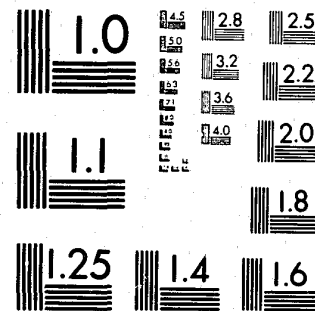


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THE ROLE OF MUNICIPAL POLICE:
RESEARCH AS PRELUDE TO CHANGING IT
TECHNICAL REPORT

MARY ANN WYCOFF ✓
POLICE FOUNDATION
1982

WITH THE ASSISTANCE OF
CHARLES E. SUSMILCH
PATRICIA EISENBART

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FOR

JOSEPH H. LEWIS

MENTOR AND FRIEND

PREFACE

This report examines the capacity of existing empirical data about the police function to answer the following questions:

What do municipal police in the United States actually do?

What do citizens and police believe police do?

What do citizens and police believe the police should do?

The questions reflect the interest of the National Institute of Justice in determining whether the answers would suggest either a reform agenda or a research agenda for municipal policing. Specifically:

Do differences among beliefs or between beliefs and facts about what police do suggest a need for revisions of either the perceptions or the realities of the police role?

Our analysis led to the conclusion that available data do not and cannot support a reform agenda because of inadequacies in existing data sets and because of substantive gaps in the entire body of empirical literature on policing. This report suggests ways of strengthening the types of data currently collected and outlines the research agenda which should be established if empirical data are to be used as a basis for developing reform policies.

AUTHOR'S ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Several persons were critical to the initiation, conduct, or supervision of this project.

The project was initiated by Joseph H. Lewis, formerly director of evaluation for the Police Foundation; George L. Kelling, formerly evaluation field staff director for the Foundation; and Tony Pate and the author, Foundation project directors.

Research staff for the study included Charles Susmilch, William Trent, Pat Eisenbart, Maria Juergens, Nancy Petersen, and Susan Schymanski. Typing and editing were done by Diane Aide, Maria Juergens, and Florence Kanter.

The advisory panel that reviewed initial research plans and the final draft of the report included Professor Herman Goldstein, Dr. Richard Larson, and Dr. Peter K. Manning. Victor I. Cizackas, Chief of the Stamford, Connecticut Police Department also served on the panel until his death in 1980.

William Saulsbury was the project monitor for the National Institute of Justice.

Keith Bergstrom provided counsel and comment on drafts at any hour.

I am indebted to these people for the roles they played and am privileged to have shared with them the hours necessitated, and the ideas stimulated, by the project.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. PROJECT PURPOSE

The purpose of this project has been to examine the capacity of existing empirical data about the police function to answer the following questions:

What do municipal police in the United States actually do?

What do citizens and police believe the police do?

What do citizens and police believe the police should do?

The questions reflect the interest of the National Institute of Justice in determining whether the answers would suggest either a reform agenda or a research agenda for municipal policing. Specifically:

Do differences among beliefs or between beliefs and facts about what police do suggest a need for revisions of either the perceptions or the realities of the police role?

B. THE DATA

The data of this study are the existing empirical, quantifiable data about the police role. Such "hard data" do not provide the only means of knowing about policing. In fact, most of the major insights and conceptual developments about U.S. policing and most of the hypotheses about the role on which this project is based have come from reported experiences and perceptions of people who have worked inside police agencies, from ethnographic researchers who have closely observed police, or from testimony

offered in commission or legislative hearings or in court cases about police matters. By comparison, the data used in this project are quantified data derived from surveys or other systematic methods or collecting countable information. These data are examined to determine whether they provide a basis for testing the observations drawn from experience.

Several types of data sets were relevant to project goals including task analyses and other studies of officer activities, surveys of citizens and surveys of police officers.

C. METHODOLOGY

A literature search was conducted to identify appropriate studies. Data collection instruments were then obtained either from the published document or through correspondence with the researcher. If the item content proved relevant, the research methodology of each study was reviewed by two members of the staff. Sample size, data collection methods, and response rates were the primary criteria for study selection. If the methodology was approved, efforts were made to obtain original data sets.

Data collection instruments were content-analyzed to determine their substantive comparability. To perform the content analyses and the proposed reanalysis of the data, it was necessary to develop a common coding scheme which could be used to translate items from separate data collection instruments into a single, comparable form. (For a discussion of the coding scheme and process, see Appendix C; the codebook is Appendix D.) Development of the coding system was based on staff rereading and discussion of major works in the police literature (e.g., Banton, 1964; Skolnick, 1966;

Wilson, 1968; Bayley and Mendelsohn, 1969; Bittner, 1970; Reiss, 1971; Bayley, 1976; Goldstein, 1977; Manning, 1977) and role theoretic literature (e.g., Gross, et al., 1958; Preiss and Ehrlich, 1966; and Sarbin and Allen, 1968).

The coding scheme was developed and 9 task analyses and 26 officer and citizen attitude surveys were coded for content analysis. Each of the study reports was reviewed for summaries of findings which could be used in substantive analysis of findings in the event that original data could not be obtained for reanalysis. In the case of published reports of studies of calls for service or calls dispatched and of police workload, the categories used for reporting data by functions were recoded into a common set of codes to increase the ability to compare findings. (The recoding of each of these studies is presented in Appendix B.)

Comparative statistical reanalyses proved often impossible, either because there was insufficient comparability among studies or because we were unable to acquire data sets. (See Appendix G for a note on data acquisition.) Consequently, the data summarized in Chapters II and III of this volume are, of necessity, presented without benefit of statistical controls for relevant variables (e.g., size and age of city, region, population characteristics, etc.).

To determine the codes departments used for dispatching calls, 100 police agencies were asked for copies of their dispatch codes. These were recoded according to the formula presented in Appendix H.

Finally, in order to examine the historical nature of the police role (Appendix I), the police literature was reviewed and books and articles selected for a content analysis designed to identify and compare over time the police functions discussed by police historians.

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D. CONCEPTS AND TERMINOLOGY

1. The Police. The police of this study are not all persons or institutions which can be defined in some way as police. "The police" can be defined functionally, institutionally, or geopolitically, As functionally defined, policing involves all those activities performed by any or all society members which contribute to the regulation and control of the society. As institutionally defined, the police are the aggregation of all the bodies within a designated society which are formally organized, on either governmental or private authority, to accomplish the function of policing. As geopolitically defined, the police consist of those persons authorized by specific political units and organized into publicly maintained bodies for the purpose of performing the policing function within legally defined territorial boundaries. The police of this study are geopolitical entities; they are politically mandated and controlled police agencies. This limits the definition, and yet, in the U.S. politically mandated police authority is divested in agencies that range in size, power and jurisdiction from the U.S. Army and the Bureau of Internal Revenue to country departments of animal control and municipal departments of building inspection. For some of these agencies the range of authority may be broad and general, calling for the enforcement of all laws affecting a particular geographic area; for other agencies, authority is limited to one or only a few substantive legal issues. The authority boundaries between various agencies may be fluid, overlapping and contingent in nature. Such authority boundaries may be based upon geopolitical considerations, upon substantive considerations or upon a combination of geopolitical and substantive considerations; such considerations are thought of as jurisdictions.

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Municipal police agencies will share geopolitical or territorial jurisdiction with several other police agencies and substantive or functional jurisdiction (responsibility for enforcement of the same laws) with some of them. A conceptual mapping of what the police do as enforcement agencies* would have to account for each of the functional jurisdictions of all of these agencies. The role of municipal police can best be understood as a subset of all the roles which together constitute the police role, as institutionally defined.

As this report will not portray all of institutionalized policing, neither will it fully analyze all of the roles which constitute municipal policing. Because this study utilizes existing data, it is not based on a deliberate sample of agencies which would permit reliable generalizations about the role. To visualize the context of the roles discussed in this report it is useful to think of a grid (see Figure 1) in which studies can be located according to the agency's political source of legitimacy, the range of authority, the size of the organization and the ranks and functions studied. As indicated by the shaded area in Figure 1, most of the studies have been conducted of the patrol rank and of the patrol function in medium- to large-size municipalities. Although the patrol rank and division include a substantial majority of a department's personnel and may account for the bulk of local police

*A conceptual mapping of police as enforcement agencies is based on one function, rule enforcement, which all police agencies have in common. This is not to suggest that this is the only or even the most predominant function of the agencies to be examined in this report. The purpose here is to distinguish the agencies under consideration from other agencies which, theoretically, can be called police.

work, they certainly do not account for all of the organization's significant tasks. This is likely to be true as organizations increase in size and specialization. Insofar as this is true, this report will be unable to examine fully the role of municipal police.

2. What Police Do. This study examines the types of problems or situations which police handle. It does not examine police performance in that it does not look at the methods police use in dealing with problems or situations, nor does it look at the competence or style with which methods are employed or at the effectiveness of the response. The focus of this study is on the "what" rather than the "how" of American policing.

3. The Role. The term "role" is used loosely here to refer to the collection of facts and beliefs about what it is police do.

a. Facts. These are the relatively objective, observed pieces of information about what police do. The data represent an effort to determine what police actually do rather than what anyone might think they do. Such facts are established through direct, systematic observation of police activities or through examination of records. No measurement method reflects reality perfectly, but the methods used to assess what are referred to here as facts are meant to reduce perceptual distortion.

FIGURE 1
SPECIFICATION OF PUBLIC POLICE POSITIONS

Type of Authority:	GENERAL AUTHORITY									LIMITED AUTHORITY				
Level of Government:	MUNICIPAL			COUNTY			FEDERAL	STATE	SPECIAL DISTRICT	MUNICIPAL	COUNTY	STATE	FEDERAL	SPECIAL DISTRICT
Agency Size:	SM	MED	LG	SM	MED	LG								

RANK AND ASSIGNMENT

Police executives														
Police managers														
Police supervisors														
Detectives/investigators														
Police officers-general patrol duty														
Police officers - specialized duty														
Administration														
Community relations														
Community service														
Crime prevention														
Dispatch/telephone														
Evidence														
Internal affairs														
Investigations														
Jail														
Juvenile														
Property control														
Research and development														
Records														
Tactical														
Traffic														
Training														

b. Beliefs. Three types of beliefs can be analyzed for both citizens and police: descriptions, evaluations, and preferences. Descriptions are expressions of respondents' beliefs about what police currently do. An answer to the question, "What do you think patrol officers in your city do during an eight-hour shift?" is a description of what the respondent believes the police do. Evaluation items indicate the importance the respondent assigns to a particular police responsibility or task, and commonly have a format such as, "How important do you consider each of these tasks to be?" Preferences indicate the kinds of things which the respondent believes the police should do. A preference is indicated when a respondent answers a question such as, "Which of these situations should be the responsibility of the police?"

CHAPTER II

THE QUANTIFIABLE DATA:

FACTS ABOUT WHAT POLICE DO

"What police do" has been defined for purposes of this study as the types of problems or situations which police handle. Data about these problems can be summarized in terms of the primary sources of information: police dispatches, officer activity logs, and observations of police activity.

A. STUDIES OF POLICE DISPATCHES

Figure 2 presents nine studies of dispatched calls. (See Appendix B for the original coding and our recoding of these studies.) In addition to his data presented in Figure 2, Wilson reports comparing the distribution of dispatched calls in Syracuse, New York to those in Oakland, California and Albany, New York. Although the workloads relative to total population varied, "...the distribution of messages within the various categories was about the same in all three cities" (Wilson, 1968:19).

Close comparisons are not warranted because of potentially major differences among studies. Researchers have used different methodologies, conducted their research at different times of the year and used initially different categories for coding calls. Further, departments may differ in ways which affect the distribution of incoming calls. The presence of a 911 emergency number system, for example, may encourage more of some types of calls or more of all types of calls. Departments also differ in

FIGURE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF CALLS DISPATCHED BY TYPE: NINE STUDIES

STUDY		TYPES OF CALL						
Author, Year*, Location		Information giving/gathering	Service	Order Maintenance	Law Enforcement	Traffic	Other.	Total**
BERCAL, 1970 (Detroit (1969))	% N	0.0 0	10.0 1,653	34.8 5,753	38.7 6,398	16.5 2,728	0.0 0	100.0 16,532
BERCAL, 1970 St. Louis (1969)	% N	0.0 0	11.7 23,458	27.2 54,535	51.0 102,253	10.1 20,250	0.0 0	100.0 200,496
CUMMING, et.al., 1965 "Metro" (1961)	% N	0.0 0	64.6 198	21.5 66	13.4 41	0.0 0	0.0 0	100.0 305
LILLY, 1978 Newport, Ky. (1976)	% N	20.6 1,111	11.9 643	31.0 1,674	17.2 937	20.5 1,106	0.2 12	100.0 5,384
PATE, et.al., 1976 Kansas City, Mo. (1973)	% N	0.0 0	20.8 8,219	15.5 6,125	44.8 17,701	17.9 7,072	0.9 356	100.0 39,473
SCOTT, 1979 "Multiple Cities" (1977)	% N	6.4 842	17.7 2,336	26.9 3,549	35.2 4,640	12.3 1,621	1.4 180	100.0 13,168
SHEARING, 1974 "Canadian Town" (Unk.)	% N	0.0 0	32.8 93	25.4 72	26.3 75	7.7 22	7.4 22	100.0 284
VANAGUNAS, 1977 Racine (1973)	% N	0.0 --	6.0 --	34.0 --	40.0 --	20.0 --	0.0 --	100.0 --
WILSON, 1968 Syracuse (1966)	% N	22.1 69	37.5 117	30.1 94	10.3 32	0.0 0	0.0 0	100.0 312

*The date following the author's name is the date of publication; the date in parentheses indicates the year in which the data were collected.

**Percentage totals may not equal 100% due to rounding errors.

terms of the types of calls they dispatch to patrol officers, a point illustrated by Figure 3. This means that whether patrol officers appear to handle similar or different numbers of situations in two cities, the numbers in Figure 2 cannot be extended to provide comparisons of the types and numbers of requests for service which citizens in the two cities may be making.

With these important caveats in mind, we note from Figure 2 that the percentage of dispatched calls classified as law enforcement ranges from 10.3 % to 44.8 %. Bercal, Pate, Scott, and Vanagunas all report law enforcement calls as accounting for between 35 % and 45 % of all dispatched calls. The percentage of order maintenance calls ranges from 15 % to 35 %.

These ranges do ~~not~~ seem large given the numerous differences among the studies. Perhaps the safest observation (given the hazards of comparing dissimilar studies) is that in all cases except Bercal (St. Louis) and Pate (Kansas City, Mo.), the combined percentages of service and order maintenance dispatches equal, exceed, or greatly exceed the percentage of law enforcement dispatches.

The problem with studies of dispatched calls is that they seldom provide information about service requests for which dispatches are not made. The Lilly (1978) and Scott (1979) studies summarized in Figure 3 indicate that as many as 50 % of the calls labeled "service" requests may not be dispatched. The fact that a car may not have been dispatched to the scene does not mean that no service was provided by the agency. Reports might be taken by phone, advice or emotional support might be given by the operator, the caller might be transferred to a special unit within the police agency or referred to an organization outside the police department. A recent study of police

FIGURE 3

CALLS DISPATCHED AS A PERCENTAGE OF EACH TYPE OF CALL RECEIVED: FOUR STUDIES

STUDY		TYPE OF CALL						
Author, Year*, Location		Information giving/gathering	Service	Order Maintenance	Law Enforcement	Traffic	Other	Total
CUMMING, et.al., 1965	Z	0.0	83.5	56.4	95.3	0.0	0.0	38.0
"Metro" (1961)	N	0	198	66	41	0	0	305
LILLY, 1978	Z	10.2	49.7	73.8	74.3	47.4	6.3	29.9
Newport, Ky. (1976)	N	1,111	643	1,575	937	1,106	12	5,384
SCOTT, 1979	Z	11.1	50.5	74.4	72.7	63.0	27.0	49.8
"Multiple Cities" (1977)	N	892	2,336	3,549	4,640	1,621	180	13,178
SHEARING, 1974	Z	0.0	90.2	81.8	94.9	85.0	42.0	82.0
"Canadian Town" (Unk.)	N	0	93	72	75	22	21	283

*The date following the author's name is the date of the publication; the date in parentheses indicates the year in which the data were collected.

response strategies (Police Executive Research Forum and Birmingham Police Department, 1981) reports that departments employ several means, in addition to dispatching cars to the scene, of handling calls and that there is a high level of acceptance among citizens for some of these alternatives. Unfortunately, most hard copy (printed) information systems used by police communication centers do not record the methods of handling calls which are not dispatched. A comparative study of means of handling calls requires either observation of communications centers or listening to tapes of police/citizen communications.

Dispatch studies reveal little if anything about those aspects of police work which are responses to work demands which are not transmitted by telephone. Reiss' (1971) finding that dispatched calls occupy only 14 % of patrol time is further evidence of the limited utility of dispatch studies for studying even the patrol function. And, of course, dispatch studies indicate almost nothing about the nature of work done by non-patrol units of the police organization, a point which will be discussed at greater length in Chapter V.

B. ACTIVITY LOG AND OBSERVATION STUDIES OF PATROL ACTIVITIES

In many departments activity logs are kept routinely by patrol officers who are required to record each activity and the amount of time allotted to each. Some researchers have analyzed these; others have requested patrol officers to record activities specifically for research purposes. Still other researchers have used trained observers who ride with patrol officers

to record activities and times.* Any of these methods produces more information about the patrol function than do dispatch studies; they are, however, subject to similar limitations on comparisons. Studies will have been conducted at different times of the year, perhaps in different types of precincts, and will have been done with initially different activity codes which cannot be made totally comparable by recoding. (See Appendix B for the initial coding and our recoding for each study.)

Figure 4 summarizes seven of these studies. With the exception of Galliher (1975), these studies report the percentage of patrol time spent on each type of incident. (The dispatch studies reported the numbers of incidents by type.) As with the dispatch studies, the majority of these studies indicate that patrol officers spend less than 1/3 of the time spent handling situations on incidents which are identifiable as law enforcement related. Such tasks accounted for 7 % of patrol time in a "small town," 12 % in a group of Minnesota cities, 28 % in a "small city," 26 % in Long Beach, California, 28 % in one New York City precinct, 34 % in Ft. Madison, Iowa, and 52 % in another New York City precinct. Across studies, incident specific time spent on service situations ranges from 3 % to 25 %. The range of time devoted to traffic situations is similar. The small or non-existent numbers in several studies for either information related activities or order maintenance activities perhaps may reflect a lack of interest by the initial researcher in these categories or the difficulty of identifying and labeling such activities. Large percentages of time attributed to "other" activities tends to correspond in the studies with

*Cordner (1979) found officer self-reporting methods, as compared to observation methods, to underestimate time spent on non-police activities.

FIGURE 4

DISTRIBUTION OF PATROL TIME OR ACTIVITY* BY CATEGORY OF ACTIVITIES

STUDY		ACTIVITY						
Author, Year**, Location	Information Gathering/ Giving	Service	Order Maintenance	Law Enforcement	Traffic	Other	Total %	Total Time or Activities
GALLIHER, 1975 "Small Town" (1974)	1.0	---	59.0	7.0	25.0	8.0	100.0	837*
KARRAS, 1979 Ft. Madison Iowa (1978)	---	4.99	3.54	34.01	4.64	51.2	100.0	702 hrs.
LIFTER, ALLIVATO, and JONES (1977) "Minnesota Cities" (1977)	0.0	6.3	3.0	12.4	16.0	59.6	100.00	---
O'NEILL and BLOOM, 1972 Long Beach, Ca. (1970)	---	2.8	---	26.4	11.2	60.2	100.0	---
McMANUS, 1976 20th Pct., NYC (1967-68)	---	25.3	18.1	28.05	5.95	20.6	100.0	1,287,535 Min.
SKELLY, 1969 One pct., NYC (1969)	---	21.2	3.3	51.6	---	23.4	100.0	1040 hrs.
WEBSTER, 1970 Baywood (late 1960's)	9.37	13.70	---	17.78	9.20	50.19	100.0	2924 hrs.

*The Galliher reports percentages in terms of the total number of activities; the rest report percentages of time.

**The date following the author's name is the date of publication; the date in parentheses indicates the year in which the data were collected.

little information about the information and order maintenance functions.

The data about how patrol time is actually spent do not, of course, address the question of whether more time would be spent on law enforcement related matters if patrol officers were not involved with other types of tasks. Two studies (Figure 5) suggest that commitment to other responsibilities does not now prevent the police from spending more time on crime related activities. One observational study in a large midwestern city (Kelling et al, 1974) found that 60 % of patrol time was uncommitted to any specific task. Another study of uncommitted time (Cordner, 1978) found that 25 % of uncommitted patrol time was spent in activities unrelated to any police business and only 25 % of it was spent on "mobile police related tasks." Cordner found free patrol time to be divided among patrolling (39 %), taking breaks (39 %), and conducting self-initiated operations and meeting with police personnel (22 %).^{*} Both the Kelling and Cordner studies report very general classes of behavior which reflect the source or motivation for broad categories of activity; they do not depict the time spent on specific types of problems.

^{*}The Reiss (1971), Kelling, et al. (1974), and Cordner (1978) studies were based on the reports of observers who were riding with patrol officers who were assigned to the function of patrolling. We know, however, that at any given time in any agency, there are officers in the patrol division, of patrol rank, who are not performing regular patrol functions. They may be on special assignments (e.g., escorting dignitaries, running errands for superiors, transporting prisoners, guarding prisoners at the hospital, attending court or training sessions, etc.). While observational studies have provided the most complete picture to date of what "patrolling" officers do, they do not provide complete information about what patrol officers do.

FIGURE 5
ANALYSES* OF THE USE OF UNCOMMITTED PATROL TIME

STUDY		ACTIVITY**					
Author, Year,***	Location	Police-Related	Nonpolice-Related	Stationary and Contact Personnel, Police-Related	Residual	% Total Uncommitted Time	% Total Patrol Time
CORDNER, 1978 Lansing (1977)		32.04	34.40	13.50	20.06	100.0	54.7 hrs.
KELLING, <u>et al.</u> , 1974 Kansas City, Mo. (1973)		23.54	25.47	26.01	24.98	100.0	60.31 hrs.

*Both of these were observation studies.

**See Appendix for a listing of the authors' initial categories as related to the categories used in Figure 5.

***The date following the author's name is the date of publication; the date in parentheses indicates the year in which the data were collected.

C. WHAT SERGEANTS AND DETECTIVES DO

In response to a specific interest stated by the National Institute of Justice, we attempted to locate empirical information about the kinds of things police supervisors and detectives do.

1. Sergeants. Regardless how activity is defined, there is almost no available empirical information about the activities of police supervisors. Both Muir (1977) and Rubenstein (1973) discuss the critical role of the sergeant; both indicate that the first-line supervisor is the main source of rewards—both informal and formal—for the patrol officer, and Muir's patrol officers report differences among supervisors in terms of personal style and effectiveness. Van Maanen (1974) suggests that sergeants are a factor in determining how patrol officers spend their "uncommitted" work time, and Manning (1980) describes the significance of supervisors in narcotics units. Perhaps not all supervisors have equally important roles in the organization,* but there is ample argument that the position of the first-line patrol supervisor is (or should be) one of the more essential in the organization.

Given this apparent importance, it is difficult to understand why there has been so little research attention paid to supervisors. Informal contacts indicate that patrol officers may have different responsibilities in different organizations; for example, one agency might require a sergeant to be present whenever an arrest is made while another might require supervisor presence for only certain types of arrest. Some agencies are said to

*Tifft (1970) analyzes the characteristics of the organization unit and the nature of the task as they affect the capacity of the sergeant to be an effective supervisor.

expect sergeants to play a serious and responsible supervisory role; others may expect the sergeant to be essentially a bookkeeper and others may expect the sergeant to be primarily a spokesperson for patrol officers. However, we have found no documentation of the range of supervisory responsibilities, either within or across agencies, nor have we found documentation of supervisory methods.** We have not even found research which examines whether there are differences among supervisors in terms of the behavior of the officers they supervise.

2. Detectives. Only the Rand study (Greenwood, et al., 1975) provides systematic empirical information about the work of general assignment detectives in the U.S. To determine the distribution of detective time across types of crime, they analyzed "call assignment cards" maintained by detectives in Kansas City, Missouri. Figure 6 reports the breakdown of time spent on cases by the various units and Figure 7 reports the number of man-hours of detective work for various crimes and incidents assigned to detectives. Figure 8 reports the distribution of detective time across tasks related to criminal investigation. From these data the authors concluded that the bulk of the work associated with the majority of arrests "...involves post-arrest processing, writing reports, documenting evidence, and the like" (Greenwood, et al., 1975:64). This confirms Reiss's earlier (1971) observation that detectives were more likely to seek

**Trojanovicz (1980) examined the supervisory role by interviewing, observing and administering questionnaires to police officers in all ranks in three midwestern departments. This research, however, provides information about perceptions of the role rather than information about the actual activities associated with the role.

FIGURE 6
BREAKDOWN OF DETECTIVE UNIT TIME SPENT ON CASES

(In percent)

Homicide Unit	
Homicide	51.2
Aggravated assault	26.6
Dead body	7.3
Common assault	6.4
Suicide	1.1
All other	7.4
Robbery Unit	
Robbery	69.9
Homicide	16.9
All other	13.2
Sex Crimes Unit	
Rape	66.9
Felony sex	10.7
All other	22.3
Auto Theft Unit	
Auto theft	85.4
Other auto crimes	8.7
All other	5.9
Residential Burglary and Larceny Unit	
Residential burglary specialist	
Residential burglary	79.2
Miscellaneous burglary	9.0
Larceny	7.9
All other	3.9
Residential burglary and larceny (mixed)	
Residential burglary	40.5
Miscellaneous burglary	6.5
Larceny	39.0
All other	14.0
Commercial Burglary Unit	
Safes specialist	
Safe burglary	29.3
Commercial burglary	15.4
Residential burglary	12.9
Miscellaneous burglary	32.7
Larceny	8.5
All other	1.2
Commercial burglary specialist	
Commercial burglary	27.9
Residential burglary	14.0
Miscellaneous burglary	44.4
All other	13.7
Other detectives in commercial burglary unit	
Burglary	43.0
Larceny	51.4
All other	5.6
General Assignment Unit	
Arson specialist	
Arson	70.2
Bombing	3.9
All other	25.9
Fraud, forgery specialist	
Fraud/embezzlement	25.4
Forgery/counterfeit	45.4
All other	29.2
Fraud, bunco, larceny specialist	
Fraud/embezzlement	39.3
Bunco	10.2
Other larceny	30.7
All other	19.8
Shoplift, pickpocket specialist	
Shoplift	41.5
Other larceny	45.6
All other	12.9

Source: Greenwood, Peter W., Jan M. Chaiken, Joan Petersilia and Linda Prusoff, The Criminal Investigation Process III: OBSERVATIONS AND ANALYSIS. Santa Monica, Calif.: Rand Corporation (1975:54).

