

An Assessment of the Nature and Impact
of Police Liaison Units



84648^{ci}

MITRE

An Assessment of the Nature and Impact of Police Liaison Units

U.S. Department of Justice
National Institute of Justice

This document has been reproduced exactly as received from the person or organization originating it. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the National Institute of Justice.

Permission to reproduce this copyrighted material has been granted by

Public Domain/LEAA
U.S. Dept. of Justice

to the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS).

Further reproduction outside of the NCJRS system requires permission of the copyright owner.

Prepared under Grant Number 79-NI-AX-0104 from the National Institute of Justice, U.S. Department of Justice. Points of view or opinions in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the U.S. Department of Justice.

Lawrence Siegel
Joseph Calpin
Marlene Berlin
Martin Molof

October 1981

MTR-81W220

SPONSOR:
National Institute of Justice
CONTRACT NO.:
79-NI-AX-0104
PROJECT NO.:
12780
DEPT. NO.:
W-22

The MITRE Corporation
Metrek Division
1820 Dolley Madison Boulevard
McLean, Virginia 22102

ABSTRACT

The "Police Liaison Activities" project is one of a series of National Evaluation Program (NEP) studies sponsored by the National Institute of Justice (NIJ). The project focuses on three distinct types of police liaison units: (1) the police legal advisor; (2) the police-school liaison officer; and (3) the police youth service bureau. This document, the project's final report, synthesizes and assesses the current state-of-knowledge regarding the organization, operation and effectiveness of these units. It also presents strategies that may be used by the police to evaluate the impact of their liaison units.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	xiii
1. INTRODUCTION	1-1
1.1 Definition of Police Liaison Units	1-2
1.2 Purpose	1-4
1.3 Organization of Document	1-5
2. METHODOLOGY	2-1
2.1 Literature Review	2-1
2.2 Site Selection Process	2-1
2.2.1 The Sampling Frame	2-3
2.2.2 Site Selection	2-3
2.3 Data Collection	2-5
2.3.1 Site Visits	2-5
2.3.2 Information Collection Procedures	2-7
2.4 Constraints on Research	2-7
3. POLICE LEGAL ADVISOR UNITS	3-1
3.1 Origin and Development	3-1
3.2 Organization and Composition	3-2
3.2.1 Staffing Patterns	3-2
3.2.2 Changes in Staffing Patterns	3-4
3.3 Analytical Framework	3-5
3.4 Descriptive Analysis of Activities	3-9
3.4.1 Liaison	3-9
3.4.2 Other Major Activities	3-10
3.4.3 Quantitative Data Describing the Activities of Police Legal Advisors	3-11
3.5 Impact Analysis of Police Legal Liaison Units	3-17
3.6 Future Prospects	3-18

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

	<u>Page</u>
4. POLICE-SCHOOL LIAISON UNITS	4-1
4.1 Origin and Development	4-1
4.2 Organization and Composition	4-2
4.2.1 Staffing Patterns	4-2
4.2.2 Changes in Staffing Patterns	4-3
4.2.3 Physical Location	4-3
4.3 Analytical Framework	4-4
4.4 Descriptive Analysis of Activities	4-8
4.4.1 Liaison	4-8
4.4.2 Counseling	4-9
4.4.3 Education	4-13
4.4.4 Traditional Police Activities	4-13
4.4.5 Quantitative Data Describing the Activities of School Liaison Units	4-14
4.5 Impact Analysis	4-16
4.5.1 Increased Interaction Between Police and Students	4-17
4.5.2 Increased Knowledge of Law Enforcement	4-18
4.5.3 Reduction of Hostility and Increase in Respect for Police and Law Enforcement	4-18
4.5.4 Reduction of Delinquency and Crime on School Grounds	4-20
4.5.5 Reduction of Juvenile Crime	4-21
4.5.6 Impact on School Administrators, Faculty, and Liaison Officers	4-22
4.6 Future Prospects	4-22
5. POLICE YOUTH SERVICE BUREAUS	5-1
5.1 Origin and Development	5-1
5.2 Organization and Composition	5-3
5.2.1 Staffing Patterns	5-3
5.2.2 Changes in Staffing Patterns	5-4
5.2.3 Physical Location	5-4

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

	<u>Page</u>
5.3 Analytical Framework	5-5
5.4 Descriptive Analysis of Activities	5-10
5.4.1 Liaison	5-10
5.4.2 Diversion	5-12
5.4.3 Direct Services to Youth and Their Families	5-13
5.4.4 Traditional Police Activities	5-13
5.4.5 Quantitative Data Describing the Activities of Youth Service Bureaus	5-13
5.5 Impact Analysis	5-15
5.5.1 Reduction of Recidivism	5-15
5.5.2 Reduction in Area Delinquency	5-15
5.5.3 Diversion	5-18
5.6 Future Prospects	5-19
6. RECOMMENDATION: DEVELOPMENT OF A GENERAL EVALUATION STRATEGY	6-1
6.1 The Police Legal Advisor	6-2
6.1.1 Implementation	6-4
6.1.2 Improvement in the Quality of Enforcement Activities	6-4
6.1.3 Reduction in the Vulnerability of Police to Civil Suits	6-5
6.2 The Police-School Liaison Officer	6-5
6.2.1 Implementation	6-6
6.2.2 Reduction in Juvenile Crime	6-6
6.2.3 Reduction of Crime and Delinquency on School Grounds	6-9
6.2.4 Enhancement of Respect for Police and Law Enforcement	6-9
6.2.5 Development of Potential Police Officer Candidates	6-9

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Concluded)

	<u>Page</u>
6.3 The Police Youth Service Bureau	6-10
6.3.1 Implementation	6-10
6.3.2 Reduction in Juvenile Delinquency	6-12
6.3.3 Reduction in Recidivism	6-12
6.3.4 Reduction in Number of Juveniles Processed Through the Justice System	6-13
6.3.5 Provision of Services	6-13
6.4 Conducting the Evaluation	6-14
6.4.1 Data Available Predating the Police-Liaison Unit	6-15
6.4.1.1 Before and After Design	6-15
6.4.1.2 Continuous Analysis Design	6-20
6.4.2 Data Available on Comparison Groups	6-22
6.4.2.1 Two-Group Comparison Design	6-22
6.4.2.2 Before and After Two-Group Comparison Design	6-23
APPENDIX A: BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR POLICE LEGAL ADVISOR UNITS	A-1
APPENDIX B: BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR POLICE-SCHOOL LIAISON UNITS	B-1
APPENDIX C: BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR YOUTH SERVICE BUREAUS	C-1
APPENDIX D: BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR ADDITIONAL REFERENCES	D-1

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

<u>TABLE NUMBER</u>		<u>Page</u>
I	PROJECTS INVOLVING POLICE LIAISON ACTIVITIES FUNDED BY LEAA (FROM 1969 TO 1978 INCLUSIVE)	2-4
II	POLICE AGENCIES VISITED	2-6
IIIa	GENERAL ACTIVITIES PERFORMED BY THE INDIANAPOLIS, IN, LEGAL ADVISOR UNIT FOR 1979	3-12
IIIb	GENERAL ACTIVITIES PERFORMED BY THE DALLAS, TX, LEGAL LIAISON DIVISION FOR 1979	3-13
IIIc	GENERAL ACTIVITIES PERFORMED BY THE SAN DIEGO, CA POLICE DEPARTMENT LEGAL ADVISOR'S OFFICE FOR 1979	3-14
IV	CHANGE IN NO-BILL RATES FOR DALLAS, TX: JULY 1973 - JUNE 1975	3-19
V	CHANGE IN DISMISSAL RATES FOR DALLAS, TX: SEPTEMBER 1973 - JUNE 1975	3-20
VI	ACTIVITIES OF SCHOOL LIAISON UNITS (SITES VISITED) IN 1979 BY TYPE -- LIAISON, COUNSELING, EDUCATIONAL, SCHOOL POLICING, NON-SCHOOL POLICING	4-10
VII	ACTIVITIES OF FIVE JUVENILE LIAISON UNITS (SITES VISITED) CATEGORIZED BY TYPE-- LIAISON, DIRECT SERVICE, AND DIVERSION	5-11
VIII	SPRING VALLEY, NY YOUTH SERVICE BUREAU ACTIVITY AND CLIENT DATA FOR 1979	5-14
IX	ACTIVITY AND CLIENT DATA FOR LOS ANGELES AREA, CA YOUTH SERVICE BUREAU	5-16
X	ACTIVITY DATA FOR POLK COUNTY, IA YOUTH SERVICE BUREAU	5-17
XI	EVALUATION OF POLICE LEGAL ADVISOR UNITS: OUTCOMES, MEASURES, DATA ELEMENTS, AND SOURCES	6-3

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS (Continued)

<u>TABLE NUMBER</u>		<u>Page</u>
XII	EVALUATION OF POLICE-SCHOOL LIAISON UNITS: OUTCOMES, MEASURES, DATA ELEMENTS, AND SOURCES	6-7
XIII	EVALUATION OF POLICE YOUTH SERVICE BUREAUS: OUTCOMES, MEASURES, DATA ELEMENTS AND SOURCES	6-11
XIV	IMPACT OF SCHOOL LIAISON UNIT ON HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARD THE POLICE AND LAW ENFORCEMENT	6-17
XV(a)	IMPACT OF LEGAL LIAISON UNIT ON CASES NO-BILLED DUE TO POLICE ERROR: MONTHLY SUMMARIES	6-18
XV(b)	IMPACT OF LEGAL LIAISON UNIT ON CASES NO-BILLED DUE TO POLICE ERROR: SEMI- ANNUAL SUMMARIES	6-19
XVI	IMPACT OF SCHOOL LIAISON UNIT ON CRIME: COMPARISON OF SCHOOL TARGETED BY PROGRAM AND SCHOOL NOT PARTICIPATING IN PROGRAM	6-24
XVII	IMPACT OF SCHOOL LIAISON UNIT ON STUDENT ATTITUDES: COMPARISON BETWEEN SCHOOL TARGETED BY PROGRAM AND SCHOOL NOT PARTICIPATING IN PROGRAM	6-25
XVIII	STUDENT DELINQUENCY: COMPARISON BETWEEN SCHOOL TARGETED BY LIAISON PROGRAM AND SCHOOL NOT PARTICIPATING IN PROGRAM	6-26
		<u>Page</u>
<u>FIGURE NUMBER</u>		
1	POLICE LIAISON PROJECT SITE SELECTION PROCESS	2-2
2	ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK FOR POLICE LEGAL ADVISOR UNITS	3-6
3	ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK FOR POLICE-SCHOOL LIAISON UNITS	4-5

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS (Concluded)

<u>FIGURE NUMBER</u>		<u>Page</u>
4	ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK FOR POLICE YOUTH SERVICE BUREAUS	5-6
5	PERCENT OF CASES NO-BILLED DUE TO POLICE ERROR: JANUARY 1979 - JUNE 1980	6-21

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

A. Introduction

In recent years the police have become increasingly aware of the importance of their relations with other components of the criminal justice system and their interactions with the general public. Police administrators, partly in response to criticisms of their growing isolation and partly in pursuit of cooperative relationships to promote effective law enforcement, have implemented police liaison units. These units are principally intended to strengthen channels of communication with other criminal justice agencies and establish formal linkages with public organizations and community groups outside the criminal justice system.

More precisely, a police liaison unit may be defined as: a unit or personnel specifically designated within a police department to facilitate communication and coordination (i.e., liaison) with other components of the criminal justice system and/or organizations/target groups in the "community-at-large" as part of an overall strategy to accomplish common goals. This study focuses on three specific types of police units involved in liaison activities:

- the legal advisor;
- the school liaison officer; and
- the youth service bureau.

Based on a review of the literature and a series of 15 site visits, certain findings emerge concerning the organization and evolution of police liaison units, the nature and scope of activities performed by these units, and the impact of liaison units on law enforcement functions and interorganizational relationships.

B. Organization and Composition of Liaison Units

A number of approaches have been used to organize, staff and operate police liaison units. With respect to legal advisor units, three distinct patterns of staffing have become evident:

- assistant city attorneys (this term is used generically throughout the report and also refers to Commonwealth Attorneys, District Attorneys, U.S. Attorneys, and

Municipal Corporation Counsels) assigned to the police department;

- civilian attorneys hired directly by the police department; and
- sworn police officers who are also licensed attorneys.

Assistant city attorneys usually specialize in criminal law applications and concentrate on providing line officers with instant counsel. Consonant with their title, the assistant city attorneys report directly to the City Attorney on job-related matters and perceive the police officers as clients. To foster communication and establish rapport with the officers, the attorneys frequently establish a permanent office in the police department's headquarters. By contrast, civilian attorneys, hired directly by police departments, are typically employed to provide management with expert legal counsel on general policy and protect the police department from costly civil litigation. Their functions require that they have direct access to the chief of police and the rest of the command staff. Consistent with the large number of relatively small police departments scattered throughout the United States, a 1975 survey conducted by the International Association of Chiefs of Police indicated that approximately two-thirds of the legal units are staffed by a single attorney. Larger police departments often employ several attorneys. In these instances, the workload is allocated along lines of specialization, such as special police bureaus, geographical divisions, or legal applications (i.e., civil functions or criminal matters).

A great deal of variation is also evident with respect to the type of personnel and size of staff comprising school units (i.e., the school liaison officer) and juvenile liaison units (i.e., youth service bureaus). Generally, these units consist of sworn police officers; most are patrol officers with several years experience, although a few are detectives or supervisory officers. Depending upon the philosophical orientation and specific functions of the unit, the core staff is sometimes supplemented by civilian employees with expertise in substantive areas such as counseling and job placement. This is particularly true in the police youth service bureaus. Most of the school and juvenile units are relatively small and consist of, at most, several police officers. Often, officers staffing these units report directly to the chief of police, particularly one-person units established by smaller police departments. Organizational placement of larger liaison units in a police

department usually conforms to one of two patterns. Some of the units are relatively independent with a sergeant or lieutenant assigned supervisory responsibility, while others are incorporated into an existing division, for example, the juvenile bureau or detectives division.

C. Nature and Scope of Activities

As might be expected, a core of activities are fundamental to the basic strategies utilized by each of the three types of liaison units. However, within the categories of units studied, there are certain activities employed by one or a few liaison units that are not part-and-parcel of the approaches used by most of the units. The personnel staffing the units are usually permitted a great deal of discretion and latitude with respect to the nature and scope of their activities. In this regard, they are able to respond to particular problems and adjust the emphasis they place on performing specific activities.

The myriad activities performed by legal liaison attorneys may be catalogued according to civil and criminal functions. Activities typically associated with units stressing civil applications may, in turn, be sorted into three general categories:

- provide legal advice on policy analysis and formulation to the chief of police and his key deputies;
- represent the police department in cases involving civil litigation; and
- establish and maintain liaison with other components of the criminal justice system and legislative bodies.

Similarly, three broad categories may be used to classify the variety of activities performed by liaison unit attorneys specializing in criminal applications:

- provide periodic training to officers to keep them abreast of new laws and court rulings affecting law enforcement tasks;
- provide on-the-spot legal counsel to patrol officers to assist them in the performance of patrol, investigation and apprehension tasks; and

- establish and maintain liaison with various divisions within the police department and with other components of the criminal justice system.

Police-school liaison units, by contrast, are intended to instill respect for the law among adolescents and reduce juvenile crime, particularly in the immediate vicinity of the schools. To achieve these ends, the liaison staff perform tasks designed to heighten their visibility and increase their interaction with students. Primary among these activities are:

- offer educational presentations on law enforcement topics to students;
- provide counseling to students and faculty, both individually and in small groups;
- establish and maintain liaison with school administrators; and
- conduct traditional police tasks such as preventive patrol and investigations.

Additionally, some police officers perform activities that are specific to a minority of school liaison units. For example, the officer is an integral member of a special counseling team in Albert Lea, Minnesota; Minneapolis, Minnesota; and Lane County, Oregon. These teams identify delinquent or potentially delinquent students, formulate plans to work with these students, implement those plans, and track the progress of the targeted students.

Police youth service bureaus are typically structured to provide alternative treatment modalities to first offenders of misdemeanor type crimes in order to reduce juvenile delinquency and recidivism. More specifically, the key activities performed by juvenile liaison units may be categorized as follows:

- divert adolescents from the juvenile justice system by screening offenders and selecting those eligible for the program;
- provide counseling to juveniles and their parents;

- establish and maintain liaison with other divisions within the police department and with social service agencies; and
- make referrals to other agencies when additional social services are required.

Other tasks such as the supervision of restitution-oriented public work projects and organization of recreational activities appear to be much less common.

D. Liaison Functions

Police liaison units can be distinguished according to the degree of emphasis they place on performing liaison-specific activities (that is, those activities directly involving communication and coordination). Many of the activities central to the operations of school liaison units and youth service bureaus deal directly with the liaison functions. School liaison officers spent most of their time immersed in the school environment, interacting with students and faculty on a daily basis. In a somewhat similar though less intensive fashion, youth service officers allocate a good deal of their time to work involving face-to-face contact with youthful offenders. In order to expedite referrals, juvenile officers also direct their energies toward establishing reliable contacts with representatives of social service agencies. By contrast, "squad car" type legal advisor units perform activities designed primarily to improve the internal operations of police departments. In this case, the activities are basically oriented toward establishing viable working relationships with various divisions within the police department and with individual officers. While these internal consulting tasks of police legal advisors are not liaison activities per se, they are calculated to strengthen ties to the prosecutor's office by improving the quality of police work and simultaneously decreasing the number of cases rejected by the prosecutor on technical grounds attributable to police error. Other legal advisor units concentrate on providing counsel to the chief of police and his command staff in order to protect the department from civil litigation and liability. For these particular units, liaison with other organizations is a second-order outcome. Although not central to their basic activities, attorneys staffing both types of legal units establish and maintain contact with the prosecutor's office. Additionally, many of the legal units establish relationships with other pertinent organizations, especially local and state legislative

bodies which enact statutes affecting the performance of law enforcement activities.

Of the three basic types of police liaison units, the youth service bureaus appear to deal with the widest range of agencies. As an integral part of the diversion process, these units typically have on-going relationships with numerous organizations including other components of the criminal justice system, local schools, and various social service agencies. Further, youth service bureaus seem to take a more proactive posture than the school and legal units in seeking to establish contacts with a wide variety of organizations.

School liaison units, by comparison, generally require officers to perform a greater variety of roles than demanded by either of the other two categories of liaison units and appear to have more contact with the targeted organization (that is, the schools). To illustrate, a police-school liaison officer may counsel students, advise teachers and administrators, teach classes, and carry out traditional police investigative and preventive patrol activities. Therefore, the officer must establish and maintain rapport not only with the students, but also with the teachers and school administrators.

E. Changes in Orientation

The inherent nature of the functions performed by liaison units has necessitated that these units have, at least theoretically, the flexibility needed to meet changing conditions, answer new challenges, and react to unanticipated problems. Among the three types of units, legal advisor units have undergone the greatest degree of change in terms of both objectives and activities. Most legal units were originally instituted to provide patrol officers with instant counsel on myriad legal matters related to daily law enforcement operations (e.g., the conduct of surveillance activities, the preparation of arrest reports, and the interrogation of criminal suspects). During the past several years however, police departments have been inundated by civil suits. Many legal liaison units, in response, have either initiated a shift of emphasis from criminal to civil applications or expanded the scope of their operations. In this capacity, the attorneys have increasingly concentrated on providing the chief and deputy commanders with legal guidance on a broad spectrum of policy and planning issues affecting the overall management of the police department.

School liaison units have also introduced some changes into their basic strategies. Initially, many of these units stressed an across-the-board, non-enforcement approach when interacting with students, concentrating on educational presentations and counseling sessions. While this strategy has seemingly had the desired impact on grade school children, it was apparently less than successful with the older students. Consequently, some units have recently placed more emphasis on performing enforcement type activities (e.g., such as preventive patrol and investigation) in the junior and senior high schools.

The approaches used by youth service bureaus have, by contrast, remained relatively stable. Modifications have generally involved additions or reductions in the number of staff employed and the level of activities performed. These changes appear to be more a function of budgetary resources than deliberate modifications of basic strategies.

F. Impact of Police Liaison Units

There is a paucity of information on the impact and effectiveness of police liaison units. The assessments that have been documented tend to vary considerably with respect to methodological sophistication and rigor. Available data suffer from a number of serious constraints. Unstated objectives, superficial analyses, and weak evaluation designs frequently undermine the reliability and validity of study findings.

Available evaluation reports present mixed reviews regarding the effects of police liaison units. For example, analyses of the Dallas Legal Liaison Division suggest that the unit has had an appreciable and positive impact on the daily operations of the police. A reduction in no-bills and dismissals due to police error is well documented. Unfortunately, the efforts undertaken by other legal liaison units have apparently not been carefully evaluated and reported. Evaluations which examine school liaison projects typically indicate that the units have had little discernable impact on the attitudes of students toward the police or on juvenile crime rates. Similarly, analyses of police youth service bureaus generally present inconclusive findings. Despite the lack of concrete empirical evidence, testimonials abound praising the achievements of all three types of police liaison units.

G. Institutionalization

Funding patterns indicate that there is widespread support to finance the institutionalization of police liaison units with local funds. The costs required to continue the operation of these units have frequently been assumed by the police departments. However, comparisons suggest that legal and school units have been more successful than youth service bureaus in maintaining manpower and activities at levels consistent with those achieved during prior years of federal funding. One plausible explanation for this development is that school and legal units have a more cohesive and better organized constituency than youth service bureaus. School districts and city attorney's offices in some jurisdictions share financial responsibility with the police for continued operation of the liaison unit. However, budget cuts effected during the late 1970's and early 1980 have, in some cases, resulted in reductions of local funds allocated to support the continued operation of school units.

xx

1. INTRODUCTION

In 1967, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice¹ stated that the basic law enforcement functions of maintaining social order and enforcing the law, by their very nature, involve a substantial amount of communication and coordination both between the police and other criminal justice agencies and between the police and the larger community. For example, the effective operation of the criminal justice process requires a cooperative relationship between the police, who detect and investigate criminal incidents and apprehend suspects, and the prosecutor, who depends upon police information and support as the basis for subsequent case prosecution. Further, successful police work depends on a synergistic relationship between the police and the public on whom the police count for reports of crimes and for information basic to criminal investigations.

The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals used the term "liaison" to describe the communication and coordination between the police and other criminal justice agencies, as well as² between the police and the "community-at-large:"

Police agencies have a responsibility to participate fully in the (criminal justice) system and cooperate actively (emphasis added) with the courts, prosecutors, prisons, parole boards and noncriminal elements--mental health and social service agencies, youth programs, mental hospitals, and educational institutions.

¹President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: Science and Technology, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967, p. 53; President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: The Police (hereinafter referred to as The Police), Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973, pp. 3-4, 31-32, 42-43, 70.

²National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, Report on Police (hereinafter referred to as Police), Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973, pp. 70-71.

A number of factors have contributed to a recent increase in the need for coordinated efforts beyond those traditionally associated with the daily activities of the police, including:

- growing criminal caseloads;
- increasingly complex criminal and administrative laws;
- increasing awareness of specialized crime problems;
- increasing isolation of the police from the community; and
- the growing role of police as a component of a larger human resource and service delivery system.

In response to such factors, many police departments have established individual units or assigned specific personnel with the responsibility for communication and coordination with other components of the criminal justice system and the "community-at-large." For example, among other tasks, police legal advisors have frequently been assigned responsibility for establishing and maintaining communication and coordination with prosecuting attorneys; and police-school liaison officers, for communication and coordination with school administrators, faculty, and students. For the purposes of this study such units or personnel will be referred to as "police liaison units."

1.1 Definition of Police Liaison Units

The following definition³ of the term "police liaison unit" will be used during this study: police liaison unit--a unit or

³This definition of "police liaison unit" represents a modification of the dictionary definition of liaison (i.e., "communication for establishing and maintaining mutual understanding, especially between parts of an army") based on an analysis and synthesis of information contained in the reports of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice and the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, a general literature review, and staff experience in liaison operations. See J. Calpin and L. Siegel, Police Liaison Activities: Their Development and Operation in 15 Jurisdictions (hereinafter referred to as Liaison Activities), The MITRE Corporation, McLean, VA, WP-80W00478, 1980.

personnel specifically designated within a police department to facilitate communication and coordination (i.e., liaison) with other components of the criminal justice system and/or organizations/groups in the "community-at-large" as part of an overall strategy to accomplish common objectives.

