities or programs: the recruit academy, the action review panel, and the Violence Prevention Unit.

## The Academy

Oakland operates its own recruit academy. Three years ago, a local consulting firm evaluated the recruit school and recommended extending the training a month and restructuring the nature and format of the program. The result was an increase in community awareness training, introduction of video feedback and role play, and importation of role players from the community. The present academy thus offers a 752-hour (20 week) program including 134 hours devoted to community awareness training.

The community awareness segment subsumes, among others, the following subjects:

1. Oakland community: a historical overview of the city, how and why it came to be as it is now; ethnic composition of the city, and the trend from white to Black.

2. Community field experiences: recruits spend eight hours in assignments to request aid as an unemployed person, as a welfare applicant, as a person seeking part-time work in the residential area of the city. The purpose of this experience is to give trainees a better understanding of persons who are poor and who are dependent on social service agencies.

3. Internship: recruits work for one day in a social service agency such as the welfare department or a health clinic, to see some of the problems experienced by these agencies.

4. Concepts of cultures: Black, Asian, Indian, Mexican cultures; police culture; the majority culture; the counter culture.

5. Judgment-Avoiding Conflict: "Particular attention will be given to day-to-day techniques which the officer may employ to accomplish

his tasks in a manner which will afford a minimum of resistance and antagonism from persons with whom he deals (Oakland curriculum, p. 5)."

6. Crime in America, discretionary decision-making, news media relations, social disorganization, correctional institution tour, conflict management.

The Advanced Officer school, an 80-hour program, also offers community awareness training.

The curriculum booklet for the academy states "...the objective is to develop a policeman who is technically competent and humanistic (p. 1)." Officers teaching in the recruit program attend a 16-hour instructor school to learn various teaching methodologies. All instructors are trained in the capabilities and use of video tape equipment and audio visual materials.

Ten local enforcement agencies send their personnel for training at the Oakland academy; the smaller enforcement agencies do not use the academy as frequently as the larger ones, partly due to the difficulty of taking a man off the street for 20 weeks, and partly due to the $1400 to $2000 per man tuition fee. In a sense, then, Oakland is operating a regional school. It is hoped that if this academy maintains its program as a high quality one, it can continue as a quasi-regional school. It is unlikely that a regional criminal justice center would be able to offer the intensive type of program currently in operation at Oakland.

## Action Review Panel

When an Oakland police officer accumulates a number of citizen or internally-generated complaints or a record of citizens resisting arrest, or when he displays a potential for violence, he is sent before the action review panel. The review panel includes four of the offending officer's peers; none rank higher than he does. The panel reviews all reports made on the officer and critiques the officer's behavior, asking him what his



frame of mind was at the time of the reported incident(s); what the citizen's thought or feelings probably were; what alternative actions were available to him. The purpose of this process is to make the officer aware of alternatives to the behaviors that resulted in his appearance before the panel.

The officer is then given another chance to improve his behavior. If he continues to have problems, he is sent to a stress interview. The panel at a stress interview is comprised of the officer's peers, supervisory personnel familiar with the officer's work, and a member of the district attorney's staff. The purpose of this session is to make the officer absolutely aware of the potential consequences of his actions. The district attorney staff member discusses the legal implications of the officer's behavior; others discuss the effect on other police officers, the police organization, the public and community-police relationships. The stress interview is generally a forceful, intensive experience calculated to let the officer know that if he does not improve immediately, he may lose his job, for the ramifications of his behavior are too serious to permit his remaining on the force.

The review panel is meeting with some success in "rehabilitating" officers.

## Conflict Management

In 1969, Oakland Police Department established a Violence Prevention Unit, partially funded by federal grant funds. A group of officers who comprised the Unit discussed and analyzed police and community problems that had a high potential for violence.

An outgrowth of this analysis was an experimental family crisis intervention program, discussed briefly in Chapter 10 of this report. Import-

ant outcomes of this training program are increased citizen satisfaction with the quality of intervention service, few arrests or injuries to officers, close liason between police and referral agencies, and good citizen use of referral agencies. It should be noted that the program included a very thorough evaluation component which has provided the department with valuable feedback for future operations.

Since the program was experimental, the Unit was disbanded once the funding ceased. But a quantity of information has been gathered and expertise acquired; using these, Oakland hopes to prepare all officers with crisis intervention techniques.

After the inception of the Violence Prevention Unit, the number of complaints received by the police department decreased substantially. Part of this decrease is clearly due to the Unit's activities. However, the intensive community awareness training was also implemented shortly after the Unit was operationalized; thus some of the decrease in complaints may be due to that training.

## THE REGIONAL CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION, TRAINING, AND RESOURCE CENTER

The Regional Criminal Justice Education, Training, and Resource Center at Modesto is the first operational regional training and education center in the state. Sponsored by the California Council on Criminal Justice (CCCJ), the Center is in its third grant year. Its purpose is to provide training and education to criminal justice personnel (police, probation, corrections) in the eight county area which comprises the region. To further this purpose, the Center maintains a library and resources which it makes available to local police training officers; and it operates four satellite training sites for the region's mountain counties.



### Courses

Police programs at the Modesto Center include a ten week basic academy for recruits; pre-service education; advanced officer and supervisor courses; adult education and vocational work experience. Police courses are certified by the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST). They are based on a philosophy that emphasizes the service aspect of police work, and that stresses using the mind and psychology rather than handcuffs and guns. A spokesman from the Center said they try to show students that ability is not measured by the number of arrests made, but rather by the number of dispositions made in the field.

Basic academies are given much of the school year. Courses offer instruction in law enforcement technology and in basic skills. They are general enough to satisfy personnel from departments all over the region; therefore, enforcement agencies supplement the Center's courses with training applicable to local needs, philosophies, and policies.

There is some talk about extending the academy course to a six month course. Usually police academies choose to extend the training period to accommodate inclusion of mandatory subjects and of time requested by instructors who wish to cover a subject in more depth than is possible within the POST-required minimum hours. The Modesto academy's proposed extended period would permit inclusion of additional community-police relations courses. Currently there are two such courses for police and corrections personnel; community relations concepts are interwoven through all courses, however. The academy also provides a mental health segment which teaches officers how to handle people who, because they have mental problems, are prone to violence if dealt with ineptly.

The pre-service program is offered to persons taking AA degrees.

Students complete a core curriculum consisting of five three-unit courses covering the entire criminal justice field, then continue in their own specialty areas.

Since the Center serves all justice system components, it also offers such courses as a juvenile hall training program, probation case management, and transactional analysis. The Department of Corrections has applied to CCCJ for funding of a correctional officers academy which would provide pre-service training. This academy would be within the Modesto constellation.

Police and probation officers stay in the dorms at the Center while attending academies or seminars; thus there is opportunity for interaction between system personnel. This could be an important aspect of the entire training experience, because understanding the roles of others in the justice system is a desirable educational goal for system personnel. It is unknown whether the Center is maximizing this situation.

## Needs Assessment

Training needs are assessed in several ways. For law enforcement courses, the POST requirements must be met; these requirements set some priorities for the courses to be given. An advisory committee comprised of criminal justice personnel from the eight county region assists in determining training and educational needs. This is sometimes accomplished by surveys.

Course coordinators for corrections courses meet with the Central Valley Probation Officers' Association to ascertain their needs and priorities.

## Development of the Courses and Programs

After the needs assessment is made, consultants in the field usually



decide on course content; content is often directly dictated by the needs. Until the present time, four coordinators developed courses that met the needs and included the appropriate content. The tentative outline prepared by the coordinator was submitted for approval by POST, for law enforcement courses, or the Probation Officers' Association, for probation courses. Then, if approved, the outline was submitted for approval by the Center's curriculum committee and board of trustees.

Following this procedure, the coordinator who had devised an approved course then arranged for instructors, scheduled the course for the appropri number of students, and secured facilities and room and board for students.

As of March 1973, the Center is starting to use a development team. Ad hoc teams are to be set up to develop each course; there will be one course developer who will use the expertise of staff in the course content area. Teams will be disbanded once the courses are developed. This new concept of course design should provide more flexibility, as coordinators previously experienced problems of setting up and operating simultaneous courses; it also allows more specificity by tapping expertise in a subject area. Under this plan, coordinators will still operationalize the develope course.

## Evaluations

POST has evaluated the Center's courses and operations as part of its certification process. The Center is working toward making evaluations of its own, with the guidance of a consultant. Projected evaluations of subjects in the basic academy include examining what attitudes are being changed and determining the effectiveness of the training.

## Instructors

The Center employs two full-time in-service instructors, a corrections officer and an MS in criminology. About 150 part-time instructors, system personnel from the region, also teach at the Center or at the satellite sites. Instructors include specialists in various subjects. Most of the probation department instructors are from the California Youth Authority.

## Teaching Techniques

Role play and simulated incidents are used frequently as is role play with video tape feedback. Multimedia equipment is also used.

The Center, with the assistance of Modesto Jr. College multimedia staff and the cooperation of local enforcement agencies, is just beginning to develop a series of roll-call training tapes. Approximately 30 10 to 15 minute video tapes focus on in-service training needs identified by a roll-call training committee which includes personnel from local area colleges. The tapes deal with any problems common to all enforcement agencies.

A spokesman from the Center said the organization has the capability to produce the training tapes as rapidly as decisions come from the attorney general or the legislature. He added that the Center hopes to expand the program to the region and, ultimately, the state, loaning the tapes to agencies as a training resource.

## Outreach: Satellite Training Sites

To provide training and education to justice system personnel in the region's mountain counties: Miraposa, Calaveras, Amador, Tuolumne, and Alpen, the Center operates satellite training sites in the first four of these counties. Each site is equipped with overhead projectors, video tape, individual study carrels, and the International Association of Chiefs of Police Training series for in-service personnel to view on their own time.



Films are shown at the sites and courses offered as needed. The Resource Center rotates training materials to the satellite sites.

The outreach concept of taking training to personnel in areas distant from training and education centers or institutions is an important one. As was discussed in Chapter 10, outreach is sometimes the only way personnel in isolated areas can receive training to prepare them for their jobs.

## The Future

When the grant period ends, the Center will be able to sustain itself through the clientele it has developed and through the POST-reimbursable courses it offers. A model for future regional centers, the Modesto Center is currently providing guidance to other justice system agencies interested in establishing their own regional resource and training centers.

## CALIFORNIA ASSOCIATION OF POLICE TRAINING OFFICERS

Training officers from many of the state's law enforcement agencies hold membership in the California Association of Police Training Officers (CAPTO). The Southern section of CAPTO includes about 130 to 150 members, the Northern branch approximately 70 to 80 members.

The organization, basically a catalyst for police training officers, provides a number of opportunities for these officers to increase their knowledge and expertise and add to their informational resources.

At monthly meetings, officers discuss common problems; exchange ideas about training practices; and explore new programs, ideas, and training methodologies. These meetings stimulate contacts between persons and organizations and encourage officers to draw on each other's expertise and resources. In this way training officers develop contacts who can

provide assistance when problems develop in the future.

The Association presents an annual seminar on training practices. This program is specifically designed to offer something to officers from small departments, large departments, and management.

CAPTO's monthly newsletter recounts the major ideas discussed at the monthly meetings and describes new programs. It helps training officers keep up-to-date with progress in police training.

One of CAPTO's objectives is to stimulate new programs and encourage training officers to experiment with new concepts of training. If a training officer devises a course that appears to have promise, the Association will co-sponsor the course, help the training officer put it on, critique and evaluate it. Then if the evaluation shows the course has potential for police training, CAPTO may help the course developer expand the course, if necessary, and send it to the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST) for consideration for certification.

CAPTO is soon to be involved in evaluating police training and education programs throughout the state. To this end, POST and CAPTO staff have jointly developed an evaluation form to be used by CAPTO members selected as course evaluators. Agencies will be asked if they would like an evaluator to assess their course(s). Evaluators will then attend the course(s) and make evaluations to determine whether the courses are meeting the objectives set for them. Police courses given at all agencies and institutions in the state will be evaluated.

# Appendix F

# POLICE EDUCATION AT COMMUNITY COLLEGES

# Appendix F

## POLICE EDUCATION AT COMMUNITY COLLEGES

California community colleges certified by the Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training (POST) offer courses required for police officers who must meet minimum standards of training and education. Colleges obtain certification for law enforcement courses by submitting a course outline and information on texts, instructional methodologies, and on the instructor, for POST approval. To retain certified status, courses must maintain a level of quality acceptable to POST evaluators.