FIGURE 7
NUMBER OF MAN-HOURS OF DETECTIVE WORK BY CASE TYPE

Crime Type	All Cases ^a (avg. time)	Uncleared Cases ^a (avg. time)	Cleared Cases			Initial Patrol Arrest (avg. time)
			No Initial Patrol Arrest		Total	
			Avg. Time Before Clear	Avg. Time After Clear		
Crimes against persons	5.4	8.4 ^b	4.6	8.8	13.4	7.9
Homicide	144.6	212.3 ^b	46.2	117.5	163.7	27.3
Aggravated assault	5.9	5.2 ^b	2.4	5.4	7.8	4.7
Common assault	3.6	3.0 ^b	1.6	3.1	4.7	2.8
Rape	20.2	16.3	13.6	15.2	28.8	12.8
Felony sex crimes	7.7	5.8	3.8	6.1	9.9	5.9
Robbery						
Bank	13.2	4.3	10.9	13.1	24.0	4.3
Residence	11.4	10.1	6.3	9.7	16.0	4.3
Taxicab	7.0	4.4	2.6	5.4	8.0	14.9
Concealed weapon	3.6	3.9 ^b	0.0	2.0	2.0	3.5
Commercial	13.2	10.2 ^b	7.3	12.9	20.2	19.0
Purse snatch	5.5	4.1 ^b	1.1	3.9	5.0	7.8
Strongarm	8.3	6.7 ^b	1.7	7.3	9.0	9.3
Outside/street	7.6	5.9	2.3	6.3	8.6	9.3
Miscellaneous	10.2	10.0	2.0	9.3	11.3	9.6
Suicide	5.5					
Dead body	5.2					
Kidnapping	10.0	6.3	3.4	12.6	16.0	(c)
Shootings	7.9	7.5			(c)	8.5
Crimes against property	5.4	4.6 ^b	2.4	5.7	8.1	7.9
Auto theft	4.2	2.9 ^b	1.8	7.3	9.1	6.7
Auto accessories	3.7	2.7 ^b	1.2	3.3	4.5	4.4
Theft from auto	2.9	2.3 ^b	0.7	2.3	3.0	3.4
Other auto	2.3	1.8	0.3	6.1	6.4	(c)
Burglary						
Safe	18.3	18.0	13.7	12.7	26.4	9.7
Residence	6.8	5.4 ^b	2.1	6.6	8.7	7.6
Commercial	9.8	9.4 ^b	3.9	7.4	11.3	8.7
Miscellaneous	10.5	9.4 ^b	3.8	7.0	10.8	12.6
Larceny (all except below)	6.3	4.9	2.9	8.9	11.8	5.0
Larceny bicycle	3.5	2.8 ^b	0.8	3.6	4.4	3.8
Larceny commercial	4.9	2.9	1.9	4.9	6.8	4.9
Crimes assigned to general assignment unit	5.3	4.5	2.6	5.5	8.1	4.3
Destructive acts						
Arson	10.1	10.8 ^b	4.4	5.8	10.2	6.3
Destruction of property	5.3	5.2	2.1	4.8	6.9	4.1
Bomb or threat	4.1	4.4	0.0	3.6	3.6	(c)
Fraud and larceny						
Fraud/embezzlement	6.0	5.0 ^b	2.8	6.0	8.8	5.2
Forgery/counterfeit	6.7	4.5	3.6	6.6	10.2	7.0
Extortion	10.8	9.7			(c)	(c)
Larceny by deceit	9.8	(c)			(c)	(c)
Larceny other	6.2	6.0 ^b	1.3	5.9	7.2	5.8
Bunco	8.3	8.1	3.4	6.7	10.1	4.6
Shoplifting	4.3	4.9 ^b	1.2	4.7	5.9	3.3
Execute warrants	2.7	2.6	0.8	4.5	5.3	2.2
Crimes assigned to youth- women's unit	3.4	3.3 ^b	0.4	3.4	3.8	3.0
Trespassing	3.3	2.9 ^b	0.0	3.3	3.3	3.4
Disorderly conduct	2.7	3.0 ^b	0.0	2.3	2.3	2.9
Incorrigible	2.9	2.7 ^b	0.3	3.4	3.7	2.2
Protective custody	2.5	2.4 ^b	0.4	2.6	3.0	2.0
Possess drugs	5.1	9.4 ^b	0.5	3.9	4.4	3.4
Miscellaneous youth	4.0	4.5 ^b	0.8	3.7	4.5	3.0
Miscellaneous women's	2.9	2.4 ^b	0.3	3.2	3.5	2.4

SOURCE: Kansas City Case Assignment File, cases received during May-November 1973.

NOTE: Uncleared cases account for 40.2% of all detective casework time; cleared crimes account for 12.4% before clearance, 47.4% starting with clearance.

^a Includes only cases on which detectives reported some time worked.

^b Time spent on uncleared cases is significantly higher than time spent prior to clearance on cleared cases with no initial patrol arrest.

^c Insufficient data.

Source: Greenwood, et al. (1975:59)

FIGURE 8

BREAKDOWN OF DETECTIVE ACTIVITIES ON CASES
(Percentage of time on each activity)*

Crime Type	Interrogation	Interview	Arrest	Arraignment	Reports	Surveillance	ATL	Crime Scene	Prosecutor	Court	Administration
Homicide unit	7.5	36.0	1.3	1.4	26.5	4.7	11.5	5.9	0.0	1.7	3.3
Homicide											
No arrest	2.6	35.3	—	—	16.0	5.7	23.0	4.1	—	—	13.2
Arrest	8.5	34.0	0.0	1.4	21.9	7.6	13.1	6.5	0.0	2.9	3.0
Aggravated assault											
No arrest	2.5	47.2	—	—	30.5	2.8	11.6	5.1	—	—	0.0
Arrest	11.9	33.1	3.2	3.5	35.2	1.6	4.6	3.7	0.0	2.4	0.0
Common assault											
No arrest	4.6	46.3	—	—	37.8	5.1	5.1	0.0	—	—	—
Arrest	15.5	29.1	6.0	2.1	37.1	1.1	6.6	1.0	—	1.1	0.0
Dead body	0.0	44.1	—	—	31.5	0.0	3.3	19.4	—	—	0.0
Suicide	—	39.6	—	—	35.5	—	—	24.9	—	—	—
Sex crimes unit	6.7	34.1	1.5	2.2	19.2	0.0	28.1	2.2	1.5	2.1	0.0
Rape											
No arrest	3.1	35.7	—	—	15.6	0.0	41.5	1.9	0.0	—	1.0
Arrest	7.5	31.0	2.2	3.8	20.7	0.0	24.5	2.8	1.8	3.1	1.0
Felony sex crimes											
No arrest	6.8	48.8	—	—	23.3	—	16.7	—	2.1	—	2.1
Arrest	14.9	39.3	3.7	2.0	21.3	2.5	8.9	—	1.2	5.3	0.0
Kidnapping											
No arrest	4.5	42.7	—	—	23.6	—	16.9	12.4	—	—	—
Arrest	4.4	38.5	—	2.2	20.0	—	23.7	2.2	5.2	—	—
Robbery	12.3	31.3	0.0	3.8	27.9	7.2	6.0	4.8	0.0	1.8	0.4
Bank											
No arrest	—	35.7	—	—	14.3	—	14.3	35.7	—	—	—
Arrest	19.0	26.7	—	5.7	35.2	—	1.9	11.4	—	—	—
Residence											
No arrest	4.8	41.6	—	—	26.2	7.1	5.0	14.0	—	—	—
Arrest	11.4	30.1	1.3	7.5	29.0	6.9	6.0	7.5	—	—	—
Taxicab											
No arrest	11.6	22.3	—	—	28.6	7.1	30.4	1.8	—	—	—
Arrest	23.8	31.6	—	6.2	30.1	—	8.3	—	—	—	—
Miscellaneous											
No arrest	2.6	33.8	—	—	22.6	25.2	2.6	12.2	—	—	—
Arrest	17.7	34.9	—	9.0	30.8	—	1.0	3.3	1.3	—	0.0
Concealed weapon											
No arrest	36.4	12.1	—	—	46.4	1.4	—	1.4	—	—	—
Arrest	25.9	15.5	3.4	12.1	43.1	—	—	—	—	—	—
Commercial											
No arrest	3.9	33.3	—	—	23.5	12.8	9.6	16.1	—	—	0.0
Arrest	12.4	26.9	1.6	6.8	26.0	6.0	4.9	8.0	0.0	6.2	0.0

* May not add to 100% due to categories not shown: warrants, subpoenas, extradition.

Source: Greenwood, et al., 1975:50

FIGURE 8, continued

Crime Type	Interrogation	Interview	Arrest	Arraignment	Reports	Surveillance	ATL	Crime Scene	Prosecutor	Court	Administration
Robbery (cont'd.)											
Pursesnatch											
No arrest	29.2	33.3	—	—	29.2	—	8.3	—	—	—	—
Arrest	25.5	34.9	—	3.0	35.3	—	—	—	—	0.0	—
Strongarm											
No arrest	9.2	50.4	—	—	31.8	5.6	7.7	0.0	—	—	—
Arrest	21.6	26.8	2.0	4.9	31.2	2.4	2.6	3.8	—	0.0	2.4
Strongarm-outside											
No arrest	5.7	40.8	—	—	28.3	7.2	12.4	7.1	—	—	—
Arrest	18.9	27.1	1.4	6.4	31.0	4.1	4.3	2.4	0.2	2.8	—
Crimes against property	16.7	28.4	2.0	4.3	24.1	2.5	9.7	7.3	0.6	4.5	0.5
Auto											
Auto theft											
No arrest	4.2	33.9	—	—	26.6	2.3	20.7	9.4	—	—	1.7
Arrest	19.7	15.0	3.1	8.1	27.7	3.0	4.6	3.0	0.9	11.5	0.0
Accessories											
No arrest	7.5	33.7	—	1.6	31.3	—	11.5	6.7	—	4.8	1.2
Arrest	24.2	17.8	2.6	6.0	35.6	0.7	2.4	2.2	—	8.2	—
Other auto											
No arrest	1.3	48.3	—	—	37.8	1.3	3.3	5.0	1.7	—	—
Arrest	7.8	23.5	7.8	11.8	41.2	—	—	7.8	—	—	—
Nonresidential burglary											
Safes											
No arrest	3.8	33.5	—	—	11.1	0.3	32.5	17.6	—	—	1.2
Arrest	15.7	29.3	2.2	5.0	16.3	0.6	20.4	7.2	—	2.5	—
Other commercial											
No arrest	7.8	40.6	—	—	—	1.5	21.8	8.7	0.7	—	0.8
Arrest	21.7	21.5	2.0	9.0	—	0.2	8.7	1.8	0.3	6.4	—
Miscellaneous											
No arrest	10.1	32.7	—	—	18.6	2.7	25.1	9.1	0.4	—	0.3
Arrest	20.3	20.4	2.8	7.5	21.8	3.3	8.2	3.5	0.5	8.8	0.3
Residential burglary and larceny											
Residential burglary											
No arrest	10.6	48.1	—	—	24.0	4.6	7.9	2.9	0.6	—	0.4
Arrest	24.0	25.8	3.7	6.4	27.8	1.1	3.1	1.3	0.8	4.9	0.1
Larceny											
No arrest	6.9	40.4	—	—	23.3	1.0	25.8	0.9	—	—	1.1
Arrest	18.7	24.7	2.0	3.2	26.7	7.2	9.3	0.8	1.5	3.4	0.7
Larceny bicycle											
No arrest	8.7	49.2	—	—	36.8	—	3.7	—	—	—	—
Arrest	27.1	25.9	0.9	1.5	43.6	—	0.5	—	0.5	—	—
Theft from auto											
No arrest	6.3	47.2	—	—	32.7	—	11.3	2.5	—	—	—
Arrest	29.2	21.5	0.9	1.4	40.8	0.9	2.8	—	1.4	—	—

*May not add to 100% due to categories not shown: warrants, subpoenas, extradition.

Source: Greenwood, et al. (1975:59)

the whereabouts of an offender already identified by the public than to seek the identity of an unknown offender. This helies the popular portrayal of detectives as latter-day Sherlock Holmes who spend their time piecing together bits of sometimes esoteric information in an attempt to solve a who-done-it.

Pogrebin (1976) has also noted the substantial amount of detective time given to paper work and observes that report writing, while unglamorous and unpublicized, may determine both the success of a case and the success of a detective's career.

Not all of detective work time is accounted for by the data of Figure 8. Certain types of activities and activities requiring less than a 1/2 hour block of time are not recorded. Based on observations in five cities, Greenwood et al. estimated that activity which could be directly attributable to specific cases accounts for approximately 60 % of a detective's total work time (1975:52).

It should be noted that this study focused primarily on detective work directed toward Part I crimes and does not provide information about the use of time in vice or narcotics units. It should also be pointed out that all studies of investigations with which we are familiar deal only with the investigative work conducted by officers who are formally organized into investigative units. The investigative function in most agencies probably is broader than that which is portrayed by the activities of formally organized units. Agencies differ in the extent to which they formally assign investigative duties to patrol officers, but even in those in which patrol officers are assigned no formal investigative duties, they nevertheless do investigative

work which may either provide the solution to a case or provide the basis for developing the solution. Several authors (e.g., Westley, 1970; Reiss, 1971; Bloch and Bell, 1976; Greenberg, et al., 1975; Pogrebin, 1976 and Glick and Riccio, 1979) have noted the contributions made by patrol officers to investigative efforts. This component of the investigative process remains to be documented and measured.

D. WHAT OTHER POLICE RANKS AND UNITS DO

We found no empirical information about the activities of other police ranks, divisions, or units with the exception of some reports on single units in a single organization which cannot support any generalizations. As noted in Chapter I, empirical data on policing represents primarily the patrol rank and the patrol function.

CHAPTER III

THE QUANTIFIABLE DATA:

BELIEFS ABOUT WHAT POLICE DO OR SHOULD DO

Beliefs about what police do have been defined for this study as including descriptions of, evaluations of, and preferences about the things police do. For both citizens and police officers these types of beliefs have been determined through the use of survey questionnaires.

A. DESCRIPTIONS OF WHAT POLICE DO

These are reports of respondents' beliefs about what police currently do. An answer to the question, "What do you think patrol officers in your city do during an eight-hour shift?" is a description of what the respondent believes the police do.

1. Descriptions by Citizens. We don't know what kinds of things citizens believe the police do. We found no published American studies of what citizens believe police currently do, nor any published findings based on even the limited question, "What percentage of time do patrol officers spend on non-criminal matters?"

2. Descriptions by Police Officers. Most police descriptions of their work come from surveys that ask officers to recall the frequency with which they have performed various types of activities; these surveys are often a part of a task or job analysis. Because many task analyses have been conducted

* The Kansas City Community Survey (Police Foundation, 1972 and 1973a) contains numerous descriptive items and was administered at two points in time. These data have not yet been analyzed.

at substantial cost to local and federal governments, it was decided to produce content analyses and methodological critiques as evaluations of the utility of major examples of this type of research. The resulting evaluation is presented to Appendix E of this report. Generally we concluded that task analyses--as currently constructed--cannot be recommended as an effective means of understanding the nature of police work. Task analyses tend to lack a conceptual framework for analyzing the role with the result that the role is portrayed unevenly. Some aspects of patrol work (e.g., handling of order maintenance situations) are hardly represented at all in some of these studies. The emphasis on crime-related tasks would make it appear that these constitute the bulk of patrol work. The data reported in Chapter II make clear that less than 1/3 of patrol time typically is spent on crime-related situations.

These limitations must be kept in mind when considering the comparative reanalysis of three task analyses*(Figure 10) in which officers were asked to estimate from recall the frequency with which they dealt with various tasks. For this reanalysis, the original coding categories used in each study were translated into the set of common codes developed for this project (Appendices C and D). Figure 9 reports the original rating scales used for each study. Since no two studies used the same scales, there is a unit-of-measurement problem in making cross-study comparisons. The problem was handled for this project by standardization. The mean rating of each item in each study was calculated on whatever scale the authors had used. Then, across items in a study, the overall mean and standard deviation of the mean item scores were calculated. The item means were then standardized to a mean of fifty and a standard deviation of ten.

In general, across studies officers reported they dealt more often with order-related situations than with crimes against persons or property. In

*These studies are described in detail in Appendix E.

FIGURE 9
RATING SCALES UTILIZED IN TASK ANALYSES

STUDY	RATINGS MADE	CATEGORIES OF RATINGS
Glickman, Stephenson and Felker (1976) (national sample of police agencies)	Amount of time spent on task	0 = none 1 = a very small amount of time 2 = a moderate amount of time 3 = a considerable amount of time
Jeanneret and Dubin (1977) (Houston, Texas Police Department)	Time spent on task compared to all other tasks you do	1 = very much below average 2 = below average 3 = slightly below average 4 = about average 5 = slightly above average 6 = above average 7 = very much above average
Lowe, Cook and Rannefeld (1977) (entry level peace officers in Georgia)	How often do you perform this task?	1 = not performed 2 = seldomly performed (yearly) 3 = occasionally performed (monthly) 4 = frequently performed (weekly) 5 = performed daily

FIGURE 10
STANDARDIZED RELATIVE FREQUENCY RATINGS AND PERCENTAGE
OF TIME SPENT BY PROBLEM CATEGORY*

PROBLEM AREA	STUDY		
	Glickman, Stephenson & Felker (1976)	Jeanneret & Dubin (1977)	Lowe, Cook Rannefeld (1977)
No Specific Problem Identified (00)	50 (15)	59 (4)	57 (4)
Crime, Person/Property (01, 02, 03)	37 (2)	47 (6)	47 (6)
Suspicious Cir/Per & Crime Prevent (04, 05, 06, 07, 08, 09)	73 (1)	60 (2)	53 (4)
Evidence (10)	41 (3)	51 (4)	45 (4)
Other Crimes, Non-Predatory/ Performance (27, 28)	----	45 (1)	49 (2)
Ordinance, Licensing (29, 94)	----	52 (1)	65 (1)
Order Related/Hostile Citizens (20, 21, 22, 69)	67 (2)	53 (4)	33 (4)
Disturbing Peace/Disputes (24, 25, 26)	----	54 (1)	58 (2)
Misc. Non-Crime Duties (23, 80, 84)	----	42 (2)	47 (3)
Administrative/Support (85, 91)	65 (12)	44 (26)	50 (8)

*The numbers in parenthesis in the body of the table refer to the percentage of items in an instrument that fell into that problem category.

(Cont'd.)

FIGURE 10 (Cont'd.)
STANDARDIZED RELATIVE FREQUENCY RATINGS AND PERCENTAGE
OF TIME SPENT BY PROBLEM CATEGORY*

PROBLEM AREA	STUDY		
	Glickman, Stephenson & Felker (1976)	Jeanneret & Dubin (1977)	Lowe, Cook Rannefeld (1977)
Community Relations (81, 82, 83)	----	39 (1)	29 (1)
Administration of Legal Procedures (89)	----	40 (1)	44 (3)
Knowledge, Skills/Ability (86, 90)	----	48 (3)	55 (5)
Traffic (40, 41, 42, 43)	57 (3)	55 (10)	54 (13)
Property/Safe Conditions (92, 93)	41 (2)	53 (2)	37 (1)
Suspects/Prisoners Previously Convicted (73, 78)	48 (17)	52 (8)	51 (3)
Victims, Witness, Informants (71, 72, 79)	51 (5)	53 (2)	53 (1)
Other Police Officers (58, 74, 75)	46 (18)	48 (10)	55 (2)
Citizens General/Misc. Persons (60-68)	50 (7)	49 (7)	50 (13)
Other Crim. Just. Actors (76)	49 (2)	45 (2)	46 (3)
Misc. Service Actors (57, 77)	----	40 (1)	32 (1)

*The numbers in parenthesis in the body of the table refer to the percentage of items in an instrument that fell into that problem category.

each study officers reported they handle traffic problems more often than crimes. Although officers think they handle actual crimes infrequently, they reported often dealing with situations involving suspicious circumstances and reported they are frequently involved in crime-prevention tasks.

Beyond this, the three task analyses do not portray patrol work in very similar ways. Figure 11 presents correlations among the studies. The Georgia study (Lowe, et al.) and the Houston study (Jeanneret and Dubin) are the most similar in terms of methodology, number of problem categories covered and types of ratings made. Figure 11 shows the relative frequency ratings for these two studies to correlate at .509 across 21 problem categories. The types of problems that are the most frequent in these two studies are No Specific Problem (includes primarily general patrol type items), Suspicious Persons and Circumstances, Disturbing the Peace/Disputes, and Traffic. The Georgia officers also report spending substantial time on Ordinance/Licensing and Obtaining Knowledge type problems. Problems that appear to be infrequent are Community Relations, Interacting with Service Actors and Other Criminal Justice Actors, and Administration of Legal Procedures. Crime-related problems (both predatory and non-predatory) and Evidence problems receive ratings at or below the mean rating of 50.

Examination of the relative frequency ratings for the Glickman, et al. study reveals substantial differences from the first two studies. The largest correlation between Glickman, et al. and another study is the .303 with Jeanneret and Dubin. One of the problems with comparing the other studies with Glickman, et al. is that there are relatively few problem areas covered in the latter instrument, so that the sample size on which to compute the cross-problem correlation is relatively small. Glickman, et al. finds

FIGURE 11
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN FREQUENCY/TIME SPENT RATINGS
(The Figure in Parentheses is the Number of
Problem Areas Represented by the Correlations.)

	Glickman, Stephenson & Felker (1976)	Jeanneret & Dubin (1977)	Lowe, Cook & Rannefeld (1977)
Glickman, Stephenson and Felker (1976)	----		
Jeanneret & Dubin (1977)	.303 (12)	----	
Lowe, Cook and Rannefeld (1977)	.001 (12)	.509 (21)	----

Crime/Evidence related problems to occur quite infrequently, while Administrative/Support type problems are relatively frequent.*

As a group these task analyses indicate a larger proportion of time spent on crime-related activities than do patrol log or observation studies reviewed in Chapter II. This may be due to the apparent fact that the task analyses questionnaires include many more items about crime-related situations than would seem warranted by the distribution of tasks reported in the dispatch, patrol log and observation studies.

Apart from task analyses, few surveys were located which asked officers to identify the elements of their job or to estimate time spent on various aspects of their work. Denver officers surveyed by Bayley and Mendelsohn (1969) reported

...that not more than 9 % of their contacts with the public resulted in a citation or an arrest (p. 69).

Johnson (1970), reporting on a survey of officers in two departments, notes that a majority of officers agreed that "Police work actually entails 60-90 % non-criminal duties." This perception is consistent with the information presented in Chapter II from patrol log and observation studies.

B. EVALUATIONS OF WHAT POLICE DO

Evaluations are statements of the importance a respondent assigns to a particular police responsibility or task; typically they are elicited by

*We are very reluctant to attempt to interpret differences across the various studies which employed the survey method since we strongly suspect that comparisons are distorted by dissimilarities in item content, by the use of rating scales which may be differentially interpreted and by such structural factors as item length and complexity, the hierarchical structure of items, the use of synonyms and the use of multiple verbs. For an analysis of the effect of these factors, see Susmilch's discussion of task analysis, Appendix E.

questions with formats like, "How important do you consider each of these tasks to be?"

1. Evaluations by Citizens. Two studies reported information about citizens' perceptions of the importance of various functions. One was conducted in 1969 by Green, et al. in Hamilton Township, New Jersey (sample N-103); the other was done in 1978 by Friday and Sonnad in Kalamazoo, Michigan (sample N=518). Figures 12 and 13 reproduce data from the two studies and Figure 14 compares findings for similarly worded items from the two surveys. In each of the tables, the item wording is that used by the original researchers. Although conducted in different size cities in two areas of the country, both studies found that large percentages of respondents considered "dealing with crime," "controlling crowds," and "dealing with juvenile offenders" to be very important. In the one study that asked (Kalamazoo), "preventing crime," and "catching drunk drivers" were also considered very important. In both communities "handling of dogs" and "dealing with family disputes" were the least likely to be rated as very important.

Although these are only two studies, the closeness of ratings between them is worth noting. Further, within each survey there are substantial ranges of importance ratings for various duties. Respondents obviously distinguish among the things police do in terms of the perceived value of the tasks.

Despite this apparent ability of respondents to differentiate among police tasks, we are wary of importance ratings. We believe that we, and other researchers, are unable to know what "important" means to the respondent. Policing goals, generally defined, might include the protection of life; the

FIGURE 12
HAMILTON CITIZENS' RANKINGS
OF IMPORTANCE OF POLICE ACTIVITIES

Rank No.	Activity No.	Police Activity	Total Score	No. of Respondents	
				Rating Activity as Very Important	Indicating Police Should Not be Performing Activity
1	21	Advise, warn or arrest youngsters	475	76	0
2	14	Preserve evidence	465	75	2
3	2	Stop and question	464	70	3
4	8	Arrest	454	69	3
5	9	Good relations in community	450	70	3
6	22	Control crowds	442	71	7
7	6	Search crime scenes	429	66	8
8	4	Interview victims and witnesses	428	62	6
9	3	Issue traffic tickets	412	49	4
10	12	Search and question prisoners	404	55	13
11	26	Make written reports	402	52	10
12	10	Testify	396	58	12
13	7	Inspect places	392	51	10
14	5	First-aid	388	57	14
15	16	Give information	384	53	13
16	15	Mentally disturbed persons	374	52	13
17	24	Drunks and alcoholics	364	38	10
18	19	Rescue lost persons	359	40	11
19	32	Recover property	341	36	14
20	1	Control traffic	306	36	25
21	23	Assist motorists	302	32	19
22	11	Give directions	284	29	17
23	18	Guard visitors, property	268	31	30

SOURCE: Green, R., G. Schaeffer, and J. O. Finckenaue. Survey of Community Expectations of Police Service: A Pilot Study, First Report. Police Training Commission, Department of Law and Public Safety, State of New Jersey, January 1969.

(Cont'd.)

FIGURE 12 (Cont'd.)

Rank No.	Activity No.	Police Activity	Total Score	No. of Respondents	
				Rating Activity as <u>Very Important</u>	Indicating Police <u>Should Not</u> be Performing Activity
24	29	Refer citizens' complaints	260	22	19
25	30	Public nuisances	254	17	19
26	31	Election Day	218	27	45
27	13	Escort parades	210	19	36
28	25	School crossings	205	31	52
29	28	Check business licenses	186	20	55
30	20	Help people who have lost keys	150	11	54
31	17	Family disputes	148	10	56
32	27	Pick up stray dogs	121	14	68

SOURCE: Green, Schaeffer, and Finckenauer (1969).

FIGURE 13
KALAMAZOO CITIZENS' RANKINGS
OF IMPORTANCE OF POLICE ACTIVITIES

	% Very Important	% Somewhat Important	% Not Important	% Job Not Suited for Police	Total Respond- ing
CRIMINAL					
Catching criminal offenders	94.64	4.69	----	.67	448
Preventing crime	91.20	6.50	.45	1.80	444
Catching drug pushers	82.13	13.57	2.26	2.04	442
Protecting people who have been threatened by someone	73.27	23.39	1.9	1.43	419
Dealing with children who break the law	72.27	15.27	1.6	10.71	439
Returning stolen property	53.77	34.43	3.54	8.25	424
Arresting distributors of pornographic material	40.55	29.10	16.17	14.18	402
ORDER					
Investigating accidents	75.33	22.90	.88	.88	454
Catching drunk drivers	74.23	22.91	.89	1.99	454
Controlling traffic and traffic enforcement	63.76	32.43	2.01	1.79	447
Controlling crowds	55.11	32.43	3.63	2.04	441
Using radar to control traffic	32.09	53.85	11.87	2.2	455

SOURCE: Friday, Paul C. and Subhash R. Sonnad. Community Survey of Public Attitudes, Knowledge and Expectations of the Kalamazoo City Police. Kalamazoo: Center for Sociological Research, Western Michigan University, 1978.

(Cont'd.)

FIGURE 13 (Cont'd.)

SERVICE	% Very Important	% Somewhat Important	% Not Important	% Job Not Suited for Police	Total Responding
Educating the public on how to reduce crime	68.64	22.96	1.82	6.59	440
Dealing with drunks	53.12	36.49	3.01	7.39	433
Helping people who are lost or stranded	48.66	40.63	4.02	6.70	448
Helping people who are ill	47.67	28.98	5.14	18.23	428
Dealing with mental patients outside the state hospital	32.53	23.53	5.10	38.84	412
Enforcing housing regulations	28.95	39.53	11.06	20.47	425
Settling family disputes	25.24	40.57	5.19	29.01	424
Dealing with children who won't go to school	20.35	14.89	6.21	58.56	403
Dealing with disputes between landlords and tenants	14.72	30.43	6.74	48.13	401
Handling barking dog complaints	14.56	29.35	20.66	35.45	426

SOURCE: Friday and Subhash (1978).