The range of activities carried out by police liaison units may be categorized as:

- liaison activities per se (or direct liaison or liaison-specific) which - as defined in this study - are intended to "establish and maintain communication and coordination...;"
- liaison-related activities (or liaison-enhancing) which, while conducted unilaterally by the police, may have the additional effect of improving the relationship between the police and other organizations/groups; and
- any other activities (non-liaison) conducted by the liaison unit which cannot be classified as liaison-specific or liaison-related.

⁴For further discussion regarding the concept of communication, see Sol Levine and Paul E. White, "Exchange as a Conceptual Framework for the Study of Interorganizational Relationships," in A Sociological Reader on Complex Organizations (second edition), edited by Amitai Etzioni, New York, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1969, pp. 117-132; Andrew H. Van De Ven, et al., "Framework for Interorganizational Analysis," pp. 19-38, and Howard Aldrich, "An Organization-Environment Perspective on Cooperation and Conflict between Organizations in the Manpower Training System," pp. 49-70, in Interorganizational Analysis, edited by Anant R. Negandhi, Kent, OH, Kent State University, 1975.

⁵In another context, the President's Commission has suggested that "(c)oordination presupposes a formal agreement between two or more governmental jurisdictions to provide a common service." See The Police, supra note 1, pp. 68-70. However, the definition of coordination used in this study includes informal or ad hoc arrangements as well. For further discussion regarding the concept of coordination, see Michael Aiken, Robert Dewar, Nancy DiTomaso, Jerald Hage, and Gerald Zeitz, Coordinating Human Services, Jossey-Bass, 1975, p. 6-10.

A comprehensive assessment of police liaison units will involve an examination of the entire range of activities (whether liaison per se, liaison-related, or non-liaison) performed by these units.

Although this study focuses on police units "reaching-out" to other groups or organizations, it should be noted that such units may also establish communication and coordination within the police department. For example, police Youth Service Bureaus (YSBs) may depend heavily on patrol units, detectives, or juvenile officers for referrals.

1.2 Purpose

The Police Liaison Activities project is one of a series of National Evaluation Program (NEP) studies sponsored by the National Institute of Justice. The study is intended to provide the National Institute of Justice with:

- an assessment of the nature and extent of knowledge available regarding police liaison units;
- recommendations concerning the need for and expected benefits of further research activities; and
- strategies and designs for obtaining additional information through evaluation and research.

In accordance with the intention of the NEP, this study concentrates on formally organized police liaison units or specifically designated liaison personnel supported by block grant funds provided by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration.⁶ More specifically, the project focuses on police units operating in three different substantive areas involving liaison:

- legal -- police legal advisor units;

⁶Criminal Justice Research Solicitation, National Evaluation Program Phase I Assessments: Family Counseling, Screening and Evaluation for Mental Health Services, Police Liaison Activities, National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, Washington, D.C., 1979, p. 5.

- school -- police-school liaison units; and
- juvenile -- police-operated youth service bureaus.

These three categories represent the vast majority of units within police departments formally designated to perform liaison functions consistent with the operational definition used by this project (see Section 1.1, above). Other groups within police departments which conduct liaison functions are generally either not clearly defined as distinct liaison units or concentrate on conducting traditional police tasks and only carry out liaison activities as work demands permit (e.g., juvenile officers attached to patrol or detective divisions, or undercover agents assigned to multi-jurisdictional operations on a periodic basis).

This report, entitled "An Assessment of Police Liaison Units," is intended to:

- discuss the nature and extent of knowledge available about police liaison units; and
- identify important knowledge gaps.

1.3 Organization of Document

The remainder of this document is divided into five parts. Chapter Two outlines the research methods used to conduct this study. Chapters Three through Five assess the nature and extent of knowledge regarding legal, school and juvenile police liaison units respectively. Finally, Chapter Six presents general strategies that may be employed to evaluate each of the three types of liaison units.

2. METHODOLOGY

In order to accomplish the purposes of this study, a four-stage research process was employed:

- literature review;
- site selection;
- data collection; and
- synthesis and analysis.

The following sections detail the site selection and data collection processes.

2.1 Literature Review

A literature review was performed at the onset of this study in order to develop the theoretical framework needed to guide the data collection effort and structure the subsequent analysis. In this regard, a number of data bases were examined, including: (1) The National Criminal Justice Reference Service; (2) The National Technical Information Service; (3) the Public Affairs Information Service; (4) Comprehensive Dissertation Abstracts; (5) Sociological Abstracts; (6) Social Scisearch; and (7) the Smithsonian Science Information Exchange. Documents identified as a result of this search were then used to specify additional sources of information.

An analysis of the information gathered during this review indicated that there were two general categories of literature dealing with police liaison units: descriptive articles and evaluation reports. However, these documents frequently failed to discuss the theory and assumptions which underlie both the general operation of police liaison units and link specific activities to anticipated outcomes. Moreover, neither category of literature dealt in any depth with the liaison activities performed by each type of police liaison unit.

2.2 Site Selection Process

The site selection process consisted of two primary stages (see Figure 1):

- first, a sampling frame was developed; and

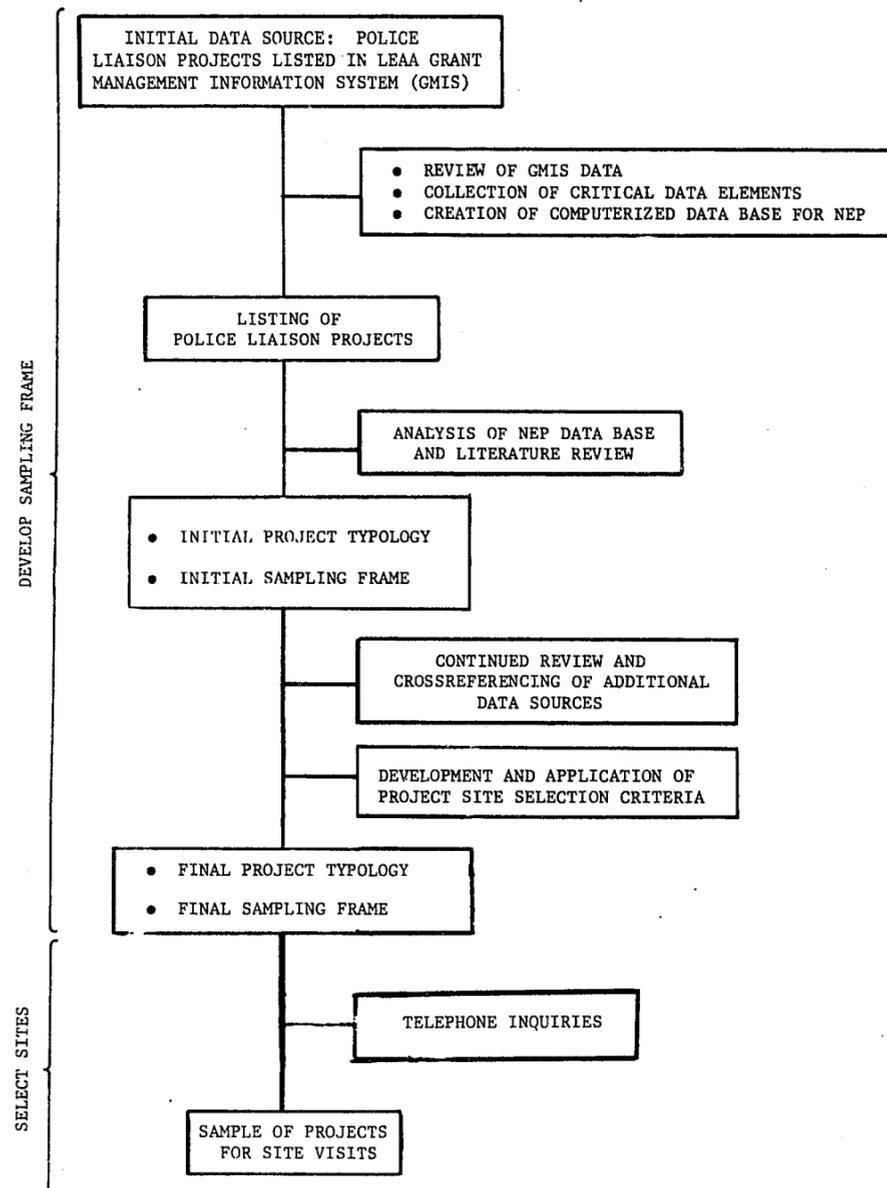


FIGURE 1
POLICE LIAISON PROJECT SITE SELECTION PROCESS

- second, police departments were selected as candidates for site visits.

2.2.1 The Sampling Frame

The first step of this process consisted of identifying formally established police liaison units. A review of the LEAA Grants Management Information System initially identified 990 projects labeled under the rubric of police liaison units. However, based on a brief description of each unit, only 716 of these projects appeared to involve some type of activity directly related to liaison. Next, these 716 units were classified according to their primary focus (see Table I):

- legal - the legal advisor;
- school - the school-liaison officer;
- juvenile - the youth service bureau; and
- other - a small miscellaneous category.

The 716 projects were then ordered by state and within each state by location (e.g., city or county).

Further analysis revealed that many of the projects involved continuation grants, representing a total of 480 police departments. Therefore, organization was selected as the sampling unit, reducing the sampling frame to 480 police departments. In order to heighten the probability that the unit was operational and of significant scope, the following criteria were then employed:

- the unit had to have received funds totaling \$20,000 or more; and
- the unit had to begin operations in the mid-70's.

These criteria further reduced the sampling frame to 133 police liaison units.

2.2.2 Site Selection

In order to select units from the sites remaining in each category (i.e., legal, school, and juvenile), a stratified random sampling strategy was employed. Five sites were selected

TABLE I
 PROJECTS INVOLVING POLICE LIAISON ACTIVITIES FUNDED BY LEAA
 (FROM 1969 TO 1978 INCLUSIVE)

TYPE OF PROJECT	NUMBER OF PROJECTS
Legal	396 (55.3%)
School	164 (23.0%)
Juvenile	129 (18.0%)
Other	27 (3.7%)
<hr/> Total	716 (100%)

Source: LEAA Grant Management Information System

from each category as potential candidates for site visits. A replacement sample of five units was also randomly selected for each of the categories in the event of attrition in the primary sample. As a final precaution, another replacement sample (the backup sample) was generated in the event that the first two samples suffered severe attrition.

Each jurisdiction in the primary sample was contacted to determine whether the unit (1) was currently operational, (2) fit the parameters of this study, and (3) was willing to participate in this research endeavor. If one of these jurisdictions did not meet these three criteria, a site in the replacement sample was contacted. If the replacement site met these criteria, it was included in the field visit phase of the study. Finally, if necessary, jurisdictions in the "backup" sample were utilized. Additionally, several police liaison units were included in the sample because of operational circumstances or functions which suggested that they could offer a unique contribution to the study (e.g., the pioneering role of the Dallas Police Legal Liaison Division). Conversely, other police departments were excluded from the sampling frame due to their participation in other major programs sponsored and evaluated by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (e.g., the Integrated Criminal Apprehension Program--ICAP). Table II presents a list of the police departments visited during this study⁷ and indicates the attrition of sites which occurred in both the primary and the replacement samples.

2.3 Data Collection

2.3.1 Site Visits

Site visits were employed to overcome the inherent limitations often found in the existing literature and project descriptions. The purpose of these visits was to gather current (and often previously unavailable) information needed to

⁷For a detailed description of these units, see Liaison Activities, supra note 3.

TABLE II
POLICE AGENCIES VISITED

CATEGORY	LOCATION	YEAR IMPLEMENTED ^a	SAMPLE
Legal ^b	Dallas, TX	1970	Recommended
	Indianapolis, IN	1968	Replacement
	Orange County (Orlando), FL	1975	Primary
	San Diego, CA	1971	Recommended
	Wichita, KS	1971	Primary
School	Albert Lea, MN	1974	Primary
	Bladen County (Elizabethtown), NC	1971	Primary
	Howard County (Kokomo), IN	1973	Primary
	Newton, NC	1975	Replacement
	Salinas, CA	1975	Primary
Juvenile	Iberville Parish (Plaquemine), LA	1977	Primary
	Lyndhurst, NJ	1974	Replacement
	Rohnert Park/Sebastopol, CA	1976	Backup
	Santa Ana, CA	1975	Backup
	Spring Valley, N.Y.	1978	Primary

^aThis refers to the date when the unit was established by its respective agency irrespective of LEAA funding.

^bThe legal advisor units in Dallas and San Diego were visited on the basis of recommendations. An analysis of the information gathered from all five sites indicated that the two additional visits planned to sites designated by the primary, replacement or back-up samples would not in all probability add to knowledge already gained.

document the specific objectives of distinct liaison units, denote the various activities actually performed, specify how these activities are related to one another in practice, and obtain information for comparing the objectives and activities of a liaison unit in one police department or jurisdiction with those in other jurisdictions.

2.3.2 Information Collection Procedures

During the site visits, MITRE staff explored a number of pertinent issues by interviewing members of police liaison units and representatives of organizations which were targeted by the liaison activities. To guide this data gathering effort, MITRE employed a semi-structured interview schedule. Use of a semi-structured interview guideline during site visits facilitated the collection of parallel types of information for the several categories of police liaison units, allowed similarities and differences to be highlighted, and permitted general conclusions to be drawn relative to the operation and impact of various types of liaison unit activities and overall strategies.

2.4 Constraints on Research

It is recognized that, for several reasons, the police liaison units visited during this study may not be representative of all the liaison units currently operational. The use of LEAA's Grant Management Information System (GMIS) may well have created a biased sampling frame, because only liaison units funded by LEAA would be listed and, therefore, selected for this study. Despite this potential bias, the analysis of the literature and the data collected during the site visits indicates that the sample selection process was consistent with the purposes of this study.

In addition to site visits, this review is also based upon written reports about units involved in police liaison activities. These reports vary greatly in terms of the amount, age, type, and quality of data relevant to the units targeted. Some of these reports present descriptive data only, while others attempt to evaluate the achievement of goals and

⁸ For a copy of these guidelines, see J. Calpin and L. Siegel, Site Selection Report -- Police Liaison NEP (hereinafter referred to as Site Selection), The MITRE Corporation, McLean, VA, WP-80W00077, 1980.

objectives. However, only a few of the evaluation reports can be considered as comprehensive in nature and scope. Some fail to discuss the structure of liaison units, the activities they perform and their relationships with other organizations. Many of the reports also suffer from a host of methodological shortcomings and the data they present must be interpreted cautiously. Consequently, MITRE's review is based on information which is somewhat limited and inconsistent (in terms of topics covered and information presented), thus restricting, to some extent, the generalizability of the following assessment of police liaison units.

3. POLICE LEGAL ADVISOR UNITS

3.1 Origin and Development

The New York City Police Department became the first police agency to establish a legal advisor unit when it employed a staff attorney in 1907. The next effort to establish a legal advisor unit occurred in 1940 when the San Francisco Police Department hired an attorney to staff a legal office. Shortly thereafter (1941), the Indiana State Police created a legal unit within its training division. The Federal Bureau of Investigation also initiated its own legal unit at about the same time.

The concept of a police legal advisor, whose main function was to provide general legal advice to line officers and institute pre- and in-service training for the entire department, gained impetus in 1964.⁹ At that time the Chicago Police Department and Northwestern University established a cooperative program to train police legal advisors. This program provided fellowships to selected lawyers to study criminal law and spend a year as legal interns with the Chicago Police Department. Upon completion of their internship, the lawyers were assigned to other police departments participating in the program.¹⁰ Then, in 1967, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice recommended the establishment of the position of police legal advisor within police departments so that departments could keep abreast of the increasingly complex criminal and administrative laws affecting their operations.¹¹ As a result, several police departments instituted police legal units. In 1969, the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration initiated funding support for the legal advisor program. During the first year of funding, 41

⁹ Police, supra note 2, p. 282; see also Wayne W. Schmidt, Guidelines for a Police Legal Unit, Gaithersburg, MD, The International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), 1972, pp. 7-9.

¹⁰ O.W. Wilson, Police Administration, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1963.

¹¹ The Police, supra note 1, pp. 50-51, & 63; see also Police, supra note 2, pp. 280-281.

police departments established police legal advisor units by hiring experienced lawyers. Many other police departments quickly followed suit. The success of this program was paralleled by the decline and eventual demise of Northwestern's Legal Advisor Training Program.¹² The International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) subsequently assumed many of the coordination type functions (e.g., clearinghouse activities, annual conferences) which had been part of the Northwestern program.

Lately, there has been a substantial modification in the basic functions performed by police legal advisors. With the recent increase in civil litigation against police departments, the "squad car" lawyer approach is being deemphasized. Contemporaneously, the liaison attorneys are redirecting their efforts in order to provide the chief of police and his command staff with expert legal counsel regarding the impact of civil law on the overall management of the police department.¹³ Many of the units have either initiated a shift in emphasis (e.g., Orange County, Florida) or expanded the scope of their operations (e.g., San Diego, CA and Wichita, KS). In this regard, the attorneys who staff these units concentrate on providing the chief of police and his assistants with expert counsel on civil matters regarding subjects such as labor-management relations, internal discipline and due process, and government rules regulating equal employment opportunity practices as well as the dissemination of both personnel and criminal records.

3.2 Organization and Composition

3.2.1. Staffing Patterns

Three distinct patterns emerge with respect to the staffing of police legal liaison units:

- assistant city attorneys assigned to the police department;

¹² Schmidt, supra note 9, pp. 8-9.

¹³ Thomas A. Hendrickson, "Looking to the Future --The Police Legal Advisor and His Changing Role," The Police Chief, November 1976, pp. 70-71.

- civilian employees hired directly by the police department; and
- sworn police officers who are also licensed attorneys.

All three strategies appear to be popular. A survey conducted by the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) during 1975 of police legal advisors attending an in-service training course revealed that approximately 60 percent were civilians and 40 percent sworn police officers.¹⁴

Whether the legal advisor is assigned by the City Attorney's Office or hired directly by the police department, each situation presents its own set of advantages and disadvantages. While the legal advisor assigned by the City Attorney's Office is not burdened by police department pressures, the attorney often experiences some difficulty establishing rapport with line officers.¹⁵ By comparison, the attorney directly employed by the police department may be more readily accepted by the line officers. However, the pressure exerted by department management on the legal advisor to advocate police department policy can hinder the attorney's efforts to work in concert with the prosecutor's office.

The organizational structure of the legal liaison unit is, as may be expected, closely associated with the size of the department. Consistent with the large number of relatively small law enforcement agencies scattered throughout the United States, most legal liaison units are one person operations. The 1975 IACP survey indicated that approximately 63 percent of the units (69 out of 110) were comprised of solo practitioner police attorneys, while 27 percent of the units employed two to four attorneys and the remaining 10 percent were comprised of five or more attorneys.¹⁶

¹⁴ H. Lake Wise, The Dallas Police Legal Liaison Division, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976, pp. 101-103.

¹⁵ The Police, supra note 1, pp. 65-66.

¹⁶ Wise, supra note 14, pp. 101-103.

In many rural areas police agencies, state criminal justice planning regions, or regional councils of governments have pooled their resources to retain a legal advisor on a regional basis.¹⁷ Examples of jurisdictions which have utilized the regional legal advisor concept include Richland County, Ohio; New Mexico Region IV; Central Connecticut Planning Region; Central Oklahoma Economic Development District; Muenster, Indiana; and numerous areas in both Texas and North Carolina.

Legal liaison units serving large police agencies are usually staffed by two or more attorneys, depending upon the caseload and the department's specific needs. Work in these units is typically allocated along lines of specialization. In San Diego, for example, the legal advisor unit consists of two attorneys; one concentrates on criminal applications, while the other focuses on civil functions. Similarly, the Dallas Legal Liaison Division attorneys have been assigned to both functional and geographical divisions.

3.2.2. Changes in Staffing Patterns

Police legal advisor units have generally experienced a modicum of change with respect to manpower and resource levels, although some units have undergone substantial modifications in staff and activities. Substantial changes appear to be associated with the availability of federal funds: expansion occurring with the infusion of grants and cutbacks sometimes initiated with the termination of federal support. Despite occasional periods of wealth or belt-tightening, staff turnover appears to be relatively moderate. Of those attorneys participating in the 1975 IACP Survey, 70 percent had been employed as a police legal advisor for between one and five years.¹⁸

¹⁷ Samuel Laudenslager, "Providing Legal Assistance to Small and Rural Law Enforcement Agencies, Part I - The Regional Legal Advisor," Police Chief, August 1974. Also see, Central Connecticut Regional Planning Agency, (hereinafter referred to as Central Connecticut), Police Legal Advisor - First Annual Report (January 1, 1971 - December 31, 1971), New Britain, CT, February 3, 1972.

¹⁸ Wise, supra note 14, pp. 101-103.

Arrangements concerning organizational affiliation and chain of authority have also remained relatively stable over the past 10 to 15 years according to the IACP survey. Jurisdictions which initially assigned assistant city attorneys to the police department typically continue to adhere to that approach. Likewise, most police departments which originally elected to hire civilian attorneys directly continue to utilize this method of employment.

Nevertheless, data gathered during the site visit phase of this project reveal that some units have undergone substantial modification. For example, the Dallas unit experienced substantial growth and concomitant modifications in organizational structure during the early and mid-1970's. Basically a two-person unit during the early 1970's, the Dallas Legal Liaison Division has expanded to a staff which includes four assistant city attorneys, a police captain, and 19 sworn officers who work primarily with the District Attorney's Office as investigators. By contrast, the Indianapolis unit has recently suffered a sharp reduction in personnel and services, with a decrease in staff from three attorneys to one.

3.3 Analytical Framework

An analytical framework representing a generalized description of legal liaison units is depicted in Figure 2. This diagram shows the basic relationships among the range of activities performed by these units, the anticipated outcomes, and the underlying assumptions which link the activities to the objectives.

Legal liaison units, or individual attorneys staffing these units, tend to specialize in one of two broad substantive areas. The attorneys either concentrate on civil matters affecting the overall management of the department or emphasize criminal applications impacting on law enforcement functions, particularly investigations, apprehensions and interrogations. These distinctions are not hard and fast, however. Civil law specialists may occasionally provide advice on criminal matters, and attorneys expert in criminal matters may delve into questions dealing with civil law.