To gather information about community-police relations courses given at POST-certified community colleges and universities, the Advisory Commission sent a supplemental survey questionnaire to the certified colleges. Twenty-nine two-year colleges and one four-year college responded with completed questionnaires.

This appendix discusses the findings of the survey. The following areas are covered: courses, attendance, instructors and speakers, teaching aids, and community-police relations course formats.

### Courses

Schools were asked to list "all courses offered in your program which are primarily community relations in emphasis or orientation." All 29 two-year schools responded.

Twenty-two offer "CPR" (community-police relations) or "PCR" courses; 20 of these are required for an AA or AS degree or a law enforcement police option. College departments offering these courses are the administration of justice, eight courses; department of police science, seven courses; department of criminology, two courses; and five other departments, one

course each. Ten of the courses are offered every term; five alternate terms on demand only; and four either quarterly or annually. Nine of the courses were first presented in 1969 or 1970; this correlates with the inception of many community-police relations programs in late 1969. One course was initiated as early as 1962; two were begun in 1972.

Eight schools offer courses in community relations; all are required courses for a degree. Five of the courses are under the auspices of the department of administration of justice, two under criminal justice, and one under behavioral science. Five are offered every term, two alternate terms, and one in summer. Three of the courses were first given in 1968, one as early as 1964.

Other courses cited include Community Interaction, Ethnic Group Relations, Black Man and the Law, Interpersonal Relations for Peace Officers, Juvenile Procedures, Introduction to Law Enforcement, Black Political Problems, and Urban Development and Problems.

Considering all of these courses, "CPR" and the others cited, most were first offered in 1968 and 1970. Again, this reflects the initiation of police programs devoted to relationships with the community and shows the concern with understanding the community. Departments of administration of justice sponsor by far the most courses.

The four-year college offers Crisis Intervention: Theory and Practice (1973) and Peace Officer and Society. These are in the law enforcement education program.

## Attendance in Community Relations-Oriented Courses

Respondents were asked to specify the ratios of police to non-police "at this time" (December 1972-January 1973) and "overall". Twenty-five



of the two-year schools responded, indicating that at this time:

1. Generally more non-police than police students take the courses. Five of the 25 respondents cite a ratio of 4:1; 3 cite 5:1; the remaining ratios range from 2:1 to 9:1.

2. Four schools have an equal number of police and non-police in the courses.

3. Three schools report more police than non-police in the courses. Two have a ratio of 2:1, and one 3:1.

Overall, there are still generally more non-police than police in community relations-oriented courses, and in the same ratios. However, five schools report an equal number overall, and five report more police than non-police overall.

Twenty-one schools provide usable comparative data on the number of students enrolled in community relations-oriented courses "this term" and "last term". Ten schools report an increase in enrollment this term over last; increases range from + 2 to + 30; four classes increased by 10 students. Nine schools report a decrease in enrollment this term. Decreases range from - 3 to - 42; six classes decrease by 5 or 6 students. Two schools indicate no change. The smallest class this term is 17, last term 13.

The four-year school only indicates an enrollment of 20 at this time.

## Instructors and Speakers

### Instructors

Twenty-nine of the two-year schools gave usable information about 36 instructors of community relations-oriented courses. Of the 36, 17 are full-time instructors who are former policemen; 18 are part-time instructors, who are working officers; and one is a part-time instructor, former policeman.

Nine of the full-time instructors, former officers are experienced in community-police relations; one is not. Seven did not respond. Regarding their educational level, about half these instructors have advanced degrees; two have AA degrees, six a BA or BS, seven an MA or MS, one a doctorate. One did not respond. This group of instructors has the highest level of education of all instructors, as evidenced by degrees obtained.

Eleven of the 18 part-time instructors, working officers are experienced in community-police relations. Seven did not respond to the question of experience. One of these instructors has an AA degree, fourteen have a BA or BS degree, and two an MS. One did not respond. Instructors in this group are more likely to have experience in community relations.

The part-time instructor, former officer, experienced in community-police relations, has a BS degree.

Nine of the schools indicate that they have more than one instructor teaching their community relations-oriented course, often despite the fact they are apparently teaching only one course between them. Most frequently a full-time instructor, former officer is teamed with a part-time instructor, working officer. This has the advantage of combining some objectivity about police work, as seen from the point of view of a person who has been away from it for a while, and the practicality and awareness of current problems brought by a working officer. Such an arrangement could balance academic approach and practical approach.

The one four-year school employs one part-time instructor with an MSW.

Speakers

In response to the question "What kinds of people are used as resource persons, guest speakers during the course?" 22 of the 29 schools provide the following data:



1. Fifteen schools list "minority citizens" ; seven of these schools specify: seven Blacks, six Chicanos, one each Indian and Anglo.

2. Ten schools list "community group representatives" ; two of these schools specify race or ethnicity: one Black, two Chicano.

3. Eight schools list "militant groups"; three of these specify race or ethnicity: three Blacks, two Chicano, one White.

4. Schools list "police" in three categories. Eight schools list police administrators, five list community-police relations officers, and five list regular police officers. Two schools specify race or ethnicity of the latter: two Black, one Chicano.

5. Under "human relations personnel", five schools list human relations program administrators, two list program aides.

6. Five schools list social workers, one school each lists probation officer, parole officer, prison preventers, concentrated employment program workers. The latter are Black and Chicano.

7. Eight schools list ministers, three list exconvicts, two list college or high school students.

8. Local public relations professionals, press representatives, high school counselors, and homosexuals are each listed by one school.

Twelve of the schools use two or three of these speakers or resource people in their courses. Four schools use four speakers per course and four use seven; two use five. One school used the combination: prison preventers, probation and parole officers, CPR officer, students, militants, Black citizens, and Chicano group representatives. Three used the combination: ministers, community group representatives, human relations administrators, social workers, police administrators, minority citizens and militant groups. All schools using two or three speakers per course include either a minority citizen or a community group representative.

The four-year school does not list outside resources.

## Teaching Aids

### Instructional Techniques

Respondents were asked to indicate the predominance of six instructional

techniques (lecture, guest speaker, student reports, audio visual, role play, and other) used to support their instruction. To do so, they ranked the methods from one to six, where one means most predominant. Twenty-seven of the colleges provided data.

Data were analyzed in two ways, by mean rank of each technique and by the number of schools citing the technique in each of the six ranks.

The ranking of techniques by their mean rank is shown in Table F-1. "Other" is bracketed because the mean rank of this technique cannot really be compared with the other ranks; the number of respondents to "other" is about half that of the other techniques, 13. Fourteen schools did not respond to other, which is interpreted to mean these schools do not use other techniques.

Table F-1
Ranking of Use of Technique, by Mean Rank

| | |
|---|---|
| Lecture | 2.07 |
| (Other | 2.07) |
| Guest speaker | 3.4 |
| Role play | 3.4 |
| Student reports | 3.6 |
| Audio visual | 3.8 |

Clearly, lecture by the course instructor is most frequently used. The remaining methods are employed with somewhat the same frequency.

A different ordering is obtained from the number of schools citing ranks of various techniques: lecture is clearly first, then audio visual, student reports, guest speakers, role play, and other. That many techniques are ranked closely is reflected in this data also.

Methods listed under other include: panel and group discussion (four respondents), field trips, community projects, group activities, case studies,



group problem solving, and simulation.

Active and Passive Techniques. Of the six techniques examined, only student reports, role play, and other are really participative techniques which involve the student actively in the learning process. The remaining techniques are passive.

Many educators believe that students taught with participative techniques learn more rapidly and more effectively than students taught with passive techniques. Thus it was of interest to ask: Where lecture is ranked first, what technique is most often ranked second? Is it another passive technique, or an active one? These questions were applied to all techniques ranked together in first and second places (see Table F-2).

Table F-2
Instructional Techniques Ranked Together in First or Second Position
(by Passive and Active)

| Rank 1 passive | Rank 1 active | Rank 2 passive | No. Schools | Rank 2 active | No. Schools |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Lecture | | Guest speaker | 3 | | |
| | | Audio visual | 3 | | |
| | | | | Student reports | 3 |
| | | | | Role play | 4 |
| | | | | Other | 3 |
| Guest speaker | | Audio visual | 1 | | |
| | | | | Role play | 1 |
| | Student reports | Guest speaker | 1 | | |
| | Role play | Audio visual | 2 | | |
| | | | | Student reports | 1 |
| | | | | Other | 1 |
| | Other | Lecture | 1 | | |
| | | Guest speaker | 1 | | |
| | | Audio visual | 1 | | |
| | | | | Student reports | 1 |

Table F-3 shows that over two-thirds of the schools use a combination of passive and active techniques or two active techniques as their top two instructional methods. Where respondents rank an active technique first, half of the respondents rank audio visual second.

Table F-3
Number of Schools Using Various Combinations of Passive and Active Techniques

| | |
|---|---|
| Passive, rank 1<br>Passive, rank 2<br><br>N= 7 | Passive, rank 1<br>Active, rank 2<br><br>N= 11 |
| Active, rank 1<br>Passive, rank 2<br><br>N= 6 | Active, rank 1<br>Active, rank 2<br><br>N= 3 |

Correlation of Instructor Characteristics and Techniques. To determine whether the nature of the instructor's background influenced use of passive or active techniques, we examined the full-time and part-time instructors' rankings of techniques.

The part-time instructor who is a working police officer with community relations experience appears more likely to use lecture or guest speaker as his first or second choice of instructional method than is the full-time instructor, former officer, with community relations experience. The full-time instructor, former officer is more likely to select "other" methods as his first or second choice. Although some part-time instructors did not respond to "other", none of those who did rank it ranked other first or second.

It thus appears that full-time instructors, former officers are more likely to use active instructional methods than are the part-time instructors.



Textbooks

Thirty different books are used by instructors of the community relations-oriented courses. Used by far the most frequently in the current term is Coffey, Hartinger, and Eldefonso's Human Relations: Law Enforcement in a Changing Community; ten schools used it. Earle's Police Community Relations: Crisis in Our Time is used by five schools. Three schools do not have required texts; one uses a selected reading list instead.

The books cited by instructors covered the following topics:

-- community-police relations/human relations (7 titles, 14 schools)
-- police (descriptive, general) (7 titles, 8 schools)
-- violence, disorder, crowds (6 titles, 5 schools)
-- crisis intervention (2 titles, 1 school)
-- behavioral (2 titles, 2 schools)
-- administration, critical issues, crime, prejudice, criminal justice (2 schools) (1 title each, 1 school each)

Community-Police Relations Course Formats

Thirteen curriculum sheets were examined to see whether community-police relations courses in various schools appeared similar or different. Several observations were made:

1. It appears that at least half the schools are following the same basic outline (four are essentially identical).

2. Eight courses deal with the public's image of the police and six with the police role in society.

3. Five curricula appear to emphasize understanding minority groups and cultures. This reflects the high number of minority group representatives used as resource persons or speakers.

4. One curriculum emphasizes community-police relations programs, and one emphasizes the justice system.

For comparative purposes, the curricula are listed below:

1. Police Image, Crisis Areas, Organizing a PCR (police-community relations) Program, Groups and Law Enforcement, the Press, PCR Planning, Role of the Individual Officer, PCR: the Future, PCR Policy Statements, Learning from Crisis Situations, Role of the PCR Officer in Disobedience Situations. (Four schools cite this basic format. Some add Law Enforcement and Education, Social Aspects of PCR, and What Police Departments Are Doing about PCR)

2. Orientation/Starpower, Scope of Community Relations, Nature of Prejudice, Overview of Cultures, Community and Social Change, Group Tensions, Police Organizations and Their Response to Change, Human Relations, Public Image of the Police, News Media Relations, PCR Programs and Future Trends, Review.

3. Survey of PCR Problems Currently Facing Nation; Study of Local, State, Federal Programs Presently Being Conducted to Alleviate the Problems; Methods for Practical Application of Expounded Ideals; Directions for Future Innovation and Change.