FIGURE 14

IMPORTANCE RATINGS FOR SIMILAR ITEMS
FROM HAMILTON (H) AND KALAMZAOO (K)

General Category/Specific Item	% Regarding This a "Very Important" Police Function	% Regarding This Function as not One for Police
<u>Animals</u>		
H: Pick up stray dogs	14	68
K: Handling barking dog complaints	15	35
<u>Catching Criminals</u>		
H: Arrest	69	3
K: Catching criminal offenders	95	.7
<u>Crowd Control</u>		
H: Control crowds	71	7
K: Controlling crowds	55	2
<u>Family Disputes</u>		
H: Family disputes	10	56
K: Settling family disputes	25	29
<u>Helping Lost Persons</u>		
H: Rescue lost persons	40	11
K: Helping people who are lost or stranded	49	7
<u>Intoxicated Persons</u>		
H: Drunks and alcoholics	38	10
K: Dealing with drunks	53	7
<u>Juvenile Offenders</u>		
H: Advise, warn or arrest youngsters	76	0
K: Dealing with children who break the law	72	11
<u>Mentally Disturbed Persons</u>		
H: Mentally disturbed persons	52	13
K: Dealing with mental patients outside	33	39
<u>Stolen Property</u>		
H: Recover property	36	14
K: Returning stolen property	54	8
<u>Traffic Control</u>		
H: Control traffic	36	25
K: Controlling traffic and enforcement	64	2

protection of constitutional rights; the protection of property; the apprehension of transgressors against life, rights or property; the maintenance of social order; the reduction of citizen fear; or as Bayley and Mendelsohn (1969) suggest, the defense

...and safeguard (of) citizens from persons who are criminal, thoughtless, or irresponsible (p. 171).

Obviously there are a number of ways of defining the general functions of policing, but there is no way to know which general function the respondent is using as context when evaluating the importance of some more specific function or task. Whether consciously or unconsciously each item has to be considered in terms of "importance for what?" We suspect that the majority of citizens lack a set of contextual categories (functions) for evaluating tasks. We suspect with Bayley and Mendelsohn (1969) that most people give little thought to what the police do or "are for" until they need them. At the time they perceive themselves as "needing" the police, they are likely to perceive the police as existing to handle their need. Given this presumed lack of contemplation about the police function or functions, we further suspect that respondents are likely to evaluate police tasks in terms of the commonly popular image of police as crime fighters or law enforcers. We know of no data against which to check our suspicions. We have seen no survey which asks respondents to open-endedly list the general functions which they think police either should or do perform. Nor have we seen any survey which presents respondents with a list of general functions (e.g., that provided by Goldstein, 1977:35) and asks them to evaluate each in terms of perceived value to self and/or society and in terms of the appropriateness of police attention to each function. We simply have no idea how citizens

conceptualize the police role, and the kinds of surveys we have examined cannot provide that information.

Some researchers discuss their findings as though something has been learned about respondent attitudes toward general functions; they present ratings of "crime" functions versus "order maintenance" or "service" functions, but these are categories of functions which exist in the minds of researchers who read Skolnick (1966) or Banton (1964) or Wilson (1968) or Reiss (1971). Researchers construct items about tasks which they believe to be related to these general functions and then interpret citizen responses as indicating evaluations of the functions. We doubt that most citizens use these function concepts for contexting items.

To know how citizens assess the importance and appropriateness of police tasks or specific functions, we think it would be necessary to present them with items somewhat like the following:

Some people (police? scholars? your neighbors?) believe X (e.g., "the maintenance of public order") to be a responsibility of the local police.

Do you believe X should be a responsibility of the local police?

_____ Yes _____ No

If "yes", how important is it (to you personally? to society?) that police carry out this general responsibility?

Below are several tasks which police might perform in an effort to meet responsibility X. Please indicate which of these tasks you believe the police should perform in attempting to accomplish X.

Task 1 _____
Task 2 _____
Task 3 _____

While we doubt that enough conceptual and empirical work has been done to allow questionnaire writers to very accurately reflect the relationship between tasks and functions (i.e., between means and ends), we believe that even at this stage in our understanding of policing, the proposed format is vastly more informative (and much less misleading) than any we have previously examined.

We agree with Green, et al. (1969) and Friday and Sonnad (1978) that respondents should be asked both whether the police should perform the function and also how important the respondent considers the function to be. We think that any ratings of the importance of functions are inevitably, if unconsciously, relative when the functions being evaluated are presented in one list or one long sequence of questions, all of which ask the same thing. It is quite possible that people could see a task or function as relatively unimportant while still wanting the police to perform that task or function. There is some evidence of this phenomenon in Figures 12 and 13. Because importance and appropriateness (or suitability) are two separate questions, they should be asked as such. "Not suitable for police" should not be the bottom rating on an importance scale; such a structure confounds the issues irreparably.

Independent of popular images of policing (i.e., mythical, misleading, inaccurate representations of the distribution of both demand and response), we believe both citizens and police inevitably assign priorities* to police functions such that those associated with serious crime will always be rated more highly than those which are not. We believe serious crime

* in the sense of deciding which must be accomplished if only one can be chosen.

conjures very real fears of personal injury and that the only other serious requests likely to compete for perceived priority are those involving non-crime situations which pose an immediate threat to life. We suspect this means that "prevention of burglaries" would be given higher priority than "stopping persons from committing massive fraud" or than "handling family disturbances". The thought of being injured by a surprised burglar is far more frightful than the thought of losing the stereo system and television. Appropriately or not, frauds and family disturbances do not provoke the same fears of personal harm as do burglaries.*

The fact that some types of situations may naturally sound more frightening to citizens and therefore be considered more important for police to handle does not necessarily mean that these respondents would be willing to do without the police services which they may rate as of lesser importance than crime-related services. That which is of lesser importance is not necessarily unimportant. In the Kalamazoo study, for example, there is no function which is not considered at least "somewhat important" by at least 35 % of the respondents. Only "handling barking dog complaints" is considered "not important" by at least 20 % of the population. This suggests that importance ratings alone provide no clear mandate for police behavior; public opinion is divided about the importance of even those functions at the bottom of the rankings.

* And most citizens are unlikely to think of a fraud or family assault as happening "to me". Unless the item otherwise specifies, importance ratings probably should always be interpreted in terms of the respondent's self interests. Those things which are unlikely to happen to me may be less likely to be viewed as important by me.

Because of the possible ambiguity of importance ratings, the code "not suited for police" probably provides for sharper definition of the boundaries citizens perceive around the police role. In Kalamazoo there are four functions (i.e., dealing with mental patients, children who won't go to school, landlord-tenant disputes, and barking dogs) which at least 30% of the population reports as "not suited for police." In Hamilton there are eight (See Figure 12). Yet, among these functions are two (i.e., "school crossing" in Hamilton and "mental patients" in Kalamazoo) which at least 30% of the populations views as "very important". These data suggest that these might be politically sensitive functions to remove from the role. The same may be true for any functions for which the percentage of combined importance ratings is greater than the percentage of "not suitable" ratings.

While there is no clear mandate on several of these issues across the entire sample, the mandate may be even less clear, especially in heterogeneous areas, when considered from the perspective of different groups within the community. Friday and Sonnad (1978) found that in Kalamazoo:

Service functions which appear to serve only the poor are not seen as important by the economically secure, self-sufficient segments of the community. Police service functions take on greater importance for the residents who rely on the police to deal with personal and neighborhood problems and who appear to lack alternative resources. (p. 175)

If we are wary of importance ratings, we are very wary of the "very important" rating used in Figures 12, 13, and 14. Differences between surveys may be a function of the length of the importance scales. Several similar items receive more "very important" ratings in Kalamazoo than in Hamilton. This may be because the Hamilton study used the longest scale.

It used 5 importance ratings while the Kalamazoo study used three. The structure of the Hamilton scale probably results in fewer "very important" ratings than that of the Kalamazoo scale. (If so, this makes especially interesting the items for "crowd control" and "mentally disturbed persons" which receive substantially more "very important" ratings in Hamilton than Kalamazoo.) Given the difference in scales, the combination of at least the top two importance ratings probably would provide a more reliable basis for comparison across the studies. Unfortunately, only the Kalamazoo table (Figure 13) allows for this combination using available data.

2. Evaluations by Police Officers. Three task analyses dealt specifically with the importance of various police tasks or functions as perceived by officers. Figure 15 lists the studies* and the rating scales for each. Since no two studies used the same rating scale, there is a unit-of-measurement problem in making cross-study comparisons. To increase comparability the items were standardized. The mean rating for each item in a study was calculated on the scale used by the author. Across items in the study the overall mean and standard deviation of the mean item scores were calculated. The item means were then standardized to a mean of fifty and a standard deviation of ten.

Figure 16 presents the comparison of importance / criticality ratings which were provided for three studies: the Washington cities study (Wollack and Associates, 1977); the Georgia study (Lowe, et al., 1976); and the Houston study (Jeanneret and Dubin, 1977). Items were compared with categories of the substantive problems which the items addressed. (See Appendix C

*The studies are described in detail in Appendix E.

FIGURE 15
IMPORTANCE SCALES USED IN TASK ANALYSES

Study	Ratings Made	Categories of Ratings
1. Wollack and Associates (1977) (sample of Washington cities)	Rate each task on its importance to the job of patrol officer using this scale:	0 = does not apply 1 = little importance 2 = some importance 3 = important 4 = very important 5 = critically important
2. Lowe, Cook and Rannefeld (1977) (entry level peace officers in Georgia)	How important is this task for successful performance of your job?	1 = not performed 2 = not important 3 = some importance 4 = important 5 = very important
3. Jeannert and Dubin (1977) (Houston, Texas Police Department)	If the task is not done correctly, the probable consequences of inadequate performance would be:	1 = minimal 2 = not very serious 3 = fairly serious 4 = serious 5 = very serious 6 = extremely serious 7 = disastrous

FIGURE 16

STANDARDIZED MEANS OF IMPORTANCE RATINGS GIVEN TO PROBLEM CATEGORIES

(Standardized mean of importance rating for problem category
percent of total items in this problem category)

PROBLEM AREA	STUDY		
	Wollack & Associates (1977)	Lowe, Cook & Rannefeld (1976)	Jeanneret & Dubin* (1977)
No Specific Problem Identified (00)**	50(5)	59(4)	54(4)
Crime, Person/Property (01, 02, 03)	56(15)	53(6)	51(6)
Suspicious Cir/Per & Crime Prevent (04, 05, 06, 07, 08, 09)	51(5)	52(4)	49(2)
Evidence	66(2)	55(4)	54(4)
Other Crimes, Non- Predatory/Performance (27, 28)	45(1)	54(2)	52(1)
Ordinance, Licensing (29, 94)	38(1)	49(1)	35(1)
Order Related/Hostile Citizens (20, 21, 22, 69)	52(4)	39(4)	59(4)
Disturbing Peace/ Disputes (24, 25, 26)	47(1)	52(2)	49(2)
Misc. Non-Crime Duties (23, 80, 84)	38(3)	41(3)	45(2)
Aministrative/Support (85, 91)	44(6)	45(8)	44(26)

*The Jeanneret & Dubin study involves data from a sample of 178
sergeants.**The numbers in parentheses next to the verbal descriptors of the
abbreviated problem categorizations refer to the original problem
categorization found in Code Sheet D in Appendix D.

(Cont'd.)

FIGURE 16 - (Cont'd.)

STANDARDIZED MEANS OF IMPORTANCE RATINGS GIVEN TO PROBLEM CATEGORIES

(Standardized mean of importance rating for problem category
percent of total items in this problem category)

PROBLEM AREA	STUDY		
	Wollack & Associates (1977)	Lowe, Cook & Rannefeld (1976)	Jeanneret & Dubin* (1977)
Community Relations (81, 82, 83)	37(1)	26(1)	43(1)
Administration of Legal Procedures (89)	48(2)	49(3)	55(1)
Knowledge, Skills/ Ability (86, 90)	48(1)	59(5)	50(3)
Traffic (40, 41, 42, 43)	47(24)	48(13)	46(10)
Property/Safe Conditions (92, 93)	55(2)	44(1)	54(2)
Suspects/Prisoners Previously Convicted (73, 78)	53(11)	52(3)	53(2)
Victims, Witness, Informants (71, 72, 79)	53(1)	53(1)	49(2)
Other Police Officers (58, 74, 75)	36(1)	56(2)	57(10)
Citizens General/Missing Persons (60-68)	51(9)	50(13)	49(7)
Other Crim. Justice Actors (76)	52(5)	54(3)	47(2)
Misc. Service Actors (57, 77)	52(1)	22(1)	48(1)

*The Jeanneret & Dubin study involves data from a sample of 178
sergeants.**The numbers in parentheses next to the verbal descriptors of the
abbreviated problem categorizations refer to the original problem
categorization found in Code Sheet D in Appendix D.

for discussion of the coding procedure and Appendix D for a copy of the codebook.)

Examination of Figure 16 suggests that there is substantial agreement across the three studies as to problems that are not very important to the job of patrol/entry level officer. The problems that fall into this group of "not very important problems" are: Ordinance and Licensing Problems, Miscellaneous Non-Crime Duties, Administrative and Support Duties, Community Relations Problems, and Traffic Problems. For each of these problem types, every study had a standardized mean importance score of less than 50. For three problem categories, Miscellaneous Non-Crime Duties, Administrative/Support Duties and Community Relations Problems, no standardized mean importance score is greater than 45.

Cross-study agreement on important problems is more difficult to identify. Four problem areas have standardized importance ratings across all three studies of 50 or more. These are: No Specific Problem Identified (most usually refers to generalized patrol), Person and Property Crimes, Evidence Handling, and Victim/Witness/Informant.

In general, cross-study agreement is quite modest with respect to the importance of various problem categorizations. Figure 17 presents the cross-study correlations of importance means over the 21 problem categories in Figure 16. These range from only .212 to a modest .401.

What do the correlations mean? Do officers in Washington State value aspects of the job differently than officers in Georgia and Houston? Have researchers asked about the job in different ways? Does the recoding scheme not really equate item content? It is likely that the answer to all these questions is yes. An examination of similar items across studies

FIGURE 17
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN IMPORTANCE
MEANS ACROSS STUDIES

	<u>R-Importance Means</u>
Wollack and Associates correlated with Lowe, Cook and Rannefeld	.212
Wollack and Associates correlated with Jeanneret and Dubin	.401
Lowe, Cook and Rannefeld correlated with Jeanneret and Dubin	.308

(see Appendix E) suggests that items with similar problem content may contain wording differences which could significantly affect the way in which an officer would evaluate an item.

As part of the evaluation of the San Diego Community Profile Project (Boydston and Sherry, 1975), officers were asked to rate the importance of several police activities. Since the evaluations of the importance of functions did not change significantly over the course of the project for either the experimental or control group, Figure 18 reports the importance ratings for only the final survey conducted in 1974.

The Dallas and Dallas City HRD surveys (Police Foundation, 1973 and 1972a), with identical working, asked about the importance of 24 criteria which might be used as indicators of a "good police officer." The criteria included crime-oriented, service-oriented, and internal evaluation-oriented items. It can be argued that the external criteria which are highly rated are indicative of the importance accorded the corresponding functions.* In both cities, "efficient handling of calls" and "responsive to the needs of his area" were the two criteria which the most officers indicated should be "somewhat more" or "much more important than it is now."** Sixty-nine percent of Dallas officers and

*Admittedly this assumption represents a bit of a conceptual leap, precisely the sort of leap we warn against in interpreting role-relevant items.

**This type of rating scale leaves open the question of whether the respondent is judging the importance of the criteria or the department's current choice of criteria, or both. The item was designed to explore officers' orientations toward certain types of organizational changes.

FIGURE 18
MEAN GROUP RESPONSES AND RANKING OF THE
IMPORTANCE OF POLICE FUNCTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

Functional Categories by Set	Control		(N=23)	Experimental		(N=23)
	\bar{X}_E	Rank Within Function	Overall Rank	\bar{X}_E	Rank Within Function	Overall Rank
ENFORCING THE LAW (Traditional)						
Protecting property	85.7	4	4	91.2	3	4
Keeping streets safe	92.6	1	1	93.3	1	1
Apprehending criminals	88.6	2	2	92.6	2	2
Keeping the peace	87.1	3	5	88.3	4	3
Mean for set	88.5			91.4		
Rank for set	1			1		
PROVIDING SOCIAL SERVICES						
Counseling troubled people	71.9	4	8	81.9	4	10
Helping people solve their problems	75.5	3	7	84.0	3	8
Being the guardian of citizens' rights	81.0	2	6	85.2	2	6
Meeting the public	82.6	1	3	91.9	1	5
Mean for set	77.8			85.8		
Rank for set	2			2		
MAINTAINING SOCIAL ORDER						
Cultivating information	69.8	3	11	61.7	3	11
Controlling militants	75.2	2	10	64.5	2	9
Enforcing moral standards	48.8	4	12	41.9	4	12
Controlling hippies	42.4	5	13	27.1	5	13
Conducting field interrogations	79.8	1	9	79.0	1	7
Mean for set	63.2			54.8		
Rank for set	3			3		

SOURCE: Boydston, John E. and Michael E. Sherry San Diego Community Profile: Final Report. Washington, D.C.:Police Foundation, 1975.

seventy percent of Kansas City officers said efficiency should be "somewhat" or "much more important" while sixty-five percent of Dallas officers and sixty-seven percent of Kansas City officers said responsiveness to area needs should be more important in evaluating officers.

We have the same reservations about importance ratings in officer surveys as in citizen surveys. In many cases there is no way to know the criteria of importance (importance for what? for whom?) that the respondent is using. There is considerable latitude for the officer to think about consequences or importance for the officer's own safety or career, for the case, for the client, for society, for the administration of justice, etc. One can only guess which dimension is most salient to groups of respondents.

3. Evaluations by Police Organizations. Virtually all available information about police perceptions of task importance is derived from surveys of individual officers. But are there organizational views of task importance? Beyond the priorities assigned to calls (which typically reflect the emergency nature of the situation), there is no available information about organizational perceptions of the significance of police functions. It was decided that departmental dispatch coding systems could be examined for indications of organizational perspectives. Given that the majority of incidents which police handle are non-criminal in nature (see Chapter II), it was reasoned that the number, diversity and complexity of non-enforcement situations should result in a coding system which included numerous classifications for those types of situations and that the number of such classifications should be greater than the number

provided for criminal or enforcement conditions. To test this hypothesis, we examined the dispatch coding systems of 55 police departments and grouped the dispatch classifications into a common set of categories. (See Appendix H for the codes for each department.) Thirty-eight of the departments allocate less than 10 percent of their codes to "order maintenance," and only 12 use a larger number of codes for "order maintenance" than for "major crime" calls. Averaging across the 55 agencies, 15 % of all codes are allocated to "major crime" calls, while 8 % are allocated to "order maintenance" calls.

Compared to the nature of calls actually dispatched, many agencies in the sample use dispatch coding schemes that either do not reflect the distribution of calls or do not reflect the variety of non-crime situations. It is not certain whether the small number of classifications for non-crime situations reflects relatively less organizational concern for these types of calls, but it would seem that the paucity of distinctions among non-enforcement calls may indicate to responding officers that the organization perceives no need to communicate more information about them. Whether this, in turn, affects the importance which the officer attributes to the call is an unanswered question.

C. PREFERENCES AS TO WHAT POLICE SHOULD DO

A preference is indicated by a response to a question such as, "Which of these situations should be the responsibility of the police?" The preferences of citizens are measured by the calls for service they place to police departments and by survey responses. Preferences of officers are determined by surveys.

1. Preferences of Citizens. Telephoned requests for service which citizens place to police switchboards can be viewed as statements of what people who call the police* believe police should do. Figure 19 provides summary comparison of five studies of calls for service. As was the case with studies of police dispatches, any comparison of calls for service studies must be viewed cautiously and skeptically since departments may differ substantially in ways which might affect the distribution of calls. Also, researchers have used different methodologies, conducted their research at different times of the year and used different coding systems for categorizing calls. The original codes used in each study have been translated into the common set of codes of Figure 19; the initial codes and their translation are presented in Appendix B.

The "law enforcement" category contains items initially coded in the most similar ways. Across the five studies the percentage of all calls labeled "law enforcement" ranges from 5.4% (Cumming, et al., 1965) to 25% (Reiss, 1971). The tendency is for the percentage of calls labeled "order maintenance" to be greater than the percentage labeled "law enforcement". In three of the five studies the percentage of calls about order maintenance issues is greater than the percentage of law enforcement calls; in all cases

* People who call the police are unlikely to constitute the entire population of a community or even to be a representative sample of it.

FIGURE 19

DISTRIBUTION OF CALLS RECEIVED BY TYPE OF CALL: FIVE STUDIES

STUDY		TYPE OF CALL							Total % Total N	**
Author, Year, * Location		Information giving/gathering	Service	Order Maintenance	Law Enforcement	Traffic	Other.			
CUMMING, et.al., 1965 "Metro" (1961)	%	4.1	29.6	14.6	5.4	0.0	46.3	100.0		
	N	33	237	117	43	0	371	801		
LILLY, 1978 Newport, Ky. (1976)	%	60.0	7.2	11.9	7.1	13.0	1.0	100.0		
	N	10,804	1,293	2,134	1,261	2,332	188	18,012		
REISS, 1971 Chicago (1966)	%	11.0	9.0	35.0	25.0	11.0	9.0	100.0		
	N	679	556	2,166	1,543	679	556	6,172		
SCOTT, 1979 "Multiple Cities" (1977)	%	29.0	18.0	18.0	24.0	9.0	2.0	100.0		
	N	7,551	4,623	4,765	6,379	2,467	633	26,418		
SHEARING, 1974 "Canadian Town" (Unk.)	%	0.0	29.6	25.4	22.7	7.5	14.4	100.0		
	N	0	103	88	79	26	50	346		

*The date following the author's name is the date of publication; the date in parentheses indicates the year in which the data were collected.

**Percentage totals may not equal 100% due to rounding errors.

the combined percentage for "service" and "order maintenance" calls is greater than the percentage of "law enforcement" calls.

It was noted that telephoned requests for service cannot be assumed to provide a representative sample of public preferences about police activities. It should also be pointed out that we do not know the extent to which calls through the police switchboard represent the preferences of persons who ask for police assistance. Although it is assumed that most telephoned requests for service enter the agency through the switchboard, there are other routes as well. A telephoned request, for example, might be made directly to a special unit in the department rather than through the communications center. And not all requests come by telephone; a citizen might speak directly to an officer on the street or to a clerk or supervisor in a station house. Or a request might be made directly to the chief or other department representative during the course of a business luncheon or other community function. The extent to which requests are made through routes other than the switchboard may be a function of the amount of street contact between the police and public, whether the department is physically decentralized, how many internal police department telephone numbers are listed in the public directory, the knowledge of callers as to which units or individuals in the department to contact in reference to particular problems, and the public availability of departmental representatives other than patrol officers. If these factors make it difficult to know what percentage of public requests for service are represented by calls to police operators in any single department, they make comparisons across agencies especially problematic.

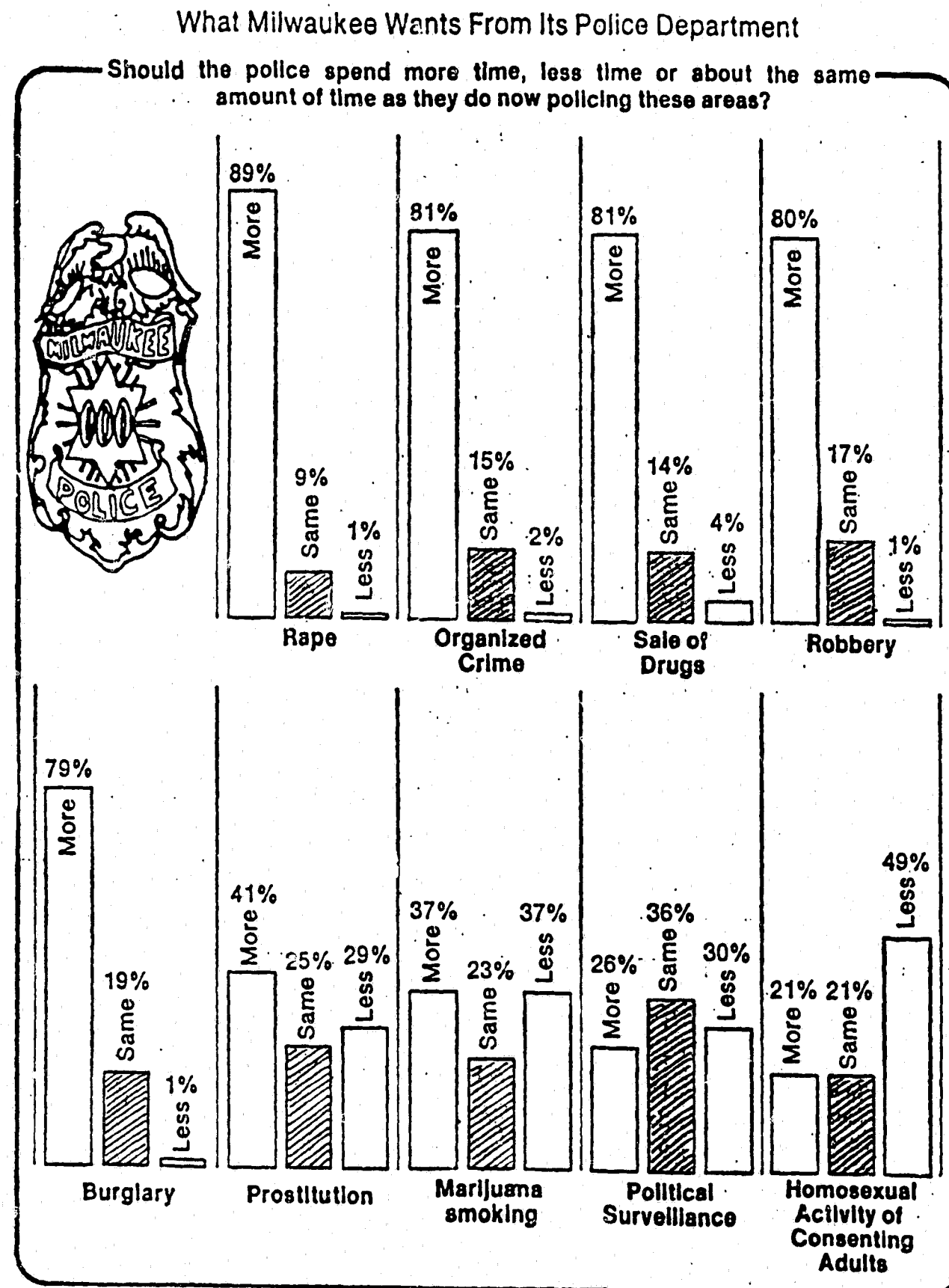
These studies of telephoned requests indicate that people who call the police believe police should handle a number of diverse situations.* They are not the only evidence of the complex expectations of citizens. Attitude surveys find that citizens are divided among themselves about the duties or tasks to which the police should be responsive or should assign high priority.

A random sample survey of 1,004 Milwaukee households (McNally, The Milwaukee Journal, 1978) assessed the perceived appropriateness of police handling nine different problem areas by asking how much time police should spend on each of the problems. Figure 20 reproduces the overall findings for that survey. The mandate is clear for five of the nine areas (i.e., rape, organized crime, sale of drugs, robbery and burglary) but much less clear for four areas (i.e., prostitution, marijuana smoking, political surveillance and homosexual activity of consenting adults). Of the latter four, opinion is clearly divided among the citizens and had we obtained the data set for further analysis, we strongly suspect we would have found distinct "opinion communities" within the total community which would only reinforce what the overall findings already make clear: no matter what police do with respect to these problems, they are likely -- if their activity is noticed -- to lose favor with a substantial minority of the community. If the people indicating "more", "same" and "less" on each of these four items

* This is more apparent from an examination of the initial codes used in some of these studies; the codes are presented in Appendix B.

** Respondents were given no information as to how much time police actually spend on these areas nor where they asked how much time they believed police spend on these problems.

FIGURE 20



Based on a sample of 1,004 Milwaukee households. Figures do not add to 100% because of elimination of those with no opinion.

are not essentially the same persons in each case, the minority to be opposed may be quite substantial.

This survey is the only one of which we are aware which has been conducted by a newspaper. The consequences of this type of research effort are suggested by the newspaper editorial reproduced in Figure 21. The potential impact of the report (unlike the more limited exposure and impact of less publicized research) emphasizes the need for both conceptual and methodological care in the development of such a project.