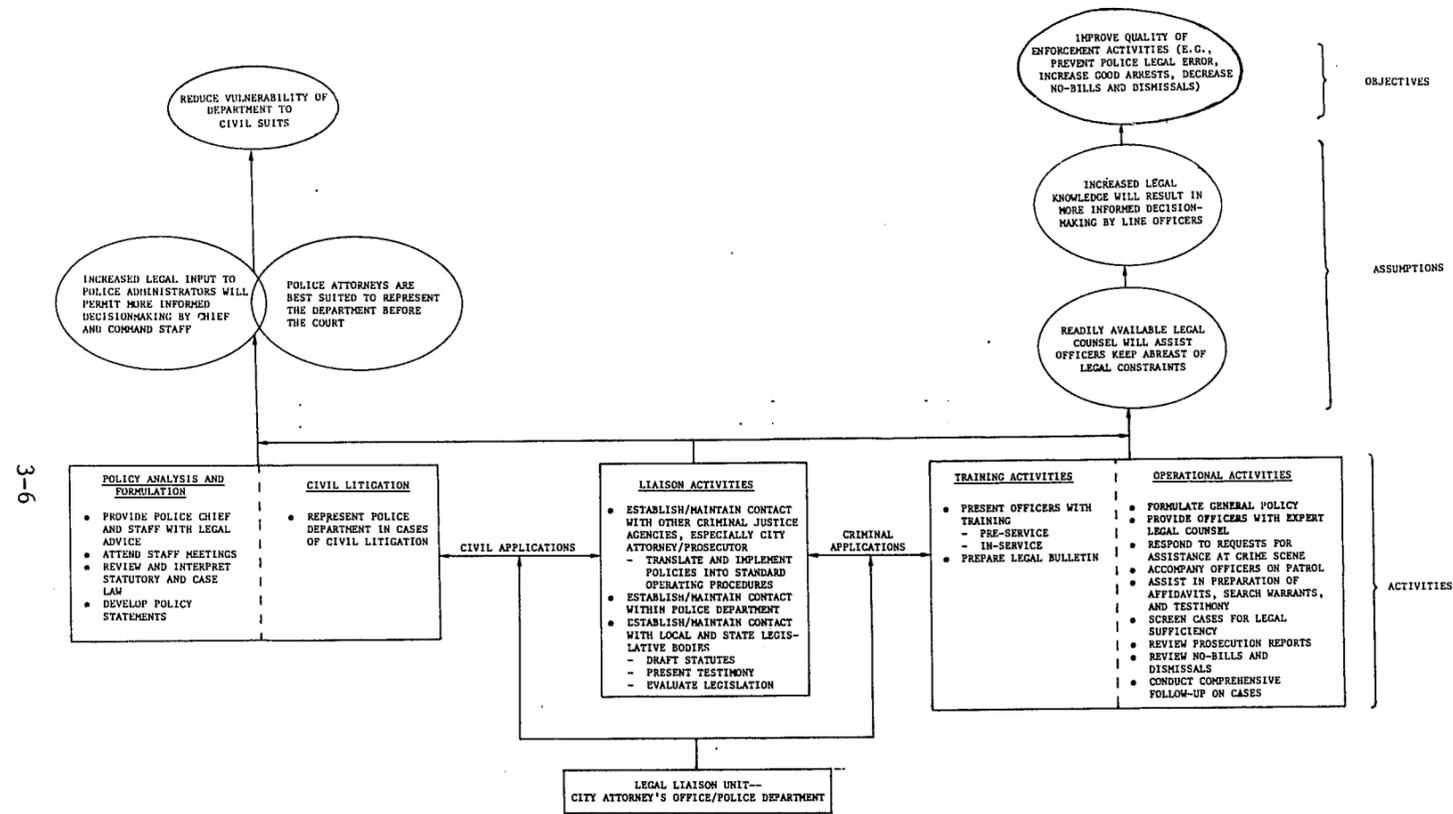


FIGURE 2
ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK FOR POLICE LEGAL ADVISOR UNITS

As the analytical framework shows, legal liaison units which stress civil applications typically perform three broad categories of activities:¹⁹

- provide expert legal counsel to the chief of police and his command staff on matters pertaining to overall policy analysis and formulation;
- represent the police department in court on cases involving civil litigation; and
- establish and maintain liaison with other components of the criminal justice system, various divisions within the police department, and local and state legislative bodies.

Likewise, the myriad activities performed by liaison unit attorneys specializing in criminal applications may be divided into three general categories:²⁰

- provide training to officers to keep them up-to-date on legal constraints governing law enforcement activities and defining the rights of defendants;
- provide expert legal advice on day-to-day operations, ranging from enforcement activities to the completion of paper work (e.g., arrest reports, etc.) required by the

¹⁹ The enumeration of activities is based on discussions held with legal liaison attorneys during the site visit portion of this NEP study and on a review of the literature. The literature generally presents a catalog of the types of duties a liaison attorney could perform, rather than a delineation of activities actually performed. For examples, see Police, supra note 2, pp. 280-288; The Police, supra note 1, pp. 63-65; John H. Burpo, "Legal Advisor," Police Chief, September 1969, pp. 28-30; Gerald M. Caplin, "The Police Legal Advisor," The Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, March 1967, pp. 303-309; Giles W. Casaleggio, "The Police Legal Advisor Concept: A New Direction in Law Enforcement Specialization," Case and Comment, May-June 1974, pp. 50-53. See generally Schmidt, supra note 9.

²⁰ Police, supra note 2, pp. 280-288; The Police, supra note 1, pp. 63-65. See generally Schmidt, supra note 17.

prosecutor for the processing of cases through the judicial system; and

- establish and maintain liaison with various divisions within the police department, other components of the criminal justice system and local and state legislative bodies.

The performance of the activities associated with civil applications is based on three interrelated assumptions.²¹ First, it is assumed that the routine provision of expert legal counsel on fundamental policy matters will permit the chief and his staff to make better informed decisions. Second, the police legal advisor is in a unique position with respect to the often disparate demands of police work and the requirements of the legal system. The attorney, by virtue of training and on-the-job experience, is able to integrate the needs of the police department with the perspective of the court in providing counsel to the chief. Additionally, the legal advisor is not encumbered by other priorities which typically besiege the City Attorney who traditionally defends the police department in civil suits. In this regard, the legal advisor is in the best position to represent the police department before the courts on matters involving civil litigation. Third, it is assumed that more informed decisionmaking and proper legal representation will, in turn, insure that management positions are based on solid legal ground and that the department has reasonable protection against civil liability. In this context, it is anticipated that the actions of the legal advisor will result in the following outcome:

- o reduce the vulnerability of the police department to civil suits and liability.

²¹ Neither the literature nor the attorneys staffing legal liaison units clearly articulate the fundamental assumptions underlying the operations of these units. Similarly, statements explicitly specifying objectives are also typically absent, with the exception of several well documented projects, most notably the Dallas Legal Liaison Division. Consequently, the assumptions and objectives presented in Figure 2 and discussed in this section are based on insights derived from interviews with legal liaison attorneys and implications drawn from the literature.

The numerous activities performed by legal liaison attorneys specializing in criminal applications are based on two general assumptions. First, immediate access to expert legal opinion will greatly help the line officers keep abreast of the constantly changing and often technical legal constraints impacting upon the criminal investigation process. This guidance, in turn, will provide line officers with the knowledge needed to make on-the-spot decisions that may seriously affect subsequent judicial proceedings. Second, it is assumed that the various liaison, training, and operational activities performed by the attorneys will result in the following outcome:

- improve the quality of police law enforcement activities

That is to say, the attorney's actions are designed to prevent police error and thereby reduce the number of cases rejected by the prosecutor, no-billed by the grand jury, or dismissed by the courts.

3.4 Descriptive Analysis of Activities

3.4.1 Liaison

Many of the activities associated with the office of police legal advisor can be categorized according to the emphasis placed upon liaison per se. In this regard, the activities may be divided into the two following categories:

- liaison-direct or liaison-specific activities; and
- liaison-related or liaison-enhancing activities.

Liaison-specific activities carried out by the legal advisor are concerned principally with developing interorganizational ties, nurturing initial contacts into firm relationships, and maintaining channels of communication. These activities include consulting with the prosecutor on a regular basis to discuss problems regarding police procedures, establishing a working relationship with the county government to coordinate the formulation of local ordinances, and relocating the office within the police department headquarters or substations in order to promote interactions with line officers.

Many other tasks conducted by legal advisors may be considered liaison-related in that they tend to improve or enhance the relationships between the police and other agencies (e.g., the District Attorney's Office). These activities, which generally

involve interaction between the attorneys and line officers, are intended chiefly to strengthen the overall operations of the police department. Examples of such activities include participating in staff meetings, accompanying officers on patrol, providing expert legal opinions, and responding to requests for assistance in the field. Frequently, such internal consulting tasks enhance relations between the police department and prosecutor by improving the quality of police work, thereby reducing the number of cases rejected by the prosecutor on technical grounds.

3.4.2. Other Major Activities

Legal liaison units perform a wide variety of activities (other than direct liaison) designed to improve the overall operations of police departments. Some of these activities are liaison-related, while others are devoid of any liaison content. The specific activities performed by a particular unit, or the individual attorneys staffing it, depend primarily upon the substantive orientation of the unit.

The activities typically associated with civil or criminal applications are presented in the analytical framework shown in Figure 2, above. Within this general context, the legal liaison attorneys perform the following series of activities designed either to reduce the vulnerability of the police against litigation (civil applications) or to improve the quality of enforcement activities (criminal applications):²²

- civil -- attend staff meetings and provide legal advice; review and interpret statutory and case law; develop policy statements; and represent the department before the court in cases involving civil suits; and

²² For a general description of the various activities performed by legal liaison attorneys, see The Police, supra note 1, pp. 63-67. Also see Police, supra note 2, pp. 280-288; Schmidt, supra note 9.

- criminal -- conduct in-service and pre-service training; provide instant legal counsel to line officers; assist in the preparation of affidavits and search warrants; respond to specific requests for assistance at crime scenes; screen arrest reports for legal sufficiency; and review cases no-billed by the grand jury or dismissed by the courts.

Tables III (a-c) show the variability among legal liaison units with respect to the specific activities performed on a routine basis. The Indianapolis Legal Advisor unit is characteristic of liaison units which emphasize civil applications. By contrast, the Dallas Legal Liaison Division typifies the types of tasks associated with units emphasizing criminal applications. Finally, the San Diego Legal Advisor program illustrates the variety of tasks assumed by a unit which combines civil and criminal functions.

3.4.3. Quantitative Data Describing the Activities of Police Legal Advisors

Information describing the frequency with which liaison attorneys perform various tasks and the time devoted to each activity is relatively sparse. Data collection efforts designed to profile the workload of legal advisors have been performed primarily to satisfy reporting requirements attached to federal and state grants. Additionally, it should be noted that the data presented below are restricted to units which stress criminal applications. Comparable data for units concentrating on civil matters are not readily available. In this regard, the descriptive information presented below is instructive insofar as it summarizes the emphasis placed on conducting various tasks; however, the data are not suitable to the formulation of broad generalizations.

The Dallas Legal Liaison Division is the most extensively documented and thoroughly evaluated legal advisor unit. The analyses were performed during the mid-1970's when the project was funded by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration under its High Impact Anti-Crime Program. Based on data collected for various time frames between April 1973 and October 1975, the analyses revealed the many activities performed by the attorneys: review of prosecution and supplemental reports; review of grand jury no-bills and court dismissals; assistance in the preparation of affidavits for warrants; response to

TABLE III(a)

GENERAL ACTIVITIES PERFORMED BY THE INDIANAPOLIS, IN. LEGAL ADVISOR UNIT FOR 1979

GENERAL ACTIVITIES	CIVIL		LIAISON ^a	CRIMINAL	
	POLICY ANALYSIS AND FORMULATION	CIVIL LITIGATION		TRAINING ACTIVITIES	OPERATIONAL ACTIVITIES
Analyze policy for command staff.	X				
Provide counsel to police department at internal affairs proceedings.	X				
Review and interpret statutory and case law.	X				
Represent the department in cases involving civil litigation		X			
Coordinate any testimony given before the city council and state legislature.			X		
Coordinate development of important cases with prosecutor.			X		
Work with prosecutor when criminal proceedings are brought against a police officer.			X		
Prepare legal bulletin				X	
Supervise assistant legal advisor responsible for training				X	
Prepare search warrants.					X
Provide legal advice to police chief and deputies.					X

^aAs previously discussed, a narrow definition of the concept of liaison is being used throughout this report (see Section 1.1, above). Therefore, a number of activities which contain elements of liaison are categorized as liaison-related activities and not as liaison activities per se. These liaison-related activities are typically performed to support or enhance the basic liaison functions.

TABLE III(b)

GENERAL ACTIVITIES PERFORMED BY THE DALLAS, TX. LEGAL LIAISON DIVISION FOR 1979

GENERAL ACTIVITIES	CIVIL		LIAISON ^a	CRIMINAL	
	POLICY ANALYSIS AND FORMULATION	CIVIL LITIGATION		TRAINING ACTIVITIES	OPERATIONAL ACTIVITIES
Develop policy statements for the department on legal matters.	X				
Participate in meetings with members of the business community, schools and other civic groups.			X		
Conduct in-service training for all members of the department.				X	
Conduct pre-service training for recruits attending the police academy.				X	
Assist in the preparation of affidavits for arrest and search warrants.					X
Respond to requests for assistance at crime scenes.					X
Review cases dismissed by the courts.					X
Review cases no-billed by the grand jury.					X
Review prosecution reports.					X

^aAs previously discussed, a narrow definition of the concept of liaison is being used throughout this report (see Section 1.1, above). Therefore, a number of activities which contain elements of liaison are categorized as liaison-related activities and not as liaison activities per se. These liaison-related activities are typically performed to support or enhance the basic liaison functions.

TABLE I(c)
 GENERAL ACTIVITIES PERFORMED BY THE SAN DIEGO, CA.
 POLICE DEPARTMENT LEGAL ADVISOR'S OFFICE FOR 1979

GENERAL ACTIVITIES	CIVIL		LIAISON ^a	CRIMINAL	
	POLICY ANALYSIS AND FORMULATION	CIVIL LITIGATION		TRAINING ACTIVITIES	OPERATIONAL ACTIVITIES
City ordinances/council resolutions	X				
Department contractual/purchasing matters	X				
Department disciplinary matters	X				
New legislation (opinions/review bill referrals)	X				
Civil litigation/pleadings		X			
Civil service commission matters/appeals		X			
License suspensions/revocation hearings		X			
Personnel files/Pitchess motions		X			
Subpoenas/hearings - motions to quash		X			
Temporary restraining orders/preliminary injunctions		X			
Administrative opinions			X		
Commanding officers' meetings			X		
Departmental instructions			X		
District attorney and city attorney complaint rejections			X		
General legal questions (phone/walk-in)			X		
Inspector's meetings			X		
Interpretations of city ordinances/penal code			X		
Liaison with City Attorney's Office			X		
Public service and safety committee meetings			X		
Training bulletins				X	
Training (legal) assistance				X	

^aAs previously discussed, a narrow definition of the concept of liaison is being used throughout this report (see Section 1.1, above). Therefore, a number of activities which contain elements of liaison are categorized as liaison-related activities and not as liaison activities per se. These liaison-related activities are typically performed to support or enhance the basic liaison functions.

requests for assistance in the field during non-office hours; and presentation of pre-service training at the police academy.

More specifically, liaison unit attorneys reviewed between 1,500 and 2,000 prosecution and supplemental reports per month from April 1973 through October 1975, with an inconsistent but gradual increase in the number of reports reviewed per month evident.²³ The number of cases reviewed per month involving no-bills by the grand jury or court dismissals was also fairly substantial.²⁴ Between April 1973 and August 1974, the attorneys reviewed 2,319 no-bills (or approximately 136 cases per month) and 1,720 dismissals (about 115 cases per month). In both instances, the number of reviews conducted fluctuated substantially from one month to the next. For example, the number of no-bills reviewed per month ranged from a high of 412 during September 1973 to a low of 81 in August of 1974. Data for a somewhat more limited time frame -- April 1974 - August 1974 -- show that the attorneys also prepared an average of 12 affidavits per month for warrants and responded during non-office hours to approximately 38 requests per month by officers for assistance in the field.²⁵ Finally, the attorneys presented 74 hours of legal training to recruits attending the police academy. According to Wise, the curriculum covered eight core subject areas, with primary emphasis placed on the Texas Penal Code, Family Code, and Controlled Substances Act.²⁶

²³ Wise, supra note 14, pp. 41-42.

²⁴ L. G. Siegel, "Legal Aides for Police--Dallas, Texas", An Examination of the Transferability of Nine Anti-Crime Projects, The MITRE Corporation, McLean, VA, 1975, pp. 109-127, (unpublished document); Dallas Crime Analysis Unit, Legal Aides for Police Interim Evaluation Report, November, 1974.

²⁵ Ibid.

²⁶ Wise, supra note 14, pp. 53-55.

Descriptive information summarizing the activities performed by the legal liaison attorney for the North Las Vegas Police Department during 1974 indicates that the attorney devoted a significant portion of his time (about two hours per day) to providing police officers with informal opinions, either over the telephone or face-to-face during office consultations. The attorney also spent a large amount of the workday attending to administrative, casework and training tasks.²⁷

In addition, information is also available for several other sites.²⁸ The Farmington Area (Connecticut) Sub-Regional legal advisor, for example, spent about 40 percent of his time reviewing police department procedures and providing on-scene advice. An additional 35 percent of the workday was devoted to conducting officer training and preparing legal memoranda. Other tasks performed by the attorney included court liaison and preparation and review of town ordinances. By contrast, the Central Connecticut Planning Region police legal advisor typically devoted about 75 percent of his effort to: (1) preparing biweekly regional law enforcement bulletins; (2) writing memoranda in response to specific legal information requests; (3) preparing a yearly review of Connecticut legislative activity; and (4) reviewing case materials in conjunction with these tasks. The remaining time was spent conducting bimonthly visits to the various police departments and responding to telephone inquiries by officers concerning specific cases.

Finally, some composite data are available summarizing the efforts of regional legal advisors serving various jurisdictions in Texas. These advisors spent about 30 to 35 percent of their time conducting training programs. Another 30 to 35 percent was devoted to providing on-scene case consultation and preparing warrants and affidavits, while approximately 15 percent was spent providing administrative assistance to chiefs and assisting with municipal legal problems. The remaining time was allocated to establishing and maintaining liaison with the court and prosecutor.

²⁷ North Las Vegas Police Department, Police Legal Advisor: Final Report, September 9, 1974.

²⁸ Laudenslager, supra note 17, pp. 53-58.

3.5 Impact Analysis of Police Legal Liaison Units

There is a general paucity of information describing the impact of police legal liaison units. Those assessments that have been documented tend to vary considerably with respect to methodological sophistication and rigor. For the most part, the assessments consist of little more than elaborate activity reports. These reports enumerate the types of activities undertaken by the particular legal liaison office and the frequency with which the various tasks are performed by the attorney.

An exception is the Dallas Police Legal Liaison Division. This unit was the focus of two fairly extensive assessments during the mid-1970's. As part of an examination of the transferability of LEAA High Impact Anti-Crime Program projects, Siegel²⁹ concluded that the Dallas legal liaison effort was making substantial progress toward the accomplishment of its outcome objectives as well as most of its activity objectives. Further, the activities of the division were well suited for implementation in other jurisdictions. Wise,³⁰ in his analysis of the liaison division as a potential exemplary project, reached similar conclusions:

The presence of project attorneys has contributed significantly to improved police performance, and the available evidence suggests that fewer cases now fail due to avoidable police error. Increased convictions, although important, are not the only measures of the project's success. More informed decisionmaking by police in such sensitive areas as arrest and search and seizure means greater respect for the Constitutional rights of individuals.

More specifically, the Dallas effort was designed to achieve the following goal: prevent and correct police legal error, thereby reducing the number of cases rejected by the courts. In

²⁹ Siegel, supra note 24.

³⁰ Wise, supra note 14., pp. 6-7.

order to assess the effectiveness of the unit, Wise examined the disposition of criminal cases filed by the police which were adjudicated from June 1973 through March 1975. According to Wise, police-related errors resulting in no-bills by the grand jury and dismissals by the court have declined significantly.³¹ In each instance the data show a steady reduction in police-related errors, at an average rate of .6% per month for no-bills and .27% per month for dismissals. Both reductions are statistically significant at commonly accepted confidence levels. (For no-bills, $t = 5.98$, $p .001$; for dismissals, $t = 2.65$, $p .01$.) The findings suggest that more than 1,000 cases previously rejected each year due to police error are now meeting the legal requirements of the grand juries and courts due to the efforts of the Legal Liaison Division.

Data detailing no-bill and dismissal rates, for similar though marginally different time frames, were also analyzed by Wise (see Tables IV and V).³² In both cases the data show a significant decline in no-bills and dismissals due to police error. At the same time, however, a sharp increase in no-bills and dismissals for causes other than police error is also evident. The clear contrast between the trends of decreasing police error and increasing non-police error suggests a number of rival hypotheses--possibly due to either a change in crime classification policies or a long-term shift in the nature of indictments. Wise addresses a number of alternative explanations and provides evidence to refute each interpretation. Although somewhat hesitant to attribute the reduction in no-bills and dismissals due to police error directly to the efforts of the liaison division, Wise concludes that the attorneys have apparently had a positive impact on the daily operations of the police.

3.6 Future Prospects

Legal liaison units have been institutionalized and fully integrated into the daily operations of most large police departments and many smaller ones. The crucial trial period for the acceptability and stability of the police legal advisor concept occurred during the mid-1970's. The economic recession

³¹ Wise, supra note 14, pp. 87-88.

³² Wise, supra note 14, pp. 88-92.

TABLE IV
CHANGE IN NO-BILL RATES FOR DALLAS, TX:
JULY 1973-JUNE 1975

PERIOD	GRAND JURY CASES	TOTAL NO-BILLS	POLICE ERROR NO-BILLS	OTHER NO-BILLS
July-December 1973	4,600 (100%)	1,056 (22.9%)	637 (13.8%)	419 (9.1%)
January-June 1974	3,975 (100%)	703 (17.7%)	309 (7.8%)	394 (9.9%)
July-December 1974	4,129 (100%)	744 (18.0%)	236 (5.7%)	508 (12.3%)
January-June 1975	4,301 (100%)	859 (20.0%)	184 (4.3%)	675 (15.7%)

Source: H. Lake Wise, The Dallas Police Legal Liaison Division, Washington, DC, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976, p. 89.

TABLE V
 CHANGE IN DISMISSAL RATES FOR DALLAS, TX:
 SEPTEMBER 1973-JUNE 1975

PERIOD	CASE DISPOSITIONS	TOTAL DISMISSALS	POLICE ERROR DISMISSALS	OTHER DISMISSALS
September-December 1973 (Four Months)	2,194 (100%)	937 (19.9%)	141 (6.4%)	296 (13.5%)
January-June 1974	3,564 (100%)	807 (22.6%)	169 (4.7%)	638 (17.9%)
July-December 1974	3,727 (100%)	890 (23.9%)	149 (4.0%)	741 (19.9%)
January-June 1975	4,499 (100%)	860 (19.1%)	115 (2.6%)	745 (16.5%)

Source: H. Lake Wise, The Dallas Police Legal Liaison Division, Washington, DC, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976, p. 91.

of 1974-1975 affected many law enforcement agencies. Some agencies suffered budget reductions and had to curtail nonessential services, while others had to struggle to maintain existing services due to budgetary freezes. Nonetheless, police departments and city attorneys continued to implement and support police legal liaison units through the economic downturn. According to Glen King, former executive director of the International Association of Chiefs of Police:³³

...during the same period only three or four police legal units were terminated while over fifty new units were implemented. Furthermore, with less federal implementation funds available more departments were and are initiating units within their existing budgets. This reflects the recognized need for legal assistance within the administration of a law enforcement agency.

³³ Crime Control Digest, Vol. 10, No. 24, 1976.

4. POLICE-SCHOOL LIAISON UNITS

4.1 Origin and Development

Beginning in the early 1960's, the criminal justice system in general, the police in particular, and communities-at-large were confronted with substantial increases in juvenile crimes, violence in the schools, and at least perceptions of growing hostility among adolescents toward the law and law enforcement agencies. In an effort to stem these problems, police-school liaison units were established as a cooperative venture between police departments and schools.

Historically, the first police-school liaison unit was established in 1958 when the police department of Flint, Michigan assigned one of its officers to a junior high school in the local school district. At the end of 1962, the program had been implemented in all of the junior high schools in the city; and by 1965 the senior high school was included in the program. The Tucson, Arizona Police Department was the next to initiate a liaison program, establishing formal ties with one of the city's junior high schools in 1963. By 1968, the Tucson program had expanded to include 10 of the 16 junior high schools in the area.

Three distinct phases have marked the development of school liaison units. The first phase, represented by the Flint, Michigan program, emphasized counseling sessions and related activities. The second phase, initiated during the late 1960's, was based on a legal model and stressed law enforcement activities such as preventive patrol and investigations. Finally, a liaison model emphasizing interaction and coordination provided the theoretical framework for the school units initiated during the early 1970's.

During the late 1960's and early 1970's police departments throughout the United States implemented the concept of a police-school liaison unit. The typical pattern of development (particularly in large urban areas) has been to implement the program in a small number of schools. After a year or two of

successful operations, the program has then been expanded to include the remaining schools.³⁴

4.2 Organization and Composition

4.2.1 Staffing Patterns.

The school liaison units reviewed in this study have been implemented by local police or sheriff's departments, with the exception of the unit established by the State Police in Michigan. All of these units are comprised, primarily, of sworn police officers. Most of the liaison officers are patrolmen, although a few of them are detectives. A few of the units also employ non-sworn personnel. For example, the Pleasant Hill, CA³⁵, school liaison unit includes two counselors; and the Montgomery, AL³⁶ unit employs a psychologist.