4. Role of Law in Society, Police Role in Community, Police Image, Police and Special Interest Groups, Police and Minority Groups, Minority Group Tensions and Protests, Discretionary Decision-Making, Human Relations Factors in Law Enforcement, Organizing a PCR Program, Involvement of the Community, Relations with Mass Media, Role of Individual Officers, Future of PCR.

5. History of Change in Administration of Justice, Agency-based PCR Programs, Human Relationships and Cultural Consideration, Communications, Dynamics and Media, Militant and Dissident Groups, Student Culture and the Justice System, Discretionary Decision-Making, System Image, Role Play Sessions, Courts and Corrections. (Two schools)

6. Police in a Changing Society, Police and Minority Relations, Purpose and Objectives of PCR, Community Problems.

7. Role of Police in Society, Discretionary Decision-Making, Police Image, Crisis Areas, Human Relations and Effects of Cultural Differences, Organizing a PCR Program, Groups and Law Enforcement, the Press, PCR Programming, Role of the Individual Officer, PCR: the Future, PCR Policy, Learning from Crisis.

8. Philosophy, Ideals, Objectives; Study of Criminals, System and Society, Community Relations Programs, Minority Group Problems, the Constitution, Selective Enforcement, Controversial Issues, System Decision-Making.

9. Minority Community, Negro and Mexican-American Cultures, Differences between Public Relations and Community Relations, Role of Police in Society, Preventive and Control Measures, Planning for Civil Disorders, Press Relations, Human Relations, Public Relations, Race Relations.

## Appendix G

## THE MINORITY IN LAW ENFORCEMENT

Appendix G

# THE MINORITY IN LAW ENFORCEMENT

In the personnel section of the in-depth questionnaire sent to the 429 law enforcement agencies in California, the Advisory Commission attempted to ascertain the racial and ethnic composition of these agencies. The minority groups specifically identified in the questionnaire were Black, American Indian, Oriental, and Spanish surname. An additional category of "other" was included to cover the less identifiable minority group populations. In order to obtain this information, several questions were asked of the policing agencies. The responses to the following questions are illustrated in this appendix:

- Complete the following table for agency personnel. (Tables G-7-G-
- An affirmative action recruitment program is one in which special efforts are made in a planned and regular fashion to attract and hire minority group members. Does your agency have or participate in such a program? (Figure G-
- If yes, when did the program begin? (Table G-24)
- Is it in accordance with ongoing Federal or State programs? (Figure
- If yes, what program? (Table G-25)
- Is the affirmative action program funded totally or in part by another agency? (Figure G-3)
- If yes, what agency? (Table G-26)
- How many minority employees have been hired as a result of this program? (Table G-27)
- How many minority group employees have left your agency during the following years? (Table G-28)
- What are the three most frequent reasons given for resignations by minority officers? (Table G-29)

Approximately, 52 percent of the 429 California law enforcement agencies responded to this section of the questionnaire. Several police

agencies surveyed reported not having an affirmative action program as part of their recruitment effort; consequently, they did not respond to some of the questions in this part of the questionnaire. This caused some variance in response levels.



Table G-1
Police Departments in Size Categories A - C
Responding to Questionnaire: Numerical
Distribution of Departments and Sworn Personnel
For the Years 1970 - 1972

| Rank: Sworn Personnel | Size Categ. A | | | Size Categ. B | | | Size Categ. C | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 |
| CHIEF | 47 | 46 | 46 | 20 | 18 | 18 | 42 | 41 | 41 |
| (# of departments) | (47) | (46) | (46) | (20) | (18) | (18) | (42) | (41) | (41) |
| ASSISTANT CHIEF | 6 | 6 | 6 | --- | NA | --- | 3 | 6 | 2 |
| (# of departments) | ( 6) | ( 6) | ( 6) | | | | ( 3) | ( 4) | ( 2) |
| DEPUTY CHIEF | --- | NA | --- | 1 | 1 | NA | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | | ( 1) | ( 1) | | | | |
| INSPECTOR | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- | 12 | 8 | 8 |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | | ( 4) | ( 3) | ( 3) |
| CAPTAIN | 6 | 7 | 5 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 36 | 39 | 38 |
| (# of departments) | ( 6) | ( 7) | ( 5) | (11) | (10) | (10) | (25) | (27) | (26) |
| LIEUTENANT | 12 | 11 | 11 | 20 | 21 | 20 | 90 | 94 | 109 |
| (# of departments) | ( 9) | ( 8) | ( 8) | (12) | (12) | (12) | (31) | (32) | (35) |
| SERGEANT | 76 | 77 | 76 | 81 | 77 | 82 | 221 | 224 | 221 |
| (# of departments) | (34) | (35) | (35) | (18) | (17) | (17) | (37) | (37) | (37) |
| AGENT/CPL. | 10 | 11 | 9 | 18 | 18 | 18 | 20 | 25 | 35 |
| (# of departments) | ( 4) | ( 4) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 4) | ( 5) | ( 5) |
| OFFICER | 235 | 241 | 272 | 249 | 246 | 257 | 915 | 929 | 967 |
| (# of departments) | (42) | (42) | (42) | (20) | (18) | (18) | (42) | (41) | (41) |
| MATRON | 12 | 12 | 13 | 9 | 6 | 5 | 17 | 17 | 17 |
| (# of departments) | ( 6) | ( 6) | ( 6) | ( 6) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 5) | ( 5) | ( 5) |
| RECRUIT | 4 | 4 | 4 | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | ( 2) | ( 2) | ( 2) | | | | | | |
| CADET | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | NA | 2 | 2 |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 2) | ( 2) | ( 2) | | ( 1) | ( 1) |
| COMMUNITY SERVICE OFF. | --- | NA | --- | NA | 1 | 1 | NA | 5 | 5 |
| (# of departments) | | | | | ( 1) | ( 1) | | ( 1) | ( 1) |
| JAILER | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | | | | |
| DISPATCHER | 11 | 11 | 11 | 14 | 11 | 11 | 8 | 8 | 8 |
| (# of departments) | ( 6) | ( 6) | ( 6) | ( 4) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 2) | ( 2) | ( 2) |
| OTHER | 3 | 3 | 8 | 32 | 25 | 31 | 19 | 18 | 21 |
| (# of departments) | ( 2) | ( 2) | ( 4) | ( 6) | ( 5) | ( 6) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 4) |

Table G-2
Police Departments in Size Categories D - F
Responding to Questionnaire: Numerical
Distribution of Departments and Sworn Personnel
For the Years 1970 - 1972

| Rank: Sworn Personnel | Size Categ. D | | | Size Categ. E | | | Size Categ. F | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 |
| CHIEF (# of departments) | 28 (28) | 27 (27) | 28 (28) | 13 (13) | 13 (13) | 14 (14) | 3 ( 3) | 3 ( 3) | 3 ( 3) |
| ASSISTANT CHIEF (# of departments) | 5 ( 5) | 5 ( 5) | 5 ( 5) | 3 ( 3) | 4 ( 4) | 3 ( 3) | 1 ( 1) | 1 ( 1) | 1 ( 1) |
| DEPUTY CHIEF (# of departments) | 5 ( 5) | 4 ( 4) | 3 ( 3) | 1 ( 1) | 1 ( 1) | 1 ( 1) | 1 ( 1) | 1 ( 1) | 1 ( 1) |
| INSPECTOR (# of departments) | 1 ( 1) | NA | NA | 2 ( 1) | 2 ( 1) | 2 ( 1) | 12 ( 1) | 12 ( 1) | 12 ( 1) |
| CAPTAIN (# of departments) | 61 (25) | 63 (25) | 68 (25) | 49 (13) | 47 (13) | 48 (14) | 13 ( 3) | 13 ( 3) | 13 ( 3) |
| LIEUTENANT (# of departments) | 128 (27) | 131 (27) | 134 (28) | 124 (13) | 124 (13) | 126 (14) | 25 ( 3) | 26 ( 3) | 26 ( 3) |
| SERGEANT (# of departments) | 257 (26) | 262 (26) | 309 (28) | 193 (13) | 205 (13) | 219 (13) | 73 ( 3) | 78 ( 3) | 86 ( 3) |
| AGENT/CPL. (# of departments) | 29 ( 2) | 30 ( 2) | 63 ( 5) | 30 ( 1) | 38 ( 2) | 45 ( 2) | 51 ( 1) | 51 ( 1) | 51 ( 1) |
| OFFICER (# of departments) | 1325 (28) | 1348 (27) | 1443 (28) | 1250 (13) | 1278 (13) | 1299 (14) | 410 ( 3) | 414 ( 3) | 420 ( 3) |
| MATRON (# of departments) | 3 ( 2) | 3 ( 2) | 1 ( 1) | 10 ( 3) | 10 ( 3) | 10 ( 3) | --- | NA | --- |
| RECRUIT (# of departments) | 2 ( 1) | NA | 2 ( 1) | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| CADET (# of departments) | 2 ( 1) | 2 ( 1) | 2 ( 1) | NA | NA | 7 ( 3) | 16 ( 1) | 16 ( 1) | 16 ( 1) |
| COMMUNITY SERVICE OFF. (# of departments) | 1 ( 1) | 1 ( 1) | 1 ( 1) | 2 ( 2) | 2 ( 2) | 5 ( 3) | 6 ( 2) | 6 ( 2) | 6 ( 2) |
| JAILER (# of departments) | 6 ( 2) | 5 ( 2) | 6 ( 2) | 7 ( 3) | 7 ( 3) | 7 ( 3) | 6 ( 2) | 6 ( 2) | 6 ( 2) |
| DISPATCHER (# of departments) | 15 ( 4) | 18 ( 5) | 13 ( 5) | 19 ( 4) | 18 ( 4) | 18 ( 4) | --- | NA | --- |
| OTHER (# of departments) | 24 ( 3) | 24 ( 3) | 25 ( 3) | 39 ( 3) | 39 ( 3) | 39 ( 3) | 17 ( 1) | 18 ( 1) | 18 ( 1) |



Table G-3
Police Departments in Size Categories G - I
Responding to Questionnaire: Numerical
Distribution of Departments and Sworn Personnel
For the Years 1970 - 1972

| Rank: Sworn Personnel | Size Categ. G | | | Size Categ. H | | | Size Categ. I | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 |
| CHIEF (# of departments) | 1 ( 1) | 1 ( 1) | 2 ( 2) | 3 ( 3) | 3 ( 3) | 3 ( 3) | 1 ( 1) | 2 ( 2) | 3 ( 3) |
| ASSISTANT CHIEF (# of departments) | NA | NA | 1 ( 1) | 2 ( 2) | 1 ( 1) | 1 ( 1) | 1 ( 1) | 4 ( 2) | 7 ( 3) |
| DEPUTY CHIEF (# of departments) | 3 ( 1) | 3 ( 1) | 3 ( 1) | 7 ( 3) | 9 ( 3) | 9 ( 3) | NA | 9 ( 1) | 10 ( 2) |
| INSPECTOR (# of departments) | --- | NA | --- | 18 ( 1) | 17 ( 2) | 11 ( 1) | NA | 23 ( 1) | 31 ( 2) |
| CAPTAIN (# of departments) | 4 ( 1) | 4 ( 1) | 9 ( 2) | 30 ( 3) | 32 ( 3) | 31 ( 3) | 31 ( 1) | 99 ( 2) | 115 ( 3) |
| LIEUTENANT (# of departments) | 9 ( 1) | 9 ( 1) | 21 ( 2) | 95 ( 3) | 87 ( 3) | 87 ( 3) | 69 ( 1) | 307 ( 2) | 350 ( 3) |
| SERGEANT (# of departments) | 46 ( 1) | 46 ( 1) | 99 ( 2) | 307 ( 3) | 315 ( 3) | 311 ( 3) | 331 ( 1) | 1023 ( 2) | 1171 ( 3) |
| AGENT/CPL. (# of departments) | 88 ( 1) | 88 ( 1) | 90 ( 1) | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| OFFICER (# of departments) | 143 ( 1) | 143 ( 1) | 336 ( 2) | 1320 ( 3) | 1258 ( 3) | 1324 ( 3) | NA | 6160 ( 2) | 6959 ( 3) |
| MATRON (# of departments) | --- | NA | --- | 24 ( 3) | 24 ( 3) | 24 ( 3) | NA | 99 ( 2) | 104 ( 3) |
| RECRUIT (# of departments) | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| CADET (# of departments) | 16 ( 1) | 16 ( 1) | 21 ( 1) | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| COMMUNITY SERVICE OFF. (# of departments) | 2 ( 1) | 2 ( 1) | 2 ( 1) | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| JAILER (# of departments) | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| DISPATCHER (# of departments) | 6 ( 1) | 6 ( 1) | 6 ( 1) | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| OTHER (# of departments) | NA | 11 ( 1) | 21 ( 2) | --- | NA | --- | NA | 1201 ( 2) | 1203 ( 3) |