For their 1977 Police Service study, Ostrom, et al. queried approximately 11,472 respondents about the appropriateness of police delivery of three services. Respondents were sampled from 60 residential neighborhoods in three metropolitan areas. Citizens were asked:

- Do you think your police should use their squad cars to transport seriously sick or injured persons to a doctor or a hospital?
- Do you think that your police should help to quiet family disputes if they get out of hand?
- Do you think your police should handle cases involving public nuisances, such as barking dogs or burning rubbish?

The responses are summarized in Figure 22 in which respondents have been categorized according to the types of neighborhoods in which they live * and according to the size of the police agency serving the neighborhood.

These data indicate that there are differences by neighborhood (as represented by race and income differences) and, to some extent, by

* Our thanks to Roger B. Parks, Associate Director of the Workshop in Political Theory and Policy Analysis for tabulating these data for this report.

FIGURE 21

EDITORIAL, THE MILWAUKEE JOURNAL

September 23, 1978

Policing First Things First

Choice is the law of life for individuals and for bodies politic, and Milwaukeeans appear to have made some sensible choices about the priorities of their Police Department. Now, some of their aldermen seem ready to make some choices, too.

A citywide survey conducted by The Milwaukee Journal as part of its study of the city's police has revealed that most citizens want increased concentration on serious crimes against persons and property. Few citizens, the poll showed, want the police to move more aggressively against marijuana smoking, or the private sexual conduct of consenting adults, or to engage in more surveillance of political activity (the fancy phrase for "spying").

Hard upon these findings came expressions of aldermanic concern about effective deployment of police personnel. Ald. Sandra Hoeh is properly outraged about reports that the police kept watch on the private relationship of two members of the department who are engaged to be married. On the same day she read of that snooper, she was told by a police officer in her district that slowness in responding to a call was due to a shortage of manpower. There was manpower enough, however, to have offi-

cers watch the engaged couple on 27 separate occasions to see if they were "cohabiting."

Ald. Roy Nabors also expressed some concerns about the department's performance. And, to prove that the questioning spirit was not confined to an Inner City district such as Nabors', or to a liberal enclave such as Ald. Hoeh's, that sturdy South Sider, Ald. Robert Anderson, weighed in with some criticisms, too.

The aldermen have promised to ask some hard questions about police priorities when the department's budget of \$65 million comes to the Common Council. We hope they — and others — do.

State law wisely insulates the police from undue political interference. But, surely, the law was never intended to wall off the department from legitimate questioning, by the people's representatives, of its expenditures of the people's money.

FIGURE 22

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS, BY NEIGHBORHOOD AND POLICE
AGENCY TYPE, WHO AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS:

1. Police should use their squad cars to transport seriously sick or injured persons to a doctor or a hospital. (N=11,470; M=81)
2. Police should help to quiet family disputes if they get out of hand. (N=11,281; M=90)
3. Police should handle cases involving public nuisances, such as barking dogs or burning rubbish. (N=11,472; M=77)

Question:	Agencies with 10 to 50 officers			Agencies with 51 to 160 officers			Large County Agencies			Large City Agencies		
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Neighborhood Type												
Poverty	86	93	80	85	95	86	X	X	X	88	91	78
Lower Income Black	X	X	X	X	X	X	84	97	81	90	88	78
Lower Income, Mixed	84	90	80	85	86	81	X	X	X	82	92	77
Lower income, White	84	92	81	79	92	83	75	93	71	82	90	73
Middle Income	71	91	82	76	88	80	73	90	68	71	90	68
Upper Middle Income	74	91	85	85	88	80	70	92	65	X	X	X

SOURCE: Ostrom, Elinor, Roger Parks, and Gordon Whitaker. The Police Services Study. A project funded by the National Institute of Justice and the National Science Foundation, 1977.

city size in terms of the types of services which respondents think police should deliver. For example, persons in poverty and lower income neighborhoods served by any size agency are more likely to believe police should transport sick persons than are persons in middle income areas. In areas served by agencies with more than 51 officers, similar patterns appear for dispute handling and the handling of public nuisances. Race and income differences are especially pronounced in areas served by large county agencies and those served by large city agencies. These differences among respondents indicate that police in heterogeneous communities must deal not with the expectations of the community but with different expectations which are held by different groups within the community. This observation is supported by Bayley and Mendelsohn's study (1969) which found that lower income groups are more likely to call the police about order maintenance issues or to request assistance than are higher income groups. Vanagunas (1977) found that lower income groups are more likely to request almost all types of police service. Citizens want the police to handle many types of situations, but do not necessarily share common beliefs about what these situations should be.

2. Preferences of Police Officers. A few police surveys have included items which ask officers whether particular problems, situations, or requests ought to be acknowledged as part of the police role.

In a study of officer attitudes in 9 small departments in Ohio, Manack (1973)* asked officers to indicate which of six "service situations" were

*The author reports using a mailed questionnaire but does not report a response rate. For this reason the reliability of these findings is open to question.

appropriate to the police role. The responses are reproduced in Figure 23. Clearly, "domestic disturbances" and "cranky old ladies" are accorded less than full approbation.

While most of the surveys examined for this project are non-comparable, two are virtually identical. These are the Dallas and Kansas City, Mo. Human Resource Development (HRD) surveys (Police Foundation, 1973, 1972a), written by the same authors for use in major studies in the two cities. Methodologies differ in that the surveys were administered to different organizations by separate field staffs. The Dallas HRD was administered in 1973 and the Kansas City HRD, in 1974. In both cities officers were asked to indicate extent of agreement with items dealing with "helping people" and "family problem solving". The similarity of responses is striking. Sixty-three percent of Dallas officers and 70% of Kansas City officers strongly or moderately agree that "Helping people with their problems should be an important part of police work". Agreement with the statement increases between 12-17 percentage points as years of experience increase from -1 to 10+. Twenty-one percent of Dallas officers and 17% of Kansas City officers moderately or strongly agree that "family problem solving is not a part of real police work". Agreement in Kansas City increases with years of experience; the pattern is less clear in the Dallas data.

We have no idea why officers in Dallas and Kansas City have more positive attitudes toward "family problem solving"* as part of the role

*We acknowledge the 1973 use of this phrase with chagrin; we would not now write an item which would suggest that police intervention should "solve" the problem.

FIGURE 23

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS IN MANACK
SURVEY INDICATING THE SITUATION
IS APPROPRIATE TO THE POLICE ROLE

Situation	% of Officers Approving
Promiscuous teenager	88
Retarded young adult	80
Neighborhood drunk	80
Worried father	70
Domestic disturbance	59
Cranky old lady	31

SOURCE: Manack, Thomas J. Role Strain of the Small Town Police Officer. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1973.

while Ohio officers seem less accepting of domestic disturbances as proper police work. One could speculate that the difference is related to city size, but it is as likely to be attributable to differential wording of the items.

The data on police preferences are limited but those that are available suggest that police officers take a broad view of the municipal police role, believing that it should be responsive to crime and also open to problems of individual and community welfare.

CHAPTER IV
RELATIONSHIPS AMONG
BELIEFS OF CITIZENS AND OFFICERS
AND FACTS ABOUT POLICING

The fact that this chapter will be only a bit longer than its title illustrates one of the principal conclusions of this project: the available, empirical data permit us to say little about either beliefs or facts about municipal policing in the United States. The data are scant, whether measured in terms of the number and representativeness of the studies or in terms of the extensiveness of their coverage of the police role. The data are not only thin, but sometimes of questionable quality. Even when individual studies are solid, they differ enough so as to make comparison of them hazardous. Having said that, we will save extended discussion of the limitations of available data for the next chapter and will here summarize and compare the findings from the studies which have been reviewed.

A. COMPARISON OF CITIZEN AND OFFICER BELIEFS

In general, when crime-related and non-crime-related functions are listed in the same question, both citizens and officers rate crime functions as more appropriate or more important than non-crime functions. Among non-crime functions, police and citizens give low ratings of importance to similar functions. When Johnson (1970) asked officers which service requests they would choose not to respond to if they had a choice, 90 %

said, "landlord asks you to help collect the rent from tenant;" 31 % said "parents request you to lecture their child;" 26 % said "respond to barking dog complaint." Similar items are near the bottom of citizens' ratings of importance of police functions (Figures 12-14).

There may be less agreement among citizens and police on the issue of family disputes. The importance ratings in Figures 12-14 show family disputes to be near the bottom of each list of rankings made by citizens. In the Hamilton study (Figure 12), 56 % of the respondents indicated that family disputes constituted a job which was not suitable for the police. However, in the Ostrom, et al. data addressing this issue (Figure 22), the smallest percentage of respondents across communities who supported police handling of family disputes was 88 %. The additional phrase, "when they get out of hand" in the Ostrom, et al. item may account for the apparently larger amount of support indicated for this function by their respondents.

Police do not appear to dismiss the importance or appropriateness of handling family disputes. Figure 16 shows that 13 of 21 problem areas were rated more important than "disturbing peace/disputes" in the Wollack and Associates study, but only 8 of 21 were rated more important in the Lowe, et al. study and 10 were more important in the Jeanneret and Dubin study.* Only 7 % of the Johnson (1970) respondents indicated they would choose not to respond to a "family argument;" 59 % of the Manack respondents (Figure 23) said a "domestic disturbance" situation was appropriate to the police role. Only 21 % of Dallas and 17 % of Kansas City officers moderately or strongly agreed that "family problem solving is not real police work."**

* As discussed in Chapter III and Appendix E, these studies contain an over-abundance of crime-related items.

** In Dallas sergeants in both patrol and detective divisions were even more likely than patrol rank officers to indicate moderate or strong disagreement with this statement.

Project STAR (Smith, 1972) was the one study we reviewed in which both citizens and police were asked several identical questions about police activity. Six hundred twenty-seven officers and 811 citizens in California were asked to indicate both the desirability and the probability of several behavioral or situational conditions. Most of these represent styles of performance, but three can be interpreted as dealing with the kinds of situations police handle. Officer and citizen ratings for these items are reproduced in Figure 24. It is apparent for these three items as well as for the others which are not reprinted here that citizen/officer agreement is very close.

Analyses of police and citizen definitions of actual situations or problems provide another means of comparing police and citizen attitudes about the kinds of things that are appropriately police business. There are several points in the processing of citizen requests for service at which the initial definition of the incident by the citizen may be evaluated and either reproduced or modified by the police agency with the consequence that citizen and police definitions potentially may be quite different.

The person in the police organization who initially hears the request--the telephone operator, the desk clerk, the officer on the street, the officer answering a direct call to a special unit--makes the first decision as to whether the call will be defined as police business. The operator or dispatcher may assign the call a code number or label which is meant to convey to the responding officer, as succinctly as possible, a general sense of what the call is about. Organizations vary in the way they label similar types of calls and individual operators vary as well. Skolnick (1966)

* Because it is impossible in the STAR items to separate attitudes toward situations from attitudes toward police responses to the situations, STAR was not summarized with the other task analyses reviewed for this project. Appendix F provides a separate discussion of it.

FIGURE 24

CALIFORNIA OFFICER AND CITIZEN RATINGS OF THE
DESIRABILITY AND PROBABILITY OF POLICE FUNCTIONS

ITEM	MEAN* RATING			
	Desirability		Probability	
	Officers	Citizens	Officers	Citizens
In the normal performance of their duties, police officers are capable of recognizing and handling persons with emotional disorders.	4.43	4.09	3.43	3.22
When responding to a request for assistance related to a family disturbance, police officers help resolve the problem in a way that will strengthen rather than weaken the family.	4.40	4.29	3.28	3.41
When participating in community relations and education programs police officers view these activities as an essential part of their job.	4.29	4.10	3.22	3.57

*Mean: average rating on five-point scales on which very desirable and very probable = 5 and very undesirable and very improbable = 1.

SOURCE: Smith, Charles P. Public Opinion of Criminal Justice in California. California Department of Justice Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, 1972.

Smith, Charles P. Survey of Role Perceptions for Operational Criminal Justice Personnel: Data Summary. California Department of Justice Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training, 1972.

noted the difference in the ways a rape reported by a prostitute was labeled in "Eastville" and "Westville." This initial coding is important to subsequent handling of the call. Pepinsky (1976) found that the label communicated to the officer by the dispatcher was a major determinant of whether the responding patrol officer reported a criminal incident as having occurred. In agencies which assign temporal priorities to various classes of calls, this coding process defines the importance of the call.

The responding officer also has an opportunity to determine the priority of calls* and to determine the label, if any, to be given the incident or situation when it is officially recorded. Next, the supervisor reviewing the patrol officer's report might change the label of the incident if the report did not contain the legal elements of an offense of the type named by the officer. Finally, modifications might also be made by report review units. Crimes may be given a different label or may be "unfounded" in which case a determination is made that the alleged incident never occurred (e.g., someone might report a lawn mower as stolen only to recall later that it had been loaned to a neighbor).

The result of organizational discretion in defining situations in combination with the fact that citizens may report a situation inaccurately,**

*The freedom the officer has to determine priority depends in part on the manner in which the officer is supervised and on the technology of the dispatch system. Computer aided dispatching does not allow calls to "stack" on an individual officer who can then decide which to handle first.

**Some citizens are suspected of being less reliable complainants than others. In one city where we have conducted research, crime allegations made by intoxicated persons are not even entered into the departments official "crime reported" record until detectives have investigated and verified the claim. This is a change of practice which has affected that agency's pattern of reported crimes.

(or perhaps do not know the correct terminology to use in reporting it),* is that the distribution of types of calls as they are recorded by the dispatcher or as they are reported after the fact by patrol officers differs markedly from the distributions which are derived from coding incoming calls.

Reiss, for example, compared citizen and police definitions of events during a 28-day period in April, 1966 in Chicago and found that:

Citizens defined 58 percent of all their complaints as criminal matters. The police department dispatched a patrol car in response to almost all these request accounting for 84 percent of all dispatches to the patrol. Yet, during the April reporting period, the patrol division officially processed only 17 percent of all dispatches as criminal incidents. (1971:73).

Similarly, Parnas (1967 estimated that 17 percent of all citizen requests for service result in the police defining the situation as one involving crime. Sparks (1977) found that in London as many as two-thirds of the incidents reported as crimes by the citizen who called finally were not recorded as crimes by the responding officer. Other English researchers have found that the number of recorded crimes which later are written off as "no crimes" ranges between 1% and 11% (Lambert, 1970; Coleman and Bottomley, 1976; McCabe and Sutcliffe, 1978; CIPFA, 1978).

Although there are these indicators of differences between citizen and police definitions of incidents, we do not yet know the extent to which,

* Apparently it is not only citizens who have trouble determining whether a crime has taken place. In a study of the interpretations a group of lawyers and police detectives made of citizens' allegations, Ennis (1967) found they agreed little more than 1/2 the time as to whether the allegations were actually descriptive of offenses.

or the conditions under which, the differences occur,* nor do we know the consequences for the delivery of police service.

B. COMPARISON OF FACTS AND BELIEFS

The limited, available data do not reveal dramatic disparities between what the police actually do, what police believe they do (there was no information about what citizens believe police do), and what citizens and police think the police should do. In reality the role of municipal police is diverse. Police officers describe it that way, and both police and citizens seem to believe that is the way the role should be. In task analysis studies, police officers do tend to overestimate the amount of time they spend on crime-related activities as compared to the amount recorded in activity log and observation studies. But this may be as much the result of the way in which these data collection forms are constructed as of the perceptions of the officers.

It is also apparent that both citizen and police respondents assign levels of importance to crime-related tasks which may seem disproportionate to the frequency with which these tasks are performed. It is very difficult to know, however, what an appropriate relationship between frequency and importance might be. The officer who saves a life may perform the most important act of her or his career; that there may be only one such occasion in a career makes the act no less important than if it occurred weekly. At the same time, that this is the officer's most important act does not mean that other acts are unimportant or that they should be

* Elinor Ostrom and Eric Scott (1980) currently are conducting a study of the processing of calls for service which will provide information about these issues.

eliminated from the officer's set of responsibilities. So it may be with crime-related police tasks.

There is broad popular consensus concerning the legitimacy of crime-related activities as part of the police role. Further, "crime" is potentially symbolic of personal threat and community deterioration. It should not be surprising, then, that crime-related activities are rated as the most important police tasks. But this does not necessarily mean that these should be the most time-consuming police tasks or that others are insignificant. It could be a mistake to assume that those tasks which citizens and police might rate as the least important relative to crime-related tasks are ones which respondents feel should be excluded from the municipal police role. Few studies have been done which ask either citizens or police which of the current police tasks could or should be removed from the role, and the format of most studies does not permit these types of conclusions to be drawn from the data.

While it can be said that existing data do not show either citizens or police to be unrealistic or unreasonable in their views of the police, it must also be said that existing data actually provide only glimpses of the factual nature of the police role and of police and citizen perceptions of the role. It should be noted again that data are few and fragmentary and largely non-comparable because of differences in item content or context, scale construction, populations and methods of survey administration.

CHAPTER V

LIMITATIONS OF THE AVAILABLE DATA AND PROPOSALS FOR ITS IMPROVEMENT

As we have attempted to summarize and compare existing empirical research about policing tasks and about citizen and police attitudes toward those tasks, we have repeatedly pointed to limitations of these bodies of data. This chapter provides a review and expanded discussion of those points and suggests means of improving information about tasks and attitudes which may be collected in the future. It is important to improve these types of data for the sake of developing particular kinds of information about policing, but we conclude that even if studies of police activities and of police and citizen beliefs were conducted in ways and numbers sufficient to overcome the limitations that are identified, they still could not provide a basis for the formulation of policy about the municipal police role. There are other types of information which are essential to deliberations about the role and these are the subject of the following chapter.

A. LIMITATIONS OF AVAILABLE DATA

Existing data are constrained in the following ways:

1. Studies are too few in number and insufficiently representative of the variety of communities and police organizations to be able to yield a comprehensive picture of the tasks of municipal policing in America or of the attitudes toward the tasks.
2. Studies are not sufficiently comparable to permit reliable comparisons across the police organizations which have been studied.
3. Studies rely on currently popular conceptualizations of policing and police tasks which do not provide a basis for analyzing the entirety of the police role, even within individual communities.

1. Insufficiency of Numbers and Representativeness of Studies. We reviewed approximately 50 studies of either attitude or task measurement. Twenty-six of these were attitude surveys; nine were task analyses and the rest were studies of calls for service or police dispatches. No doubt one could identify more studies of each of these types; we selected among the ones we could locate which met the methodological criteria we imposed. But it is very unlikely that a greater number of studies would correct the imbalances of the ones reviewed for this report. They are not a sample of sizes and types of communities; there are not enough studies across types of communities to allow analyses which would indicate what tasks or attitudes are more characteristic of particular kinds of communities. One cannot answer, from available empirical data, even the simple questions such as whether police are expected to do different kinds of things in small communities than large communities, or more interesting questions such as whether the police task is more complex in heterogeneous than homogeneous communities or different in one neighborhood than another.

Understandably, studies have been done in communities which are available to researchers or in departments which had need to commission particular types of research. It is no fault of individual studies that they have not been conducted in enough different locations to allow us to use them to answer questions about the police role across communities; to identify non-representativeness as a limitation of the studies is merely to note a characteristic of a body of literature of which each individual study unintentionally became a part.

The number of relevant items within individual studies also creates a limitation. This is especially true of attitude surveys in which it was common to find only three or four items which had anything to do with the kinds of things police are believed to do or the kinds of things people believe police should do. In fact, we found no items in U.S. surveys which asked civilian respondents to describe what police do. We can only continue to assume that people think the police do the things they are portrayed as doing in popular television series; there are no data which provide objective indicators of beliefs, except studies of calls for service which suggest that people who call the police probably believe the police normally do the kinds of things the caller is requesting them to do. If these data are accepted as indicators, we know the public (or whatever portion of it is represented by the callers) believe the police do a very wide variety of things, a majority of which have no apparent relationship to criminal incidents.

2. Incomparability of Items. Throughout this report we have cautioned against making close comparisons of even those studies which presented data about the same general topic. With the exception of the officer surveys

conducted in Dallas and Kansas City by the Police Foundation, the studies reviewed do not contain items which are worded in identical ways. There is evidence that even slight difference in wording can affect responses to items. Differences in response categories can also produce different findings across studies, as can the way in which questions or items are contexted or grouped within surveys. (These points are discussed and illustrated in Appendix E.) And, of course, differences in research methodologies can account for some portion of the differences among findings across studies.

The coding categories which were developed to increase the comparability of studies for our purpose of reanalysis can give the false impression of greater initial comparability among studies (especially calls for service and dispatch studies) than is the case. Examination of Appendix B shows the substantial differences among the coding categories employed by the initial researchers; some of these differences reflect different ways in which departments code calls and some reflect that as well as the different choices made by the researchers. With so much discretion in the initial, secondary, and perhaps even tertiary coding of calls or dispatches, it is impossible to know whether apparent differences reflect differences in the types of things patrol officers do or reflect only the differences in the coding schemes.

The research focus of the original researchers also shapes findings. Vanagunas (1977), for example, was particularly interested in the non-crime calls which police receive and so provided much more detail about these kinds of calls than about crime-related calls. Many of the task analyses, on the other hand, gave more emphasis to crime-related activities than would appear warranted by studies of calls and dispatches and observation

studies of patrol officer activities. These different interests or emphases result in greater information about some types of police activities than others and may give the impression that departments differ in the distribution of the activities when, in fact, only the number and structure of the items in the survey instrument may differ.

Again, these comments on the incomparability of items do not, for the most part, reflect on individual studies which may have been adequately constructed and administered, given the purposes for which they were designed. The point is that the differences among studies make it undesirable, if not impossible, to reanalyze them as a group in order to develop reliable and generalizable information about the police role.

3. Inadequacies of Popular Conceptualizations. From the perspective of knowing about what police do and about attitudes toward what police do, we believe the conceptualizations of both "police" and the tasks they perform to be inadequate. In all the studies we reviewed (except those specifically about detectives), "police" are conceptualized as patrol officers or they are not defined at all, leaving one to deduce from the content of the item that the intent was to measure perceptions of patrol functions.

a. Defining the Police. Patrol officers do not account for all municipal police officers and the work they do does not represent the entirety of police work. This is probably more true the larger the organization since larger departments may tend to have more specialized units to handle the review and filing of reports, operations planning, special programs involving police and citizens, youth problems, the collection and evaluation of

evidence, the recording and reporting of crime statistics, operations planning, training, liaison with other police organizations, etc. All of this is "police work" but in many organizations very little of it is done by patrol officers working in patrol units.

Not only does the focus on patrol ignore significant numbers of police, but with its emphasis on individual attitudes and behavior, it precludes seeing the police organization as an actor.

Unless the police "actor" is the department, comparisons across departments are particularly precarious. If a small department provides most services through the patrol division while a larger department provides several of the same services through specialized units, comparison of the two departments in terms of the work of the patrol divisions would lead to the erroneous conclusion that the smaller department provides more types of service than does the larger department. It is also possible that two different departments will respond to the same type of community problem or call for service in different ways. One might, for example, respond to a report of non-injury automobile accident by dispatching a patrol car to the scene while the other might take the accident report over the telephone. Examining only the activities of patrol units in the two departments would mask the second organization's response.

Whether "the police" are viewed as the aggregate of patrol officers in the organization, the aggregate of all officers in the organization, or as the organization itself, will determine what it is the police will be perceived as doing. Any one of these perspectives may be appropriate for a particular study, but it is important to make clear which perspective is being used. Unspecified use of the concept "the police" risks the over-generalization of findings. Failure to conceptualize the police actor as

the department leaves the interpretation of organizational comparisons open to numerous questions.

b. Defining What Police Do. An issue closely related to that of describing "the police" is that of defining the work they do. If "the job" of "police work" is defined in terms of the work done by individual patrol officers, much of what police organizations do is overlooked. Goal setting and planning means to accomplish the goals, for example, are critical to the success of the police mission, however the latter may be defined in a community. Neither goal-setting, planning, nor any of the work done by other parts of the organization is likely to be measured as part of the police job when the job is viewed in terms of only patrol work.

Attempting to understand police work through the patrol function produces a limited perspective on the types of things which perhaps already are, or might appropriately be proposed to be, functions of the police organization. The work of individual patrol officers consists largely of individual responses to individual problems of individual citizens, so police work tends to be defined in terms of the problems of individuals rather than in terms of problems of groups or of the community. Although individual problems may be indicative of communitywide problems (e.g., the fear of an individual citizen may indicate a lack of civility on the streets), a response to the individual's problem may be quite different from a response to the general problem of public incivility. Encouraging people to move defensively in the streets, to mark their property and lock their doors, will not solve the problems of unacceptable, frightening street behavior. Responding to incivility of disorder on the streets may in fact be (or perhaps should be) an important part of police work, but it may not

be evident in the response of patrol officers to individual problems or situations.

Goldstein (1979) has suggested that the role of the police might be better understood in terms of the nature of underlying problems than in terms of individual incidents. Further, police responses are more likely to be effective if based on an analysis of problems rather than simply on a tabulation of similarly labeled incidents. One incident may be only a piece of a larger problem, and the label assigned to the incident may not correspond to an appropriate label or description of the more general problem. For example, a burglary at 407 Greenlake may be one instance of a burglary problem involving several break-ins during afternoon hours in one particular neighborhood. However, the burglaries at Greenlake and the other neighborhood residences may have more characteristics in common with an arson, a vandalism and a disturbance call in the same neighborhood than with other incidents of burglary in other parts of town. The underlying problem in the Greenlake neighborhood--and the one around which a police response should be planned--might be a group of youths who are unsupervised during after school hours. The police might behave in a way so as to satisfy the citizen burglarized at 407 Greenlake, but if they do not recognize and respond to the underlying problem, they could be judged as ineffective on a different dimension of evaluation.

However useful this problem-focused orientation might be, the conceptual categories which have been developed to describe the types of things police do discourage thinking in terms of causes or underlying problems. Because police research has concentrated on patrol officers, police work typically is described using the labels assigned to the types of incidents to which

patrol officers respond. Reflecting several of the studies reviewed for this project, we spoke in Chapters II and III of patrol duties as including law enforcement, order maintenance, service to citizens, management of traffic and "other" responsibilities. These have been the types of terms used since the 1960's when the first empirical research was done on the types of calls for service police receive. The terms were adequate to produce a broad understanding of the types of incidents police handle and to demonstrate that much of what patrol officers are asked to do is not directly related to law enforcement. The categories, however, are much too general and imprecise to serve further purpose. Although commonly used by researchers, the terms are not defined in the police literature; comparison of calls for service across departments, for example, use terms that may or may not have commonly understood meanings.

The broad labels necessarily mask the nature of the incidents they cluster, and they ignore that many incidents involve elements of several general functions. Apprehending a robbery suspect may seem clearly to be a law enforcement task, but if it involves a high speed chase, for example, it will include traffic control, maintaining order in the crowd that may gather at the climax, and giving aid to anyone who is injured in the situation.

As indicated previously, the labels do not draw attention to underlying causes. Nor do they suggest the responses police may make to incidents, and it may be as important to understand police work in terms of the actions police take as to understand it in terms of the general nature of incidents prompting the responses. We know, for example, that "law enforcement" incidents are not always dealt with by using legal responses while police sometimes resort to the enforcement of laws to

maintain order. The label for the incident, therefore, is not a clear indicator of the type of action which may be taken in response. A different set of categories is needed in order to communicate about what police do in terms of the actions they take.

Reliance on general labels of incidents not only makes comparative research difficult but also limits the ability of the police agency to plan and train for the delivery of police services which fit the real needs of a situation. Without coding systems that reflect more accurately the range of situations and the nature of the required responses, neither researchers nor practitioners will develop a complete and useful understanding of what police do.