In several instances (Albert Lea and Minneapolis, MN³⁷ and Lane County, OR³⁸), the officer works as part of an official team set up specifically to deal with student problems. The composition of these teams varies, but includes school personnel such as counselors, principals, assistant principals, nurses, social workers, teachers, and psychologists, as well as members

³⁴Henry M. Milander, "Local Police Department-School System Interaction and Cooperation," Dissertation Abstracts International, 1967. See also Ron A. Johnson, "The School Resource Officer Program," Law and Order, December 1975, pp. 28-34; Donald H. Bouma and Donald G. Williams, "Police-School Liaison," Intellect, November 1972, pp. 119-122.

³⁵T. J. Cain, "Youth Services: A Police Alternative to the Juvenile Justice System," Law and Order, January 1973.

³⁶Montgomery Police Department (hereinafter referred to as Montgomery Police), Final Progress Report, Year I Expanded School Relations Bureau Project, February 1974.

³⁷Minneapolis Police Department (hereinafter referred to as Minneapolis Police) Police-School Liaison Program Final Report, 1968.

³⁸R. R. Jones, Preventive Team Approach to Juvenile Delinquency-- Evaluation Research Report, Oregon Research Institute, July 1972.

from outside the school, such as volunteers, court liaison officers, and juvenile probation officers.

Most of the units are relatively small, consisting of one to three officers. Several of the liaison units are larger and employ more officers. For example, in the early 1970's the Montgomery, Alabama School Relations Bureau³⁹ employed 16 patrol officers and detectives plus a psychologist. A lieutenant served as the director of the unit with a sergeant as his assistant. The San Diego, CA Secondary Schools' Task Force⁴⁰ employed 18 patrolmen and 2 sergeants (1972-1973), working as nine two-man teams and covering about 37 schools. Similarly, a total of 16 officers--14 patrolmen and two sergeants-- were at one time assigned to the Phoenix, AZ school liaison unit.

4.2.2 Changes in Staffing Patterns

Several liaison units increased the size of their staff and expanded the number of schools covered during the late 1960's and early 1970's as a result of funds from LEAA. Such increases occurred in a number of jurisdictions, for example, San Diego, CA⁴¹ Phoenix, AZ⁴², and Montgomery, AL.⁴³ The increase in staff typically resulted in the establishment of a formal hierarchy within the unit (e.g., Montgomery, AL). In several of these units, solo patrols were phased out and two-person teams initiated, with each team assigned to several schools or a specific geographical area.

4.2.3 Physical Location

School liaison officers spend some or all of their time in and around the various schools they service. In some units, such as

³⁹Montgomery Police, supra note 36.

⁴⁰R. L. Hoobler, "San Diego: Secondary Schools' Task Force," The Police Chief, June 1973.

⁴¹Ibid.

⁴²George B. Smith, "It Pays to be Different," FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, November 1973.

⁴³Montgomery Police, supra note 36.

those in Minneapolis, MN⁴⁴, Salinas, CA, and Montgomery, AL⁴⁵, the officers have offices in the schools and work out of them. Other officers, while maintaining a desk at the police department, have space set aside in the various schools for counseling activities. Still other officers basically operate from the police department's headquarters (Bladen County, NC, and Newton, NC).

Most of the liaison officers cover more than one school and some cover a relatively large number of schools. In these instances, the officers typically maintain office space in several schools in addition to an office at the police department.

4.3 Analytical Framework

An analytical framework characterizing police-school liaison units is presented in Figure 3. It depicts the relationships among the activities conducted by school liaison units, the outcomes anticipated through the performance of those activities, and the fundamental assumptions which link the activities to expected outcomes.⁴⁶

Across-the-board, school liaison units are staffed by sworn police officers. Depending upon the size of the police department and its organizational structure, the liaison officers are either detailed to the detective division or are assigned to report directly to the chief of police.

The liaison officers generally perform a wide variety of activities. These activities may be grouped into four primary categories:

⁴⁴Minneapolis Police, supra note 37.

⁴⁵Montgomery Police, supra note 36.

⁴⁶The activities, assumptions, and objectives presented in Figure 3 are based on information gathered during site visits and reports describing and evaluating the efforts of police liaison units. Many of these documents are cited in the remaining footnotes to this section. The specification of the assumptions underlying police-school liaison units and the linkage with the units' activities and objectives often had to be inferred from site visits and the literature.

4-5

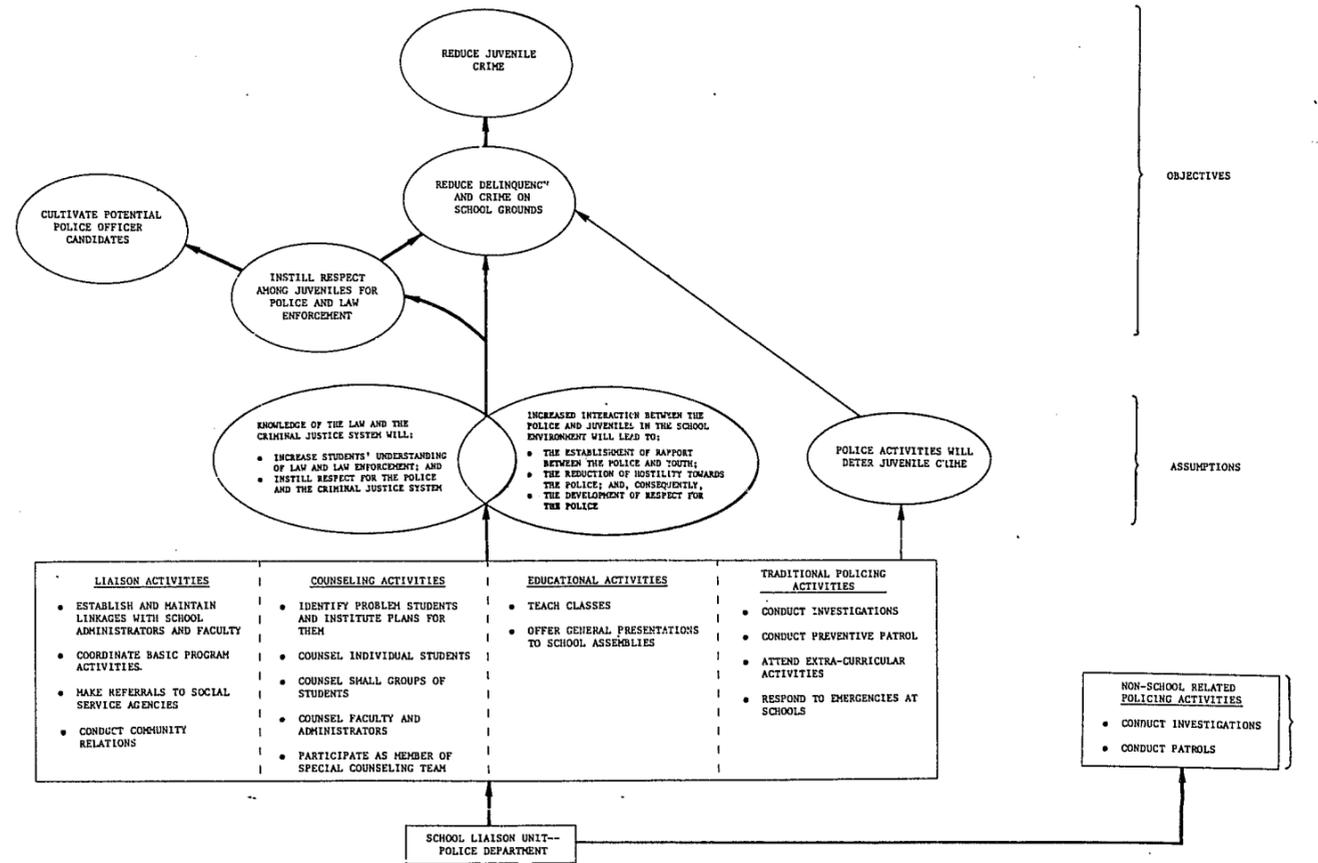


FIGURE 3 ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK FOR POLICE-SCHOOL LIAISON UNITS

- maintain liaison with school officials to foster smooth operations of various components of the program, as well as establish liaison with social service agencies to facilitate referrals for students requiring professional help;
- provide counseling to individual students, small groups of students, and members of the faculty;
- participate in educational presentations given to specific classes and general assemblies on topics related to law enforcement, for example, the role of the police, the functions of various components of the criminal justice system, bicycle safety, hunter safety, rape prevention, and drug and alcohol abuse; and
- conduct traditional police tasks in the immediate vicinity of the school, such as carrying out investigations, conducting preventive patrol, attending extra-curricular activities (especially sports events to act as a deterrent to potential violence that may emanate from inter-school rivalries), and responding to specific emergencies.

In addition to the above activities, school liaison officers are often assigned a small caseload of non-school related incidents to investigate. These officers also may perform some routine patrol functions, especially officers employed by relatively small police departments. During the summer months, when schools recess for vacation, the officers substantially increase the amount of time they allocate to the traditional investigation and patrol functions.

General activities performed by school liaison units, such as teaching classes and counseling students, are directed toward controlling juvenile crime through the processes concerned with increasing knowledge about law enforcement, increasing interaction between the police and students, establishing rapport between the two groups and, concomitantly, reducing hostilities between them. More specifically, the basic objectives may be stated as follows:

- instill respect among juveniles for the police and law enforcement functions;⁴⁷
- cultivate potential police officer material by making the law enforcement profession appealing as an occupation;⁴⁸
- reduce delinquent behavior in and around the schools;⁴⁹ and
- reduce juvenile crime.⁵⁰

Three fundamental assumptions underlie the attempts of school liaison officers to deter delinquent behavior among students and

⁴⁷Harmon G. Harrison and Nyla Crone, "Cops in the Schools Spot Trouble in the Making," American School Board Journal, December 1968, pp. 21-23; Johnson, supra note 34; J.L.L. Miller, School Resource Officer Program -- Final Report Evaluation Phase, Tuscon Police Department, Tuscon, AZ, 1968; Montgomery Police, supra note 36; Toledo Metropolitan Area Council of Government, Police-School Curriculum Project, 1973, p. 2.

⁴⁸Johnson, supra note 34, pp. 28-34.

⁴⁹Miller, supra note 48, p. 3; Montgomery Police, supra note 36, pp. 8-14; Police, supra note 2, p. 41; Curtis Dean Urness, A Functional Analysis of the Role of the Police School Liaison Officer in the Twin City Metropolitan Area, (Ph.D. dissertation), August 1971.

⁵⁰Fredrick E. Davids, "Michigan State Police Goes Juvenile," Police Chief, Vol. 37, No. 10, October 1970, p. 46-52; Harrison and Crone, supra note 47, pp. 21-23; Johnson, supra note 34, pp. 28-34; Miller, supra note 49, p. 3; Montgomery Police, supra note 36, pp. 8-14; Police, supra note 2, p. 41; F. Leon Paulson, Evaluation of the Mid-Willamette Valley (Oregon) Council of Governments' Community Liaison Program, Teaching Research, Oregon System of Higher Education, Salem, OR, 1971, p. 1; Urness, supra note 49, p. 21.

link the objectives listed above with the various activities performed by the school liaison units:

- Improved communication increases the students' understanding of the role of police in the community and the importance of law enforcement to the maintenance of a peaceful and orderly society;⁵¹
- increased interaction counters ambivalent or unfavorable attitudes among students toward police by fostering rapport between the two groups;⁵² and
- routine presence of police has a deterrent effect resulting in a reduction of juvenile crime in and around the school,⁵³ as well as, a reduction in juvenile crime in general.

4.4 Descriptive Analysis of Activities

4.4.1 Liaison

Liaison is an important element of school liaison units and is often utilized to set the groundwork required to implement other

⁵¹Mark A. Chesler and Pat Graham, Alternative Responses to School Crises and Experiments in Police-School Relations, Center for Research on the Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, Institute for Social Research and Educational Change Team, School of Education, University of Michigan, date unknown, p. 139; Police, supra note 2, pp. 39-40; Johnson, supra note 34, pp. 28-34; Miller, supra note 47, June 1968, p. 1; Smith, supra note 42, pp. 8-10; Toledo Metropolitan Area Council of Government, supra note 47, pp. 2-3.

⁵²Chesler and Graham, supra note 51, p. 128; Montgomery Police, supra note 36, pp. 6-14; Toledo Metropolitan Area Council of Government, supra note 47, pp. 2-3; Urness, supra note 49, p. 22. More recent thinking, however, has challenged this assumption (personal communications with Donald Williams).

⁵³Chesler and Graham, supra note 51, p. 152; Robert Portune, The Cincinnati Police-Juvenile Attitude Project: Police-Teacher Curriculum Development for Improving Police Juvenile Relations, University of Cincinnati, 1967, summary; Howard A. Sulkin, The Elementary School Child's Perception of Police and the Police Function, University of Chicago, 1972, p. 2.

school-related activities. (See Table VI for a list of activities typically performed by school liaison units.). As the coordinating element between the police and the schools, liaison is usually performed on a continuous basis throughout the school year and, to some extent, also during the summer recess. The coordination function is evident with regard to a number of activities including:

- initiation and maintenance of contacts with school officials concerning the identification of problem students, investigation of delinquent and criminal activities, and counseling of individual students;
- development of a general liaison program and specific policies in conjunction with school board officials and school administrators;
- establishment of relationships with social service agencies to foster referrals; and
- diversion of youngsters from the juvenile justice system.

Since most liaison officers cover several schools and often have offices either at the police department or one of the schools, coordination of activities and information with regard to individual students, school staff and administrators is integral to the accomplishment of other activities performed by police-school units.

4.4.2 Counseling

Counseling activities include both scheduled and unscheduled interaction with students, parents of delinquent students, school staff, and administrators. Informal "rap" sessions with individuals and groups of students in the cafeteria, halls, schoolyard, and offices are typical and may involve talks with students about the law and criminal justice, conversations with problem students regarding the consequences of their anti-social behavior, advice on personal and family problems, and discussions of other juvenile-related problems such as gangs and peer pressure. In some instances, students may seek out the officer for advice. In other instances, the officer may initiate the counseling session, particularly with students who are a disruptive influence in the classroom and involved in delinquent behavior. A few units, such as the one in Montgomery, AL, use specialized counseling techniques such as contingency contracting to deal with certain students and particular behavioral problems.

TABLE VI
 ACTIVITIES OF SCHOOL LIAISON UNITS (SITES VISITED) IN 1979
 BY TYPE--LIAISON, COUNSELING, EDUCATIONAL, SCHOOL POLICING, NON-SCHOOL POLICING

SITES/ACTIVITIES	LIAISON ^a	COUNSELING	EDUCATIONAL	SCHOOL POLICING	NON-SCHOOL POLICING
<u>Albert Lea, MN Activities</u>					
1. Attending casework meetings as a part of a counseling team	X				
2. Counseling individual students		X			
3. Teaching classes			X		
4. Conducting investigations				X	
5. Patrolling				X	
<u>Bladen County, NC Activities</u>					
1. Meeting with school administrators and teachers	X				
2. Counseling individual students		X			
3. Talking with groups of students		X			
4. Presenting films			X		
5. Teaching classes			X		
6. Attending high school ball games				X	
7. Conducting criminal investigations				X	
8. Conducting random patrols				X	
9. Performing traditional policing activities					X

4-10

TABLE VI
(Continued)

SITES/ACTIVITIES	LIAISON ^a	COUNSELING	EDUCATIONAL	SCHOOL POLICING	NON-SCHOOL POLICING
<u>Howard County, IN Activities</u>					
1. Serving as a resource-person in cases of child abuse and neglect	X				
2. Counseling students		X			
3. Conducting a law enforcement explorers post			X		
4. Lecturing on law enforcement			X		
5. Conducting investigations				X	
6. Conducting patrols				X	
<u>Newton, NC Activities</u>					
1. Planning content of liaison program with representatives of school system each year	X				
2. Counseling students, parents, and faculty		X			
3. Referring cases to juvenile court counselor		X			
4. Conducting crime prevention meetings for businessmen and residents			X		
5. Making presentations to students in subjects such as drug and alcohol abuse, hunter safety, rape prevention, criminal justice system				X	
6. Responding to emergencies at school				X	
7. Providing routine patrol and conduct investigations					X

TABLE VI
(Concluded)

SITES/ACTIVITIES	LIAISON ^a	COUNSELING	EDUCATIONAL	SCHOOL POLICING	NON-SCHOOL POLICING
<u>Salinas, CA Activities</u>					
1. Making referrals to community service agencies	X				
2. Counseling students		X			
3. Presenting movies			X		
4. Teaching classes			X		
5. Conducting investigations				X	
6. Conducting investigations of non-school related incidents					X

^aAs previously discussed, a narrow definition of the concept of liaison is being used throughout this report (see Section 1.1, above). Therefore, a number of activities which contain elements of liaison are categorized as liaison-related activities and not as liaison activities per se. These liaison-related activities are typically performed to support or enhance the basic liaison functions.

Counseling activities also involve the school staff and administrators. Liaison officers often provide principals, counselors, and teachers with advice concerning the legal consequences of certain actions such as court referral.

4.4.3 Education

School liaison units universally engage in a variety of educational activities. These activities take place during classroom presentations and discussions, informal gatherings and "rap" sessions and face-to-face conversations between students and officers. The classroom setting reaches the largest number of students.

During these educational presentations, the liaison officers deal with a wide variety of topics, ranging from the nature and function of the law, to the application of specific laws, to safety and self-defense. At the elementary school level, presentations are oriented toward acquainting students with the roles and equipment of the police and their functions with regard to safety and helping children. At the junior high school level, presentations often deal with the law as it relates to juveniles, alcohol and drug abuse, the role of the police and the need for law enforcement. These presentations are often highlighted by demonstrations of equipment (especially for the younger children) and films. Subjects taught in the high schools include: drug and alcohol abuse; the function of the law and the criminal justice system; laws of special relevance to adolescents; safety in the use of firearms; and self-defense.

4.4.4 Traditional Police Activities

School liaison officers have also employed so-called traditional police activities as part and parcel of their overall strategy. The officers typically investigate crimes committed in or around the schools, particularly those involving students as either suspects or victims. In the course of their investigations, officers occasionally obtain intelligence information which may be useful in crime prevention. This is often the case with regard to potential gang fights or attacks on individual students. Liaison officers in most units patrol the school and the grounds around it, make apprehensions if necessary, warn students engaged in anti-social behavior, and prevent outsiders from entering the school. Patrol activities are also designed to counter vandalism and destruction of school property by increasing the risk to students of detection and

apprehension. Additionally, some officers perform crowd control functions at school sporting events and other extracurricular activities.

Officers in some liaison units (Albert Lea, MN, and Salinas, CA) also investigate a share of the department's routine cases which are outside the province of the schools. In less populated jurisdictions, school liaison officers often engage in routine patrol and the other traditional police functions apart from tasks associated with their school duties (e.g., Newton, NC). Additionally, liaison officers occasionally assist other law enforcement agencies, as well as share information with probation and parole departments in order to expedite cases and foster law enforcement.

4.4.5 Quantitative Data Describing the Activities of School Liaison Units

Several of the reports examined present quantitative information describing various activities performed by police-school liaison officers. The data focus on the percent of the officers' time spent conducting various activities (Tucson, AZ),⁵⁴ the average number of people contacted during a day (Lane County, OR),⁵⁵ the number of juvenile cases handled (Montgomery, AL⁵⁶ and Minneapolis, MN⁵⁷), the number of contacts with students (Phoenix, AZ⁵⁸ and San Diego, CA⁵⁹), and the number of classroom presentations and the number of students attending those presentations (Phoenix, AZ and San Diego, CA).

An early evaluation report of the Tucson, Arizona School Resource Officer Program presents the distribution of the time spent by the liaison officers performing various activities

⁵⁴ Miller, supra note 37.

⁵⁵ Jones, supra note 38.

⁵⁶ Montgomery Police, supra note 36.

⁵⁷ Minneapolis Police, supra note 37.

⁵⁸ Smith, supra note 42.

⁵⁹ Hoobler, supra note 40.

during the 1966-67 school year. During the time frame covered by the evaluation, the nine members of the liaison unit worked with eight junior high schools and their feeder elementary schools. The data show that the officers spent about two-thirds of their time performing patrol functions in and around the schools and conducting meetings with faculty, students, and concerned parents. Contact between students and liaison officers typically occurred during classroom presentations (over 85% of the contacts), in the corridors and on the school grounds between classes and during free periods.

The evaluation of the Lane County, OR, School-Police-Court Teams presents data derived from the activity logs of team members during the early 1970's. At that time, two teams, each consisting of a school counselor, juvenile officer, and juvenile court officer, were operational. Complete data were available for only one team member, however. The data indicate that about 60% of the activities were informal (not scheduled or specifically structured). Much of this informal activity was spent dealing with problems on an individual basis. Informal contacts often consisted of brief face-to-face contacts or telephone calls. The formal activities, by contrast, involved prearranged meetings or speeches. On the average, 34 people were contacted per day including those attending formal presentations.

Reports describing the efforts of other liaison units present quantitative data on the number of contacts made with students, number of arrests for various offenses, number of classroom presentations, as well as the number of individuals attending presentations. The types of data presented, the periods of time covered, and the accuracy of the data vary from one report to the next as well as among sites.

- San Diego, CA - During the 1971-72 school year, the members of the Secondary Schools' Task Force (18 patrolmen and two sergeants) made 2,012 visits to 33 secondary schools. The officers made 228 classroom presentations to a total of 6,397 students. During this time a total of 2,531 contacts were made which were termed law enforcement contacts and 34,380 contacts labelled "public relations" contacts (mainly informal contacts with students). The task force conducted 146 criminal investigations and broke up a total of 95 ongoing or pending gang fights. During the 1971 fall semester, a total of 250 arrests were made around the schools.

- Phoenix, AZ - The 16-member liaison unit (14 patrolmen and two sergeants) visited 2,034 classrooms speaking to approximately 69,000 students during the 1972-73 school year. A total of 6,864 counseling sessions were held involving 10,830 students both in individual and group sessions. Some of these contacts lasted a short time while others extended for several hours over many days.
- Pleasant Hill, CA - During 1971 and early 1972, the Pleasant Hill Youth Services Unit consisted of two school liaison officers, two civilian community service aides and a lieutenant who coordinated the program. Officer and civilian members of Youth Services spent 149 hours on the school grounds, participated in 44 rap sessions with students, consulted with 201 individuals (mainly students other than those referred for law violations) and spent approximately 200 hours on drug abuse education.
- Montgomery, AL - During the 1972-1973 school year, the 16 School Relations Bureau officers made a total of 1,052 arrests: 218 arrests in the high schools; 484 in the junior high schools; and 350 in the elementary schools. Arrests were defined by a complaint, a charge, or youth being judged (by police) as an offender. Of those arrests, 45% were handled by the school, 20% given warnings and released by the liaison officers, 5% referred to court, 6% placed in detention, 4% placed in the Voluntary Police Supervision Program, 1% referred to community agencies, and the remainder exceptionally cleared.

4.5 Impact Analysis

Although a number of studies have been performed to examine various aspects of school liaison units, knowledge regarding the effectiveness of these units is rather limited. Several evaluation reports dealt with teacher and administrator perceptions of the liaison program and student perceptions and attitudes toward the program per se (as opposed to perceptions of police, law, and law enforcement in general). However, the research designs differed from one study to the next, making comparisons among these studies difficult. Further a variety of instruments were used to measure student attitudes, perceptions and knowledge. Some studies compared schools receiving different amounts of contact with liaison officers; two studies compared schools with and without liaison officers; and one

study (Michigan State Police) employed a before and after design comparing schools with liaison officers to schools not participating in the program.

4.5.1 Increased Interaction Between Police and Students

Typically, school liaison officers structure their program to foster interaction with students. Most students have had contact with a liaison officer in the classroom situation; with fewer students making contact in informal groups on the school grounds, the cafeteria, etc.; and still fewer interacting with the liaison officer in a one-to-one counseling situation.