Table G-4
Sheriff Departments in Size Categories B - D*
Responding to Questionnaire: Numerical
Distribution of Departments and Sworn Personnel
For the Years 1970 - 1972

| Rank: Sworn Personnel | Size Categ. B | | | Size Categ. C | | | Size Categ. D | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 |
| SHERIFF | 3 | 3 | 3 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| (# of departments) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 7) | ( 7) | ( 7) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) |
| UNDERSHERIFF | 3 | 3 | 3 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| (# of departments) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 7) | ( 7) | ( 7) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) |
| CHIEF DEPUTY | 1 | 1 | 1 | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | | | | | | |
| INSPECTOR | 1 | 1 | 1 | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | | | | | | |
| CAPTAIN | 1 | 1 | 1 | 7 | 7 | 8 | 7 | 7 | 7 |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 4) | ( 5) | ( 5) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) |
| LIEUTENANT | --- | NA | --- | 8 | 10 | 10 | 13 | 14 | 14 |
| (# of departments) | | | | ( 4) | ( 5) | ( 5) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) |
| SERGEANT | 5 | 6 | 6 | 31 | 36 | 38 | 28 | 26 | 27 |
| (# of departments) | ( 2) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 7) | ( 7) | ( 7) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) |
| AGENT | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | | | | |
| DEPUTY | 30 | 30 | 31 | 172 | 182 | 198 | 151 | 160 | 163 |
| (# of departments) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 7) | ( 7) | ( 7) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) |
| MATRON | 5 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 9 | 11 | 7 | 7 | 6 |
| (# of departments) | ( 2) | ( 2) | ( 2) | ( 3) | ( 2) | ( 3) | ( 2) | ( 2) | ( 2) |
| RECRUIT | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | | | | |
| CADET | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | | | | |
| COMMUNITY SERVICE OFF. | --- | NA | --- | NA | 1 | 1 | NA | 7 | 6 |
| (# of departments) | | | | | ( 1) | ( 1) | | ( 1) | ( 1) |
| JAILER | 1 | 1 | 1 | 10 | 12 | 13 | 5 | 7 | 7 |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 4) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) |
| DISPATCHER | 2 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 4 | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | | | |
| OTHER | 4 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 6 | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | | | |

*No calculable responses were provided for Size Category A.



Table G-5
Sheriff Departments in Size Categories E - G
Responding to Questionnaire: Numerical
Distribution of Departments and Sworn Personnel
For the Years 1970 - 1972

| Rank: Sworn Personnel | Size Categ. E | | | Size Categ. F | | | Size Categ. G | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 |
| SHERIFF | * | * | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (# of departments) | | | ( 1) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 4) | ( 5) |
| UNDERSHERIFF | | | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (# of departments) | | | ( 1) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 4) | ( 5) |
| CHIEF DEPUTY | | | 2 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 7 | 11 |
| (# of departments) | | | ( 2) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 2) | ( 2) | ( 3) |
| INSPECTOR | | | NA | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | | | | |
| CAPTAIN | | | 2 | 12 | 12 | 11 | 17 | 23 | 32 |
| (# of departments) | | | ( 1) | ( 2) | ( 2) | ( 2) | ( 3) | ( 4) | ( 5) |
| LIEUTENANT | | | 8 | 34 | 35 | 36 | 43 | 57 | 79 |
| (# of departments) | | | ( 1) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 4) | ( 5) |
| SERGEANT | | | 26 | 65 | 67 | 67 | 129 | 186 | 244 |
| (# of departments) | | | ( 1) | ( 2) | ( 2) | ( 2) | ( 3) | ( 4) | ( 5) |
| AGENT | | | NA | 52 | 52 | 52 | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | | | |
| DEPUTY | | | 86 | 408 | 431 | 448 | 691 | 957 | 1256 |
| (# of departments) | | | ( 1) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 3) | ( 4) | ( 5) |
| MATRON | | | 15 | 19 | 20 | 20 | 26 | 26 | 26 |
| (# of departments) | | | ( 1) | ( 2) | ( 2) | ( 2) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) |
| RECRUIT | | | NA | --- | NA | --- | NA | NA | 19 |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | | | | ( 1) |
| CADET | | | NA | --- | NA | --- | 7 | 7 | 7 |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) |
| COMMUNITY SERVICE OFF. | | | NA | 1 | 4 | 3 | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | | ( 1) | ( 2) | ( 2) | | | |
| JAILER | | | 19 | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | ( 1) | | | | | | |
| DISPATCHER | | | NA | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | | | | |
| OTHER | | | NA | NA | NA | 32 | 117 | 303 | 330 |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | ( 1) | ( 3) | ( 4) | ( 5) |

*No information provided.

Table G-6
Sheriff Departments in Size Categories H - I
Responding to Questionnaire: Numerical
Distribution of Departments and Sworn Personnel
For the Years 1970 - 1972

| Rank: Sworn Personnel | Size Categ. H | | | Size Categ. I | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 |
| SHERIFF | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) |
| UNDERSHERIFF | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) |
| CHIEF DEPUTY | 1 | 3 | 3 | 8 | 8 | 8 |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) |
| INSPECTOR | 23 | 23 | 23 | 18 | 20 | 22 |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) |
| CAPTAIN | 11 | 9 | 9 | 45 | 48 | 49 |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) |
| LIEUTENANT | 23 | 23 | 23 | 191 | 204 | 207 |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) |
| SERGEANT | 64 | 70 | 74 | 771 | 770 | 785 |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) |
| AGENT | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | |
| DEPUTY | 349 | 377 | 416 | 3574 | 3759 | 3688 |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) |
| MATRON | 13 | NA | NA | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | ( 1) | | | | | |
| RECRUIT | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | |
| CADET | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | |
| COMMUNITY SERVICE OFF. | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | |
| JAILER | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | |
| DISPATCHER | --- | NA | --- | --- | NA | --- |
| (# of departments) | | | | | | |
| OTHER | --- | NA | --- | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| (# of departments) | | | | ( 1) | ( 1) | ( 1) |



Table G-7

SWORN POLICE, CATEGORY A: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 | | 1971 | | 1972 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Ethnic Group | % | Ethnic Group | % | Ethnic Group | % |
| Chief | Spanish-Sur. | 2.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.0 |
| | White | 96.0 | White | 96.0 | White | 96.0 |
| Assis. Chief | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Deputy Chief | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Inspector | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Captain | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Lieutenant | Indian | 8.0 | Indian | 8.0 | | |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 16.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 16.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 18.0 |
| | White | 76.0 | White | 76.0 | White | 76.0 |
| Sergeant | Spanish-Sur. | 9.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 9.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 7.0 |
| | White | 90.0 | White | 91.0 | White | 93.0 |
| | Other | 1.0 | | | | |
| Agent/Cpl. | Spanish-Sur. | 10.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 18.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 22.0 |
| | White | 90.0 | White | 82.0 | White | 78.0 |
| Officer | Black | 0.9 | Black | 0.4 | Black | 0.7 |
| | Indian | 0.4 | Indian | 0.4 | Indian | 0.4 |
| | Oriental | 0.4 | Oriental | 0.9 | Oriental | 0.7 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 8.5 | Spanish-Sur. | 9.9 | Spanish-Sur. | 8.5 |
| | White | 88.0 | White | 84.2 | White | 89.0 |
| | Other | 1.8 | Other | 4.2 | Other | 0.7 |
| Matron | Spanish-Sur. | 8.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 17.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 22.0 |
| | White | 92.0 | White | 83.0 | White | 78.0 |
| Recruit | Oriental | 25.0 | Oriental | 25.0 | Oriental | 25.0 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 75.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 50.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 50.0 |
| | White | 0.0 | White | 25.0 | White | 25.0 |
| Cadet | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| CSO | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Jailer | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Dispatcher | Spanish-Sur. | 9.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 9.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 9.0 |
| | White | 91.0 | White | 91.0 | White | 91.0 |
| Other | Spanish-Sur. | 33.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 67.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 36.0 |
| | White | 67.0 | White | 33.0 | White | 64.0 |

**Table G-8**

SWORN POLICE, CATEGORY B: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chief | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% |
| Assis. Chief | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Deputy Chief | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | | |
| Inspector | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Captain | Spanish-Sur. | 7.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 8.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 8.3 |
| | White | 92.3 | White | 91.7 | White | 91.7 |
| Lieutenant | Spanish-Sur. | 5.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.8 | Spanish-Sur. | 5.0 |
| | White | 90.0 | White | 90.5 | White | 90.0 |
| | Other | 5.0 | Other | 4.7 | Other | 5.0 |
| Sergeant | Black | 1.2 | Black | 1.3 | Black | 1.2 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 8.6 | Spanish-Sur. | 9.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 9.8 |
| | White | 90.1 | White | 89.7 | White | 89.0 |
| Agent/Cpl. | Spanish-Sur. | 67.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 72.2 | Spanish-Sur. | 72.2 |
| | White | 33.0 | White | 27.8 | White | 27.8 |
| Officer | Black | 0.8 | Black | 0.8 | Black | 0.8 |
| | | | Indian | 0.4 | Indian | 0.4 |
| | | | Oriental | 0.4 | Oriental | 0.4 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 4.8 | Spanish-Sur. | 7.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 7.8 |
| | White | 94.4 | White | 90.7 | White | 90.6 |
| Matron | Black | 11.1 | Black | 16.7 | Black | 0.0 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 22.2 | Spanish-Sur. | 33.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 0.0 |
| | White | 66.7 | White | 50.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Recruit | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Cadet | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| CSO | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Jailer | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Dispatcher | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Other | Black | 3.1 | Black | 0.0 | Black | 3.2 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 3.1 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 6.5 |
| | White | 93.8 | White | 96.0 | White | 90.3 |



**Table G-9**

SWORN POLICE, CATEGORY C: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chief | Spanish-Sur. | 2.4% | Spanish-Sur. | 2.4% | Spanish-Sur. | 2.4% |
| | White | 97.6 | White | 97.6 | White | 97.6 |
| Assis. Chief | Indian | 33.0 | Indian | 16.7 | Indian | 50.0 |
| | | | Spanish-Sur. | 33.3 | | |
| | White | 67.0 | White | 50.0 | White | 50.0 |
| Deputy Chief | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Inspector | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Captain | Spanish-Sur. | 5.6 | Spanish-Sur. | 7.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 5.3 |
| | White | 94.4 | White | 92.3 | White | 94.7 |
| Lieutenant | Black | 2.2 | Black | 2.1 | Black | 1.8 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 3.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 1.1 | Spanish-Sur. | 1.8 |
| | White | 94.5 | White | 96.8 | White | 96.4 |
| Sergeant | Black | 1.4 | Black | 0.4 | Black | 0.5 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 3.2 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.5 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.5 |
| | White | 95.4 | White | 95.1 | White | 95.0 |
| Agent/Cpl. | Black | 5.0 | | | Black | 2.9 |
| | | | Spanish-Sur. | 8.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 5.7 |
| | White | 95.0 | White | 92.0 | White | 91.4 |
| Officer | Black | 1.1 | Black | 1.3 | Black | 1.7 |
| | Indian | 0.3 | Indian | 0.5 | Indian | 0.3 |
| | Oriental | 0.3 | Oriental | 0.2 | Oriental | 0.3 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 4.9 | Spanish-Sur. | 5.4 | Spanish-Sur. | 5.4 |
| | White | 93.1 | White | 92.4 | White | 92.1 |
| | Other | 0.3 | Other | 0.2 | Other | 0.2 |
| Matron | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Recruit | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Cadet | | | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| CSO | | | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Jailer | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Dispatcher | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Other | | | Black | 5.6 | | |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 21.1 | Spanish-Sur. | 5.6 | Spanish-Sur. | 14.3 |
| | White | 78.9 | White | 88.8 | White | 85.7 |