Nor will the public, and this is an important issue in an era when community participation in policy-making is increasingly advocated. Researchers who phrase the survey questions that may be used in determining public attitudes toward police service bear a responsibility to ask questions in ways that clearly portray the police work citizens are being asked to describe or evaluate. Continued use of general labels to describe situations police handle will produce data which defy interpretation because of the ambiguity of both questions and responses. A case in point is the commonly asked question about whether police should handle "domestic disturbances." A researcher who has ridden with police or read incident reports may know that "domestic disturbance" is a tidy, short euphemism for a wide variety of situations, some of which can be mean, ugly, and disruptive of a neighborhood, if not potentially or actually deadly. A majority of respondents probably have no knowledge of these types of situations. They know it isn't reasonable to call the police about the occasional shouting match which might occur in their own households. They know little about the frequency

or severity of incidents in which one family member, drunk or otherwise deranged and with access to a weapon, screams threats and/or directs attacks at another for some real or imagined transgression. To ask people with such backgrounds whether police should handle "domestic disturbances" may be seriously misleading in that it may virtually guarantee a large percentage of negative responses.* A more valid portrayal of the situation might read as follows:

Assume that you live in an apartment complex in which you can sometimes hear your neighbors in adjoining apartments, and you one night hear a couple having a loud and apparently very angry fight. You can tell that one party fears for his or her personal safety. You think you hear blows followed by more screams.

Would you want to call the police?
Do you think they should come to the apartment?

Or:

Assume another fight in the same building. It continues off and on for hours. It's quite late. You cannot sleep. Neither you nor the apartment manager have been able to convince the couple to reduce the level of noise. You're angry and exhausted and facing a long day at work.

Would you want to call the police?
Do you think they should come to the apartment?

And, in place of asking whether police should deal with "mentally disturbed" persons, the following:

An unknown middle-aged man enters a small lunch room and loudly demands

* In Chapter IV it was noted that police respondents are more likely to say that police should handle domestic disturbances than are citizen respondents. Perhaps this is because police are aware of the real nature of such incidents while many citizens are not.

service. He is angry with the waitress who appears to do nothing improper. When the food is brought, he flings it onto the floor and glares hostilely at employees and customers who begin to leave the restaurant. As the manager, you are angry and also rather afraid because you have no idea what the behavior means or portends.

Would you want to call the police?
Do you think they should come?

Researchers could simultaneously educate the public and gain a more accurate understanding of citizen attitudes about police work if they would portray real incidents rather than mask them with deceptively general and uninformative phrases. It would mean, of course, longer and more expensive surveys, but the resulting information would be more useful.

Similarly, the work to develop more detailed and illustrative classifications of the types of situations and problems police are expected to handle and of the types of responses they make will be time consuming. One of the reasons conceptual categories may not have been given greater attention is the fact that they typically are thought of as a means to accomplish a research project. Under pressure to get on with more interesting or important aspects of the project, the researcher makes use of the concepts at hand. Further, the use of concepts employed in prior projects can serve to contribute to the accumulation of knowledge--unless overly general categories are used to the extent that they conceal differences which should be explored. The exploration of new types of

concepts should probably be undertaken (and supported) as a separate project so that full attention will be given to the issue, independent of pressure to use the concepts in the collection and analysis of data for publication.

B. IMPROVING THE DATA ABOUT WHAT POLICE DO AND ABOUT CITIZEN AND POLICE ATTITUDES

These types of data could be improved by the:

1. formulation of a perspective of the police organization as actor;
2. delineation of the set of significant actors (individuals and institutions) that interact with the police organization;
3. creation of conceptual task groupings more representative of the actual situations and problems to which both individual officers and the police organization respond;
4. creation of conceptual categories for types of responses police officers and police organizations make; and
5. development of questionnaire formats and survey items that provide more valid and reliable means of measuring respondents' perceptions of the police.

1. Formulation of a Perspective of the Police Organization as Actor.

Examination of the work of only the patrol division overlooks work done by other divisions and other levels of the organization. If the responses of two departments to a similar situation are compared in terms of patrol activity concerning the situation, one might mistakenly conclude that one department did not respond to the situation at all simply because its response was made through a specialized unit rather than through the patrol division. (This is one reason why police dispatch data do not provide a good basis for comparative studies.) To know what "the police" are doing about "X," one needs to ask what the department is doing about "X." This is the advantage of the problem focused perspective (Goldstein, 1979) which begins with a particular problem and analyzes all of the types of responses being made by any part of the organization.

2. Delineation of the Set of Significant Actors. If one begins with a specific problem, it is possible to determine the various responses the organization makes to it. But what if the issue is to determine the entire range of problems with which the department deals? Calls to the police switchboard define only some unknown portion of those problems; others are identified by persons or groups who interact with special units in the department or with high level command personnel. Still others are identified by the department itself. One way to begin to map the range of problems is to attempt to identify the persons or groups who interact with the police and then to identify the types of requests they make of the police. Analysis of available data about police activities indicates that these actors or "counter positions" represent a mixture of occupational positions (e.g., judge,

prosecutor), ascribed positions (e.g., juveniles, minorities) and achieved positions (e.g., victims, suspects). (For the list, see Appendix E, p. 54.) These counter positions are the ones patrol officers report dealing with; we have no systematic information about the counter positions which share the interactions of other members of the organization. An observation study would be the best means of assuring a complete list of the counter positions of patrol officers and of members of special units. Supervisors and commanders could be asked to keep a list of all the persons with whom they had professional contact, including telephone conversations, for a specified period of time. Representatives of the counter positions could be interviewed to determine what services they needed and/or wanted from the police. This approach would establish a much more thorough understanding of the kinds of issues the police, as an organization, must deal with than can be established through analysis of calls for service or dispatches or from observations of patrol officers.

3. Creation of Conceptual Categories for Situations and Problems.

The categories now commonly in use to describe the types of situations or problems police are asked to handle are too general to provide more than a vague definition of the nature of the circumstances, and they can give no information about underlying causes. Whether for the purpose of organizing a department and training personnel to handle particular problems, or for the purpose of conducting comparative research, conceptual categories should be created which reflect significant properties of a situation. For example, an assault involving two unacquainted persons of different races is quite different from one involving two members of the same family in terms of the possible implications for the community. The initial police response

to either may be the same in that it will be necessary to stop the violence, tend to any injuries, and collect the names of witnesses. Beyond that, the first may require more additional work than the latter; e.g., it may be necessary to discuss with the newspaper editor the way the case might be written up, necessary to discuss with political leaders the information about conditions leading to the assault, discuss with leaders of the racial minority group the police handling of the case, and discuss with supervisors and investigators the need for especially sensitive handling of the case.

Murders committed by strangers or in the course of a less serious crime are different from murders committed against a relative or acquaintance. The first are not only more difficult on the average to solve, but have a different meaning for the community in terms of indicators about the social fabric and in terms of the stimulus for fear in the community.

But even to speak of murders is to provide more detail than a label like "crime" which groups together murder with burglary and burglary with shoplifting or a label like "service" which groups together rescuing an invalid who has fallen out of bed with helping someone who has locked themselves out of their house.

Whatever the system or systems of coding situations or problems may be, they need to be sufficiently well articulated and defined so as to permit their application across research settings. The labels now in use lack even a common definition.

4. Creation of Conceptual Categories for Police Responses. The code we used most often in recoding responses to situations or problems was "respond/handle." Current studies provide very little information about what police do in order to "handle" an incident. Do they make an arrest,

issue a warning, provide information or advice, provide physical or social assistance or perhaps psychological comfort? Do they make frequent contacts with people on the streets, including both sociable contacts and those which constitute field interrogations? Do they collect and analyze information about the neighborhoods they work in? To what extent do they attempt, and by what means, to gather information from potential witnesses after the commission of a crime? To what extent do they attempt to provide information to persons who have had crimes committed against them? In short, what do police--as institutions or individuals--do? And how can we code these activities so that they provide more meaningful information than "handle," "drive around," or "respond to calls?" As with the coding of incidents, situations or problems, the various needs for such information may necessitate the development of more than one coding system. This is appropriate so long as the same system is applied in comparisons of responses across organizations.

5. Development of Questionnaire Formats and Survey Items. Surveys which attempt to provide descriptive data about the police role by asking officers how often they perform various tasks should ask evenly about all the tasks which officers perform, so that the content and structure of the questionnaire instrument itself does not pre-determine a false portrayal of the realities of the role. Giving equal representation to all police tasks in a survey may require that the survey be preceded by an observation analysis to determine what the list of all tasks really is. This method is expensive, but in areas of public policy where misleading information may have significant consequences, it may be necessary to decide that that which is worth doing is worth doing well and, correspondingly, that that which should only be done well should not be permitted to be done poorly.

C. CONCLUSIONS

Over the months of considering data about what police do and about citizen and police attitudes, we have concluded that these types of studies conducted in ways and numbers sufficient to overcome the limitations outlined in this chapter still could not provide a basis for rethinking the police role. There is a logical way to think about whether reforms are needed in policing and the data discussed so far in this report provide only a small part of the information necessary for that process. To focus on data about attitudes, for example, is to enter the logical process well past its mid-point. The process and the other kinds of required information are discussed in Chapter VI. However, whether the research purpose is to design a research or reform agenda or to test any number of hypotheses about knowledge and attitudes related to policing, these types of data are of research and policy value and could be improved in ways outlined in this chapter.

VI

INFORMATION NECESSARY FOR PLANNING POLICE ROLES AND STRUCTURES

A. BASIC QUESTIONS

Citizen and police beliefs about what police do and should do, and information about what police actually do may contribute to efforts to reconsider the role and structure of municipal police agencies; however, these types of data are not sufficient to support such efforts. Essential information is summarized by the following questions.

1. What are the needs of the municipality and its citizens which the police might address?
2. What needs are the police now addressing and how are they addressing them?
3. What is the effect of what the police are now doing?
4. What are the alternatives to the existing role and structures of municipal police?
5. To what extent are alternatives feasible?

1. The Needs of the Municipality and Its Citizens. The calls for service around which police currently are organized represent only some* immediate needs of individuals. These calls might be thought of as spontaneous requests for service. The police also deal with routine or planned requests and with organizationally produced demands** for service.

*Not all needs to which police might appropriately respond are reported to them.

**Spontaneous requests, routine or planned requests, and organizationally produced demands are discussed in Wycoff and Manning (1979).

These three types of requests or demands together constitute the service demand structure to which police respond.

Spontaneous requests for service arise in response to specific incidents. Given the universality of the telephone and increasing police reliance on patrol cars, most of these requests to police agencies are made by telephone rather than directly to an officer working on the street. While estimates would vary across communities, it is generally agreed that telephoned requests for service constitute the majority of spontaneous requests.

Routine requests for prearranged service are made in response to vested interests and/or chronic situations. These tend to be made directly to city or agency representatives by groups or individuals and are seldom made by calling a police operator. Examples of these requests include: those made to the chief by the school superintendent for the positioning of more officers at school crossings during active periods; requests from the downtown business association for discouraging "loitering" on the streets by socially unattractive persons; requests from businesses for protective escorts to banking institutions, for more police protection against shoplifters or for seasonal or annual policing of parades or festivals; requests resulting from media or political campaigns; the request by other city officials for the assignment of a specified number of officers to games played at the local football stadium. Other requests of a somewhat less formal nature are made directly to specialized units or police administrators by persons who are familiar with the police organization and are accustomed to receiving police service. A merchant who periodically experiences shoplifting problems may call a detective with whom he is familiar. An apartment manager might know another detective who assists from time to time in

dealing with troublesome tenants. Perhaps a jewelry dealer will call a "crimes against property" unit to request extra attention when a valuable delivery is due. These types of requests tend to be made directly to city or police representatives or to special police units by groups or individuals and are seldom made through a police operator; when they do come initially through the switchboard, they are seldom recorded. As a result, it is difficult to determine the percentage of total police services accounted for by routine requests.

Organizations can produce their own demands for service. Independent of specific calls for service, the police may initiate investigative action, surveillance, arrests, raids or other strategic actions in response to perceived problems (Goldstein, 1979). In so doing, the police may be responding to their own perceptions of problems in the community (e.g., a rapid rise in rapes, purse snatchings or drug use.) Such problems may not have been articulated by citizens. Although individual citizens might experience "incidents" of burglary, the police might decide when the pattern of incidents constitute a "problem" requiring a response different than that of separate response to individual incidents (Goldstein, 1979). Alternatively, the response may be the result of ad hoc pressures from community groups or political groups (e.g., the city council or the mayor's office, business or neighborhood groups.) These created or "discretionary" demands could occur at the agency level or at the level of the individual officer who might perceive some problem on his/her beat to which otherwise uncommitted time might be devoted.

The demand structure of a police agency consists of the number of each of these three types of demands received or created. We have not incorporated into the concept of demand structure, the concepts of "need" or "need

structure". As students of health care systems have recognized (Mechanic, 1975), the "need" and the "demand" for service are distinctly and significantly different. A "demand" represents the condition in which a need has been recognized and articulated as a request for assistance. There has been research on the conditions under which a need is recognized and assistance requested (LEAA, 1975, 1977; Kadushin, 1969; Shuval, 1970). It is reasonable to hypothesize that in any community there are conditions which could be identified as needs but which are never articulated, and that these might vary from one community to another depending on the historical conditions (including conceptualizations of the police role) which have influenced the articulation of needs. There may be problems in the community which the police might be able to address if the problems were in some way identified as suitable for the police role, but they are not perceived as being part of the police function in part because they never have been perceived in this way. Because they are not traditionally thought of as part of the police function, they are unlikely to be articulated in surveys of either citizens or officers. If they are to be articulated, it probably will be through a special process designed to identify community problems and potential solutions. The process might be a community task force composed of political leaders, urban analysts, citizens, and representatives of municipal agencies, the goal of which is to assess the current "state of the community" and to define issues the community should address and the means of addressing them.

*Needs which are not articulated as calls must be articulated by survey researchers who articulate various problems and then ask respondents whether they have ever experienced the problem and, if so, whether they called the police or any other agency.

2. What the Police Now Do. As indicated in the previous chapter, we know very little about what the police do insofar as "doing" is defined in terms of the responses police make to situations and problems. A "problem focused" analysis has been recommended as a means of determining the total organizational response to a problem.* This kind of analysis could indicate, for example, whether the police are making efforts to inform the media and the general public, whether they are working to encourage changes in law or zoning regulations or other city ordinances, whether they are attempting to develop with the prosecutor's office better ways of handling a particular kind of case, whether they are working with other law enforcement agencies to solve the problem, and whether they are encouraging individuals or organizations outside policing to create or participate in the solution to the problem. Depending on the nature of the problem, some of these responses may be more appropriate and effective than anything the patrol officer on the street can do.

This approach could move us toward filling the gap in knowledge about the performance of the police role. Performance is defined here as the actual behavior** of the police in handling a situation, coping with a problem, fulfilling a function. This usage corresponds to the dictionary definition of performance as the "execution or accomplishment of work." The question whether the police respond to a reported robbery is a question about the types of problems police handle. Questions about what the police do when

* At least one "problem focused" research project has been conducted with a U.S. department (Goldstein and Susmilch, 1982).

** The quality of the performance consists of the competence with which the response is made and the style with which it is made. (For expanded discussion of this point, see Wyckoff, 1981.)

they arrive at the scene of the reported robbery and what they do about the situation after leaving the scene are questions about role performance.

There is very little available information about police role performance. This is true with respect to information about attitudes toward performance as well as information about the actual nature of performance. Many surveys ask citizen respondents how well they think the local police perform their job, but citizens are almost never asked what kinds of responses they believe police make to specific situations or problems, whether they approve of these responses, or what responses they think the police should make.* Similarly, there is almost no information about the tendencies of either patrol officers of police organizations to respond to particular situations or problems in specific ways.

The Performance of Police Agencies. There are no systematic data on the methods which police agencies use to handle the range of problems with which they deal. The literature contains numerous descriptions of methods for handling particular problems (e.g., the activities of a rape unit in one department; the responses to domestic violence, child abuse, street robbery, victims, or bicycle problems in another; and the process of taking telephone reports for certain types of complaints in yet another.) These individual descriptions are valuable as means of expanding knowledge about operational alternatives but they cannot be accumulated into a

*The Kansas City Community Surveys (Police Foundation, 1972 and 1973a) include several unanalyzed items about these issues.

catalog of methods of response across agencies. The first steps toward documenting the range of responses have been made by Ostrom et al. (1977), Scott (1979) and the Police Executive Research Forum and Birmingham Police Department (1981). Ostrom et al. examine the variety of organizational arrangements for delivering service. Scott reports the frequency with which police operators provide information, refer calls, or dispatch a patrol car to the caller. The Police Executive Research Forum and Birmingham Police Department surveyed departments to determine the initial means of responding to requests for service and found

a myriad of alternative responses. These include civilian response, telephone reporting, appointment scheduling, mail-in reporting, referral to other agencies, and no response at all. Surprisingly, 80 percent of the (200) agencies surveyed for this project use some form of alternative response. (p. 9)

The next step will be to determine the range and nature of responses made once the patrol car arrives at the scene or the mail-in report reaches the agency. We know of no documentation of the actual behavior used to handle problems—either for all problems handled by one agency or for a single type of problem across a sample of agencies. Until it is known what police actually do, the responses they actually make, when handling situations or problems, it will make little sense to talk of "improving responses" or "assessing police effectiveness."

The Performance of Patrol Units. There does not exist a catalog of patrol responses to situations or problems any more than there exists a catalog of agency responses. Something is known, however, about the way in which response choices are determined. Often they are determined

through the use of discretion on the part of the individual patrol officer. Rumbaut and Bittner (1979) consider the use of discretion by patrol officers to be one of the major "discoveries" of the last decade. Patrol officers exercise discretion in substantively defining the incident as well as in choosing the methods for dealing with it (H. Goldstein, 1963, LaFave, 1965; Skolnick, 1966). There are constraints on discretion; these might include legal ones (e.g., laws of search and seizure), administrative guidelines and policies (more likely to be prohibitive of certain behaviors than prescriptive), contextual ones (e.g., whether the event occurs in public or private space), and personal ones (Muir, 1977). But even within the constraints, arrest may be one of several means an officer might choose to resolve a situation (Wilson, 1968; H. Goldstein, 1977). The consequence, Wilson (1968) argues is that police are more likely to underenforce the law and that police tend to be "...lenient," at least when no challenge either to police authority or important community interests is involved." (1968:52).

But what do police do when they are being lenient? While novels and some ethnographic works portray the choices of one or a few individuals in one or a few institutions, there is no work which documents a range of possible responses to each of a variety of situations. Consequently there is no way to determine the conditions under which one method is more likely to be used than others and no way to determine the conditions under which one response is likely to be more desirable and/or effective than others.

The Performance of Investigators. As with the performance of police organizations and patrol officers, little research has been done to examine and document investigative methods used by agencies, units, or individual investigators. Departments undoubtedly differ substantially in

the ways in which investigative functions are organized (e.g., centralized vs. decentralized), cases are assigned (to individuals vs. teams), managed (integration vs. non-integration of units), and supervised. They differ in terms of resources allocated to the function and training provided for it. They differ, too, in the types of investigative information collected and the ways in which it is collected, stored, analyzed, disseminated, and utilized. They differ in terms of investigative policies and in terms of investigative programs and projects. As a result of the Rand study of the investigation process, more information is available about organizational differences in investigative processes than may be available about any other police function. In Volume II of the report Chaiken (1975) documents with survey data many of the types of differences we have just listed. This is seminal information, rich in previously unavailable data which offer a basis for thinking about concrete differences among investigative processes. Yet, it is the portrayal of processes, rather than the description of variables, that is largely missing in the investigative literature. By process we mean the combination and order of steps taken and the manner in which resources are used in working particular kinds of cases. The portrayal of process would require, at least in the early stages of this type of research, extended observation of investigative behavior across organizations. The only work of this nature of which we are aware is Manning's (1980) study of narcotics units in two departments. Comparable work has not been done for other types of municipal investigative operations. Such research would be important for determining whether alternative methods are used and whether they make a difference for the outcomes of cases. This process analysis could be particularly helpful for understanding whether there are ways of improving investigative effectiveness

in dealing with those cases which are not essentially self-solving—those for example in which the identity of the offender is not already known by the time investigators become involved with the case. A recent INSLAW study (1981) suggests what some of the important performance variables might be. Offenders who performed well as measured by the arrest convictability of their cases stressed the importance of improving the willingness of witnesses to cooperate, the location of additional witnesses, "following through" after the arrest and collecting as much evidence as possible.

This research is a step toward knowing what police "do," by way of making responses; this, of course, is necessary before it will be possible to know which responses make a difference.

One explanation for this lack of information about police performance may be that performance usually is thought of in terms of the outcomes or consequences of police behavior rather than in terms of the behavior itself. Performance, as the execution of work, is seldom measured. And yet, of course, it should be. It is the critical link between organizational or individual inputs and outcomes or consequences; performance is the output standing between inputs and outcomes. A good performance may be an end in itself. This may be especially true for institutions such as policing in which the ultimate consequences of the work of the institutions or its individual members may be influenced and shaped by many factors other than the performance or behavior of the institution or individual.

As an example, consider the handling of a family fight on a Thursday night. At the scene of the dispute, the responding officers might do everything considered appropriate for handling the situation, and they

might do it competently and with a civil manner. This response, or set of activities is the performance, and an observer watching it might rate it highly. However, the couple might resume the argument the following evening and one party might do serious bodily harm to the other before the police can arrive. Many researchers and students of policing would tend to talk about this outcome of the incident (bodily harm) as though it were a measure of the police performance. This is inappropriate. Whether long range outcomes of family fights can be related to police actions is an empirical question currently being researched (Sherman, forthcoming), but the actions of the officers (their performance) and the outcome of the incident are both conceptually and empirically distinguishable. Any effort to rethink police roles and structures would seem to require the distinction between the questions of "Did the police perform well?" and "Did they succeed?". Proposals for change would be quite different if police were shown to be performing poorly and not succeeding in their missions than if they were shown to be performing well and still not achieving the desired outcomes.

3. The Effect of Current Police Performance. This question concerns the effectiveness of police responses to the problems identified as police responsibilities. It seems unreasonable to propose changes in police roles or structures without knowing whether the present ones work. But effectiveness cannot be measured without first determining how, and how much, the police reasonably can be expected to affect the problem. Many of the problems to which police respond are created by conditions beyond their control and are problems that several agencies may (or should) attempt to solve. The effectiveness measures of police performance,

therefore, should be defined in terms of the effect the police can reasonably be expected to have on the aspect of the problem for which they are responsible. These are not the characteristics of police effectiveness measures commonly in use. Typically, effectiveness measures are not tailored to distinct objectives and performance; they are based on the assumption that police are entirely and solely responsible for the outcomes of problems that may extend far beyond police capacity to affect them.

To the extent that effectiveness has been measured at all, it has been primarily in terms of crime effectiveness, defined as police ability to reduce the number of crimes occurring in the community. As was shown in Chapter II, crime-related activities constitute only a portion of the services which police deliver and yet there are few measures or methods of measurement for non-crime related work. (For a suggested means of measurement, see Marx, 1978.) One result of the tendency to measure "productivity," "effectiveness," or "performance" in terms of crime-related activities may be that officers come to believe that these activities are the only really important ones they perform. (After all, if the others were important, they would be measured, wouldn't they?) Researchers are not the only ones to view performance narrowly; the activity records maintained on individual officers by surely the majority of police departments reflect primarily crime-related activities. Researchers tend to count the things they count in part because they tend to recount the behaviors which police organizations count. This imbalance between measures for crime-related performance and those for performance in areas not related to crime needs to be corrected before it will be possible to determine how well the police are performing the duties expected of them. (For a thorough discussion of this and other performance issues, see Whitaker, et al., 1981.)

Even though researchers have given considerable attention to the crime effectiveness of police, the extensive body of research has produced--with some exceptions--largely inconclusive findings, partly because of problems of methodology and analysis. A major and well documented problem is the reliance on reported crime rates, arrest rates and clearance rates. All of these indicators can vary so greatly across organizations in the ways they are measured and recorded that comparisons across organizations are of questionable value. Invalidity, unreliability and/or noncomparability of reported crime rates have been discussed by numerous researchers (e.g., Wolfgang, 1963; Biderman and Reiss, 1967; Black, 1970; Zimring and Hawkins, 1973; Skogan, 1974; Seidman and Couzens, 1975; Maltz, 1975; Cook, 1977; Nagin, 1978). Recorded crime rates reflect not only the vagaries of public willingness to report crime (Skogan, 1976) but also the processes and policies by which police record crime (Skolnick, 1966; Reiss, 1971; Pepinsky, 1975; McCabe and Sutcliffe, 1978). Factors influencing the recording of crime not only vary across jurisdictions at the same time but also within jurisdictions over time (Bell, 1960). Arrest and clearance rates are also unreliable and therefore noncomparable (Hatry, 1975; Greenwood et al., 1975; Nagin, 1978; Sherman and Glick, 1982).

Researchers of police effectiveness are aware of these shortcomings of official crime statistics but many tend to acknowledge the problems and then proceed to use the statistics with the justification that they are the only available indicators.

The argument that poor data are the only data is not sufficient reason for using the data; it is a very good reason for not doing the research at all, since

findings based on such data produce a cumulative literature, the worth of which cannot be trusted. (Wycoff, 1982:27)

And the potential impact of such literature on policy formulation can be substantial.

Another measurement problem, mentioned previously, is the use of indicators (e.g., total reported crimes) which hold the police accountable for factors over which they may have little influence. Whatever influence they may have may occur in conjunction with so many other influences that any change in the amount of police effect may be lost among the rest-- a problem which is enlarged by the aggregate analysis of data. A large number of the crime effectiveness studies reviewed (Wycoff, 1982) used total crime as the basis for an effectiveness measure; some looked at police effect on individual Part I crimes rather than or in addition to total crime but few have been so explicit as Boydston (1975) about using data for only those "suppressible crimes" which the police might reasonably be expected to affect with the program in question. This is an approach which requires a new classification of crimes according to controllability factors (Goldstein, 1977) and one which may take us closer to answering the question "How effective are the police given what they reasonably can be expected to achieve?".

The crime effectiveness literature is weakened also by analysis problems. Many studies rely on analysis of data aggregated across communities which may vary in ways (e.g., size and heterogeneity) which may affect both the problems and responses in the police roles and may also vary in the methods of collecting and recording official statistics. These differences may be such that a relationship between police inputs and outcomes which might exist in one community or one type of community may be lost in the aggregation.

Further, crime effectiveness studies typically utilize cross-sectional data which provide insufficient data to determine causal direction for statistical relationships. Simultaneous equations, initially considered to provide an analytic breakthrough in research using cross-sectional data, have been argued to be an inadequate solution when there is insufficient information to specify and identify equations (Greenberg, 1977; Nagin, 1978). The experimental method (e.g., Kelling et al, 1974) and the longitudinal analysis of data across a few sites (e.g., Jacob and Rich, 1980) provide stronger analyses of relationships between police inputs and outcomes.

4. Alternative Roles and Structures. If the police are not currently responding to particular problems, what--if anything--could they do to contribute to a solution? If the police are not now handling problems as effectively as might reasonably be expected, what are alternative approaches to the problems?

Although we would argue that the identification of alternative roles and structures is the next logical step in a process of rethinking the police role, there is not much we can add to this point. Our review of the literature was not directed to this topic. It would seem, however, that once community problems have been identified through the political process, the identification of possible police responses to problems can best be made by those practitioners, scholars, and community representatives familiar with the police capacity.*

*One approach to the identification of solutions in a Canadian setting is discussed by Engstad and Evans (1980).

The focus of discussions designed to identify alternatives would be, "Given this problem, what if...." There seems to be little of this kind of creative thinking on a national level, and this may be where it needs to occur, at least initially. During the past fifteen years, thinking about ways of improving policing generally has emphasized improvement of current responses rather than development of alternatives. Although suggestions for alternatives may originate with groups most familiar with policing, the process of approving such proposals is ultimately a political one. Research may inform the decision, but it will not make the decision.

5. Feasibility of Alternatives. The implementation of chosen alternatives will depend on the feasibility of the alternatives for the organization and community for which they are chosen. Williams (1975) has observed that many programs might never have been undertaken if they had been preceded by an analysis of the appropriateness of the program for the environment in which it would operate and of the capacity of the organization to implement it. Discovering what will work requires an analysis of policing that goes beyond police organization and operations to the nature of the environment in which the police function. Environmental factors determine and limit the nature of the police role and the degree to which police might be effective in dealing with particular kinds of problems. Among these factors are historical antecedents, the political philosophy and culture of the community, the resources of the community, population characteristics, the nature of crime, laws, and interorganizational relationships.