In both Phoenix, AZ,⁶⁰ and San Diego, CA,⁶¹ school liaison officers made over 10,000 and 34,000 contacts respectively in counseling sessions or informal situations. In Phoenix, the 16 liaison officers spoke to over 69,000 students in classroom presentations, while the 20 San Diego officers assigned to the liaison unit spoke to about 6,400 students in this manner. Likewise, in Tucson, AZ,⁶² most contacts between the police and students occurred in classroom settings. Contacts with students were also made on the school grounds and in the neighborhood immediately surrounding the schools. Even in the small city of Riverton, WY,⁶³ the school liaison officer reported making contact with over 1,000 students during a period of a year (not including class presentations).

A large number of students who attend schools participating in liaison programs have had some contact with the police liaison officers, most often through classroom presentations and, to a lesser extent, through informal contacts. However, most of these contacts have not been on a one-to-one basis. In some programs a relatively small proportion of students have had face-to-face contact with the officer, and even fewer have had frequent contacts of this nature.

⁶⁰Smith, supra note 42.

⁶¹Hoobler, supra note 40.

⁶²Miller, supra note 47.

⁶³D. Horyza, Riverton (WY)--Youth Officer Program--Evaluation, U.S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Washington, D.C., 1975.

Despite the number of contacts or the number of students exposed to liaison officers, the basic question remains as to whether or not the amount and type of interaction between officers and students increases knowledge of law enforcement, reduces hostility toward police, or instills respect for police. A more fundamental question is whether or not (and to what degree) interaction between police and students in a school setting can influence attitudes and behavior. These questions remain unanswered based on the available information.

4.5.2 Increased Knowledge of Law Enforcement

None of the reports contained data on student knowledge or changes in knowledge as a result of classroom presentations, courses, or other interaction with liaison officers. A few questions posed by the researchers dealt with students' perception of the role of police and the law, but did not provide enough information to assess the impact of the program on the students, particularly with respect to their knowledge about law enforcement functions.

4.5.3 Reduction of Hostility and Increase in Respect for Police and Law Enforcement

Available data suggest that student attitudes toward the police, law enforcement, and the law do not differ substantially with respect to participation or exclusion in a police liaison program or to varying amounts of contacts with liaison officers. In general, a majority of the students perceived the police in a positive manner, whether or not they had been exposed to a police-school liaison program. A few studies concluded that the liaison programs enhanced student perceptions and attitudes, but the findings were not consistent with regard to the comparisons made (e.g., schools with and without liaison officers; at the elementary, junior, and senior high school levels) or the measures employed. Findings reported by four of these studies are presented below.

The Michigan State Police⁶⁴ conducted an extensive study of student attitudes toward police and the law in three school districts, two of which had a liaison program and one that did

⁶⁴Michigan Department of State Police, The Evaluation of a Police-School Liaison Program, (hereinafter referred to as Michigan State Police), October 1970.

not. Measurements were made in 1968 prior to the program and in 1970 after the program had been in effect for about one year. In the two school districts with a liaison program, a majority of students (63 percent and 81 percent respectively) said it was a good idea to have a policeman in their school. An absence of comparable data concerning the attitudes of students attending the control school is characteristic of the problems associated with the evaluation of programs in this area. Without appropriate control group data, it is impossible to tell whether the liaison program has had a significant impact on students in the experimental schools. In general, attitudes were less favorable among high school students than among junior high school or elementary school students. However, students' attitudes were less favorable in 1970 than in 1968. Overall, students in schools with liaison officers exhibited less change in attitudes than students attending schools without liaison officers. Further, the majority of students participating in the liaison program continued to express favorable attitudes.

In the Mid-Willamette Region, OR,⁶⁵ students from the fifth, seventh, and ninth grades were given questionnaires measuring their attitudes toward police, the law in general, and the liaison program. Comparisons were made between students who had a low level of contact with liaison officers (less than four visits during the year) and those with a high level of contact (average of one or more visits per week from the liaison officer). A majority of the students in the high contact group perceived the liaison officer in the same manner as other policemen (67 percent for males, 58 percent for females) and felt that the officer's presence "did not make it look like the teacher can't handle the kids" (66 percent for males, 79 percent for females). The students in the low contact group also responded in a similar fashion. Overall, the majority of students expressed favorable attitudes toward the police and the law.

In Tucson, AZ,⁶⁶ a study examining differential exposure to liaison officers was conducted using junior high and elementary school students. Three levels of exposure were defined: two or more years; six months to two years; and no exposure. In general, there were few differences among the three groups of

⁶⁵Paulson, supra note 50.

⁶⁶Miller, supra note 47.

students. Police were generally perceived in a positive manner as measured by several semantic differential scales, viewed as second in importance among various adult roles (second only to doctors), and seen as most highly feared by people. Students exposed to the program were slightly more likely to agree that it was legitimate for police to tell them how to act in public, how to ride a bicycle and what to do going to and from school than students without any exposure to the liaison program. Finally, there were only very small differences among the groups regarding rates of self-reported delinquent acts.

In Minneapolis, MN,⁶⁷ five junior high schools with liaison officers were compared to an "average" junior high school in the city and to a central city junior high school, the latter two without liaison officers. Attitudes were measured using paired comparisons of items which were pre-tested as strongly negative or positive toward police. Students attending the "average" junior high generally expressed attitudes more positively inclined toward the police than students in several grades (especially the ninth grade) in three of the five schools with liaison officers. These differences were statistically significant at the .01 level or better. (The Minneapolis study was the only one of those reviewed which reported statistical tests). On the other hand, to a statistically significant extent, students exposed to the liaison program typically perceived the police in a more favorable light than students attending the central city school.

The studies reviewed do not directly provide evidence concerning whether or not the school liaison program changed students' attitudes toward the police and law enforcement. With the exception of a few of the comparisons in the Minneapolis study, general and specific attitudes toward police and law enforcement did not seem to be strongly influenced by the presence or absence of, or the extent of student exposure to, the liaison program.

4.5.4 Reduction of Delinquency and Crime on School Grounds.

Several reports contain quantitative data concerning delinquency in and around the schools. The Minneapolis, MN, unit⁶⁸

⁶⁷Minneapolis Police, supra note 37.

⁶⁸Minneapolis Police, supra note 36.

reported a significant reduction in the number of cases handled between the 1966-1967 and 1967-1968 school years in almost all offense categories. In contrast, the Montgomery, AL School Relations Bureau⁶⁹ reported almost a twofold increase in the number of arrests from the 1971-1972 to the 1972-1973 school year. This increase may, in part, be attributed to changes in the bureau's effort, specifically, doubling the size of the liaison staff, implementing two-man teams each with its own car, and increasing the territory covered. The San Diego, CA⁷⁰ unit reported breaking up 95 actual or pending gangfights during the 1971-1972 school year. In Syracuse, NY,⁷¹ interracial fights decreased after the liaison units entered the schools. Officials interviewed at the five sites visited during this study felt that school-related crimes, including vandalism, have decreased since the initiation of the liaison program, but no quantitative data were readily available.

4.5.5 Reduction of Juvenile Crime.

The major long-range goal of police-school units is the general reduction of juvenile crime. However, very little data are available regarding the achievement of this goal. Self-reported delinquency did not differ between students exposed or not exposed to liaison officers, or among students in schools with different degrees of contact with liaison officers. Further, it would be difficult to isolate the effects of liaison units on delinquency, since it is only one of many factors which influence delinquent behavior.

⁶⁹Montgomery Police, supra note 36.

⁷⁰Hoobler, supra note 40.

⁷¹Flynn and Roberts, Adoption and Utilization of Urban Technology: A Decision-Making Study, Innovation in the Syracuse Police Department: Two Case Studies, Syracuse Research Corporation, Syracuse, NY, September 1977.

4.5.6 Impact on School Administrators, Faculty, and Liaison Officers

Several studies⁷² examined the effects of liaison programs on school administrators and faculty. The responses of school officials and faculty were generally very favorable in all studies. Teachers and administrators felt that the program was useful and thought highly of the specific officers assigned to their schools. Several administrators thought that the officers should spend more time in their schools. Administrators of schools who were not involved in the program indicated that they would like to initiate a police-school liaison officer program.

Two additional studies explored the attitudes of liaison officers. In Minneapolis, MN,⁷³ the liaison officers felt that they had received excellent cooperation from school administrators, staff and faculty. The Mid-Willamette Region, OR⁷⁴ study concluded that the liaison officers generally held conservative views concerning appropriate behavior by juveniles both in and out of the classroom, but nevertheless moderated their views somewhat as a result of their experience as school liaison officers.

4.6 Future Prospects

Liaison units in all five sites visited are currently supported by local funds. Both the schools and police in several locations expressed a strong desire to continue these units as a permanent part of police and school operations. Funding is supplied from the school district's budget in Bladen County, NC and jointly from the budgets of the schools and police in Howard County, IN. In the other three communities (Albert Lea, MN, Newton, NC, and Salinas, CA), federal funding has been completely replaced by local funding through the police department.

⁷²See, for example, Michigan State Police, supra note 64; Horyza, supra note 63; Paulson, supra note 51; Flynn and Roberts, supra note 71.

⁷³Minneapolis Police, supra note 37.

⁷⁴Paulson, supra note 50.

Given the positive responses to the program by school administrators, faculty, staff and police departments, it appears that many liaison units will continue to operate with local funds. This is especially true for those units which have been institutionalized by the police. However, budget cuts evident during the late 1970's and early 1980 will likely lead to reductions in the staff of liaison units and types of activities performed by police-school liaison units.

5. POLICE YOUTH SERVICE BUREAUS

5.1 Origin and Development

In 1967, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice⁷⁵ recommended the implementation of the youth service bureau concept to provide and coordinate programs designed to assist both delinquent and non-delinquent youths. The Commission envisioned a YSB as dealing with youths outside of the juvenile justice system. It expected that the majority of the cases would be referred to the bureau by the police and the intake staff of the juvenile court in order to divert juveniles from the criminal justice system. Since 1967, YSBs have been established throughout the United States. A national survey identified 150 YSBs in operation as of 1972.⁷⁶

The diversion of juveniles from the criminal justice system has been proposed as one of the major goals of YSBs because of the perceived ineffectiveness of the formal juvenile

⁷⁵President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime (hereinafter referred to as Juvenile Delinquency), Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967, pp. 19-21. Although this section discusses the concept of youth service bureaus in general, it should be noted that this portion of the study focuses on police-operated youth service bureaus. It is recognized that some YSBs are operated by other agencies. Consequently, the analytical framework presented in this chapter may not be appropriate for describing or evaluating non-police operated YSBs. It should also be noted that police youth service bureaus are sometimes referred to as juvenile aid bureaus. Such units should not be confused with traditional police juvenile units which are primarily concerned with law enforcement activities.

⁷⁶William Underwood, A National Study of Youth Service Bureaus, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Youth Development and Delinquency Prevention Administration, 1972.



CONTINUED

1 OF 2

justice system in preventing delinquency.⁷⁷ Consequently, YSBs have been faced with the task of developing criteria for diversion. Studies have demonstrated that there is a great deal of variation in the diversion criteria employed, even within a state.⁷⁸ Such variation raises the issue of equity or fairness in the treatment of juveniles by YSBs and may also confound any comparison of the effectiveness and efficiency of different YSBs.

There has been some controversy over the nature and extent of the relationship of YSBs to the criminal justice system in general and the police in particular. Although the President's Commission⁷⁹ and many others⁸⁰ have recommended that non-criminal justice agencies operate YSBs, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals⁸¹ indicated that the most successful YSBs in terms of diversion are those with direct links to the juvenile justice system.

Another key issue in the establishment of a YSB has been the determination of the unit's purpose(s). Should a YSB function solely as an information and referral agency? Should it operate

⁷⁷ Juvenile Delinquency, supra note 75, pp. 19-21. Also see, National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, Community Crime Prevention (hereinafter referred to as Crime Prevention), Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973, pp. 56-57.

⁷⁸ Juvenile Delinquency, supra note 75 pp. 19-21; Crime Prevention, supra note 77, pp. 57-58.

⁷⁹ Juvenile Delinquency, supra note 75, p. 19.

⁸⁰ See, for example, John M. Martin, Toward a Political Definition of Delinquency Prevention, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970; Sherwood Norman, The Youth Services Bureau: A Key to Delinquency Prevention, Paramus, N.J., The National Council on Crime and Delinquency, 1972.

⁸¹ Crime Prevention, supra note 77, p. 60.

as a youth advocacy agency? Should the unit offer direct services to juveniles? The selection of a unit's purpose(s) and the setting of priorities among purposes have important consequences in the determination of a YSB's objectives and activities.

The amount of control a YSB exerts over juveniles has also been a matter of some controversy. The President's Commission recommended that although the participation of a juvenile in a YSB be voluntary, the YSB should retain the authority to refer a juvenile to court (for a limited time--"not more than 60 days and preferably not more than 30 days").⁸² The National Council on Crime and Delinquency (NCCD),⁸³ on the other hand, recommended that a YSB retain the authority to refer to court only if the juvenile commits a new offense.

5.2 Organization and Composition

5.2.1 Staffing Patterns

There is substantial variation among the YSBs examined in terms of the size of staff and type of personnel making up these units. These units range in size from one full-time staff member plus interns or volunteers (Rohnert Park and Sebastopol, CA and Iberville, LA) to approximately ten staff members (Los Angeles area YSB). Several YSBs had larger staffs earlier in their history⁸⁴ (Santa Ana, CA, Los Angeles area, CA,⁸⁴ and Portland, ME⁸⁵), but have since had to reduce their staff due to shifting priorities and budget restraints. The staff of

⁸² Juvenile Delinquency, supra note 75, p. 21.

⁸³ Norman, supra note 80, pp. 16-17.

⁸⁴ Rudy Haapanen, and David Rudisill, The Evaluation of Youth Service Bureaus: Final Report, California Department of the Youth Authority, February 1980.

⁸⁵ S. Adams, "Evaluation of the Portland, Maine Youth Aid Bureau," in K.L. Morell (editor), Criminal Justice Evaluation: Papers from the Washington State Evaluation Exchange Conferences 1975-1976, University of Washington, Seattle, 1976.

these units includes sworn officers with rank as high as lieutenant (Los Angeles area, CA, Pleasant Hill, CA⁸⁶, and Santa Anna, CA), as well as non-sworn staff (civilians) with credentials in social work, psychology or probation, plus secretaries and volunteers. The YSBs consisting of one full-time paid staff member typically employ non-sworn personnel (Iberville, LA, Rohnert Park, and Sebastopol, CA). Other units operate chiefly or exclusively with sworn personnel (Lyndhurst, NJ, Spring Valley, NY, Portland, ME, and Polk County, IA⁸⁷).

5.2.2 Changes in Staffing Patterns

Although there is little evidence of a shift in operational emphasis among YSBs, several have experienced changes in staffing patterns over the years. These shifts have typically been due to decreases in federal funds and, in some instances, state and local funds. For example, reduction in the availability of local funds has prompted a number of sworn officers in Portland, ME⁸⁸ to transfer out of the YSB to new assignments within the police department. Santa Anna and Los Angeles, CA YSBs⁸⁹ also lost staff when federal funding expired. Despite staff reductions, the Santa Anna YSB has increased its caseload because of a reduction in outside services and a growing lack of cooperation by other agencies.

5.2.3 Physical Location

Several YSBs are physically located apart from the police department in order to provide a non-threatening atmosphere for youths (Lyndhurst, NJ, and Spring Valley, NY). Another YSB has rented a building directly behind the police department (Pleasant Hill, CA).⁹⁰ Additionally, some YSBs, such as

Portland, ME,⁹¹ provide outreach services to youths, schools, parents, and community groups in a variety of locations other than police facilities.

5.3 Analytical Framework

Although youth service bureaus may be operated by different agencies,⁹² this study focuses on those bureaus operated by police departments. Figure 4 presents a diagram of the analytical framework for police YSBs indicating the basic relationship among the range of activities performed by these units, the anticipated outcomes, and the underlying assumptions which link the activities to the objectives. However, this analytical framework may not be directly applicable to units operated by other agencies (e.g., independent community organizations)⁹³ because of differences in structure, goals, and activities.

While juveniles may be referred to YSBs by a number of sources (e.g., schools, parents, social service agencies), many juveniles (particularly non-status offenders) are referred by criminal justice agencies (primarily by the police and courts). When such referrals occur, YSBs become directly involved in the diversion of youths from formal processing through the criminal justice system. Once the decision is made to remove a youth from the juvenile justice system, the other activities (e.g., counseling, referrals) of YSBs come into play.

⁹¹Adams, supra note 86.

⁹²Edwin M. Lemert, Instead of Court: Diversion in Juvenile Justice, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971, especially pp. 54-70.

⁹³As Skoler has pointed out there is "...no common agreement as to what a youth service bureau is, what services it should provide, or under whose auspices it should be operated." See Daniel Skoler, "Future Trends in Juvenile and Adult Community-Based Corrections," Juvenile Court Judges Journal, Vol. 21, No. 1, Winter 1971. Also, see Rudy Haapanen and David Rudisill, supra note 84, 1980, pp. 4-5. Again the specification of assumptions and the linkages between assumptions, activities, and objectives had to be inferred from discussions with YSB staff and an analyses of the literature.

⁸⁶Cain, supra note 35.

⁸⁷M. Stevens, et al., Evaluation of the Sheriff's Youth Bureau, November, 1977.

⁸⁸Adams, supra note 85.

⁸⁹Haapanen and Rudisill, supra note 84.

⁹⁰Cain, supra note 35.

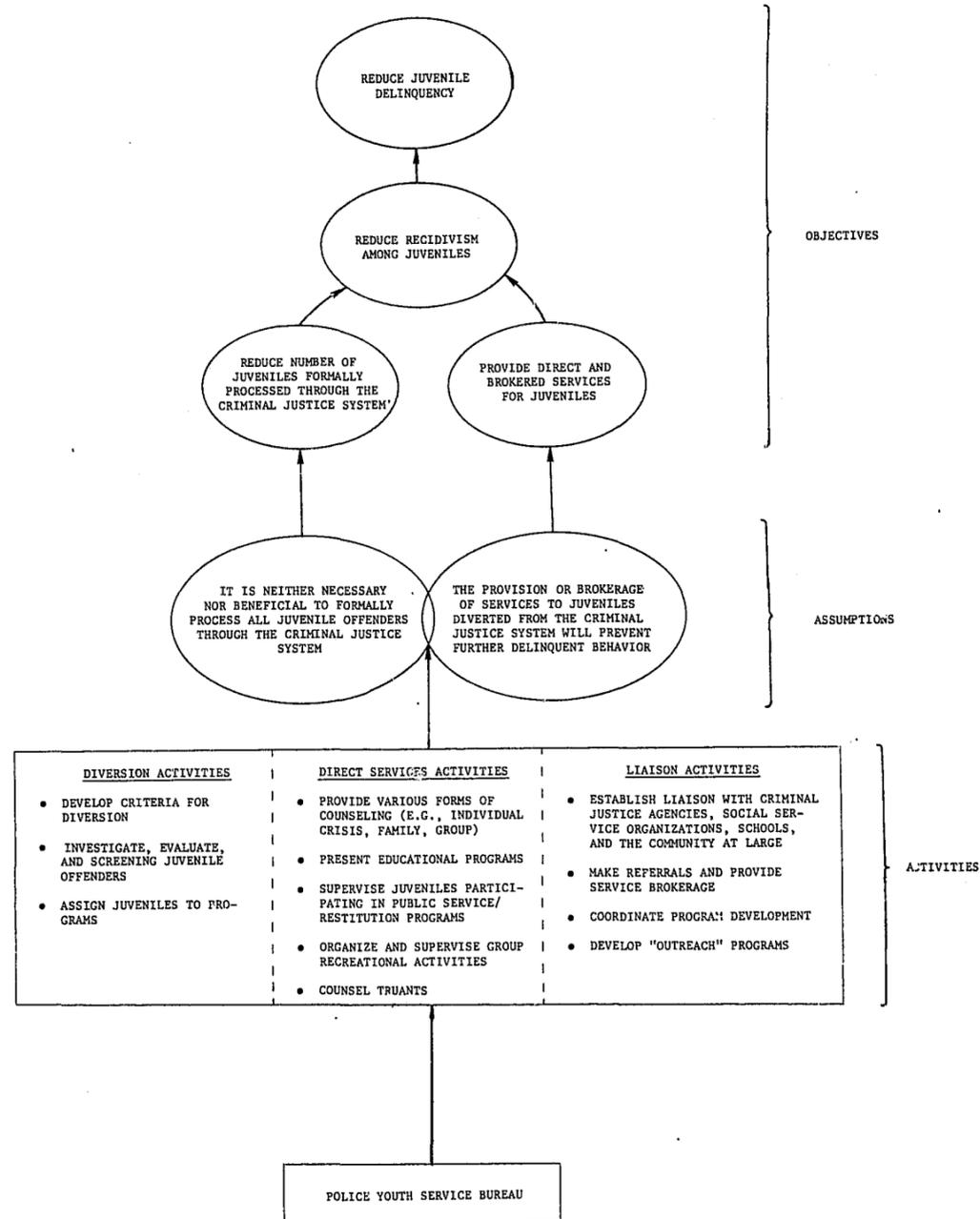


FIGURE 4
ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK FOR POLICE YOUTH SERVICE BUREAUS

YSBs typically performed two distinct types of liaison-specific activities:⁹⁴

- initial liaison activities, that is, those activities designed to establish contact with various agencies and organizations in order to initiate both the referral of juveniles and brokerage of services; and
- continuing liaison activities, that is, those activities intended to maintain working relationships with other agencies and organizations vis-a-vis the referral and provision of services to youths.

Police YSBs, unlike YSBs operated by other agencies, often become involved in the supervision of juveniles diverted from the criminal justice system. Police YSB staff may supervise juveniles diverted from the criminal justice system and assigned to public service work as part of their participation in YSB programs. Moreover, the staff may monitor the performance of juveniles taking part in restitution programs. Finally, some police have organized and supervised group recreational activities for juveniles. According to the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, the initial goals of youth service bureaus were primarily "...to provide and coordinate programs for young people."⁹⁵ Since that time, the goals of youth service bureaus in general have been expanded to include:⁹⁶

- "...diversion of juveniles from the justice system;
- provision of services to youth;
- coordination of both individual cases and programs for young people;

⁹⁴For a general discussion of liaison type activities see Juvenile Delinquency, supra note 75, pp. 20-21; Crime Prevention, supra note 77, pp. 60-61, 66-68, 76-77; Norman, supra note 80, pp. 78-81, 87-89.

⁹⁵Crime Prevention, supra note 77, pp. 56-57; Also see, Juvenile Delinquency, supra note 75, pp. 19-21.

⁹⁶Crime Prevention, supra note 77, pp. 57-69.

- modification of systems of services for youth; and
- involvement of youths in decisionmaking, and the development of individual responsibility."

The diversion of juveniles by police YSBs (or any other form of YSB for that matter) is based on the assumption that:

...an excessive number of children are being processed by juvenile courts, that children are unnecessarily referred to juvenile courts, and that in many cases the harm done to children and youth by contacts with these courts outweighs any benefits thereby gained.

Unfortunately, the assumptions underlying the other goals suggested for YSBs have not been as clearly explicated. A review of the literature, however, suggests that the thrust of the assumptions which appear to underlie those goals are as follows:

- provision of services - the response of the community and its institutions to juveniles may be inappropriate or services may be unavailable;
- coordination - the provision of services requires a consistent and integrated approach to avoid the fragmentation and duplication of services;
- system modification - agency practices may not be responsive to current needs of youths and may be contributing indirectly to crime and hostility;¹⁰⁰ and

⁹⁷ Lemert, supra note 92, p. 1. See also Juvenile Delinquency, supra note 75, p. 19; Crime Prevention, supra note 77, pp. 57-58.

⁹⁸ Crime Prevention, supra note 77, pp. 62-66; Juvenile Delinquency, supra note 75, pp. 19-21.

⁹⁹ See generally Robert J. Gemignani, "Youth Services Systems," Delinquency Prevention Reporter, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Youth Development and Delinquency Prevention Administration, (July-August) 1972; Norman, supra note 80, pp. 73-103; Juvenile Delinquency, supra note 75, pp. 19-21.