**Table G-10**

SWORN POLICE, CATEGORY D: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chief | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% |
| Assis. Chief | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Deputy Chief | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Inspector | White | 100.0 | | | | |
| Captain | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Lieutenant | Spanish-Sur. | 2.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 1.5 |
| | White | 97.7 | White | 97.7 | White | 97.8 |
| | | | | | Other | 0.7 |
| Sergeant | Oriental | 0.4 | Oriental | 0.4 | Oriental | 0.3 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 3.5 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.2 |
| | White | 96.1 | White | 97.3 | White | 96.5 |
| Agent/Cpl. | | | | | Black | 1.6 |
| | | | | | Oriental | 1.6 |
| | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 96.8 |
| Officer | Black | 1.7 | Black | 2.0 | Black | 2.3 |
| | Indian | 0.5 | Indian | 0.4 | Indian | 0.3 |
| | Oriental | 0.3 | Oriental | 0.4 | Oriental | 0.3 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 4.2 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 5.3 |
| | White | 93.0 | White | 92.1 | White | 91.4 |
| | Other | 0.3 | Other | 0.4 | Other | 0.4 |
| Matron | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Recruit | White | 100.0 | | | White | 100.0 |
| Cadet | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| CSO | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Jailer | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 |
| | White | 83.3 | White | 83.3 | White | 83.3 |
| Dispatcher | Black | 13.3 | Black | 33.3 | Black | 15.4 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 6.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 5.6 | Spanish-Sur. | 7.7 |
| | White | 80.0 | White | 61.1 | White | 76.9 |
| Other | Black | 4.2 | Black | 4.2 | Black | 4.0 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 4.2 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.2 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.0 |
| | White | 91.6 | White | 91.6 | White | 92.0 |



**Table G-11**

SWORN POLICE, CATEGORY E: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chief | Spanish-Sur. | 7.7% | Spanish-Sur. | 7.7% | Spanish-Sur. | 7.9% |
| | White | 92.3 | White | 92.3 | White | 92.1 |
| Assis. Chief | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Deputy Chief | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Inspector | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Captain | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Lieutenant | Black | 0.8 | Black | 0.8 | Black | 0.8 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 4.8 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.8 | Spanish-Sur. | 8.0 |
| | White | 94.4 | White | 94.4 | White | 91.2 |
| Sergeant | Black | 0.5 | Black | 1.0 | Black | 0.9 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 2.6 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.9 | Spanish-Sur. | 1.8 |
| | White | 96.9 | White | 96.1 | White | 97.3 |
| Agent/Cpl. | Black | 3.3 | Black | 0.0 | Black | 0.0 |
| | Oriental | 3.3 | Oriental | 2.6 | Oriental | 2.2 |
| | White | 93.4 | White | 97.4 | White | 97.8 |
| Officer | Black | 1.7 | Black | 1.8 | Black | 1.8 |
| | Indian | 0.2 | Indian | 0.2 | Indian | 0.2 |
| | Oriental | 0.2 | Oriental | 0.2 | Oriental | 0.3 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 3.1 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.2 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.6 |
| | White | 94.6 | White | 94.4 | White | 93.5 |
| | Other | 0.2 | Other | 0.2 | Other | 0.6 |
| Matron | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Recruit | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Cadet | | | | | Oriental | 14.3 |
| | | | | | Spanish-Sur. | 28.6 |
| | | | | | White | 57.1 |
| CSO | | | | | Spanish-Sur. | 20.0 |
| | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 80.0 |
| Jailer | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Dispatcher | Black | 5.6 | | | | |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 |
| | White | 77.7 | White | 77.7 | White | 77.7 |
| | | | Other | 5.6 | Other | 5.6 |
| Other | Spanish-Sur. | 7.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 7.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 5.1 |
| | White | 92.3 | White | 92.3 | White | 94.9 |

**Table G-12**

SWORN POLICE, CATEGORY F: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chief | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% |
| Assis. Chief | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Deputy Chief | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Inspector | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Captain | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Lieutenant | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Sergeant | Black | 2.7 | Black | 3.8 | Black | 11.6 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 2.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.6 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.3 |
| | White | 94.6 | White | 93.6 | White | 86.1 |
| Agent/Cpl. | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Officer | Black | 4.4 | Black | 3.6 | Black | 4.3 |
| | Oriental | 0.5 | Oriental | 0.2 | Oriental | 0.7 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 3.4 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 5.0 |
| | White | 90.2 | White | 91.5 | White | 89.8 |
| | Other | 1.5 | Other | 0.4 | Other | 0.2 |
| Matron | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Recruit | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Cadet | | | Spanish-Sur. | 6.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 6.3 |
| | White | 100.0 | White | 93.7 | White | 93.7 |
| CSO | Black | 83.3 | Black | 83.3 | Black | 83.3 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 |
| Jailer | Black | 16.7 | Black | 16.7 | Black | 16.7 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 |
| | White | 66.6 | White | 66.6 | White | 66.6 |
| Dispatcher | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Other | | | Black | 5.6 | Black | 5.6 |
| | White | 100.0 | White | 94.4 | White | 94.4 |



**Table G-13**

SWORN POLICE, CATEGORY G: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chief | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% |
| Assis. Chief | | | | | White | 100.0 |
| Deputy Chief | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Inspector | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Captain | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Lieutenant | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Sergeant | Black | 2.2 | Black | 2.2 | Black | 1.0 |
| | | | | | Indian | 2.0 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 8.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 8.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.0 |
| | White | 89.1 | White | 89.1 | White | 93.0 |
| Agent/Cpl. | Black | 2.3 | Black | 2.3 | Black | 2.3 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 4.5 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.5 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.5 |
| | White | 93.2 | White | 93.2 | White | 93.2 |
| Officer | Black | 1.4 | Black | 1.4 | Black | 3.0 |
| | | | | | Indian | 0.3 |
| | | | | | Oriental | 0.3 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 10.5 | Spanish-Sur. | 10.5 | Spanish-Sur. | 7.4 |
| | White | 88.1 | White | 88.1 | White | 89.0 |
| Matron | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Recruit | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Cadet | | | | | Black | 4.8 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 6.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 6.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.8 |
| | White | 93.7 | White | 93.7 | White | 93.7 |
| CSO | Black | 50.0 | Black | 50.0 | Black | 50.0 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 50.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 50.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 50.0 |
| Jailer | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Dispatcher | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 |
| | White | 83.3 | White | 83.3 | White | 83.3 |
| Other | | | Black | 72.7 | Black | 34.8 |
| | | | Oriental | 27.3 | | |
| | | | | | Spanish-Sur. | 21.7 |
| | | | | | White | 43.5 |

Table G-14

SWORN POLICE, CATEGORY H: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chief | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% |
| Assis. Chief | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Deputy Chief | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Inspector | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Captain | Black | 9.4 | | | | |
| | | | Spanish-Sur. | 3.2 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.2 |
| | White | 90.6 | White | 96.8 | White | 96.8 |
| Lieutenant | | | Black | 2.3 | Black | 2.3 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 1.1 | Spanish-Sur. | 1.1 | Spanish-Sur. | 1.1 |
| | White | 98.9 | White | 95.5 | White | 95.5 |
| | | | Other | 1.1 | Other | 1.1 |
| Sergeant | | | Black | 1.0 | Black | 1.0 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 1.6 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.5 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.9 |
| | White | 98.4 | White | 96.5 | White | 95.1 |
| Agent/Cpl. | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Officer | Black | 4.9 | Black | 6.4 | Black | 6.2 |
| | Indian | 0.2 | Indian | 0.2 | Indian | 0.3 |
| | Oriental | 0.5 | Oriental | 1.0 | Oriental | 1.1 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 3.6 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.8 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.9 |
| | White | 90.7 | White | 87.4 | White | 87.3 |
| | Other | 0.1 | Other | 0.2 | Other | 0.2 |
| Matron | Black | 8.3 | Black | 8.3 | Black | 8.3 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 8.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 12.5 | Spanish-Sur. | 12.5 |
| | White | 79.2 | White | 75.0 | White | 75.0 |
| | Other | 4.2 | Other | 4.2 | Other | 4.2 |
| Recruit | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Cadet | (N/A) | | | | | |
| CSO | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Jailer | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Dispatcher | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Other | (N/A) | | | | | |



Table G-15

SWORN POLICE, CATEGORY I: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chief | | | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% |
| Assis. Chief | | | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Deputy Chief | | | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Inspector | | | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Captain | | | Black | 2.0 | Black | 1.7 |
| | | | Spanish-Sur. | 1.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 1.7 |
| | | | White | 97.0 | White | 96.6 |
| Lieutenant | | | Black | 1.6 | Black | 1.7 |
| | | | Spanish-Sur. | 1.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.0 |
| | | | White | 96.7 | White | 96.0 |
| | | | Other | 0.4 | Other | 0.3 |
| Sergeant | | | Black | 3.7 | Black | 3.0 |
| | | | | | Indian | 0.1 |
| | | | | | Oriental | 0.1 |
| | | | Spanish-Sur. | 2.8 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.9 |
| | | | White | 93.2 | White | 93.7 |
| | | | Other | 0.3 | Other | 0.2 |
| Agent/Cpl. | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Officer | | | Black | 5.7 | Black | 5.1 |
| | | | Indian | 0.1 | Indian | 0.1 |
| | | | Oriental | 0.5 | Oriental | 0.5 |
| | | | Spanish-Sur. | 5.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 6.8 |
| | | | White | 87.6 | White | 87.4 |
| | | | Other | 0.4 | Other | 0.1 |
| Matron | | | Black | 15.2 | Black | 9.0 |
| | | | Oriental | 1.0 | | |
| | | | Spanish-Sur. | 3.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.0 |
| | | | White | 80.8 | White | 88.0 |
| Recruit | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Cadet | (N/A) | | | | | |
| CSO | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Jailer | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Dispatcher | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Other | | | Black | 1.7 | Black | 4.6 |
| | | | Oriental | 0.3 | Oriental | 0.7 |
| | | | Spanish-Sur. | 3.9 | Spanish-Sur. | 6.5 |
| | | | White | 93.8 | White | 88.1 |
| | | | Other | 0.3 | Other | 0.1 |

## Table G-16

SWORN SHERIFF, CATEGORY B: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sheriff | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% |
| Undersheriff | Spanish-Sur. | 33.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 33.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 33.0 |
| | White | 67.0 | White | 67.0 | White | 67.0 |
| Chief Deputy | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Inspector | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Captain | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Lieutenant | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Sergeant | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Agent | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Deputy | Spanish-Sur. | 6.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 6.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 9.4 |
| | White | 93.3 | White | 93.3 | White | 90.6 |
| Matron | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Recruit | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Cadet | (N/A) | | | | | |
| CSO | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Jailer | Spanish-Sur. | 100.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 100.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 100.0 |
| Dispatcher | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Other | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |

NOTE: There were no Sheriff departments in size category A.