Historical Antecedents. Bayley (1976) notes the importance of tradition or history in shaping the direction and, perhaps, in drawing limitations on reform. While law enforcement is often viewed as the traditional and therefore appropriate role for municipal police, Silver (1967), Lane (1967), Rubenstein (1973), and Manning (1977) argue that the roots of modern (post 1892) policing are in order maintenance and service. Appendix I offers an analysis of the literature on policing by historical periods in which we found that even the literature for the 1600's contains substantial discussion of the service and order functions.

Political Philosophy and Community Culture. Skolnick (1966) and Goldstein (1977) have discussed the problems of policing inherent in a democratic society, and Banton (1964) observes that not all democracies are the same with respect to the policing environment. British citizens apparently do (or did) accord their police more moral authority than do United States citizens. Bayley (1977) makes a similar point in comparing U.S. and Japanese police and suggests that the policing structures and functions of one democratic society are not necessarily transferrable to another. While policing may be shaped by local culture, Bayley also argues

...the police themselves are formative elements in society. They may reinforce existing beliefs and values or they can help to transform popular culture. (1977:234)

Resources of the Community. This is a fairly self-evident constraint on feasibility. In a system in which policing is locally financed and in a time when federal and state sources of special funding are restricted, reforms can be no more grand than the community budget.

Population Characteristics. Size of population and degree of homogeneity or integration of the population often are noted as determinants of police roles. These two tend to be correlated (Banton 1964). Wilson (1968) suggested that size and diversity were related to the styles of policing which he identified; the service style was characteristic of a homogeneous, middle-class community. Cain (1973) notes that Whyte (1945) found a peace-keeping police style in a stable Italian slum and that Goldman (1963) found the peace-keeping style to predominate only in a largely homogeneous middle-class neighborhood. Bayley (1976) in his comparative study of policing in Japan and the United States also acknowledges the importance of homogeneity.

It is not clear whether the peace-keeping styles in these types of communities reflect the infrequent occurrence of situations which are easily identifiable as law enforcement situations or whether the style reflects an easily recognizable community preference for non-enforcement solutions whenever possible. Certainly both factors may be operating simultaneously, but it is important to try to distinguish them. Advocates of community control of policing who anticipate community control as resulting in a predominantly peace keeping style might have to confront the possibility of relatively homogeneous communities which nevertheless have high levels of enforcement needs.

A homogeneous community might, for example, be located such that its policing needs would be strongly influenced by conditions originating outside the community. Proximity to a large city with high rates of crime could cause the smaller community to experience higher levels of disorder or criminality than the characteristics of the small community would predict.

The same could be true if the community served as a thoroughfare for transient populations.

Nature of Crime. Several researchers have noted the constraints inherent in the criminal act and the social organization of crime. (e.g., Press, 1971; Conklin and Bittner, 1973; Reiss, 1974; Reppetto, 1974; Elliot et al., 1975; Goldstein, 1977). Skogan and Antunes (1979) found that only very sparse information is available for many types of crimes; police cannot obtain more information with even the most strenuous efforts if it simply does not exist - if, for example, neither the victim nor witnesses saw an assailant clearly enough to provide a description and the assailant is unknown within the informant community. Wilson (1978) also notes that the police lack the information necessary

...to apprehend or deter more than a very small fraction of all criminals (p. 58).

Boydston (1975) acknowledged the limitations of police impact on certain types of crime and based his evaluation of field interrogations on "suppressible crime". Reiss and Bordua (1967) note the physical invisibility of the enactment of many crimes and suggest that increased number of multi-story residential units would decrease the ability of the police to detect and apprehend offenders. The importance of the visibility of offenses for police effectiveness is substantiated by the work of Press (1971), Kelling et al., (1974) and Dahmann (1975) in which it was found that the only crimes affected by increased levels of patrol were street crimes.

Evidence about the constraints on police crime-effectiveness argues that choice of police goals and methods of accomplishing them should be based on an understanding of what it is police can do as opposed to what it is we wish police could do. And the same is true for perceptions about the role.

Laws. As written by governing bodies and interpreted by legal rulings, the law has affected the content of the role, the performance of it and the perceptions of it. Some communities (e.g., New York City) have attempted to define by city ordinance the breadth of the local police role. More commonly statutes define the crime-related aspects of role content through definition of those behaviors which are to be treated by the police as offenses. Through judicial clarification of the due process provisions of the constitution, the courts have affected police role performance*. Finally, statutes or ordinances which, through suggestion or explicit language, require full enforcement of the law give rise to the unrealistic perception that police do or should enforce every law fully in every incident brought to their attention. The myth of full enforcement may also limit the quality of role enactment (Remington, 1980).

However, as indicated in the section of this chapter on policy formulation, law and judicial review do not fully determine the police role. Many of the situations which police handle have never been addressed by laws or ordinances.** Further, police do not and will not ever have the resources to fully enforce the prohibitions against all of the behaviors which have been officially identified as socially unacceptable. Even if resources were not an issue, some police would argue that justice or fairness is not always served by full enforcement and that public support may be lost by

*See LaFave and Remington (1965) for a discussion of the court's role in attempting to prevent violations of due process. Remington (1965) discusses the problems of involvement of courts which are not aware of current police issues.

**Nevertheless, Shearing and Leon (1977:338) argue that it is the "...unique access to the law...." as a resource (Wilson, 1968) for handling problems and the "...unique access to legitimized physical force...." which define the police role.

efforts at full enforcement. Laws may 'be weaker' determinants of police role content when they are not supported by public consensus. The McNally (1978) survey found, for example, that 41% of the respondents desired that more time be spent enforcing prostitution laws while 29% thought less time should be spent on such laws; 37% thought more time should be spent enforcing marijuana laws while 37% thought less time should be spent that way. The dilemma for the police in such cases illustrates Reiss and Bordua's (1967) point that the police are affected by both the nature of the community and the nature of the legal system; insofar as there are points of conflict between the community and the legal system,

...the police may be conceived as mediating between the two.

.....
...the police adapt the universalistic demands of law to the structure of the locale by a wide variety of formal and informal devices (p. 27).

But when the structure of the community is not a homogeneous one and there is disagreement among citizens about the importance of particular laws, whose important laws are enforced? Manning (1977) arguing that "the state and the law are not isomorphic" (p. 40), believes that the police reflect the interests of economic elites. (Eisenberg and Lawrence, 1980, support this view in their study of police policy-making.)

The question of the extent to which law constrains the police role and shapes perceptions of it is one which has to be considered when examining options for changing either the enactment of the role or perceptions of it. Whether laws should be modified to fit the role or the role should be brought into accord with the law (or whether both modifications should occur) are important issues.

Interorganizational Relationships. Relationships with other organizations undoubtedly influence the content and enactment of the police role as well as perceptions of it, and they would affect any efforts to restructure the role.

The relationships which the police organization maintains with other community groups would influence what becomes defined as problems to which the police should attend, the nature and amount of information which the police can obtain about the problem and the amount of cooperation the police can get from the community in handling the problem. Additionally, the amount and quality of the contact between police and non-police organizations should influence the perceptions of the role held by members of both types of organizations.

Interaction with other agencies in the criminal justice system affects the outcomes of some police efforts. It is assumed, for example, that conviction rates would increase if the district attorney's office would regularly provide the police with information about any problems with procedure, evidence or testimony in cases.*

Both role content and enactment are affected by the sharing of physical and substantive boundaries with other enforcement agencies. Such boundaries have to be taken into account in efforts to analyze the current

*Improvement of the police/prosecutor relationship is one goal of the Integrated Criminal Apprehension Program (ICAP) supported by LEAA.

nature of the police role and in any efforts to plan changes in the role. Analysis of the current role must consider whether the police organization exists in an environment in which other institutions provide alternative means of handling problems; analysis over time must consider whether other institutions in the environment have changed their own role contents, perhaps in turn affecting that of the police. Recent announcements by the F.B.I. of its intent to become less involved in bank robberies in favor of other types of crime may mean that less total police time will be invested in bank robberies or that state or municipal police agencies will have to incorporate the responsibilities previously assumed by the federal agency.

Research was not found which has examined empirically the actual or potential impact of interorganizational boundaries on the nature of the police role. Research which has considered organizational interactions has tended to focus on the interaction of police and courts as determinants of one another's work loads. Research has also considered the quality of interorganizational relationships as a factor in the effectiveness of a given organization in dealing with specific types of problems. Clark, et al. (1977) examined the effectiveness of police juvenile divisions and concluded that

...police performance will be less affected by upgrading relations with other juvenile justice agencies (schools, welfare departments and mental health agencies) than with others in its immediate environment even on its most important task (p. 192).

Review of the literature indicates that substantial work will have to be done before effects of interorganizational relationships can be taken into account either in efforts to understand the police role as it currently exists or to plan changes in it.

B. CONCLUSION

In the course of this project we have concluded that several types of data are required to support efforts to rethink and/or restructure police roles and organizations. The data about what police do and about citizen and police attitudes toward the role provide only a limited amount of the necessary information. Before a reform agenda can be created, a research agenda should be established which will result in the following types of data:

1. Information about the needs of a municipality and its citizens which the police might address.
2. Information about the needs currently being addressed by the police and about the means being used to address them.
3. Evidence of the effect of what police are now doing.
4. Identification of alternatives to the existing roles and structures of municipal police.
5. Indications of the extent to which alternatives are feasible.

Research should be designed to create these types of information across a variety of sizes and types of communities.

CHAPTER VII SUMMARY OF RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS

The research recommendations outlined here recapitulate those made in Chapters V and VI. Chapter V dealt with the need to improve documentation of the realities of, and attitudes toward, the things police do. Chapter VI discussed the additional types of research necessary to support any efforts to plan either the restructuring of the municipal police role or police organizations.

A. IMPROVING RESEARCH ON ROLE REALITIES AND ATTITUDES

New research should have five primary goals. It should:

1. Formulate a perspective of the police organization as actor.
Available research concentrates on patrol officers and fails to consider the functions of other units of the organization or those of the organization as a whole.
2. Delineate the set of significant actors (individuals and institutions) that interact with the police organization.

Consideration of all of the parties that receive any type of service from the police or who have any power to determine what types of service police will deliver will expand perceptions about the types of things police organizations do. Current focus on victims, witnesses, and offenders narrows the perception of the role to crime-related situations.

3. Create conceptual task groupings more representative of the actual problems and situations to which both individual officers and the police organization respond. Vague or broadly applied labels such as "order maintenance" or "service" tend to obscure and oversimplify the complexity of the incidents and problems police handle.
4. Create conceptual categories for the types of responses police officers and the police organization make. The activity code we used most often in recoding studies was "respond/handle." There will be a very limited understanding of what police do until there is identification of the actions police take in response to situations and problems.
5. Develop questionnaire formats and survey items that provide more valid and reliable means of measuring respondents' perceptions of the role. We have discussed the problem of knowing what a term like "domestic disturbance" conveys to a respondent and also the problem of knowing what the respondent has in mind when assigning an importance rating to a task or function. Some researchers seem tempted to interpret relatively low importance rankings as meaning that the respondent considers the task to be unimportant. Close inspection of the data does not support this view.

B. DEVELOPING BASIC RESEARCH IN SUPPORT OF REDEFINITION OF POLICE ROLES OR STRUCTURES

Further research should:

1. Determine needs of a municipality and its citizens which the police might address. Calls for service made to police departments

only some unknown portion of the needs of individuals that might be appropriately handled by the police. The needs of the community may be reflected in part by calls for service, but there may be more general problems of which the calls are only symptoms or indicators. Some critical needs of the community may not be articulated at all by individual requests for service and may need to be identified through a conscious political effort. There may be a legitimate role for the police in controlling physical decay in urban areas, for example, which may be largely unrelated to what police do for individuals in those areas.

2. Determine the needs police are now addressing and the means being used to address them. Once community and individual needs have been articulated, the activities of the police organization should be examined to determine what actions are being taken to address which problems.
3. Measure the effect of what police are now doing, a task which requires developing measures of effectiveness. The most commonly used effectiveness measures focus almost exclusively on the crime-related functions of the police, ignoring those functions which constitute the greatest part of the role of patrol officers, whether the magnitude of the role is estimated by numbers of calls or by time spent on activities. Effectiveness measures need to be defined in terms of what police reasonably can be expected to do. Too frequently, the effectiveness of police is assessed in terms of outcomes that may be affected by many other factors over

which the police have no control. Police should be evaluated in terms of the things they do.

4. Identify alternatives to the existing roles and structures of municipal police. What are the options? Given the needs of a community or of individuals in the community, what are the police not doing that they might conceivably do? What are they doing that might be more effectively done by other agencies? How might they respond differently to problems they currently handle so as to have a greater effect on the problem? What are the ways in which police might be differently organized so as to be more effective?

5. Determine the extent to which the alternatives are feasible.

Will the community accept the alternative or is it too divergent from community standards and traditions? Is the alternative legal? Is it financially feasible? Is it reasonable, given the impact it may have on the rest of the criminal justice system? What might be the unintended consequences of implementing it?

A research agenda with these goals will yield data which will be more useful for policy formulation than information currently available about the police role. However, many of the decisions to be made about policing rest on choices among values rather than on the determination of facts. Solid data can support the formulation of policy but cannot relieve the political process of the responsibility of decision making.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

METHODOLOGICAL SUMMARY OF WORKLOAD STUDIES AND
STUDIES OF CALLS RECEIVED AND/OR DISPATCHED

APPENDIX A

METHODOLOGICAL SUMMARY OF WORKLOAD STUDIES AND
STUDIES OF CALLS RECEIVED AND/OR DISPATCHED

<u>Author</u>	<u>Method</u>
BERCAL, 1970 (Detroit)	Analyzed dispatch records for calls incoming via emergency number in two precincts for one month, 1969. Used own classification.
BERCAL, 1970 (St. Louis)	Analyzed dispatch records for calls incoming via emergency number for entire department for nine months, 1969. Used own classification.
CUMMING, et al., 1965 ("Metro")	Observers listened to incoming calls during 82 selected hours during June and July 1961. Developed own classification system.
GALLIHER, 1975 ("Small Town")	Interviewed a total of 310 patrolmen and their supervisors, serving in communities of less than 50,000 population in a Midwestern state. Classifications were based on responses received.
KARRAS, 1979 (Ft. Madison, Iowa)	Utilized police department records for the first 56 days of 1978. Classifications based on types of calls found in records.
LIFTER, et al., 1977 (Minnesota Cities)	Utilized a combination of field observation, post-shift interviews, and incident - oriented interviews of patrol officers only, serving in metropolitan suburban police departments in Minnesota. Classifications were based on a police activity coding system.

<u>Author</u>	<u>Method</u>
LILLY, 1978 (Newport, Ky.)	Observers listened to all incoming calls for four months, February through May, 1976. Developed own classification system.
O'NEILL and Bloom, 1972 (Long Beach, Ca.)	Utilized patrol officer self-reports of tours of duty in 10 minute intervals. Data were gathered over a two-week period. Developed own classification system.
PATE, et al., 1976 (Kansas City, Mo.)	Analyzed dispatch records for all calls to the South Patrol District, June through September, 1973. Not clear whether coding scheme was that of the authors or of the department.
McMANUS, 1976 (20th Pct., New York City)	Methodology not detailed.
REISS, 1971 (Chicago)	Listened to tape of all calls received on emergency number on one day, April 21, 1966. Used same codes as citizens who called.
SCOTT, 1979 ("Multiple Cities")	Coded as many calls as possible while listening to incoming calls or tapes of calls. Calls were coded for purposefully sampled police shifts in 21 different departments during 1977. Developed own coding scheme.
SHEARING, 1972 ("Canadian Town")	Tape recorded all calls received at one complaint desk for 33 shifts over a 3-month period. Developed own classification system.

<u>Author</u>	<u>Method</u>
SKELLY, 1969 (New York City, one pct.)	Utilized self-reports of 18 patrolmen, 3 sergeants, and 1 lieutenant in 15-minute intervals over a 3-week period. The officers served in a South Bronx precinct. Developed own classification system.
VANAGUNAS, 1977 (Racine)	Analyzed dispatch records for 1973. Not clear whether coding scheme was that of the author or of the department.
WEBSTER, 1970 ("Baywood")	Analyzed police dispatch records for a 54-week period in the late 1960's in a city called "Baywood". Developed own classification system.
WILSON, 1968 (Syracuse)	Not clear whether author listened to dispatches or analyzed dispatch records. Sample was 1/5 sample of dispatched calls during one week, June 3-6, 1966. Developed own coding scheme.

APPENDIX B
RECODING OF CALLS FOR SERVICE,
DISPATCH, and OBSERVATION STUDIES

B-1

APPENDIX B
RECODING OF CALLS FOR SERVICE,
DISPATCH, and OBSERVATION STUDIES

In order to compare the various studies of calls received, calls dispatched and the use of patrol time, it was necessary to employ a coding scheme which could encompass the different coding schemes for each of the studies. This appendix reports, for each study, the codes which were used by the original researcher and the way in which the codes were re-classified for purposes of comparison. For each study, except those by Cordner and Kelling, the comparison categories are those which are the cell titles listed under "Coding Category". These include: Information giving/gathering; Service; Order Maintenance; Law Enforcement; Traffic; and Other. The codes within each of the cells are those used in the original research. The comparison categories for the Cordner and Kelling studies include: Mobile Police-Related; Nonpolice-Related; Stationary and Contact Personnel, Police Related; and Residual.

BERCAL, 1970 (DETROIT)

CODING CATEGORY	CALLS					
	Calls Received		Calls Dispatched		Calls Dispatched of those of each type received	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
<u>Information giving/gathering Service</u>			0	0.0		
Health-sick person, injury or misc., accident, city physician, animal bites, death, attempted suicide, ambulance call.			1,653	10.0		
<u>Order Maintenance</u>						
Boys, family trouble, parking complaint, disturbance, missing person, neighbor trouble, tenant trouble, rubbish complaint, strike.			5,753	34.8		
<u>Law Enforcement</u>						
Crime, prowler, alarms, recovery of property.			6,398	38.7		
<u>Traffic</u>						
Accidents, safety-crossing detail, direct traffic, fire, street defect, tree-pole-wire, animal injured, misc. hazard.			2,728	16.5		
<u>Other</u>			0	0		
Total			16,532	100.0		

BERCAL, 1970 (ST. LOUIS)

CODING CATEGORY	CALLS					
	Calls Received		Calls Dispatched		Calls Dispatched of those of each type received	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
<u>Information giving/gathering Service</u>			0	0.0		
Health-sick person, injury or misc., accident, city physician, animal bites, death, attempted suicide, ambulance call.			23,458	11.7		
<u>Order Maintenance</u>						
Boys, family trouble, parking complaint, disturbance, missing person, neighbor trouble, tenant trouble, rubbish complaint, strike.			54,535	27.2		
<u>Law Enforcement</u>						
Crime, prowler, alarms, recovery of property.			102,253	51.0		
<u>Traffic</u>						
Accidents, safety-crossing detail, direct traffic, fire, street defect, tree-pole-wire, animal injured, misc. hazard.			20,250	10.1		
<u>Other</u>			0	0.0		
Total			200,496	100.0		

Mobile Police-Related

32.04

Mobile Police-Related: looking for suspicious cars, people, stolen autos and traffic violations; watching residences and buildings, training new patrol officers.

Nonpolice-Related

34.40

Stationary Nonpolice-Related: eating, resting, reading nonpolice materials, talking to observer, relief calls, girl-watching, phone calls, visiting with friends, sleeping, watching movies or sports events.

Mobile Nonpolice-Related: driving nonchalantly to relieve boredom, girl-watching; going to eat, to the bank, to the cleaners, or on other personal errands; pleasure riding.

Contacting Personnel in Field, Nonpolice-Related: joke telling, general conversation and talk about hunting, cars, sports, sex, vacations, family life, lesiure-time activities.

Stationary and Contact Personnel, Police-Related

13.50

Stationary Police-Related: report-writing; waiting for tows; filling out encounter surveys; surveillances; traffic ordinance enforcement.

Contacting Personnel in Field, Police-Related: talking about crime suspects, calls, policies, procedures; getting or giving information on policies or procedures; exchanging mug shots; getting reports approved; discussing on-going innovations, evidence, courts, complaints.

Residual

20.06

Residual: traveling to and from the station to the district, time in and traveling from court, garage, headquarters, radio repair, to district.

TOTAL

100.00

=====

CODING CATEGORY	CALLS					
	Calls Received		Calls Dispatched		Calls Dispatched of those of each type received	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Information giving/gathering Information only	33	4.1	0	0	0	0
Service						
Health Services	81	10.1	70	22.9	70	86.4
Children's problems	83	10.4	71	23.2	71	85.5
Incapacitated people	33	4.1	25	8.1	25	75.8
Protection	29	3.6	23	7.5	23	79.3
Missing persons	11	1.4	9	2.9	9	81.8
	237	29.6	198	64.6	198	83.5
Order Maintenance						
Nuisances	33	4.1	16	5.2	16	48.5
Disputes	63	7.9	32	10.4	32	50.8
Youth's behavior	21	2.6	18	5.9	18	85.7
	117	14.6	66	21.5	66	56.4
Law Enforcement						
Violence	43	5.4	41	13.4	41	95.3
Traffic						
	0	0.0	0	0	0	0
Other						
Calls about "things"	255	31.8	0	0	0	0
Not police business	28	3.5				
Feedback	88	11.0				
	371	46.3				
Total	801	100.0	305	100.0	305	38.0

GALLIHER, 1975

B-6

<u>Information gathering/giving</u>		
complaints about officers	1.0	1.0
<u>Service</u>	0.0	0.0
<u>Order Maintenance</u>		
Public disturbance	19.0	
Family disturbance	18.0	
Stray dogs	11.0	
Juveniles	7.0	
Neighborhood problems	4.0	
		59.0
<u>Law Enforcement</u>		
Prowlers	7.0	7.0
<u>Traffic</u>		
(speeding, reckless driving)	25.0	25.0
<u>Other</u>	8.0	8.0
TOTAL		100.00

KARRAS, 1979

B-7

Information gathering/giving

Service

Locked out of cars	1.9	
Locked out of building	.15	
Runaway juveniles	1.3	
Missing persons	.1	
Lost children	.7	
Sick, elderly, mentally ill	.2	
Attempted suicide	.64	
	4.99	4.99

Order Maintenance

Disorderly conduct	.9	
Fighting	.3	
Dogs	.2	
Didn't pay cab fare	.01	
Dog bites	.3	
Offenses against family & children	1.8	
Animal shelter	.03	
	3.54	3.54

Law Enforcement

Stakeout	.01	
Burglary	2.2	
Theft	5.7	
Deterrent patrol	21.0	
Property damage	5.1	
	34.01	34.01

Traffic

Parking violations	2.2	
Injuries in auto accidents	.6	
Speeding	1.7	
Drunk driving	.01	
Assist motorists	.13	
	4.64	4.64

Other

Lunch	17.5	
Coffee break	6.8	
Court duty	.9	
Unfounded calls	3.5	
Unaccounted for by author	22.5	
	51.2	

TOTAL

100.0

KELLING, 1974

Mobile Police-Related

23.54

Mobile Police-Related: looking for suspicious cars, people, stolen autos and traffic violations; watching residences and buildings, training new patrol officers.

Nonpolice-Related

25.47

Stationary Nonpolice-Related: eating, resting, reading nonpolice materials, talking to observer, relief calls, girl-watching, phone calls, visiting with friends, sleeping, watching movies or sports events.

Mobile Nonpolice-Related: driving nonchalantly to relieve boredom, girl-watching; going to eat, to the bank, to the cleaners, or on other personal errands; pleasure riding.

Contacting Personnel in Field, Nonpolice-Related: joke telling, general conversation and talk about hunting, cars, sports, sex, vacations, family life, leisure-time activities.

Stationary and Contact Personnel, Police-Related

26.01

Stationary Police-Related: report-writing; waiting for tows; filling out encounter surveys; surveillances; traffic ordinance enforcement.

Contacting Personnel in Field, Police-Related: talking about crime suspects, calls, policies, procedures; getting or giving information on policies or procedures; exchanging mug shots; getting reports approved; discussing on-going innovations, evidence, courts, complaints.

Residual

24.98

Residual: traveling to and from the station to the district, time in and traveling from court, garage, headquarters, radio repair, to district.