¹⁰⁰ Crime Prevention, supra note 77, p. 68; Juvenile Delinquency, supra note 75, pp. 19-21; Norman, supra note 80, pp. 105-137.

- youth development - involving recipients in the planning and delivery of the services they receive is valuable because they have useful opinions and creative ideas.¹⁰¹

In the Commission's opinion,¹⁰² the coercive nature of the juvenile justice system tends to render ineffective efforts to deal with the problems of youth. The assumption seems to be that YSBs provide a non-coercive setting which is more likely to facilitate efforts intended to assist youths.

An analysis of the literature¹⁰³ and the data gathered during the site visits indicate that police YSBs have been thought of as having two separate, but related, sets of objectives. The first, or immediate, set of objectives is as follows:

- to reduce the number of juveniles processed through the criminal justice system; and
- to provide direct and/or brokered services for juveniles.

The second, or long-range, set of objectives is:

- to reduce recidivism among juveniles participating in YSB programs; and
- to reduce juvenile delinquency in the YSB's area of operations.

The underlying assumptions linking activities and outcomes focus on the benefits of diversion and the effectiveness of the varied direct and brokered services provided by police YSBs. The activities, assumptions, and objectives of police YSBs

¹⁰¹ Crime Prevention, supra note 77, p. 69.

¹⁰² Juvenile Delinquency, supra note 75, p. 20; Norman, supra note 80, p. 10.

¹⁰³ See, for example, Juvenile Delinquency, supra note 75, pp. 18-21; Crime Prevention, supra note 77, pp. 56-57, 70-71; Elaine Duxbury, Evaluation of Youth Service Bureaus in California, Sacramento, California, California Department of the Youth Authority, November 1973.

appear to be similar to those of YSBs operated by other agencies. However, there may be differences between police YSBs and those operated by other agencies in terms of such factors as the type of juveniles referred, the extent to which participation is voluntary, and the types of direct services rendered.

5.4 Descriptive Analysis of Activities

5.4.1 Liaison.

Many of the YSB activities, especially referral and service brokerage (e.g., Spring Valley, NY), school-related activities (e.g., Pleasant Hill, CA), and community activities (e.g., Rohnert Park/Sebastopol, CA) involve liaison with groups and organizations outside the police department. Some activities such as investigations for the purpose of making diversion decisions also require liaison with other units within the police department. (See Table VII for a list of the activities typically performed by YSBs.). Typically, YSBs refer clients and/or their families to public and private social service agencies outside the police department. Most often these organizations have resources not directly available to the YSBs. Usually a close working relationship between an agency and the YSB develops as informal and formal written agreements are developed concerning the types and numbers of youth and/or families who will be referred to the service agency; the procedures for referral; feedback of information in a routine or as-needed basis from the service agency; and follow-up by the YSB or the agency performing the service. For example, the Los Angeles area YSB works closely with the county protective service agency in investigating neglect cases and obtaining services for those individuals.

As a service broker, the YSB takes an active role in intervening with potential service providers on the behalf of juveniles in order to obtain the service. The YSB may aid juveniles and their families complete the procedures necessary to receive needed services (e.g., completing forms to establish eligibility, and contacting the appropriate people to initiate services).

All YSBs examined during this study work with local schools and most receive referrals from the schools. Several YSBs

TABLE VII
ACTIVITIES OF FIVE JUVENILE LIAISON UNITS (SITES VISITED)
CATEGORIZED BY TYPE--LIAISON, DIRECT SERVICE, AND DIVERSION--FOR 1979

SITE	ACTIVITIES	LIAISON ^a	DIRECT SERVICE	DIVERSION
Iberville Parish, LA	1. Accepts referrals from police department, parents, and social service agencies 2. Makes referrals to community resource agencies 3. Operates a restitution program 4. Provides individual and family counseling 5. Screens referrals	X X	X X	X
Lyndhurst, NJ	1. Drafts local ordinances 2. Makes referrals to area social service agencies 3. Works with school officials to counter truancy 4. Provides counseling to problem students 5. Provides short-term counseling to offenders and their parents 6. Sponsors a teenage and parenting seminar 7. Conducts criminal investigation of juveniles	X X X	X X X	X
Rohnert Park/Sebastopol, CA	1. Consults with other social service agencies 2. Coordinates a neighborhood watch program 3. Runs a community education program 4. Provides drug information and counseling groups 5. Provides family, group, crisis and structural counseling 6. Sponsors a parent effectiveness training course 7. Selects and screens referrals	X X X	X X X	X
Santa Ana, CA	1. Acts in liaison with various community agencies 2. Coordinates action with other units of police department 3. Makes referrals to social service agencies 4. Provides individual and family counseling 5. Selects and screens referrals	X X X	X	X
Spring Valley, NJ	1. Makes referrals to social service agencies 2. Organizes recreational activities 3. Provides individual and family counseling 4. Assigns youth to its restitution program	X	X X	X

^aAs previously discussed, a narrow definition of the concept of liaison is being used throughout this report (see Section 1.1, above). Therefore, a number of activities which contain elements of liaison are categorized as liaison-related activities and not as liaison activities per se. These liaison-related activities are typically performed to support or enhance the basic liaison functions.

(e.g., Pleasant Hill, CA,¹⁰⁴ Los Angeles, CA area,¹⁰⁵ and Polk County, IA¹⁰⁶) have personnel who work in the schools. The types of school-related activities performed by the YSBs include: identifying and counseling habitual truants; helping develop alternative educational programs for problem youth; tracking the academic progress of clients and keeping tabs on their behavior while they are in school; and developing and maintaining constructive relationships with students. Principally, contacts by YSB staff with students are aimed at preventing delinquency.

Community activities go beyond dealing with individual youths and often concern the community as a whole. The YSBs have frequently worked with other individuals, groups, and organizations to develop, implement and support youth-oriented, community programs. Specific examples of YSB participation in community programs include: development and implementation of a restitution program for offenders (Iberville Parish, LA); drafting of local ordinances regarding mopeds (Lyndhurst, NJ); and establishment of a residential neighborhood watch program (Rohnert Park/Sebastopol, CA).

5.4.2 Diversion.

The major decision made by YSBs concerns whether or not a youngster referred to them by police, probation, school, parents, or other source should be diverted from processing through the juvenile justice system (i.e., filing a petition with the court). This decision involves: evaluating the current offense or other anti-social behavior; searching records for prior offenses; talking to the youth, parents and in some cases, school officials; and assessing the possible utility of the YSB and outside programs to the youth's needs. Both YSBs and referral sources have developed formal and informal criteria for screening juveniles and making decisions with regard to diversion. For example, in Iberville Parish only first offenders who have committed a misdemeanor or a minor felony or

¹⁰⁴Cain, supra note 35.

¹⁰⁵Haapanen and Rudisill, supra note 84.

¹⁰⁶Stevens, supra note 87.

juveniles labelled as PINS are eligible for the program. Santa Ana's selection criteria not only includes the above, but also encompasses juveniles experiencing problems in school, at home or in the community.

5.4.3 Direct Services to Youth and Their Families.

Direct services primarily involve counseling juveniles and, in many cases, their families. Through counseling programs and follow-up contacts with relevant others (e.g., parents, schools, other officers, and social service agencies), the YSBs assist in the supervision of their juvenile clients. Other direct services include group counseling, and educational programs dealing with topics such as parent-adolescent relationships, drugs, alcohol, and sex. Some YSBs also supervise recreational programs and help juveniles to find jobs.

5.4.4 Traditional Police Activities.

Sworn officers staffing YSBs occasionally perform a variety of traditional police activities. These activities include performing routine patrol and conducting investigations. With regard to investigations, some YSBs target specific categories, such as: neglect cases (e.g., Los Angeles area,^{YSB 107}); and school-related incidents (e.g., Polk County, IA¹⁰⁸). The overlap between the functions carried out by the YSB as a separate juvenile unit and more traditional police functions is especially evident in the case of smaller police departments and in emergency situations.

5.4.5 Quantitative Data Describing the Activities of Youth Service Bureaus.

Quantitative data concerning the activities performed by YSBs are somewhat limited and vary in nature and scope from one jurisdiction to the next. Examples of activity data for Spring Valley, NY are presented in Table VIII; the Los Angeles

¹⁰⁷Haapanen and Rudisill, supra note 84.

¹⁰⁸Stevens, supra note 87.

TABLE VIII

SPRING VALLEY, NY, YOUTH SERVICES BUREAU
ACTIVITY AND CLIENT DATA FOR 1979

Total Number of Citizen Contacts - 5,702
Total Number of Juvenile Cases Processed - 493
Offenses:
Felonies - 36
Misdemeanors - 296
Violations - 85
Persons in Need of Supervision - 76
Dispositions of the 493 cases:
Petition to Family Court - 98
Released to Parents After Questioning - 228
Unfounded - 24
Cleared - 15
Pending - 25
Referred to Probation Officer (on probation) - 12
Referred to Other Agencies - 45
Placed in Diversion Program - 46

Source: Derived from Annual Report of Spring Valley, NY Youth Services Bureau.

area YSB - Table IX; and Polk County, IA - Table X. The data demonstrate the depth and breadth of the activities performed by YSB staff in terms of the number of juveniles investigated and diverted, as well as liaison and other types of contacts with individuals, groups, and organizations outside the police department. The relatively large number of juvenile cases handled by the YSBs may be attributed to the internal referral process typically used by police departments that maintain Youth Service Bureaus. Patrol officers and detectives in these departments usually transfer the vast majority of their cases involving juveniles to the YSBs as soon as the situation permits. These cases, as well as those initiated directly by the staff of the YSBs, are reflected in the statistical profiles of these units.

5.5 Impact Analysis

5.5.1 Reduction of Recidivism.

The Rohnert Park/Sebastopol, CA YSB reported an eight months recidivism reduction rate of 10 percent. However, no comparison or baseline data were available. Data regarding the Los Angeles area YSB¹⁰⁹ showed no statistically significant difference in self-reported delinquency among clients for a period before YSB treatment to a period during and after treatment. Using client arrest data (mean number of arrests per month) for 6- and 12-month time periods prior to and after initiation of YSB services, there was a statistically significant increase from pre- to post-test in the average number of arrests per month. However, there were no statistically significant differences in the post-test mean number of arrests per month (adjusted for differences in mean pre-test YSB arrests per month) between the YSB clients and a comparison group of youthful offenders who were on probation.

5.5.2 Reduction in Area Delinquency.

The Portland, ME Youth Aid Bureau¹¹⁰ reported slightly decreasing trends for the number of youth referred for vandalism and larceny over a five year period (1970-1975), but

¹⁰⁹ Haapanen and Rudisill, supra note 84.

¹¹⁰ Adams, supra note 85.

TABLE IX
ACTIVITY AND CLIENT DATA FOR LOS ANGELES AREA,
CA YOUTH SERVICE BUREAU

Number of clients at time of study - 133

Source of referrals:

- Law enforcement - 67%
- Schools - 12% (school resource officers worked in the schools)
- Parent and/or self - 11.3%
- Probation - 2.3%
- Other - 7.5%

Average number of hours per client - 8.6

Average number of contacts with a client - 7

Average time span receiving services - 2 months

Dispositions of juvenile arrestees (July 1976-June 1977) - sample

- Released - 128 (58.5%)
- Referred to Probation - 34 (15.5%)
- Referred to YSB - 49 (22.3%)
- Other - 8 (3.7%)

Source: Rudy Haapanen and David Rudisill, Youth Services Bureaus: An Evaluation of Nine California Youth Services Bureaus, California Youth Authority, February 1980.

TABLE X
ACTIVITY DATA FOR POLK COUNTY, IA
YOUTH SERVICE BUREAU

- Number of juvenile arrests fiscal year 1976-1977 - 313
 - Clearance rate for juvenile cases - 64.7%, 290/448
 - Number of informal contacts with youth for 10 months - 775
 - Number of preventive contacts with pre- or early delinquent youth at school and outside school for 10 months - 234
 - Sheriff's referrals to juvenile court - 126 (4% of total referrals to the juvenile court)
 - Dispositions of cases handled by sheriff - N = 742
 - Referred to juvenile court - 126 (17%)
 - Handled within department - 524 (70.6%)
 - Referred to welfare agency - 56 (7.5%)
 - Referred to other police agency - 26 (3.5%)
 - Referred to criminal court - 10 (1.3%)
 - Contacts with other agencies regarding policies and procedures used to handle specific juvenile cases - 168
 - Contacts with other agencies regarding joint efforts on juvenile cases in general - 148
 - Number of speeches and panel discussions by Youth Bureau Officers - 47
- Number of citizens involved - 363

Source: Derived from M. Stevens, et al., Evaluation of the Sheriff's Youth Services Bureau, November 1977.

did not present information regarding changes in the number of juvenile offenses for other crime categories. The bureau targeted these two offenses (vandalism and larceny) through various community and law enforcement efforts.

It should be noted that not all YSBs have, as an explicit goal, the reduction of area-wide delinquency. Such a goal may be unrealistic given the pervasive nature of the delinquency problem and the limited resources and capabilities of the YSBs.

5.5.3 Diversion.

Several YSBs have reported quantitative data on the diversion of juvenile offenders from the traditional criminal justice system treatment modalities. Portland, ME¹¹¹ reported a sharp increase, instead of a reduction, in the percentage of youth who were referred to the court by the police between 1969 and 1975 (from 1.2 percent to 25 percent), although a YSB program was in operation. However, the percentage of youth referred to the court was so extremely low when the Youth Aid Bureau started (1.2 percent in 1969 and 1.1 percent in 1970) that further decreases were highly unlikely. The Polk County, IA Sheriff's Department¹¹² did show a decrease in court referrals from 194 youths in 1974-75 to 126 in 1976-77. For the Los Angeles area YSB,¹¹³ a statistically significant decrease in referrals to probation was found from the time prior to the start of the YSB (37.1 percent) to a period covered by YSB operations (15.5 percent). It is interesting to note that the decrease in court referrals to probation of 21.6 percent during this period almost matched the percentage of youths arrested who were referred to the YSB.

The Polk County and Los Angeles area YSBs provide preliminary evidence which suggests that YSBs divert some juveniles from the traditional criminal justice system process. However, more rigorous evaluation data are needed concerning the nature and scope of the diversion process and the consequences diversion practices have on juvenile delinquency.

¹¹¹Ibid.

¹¹²Stevens, supra note 87.

¹¹³Haapanen and Rudisill, supra note 84.

5.6 Future Prospects.

The future of police YSBs will probably be influenced by several interrelated factors including: availability of local funding; support of criminal justice agencies, especially the police, the probation department, and the juvenile court; cooperation from community groups, organizations and service agencies; and support of the local citizens (including youth). From the evidence gathered, it appears that the YSBs are generally supported within the police department as well as by various segments of the community and the criminal justice system.

With respect to funding, most of the YSBs examined are funded with local money. Some have been operating with local funds since the early 1970s, while others have only recently switched to local funds as federal grants have ended. Two bureaus (Iberville, LA and Spring Valley, NY) are currently supported by federal funds. Both expect to be supported with local funds when current grants run out. The Los Angeles area YSB is financed by the state (California Youth Authority).

Given the support of the criminal justice system and the community, it is likely that many of the police YSBs studied will continue to operate and will be supported with local funds. However, due to inflationary pressures and budgetary restraints, there is concern among some YSBs about the availability of funds for future operations.

6. RECOMMENDATION: DEVELOPMENT OF A GENERAL EVALUATION STRATEGY

There is a scarcity of information concerning the effectiveness of police liaison units that can be utilized to guide program development and policy decisions on both the local and national levels. To build an appropriate knowledge base, practical analytical designs are needed for collecting accurate information about the overall impact of liaison units and the effects of specific strategies. These designs should be structured to address the needs of individual police departments and national policymakers, while minimizing the intrusion of the evaluation process into the already demanding world of the police.

Presently, internal assessments performed by police departments to estimate the effects of their liaison units and make policy decisions are typically based on intuitive feelings or reactions to external political pressures. Decisions to modify general strategies, alter specific activities and shift resources integral to the operation of liaison units are usually made without access to empirical evidence gathered by rigorous evaluations or even on findings produced by less exacting assessments. Although liaison units might have gathered data to document workloads, track clients and fulfill government reporting requirements, such data are often either overlooked or judged inadequate by the department to be utilized for analysis and decisionmaking purposes. The paucity of systematic evaluations of liaison units is partly attributable to not having practical analytical designs consistent with both the needs and expertise of the individual police department.

The substantial variation among liaison units in terms of their objectives, the nature and scope of the activities they perform,

¹¹⁴For additional recommendations, see: Siegel, et. al., An Assessment of Police Liaison Units: An Initial Summary, The MITRE Corporation, WP-81W00293, May 1981. While the recommendations presented in the "Initial Summary" may be of interest to specific researchers or a few police departments, their applicability appears to be limited, their cost-effectiveness debatable, and their importance minimal in relation to other knowledge needs of the criminal justice community.

and the types of information they collect on a routine basis have important implications for the development of a national-level evaluation design. In order to aggregate data and make relevant comparisons among similar types of liaison units, an evaluation strategy must be congruent with the structure of the typical police liaison unit.

Within this context, the following sections present a general evaluation strategy which may be used by police departments to assess the effectiveness of their liaison units and employed by evaluators to analyze the impact of police liaison units nationally.¹¹⁵ Based on the analytical frameworks developed in the previous chapters (one for each of the substantive areas--legal, school and juvenile), this chapter identifies potential measures needed to assess liaison unit accomplishments, specifies data elements required to generate those measures and lists possible data sources. The actual research strategy employed will, of course, have to be tailored to the specific characteristics of the liaison unit(s) being evaluated. Finally, this chapter presents a research design compatible with the capabilities possessed by most police departments and consistent with the knowledge requirements of a national-level evaluation.

6.1 The Police Legal Advisor

The analytical framework depicted in Figure 2 (see Chapter 3.3) provides an outline that may be employed to assess the effectiveness of police legal advisor units. As Figure 2 indicates, an evaluation of police legal advisor units should attempt to measure the extent to which the following two outcomes are achieved:

- improvements in the quality of law enforcement activities; and/or
- reductions in the vulnerability of police departments to civil suits.

¹¹⁵ For an excellent discussion regarding evaluation research methods, see: Carol H. Weiss, Evaluation Research: Methods of Assessing Program Effectiveness, Prentice-Hall, 1972. Also see, Edward A. Suchman, Evaluation Research: Principles and Practice in Public Service and Social Action Programs, Russell Sage Foundation, 1967; and Francis G. Caro, Readings in Evaluation Research, Russell Sage Foundation, 1971.

In addition, a third outcome--implementation of the unit's activities--should be examined in order to link observed outcomes to the activities performed by the liaison unit. The following subsections delineate appropriate measures for these outcomes, specify related data elements, and suggest potential sources of data (see Table XI).

6.1.1 Implementation

The evaluator should document the activities performed by the police legal advisor in order to link those actions to outcomes. The analytical framework (see Figure 2) indicates that the activities of the legal advisor will vary according to the stated objective(s) of the unit. No matter what the focus of the unit, the police legal advisor will perform a wide range of activities including liaison. Consequently, the evaluator should be prepared to collect information on: the number and type of requests for legal assistance in the field; the response provided; the number and types of classes taught; the nature and extent of participation in staff planning; the amount of time devoted to civil litigation; the number of policy statements developed; the number and types of contacts with other organizations; and the purposes of such contacts. In order to gather this data, a number of sources may be tapped including activity logs, training schedules, minutes of staff meetings and written directives.

6.1.2 Improvement in the Quality of Enforcement Activities

A basic objective of many police legal advisor units is to improve the quality of law enforcement activities. A number of measures may be used to assess the extent to which this objective is achieved, including: reductions in the number of cases declined by the prosecutor for insufficient evidence; reductions in the number of cases "no-billed" by a grand jury; increases in the number of convictions; and decreases in the number of court dismissals. The data elements needed to construct these outcome measures include the number and type of cases declined by the prosecutor, "no-billed" by a grand jury,¹¹⁶ or dismissed by the court due to police error. Whenever available, the reasons for these decisions should be

¹¹⁶ Grand jury proceedings are traditionally considered secret. Therefore, it may not be possible to obtain certain data elements (e.g., reasons for no-bill) mentioned in Table XI.

TABLE XI
EVALUATION OF POLICE LEGAL ADVISOR UNITS:
OUTCOMES, MEASURES, DATA ELEMENTS, AND SOURCES

OUTCOMES	MEASURES	DATA ELEMENTS	SOURCES
Implementation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nature and scope of activities performed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Amount of time devoted to responding to requests for assistance Number of cases reviewed for sufficiency of evidence Number of classes taught Amount of time devoted to liaison Number and types of liaison contacts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Records of legal advisor Training bulletin Interviews with police Interviews with prosecutor, etc. Observation
Improvement in the quality of law enforcement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction in number of cases declined by prosecutor due to police error 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number and type of cases referred to prosecutor Number and type of cases declined by prosecutor Number and type of cases declined because of police error Reasons for decline of cases 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Police case files Prosecutor's case files Interviews with police and prosecutor
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction in number of cases no billed by the grand jury for police error 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number and type of cases referred to grand jury Number and type of cases no billed by grand jury Number and type of cases no billed because of police error Reasons for cases no billed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Police case files Prosecutor's case files Court records Interviews with police and prosecutor
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction in number of cases dismissed by court 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number and type of cases brought before the court Number and type of cases dismissed by court Number and type of cases dismissed by court due to police error Reasons for dismissal of cases 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Court records Observation of court proceedings Prosecutor's case files Police case files Interviews with judges, police, and prosecutor
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase in number of convictions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number and type of convictions Reasons for convictions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Court records Observations of court proceedings Interviews with judges and prosecutor
Reduction in the vulnerability of police to civil suits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction in civil suits brought against police 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number and type of civil suits Judgment imposed Dollar amount awarded to plaintiff Corrective action required Reasons for judgment Reasons for suits 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Court records Police files Observation of proceedings Interviews with judges, police
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase in number of civil suits decided in favor of police 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number and type of civil suits Number and type of suits decided in favor of police Reasons for suits Reasons for judgment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Court records Police files Observation of proceedings Interviews with judges, police
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Satisfaction of Police Chief and deputies with work of legal liaison unit 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Attitudes and opinions toward work of legal liaison unit 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Questionnaires Interviews with Chief and Deputies

collected. In this regard, it is extremely important to determine what is meant by the term police error. The data needed may be gathered from a variety of sources including the records of the police department, the prosecutor, and the court.

6.1.3 Reduction in the Vulnerability of Police to Civil Suits

The primary function of a number of police legal advisors is to reduce the vulnerability of the police to civil litigation. Three measures may be devised to assess the achievement of this objective: (1) reduction in civil suits brought against the police; (2) successful resolution of civil suits filed against the police department; and (3) satisfaction of the police chief and his deputies with the work of the legal liaison unit. In order to compute the first two measures, several data elements need to be collected including the number of civil suits brought against the police, and the number decided in favor of the police. A more in-depth analysis can be performed by gathering data detailing the decision rendered in each case, the amount of dollars awarded to the plaintiff, and the reason(s) for each decision. The data needed to compute these measures may be gathered from the files of the liaison unit and the records of the local court. The third measure focuses on the attitudes and opinions of the police department administrators. Scores from scales measuring the attitudes of police administrators toward the operations of the legal liaison unit provide the basic data elements needed to develop this measure. Both questionnaires and interview schedules can be used to collect the data.

A word of caution is necessary. The linkage between a reduction in department vulnerability to civil suits and the activities performed by the legal advisor may be somewhat tenuous. Moreover, the number of civil cases may be too small for meaningful analysis. Even if there are a considerable number of cases, the volume of cases may not reflect the competency of the legal liaison unit. Rather, increases in the number of civil suits filed against a police department may be a result of both a heightened concern for civil liberties among various sections of society and the public's growing willingness to engage in civil litigation against the government.