## Table G-17

SWORN SHERIFF, CATEGORY C: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sheriff | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% |
| Undersheriff | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Chief Deputy | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Inspector | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Captain | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Lieutenant | Spanish-Sur. | 12.5 | Spanish-Sur. | 10.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 10.0 |
| | White | 87.5 | White | 90.0 | White | 90.0 |
| Sergeant | Black | 6.5 | Black | 2.8 | Black | 2.6 |
| | Indian | | Indian | 2.8 | Indian | 2.6 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 3.2 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.8 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.6 |
| | White | 90.3 | White | 91.6 | White | 92.2 |
| Agent | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Deputy | Black | 1.8 | Black | 1.7 | Black | 2.0 |
| | Indian | 1.2 | Indian | 1.7 | Indian | 3.0 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 3.5 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.4 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.6 |
| | White | 93.6 | White | 92.3 | White | 90.9 |
| | Other | 0.6 | Other | 0.6 | Other | 0.5 |
| Matron | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Recruit | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Cadet | (N/A) | | | | | |
| CSO | | | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Jailer | Indian | 10.0 | Indian | 16.7 | Indian | 7.7 |
| | White | 90.0 | White | 83.3 | White | 92.3 |
| Dispatcher | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Other | Spanish-Sur. | 20.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 16.7 |
| | White | 80.0 | White | 83.3 | White | 83.3 |

Table G-18

SWORN SHERIFF, CATEGORY D: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sheriff | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% |
| Undersheriff | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Chief Deputy | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Inspector | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Captain | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Lieutenant | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Sergeant | Spanish-Sur. | 7.1 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.8 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.7 |
| | White | 92.9 | White | 96.2 | White | 96.3 |
| Agent | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Deputy | Indian | 1.3 | Indian | 0.6 | Indian | 0.0 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 2.6 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.1 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.5 |
| | White | 96.1 | White | 96.3 | White | 97.5 |
| Matron | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Recruit | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Cadet | (N/A) | | | | | |
| CSO | | | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Jailer | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Dispatcher | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Other | (N/A) | | | | | |



Table G-19

SWORN SHERIFF, CATEGORY E: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sheriff | | | | | White | 100.0% |
| Undersheriff | | | | | White | 100.0 |
| Chief Deputy | | | | | White | 100.0 |
| Inspector | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Captain | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Lieutenant | | | | | White | 100.0 |
| Sergeant | | | | | Spanish-Sur. | 3.8 |
| | | | | | White | 96.2 |
| Agent | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Deputy | | | | | Spanish Sur. | 4.7 |
| | | | | | White | 95.3 |
| Matron | | | | | White | 100.0 |
| Recruit | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Cadet | (N/A) | | | | | |
| CSO | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Jailer | | | | | Black | 5.3 |
| | | | | | Spanish-Sur. | 5.3 |
| | | | | | White | 89.4 |
| Dispatcher | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Other | (N/A) | | | | | |

Table G-20

SWORN SHERIFF, CATEGORY F: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sheriff | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% |
| Undersheriff | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Chief Deputy | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Inspector | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Captain | Black | 8.3 | Black | 8.3 | | |
| | White | 91.7 | White | 91.7 | White | 100.0 |
| Lieutenant | Black | 2.9 | Black | 3.0 | Black | 2.8 |
| | | | Indian | 6.1 | | |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 5.9 | | | Spanish-Sur. | 5.6 |
| | White | 91.2 | White | 90.9 | White | 91.6 |
| Sergeant | Black | 1.5 | Black | 1.5 | Black | 1.5 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 1.5 | Spanish-Sur. | 1.5 | Spanish-Sur. | 1.5 |
| | White | 97.0 | White | 97.0 | White | 97.0 |
| Agent | Spanish-Sur. | 7.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 7.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 7.7 |
| | White | 92.3 | White | 92.3 | White | 92.3 |
| Deputy | Black | 2.2 | Black | 2.6 | Black | 3.1 |
| | Oriental | 0.5 | Oriental | 0.5 | Oriental | 0.7 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 2.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 5.1 |
| | White | 94.6 | White | 93.2 | White | 91.1 |
| Matron | Black | 10.5 | Black | 15.0 | | |
| | | | | | Spanish-Sur. | 20.0 |
| | White | 89.5 | White | 85.0 | White | 80.0 |
| Recruit | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Cadet | (N/A) | | | | | |
| CSO | | | Black | 25.0 | Black | 25.0 |
| | | | Spanish-Sur. | 25.0 | Spanish-Sur. | 25.0 |
| | White | 100.0 | White | 50.0 | White | 50.0 |
| Jailer | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Dispatcher | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Other | | | | | Spanish-Sur. | 6.3 |
| | | | | | White | 93.7 |



Table G-21

SWORN SHERIFF, CATEGORY G: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sheriff | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% |
| Undersheriff | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Chief Deputy | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Inspector | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Captain | | | | | Spanish-Sur. | 3.1 |
| | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 96.9 |
| Lieutenant | Black | 2.3 | | | | |
| | Oriental | 2.3 | Oriental | 1.8 | Oriental | 1.3 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 2.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 1.8 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.6 |
| | White | 93.1 | White | 96.4 | White | 96.1 |
| Sergeant | Black | 2.3 | Black | 2.7 | Black | 2.9 |
| | | | Oriental | 1.1 | Oriental | 1.2 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 2.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.3 |
| | White | 95.4 | White | 93.5 | White | 92.6 |
| Agent | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Deputy | Black | 4.1 | Black | 2.9 | Black | 2.4 |
| | Indian | 0.1 | Indian | 0.1 | Indian | 0.2 |
| | Oriental | 0.7 | Oriental | 0.4 | Oriental | 0.4 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 4.2 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.2 |
| | White | 90.9 | White | 92.8 | White | 92.6 |
| | | | Other | 0.1 | Other | 0.2 |
| Matron | Spanish-Sur. | 3.8 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.8 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.8 |
| | White | 96.2 | White | 96.2 | White | 96.2 |
| Recruit | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Cadet | Black | 14.3 | Black | 14.3 | Black | 14.3 |
| | | | | | Oriental | 14.3 |
| | | | | | Spanish-Sur. | 14.3 |
| | White | 85.7 | White | 85.7 | White | 57.1 |
| CSO | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Jailer | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Dispatcher | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Other | Black | 3.4 | Black | 1.7 | Black | 1.2 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 2.6 | Spanish-Sur. | 1.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.4 |
| | White | 94.0 | White | 96.6 | White | 96.4 |

**Table G-22**

SWORN SHERIFF, CATEGORY H: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sheriff | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% |
| Undersheriff | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Chief Deputy | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Inspector | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Captain | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Lieutenant | Oriental | 4.3 | Oriental | 4.3 | Oriental | 4.3 |
| | White | 95.7 | White | 95.7 | White | 95.7 |
| Sergeant | Indian | 1.6 | Indian | 1.4 | Indian | 1.4 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 4.7 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.7 |
| | White | 93.8 | White | 94.3 | White | 95.9 |
| Agent | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Deputy | Black | 2.3 | Black | 2.4 | Black | 2.2 |
| | Oriental | 0.0 | Oriental | 0.3 | Oriental | 0.5 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 2.3 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.1 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.2 |
| | White | 95.4 | White | 95.2 | White | 95.1 |
| Matron | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Recruit | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Cadet | (N/A) | | | | | |
| CSO | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Jailer | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Dispatcher | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Other | (N/A) | | | | | |



**Table G-23**

SWORN SHERIFF, CATEGORY I: PERCENTAGE ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCY PERSONNEL

| Position/Rank | 1970 Ethnic Group | 1970 % | 1971 Ethnic Group | 1971 % | 1972 Ethnic Group | 1972 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sheriff | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% | White | 100.0% |
| Undersheriff | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Chief Deputy | Spanish-Sur. | 12.5 | | | | |
| | White | 87.5 | White | 100.0 | White | 100.0 |
| Inspector | Black | 11.1 | Black | 10.0 | Black | 9.1 |
| | | | | | Indian | 4.5 |
| | White | 83.3 | White | 85.0 | White | 86.4 |
| | Other | 5.6 | Other | 5.0 | | |
| Captain | Black | 2.2 | Black | 2.1 | Black | 2.0 |
| | | | Spanish-Sur. | 4.2 | Spanish-Sur. | 8.2 |
| | White | 97.8 | White | 93.7 | White | 89.8 |
| Lieutenant | Black | 2.1 | Black | 2.5 | Black | 2.4 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 2.1 | Spanish-Sur. | 1.5 | Spanish-Sur. | 1.4 |
| | White | 95.8 | White | 96.0 | White | 96.2 |
| Sergeant | Black | 2.1 | Black | 2.3 | Black | 3.1 |
| | Oriental | 0.3 | Oriental | 0.5 | Oriental | 0.4 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 1.9 | Spanish-Sur. | 2.2 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.2 |
| | White | 95.7 | White | 95.0 | White | 93.3 |
| Agent | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Deputy | Black | 9.3 | Black | 9.5 | Black | 9.8 |
| | | | | | Indian | 0.2 |
| | Oriental | 0.2 | Oriental | 0.2 | Oriental | 0.3 |
| | Spanish-Sur. | 4.1 | Spanish-Sur. | 3.9 | Spanish-Sur. | 4.7 |
| | White | 86.2 | White | 86.2 | White | 85.0 |
| | Other | 0.2 | Other | 0.2 | | |
| Matron | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Recruit | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Cadet | (N/A) | | | | | |
| CSO | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Jailer | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Dispatcher | (N/A) | | | | | |
| Other | (N/A) | | | | | |

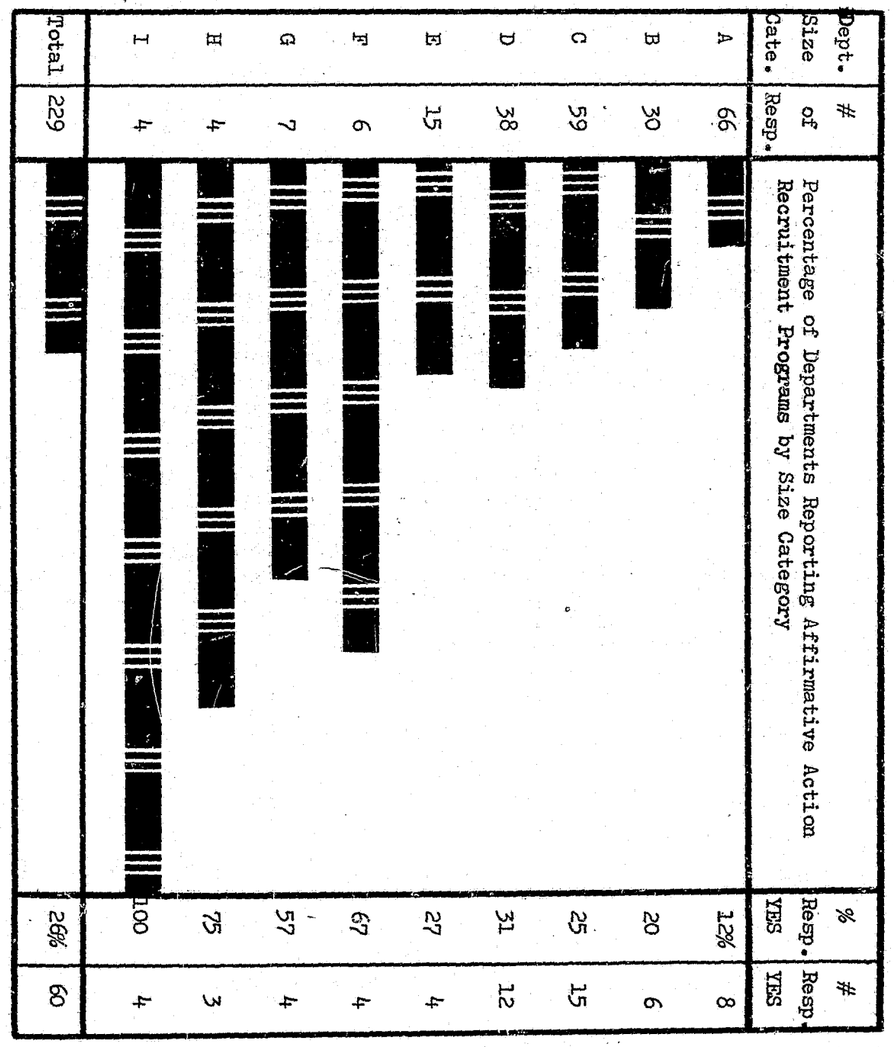



Figure G-1
DEPARTMENTS REPORTING AFFIRMATIVE ACTION RECRUITMENT PROGRAMS



Table 6-24
INITIATION DATES OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION PROGRAMS
BY SIZE CATEGORIES

| Departmental Size Category | 1965 | 1966 | 1967 | 1968 | 1969 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | 2 | | | | 1 | | 1 | 3 | 7 |
| B | | | 1 | | | 2 | 1 | 2 | 6 |
| C | 1 | | 1 | 1 | | | 6 | 5 | 14 |
| D | | | | | | | 6 | 6 | 12 |
| E | | 1 | | | | 1 | 1 | | 3 |
| F | | | | | | | 3 | 1 | 4 |
| G | | | | | | | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| H | | | | | | | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| I | | | | | 2 | | | 2 | 4 |
| Total | 3 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 22 | 22 | 57 |

**One department in size category "A" began the program in 1957.
One department in size category "C" began the program in 1960.