TOTAL

100.00

=====

LIFTER, ALLIVATO AND JONES, 1977

Information Gathering/Giving

0.0

Service

6.3

Order Maintenance

Order related/hostile citizens	0.5
Disturbing peace/disputes	1.8
Property/safe conditions	<u>0.7</u>

3.0

Law Enforcement

Crime/person or property	4.0
Suspicious circumstance/person	3.0
Crime prevention	
Ordinance, liscensing	0.01
Administration of legal procedures	0.1
Suspects/prisoners/previously convicted	1.7
Victims/witnesses/informants	0.8
Other police officers	<u>2.8</u>

12.4

Traffic

16.0

Other

No specific problem	49.0
Misc. non-crime duties	0.2
Administrative/support	10.0
Community relations	<u>0.4</u>

Total

59.6
100.0

LILLY, 1978

CODING CATEGORY	CALLS					
	Calls received		Calls dispatched		Calls dispatched of those of each type received	
	N	Z	N	Z	N	Z
Information giving/ gathering Requesting information	10,804	60.0	1111	20.6	1111	10.2
<u>Service</u>						
Protection & assistance	703	3.9	392	7.2	392	55.7
Health services	423	2.4	212	3.9	212	50.1
Missing persons	167	0.9	39	0.8	39	23.3
	1293	7.2	643	11.9	643	49.7
<u>Order Maintenance</u>						
Juvenile problems	969	5.4	712	13.2	712	73.4
Nuisance	670	3.7	516	9.5	516	77.0
Family trouble	495	2.8	347	6.4	347	70.1
	2134	11.9	1575	29.1	1575	73.8
<u>Law Enforcement</u>						
Violence	501	2.8	397	7.3	397	79.2
Prowlers	402	2.3	354	6.5	354	88.0
Thefts	337	1.9	181	3.3	181	53.7
Vice	21	0.1	5	.09	5	23.8
	1261	7.1	937	17.2	937	74.3
<u>Traffic</u>						
	2332	13.0	1106	20.5	1106	47.4
<u>Other</u>						
Unclassifiable	188	1.0	12	0.2	12	6.3
Total	18,012	100.0	5384	100.0	5384	21.0

O'NEILL AND BLOOM, 1972

<u>Information gathering/giving</u>	0.0	0.0
<u>Service</u>		
General services to the public (Lost persons, transportation, messenger service, escort, assistance to individuals)	2.8	2.8
<u>Order Maintenance</u>	0.0	0.0
<u>Law Enforcement</u>		
Part I and Part II - Crimes (except intoxication and disturbance of the peace)	4.9	
Secondary Police Activities (field investigation and interrogation, juvenile, intoxication, general, e.g. disturbance of the peace).	21.5	
		26.4
<u>Traffic</u>	11.2	11.2
(citation, accidents, control, drunk driving).		
<u>Other</u>		
Administrative duties (report writing, roll call, equipment check, other - e.g. desk duty)	14.8	
Non-duty Activities (coffee breaks, eating, personal relief, other)	11.7	
Patrol activities (inspectional, roving)	33.7	
		60.2
TOTAL		100.0

PATE, et al., 1976

CODING CATEGORY	CALLS					
	Calls received		Calls	dispatched	Calls dispatched of those of each type received	
	N	Z	N	Z	N	Z
Information giving/gathering				0		
Service						
Ambulance			474	1.2		
Animal bite			356	0.9		
Juveniles			2845	7.2		
Miscellaneous service			4544	11.5		
			8219	20.8		
Order Maintenance						
Disturbance			6125	15.5		
Law Enforcement						
Robbery			356	0.9		
Assault			316	0.8		
Burglar alarm			3516	8.9		
Burglary			1225	3.1		
Larceny			1778	4.5		
Auto theft			711	1.8		
Fraud			79	0.2		
Vandalism			553	1.4		
Prowler			4386	11.1		
Suspicious person			4465	11.3		
Miscellaneous crime			316	0.8		
			17,701	44.8		
Traffic						
Abandoned car			1027	2.6		
Auto accident			4425	11.2		
Parking problem			1462	3.7		
Miscellaneous traffic			158	0.4		
			7072	17.9		
Other						
Recovered property			356	0.9		
Total			39,473	100.0		

PRESS, 1971

Information gathering/Giving	0.0		
Service			
Sick	16.0		
Dead on arrival	5.0		
Injured	3.5		
Utility trouble	1.1		
Found persons	.2		
Missing persons	.1		
Attempted suicide	.1		
Suicide	.04		
	25.68		
Order Maintenance			
Dispute	8.2		
Intoxicated person	3.2		
Disorderly groups	3.0		
Alarm of fire	2.3		
Malicious mischief	1.2		
Dangerous condition	.2		
False alarm of fire	.1		
	18.20		
Law Enforcement			
Other misdemeanors	8.2		
Burglary	8.1		
Robbery	3.0		
Felonious assault	2.1		
Larceny from auto	1.3		
Narcotics	1.0		
Auto larceny	1.0		
Grand larceny	1.0		
Other felonies	1.0		
Motor vehicle recovered	.5		
Accidental alarm	.5		
Grand larceny-pocketbook	.4		
Prowler	.2		
Arrest-serving summons	.1		
Property recovered	.1		
Homicide	.1		
Rape	.1		
Weapons	.1		
Prostitution	.1		
Gambling	.1		
ABC violation	.01		
	29.01		
Traffic			
Auto accident	2.5		
Auto accident-injury	2.0		
Traffic violation	.5		
Vehicle mechanical trouble	.5		
Auto safety check	.3		
Auto accident-serious injuries	.2		
Traffic court-warrants, death	.1		
	6.10		
Other			
Other	12.6		
Unfounded	8.0		
	20.60		
TOTAL			100.00

REISS, 1971

CODING CATEGORY	CALLS		Calls dispatched		Calls dispatched of those of each type received	
	received		dispatched		received	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Information giving/gathering Information	679	11.0				
Service						
Medical	494	8.0				
Missing person	62	1.0				
	556	9.0				
Order Maintenance						
Dispute or breach of peace	1605	26.0				
Personal/family	555	9.0				
	2160	35.0				
Law Enforcement						
Property offense	988	16.0				
Person offense	370	6.0				
Suspicious person	185	3.0				
	1543	25.0				
Traffic						
Auto violation	309	5.0				
Accidental hazard	370	6.0				
	679	11.0				
Other						
Other	370	6.0				
Complaints about police service	185	3.0				
	555	9.0				
Total	6172	100.0				

SCOTT, 1979

CODING CATEGORY	CALLS		Calls dispatched		Calls dispatched of those of each type received	
	received		dispatched		received	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Information giving/gathering						
Citizen wants information	5558	21.0	121	0.9	121	2.0
Citizen gives information	1993	8.0	721	5.5	721	34.0
	7551	29.0	842	6.4	842	11.1
Service						
Medical assistance	810	3.0	659	5.0	659	69.0
Dependent persons	774	3.0	502	3.8	502	60.0
Assistance	3039	12.0	1175	8.9	1175	36.0
	4623	18.0	2336	17.7	2336	50.5
Order Maintenance						
Interpersonal conflict	1763	7.0	1364	10.3	1364	74.0
Public nuisances	3002	11.0	2185	16.6	2185	70.0
	4765	18.0	3549	26.9	3549	74.4
Law Enforcement						
Violent crimes	642	2.0	545	4.1	545	80.0
Non-violent crimes	4489	17.0	3183	24.2	3183	69.0
Suspicious circumstances	1248	5.0	912	6.9	912	71.0
	6379	24.0	4640	35.2	4640	72.7
Traffic						
Traffic problems	2467	9.0	1621	12.3	1621	66.0
Other						
Internal operations	633	2.0	180	1.4	180	28.0
Total	26,418	100.0	13,168	100.0	13,168	49.8

SHEARING, 1974

CODING CATEGORY	CALLS					
	Calls received		Calls dispatched		Calls dispatched of those of each type received	
	N	Z	N	Z	N	Z
Information giving/gathering	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Service						
Accidents/emergencies	84	24.2	76	26.8	76	91.0
Service	19	5.4	17	6.0	17	90.0
	103	29.6	93	32.8	93	90.2
Order Maintenance						
Disputes	45	13.0	36	12.7	36	80.0
Public nuisance	43	12.4	36	12.7	36	84.0
	88	25.4	72	25.4	72	81.8
Law Enforcement						
Suspicious circumstances	28	8.1	28	9.8	28	100.0
Thefts/robbery	38	10.9	34	12.0	34	90.0
Damage to persons or property	13	3.7	13	4.5	13	100.0
	79	22.7	75	26.3	75	94.9
Traffic						
Traffic/parking / complaints	26	7.5	22	7.7	22	85.0
Other						
Other	50	14.4	21	7.4	21	42.0
Total	346	100.0	283	100.0	283	82.0

SKELLY, 1969

Information gathering/givingService

Public service: time spent on escorts, aid to sick and injured, referrals and notifications, school and church crossing, aid to stranded motorists, and aid to distressed residents and pedestrians. 17.3

Aid to other agencies: assistance given to employees of municipal agencies and other law enforcement groups. 2.6

Community relations: "Public Service". 1.3

21.2

Order Maintenance

Disputes: family fights, landlord-tenant arguments, taxicab fare disagreements, and disorderly groups. 3.3

3.3

Law Enforcement

Patrol and observation: building checks, preventive patrol, foot patrol by motorized patrolmen, and special area patrol. 36.9

Patrol investigations: action taken in burglaries and burglar alarms, licensed clubs, assault and robbery, stolen cars, suspicious cars and persons, gambling operations, youth crimes and cases, and conferences with detectives. 11.6

Enforcement action: making arrests, and issuing summonses and warnings. 3.1

51.6

Traffic

0.0

Other

Miscellaneous field services: transport members of the force, assist members of the force, pick up and deliver material, carry the mail, transport supervisors to and from the precinct, division, and borough commands, and guard crime scenes. 8.6

Reporting: preparation of reports and forms, memorandum book entries, and telephone reports to the station house. 3.4

Other activity: a catchall for miscellaneous activities such as car maintenance, unit training, coffee breaks, and meal periods. 11.4

23.4

TOTAL

100.00

VANAGUNAS, 1977

CALLS

CODING CATEGORY	Calls received		Calls dispatched		Calls dispatched of those of each type received	
	N	Z	N	Z	N	Z
Information giving/gathering			*	0.0		
Service						
Rescue runs, sundry aid				6.0		
Order Maintenance						
Family problems, noisy neighbors, fights and disputes, problems with children, animal problems, trouble with patrols of taverns and restaurants, etc.				34.0		
Law Enforcement						
e.g., Triggered alarms, calls about suspicious persons or circumstances				40.0		
Traffic				20.0		
Other				0.0		
Total				100.0		

* No N's presented

WEBSTER, 1970

Information gathering/giving	9.37	9.37
On-view (e.g. carstop, warrant check)		
Service		
Social service (e.g. suicide, mental illness)	13.70	13.70
Order Maintenance		
Law Enforcement		
Crimes against persons, murder, rape, assault, robbery	2.96	
Crimes against property, auto theft, burglary, petty theft.	14.82	17.78
Traffic		
Traffic (abandoned, parking violations)	9.20	9.20
Other		
Administration (reports, breaks)	50.19	50.19
TOTAL		100.00

WILSON, 1968

CODING CATEGORY	CALLS					
	Calls Received		Calls Dispatched		Calls Dispatched of those of each type received	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Informating giving/gathering						
Book and check			2			
Get a report			67			
			69	22.1		
Service						
Accidents, illnesses, ambulance calls			42			
Animals			8			
Assist a person			1			
Drunk person			8			
Escort vehicle			3			
Fire, power line, tree down			26			
Lost or found person on property			23			
Property damage			6			
			117	37.5		
Order Maintenance						
Gang disturbance			50			
Family trouble			23			
Assault, fight			9			
Investigation			8			
Neighbor trouble			4			
			94	30.1		
Law Enforcement						
Burglary in progress			9			
Check a car			5			
Open door, window			8			
Prowler			6			
Make an arrest			4			
			32	10.3		
Traffic						
			0	0		
Other						
			0	0		
Total			312	100.0		

APPENDIX C
RECODING OF TASK ANALYSES
and ATTITUDE SURVEYS

APPENDIX C
RECODING OF TASK ANALYSES
AND ATTITUDE SURVEYS

1. Recoding of task analyses

The task analyses Codebook (Appendix D-1) was developed over a two month period during which the literature was examined repeatedly in an effort to identify a suitable classification scheme. Conceptual frameworks were evaluated empirically by trial coding of sample items from a number of different research instruments. Since the goal was to synthesize existing studies, some elements of a theoretically desirable coding scheme (e.g., "counter positions" in a role theoretic model*) had to be abandoned. The code used in this study, ultimately, was more pragmatic than theoretical. A code which would adequately reflect a role theoretic perspective would have imposed on existing studies meanings which did not exist in the minds of the original researchers or the questionnaire respondents. The effort to create a synthetic, empirical code which was also guided by theory made us sharply aware of the fact that existing research has not been based on a common perspective.

Five separate analysts worked to create the coding scheme; this effort involved four drafts of the codebook. After the fourth draft, the structure of the code scheme was fixed as it now exists in Appendix D-1. Later, as instruments were coded, it became clear that certain additions needed to be made to the "problem" and "response" codes; these were added only after group

*For a discussion of this model, see Appendix E, pp. E-52-E-57.

consensus followed persuasive arguments presented during coding meetings. For some items, added coding categories could not resolve the problems. These items were written so as to contain either multiple problems or multiple responses. For example, the item "secure crime/accident scene" would involve two distinct problems, "crime" and "traffic accidents," in our coding scheme. In such cases, we coded an item twice; in several cases, an item had to be coded three or four separate times. This strategy results in more coded items in our data than original items in the instrument. Such double-coded items are identified by a dummy variable in our data files and can be sorted out for independent analysis. Figure C-1 presents a breakdown of multiple codings by study.

The actual coding of items progressed in three stages. In the first stage, two analysts would independently code an entire research instrument. In the second stage, discrepancies between coders would be noted and resolved at group coding meetings. After completing the first two stages for each of the nine task analyses, three analysts compared "problem" and "response" codes across all nine studies simultaneously. This final step was taken to protect against changes in shared definitions among raters that may have occurred as the coding progressed over time.

The inter-rater reliability for such a coding effort is an appropriate concern. In order to get a lower-bound estimate of the inter-rater reliability for this analysis, 30 items were randomly selected from three different task analyses instruments. The three analysts who performed the bulk of the coding coded these items for "problems" and "responses." Figure C-2 presents the results of that reliability check. Inter-rater agreement ran between 70-80 percent. We consider agreement in this range to be quite accep-

FIGURE C-1

DISTRIBUTION OF TASK ANALYSES ITEMS IN TERMS OF
MULTIPLE PROBLEM/RESPONSE CODINGS

Type of Code	1. Wollack & Assoc. (1977)	2. Jeanneret & Dubin (1977)	3. Kohls, Bernier & Luke (1979)	4. Rosenfeld & Thornton (1976)	5. Lowe, Cook & Rannefeld (1976)	6. Goodgame & Rao (1977)	7. Lifter, Allivato & Jones (1977)	8. Smith (1972)	9. Glickman, Stephenson & Felker (1976)
Multiple Code A (Problem)	2 (.68)	39 (3.60)	32 (5.83)	3 (2.31)	11 (8.68)	34 (7.61)	15 (16.48)	4 (9.76)	7 (11.66)
Multiple Code B (Response)	4 (1.37)	65 (10.50)	8 (1.46)	8 (6.15)	7 (5.79)	32 (7.16)	16 (17.58)	4 (9.76)	8 (13.33)
Multiple Code C (Problem & Response)	2 (.68)	70 (11.31)	24 (4.37)	14 (10.77)	1 (.83)	50 (11.19)	3 (3.30)	19 (46.34)	7 (11.66)
Single Code	285 (97.27)	445 (71.89)	485 (88.34)	105 (80.77)	103 (84.71)	331 (74.05)	57 (62.64)	14 (34.15)	38 (63.30)
TOTAL	293 (100.00)	619 (100.00)	549 (100.00)	130 (100.00)	122 (100.00)	447 (100.00)	91 (100.00)	41 (100.00)	60 (100.00)

*Includes only items that were coded as "nature of job content"
in our coding scheme.

FIGURE C-2
RELIABILITY CHECK FOR TASK ANALYSES

<u>Item</u>	<u>Problem</u>			<u>Response</u>		
	<u>Rater 1/ Rater 2</u>	<u>Rater 2/ Rater 3</u>	<u>Rater 1/ Rater 3</u>	<u>Rater 1/ Rater 2</u>	<u>Rater 2/ Rater 3</u>	<u>Rater 1/ Rater 3</u>
1. Patrol Function ¹ - Respond as back-up unit on crimes in progress (either on own or other department).	- ²	-	+	+	+	+
2. Patrol Inspection - Physically examine and test doors and windows of dwellings and businesses.	+	-	-	+	+	+
3. Patrol Contact - Call on bystanders to assist in apprehension.	+	+	+	+	+	+
4. Patrol Response - Disturbing the peace - other (e.g., harassment, challenging to fight).	+	-	-	+	+	+
5. Patrol Response - Postal Law violation. Responsibility for follow-up investigation.	-	+	-	+	+	+
6. Patrol Response - Administer physical roadside sobriety test (drug and/or alcohol).	+	-	-	+	+	+
7. Criminal Investigation/Accident Investigation (Including Traffic) - Take coordinate measurements of accident scenes.	+	+	+	+	+	+
8. Criminal Investigation/Accident Investigation (Including Traffic) - Examine dead bodies for wounds and injuries to determine nature and cause of death.	+	+	+	-	+	-
9. Auxiliary Function - Control access to accident or other records.	+	+	+	+	-	-
10. Civil Procedures - Arrange for professional assistance for prisoners/inmates regarding personal problems.	+	+	+	-	-	-

¹ Items on instruments tended to be grouped under general duty areas, the part of each item in caps and preceding the "-" corresponds to those general duty areas.

² A "+" indicates agreement; a "-" indicates disagreement between a pair of raters.

FIGURE C-2, Cont'd.

Item	Problem				Response	
	Rater 1/ Rater 2	Rater 2/ Rater 3	Rater 1/ Rater 3	Rater 1/ Rater 2	Rater 2/ Rater 3	Rater 1/ Rater 3
11. Arrest, Search and Seizure - Locates and preserves physical evidence in accordance with search and seizure laws.	+	+	+	+	-	-
12. Arrest, Search and Seizure - Determines the existence of probable cause for arrest purposes.	+	+	+	-	-	-
13. Traffic Maintenance and Control - Observes and reports traffic hazards and traffic movement.	+	+	+	+	+	+
14. Managing Disputes - Advises people involved in disputes of proper legal procedures, other sources of help, or consequences of their actions.	+	-	-	+	+	+
15. Patrol Activities - Searches buildings, properties, and vehicles to locate explosive devices.	+	+	+	+	+	+
16. Crime Prevention and Community Relations - Instructs and assists others in crime prevention techniques.	+	+	+	+	+	+
17. Maintenance of Equipment - Inspects patrol car and equipment prior to patrol duty.	+	+	+	+	+	+
18. Maintenance of Equipment - Maintains issued equipment, uniforms, and manuals.	+	+	+	+	+	+
19. Booking and Handling of Prisoners - Insures well-being of inmates.	+	+	+	-	-	+
20. Office/Desk Activities - Enters on radio log each call received or sent.	+	+	+	+	+	+
21. General Police Duties - Indicate your use of firearms (revolver, shotgun, tear gas).	+	+	+	-	+	-

FIGURE C-2, Cont'd.

Item	Problem			Response		
	Rater 1/ Rater 2	Rater 2/ Rater 3	Rater 1/ Rater 3	Rater 1/ Rater 2	Rater 2/ Rater 3	Rater 1/ Rater 3
22. General Police Duties - Indicate if incident/complaint report is necessary.	+	-	-	+	+	+
23. General Police Duties - Uses a variety of communication skills to interact formally and informally with various community groups in educational programs.	+	+	+	+	-	-
24. Standard Patrol Checks - Observes business establishments through doors and/or windows to determine whether conditions inside appear in order.	-	-	+	+	-	-
25. Response to Patrol Situations - Makes an accurate assessment of dangerous situations, evaluates alternative course of action, and acts decisively to protect self and others from harm and property from damage.	-	-	+	+	-	-
26. Response to Patrol Situations - Responds to disturbance with teenagers.	+	+	-	+	+	+
27. Traffic Control and Traffic Accident Activities - Reports favorable information about the suspect's alleged traffic violation.	+	+	+	+	+	+
28. Search and Seizure - Conducts searches of property and person in a manner that allows completion of required search with minimum resistance from a disturbance to persons involved.	-	-	+	+	+	+
29. Arrest Procedures - Officer's responsibility to book prisoner at police desk.	+	+	+	-	-	+
30. Arrest Procedures - If prisoner is to be released, verifies the completion of identification procedures (finger-printing, photographing, etc.)	+	+	+	+	+	+
Number of +'s	25	21	23	24	21	21
Percent of Agreement = Number +'s/30	.83	.70	.77	.80	.70	.70

table. In addition, each item went through two additional consistency checks in our coding process; hence, we consider the 70-80 percent figure to be a lower bound estimate of the "true" inter-rater consistency.

Figure C-3 presents the problem codes used to classify the situations, problems or conditions identified in task analysis studies as receiving police attention. The first column in Figure 3 is the numerical code for the problem. The second column contains the codebook name for the problem, and the third column contains examples of actual task analysis items to which the problem codes were assigned.

2. Recoding attitude surveys

Two analysts were responsible for coding the attitude surveys. This coding effort was begun using the form of the codebook developed for the task analyses. As the coding progressed, however, the need arose to make changes which would better accommodate the attitude surveys. These changes were made with the agreement of the two analysts, as well as the project director. The final draft of the codebook for attitude surveys is presented in Appendix D-2.

The coding process was comprised of three stages. Initially, the two analysts coded each instrument separately. The codings were then compared and differences reconciled to the satisfaction of each analyst. The project director was consulted when there was any difficulty in reaching agreement. The third stage involved periodically recoding those items whose meaning may have been changed through subsequent additions to the codebook. The recoding of studies completed early in the process was later re-checked to determine whether analytic consistency had been maintained over time. These procedures were intended to insure maximum comparability of coding across studies.

FIGURE C-3
EXAMPLES OF ITEMS ASSIGNED
TO EACH PROBLEM CODE

C O D E	DESCRIPTION OF PROBLEM CODE	EXAMPLES OF PROBLEM CODE
00	No specific problem identified (use for patrol and general investigatory task with no specified object)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Performing general radio car patrol 2. Responds to dispatch calls 3. Obtains pertinent information and assesses the value of the information
01	Crime general alleged	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Obtains information for making an arrest 2. Appear to testify in legal proceedings 3. Accompany actors to locations of stolen property/crime scenes
02	Person crime alleged (must involve bodily harm/potential)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Responds to robbery in progress call 2. Handle rape case 3. Handle report of a hit-and-run
03	Property crime alleged	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Handle report of bicycle theft 2. Responds to burglary in progress call 3. Observe locations where stolen goods may be fenced in order to identify suspects and trace goods
04	Crime general/suspicious circumstances	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Inspect night deposit; check for suspicious persons or vehicles 2. Handle report of an activated alarm 3. Follow suspicious vehicles
05	Suspicious person	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Handle report of prowling 2. Recognizes signs of criminal activity by individuals or groups 3. Effect suspected or suspicious person vehicle stops
06	Suspicious circumstances (non-person environment)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Handle report of abandoned house or building 2. Check premises for illegal entry 3. Handle report of suspicious object
07	Crime/law violation prevention general	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Make bar checks 2. Maintain watch to prevent vandalism or theft 3. Intensify patrol in high crime areas to deter or detect criminal activity
08	Crime prevention-person (must involve bodily harm/potential)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Prevents injury to self and others
09	Crime prevention-property	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Checks homes of people on vacation for signs of illegal entry 2. Check businesses for security 3. Routinely check security of city-owned property

CONTINUED

2 OF 4

C O D E	DESCRIPTION OF PROBLEM CODE		EXAMPLES OF PROBLEM CODE	
10	Evidence		1. Conduct lawful search for evidence in buildings or motor vehicles 2. Prepare physical evidence for submittal in court 3. Determine what evidence can or should be removed from the scene	
20	Disorder prevention/keep peace/manage beat		1. Become familiar with beat to learn shortest routes to all areas 2. Maintains order during legal proceedings 3. Handle keep-the-peace call	
21	Riot control		1. Perform riot control 2. Maintain disciplined behavior in confrontations with demonstrators 3. Handle report of riot	
22	Non-riot crowd control		1. Control spectators at civil disturbances 2. Escort large crowds of dissenters or other potentially hostile groups 3. Locate, observe, and segregate agitators and/or leaders of crowd	
23	Animal control		1. Respond to complaints about animals 2. Remove animals from roadway 3. Handle report of dangerous animal	
24	Nuisance/disturbing the peace		1. Handle report of public nuisance 2. Respond to malicious mischief call 3. Handle report of noise complaint	
25	Domestic disturbance		1. Responds to family disturbance call 2. Mediate family disputes 3. Intervene in and control domestic quarrels and brawls	
26	Other disputes (neighbors, friends)		1. Investigate repossession complaints 2. Offers alternative to persons involved in inter-personal conflict 3. Mediate civil disputes	
27	Non-predatory crimes (drugs, prostitution, gambling)		1. Conduct field test for controlled substances 2. Handle report of narcotic or drug offense 3. Handle report of prostitution	
28	Weapons control (concealed, loaded, explosives, etc.)		1. Responds to a report of firearms discharged 2. Handle report of illegal weapons (e.g. brass knuckles) 3. Search properties to locate explosives	

C O D E	DESCRIPTION OF PROBLEM CODE	EXAMPLES OF PROBLEM CODE
29	Civil complaints and procedures/ordinance violations	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Issue citations for business license violations 2. Handle report of building code violation 3. Handle report of loitering
40	Traffic general	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Direct traffic by verbal instructions 2. Arrest and book traffic law violators 3. Issue citations to pedestrians who violate traffic laws
41	Parking enforcement (over-time, abandoned, zones)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Issue parking citations 2. Physically examine abandoned vehicles 3. Inform vehicle owners of legal obligations regarding removal
43	Accident related	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Interview those involved in traffic accidents 2. Control spectator access to traffic accident scene 3. Identify high accident frequency locations
44	Administrative (weight limits, vehicle inspection)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Issue citation for mechanical defects on motor vehicle 2. Inspect operator's license 3. Inspect vehicle registration
57	Media	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Write news releases 2. Provide information to news media for dissemination 3. Request help from news media in crime prevention or solving
58	Police-lesser rank/recruits	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Evaluate other officers 2. Provide class room instruction to other officers and recruits 3. Provide on-the-job training to recruits or reserves
59	Minorities	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Communicate in a foreign language 2. Are aware of the problems of racial discrimination 3. Permit a person's racial origin to impair objectivity
60	Citizen general	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Deliver death or emergency notifications to citizens 2. Provide street directions 3. Talk to people on the beat to establish rapport
61	Mentally ill, retarded, senile	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Attempts to persuade potential suicides and other mentally disturbed individuals not to harm themselves 2. Restrain mentally ill persons 3. Transport mental patients
62	Feeble, handicapped	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Handle report of invalid or elderly needing assistance

C O D E	DESCRIPTION OF PROBLEM CODE	EXAMPLES OF PROBLEM CODE
63	Sick or injured	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Administer first aid 2. Escort emergency cases to hospital 3. Examine injured/wounded persons
64	Emergencies-general	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Prevent panic during bomb threat by convincing parties in building that necessary steps are being taken 2. Use emergency tools to extricate trapped persons 3. Extinguish vehicle fires
65	Public drunkenness/intoxicated person	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Handle report of person drunk in public 2. Transport intoxicated persons to detoxification center 3. Handle report of intoxicated person
66	Dead body	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Make preliminary identification of deceased person 2. Approve removal of body from scene 3. Examine dead bodies to chart wounds or injuries to be included in the offense report
67	Juveniles	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Counsel juveniles formally and informally 2. Handle report of incorrigible juvenile 3. Retain or arrest juvenile offenders
68	Missing persons/lost child	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Handle report of lost child 2. Search for missing, lost, or wanted persons 3. Complete missing or wanted person report forms
69	Hostile citizen	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Overcome physical resistance with appropriate force 2. Use restraining devices other than handcuffs 3. Attempt to perform duties while receiving negative or abusive comments from actors or bystanders
70	Illegal alien	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Handle report of illegal alien
71	Victim	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Advise victims of the criminal process 2. Presents suspect to victim or witness for purposes of identification 3. Conduct background investigation of victims
72	Witness	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Request witness to submit written statement 2. Physically search for and interview voluntary witnesses to crimes, accidents, etc. 3. Show mug shots to witnesses

C O D E	DESCRIPTION OF PROBLEM CODE	EXAMPLES OF PROBLEM CODE
73	Suspect/prisoners	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Advise persons of rights 2. Handcuff suspects or prisoners 3. Pursue on foot fleeing suspects
74	Other police/equal rank	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Respond as back-up unit on crimes-in-progress 2. Notify adjacent districts of serious crimes or situations 3. Respond to officer-needs-help call
75	Other police/higher rank	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Communicate with supervisors during shift 2. Assist detectives in follow-up investigations 3. Advise and assist police department project directors in the administration of funded projects
76	Other CJS officials	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Communicate with other law enforcement agencies to give or obtain information 2. Discuss details of a case with D.A.'s office to determine whether a case should be considered civil or criminal 3. Receive complaints on city services
77	Other service agents/public/community	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Coordinate capital improvements and facility usage with other city departments 2. Gather and maintain information on bonding agencies 3. Receive complaints on city services
78	Previously convicted (probationers, parolees)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Handle report of probation or parole violations 2. Handle report of jail/prison break 3. Arrange for professional assistance for offenders not in custody
79	Informants	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Speak with and gain trust of persons to develop them as confidential informants and to gain information about crimes 2. Talk to informants to obtain information 3. Develop informants
80	General-non-crime incidents (Cotton Bowl duty, etc.)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Escort funerals, oversize loads, and ambulances and handle other unusual traffic accident 2. Patrol on foot large gatherings of people such as sports events to observe and to serve as a deterrent to violence and disorder
81	Community relations-general (e.g. officer friendly)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Prepares and delivers presentation to citizen groups 2. Conduct demonstrations on police functions for the public 3. Instruct numbers of the community in self-defense
82	Community relations-minorities	No examples found

C O D E	DESCRIPTION OF PROBLEM CODE	EXAMPLES OF PROBLEM CODE
83	Community relations-juveniles	1. Promote traffic safety at area schools
84	Information requests	1. Responds and advises on consumer complaints 2. Gives information such as traffic laws and travel directions 3. Receives incoming calls and complaints from public
85	Administration-internal (e.g. inspection, promotion, etc.)	1. Interview candidates for assignment to special services 2. Maintain logbook of civilian positions in the police department 3. Supervise payroll administration
86	Legal knowledge-possession of	1. Reviews legal statutes, codes, case decisions, and other reference material to assist in case preparation 2. Keep abreast of court rulings and opinions as they relate to police policy 3. Write affidavits
87	Police conduct-legal	1. Evaluate police car accidents 2. Investigate formal citizens' complaints against officers 3. Administer discipline or suspension to officers
89	Administration of legal procedures (warrants, orders, etc.)	1. Execute search warrant 2. Insure that prisoners sign waivers in front of judge 3. Issue pick-up or wanted notices
90	General knowledge/skills/abilities	1. Increase professional knowledge and skill through independent efforts 2. Perform simple mathematical calculations 3. Jump over obstacles
91	Support services/equipment, departmental	1. Inspects equipment and patrol car prior to duty 2. Man police station desk 3. Deliver new police cars to substations
92	Property/property damage, general	1. Destroy or auction unclaimed property 2. Inspect damage to vehicles or property 3. Notify private citizens of damage to their property
93	Maintenance of safe conditions, non-traffic	1. Watch for hazards to life and property and take appropriate action when discovered 2. Handle report of downed wires 3. Patrol locations on beat which are hazardous

C O D E	DESCRIPTION OF PROBLEM CODE	EXAMPLES OF PROBLEM CODE
94	Licensing-bicycle, finger printing of non-criminals	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Stamp serial numbers on bicycles; register bicycles brought in by citizens 2. Conduct background investigations on applicants for licenses 3. Verify credit information on certain businesses and determine how the business is run and financed

APPENDIX D

THE CODEBOOK OF CODEBOOKS

Note: APPENDIX D-1 (pp. D 1--D 14) consists of the codebook used for task analysis studies.