6.2 The Police-School Liaison Officer

The analytical framework presented in Figure 3 (see Chapter 4.3) provides a guide for assessing the impact of police-school liaison officer units. As indicated previously, there are four outcomes generally associated with school liaison units:

- reduce juvenile crime;
- reduce crime and delinquency on school grounds;
- enhance respect for police and law enforcement; and
- develop potential candidates for police departments.

In addition to assessing the achievement of these objectives, the evaluator will also want to examine the extent to which the unit implements and performs various activities. The following subsections describe measures for each of these outcomes, specify data elements, and identify appropriate sources of data (see Table XII).

6.2.1 Implementation

The exact activities performed by a school liaison unit will, of course, vary among units according to each unit's specific objectives. In order to link the activities of a police liaison unit to its objectives, the evaluator should collect a variety of information items describing the development, implementation, and operation of the liaison unit. Among the data elements required to accomplish this task are the following: the activities performed by the unit (e.g., counseling, teaching, patrol); the amount of time devoted to each activity; the number of students contacted; the mode and duration of the contacts; and the unit's organizational structure and procedures. This information may be gathered from written procedures, officer activity logs, and general police records.

6.2.2 Reduction in Juvenile Crime

One long-term objective of many police-school liaison units is the reduction of juvenile crime. However, the evaluator should be aware that the linkage between this outcome and the activities of the liaison unit is not strong. Several measures can be employed in an attempt to assess this outcome, including: decreases in the overall amount of crime committed by juveniles; decreases in the amount of violent crime committed by juveniles; and finally, decreases in vandalism. A variety of data elements can be used to construct these measures. Among these data elements are the number and types of crimes committed by juveniles, the location of those crimes, and characteristics of the juveniles involved. Police and court records provide the basic sources of the data needed.

TABLE XII
EVALUATION OF POLICE-SCHOOL LIAISON UNITS:
OUTCOMES, MEASURES, DATA ELEMENTS & SOURCES

OUTCOMES	MEASURES	DATA ELEMENTS	SOURCES
Implementation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nature and scope of activities performed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assigned activities of police-school liaison unit (e.g., teaching, counseling, patrol) • Amount of time devoted to each activity • Number of students contacted • Mode and duration of contacts • Cost of implementing and operating unit • Unit staffing, organization, and procedures • Frequency and duration of liaison contacts (e.g., with teachers, administration) • Individuals/organizations contacted • Form of liaison (e.g., ad hoc, policy) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Officer activity logs • Police records • Unit procedural manual
Reduction in juvenile crime	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decrease in crime committed by juveniles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number and types of crimes committed by juveniles • Location of crimes • Number of juveniles arrested • Characteristics of juveniles arrested (e.g., age, socio-economic status) • Number of juveniles convicted • Characteristics of juveniles convicted (e.g., age, socio-economic status) • Police strategies • Police resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Police records • Court records
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decrease in violent crimes committed by juveniles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number and types of violent crimes committed by juveniles • Location of crimes • Number of juveniles arrested • Characteristics of juveniles arrested • Number of juveniles convicted • Characteristics of juveniles convicted • Police strategies • Police resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Same as above
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decrease in vandalism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number and types of vandalism • Number of juveniles arrested • Characteristics of juveniles arrested • Number of juveniles convicted • Characteristics of juveniles convicted • Police strategies • Police resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Same as above
Reduction in crime and delinquency on school grounds	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decrease in the number of crimes committed on school grounds 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number and types of crimes committed on school grounds • Characteristics of individuals involved • Police strategies • Police resources • Liaison unit staffing, organization and activities • Characteristics of school (e.g., location, number of students) • Cost of crimes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Police records • Officer activity logs • School records

TABLE XII (CONCLUDED)
EVALUATION OF POLICE-SCHOOL LIAISON UNITS:
OUTCOMES, MEASURES, DATA ELEMENTS & SOURCES

OUTCOMES	MEASURES	DATA ELEMENTS	SOURCES
Reduction in crime and delinquency on school grounds (concluded)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decrease in the number of crimes committed on school grounds by students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number and types of crimes committed by students Characteristics of students involved Police strategies Police resources Liaison unit staffing, organization, and activities Characteristics of school Cost of crimes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Same as above
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decrease in the number of acts of delinquency/vandalism committed on school grounds 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number and types of acts of delinquency/vandalism Characteristics of students involved Liaison unit staffing, organization, and activities Characteristics of school Cost of crimes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Same as above
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decrease in fear of crime on the school grounds 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fear of crime and personal victimization on the part of students, staff and teachers Cost of crimes Number and types of crimes committed Characteristics of victims (e.g., age, sex, status) Characteristics of schools 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Questionnaires Interviews School records
Enhancement of respect for police and law enforcement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase in respect among students for police 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Attitudes toward police Characteristics of students (e.g., age, socio-economic status, grade level) Characteristics of school (e.g., number of students, location, grade levels) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Attitude scales Questionnaires School records Interviews
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase in students' knowledge of police and law enforcement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Knowledge of policing and criminal justice system Characteristics of school Characteristics of students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Questionnaires Tests School records Interviews
Development of potential police officer candidates	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase in number of students interested in a career in policing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number of students enrolled in school(s) Number of students interested in a career in policing Characteristics of students Characteristics of school Reasons for interest 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Questionnaires Interviews Police records School records
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase in number of students joining police 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number of students enrolled in school(s) Number of students interested in policing as a career Number of students joining police Characteristics of students Characteristics of schools 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Questionnaires Interviews School records

6.2.3 Reduction of Crime and Delinquency on School Grounds

It is more realistic to expect that the activities of a school liaison unit will reduce the amount of crime and delinquency committed on school grounds than it is to expect that these activities will reduce juvenile crime/delinquency overall. A number of measures may be created to examine the extent to which this objective is achieved, including: decreases in the number of crimes committed on school grounds by students; reductions in acts of delinquency and vandalism on school property; and decreases in the fear of crime among students, teachers, and administrators. The data elements which should be gathered to construct and analyze these measures include the number and types of crimes committed on school property, the characteristics of the individuals involved, the characteristics of the schools, and the cost of the crimes. Crime reports, police arrest records, questionnaires, school records, victimization surveys and the activity logs of the liaison officers are useful sources of data.

6.2.4 Enhancement of Respect for Police and Law Enforcement

A third objective often posited by police-school liaison units is to foster respect among students for the police in specific and law enforcement in general. The evaluator should once again be aware that the link between the activities performed by a school liaison unit and this objective may be somewhat weak. However, there are two measures which can be used to assess the achievement of this objective: (1) increases in respect among students for police and law enforcement; and (2) increases in student knowledge of policing and the criminal justice system. Scores from a scale designed to measure student attitudes toward the police are the basic data elements which can be used to develop the first measure. Questions testing student knowledge of the police and law enforcement in general can be used to form the second measure. Additional items of information should also be collected to examine factors which may be related to this outcome. Among these data are the characteristics of students (e.g., age, grade level, socio-economic status) and the schools (e.g., number of students, grade levels) they attend. Sources of data include questionnaires, interviews, attitude scales, and school records.

6.2.5 Development of Potential Police Officer Candidates

This objective is peripheral and may not apply to all police-school liaison units. However, for those units seeking

to attract police candidates, two measures can be used to assess the achievement of this objective: (1) increases in the number of students interested in a police career; and (2) increases in the number of students who later join the police. Data elements necessary to develop these measures include: the number of students interested in policing, the number later joining the police, and their reasons for joining, and the characteristics of the students, of the school they attend, and of the police program. Potential sources of data include questionnaires, interviews, police records, and school records.

6.3 The Police Youth Service Bureau

The Analytical Framework for Police Youth Service Bureaus shown in Figure 4 (see Chapter 5.3) presents a basic structure that may be used to guide an evaluation of YSBs. As indicated in Figure 4, police youth service bureaus typically try to accomplish the following objectives:

- reduce juvenile delinquency;
- reduce recidivism among juveniles participating in YSB programs;
- reduce the number of juveniles processed through the formal juvenile justice system; and
- provide direct and brokered services.

Furthermore, an evaluation should examine the implementation process including the composition of the staff, the unit's organizational structure, the nature and scope of activities performed, relationships formed with other organizations, and so on. The following subsections suggest measures for each of these outcomes, delineate needed data elements, and indicate potential data sources (see Table XIII).

6.3.1 Implementation

In order to link the activities of police YSBs to the outcome(s) achieved, the researcher should collect data on the nature and extent of the activities implemented by YSBs. Among the data elements needed are the following: characteristics of the diversion program, the service programs, and the juveniles involved in the YSB; the type and frequency of liaison activities performed; YSB staffing, organization, and resources; and the nature and extent of delinquent acts committed by

TABLE XIII
EVALUATION OF POLICE YOUTH SERVICE BUREAUS:
OUTCOMES, MEASURES, DATA ELEMENTS, AND SOURCES

OUTCOMES	MEASURES	DATA ELEMENTS	SOURCES
Implementation	• Nature and extent of activities implemented	• Characteristics of diversion program • Type of direct service programs implemented • Type and frequency of liaison with social service and criminal justice system (e.g., frequency of contact, mode of communication) • Cost of program • Characteristics of YSB staff	• YSB records • Social service agencies' records
Reduction in recidivism	• Decrease in number of juveniles re-arrested after participation in YSB program	• Number of juveniles participating in YSB • Characteristics of juveniles • Number and type of delinquent acts committed • Program assignment • Program characteristics • Length of time in program • Length of time till re-arrest • Nature and extent of brokered services • Social service agencies' programs • Police strategies • Police resources • YSB staff, organization, and activities • Cost	• Police records • Interviews • Questionnaires • YSB program manuals • Social service programs and resources • YSB files
	• Decrease in number of juveniles re-arrested for same crime after participation in YSB program	• Same as the above	• Same as the above
Reduction in number of juveniles re-convicted after participation in YSB program	• Decrease in the number of juveniles re-convicted after participation in YSB program	• Number of juveniles participating in YSB • Characteristics of juveniles • Number and type of delinquent acts at conviction • Program assignment • Program characteristics • Length of time in program • Length of time till re-conviction • Social service description • Police strategies • Police resources • YSB staff, organization, and activities • Cost	• Same as the above
	• Decrease in the number of juveniles reconvicted for same crime after participation in program	• Same as the above	• Same as the above
Reduction in number of juveniles processed through the formal juvenile justice system	• Increase in number of juveniles diverted from formal processing through juvenile justice system	• Number of juveniles in juvenile justice system • Number of juveniles diverted from system • Characteristics of juveniles • Diversion criteria • Application of criteria • Statutory/case law • Number and type of delinquent acts committed • Nature and extent of coercion to participate • Programs available • Characteristics of programs • Cost • YSB staffing, organization, and activities	• Police records • Court records • YSB program description • YSB files • Social service agencies' files • Interviews • Questionnaires
Provision of direct and brokered services	• Increase in the provision of direct and brokered services	• Nature and extent of direct services available to juvenile before YSB • Nature and extent of direct services available after YSB • Nature and extent of brokered services available before YSB • Nature and extent of brokered services available after YSB • Cost of both direct and brokered services • Number of juveniles provided both types of services • Characteristics of juveniles • Cost	• Police records • YSB program description • YSB files • Social service agencies' files • Interviews • Questionnaires

juveniles in the program. YSB records, court files and the records of social service agencies are likely sources of data.

6.3.2 Reduction in Juvenile Delinquency

Although the reduction of the overall rate of juvenile crime/delinquency has been posited as a YSB objective, the connection between this objective and the activities performed by police YSBs is tenuous, at best. However, should a YSB establish this objective, its achievement can be measured by a decrease in the number of crimes/delinquent acts committed by juveniles. The following data elements may be used to construct this measure: number and types of delinquent acts committed by juveniles; the number of juveniles involved; and number of arrests. These data elements may be obtained from a variety of sources such as: police records, self-report studies, victimization studies, and court records. The evaluator may wish to collect additional data in order to conduct a more in-depth analysis. Additional data elements that may be particularly useful in this regard include the characteristics of the juveniles involved, the police strategies employed during the study, and demographic characteristics of the local jurisdiction.

6.3.3 Reduction in Recidivism

Another objective of police YSBs is the reduction in recidivism among juveniles who have participated in YSB programs. The achievement of this objective is more clearly linked to the activities of the YSB and may be measured by a decrease in the number of juveniles arrested after participating in YSB programs; a decrease in the number of juveniles arrested for the same crime; a decrease in the number of youths convicted of another crime; or a decrease in the number of youths convicted of the same crime. If desired, more complex measures can be developed based on the length of time from termination of program participation to involvement in a new offense. Whichever measure(s) is employed, the following data elements are among those which should be gathered by the researcher: number and types of delinquent acts committed by YSB clients; length of time between program participation and any new offense; number of juveniles arrested; and number of juveniles convicted. In order to analyze these data, the evaluator may find it useful to collect data on factors such as the characteristics of the juveniles; the length of time they participated in YSB programs; characteristics of the programs; the brokered services juvenile clients received; and the

resources and organizational structure of the YSB. Data sources include police records, questionnaires, interviews, social service agency records, and YSB files.

6.3.4 Reduction in Number of Juveniles Processed Through the Justice System

The diversion of juveniles from the criminal justice system is typically one of the primary objectives of police YSBs. Once diversion has occurred, YSB staff are then able to provide or broker the services needed by juveniles. It is assumed that the provision of needed services will contribute to a reduction in recidivism and juvenile delinquency. The basic measure with regard to diversion is increases in the number of juveniles removed from the juvenile justice system. In order to construct this measure, a number of data elements may be used. These data elements include: the number of youths involved in the juvenile justice system; the number of juveniles diverted by the YSB; and the number of youths who are returned to the juvenile justice system from the YSB. The evaluator should collect additional information regarding such factors as: the criteria used for diversion; the characteristics of juvenile clients; the number and types of delinquent acts committed; and the characteristics of the YSB programs(s). Sources for these data include police and court records, and files of social services agencies, as well as interviews and questionnaires.

6.3.5 Provision of Services

YSBs concentrate their efforts on the provision of both direct and brokered services to youths diverted from the criminal justice system. An obvious measure of this objective is an increase in the types and amount of direct and brokered services provided. The evaluator may examine increases in the number of services provided, the range of services, and the extent of services (e.g., long term vs. short term). To construct these measures, a number of data elements will be needed, including: the nature and extent of services (both direct and brokered) available before YSB implementation; those available after YSB implementation; characteristics of the juveniles and their problems; and, finally, YSB resources. Typical sources of data include police records, YSB files, social service agency records, interviews and questionnaires.

6.4 Conducting the Evaluation

Once the objectives, activities and their relationship to each other have been specified, the next step in the evaluation process is to select an appropriate research design.¹¹⁷ The research design provides a strategy for collecting, analyzing and comparing information to assess the impact of individual liaison units or a group of units.

Four basic designs, each outlining different procedures, are particularly applicable for conducting evaluations of police liaison units:

- before and after comparison (one-group pretest-posttest design);
- comparison between two groups (static-group comparison design);
- before and after comparison between two groups (non-equivalent control group design); and
- continuous analysis (time-series design).

Each design differs as to the timing of the data collection, the amount and type of data required, the procedures for analyzing the information, the cost of gathering and analyzing the data, and the dependability of the findings. In selecting a particular design, the evaluator must consider the applicability of the design to the specific situation, the financial resources and the amount of time available, and most important, the availability of relevant information.

Since data availability is crucial to the choice of an appropriate research design, some designs are better suited to certain situations than others. The timing of the data collection process and the use of appropriate comparison groups are typically the key factors distinguishing one research design from another. In general, the earlier the evaluation planning process, the greater the flexibility enjoyed by the evaluator concerning the selection of a research design.

¹¹⁷Weiss; Suchman; and Caro, supra note 114. Also, for an excellent technical discussion of various evaluation research designs, see: Donald T. Campbell and Julian C. Stanley, Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research, Rand McNally and Company, 1969.

The following sections describe common situations confronting evaluators and propose research designs which appear to be most feasible given those circumstances. The timing of the data collection process and the use of appropriate comparison groups are typically the key factors distinguishing one research design from another. In general, the earlier the evaluation planning process, the greater the flexibility enjoyed by the evaluator regarding the selection of a research design.

In presenting the designs below, each is depicted diagrammatically. An "X" represents the activities performed by the liaison unit, the effects of which are to be measured. An "O" refers to a measurement point. "Before measures" are usually taken during the time frame immediately preceding implementation of the liaison unit or during the initial phases of the unit's operations. "After measures", by contrast, are taken after complete implementation and are usually concurrent with on-going liaison unit activities.

6.4.1 Data Available Predating the Police-Liaison Unit

If data concerning the problem addressed by the liaison unit are available for a time frame prior to program implementation, two research designs are particularly appropriate:

- before and after comparison design; and
- continuous analysis design.

With the before-after design, data are gathered, aggregated and compared for two analogous time frames. With the continuous design, data are gathered on a regular basis (e.g., daily or weekly), plotted in a graph-type format and analyzed for possible trends. In both cases, data are gathered before and after the implementation of the program in order to measure any changes that can be attributed to the impact of the program.

6.4.1.1 Before and After Design

This design can be used to examine the impact or effects of a liaison unit by making comparisons at two different points in time: during a time frame prior to implementation of activities and at an appropriate time after implementation. This design (which is often referred to as the one-group pretest-posttest design) may be illustrated as follows:

O₁ X O₂.

The before and after design has relevant applications for the evaluation of all three types of police liaison units. To illustrate, it can be used to gauge the impact of a school liaison unit on juvenile attitudes toward the police and law enforcement. Student attitudes measured at the start of a series of classroom lectures presented by a police liaison officer can be compared with their attitudes at the end of the program (see Table XIV). Similarly, this design can be employed to evaluate the impact of a legal liaison unit. This can be achieved, for example, by comparing the percent of no-bills and dismissals attributable to police error immediately prior to the unit's implementation with the percent evident one year later (see Tables XV[a] and XV[b]). Table XV(a) shows a steady decline in police-related no-bills after implementation of the legal liaison unit. Table XV(b) further aggregates the data on a semi-annual basis to permit comparisons of the percent of no-bills due to police error during the January to June 1979 time frame (9.7 percent) with police-related no-bills for the January to June 1980 time frame (7.1 percent). The data indicate that there was a 26.8 percent (2.6 percent divided by 9.7 percent) decline in no-bills. The limits of this design concern alternative explanations for the observed changes not accounted for by the research design. In addition to the activities of the liaison unit, changes may be a result of outside influences. Specifically, the observed outcomes could be attributed to:

- other events occurring either within the liaison unit or in the surrounding environment between the two points of comparison such as a change in key liaison unit staff, a shift in the District Attorney's priorities or an overall change in city-wide crime rates; and
- unusually high levels of crime or low levels of police productivity at the initiation of liaison unit activities which naturally decrease (crime) or increase (police productivity) over time without any intervention.¹¹⁸

¹¹⁸This phenomenon is typically referred to as regression, a statistical term which refers to the natural movement of extremes toward the norm or average.

TABLE XIV
IMPACT OF SCHOOL LIAISON UNIT ON HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT
ATTITUDES TOWARD THE POLICE AND LAW ENFORCEMENT

ATTITUDE	PERCENT OF STUDENTS FAVORABLE		PERCENT CHANGE
	BEFORE PROGRAM	AFTER PROGRAM	
Attitude toward law enforcement	65	83	+18
Attitude toward police officers	53	75	+22
Attitude toward police in schools	42	68	+26
Attitude toward police as authority figures	51	70	+19
Attitude toward deterrence of crime in schools	68	85	+17

TABLE XV(a)
 IMPACT OF LEGAL LIAISON UNIT ON CASES
 NO-BILLED DUE TO POLICE ERROR: MONTHLY SUMMARIES

MONTH	TOTAL CASES	NUMBER OF NO-BILLS DUE TO POLICE ERROR	PERCENT NO-BILLS DUE TO POLICE ERROR
January 1979	985	95	9.6
February	950	92	9.7
March	1017	96	9.4
April	1025	102	10.0
May	1021	99	9.7
June	1053	104	9.9
Implementation of Legal Liaison Unit			
July	985	95	9.6
August	950	87	9.2
September	987	90	9.2
October	941	83	8.8
November	1022	84	8.2
December	979	79	8.1
January 1980	992	75	7.6
February	1015	73	7.2
March	1022	73	7.1
April	981	68	6.9
May	943	67	7.1
June	957	65	6.8

TABLE XV(b)
 IMPACT OF LEGAL LIAISON UNIT ON CASES
 NO-BILLED DUE TO POLICE ERROR: SEMI-ANNUAL SUMMARIES

TIME FRAME	TOTAL CASES	NUMBER OF NO-BILLS DUE TO POLICE ERROR	PERCENT NO-BILLS DUE TO POLICE ERROR
January 1979 - June 1979	6051	588	9.7
Implementation of Legal Liaison Unit			
July 1979 - December 1979	5864	516	8.8
January 1980 - June 1980	5910	421	7.1

6.4.1.2 Continuous Analysis Design

The continuous analysis design is quite similar to the before and after design, except that measures are taken at numerous points in time both before and after the implementation of liaison unit activities. This design (typically referred to as a time series design) may be diagrammed as follows:

$O_1 O_2 O_3 O_4 X O_5 O_6 O_7 O_8$.

The design is particularly applicable for the analysis of effects over time. It permits assessments of observed changes in trends and the continuity of those changes after the initiation of liaison unit activities. In some cases the unit's effects may be cumulative, while in others they may diminish over time. This type of finding may be very important from an operational point of view (e.g., increasing or decreasing manpower levels, emphasizing or de-emphasizing certain activities and so on) and a policy perspective (e.g., funding decisions).

Wise¹¹⁹, in an evaluation of the Dallas Legal Liaison Division, uses this approach to assess the impact of legal services on the rate of no-bills and dismissal attributable to police error. The data presented in Table XV(a) may be used to illustrate an application of the continuous analysis design. In this case, the analysis can be facilitated by translating the data into a graph format (see Figure 5) and examining the trend exhibited by the information. The data presented in this example show a steady decline in the percent of cases no-billed as a result of police error after implementation of the legal liaison unit.

Although the continuous analysis design eliminates most alternative explanations for the events that have occurred, it does not provide any way to estimate what would have occurred without the liaison unit. This is also true for the before and after design. For this reason, the evaluator must be careful in drawing conclusions about other factors outside of the liaison unit, such as the election of a new District Attorney, which may also contribute to the observed changes in the rates of no-bills and dismissals.

¹¹⁹ H. Lake Wise, The Dallas Police Legal Liaison Division, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976.