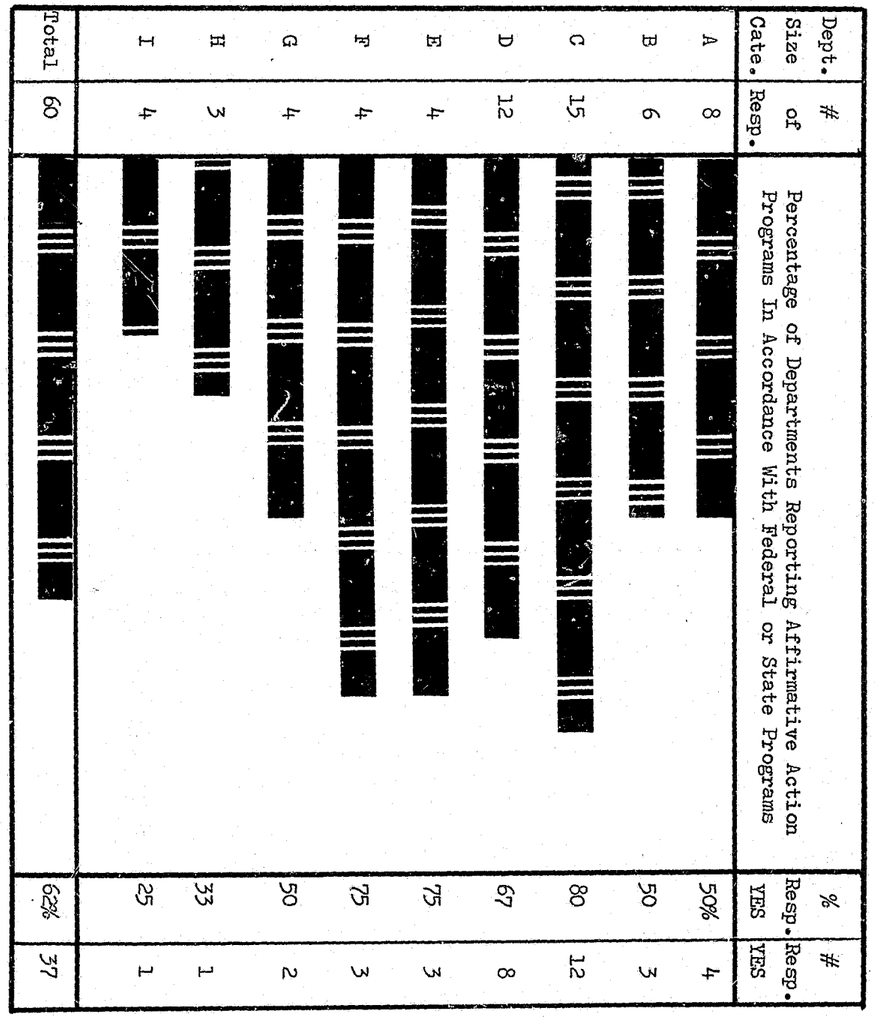



Figure G-2
AFFIRMATIVE ACTION RECRUITMENT PROGRAMS IN ACCORDANCE WITH ONGOING FEDERAL OR STATE PROGRAMS



Table 6-25
THE DEPARTMENTS REPORTING AFFIRMATIVE ACTION RECRUITMENT PROGRAMS INDICATED THEIR ACCORDANCE WITH THE FOLLOWING ONGOING FEDERAL OR STATE PROGRAMS:

| Name of Program | # of Departments |
|---|---|
| Emergency Employment Act of 1971 (P.E.P.)..... | 15 |
| Equal Opportunity Employment Act of 1965..... | 2 |
| Community Service Officer and Community Relations Officer Programs..... | 2 |
| Model Cities Law Enforcement Training Program... | 2 |
| Neighborhood Youth Corps..... | 2 |
| Law Enforcement Assistance Administration..... | 1 |
| Special Employee Assistance Program..... | 1 |
| Kings County Affirmative Action Program..... | 1 |
| Fair Employment Practices Commission..... | 1 |
| "AQUI"..... | 1 |
| Compliance with Executive Order #11246..... | 1 |
| Reserve Deputy Program..... | 1 |
| Traffic Control Officer Program..... | 1 |
| Federal Civil Service Commission Requirements... | 1 |
| New Careers..... | 1 |
| "WINN"..... | 1 |
| Operation Mainstream..... | 1 |
| "Unknown"..... | 1 |
| Total..... | 36 |

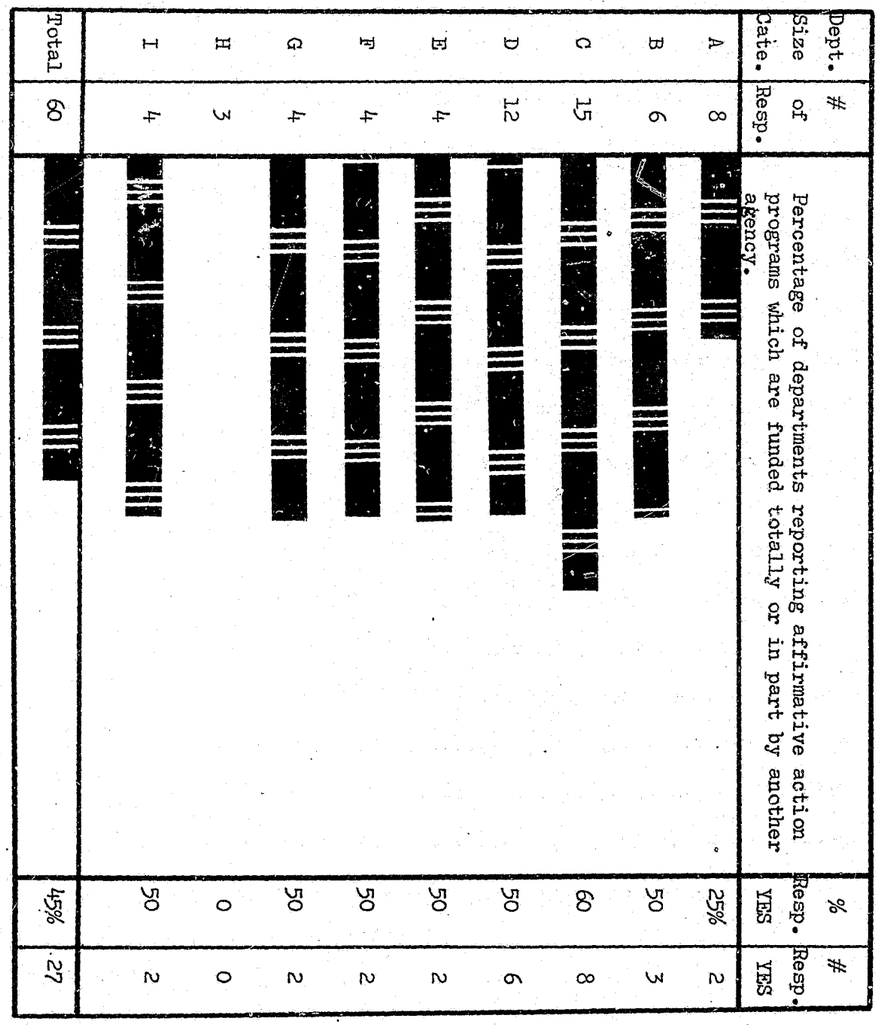



Figure G-3
AFFIRMATIVE ACTION PROGRAMS FUNDED TOTALLY OR IN PART BY ANOTHER AGENCY



Table G-26
THE DEPARTMENTS REPORTING AFFIRMATIVE ACTION PROGRAMS LIST THE FOLLOWING AGENCIES AS PROVIDING ASSISTANCE EITHER TOTALLY OR IN PART IN THE FUNDING OF THEIR AFFIRMATIVE ACTION RECRUITMENT PROGRAMS:

| Name of Agency | # of Departments |
|---|---|
| Federal Government | 9 |
| California Council on Criminal Justice | 4 |
| Public Employment Program | 3 |
| Equal Opportunity Commission | 1 |
| Marin Police Community Relations Department | 1 |
| W.I.N.N. - Operation Mainstream | 1 |
| Kings County | 1 |
| Sutter County | 1 |
| Department of Health, Education and Welfare (YDDPA) | 1 |
| Department of Labor | 1 |
| Law Enforcement Assistance Administration | 1 |
| Los Angeles County Personnel Department (Manpower Program Division) | 1 |
| Model Cities - Bayview-Hunter's Point | 1 |
| Total | 26 |

## Table G-28
## MINORITY EMPLOYEES LEAVING AGENCIES DURING THE YEARS 1970, 1971, and 1972

**Number of departments responding to Question 11.

1 = BLACK 2 = INDIAN 3 = ORIENTAL 4 = SPANISH SURNAME 5 = OTHER T = TOTAL

| Departmental Size Category | SWORN: 1970 | | | | | | SWORN: 1971 | | | | | | SWORN: 1972 | | | | | | SWORN: TOTAL | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | T | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | T | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | T | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | T |
| (25)** A | | | | 4 | | 4 | | | | 3 | | 3 | 1 | | | | | 1 | 1 | | | 7 | | 8 |
| (12) B | 2 | 1 | | 2 | | 5 | | | | 2 | | 2 | | | | 5 | | 5 | 2 | 1 | | 9 | | 12 |
| (22) C | 2 | | | 4 | | 6 | 2 | | 1 | 4 | | 7 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 2 | | 7 | 7 | 1 | 2 | 10 | | 20 |
| (17) D | 1 | 1 | | 3 | 3 | 8 | 2 | 1 | | 5 | 4 | 12 | 1 | 2 | | 3 | 6 | 12 | 4 | 4 | | 11 | 13 | 32 |
| ( 9) E | 3 | | | 2 | | 5 | 2 | | | 2 | | 4 | 5 | | | 2 | | 7 | 10 | | | 6 | | 16 |
| ( 3) F | 4 | | | 2 | | 6 | 6 | | | 1 | | 7 | 4 | | | 1 | | 5 | 14 | | | 4 | | 18 |
| ( 7) G | 7 | | | 3 | | 10 | 2 | 1 | | 4 | | 7 | 5 | 1 | | 3 | | 9 | 14 | 2 | | 10 | | 26 |
| ( 2) H | 4 | | | | | 4 | 4 | | 1 | 2 | | 7 | 10 | | 2 | 4 | | 16 | 18 | | 3 | 6 | | 27 |
| ( 2) I | 1 | | | | | 1 | 3 | | | | | 3 | 4 | | 3 | 2 | | 9 | 8 | | 3 | 2 | | 13 |
| SWORN: TOTAL | 24 | 2 | | 20 | 3 | 49 | 21 | 2 | 2 | 23 | 4 | 52 | 33 | 4 | 6 | 22 | 6 | 71 | 78 | 8 | 8 | 65 | 13 | 172 |

| Departmental Size Category | NONSWORN: 1970 | | | | | | NONSWORN: 1971 | | | | | | NONSWORN: 1972 | | | | | | NONSWORN: TOTAL | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | T | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | T | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | T | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | T |
| A | 1 | | | 2 | | 3 | | | | | | 0 | | | | | | 0 | 1 | | | 2 | | 3 |
| B | | | | | | 0 | 1 | | | 2 | | 3 | 2 | | | | | 2 | 3 | | | 2 | | 5 |
| C | 1 | | | 3 | | 4 | 3 | | | 1 | | 4 | 4 | | | 2 | | 6 | 8 | | | 6 | | 14 |
| D | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 2 | | 2 | 4 | 2 | 10 | 2 | 1 | | 2 | | 5 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 7 | 4 | 18 |
| E | 5 | | | 1 | | 6 | 3 | | | 2 | | 5 | 4 | | 1 | 1 | | 6 | 12 | | 1 | 4 | | 17 |
| F | 2 | | 1 | 1 | | 4 | 6 | | | 1 | | 7 | 6 | | | 2 | | 8 | 14 | | 1 | 4 | | 19 |
| G | 6 | | 2 | 1 | | 9 | 7 | 1 | 1 | 6 | | 15 | 10 | | 2 | 8 | | 20 | 23 | 1 | 5 | 15 | | 44 |
| H | 2 | | | | | 2 | 3 | | 1 | | | 4 | 2 | | | 1 | | 3 | 7 | | 1 | 1 | | 9 |
| I | | | | | | 0 | | | | | | 0 | 8 | | 2 | | | 10 | 8 | | 2 | | | 10 |
| NONSWORN: TOTAL | 17 | 0 | 3 | 9 | 2 | 31 | 25 | 1 | 4 | 16 | 2 | 48 | 38 | 1 | 5 | 16 | 0 | 60 | 80 | 2 | 12 | 41 | 4 | 139 |
| SWORN & NON-SWORN: TOTAL | 41 | 2 | 3 | 29 | 5 | 80 | 46 | 3 | 6 | 39 | 6 | 100 | 71 | 5 | 11 | 38 | 6 | 131 | 158 | 10 | 20 | 106 | 17 | 311 |