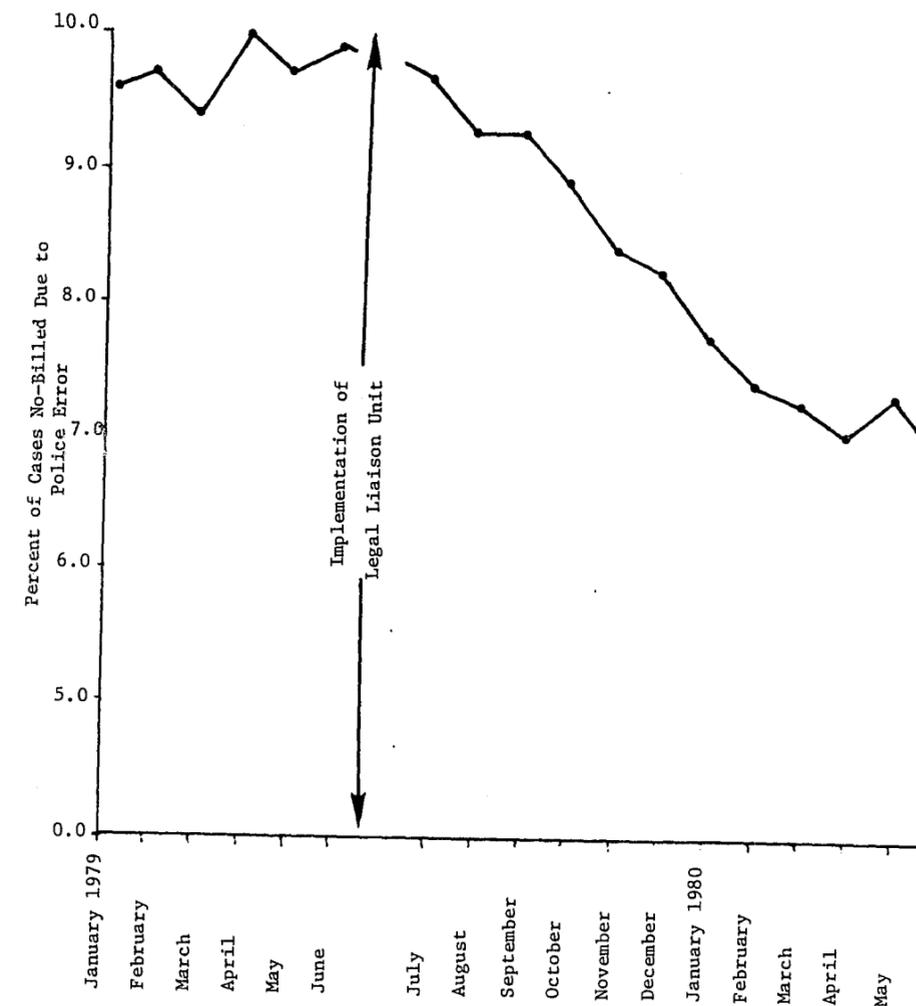


FIGURE 5
PERCENT OF CASES NO-BILLED DUE TO POLICE ERROR:
JANUARY 1979-JUNE 1980

6.4.2 Data Available on Comparison Groups

Another method that may be used to assess the impact of liaison units involves making observations of two or more comparable groups such as police departments, high schools or juveniles from neighboring towns. One group should be the recipient of the services provided by the liaison unit, while the other group should be outside the liaison unit's sphere of influence. Otherwise, the groups being compared should be as similar as possible with respect to their basic characteristics. Selection of similarly structured groups is important in order to eliminate competing explanations for any observed changes that may be attributed to basic differences between the groups being compared rather than the actions of the liaison unit. To simplify the discussion of the two following research designs, the group targeted by the liaison unit will be referred to as the experimental group and the group outside the scope of the liaison project as the comparison group.

6.4.2.1 Two-Group Comparison Design

The two-group comparison design is most applicable to situations where the evaluation is initiated after program implementation and it is inappropriate, impossible or too costly to collect data that predates the program for comparison purposes. In this instance, the group targeted by the liaison unit is compared to one which is not exposed to the unit's activities (e.g., a school in the same jurisdiction that is not participating in the program or juvenile offenders residing in an adjacent community). The comparison should be based on information gathered on the two groups for the same time frame. The two-group design (typically referred to as the static-group comparison design) may be diagrammed as follows:

Experimental Group	X	O_1
Comparison Group		O_2

This design is especially useful in situations where a natural comparison group already exists. School liaison units often lend themselves to this research design, particularly during the initial year or two of activities when a few schools are targeted by the unit while others in the same district continue to operate under status quo conditions. To illustrate, differences in the number of delinquent incidents committed in the immediate vicinity of the schools comprising the

experimental and comparisons groups (see Table XVI) may be utilized, in conjunction with other appropriate measures such as student attitudes (see Table XVII) to assess the impact of the liaison unit. If the groups being compared are substantially different in the size of their memberships, the data should also be translated into percentages or proportions in order to provide a common denominator and foster appropriate comparisons (see Table XVIII).

Since the two-group comparison design relies on natural groups, it has two main weaknesses. First, this design does not provide any mechanisms to rule out the effects produced by differences in the inherent characteristics of persons comprising the experimental and comparison groups. Similarly, this design fails to eliminate differences in the dropout rates between the two groups.

6.4.2.2 Before and After Two-Group Comparison Design

This design is particularly appropriate if data can be collected on both the experimental group and a comparison group prior to program implementation. The design adds another dimension to the before and after design by providing an estimate of how events would have progressed without the liaison unit. It sets up three points of comparison to assess the impact of the liaison unit:

- comparison of information gathered on the experimental group before and after the liaison unit is established;
- comparison of information gathered on the comparison group for the same time period; and
- a comparison between the two groups with respect to the observed changes.

As in the two-group comparison, the greater the similarity between the two groups, the more credible the results of the evaluation. The before and after two-group comparison design (usually referred to as the non-equivalent control group design) may be diagrammed as follows:

TABLE XVI
 IMPACT OF SCHOOL LIAISON UNIT ON CRIME:
 COMPARISON OF SCHOOL TARGETED BY PROGRAM AND
 SCHOOL NOT PARTICIPATING IN PROGRAM

TYPE OF CRIME	NUMBER OF INCIDENTS		DIFFERENCE
	SCHOOL WITH LIAISON UNIT	SCHOOL WITHOUT LIAISON UNIT	
Assault/Battery	28	48	20
Robbery	15	37	22
Breaking/Entering	4	13	9
Vandalism	67	115	48
Other Incidents	53	81	28
TOTAL	167	294	127

TABLE XVII
 IMPACT OF SCHOOL LIAISON UNIT ON STUDENT ATTITUDES:
 COMPARISON BETWEEN SCHOOL TARGETED BY PROGRAM
 AND SCHOOL NOT PARTICIPATING IN PROGRAM

ATTITUDE	PERCENT OF STUDENTS FAVORABLE		PERCENT DIFFERENCE
	SCHOOL WITH LIAISON UNIT	SCHOOL WITHOUT LIAISON UNIT	
Attitude toward law enforcement	83	69	14
Attitude toward police officers	75	62	13
Attitude toward police in schools	68	52	16
Attitude toward police as authority figures	70	58	12
Attitude toward deterrence of crime in schools	85	65	20

TABLE XVIII
STUDENT DELINQUENCY: COMPARISON BETWEEN SCHOOL
TARGETED BY LIAISON PROGRAM AND
SCHOOL NOT PARTICIPATING IN PROGRAM

STUDENTS	SCHOOL WITH LIAISON PROGRAM		SCHOOL WITHOUT LIAISON PROGRAM		PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCE
	No.	%	No.	%	
Delinquents					
First Offenders	62	9.2	102	13.6	4.4
Recidivists	85	12.6	147	19.6	7.0
Nondelinquents	528	78.2	502	66.8	11.4
TOTAL	675	100.0	751	100.0	

	BEFORE		AFTER
Experimental Group	O ₁	X	O ₂
Comparison Group	O ₃		O ₄

A hypothetical assessment of a youth service bureau (YSB) may be used to illustrate an application of the before and after comparison between two groups. In this example, juvenile offenders are assigned to the YSB program or to traditional probation services according to a pre-determined set of criteria. Measures of behavior (e.g., arrest records and willingness to participate in scheduled activities) and attitudes (e.g., concerning delinquent behavior, law enforcement and so on) are gathered at the beginning of the program and one year later at the termination of services. Comparisons are then made, first, to determine changes within each group and, second, to ascertain differences in the amount of change between the two groups. Similarly, this design may be utilized to evaluate school liaison projects. In this case, students attending schools targeted by the liaison project may be compared with students attending schools situated in adjacent neighborhoods which are not included in the liaison effort.

Application of the before and after two-group comparison design typically requires the use of somewhat more sophisticated statistical techniques, principally means, standard deviations and t-tests of statistical significance. It is suggested that a statistician or research methodologist be consulted prior to any decision to use this research design.

While it is important to compare groups with similar characteristics, differences may sometimes be unavoidable. The group targeted by the liaison unit is typically selected on the basis of need. For example, schools exhibiting unusually high rates of vandalism and delinquent behavior may be selected for inclusion in a school liaison program. In this case, it is reasonable to anticipate that the level of delinquent activities may decrease independent of any special program. Similarly, the effects of the differences between the basic characteristics of the two groups may complicate the interpretation of a YSB evaluation when the assignment of juvenile offenders to the YSB

or traditional services is based on the number and seriousness of prior delinquent acts.

The before and after two-group design is more powerful than either the before and after design or the two-group comparison design. It typically curbs most rival explanations for observed outcomes. Of particular importance, it eliminates alternative explanations that may be due to other specific events (i.e., history), since both the treatment and control groups are, at least theoretically, exposed to the same events.

APPENDIX A
BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR POLICE LEGAL ADVISOR UNITS

Burpo, John H., "Legal Advisor," Police Chief, Vol. 36, No. 9, September 1969, pp. 28-30.

Caplan, Gerald M., "The Police Legal Advisor," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, Vol. 58, No. 3, 1967, pp. 303-309.

Casaleggio, Giles W., "The Police Legal Advisor Concept: A New Direction in Law Enforcement Specialization," Case and Comment, Vol. 79, No. 3, May-June 1974, pp. 50-53.

Central Connecticut Regional Planning Agency, Police Legal Advisor, First Annual Report, January 1, 1971-December 31, 1971.

Crime Control Digest, Vol. 10, No. 24, 1976.

Dallas, Texas Crime Analysis Unit, Legal Aides for Police Interim Evaluation Report, November 1974.

Domash, Michele, "Criminal Case Preparation: A Police Prosecution Cooperative Effort" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation), University of Kansas.

Heath, Edwin D. Jr., "The Police Legal Unit," FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, Vol. 41, No. 8, August 1972, pp. 22-25.

Hendrickson, T.A., "Looking to the Future--The Police Legal Advisor and His Changing Role," Police Chief, Vol. 43, No. 11, November 1976, pp. 70-71.

Laudenslager, Samuel, "Providing Legal Assistance to Small and Rural Law Enforcement Agencies, Part 1: The Regional Legal Advisor," The Police Chief, Vol. 41, No. 8, August 1974, pp. 53-58.

Manak, James P. review of "The Dallas Police Legal Liaison Division," by H. Lake Wise, Journal of Police Science and Administration, Vol. 5, No. 2, 1977, pp. 241-243.

North Las Vegas Police Department, Police Legal Advisor, Final Report, September 9, 1974.

Schmidt, Wayne W. (ed.), Guidelines for a Police Legal Unit, International Association of Chiefs of Police, Inc., Gaithersburg, MD, 1972.

Schnelle, J.G., R.E. Kirchner, J.D. Casey, T.H. Shriver, "Evaluation of the Quality of Police Arrests by District Attorney Ratings--A Formula for Direct Measurement of Police Apprehensions," Police Chief, Vol. 44, No.1, January 1977, pp. 36-37.

Siegel, Lawrence G., "Legal Aides for Police--Dallas, Texas," An Examination of the Transferability of Nine Anti-Crime Projects, The MITRE Corporation, McLean, VA 1975, pp. 109-127.

Voitecky, Steve and Robert L. Newey, Weber County (VT) Police Legal Advisor, 1975.

Wampler, Dee, "Enforcement and Prosecution--A Joint Endeavor," FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, Vol. 41, No. 3, March 1972, pp. 23-26.

Wilson, O.W., Police Administration, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1963.

Wise, H. Lake, The Dallas Police Legal Liaison Division, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976.

APPENDIX B
BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR POLICE-SCHOOL LIAISON UNITS

Bouma, D.H., "Police in the Schools, A Program Evaluation," Police Chief, Vol. 39, No. 9, September 1972, pp. 50-52.

Chesler, M.A. and Pat Graham, Alternative Responses to School Crisis and Experiments in Police-School Relations, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, 1969.

Clements, C.B., "School Relations Bureau--A Program of Police Intervention," Criminal Justice and Behavior, Vol. 2, No. 4, December 1975, pp. 358-371.

Costa, R., "Norfolk, Connecticut--Police-School Program--A Community Relations Effort," Law and Order, Vol. 21, No. 3, March 1973, pp. 46-49.

Davids, F.E., "Michigan State Police Goes Juvenile," Police Chief, Vol. 37, No. 10, October 1970, pp. 46-52.

Flynn, P.J. and N. Roberts, Adoption and Utilization of Urban Technology: A Decision-Making Study, Innovation in the Syracuse Police Department: Two Case Studies, Syracuse Research Corporation, Syracuse, NY, September 1977.

Froemel, E.C., M.E. Baehr, J.E. Furcon and M. Thompson, Elementary School Child's Perception of Police and the Police Function--An Evaluation Study of the Officer Friendly Program, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL, 1972.

Hamilton, Lander C. and Bernard R. Kaplan, "The Police and the Schools," The Police Chief, Vol. 32, November 1965, pp.32-39.

Harrison, Harmon G. and Nyla Crone, "Cops in the Schools Spot Trouble in the Making," American School Board Journal, December 1968.

Hoobler, R.L., "San Diego--Secondary Schools' Task Force," Police Chief, Vol. 40, No. 6, June 1973, pp. 28-30.

Horyza, D., Riverton (WY)--Youth Officer Program--Evaluation, U.S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Washington, D.C., 1975.

Ison, J.E., "Law Enforcement Education in Public Schools," Police Chief, Vol. 41, No. 3, March 1974, pp. 74-78.

Johnson, R.A., "School Resource Officer Program," Law and Order, Vol. 23, No. 12, December 1975, pp. 28-34.

Jones, R. R., Preventive Team Approach to Juvenile Delinquency - Evaluation Research Report, Oregon Research Institute, July, 1972.

Kaplan, Bernard R. and Sidney Lodge, "The Police and the Schools," Police Chief, Vol. 32, June 1965, pp. 24-28.

McDonald, P.L. and R.K. Williams, "Montgomery County (MD)--A Cooperative Police/School Delinquency Prevention Program," Police Chief, Vol. 44, No. 7, July 1977, pp. 44-46.

McHardy, L.W., "Court, the Police, and the School," Federal Probation, Vol. 32, No. 1, March 1968, pp. 47-50.

Michigan Department of State Police, The Evaluation of a Police-School Liaison Program, October 1970.

Milander, Henry M., Local Police Department-School System Interaction and Cooperation, (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation), Illinois State University, 1967.

Miller, J.L.L., School Resource Officer Program--Final Report, Evaluation Phase, Tuscon Police Department, Tuscon, AZ 1968.

Minneapolis Police Department, Minneapolis (MN)--Police-School Liaison Program (Cooperative Program of Minneapolis Police Department and the Minneapolis Public Schools)--Final Report--September 1966-August 1968, Minneapolis, MN, 1968.

Montgomery (AL) Police Department--Expanded School Relations Bureau--Final Progress Report--Year 1, June 1972-September 1973, City of Montgomery AL, 1974.

Mulder, R. and D. Williams, Cops in the Schools--A Look at Police-School Liaison Programs in the State of Michigan, Grand Valley State Colleges, Allendale, MI, 1975.

Paulson, F. Leon, Evaluation of the Mid-Willamette Valley (OR) Council of Governments' Community Liaison Program, Teaching Research, Oregon System of Higher Education, Salem, OR, 1971.

Polk County (Des Moines, Iowa) Board of Supervisors, Evaluation of the Sherriff's Youth Bureau, November 1977.

Portune, Robert, The Cincinnati Police-Juvenile Attitude Project: Police-Teacher Curriculum Development for Improving Police Juvenile Relations, University of Cincinnati, LEAA, 1967.

Robinson, Donald W., "Police in the Schools," Today's Education, October 1970, pp. 18-20.

Smith, G.B., "It Pays to be Different," FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, Vol. 42, No. 11, November 1973, pp. 8-10.

Sulkin, Howard A., The Elementary School Child's Perception of Police and the Police Function, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL, 1972.

The Toledo Metropolitan Area Council of Government, Police-School Curriculum Project (City of Maumee, OH), Toledo (OH) Metropolitan Area Council of Government, 1973.

Urness, Curtis Dean, A Functional Analysis of the Role of the Police School Liaison Officer in the Twin City Metropolitan Area, (Ph.D. dissertation), August 1971.

Williams, D.G. and D.H. Bouma, "Police-School Liaison--Evaluation of Program," Intellect, Vol. 101, 1972, pp. 119-122.

APPENDIX C
BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR YOUTH SERVICE BUREAUS

Adams, S., "Evaluation of the Portland, Maine Youth Aid Bureau," in K.L. Morell (editor), Criminal Justice Evaluation: Papers from the Washington State Evaluation Exchange Conferences 1975-1976, University of Washington, Seattle, 1976.

Cain, Lt. Thomas J., "Youth Services: A Police Alternative to the Juvenile Justice System," Law and Order, Vol. 21, No. 1, January 1973, pp. 20-23, 33.

California Council on Criminal Justice, Cluster Evaluation of Four Diversion Projects--Progress Report, January 28, 1974.

California Department of the Youth Authority and California Delinquency Prevention Commission, "Standards and Guidelines for Youth Service Bureaus," January 1976.

Carkhuff Associates, Washington--Evaluation of Youth Service Bureaus --Phase I--Final Report--Data Collection and Organization, 1977.

Devore, Joyce McBride, A Descriptive Evaluative Study of the Youth Service Bureau, (Master's Thesis, San Diego State College), June 1970.

Duxbury, Elaine, Evaluation of Youth Service Bureaus in California, California Department of the Youth Authority, Sacramento, November 1973.

Garrell-Michaud, V., Lakes Region (NH) Human Services Coordinating Council--'Laconia Youth Service Bureau,' September 8, 1978-March 30, 1979--An Evaluation, New Hampshire Governor's Commission on Crime and Delinquency, Concord, NH, 1979.

Garrell-Michaud, V., Salem (NH)--Monitoring Report of 'Salem Youth Service Bureau,' New Hampshire Governor's Commission on Crime and Delinquency, Concord, NH, 1978.

Gemignani, Robert J., "Youth Services Systems," (in Delinquency Prevention Reporter), Youth Development and Delinquency Prevention Administration, HEW, July-August 1972.

Gilson, C.B., Youth Service Bureaus--National Evaluation Program Phase I Assessment, U.S. Department of Justice, Washington, D.C., 1977.

Haapanen, Rudy and David Rudisill, The Evaluation of Youth Service Bureaus: Final Report, California Department of the Youth Authority, February 1980.

Harper, H., Youth Service Bureaus of Texas--Patterns and Directions, (Ph.D. dissertation), Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, TX, 1974.

Heasley, D.W., Mecklenburg Youth Service Bureau--A Definitive Report, 1973-1974, Mecklenburg Youth Services, Charlotte, NC, 1974.

Kelley, T.M., "Decentralized Intake and Diversion--The Juvenile Court's Link to the Youth Service Bureau," Juvenile Justice, Vol. 27, No. 1, February 1976, pp. 3-11.

Langford, M., "Youth Service Bureaus and the Hidden Clients," Youth Authority Quarterly, Vol. 31, No. 4, Winter 1978, pp. 3-9.

Lemert, Edwin M., Instead of Court: Diversion in Juvenile Justice, National Institute of Mental Health, Center for Studies of Crime and Delinquency, Chevy Chase, MD, 1971.

Light, N.B., King County Youth Service Bureaus, Final Draft, 1976 Evaluation, Part III: Client Recidivism, Examination of Police and Court Records, King County (WA) Division of Youth Affairs, Department of Planning and Community Development, 1976.

Lofquist, W.A., Dane County (WI) Youth Service Bureau--An Empirical Assessment, National Council on Crime and Delinquency, Hackensack, NJ 1976.

Martin, John M., Toward a Political Definition of Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Youth Development and Delinquency Prevention Administration, 1970.

Mathews, K.F., Seattle Youth Service Bureau--Accountability System--Two Year Evaluation and Crime Impact Analysis, February 1976 (Revision--April 1976), 1976.

Medina, L., Chatham (VA) Youth Service Bureau--Evaluation, Virginia Division of Justice and Crime Prevention, Richmond, VA, 1977.

National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, Community Crime Prevention, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973.

Norman, Sherwood, Establishing a Youth Service Bureau, National Council on Crime and Delinquency, 1976.

Norman, Sherwood, The Youth Services Bureau: A Key to Delinquency Prevention, The National Council on Crime and Delinquency, Paramus, NJ, 1972.

Pacifica Youth Service Bureau, Pacifica (CA)--Youth Service Bureau--Annual Report, June 1978.

Polk, K. and A. Schuchter, Youth Service Bureaus--Phase I Assessment--Draft Final Report, July 28, 1975.

President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

Reynolds, Paul Davidson and John J. Vincent, Evaluation of Five Youth Service Bureaus in the Twin Cities Region, Minnesota Center for Sociological Research, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, March 1972.

Rosen, Cynthia B., Insufficient Guidelines and the Legal Consequences for Youth Service Bureaus, California Youth Authority, Division of Research and Development, Community Services Research Section, September 1973.

Rosenheim, Margaret K., "Youth Service Bureaus: A Concept in Search of a Definition," Juvenile Court Judges Journal, Vol. 20, No. 2, 1969, pp. 69-74, 1969.

Minnesota Governor's Commission on Crime Prevention and Control Saint Paul (MN) Youth Service Bureau Preliminary Evaluation, 1975.

Seymour, J.A., Youth Service Bureaus, University of Chicago Law School, Chicago, IL 1971.

Skoler, Daniel, "Future Trends in Juvenile and Adult Community-Based Corrections," Juvenile Court Judges Journal, Vol. 21, No. 1, Winter 1971.

Stevens, M., et al., Evaluation of the Sheriff's Youth Bureau, Polk County (Des Moines), Iowa Board of Supervisors, November 1977.

Underwood, William, A National Study of Youth Service Bureaus, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Youth Development and Delinquency Prevention Administration, 1972.

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Youth Development and Delinquency Prevention Administration, Challenge of Youth Service Bureaus, Washington, D.C., 1973.

U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Youth Development and Delinquency Prevention Administration, Youth Service Bureaus and Delinquency Prevention, Washington, D.C.

Venezia, P.S. and D. Anthony, Wisconsin's Youth Service Bureaus-- A Program Level Evaluation, Wisconsin Council on Criminal Justice, Madison, WI 1978.

APPENDIX D
BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

Aiken, Michael, Robert Dewar, Nancy DiTomaso, Jerald Hage, and Gerald Zeitz, Coordinating Human Services, Jossey-Bass, 1975.

Aldrich, Howard, "An Organization-Environment Perspective on Cooperation and Conflict between Organizations in the Manpower Training System," in Interorganizational Analysis, edited by Anant R. Negandhi, Kent, OH, Kent State University, 1975, pp. 49-70.

Calpin, J. and L. Siegel, Police Liaison Activities: Their Development and Operation in 15 Jurisdictions, The MITRE Corporation, McLean, VA, WP-80W00478, 1980.

Calpin, J., and L. Siegel, Site Selection Report -- Police Liaison NEP, The MITRE Corporation, McLean, VA, WP-80W00077, 1980.

Campbell, Donald T. and Julian C. Stanley, Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research, Rand McNally and Company, 1969.

Caro, Francis G., Readings in Evaluation Research, Russell Sage Foundation, 1971.

Criminal Justice Research Solicitation, National Evaluation Program Phase I Assessments: Family Counseling, Screening and Evaluation for Mental Health Services, Police Liaison Activities, National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, Washington, D.C., 1979.

Levine, Sol and Paul E. White, "Exchange as a Conceptual Framework for the Study of Interorganizational Relationships," in A Sociological Reader on Complex Organizations (second edition), edited by Amitai Etzioni, New York, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1969, pp. 117-132.

National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, Report on Police, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973.

President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: Science and Technology, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

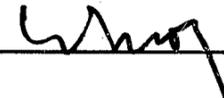
President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: The Police, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973.

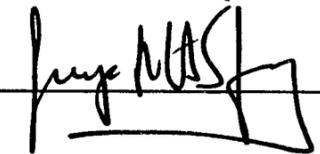
Siegel, Lawrence G., et. al., An Assessment of Police Liaison Units: An Initial Summary, The MITRE Corporation, WP-81W00293, May 1981.

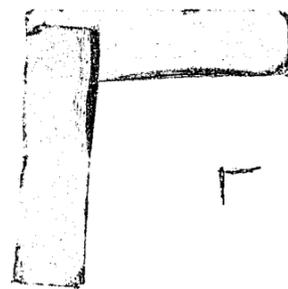
Suchman, Edward A., Evaluation Research: Principles and Practice in Public Service and Social Action Programs, Russell Sage Foundation, 1967.

Van de Ven, Andrew, et al., "Framework For Interorganizational Analysis," in Interorganizational Analysis, edited by Anant R. Negandhi, Kent, OH, Kent State University, 1975, pp. 19-38.

Weiss, Carol H., Evaluation Research: Methods of Assessing Program Effectiveness, Prentice-Hall, 1972.

Department Approval: 

MITRE Project Approval: 



END