## Table G-27
## MINORITY EMPLOYEES HIRED AS A RESULT OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION PROGRAMS

1 = BLACK 2 = INDIAN 3 = ORIENTAL 4 = SPANISH SURNAME 5 = OTHER T = TOTAL

| Departmental Size Category | 1970 | | | | | | 1971 | | | | | | 1972 | | | | | | TOTAL | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | T | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | T | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | T | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | T |
| A | | | | 2 | | 2 | 1 | | | 6 | | 7 | | | | 2 | | 2 | 1 | | | 10 | | 11 |
| B | 1 | | | 1 | | 2 | 1 | 1 | | 2 | | 4 | | | | 6 | 2 | 8 | 2 | 1 | | 9 | 2 | 14 |
| C | 1 | | | 1 | | 2 | 4 | 1 | | 5 | | 10 | 2 | | | 10 | | 12 | 7 | 1 | | 16 | | 24 |
| D | | 1 | | | | 1 | 3 | | 1 | 6 | | 10 | 17 | 3 | 2 | 18 | 1 | 41 | 20 | 4 | 3 | 24 | 1 | 52 |
| E | 4 | 1 | | 4 | 1 | 10 | 1 | | | 3 | 2 | 6 | 10 | | | 6 | 6 | 22 | 15 | 1 | | 13 | 9 | 38 |
| F | | | | | | 0 | 8 | | | 1 | | 9 | 1 | | 1 | 1 | | 3 | 9 | | 1 | 2 | | 12 |
| G | | | | | | 0 | 11 | | | 4 | | 15 | 15 | 1 | | 12 | | 28 | 26 | 1 | | 16 | | 43 |
| H | 8 | | 3 | 1 | | 12 | 22 | 1 | 7 | 16 | 1 | 47 | 6 | 2 | 4 | 4 | | 16 | 36 | 3 | 14 | 21 | 1 | 75 |
| I | | | | | | 0 | 20 | | 4 | 62 | 2 | 88 | 43 | | 3 | 60 | 1 | 107 | 63 | | 7 | 122 | 3 | 195 |
| TOTAL | 14 | 2 | 3 | 9 | 1 | 29 | 71 | 3 | 12 | 105 | 5 | 196 | 94 | 6 | 10 | 119 | 10 | 239 | 179 | 11 | 25 | 233 | 16 | 464 |

| Size Category | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | I | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number of Departments Reporting Affirmative Action Programs | 8 | 6 | 15 | 12 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 60 |
| Number of Departments Responding to Question 10 | 7 | 6 | 11 | 11 | 5 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 49 |

Table G-29
THREE MOST FREQUENT REASONS GIVEN FOR RESIGNATIONS BY MINORITY OFFICERS

| Departmental Size Category | | FIRST CHOICE | | | | | | SECOND CHOICE | | | | | | THIRD CHOICE | | | | | | TOTAL | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | A* | B* | C* | D* | E* | F* | A | B | C | D | E | F | A | B | C | D | E | F | A | B | C | D | E | F |
| (17)** | A | 5 | | 1 | 2 | | | 1 | 2 | | 1 | | | 1 | 1 | | | | | 7 | 3 | 1 | 3 | | |
| (11) | B | 3 | 6 | | | | 3 | 1 | | | | | | | | | 1 | | | 4 | 6 | | 1 | | 3 |
| (24) | C | 10 | 5 | | | 2 | 11 | | 4 | 1 | 2 | | 2 | | 1 | 1 | 2 | | 1 | 10 | 10 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 14 |
| (18) | D | 8 | 3 | | | 1 | 8 | 1 | 2 | | 1 | | 6 | 1 | 1 | | | | 4 | 10 | 6 | | 1 | 1 | 18 |
| ( 9) | E | 3 | 1 | | | | 3 | | 2 | | | | 2 | 1 | | | | | 1 | 4 | 3 | | | | 6 |
| ( 5) | F | 2 | 3 | | | | | | 2 | | | | 2 | | | | 1 | | | 2 | 5 | | 1 | | 2 |
| ( 7) | G | 1 | 2 | | 1 | | 3 | 3 | 2 | | | | 1 | | 1 | | | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | 1 | 2 | 7 |
| ( 2) | H | 1 | | | | | 1 | 1 | 1 | | | | | | | | | | 2 | 2 | 1 | | | | 3 |
| ( 4) | I | | 3 | | | | 1 | 2 | | | | | 1 | 1 | | | 1 | | 1 | 3 | 3 | | 1 | | 3 |
| (97) | TOTAL | 33 | 23 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 30 | 9 | 15 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 14 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 5 | 2 | 12 | 46 | 42 | 3 | 12 | 5 | 56 |

**Number of departments responding to Question 12.

*A = Accept employment in another law enforcement agency.
B = Accept employment outside of law enforcement.
C = Lack of promotional opportunities.
D = Low salaries/benefits.
E = Inability to get along with fellow officers.
F = Other.

Appendix H

COMMUNITY-POLICE RELATIONS PROGRAMS

The program descriptions on the following five pages represent a type of descriptive program model utilized by the Advisory Commission. This model is designed to briefly state the most crucial aspects of the program while allowing for modification in the configuration of the various components of the model.

Programs from the first five typologies identified in Chapter 12 - Public Information, Crime Prevention, Traffic, Police Strategy Changes, Youth Education and Services - have been selected on the basis of their dominance within these typologies. Due to the very low response in the Police Work Role & Work Conduct Changes and Police Training typologies, and the great variety of those programs that were submitted, we are hesitant to identify representative or "model" programs in these areas at this time.

At the beginning of each of the following program descriptions there are listings of department size categories. These represent the categories in which the particular program constitutes the highest percentage of the total programs in that size category within the identified typology. The various program characteristics follow and include the most common features of each program as indicated on the program sheets received by the Advisory Commission.

PROGRAM TYPOLOGY: Public Information

TYPOLOGY CATEGORY: Police Image Reinforcement

DEPARTMENT SIZE CATEGORY: D, G, and I - over 30% of programs in typology represented here

AGENCY : Police and Sheriff Departments

NAME OF PROGRAM: Speakers Bureau - represent 28% of programs submitted in Public Information typology

PROGRAM SPONSORED BY: Police and Sheriff Departments

PROGRAM ADMINISTERED BY: Community Relations Officer; Chief of Police; Administrative Assistant; Administrative Unit

SOURCE(S) OF FUNDING: Department budget (regular, operations, overtime, community services); City/County general fund

PERSONNEL COMMITMENT: Greatly varies; no established times

OUTSIDE SUPPORT: School districts; community organizations

OBJECTIVES & GOALS: Answer questions; explain police role in the community; improve community relations; public education on laws, procedures, and programs; disseminate information.

TARGET GROUPS: All elements of the community.

EVALUATION MEASURES: Levels of participation and attendance, head counts; feedback from community; requests.

COMMENTS: Problems incurred in conducting program include lack of citizen interest; need for public speaking training; drain on manpower and equipment; topic selection; program planning, time, and scheduling; need for more visual aids; lack of evaluative techniques.



PROGRAM TYPOLOGY: Crime Prevention

TYPOLOGY CATEGORY: Crime Specific

DEPARTMENT SIZE CATEGORY: A, B, and C - over 50% of programs in typology represented here

AGENCY: Police and Sheriff Departments

NAME OF PROGRAM: Operation Identification - represents 48% of programs submitted in Crime Prevention typology

PROGRAM SPONSORED BY: Police and Sheriff Departments

PROGRAM ADMINISTERED BY: Community Relations Officer; Records & Identification, Detective, Administration, or Training and Research divisions

SOURCE(S) OF FUNDING: Department budget, insurance agents, city/county funds, services clubs (especially Lions, Exchange, and Jaycees)

PERSONNEL COMMITMENT: Varies

OUTSIDE SUPPORT: Other law enforcement agencies (lending of equipment), service clubs, school districts, media

OBJECTIVES & GOALS: Encourage identification of valuables; burglary prevention; recovery of stolen property.

TARGET GROUPS: Entire community; focus on merchants; focus on residential areas

EVALUATION MEASURES: Number of people borrowing tools; attendance at meetings; increase in recovery of stolen property.

COMMENTS: Major problems in implementing this program include gaining attention of citizens and promoting an awareness of the problem.

PROGRAM TYPOLOGY: Traffic

TYPOLOGY CATEGORY: Bicycle-Pedestrian Safety

DEPARTMENT SIZE CATEGORY: A, C, E, G - over 80% of programs in typology represented here

AGENCY: Police and Sheriff Departments

NAME OF PROGRAM: Bicycle-Pedestrian Safety - represents 70% of programs submitted in Traffic typology

PROGRAM SPONSORED BY: Police and Sheriff Departments; in conjunction with schools, service clubs, Automobile Club, California Highway Patrol

PROGRAM ADMINISTERED BY: Community Relations Officer; cadets, reserves; Traffic or Patrol divisions

SOURCE(S) OF FUNDING: Department budget, city/county funds, PTA and school budgets, service clubs

PERSONNEL COMMITMENT: Varies

OUTSIDE SUPPORT: Fire departments, bike shops, schools, service clubs, Automobile Club, California Highway Patrol

OBJECTIVES & GOALS: Reduce accidents; bicycle theft prevention; teach children traffic rules and regulations; create an awareness of safety

TARGET GROUPS: All juveniles, especially elementary school children

EVALUATION MEASURES: School attendance records; reduction in accidents and bicycle thefts

COMMENTS: Problems encountered in conducting these programs include scheduling, manpower availability, and a tendency to overlook older children.

These programs greatly vary in orientation, from bike rodeos to talking cars and classroom presentations.



PROGRAM TYPOLOGY: Police Strategy Changes

TYPOLOGY CATEGORY: Community Outreach & Image Rejuvenation

DEPARTMENT SIZE CATEGORY: C - over 60% of programs in typology represented here

AGENCY: Police and Sheriff Departments

NAME OF PROGRAM: Community Special Events

PROGRAM SPONSORED BY: Police and Sheriff Departments; in conjunction with city or service organizations

PROGRAM ADMINISTERED BY: Community Relations Officer; Chief of Police; Patrol Division

SOURCE(S) OF FUNDING: Greatly varies between department budget, local government agency and community organization funds; much contributed resources

PERSONNEL COMMITMENT: Varies

OUTSIDE SUPPORT: Other local government agencies, schools, community organizations

OBJECTIVES & GOALS: Improve community relations; allow volunteer officers the opportunity to do something for needy residents; improve police image; allow civic groups to utilize police facilities for social functions

TARGET GROUPS: Varies - entire community, youth, minorities

EVALUATION MEASURES: Levels of participation; community feedback

COMMENTS: Types of programs range from Christmas programs involving the distribution of food and clothing to needy residents; police musical groups; emergency gas

PROGRAM TYPOLOGY: Youth Education and Services Programs

TYPOLOGY CATEGORY: Youth Development

DEPARTMENT SIZE CATEGORY: C, D, and F - over 20% of programs in typology represented here

AGENCY: Police and Sheriff Departments

NAME OF PROGRAM: Explorers/Boy Scouts - 17% of typology

PROGRAM SPONSORED BY: Police and Sheriff Departments

PROGRAM ADMINISTERED BY: Patrol, Administrative, or Services divisions

SOURCE(S) OF FUNDING: Department budget; city/county funds; service organizations; fund-raising activities

PERSONNEL COMMITMENT: Varies - much contributed time

OUTSIDE SUPPORT: Service organizations

OBJECTIVES & GOALS: Involve high school youth with department; develop community responsibility; generate interest in law enforcement as a career

TARGET GROUPS: High school age youth

EVALUATION MEASURES: Levels of participation; effectiveness as a service organization

COMMENTS: These groups may provide valuable auxiliary services to regular department operations.

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END