APPENDIX D-2 (pp. D 15--D 30) consists of the codebook used for citizen and police surveys.

APPENDIX D-1

CODE BOOK FOR TASK ANALYSIS STUDIES

<u>Item/Descriptor</u>	<u>Start Location</u>	<u>Finish Location</u>	<u>Coding Instructions/Codes</u>
1. Study I.D.	01	02	Code study number from code sheet A.
2. Item location			This information allows us to locate each item in the data set. It consists of two fields: one for the card number (location) and one for the column location. Some data sets don't have a card structure, e.g., Project STAR has a single card approximately 1,000 characters long. For such data sets, the card number is "01." If using a questionnaire, code card number as "99" and use item number in columns 5-8.
a. Card location	03	04	Code card number from code book. (Use "99" if from questionnaire.)
b. Starting column location	05	08	Code column number from code book. (Use item number if from questionnaire.)
3. Item relevance	09	09	This is the first major branching operation for this coding task. we are answering the question, "What substantive issue is this item about?"
<p>NOTE: If a statement links a condition with a performance, code as "determinant." If a statement describes the way in which work is done, code as "nature of"</p>			<p>1. The nature of role content - Code Cols. 10-14 as "88888." Proceed to Item 7 - question type.</p> <p>2. The determinants of role content - Code Cols/ 10, 11 as "88." Proceed to Item 5 - determinants.</p> <p>3. The nature of role performance - Code 10-13 as "8888." Proceed to Item 6 - performance natures.</p> <p>4. The determinants of role performance. - Code 10, 11 as "88." Proceed to Item 5 - determinants.</p>

<u>Item/Descriptor</u>	<u>Start Location</u>	<u>Finish Location</u>	<u>Coding Instructions/Codes</u>
3. Continued			<p>5. Control variable (e.g., age, sex, rank, education, etc.)</p> <p>NOTE: A control variable provides data about the respondent. It is not linked within an item to any statement regarding the role content or performance.</p>
4. Control variable type	10	11	<p>Code according to two-digit codes on code sheet B.</p>
5. Determinants	12	13	<p>Code according to two-digit codes on code sheet C.</p>
6. Performance natures	14	14	<p>1. Effectiveness 2. Efficiency 3. Officer style/manner 8. Not applicable</p>
7. Question type	15	15	<p>1. Description 2. Expectation 3. Evaluation of performance 4. Statement of desire 5. Evaluation of content 8. Not applicable</p>
8. Type of information	16	16	<p>1. Time spent 2. Frequency 3. Importance 8. Inapplicable</p>
9. Behavior specificity	17	17	<p>This is a second major branching operation in this coding effort. We have agreed to code items as <u>TASKS</u> if it is at all possible.</p>

- Proceed to Item 4
Control variable type.

- Stop. No further coding is to be done for control variables.

- Code Col. 14 as "8."
Proceed to Item 7 - Question type.

Bring item to coding meeting.

<u>Item/Descriptor</u>	<u>Start Location</u>	<u>Finish Location</u>	<u>Coding Instructions/Codes</u>
9. continued			
NOTE: When working on those tasks which are organized by "duty" or "function," start with the duty designation and then combine with the statement in order to identify the problem and then use an appropriate response category. DO NOT CODE DUTY OR FUNCTION SEPARATELY AS PROBELMS!			1. Function - Proceed to Item 10 - Functional categories.
			2. Task - Code Cols. 18 as "8." Proceed to Item 11 - Problem type.
			3. Activity - Code Cols. 18 as "8." Proceed to Item 11 - Problem type.
			4. No decision - Bring to coding meeting.
			8. Inapplicable
10. Functional categories:	18	18	0. The police function/general 1. Build respect for law and CJS 2. Protect constitutional rights 3. Protect society 4. Crime control 5. Maintain order 6. Enforce law 7. Provide public assistance Stop. If item is a function there is no information to code.
11. Problem/Issue	19	20	Code as specified on code sheet D
12. Response	21	22	Code as specified on code sheet E - That's all folks!

CODE SHEET A - TASK ANALYSES

(Columns 1 - 2)

<u>Codes</u>	<u>Author(s)</u>	<u>Title</u>
01	Wollack and Associates	The Validation of Entry-Level Police Officer Selection Procedures in the State of Washington
02	LFW Management Consultants; P. R. Jeanneret and J. A. Dubin	A Validity Study of Police Officer Selection, Training and Promotion: Volume IV Job Analyses of Positions (Houston)
03	J. W. Kohls, G. W. Berner and L. K. Luke	Calif. Entry-Level Law Enforcement Officer Job Analysis: Technical Report No. 1
04	Educational Testing Service; M. Rosenfeld and R. F. Thornton	The Development and Validation of a Multijurisdictional Police Examination
05	R. L. Lowe, K. R. Cook and D. N. Rannefeld	A Job Analyses of Entry-Level Peace Officers in Georgia
06	Occupational Research Program: Texas A & M University; D. T. Goodgame and Y. V. Rao	An Analysis and Definition of Basic Training Requirements for Municipal Police Officers in Texas
07	Arthur Young and Co. M. L. Lifter, P. F. Allivato and D. P. Jones	Suburban Police Officer Job Analysis: Twin Cities Metropolitan Area

CODE SHEET A - TASK ANALYSES
(Columns 1 - 2)

<u>Codes</u>	<u>Author(s)</u>	<u>Title</u>
08	The American Justice Institute; C. P. Smith	Project STAR
09	American Institutes for Research; A. S. Glickman, R. W. Stephen- son and D. Felker	A Nationwide Survey of Law Enforcement Criminal Justice Personnel Needs and Resources: Volume 8

CODE SHEET B - CONTROL VARIABLES

(Columns 10 - 11)

Characteristics of Incident

- 01 Time
- 02 Location

Characteristics of Environment External to Organization

- 11 Region
- 12 Size of city
- 13 Citizen characteristics (population composition by race, age, economic status, etc., attitudes of citizens)

Characteristics of Organization

- 21 Age of department
- 22 Conditions of work, actual organizational (e.g., 1-officer versus 2-officer units, team policing, rotated versus non-rotated shifts, structure of supervision, etc.)
- 23 Conditions of work, perceptual (e.g., sense of autonomy, discretion, participation, supervision, etc.)

(NOTE: Use 22 or 23 when the item refers to conditions at a departmental level; if item refers to respondent's own work conditions, use 43 or 44.)

- 24 Personnel characteristics (age, education, attitudes of other officers, etc.)
- 25 Policies/strategies
- 26 Reward structure/pay
- 27 Size of department
- 28 Technology
- 29 Training

Characteristics of Occupation

- 31 Militarism
- 32 Professionalism
- 33 Unionism

CODE SHEET B - cont.

Characteristics of Respondent's Own Job

- 41 Assignment (task, function, duty, etc.)
- 42 Characteristics of assignment (nature of area worked, time of work, etc.)
- 43 Conditions of work, actual organizational (e.g., 1-officer versus 2-officer units, team policing, sex composition of work group)
- 44 Conditions of work, perceptual (e.g., sense of autonomy, discretion, participation, supervision, etc.)
- 45 Rank
- 46 Years in organization

Characteristics of Individual (Note: Use for any respondent.)

- 51 Age
- 52 Education
- 53 Family relationship (e.g., relation to head of household)
- 54 Family size
- 55 Income
- 56 Marital status
- 57 Military experience
- 58 Occupation (present or prior)
- 59 Personal habits (drinking, hobbies, medication, recreation and sports, smoking, etc.)
- 60 Personality/attitudes/personal style
- 61 Physical characteristics (agility, health, height, strength, weight)
- 62 Race
- 63 Religious activity/preference
- 64 Residence (duration, location, prior, reasons for choosing, etc.)
- 65 Sex
- 66 Status with respect to incident (investigating officer, reporting person, victim, witness, etc.)
- 67 Knowledge, skills, abilities

CODE SHEET C - DETERMINANTS

(Columns 12 - 13)

Characteristics of Incident

- 01 Time
- 02 Location

Characteristics of Environment External to Organization

- 11 Region
- 12 Size of city
- 13 Citizen characteristics (population composition by race, age, economic status, etc., attitudes of citizens)

Characteristics of Organization

- 21 Age of department
- 22 Conditions of work, actual organizational (e.g., 1-officer versus 2-officer units, team policing, rotated versus non-rotated shifts, structure of supervision, etc.)
- 23 Conditions of work, perceptual (e.g., sense of autonomy, discretion, participation, supervision, etc.)

(NOTE: Use 22 or 23 when the item refers to conditions at a departmental level; if item refers to respondent's own work conditions, use 43 or 44.)

- 24 Personnel characteristics (age, education, attitudes of other officers, etc.)
- 25 Policies/strategies
- 26 Reward structure/pay
- 27 Size of department
- 28 Technology
- 29 Training

Characteristics of Occupation

- 31 Militarism
- 32 Professionalism
- 33 Unionism

CODE SHEET C - cont.

Characteristics of Respondent's Own Job

- 41 Assignment (task, function, duty, etc.)
- 42 Characteristics of assignment (nature of area worked, time of work, etc.)
- 43 Conditions of work, actual organizational (e.g., 1-officer versus 2-officer units, team policing, sex composition of work group)
- 44 Conditions of work, perceptual (e.g., sense of autonomy, discretion, participation, supervision, etc.)
- 45 Rank
- 46 Years in organization

Characteristics of Individual (Note: Use for any respondent.)

- 51 Age
- 52 Education
- 53 Family relationship (e.g., relation to head of household)
- 54 Family size
- 55 Income
- 56 Marital status
- 57 Military experience
- 58 Occupation (present or prior)
- 59 Personal habits (drinking, hobbies, medication, recreation and sports, smoking, etc.)
- 60 Personality/attitudes/personal style
- 61 Physical characteristics (agility, health, height, strength, weight)
- 62 Race
- 63 Religious activity/preference
- 64 Residence (duration, location, prior, reasons for choosing, etc.)
- 65 Sex
- 66 Status with respect to incident (investigating officer, reporting person, victim, witness, etc.)
- 67 Knowledge, skills, abilities

CODE SHEET D - PROBLEM, SITUATION, ISSUE, INCIDENT TYPE
(Columns 19 - 20)

General Decision Rule: Whenever you encounter an item that lists several behaviors that necessitate police response (drunks, citizen hostility, loitering, breaking and entering), always try to use the one that provokes the police response. If a decision cannot be made to identify a single problem, utilize the double coding procedure.

<u>Code</u>	<u>Description</u>
00	No specific problem identified: use when a. "patrol" in particular is specified, or b. the general investigatory task is specified but no object (e.g., traffic, missing persons, etc.) is specified, or c. often used when coding an activity (i.e., behavior that applies to many problems/tasks).

Crime Related (all predatory offenses, excluding disputes):

	Crime general alleged (code as 02, 03, if possible)
02	Person crime alleged (must involve bodily harm/potential)
03	Property crime alleged
04	Crime general/suspicious circumstances (code as 05, 06, if possible)
05	Suspicious person
06	Suspicious circumstances (non-person environment)
07	Crime/law violation prevention general (code as 08, 09, if possible)
08	Crime prevention - person (must involve bodily harm/potential)
09	Crime prevention - property
10	Evidence

Order Related

20	Disorder prevention/keep peace/manage beat (use more specific item when possible)
21	Riot control
22	Non-riot crowd control
23	Animal control
24	Nuisance/disturbing peace
25	Domestic disturbances
26	Other disputes (neighbors, friends)
27	Non-predatory crimes (drugs, prostitution, gambling)
28	Weapons control (concealed, loaded, explosives, etc.)
29	Civil complaints and procedures/ordinance violations

CODE SHEET D - cont.

<u>Code</u>	<u>Description</u>
-------------	--------------------

Traffic and Parking

- | | |
|----|---|
| 40 | Traffic general - use one of the ones below if possible |
| 41 | Parking enforcement (over-time, abandoned, zones) |
| 42 | Moving enforcement (speed, drunk, improper turns) |
| 43 | Accident related |
| 44 | Administrative (weight limits, vehicle inspection) |

Dealing With Special Classes of Persons (NOTE: Except in the case of missing persons, this category implies direct interaction.)

- | | |
|----|--|
| 57 | Media |
| 58 | Police-lesser rank/recruits |
| 59 | Minorities |
| 60 | Citizen general - This is added in contrast to Community relations - general: use this category unless the goal of the police action indicates it is clearly directed at community relations as in "officer friendly," "speaking to community groups," and so forth. |
| 61 | Mentally ill, retarded, senile |
| 62 | Feeble, handicapped |
| 63 | Sick or injured |
| 64 | Emergencies - general |
| 65 | Public drunkenness/intoxicated person |
| 66 | Dead body |
| 67 | Juveniles |
| 68 | Missing persons/lost child |
| 69 | Hostile citizen |
| 70 | Illegal aliens |
| 71 | Victim |
| 72 | Witness |
| 73 | Suspect/prisoners |
| 74 | Other police/equal rank |
| 75 | Other police/higher rank |
| 76 | Other CJS officials |
| 77 | Other service agents/public/community |
| 78 | Previously convicted (probationers, parolees) |
| 79 | Informants |

CODE SHEET D - cont.

<u>Code</u>	<u>Description</u>
-------------	--------------------

Miscellaneous Problem Issues

80	General - non-crime incidents (Cotton Bowl duty, funeral escorts, parades)
81	Community relations - general (e.g., officer friendly, speaking to community groups--Code 82, 83 when possible)
82	Community relations - minorities
83	Community relations - juveniles
84	Information requests
85	Administration - internal (e.g., inspection, promotion, commendation, complaints) (NOTE: Refers to record keeping regarding the running of the department itself, but not to reports on incidents)
86	Legal knowledge - possession of, demonstration of competency with laws
87	Police conduct - legal
88	Not applicable
89	Administration of legal procedures (warrants, orders, summonses)
90	General knowledge/skills/abilities
91	Support services/equipment, departmental (e.g., take care of car, clean weapon)
92	Property/property damage, general
93	Maintenance of safe conditions - non-traffic (hazardous conditions)
94	Licensing - bicycle, finger-printing of non-criminals

CODE SHEET E - RESPONSES
(Columns 21 - 22)

<u>Code</u>	<u>Description</u>
00	Responds to call/deal with-handle: Use when police handle on-site incidents and/or dispatched calls that may or may not be crime-related. GIVE A MORE SPECIFIC ANSWER.
01	Observe /perform surveillance
02	Investigate--crime alleged/suspected
03	Obtain information--non-crime: understanding minorities, human nature, juveniles; gather information (diagrams) for accidents, community problems
04	Obtain information--crime: no alleged or suspected incident
(NOTE: If item does not distinguish between crime and non-crime information, use 03 - non-crime.)	
05	Search and seizure
06	Give information/advise/teach/counsel
07	Give warning/lecture/reprimand
08	Mediate
09	Issue citation
10	Use of force--no arrest specified
11	Arrest--no force (use for arrest unless force is specified)
12	Arrest--force
13	Prepare report/forms
14	Testify
15	Talk/discuss/socialize (sports events, conversations, develop rapport, etc.)
16	Employ emergency procedure
17	Plan/research/handle data
18	Request assistance from/make referral to other agency/citizens/police
19	Provide special transportation/escort (non-medical emergency)
20	Prepare/maintain equipment
21	Secure/guard property
22	Secure/guard persons (e.g., protect dignitaries)
23	Use equipment
24	Pursue/apprehend/lose suspect
25	Give physical assistance
26	Secure evidence
27	Confer/share information

CODE SHEET E - cont.

<u>Code</u>	<u>Description</u>
28	Supervise
29	Provide assistance
30	Evaluate; make judgments; determine value of
31	Decide/use discretion
32	Perform clerical duties
88	No action
98	Multiple response - more than one police response indicated (avoid like plague)
99	Not applicable

APPENDIX D-2

FOR CITIZEN and POLICE SURVEYS

Item/Descriptor	Start Location	Finish Location	Coding Instructions/Codes
1. Study I.D.	01	02	Code study number from code sheet A.
2. Item location			This information allows us to locate each item in the data set. It consists of two fields: one for the card number (location) and one for the column location. Some data sets don't have a card structure, e.g., Project STAR has a single card approximately 1,000 characters long. For such data sets, the card number is "01." If using a questionnaire, code card number as "99" and use item number in columns 5-8.
a. Card location	03	04	Code card number from code book. (Use "99" if from questionnaire.)
b. Starting column location	05	08	Code column number from code book. (Use item number if from questionnaire.)
3.	09	09	
4. Item perspective	10	10	1. respondent's own view 2. respondent's view of another (either person, group or organization)
5. Item relevance	11	11	This is the first major branching operation for this coding task. we are answering the question, "What substantive issue is this item about?"
NOTE: If a statement links a condition with a performance, code as "determinant." If a statement describes the way in which work is done, code as "nature of"			1. The nature of role content - Code Cols. 12-18 as "88888." Proceed to Item 10 - question type.
			2. The determinants of role content - Code Cols. 12-15 as "88." Proceed to Item 8 - determinants.

<u>Item/Descriptor</u>	<u>Start Location</u>	<u>Finish Location</u>	<u>Coding Instructions/Codes</u>	
			3. The nature of role performance	- Code 12-17 as "8888." Proceed to Item 9 - performance natures.
			4. The determinants of role performance.	- Code 12-15 as "88." Proceed to Item 8 - determinants.
			5. Control variable (e.g., age, sex, rank, education, etc.)	- Proceed to Item 6 Control variable type.
			NOTE: A control variable provides data about the respondent. It is not linked within an item to any statement regarding the role content or performance.	
			6. Role correlates.	- Code Cols. 12, 13 as "88." Proceed to Item 7 - Role correlate type.
			7. Open-ended	
6. Control variable type	12	13	Code according to two-digit codes on code sheet B.	- Stop. No further coding is to be done for control variables.
7. Role correlate type	14	15	Code according to two-digit codes on code sheet F.	- Code Cols. 16, 17 as "88." Proceed to Item 9 - Performance natures
8. Determinants	16	17	Code according to two-digit codes on code sheet C.	- Code Col. 18 as "8." Proceed to Item 10 - Question type.
9. Performance natures	18	18	1. Effectiveness 2. Efficiency 3. Officer style/manner 4. Method 8. Not applicable	

<u>Item/Descriptor</u>	<u>Start Location</u>	<u>Finish Location</u>	<u>Coding Instructions/Codes</u>
10. Question type	19	19	1. Description 2. Expectation 3. Evaluation of performance 4. Statement of desire 5. Evaluation of content 6. Evaluation of determinant 7. Evaluation of correlate 8. Not applicable
11. Type of information	20	20	1. Time spent 2. Frequency 3. Importance 4. Desirability 5. Probability 6. Merit/quality 7. Amount/level/adequacy 8. Inapplicable
12. Behavior specificity	21	21	This is a second major branching operation in this coding effort. We have agreed to code items as <u>TASKS</u> if it is at all possible.

NOTE: When working on those tasks which are organized by "duty" or "function," start with the duty designation and then combine with the statement in order to identify the problem and then use an appropriate response category. DO NOT CODE DUTY OR FUNCTION SEPARATELY AS PROBELMS!

1. Function
2. Task
3. Activity
4. No decision
5. Open-ended
8. Inapplicable

- Proceed to Item 13 - Functional categories.
- Code Col. 22 as "8." Proceed to Item 14 - Problem type.
- Code Col. 22 as "8." Proceed to Item 14 - Problem type.
- Bring to coding meeting.
- Stop.

<u>Item/Descriptor</u>	<u>Start Location</u>	<u>Finish Location</u>	<u>Coding Instructions/Codes</u>
13. Functional categories:	22	22	0. The police function/general 1. Build respect for law and CJS 2. Protect constitutional rights 3. Protect society 4. Crime control 5. Maintain order 6. Enforce law 7. Provide public assistance
14. Problem/Issue	23	24	Code as specified on code sheet D.
15. Response	25	26	Code as specified on code sheet E.
16. Double code	27	27	A. Problem change only B. Response change only C. Both problem and response change

Stop. If item is a
function there is no
information to code.

CODE SHEET A - CITIZEN AND OFFICER SURVEYS

(Columns 1 - 2)

<u>Codes</u>	<u>Author(s)</u>	<u>Title</u>
01	Police Foundation, 1973	<u>The Dallas Experience: Human Resource Development</u>
02	Police Foundation, 1972a	<u>The Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment (Human Resource Development Questionnaire I)</u>
03	Police Foundation, 1973b	<u>The Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment (Human Resource Development Questionnaire II)</u>
04	Police Foundation, 1981	<u>New Jersey Foot Patrol Experiment</u>
05	Hunt	<u>Community Relations and Law Enforcement</u>
06	Opinion Research Corporation	<u>Police Community Relations: A Survey Among New York City Patrolmen</u>
07	Sterling	<u>Changes in Role Concepts of Police Officers</u>
08	Schaefer	<u>The Police: Law Enforcers, Peace Keepers, Servicers</u>
09	O'Neill	<u>The Role of the Police: Normative Role Expectations in a Metropolitan Police Department</u>
10	Manack	<u>Role Strain of the Small Town Police Officer</u>
11	Johnson	<u>A Study of Police Resistance to Police Community Relations in a Municipal Police Department</u>
12	Belson	<u>The Public and the Police (Adult Survey)</u>
13	Schwartz and Clarren	<u>The Cincinnati Team Policing Experiment (Commercial Survey)</u>
14	Schwartz and Clarren	<u>The Cincinnati Team Policing Experiment (Household Survey)</u>
15	Green, Schaeffer, Finckenaue	<u>Survey of Community Expectations of Police Service: A Pilot Study</u>

CODE SHEET A - CITIZEN AND OFFICER SURVEYS (Con't)
(Columns 1 - 2)

<u>Codes</u>	<u>Author(s)</u>	<u>Title</u>
16	Guyot	Untitled, Study of Police Services in Troy, New York
17	Police Foundation, 1972	<u>The Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment (Citizen Survey, 1972)</u>
18	Police Foundation, 1973a	<u>The Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment (Citizen Survey, 1973)</u>
19	Friday and Sonnad	<u>Community Survey of Public Attitudes, Knowledge, and Expectations of the Kalamazoo City Police</u>
20	McNelly	"Police Win Public Concern, Support"
21	Vuchich, Spragens, Sarma	<u>A Study of Police Services, Manpower, and Communication in Oshkosh, Wisconsin</u>
22	Boydston	<u>San Diego Field Interrogation</u>
23	Boydston and Sherry	<u>San Diego Community Profile</u>
24	Courtis	<u>Attitudes to Crime and the Police in Toronto</u>
25	Belson	<u>The Public and the Police (Police Survey)</u>
26	Guyot	Untitled, Survey of Public Attitudes in Newark

CODE SHEET E - CONTROL VARIABLES

(Columns 12 - 13)

Characteristics of Incident

- 01 Time
- 02 Location

Characteristics of Environment External to Organization

- 11 Region
- 12 Size of city
- 13 Citizen characteristics (population composition by race, age, economic status, etc., attitudes of citizens)

Characteristics of Organization

- 21 Age of department
- 22 Conditions of work, actual organizational (e.g., 1-officer versus 2-officer units, team policing, rotated versus non-rotated shifts, structure of supervision, etc.)
- 23 Conditions of work, perceptual (e.g., sense of autonomy, discretion, participation, supervision, etc.)

(NOTE: Use 22 or 23 when the item refers to conditions at a departmental level; if item refers to respondent's own work conditions, use 43 or 44.)

- 24 Personnel characteristics (age, education, attitudes of other officers, etc.)
- 25 Policies/strategies
- 26 Reward structure/pay
- 27 Size of department
- 28 Technology
- 29 Training

Characteristics of Occupation

- 31 Militarism
- 32 Professionalism
- 33 Unionism

Characteristics of Respondent's Own Job

- Characteristics of Individual (Note: Use for any respondent.)

- ### Knowledge of Police

- 88 Inapplicable

CODE SHEET C - DETERMINANTS

(Columns 16 - 17)

Characteristics of Incident

- 01 Time
- 02 Location

Characteristics of Environment External to Organization

- 11 Region
- 12 Size of city
- 13 Citizen characteristics (population composition by race, age, economic status, etc., attitude and demeanor of citizens)

Characteristics of Organization

- 21 Age of department
- 22 Conditions of work, actual organizational (e.g., 1-officer versus 2-officer units, team policing, rotated versus non-rotated shifts, structure of supervision, etc.)
- 23 Conditions of work, perceptual (e.g., sense of autonomy, discretion, participation, supervision, etc.)

(NOTE: Use 22 or 23 when the item refers to conditions at a departmental level; if item refers to respondent's own work conditions, use 43 or 44.)

- 24 Personnel characteristics (age, education, race, attitudes of other officers, etc.)
- 25 Policies/strategies
- 26 Reward structure/pay/other reinforcements
- 27 Size of department
- 28 Technology
- 29 Training

Characteristics of Occupation

- 31 Militarism
- 32 Professionalism
- 33 Unionism

CODE SHEET C - cont.

Characteristics of Respondent's Own Job

- 41 Assignment (task, function, duty, etc.)
- 42 Characteristics of assignment (nature of area worked, time of work, etc.)
- 43 Conditions of work, actual organizational (e.g., 1-officer versus 2-officer units, team policing, sex composition of work group)
- 44 Conditions of work, perceptual (e.g., sense of autonomy, discretion, participation, supervision, etc.)
- 45 Rank
- 46 Years in organization
- 47 Capacity (right to search, etc.)
- 48 Rewards, recognition (formal or informal)

Characteristics of Individual (Note: Use for any actor mentioned in the item. The item has to link the individual characteristic to either a role content or performance.)

- 51 Age
- 52 Education
- 53 Family relationship (e.g., relation to head of household)
- 54 Family size
- 55 Income
- 56 Marital status
- 57 Military experience
- 58 Occupation (present or prior)
- 59 Personal habits (drinking, hobbies, medication, recreation and sports, smoking, etc.)
- 60 Personality/attitudes/personal style
- 61 Physical characteristics (agility, health, height, strength, weight)
- 62 Race
- 63 Religious activity/preference
- 64 Residence (duration, location, prior, reasons for choosing, etc.)
- 65 Sex
- 66 Status with respect to incident (investigating officer, reporting person, victim, witness, etc.)
- 67 Knowledge, skills, abilities

Knowledge of police

- 70 Knowledge of police-general
- 71 Formal contact
- 72 Informal contact
- 73 Observed/known use of force
- 74 Friends and/or relatives
- 75 Exposure to media
- 76 Other sources

88 Inapplicable

CODE SHEET D - PROBLEM, SITUATION, ISSUE, INCIDENT TYPE
(Columns 23 - 24)

General Decision Rule: Whenever you encounter an item that lists several behaviors that necessitate police response (drunks, citizen hostility, loitering, breaking and entering), always try to use the one that provokes the police response. If a decision cannot be made to identify a single problem, utilize the double coding procedure.

<u>Code</u>	<u>Description</u>
00	No specific problem identified: use when a. "patrol" in particular is specified, or b. the general investigatory task is specified but no object (e.g., traffic, missing persons, etc.) is specified, or c. often used when coding an activity (i.e., behavior that applies to many problems/tasks).

Crime Related (all predatory offenses, excluding disputes):

01	Crime general alleged (code as 02, 03, if possible)
02	Person crime alleged (must involve bodily harm/potential)
03	Property crime alleged
04	Crime general/suspicious circumstances (code as 05, 06, if possible)
05	Suspicious person
06	Suspicious circumstances (non-person environment)
07	Crime/law violation prevention general (code as 08, 09, if possible)
08	Crime prevention - person (must involve bodily harm/potential)
09	Crime prevention - property
10	Evidence
11	Organized crime
12	White collar crime (including consumer fraud)

Order Related

20	Disorder prevention/keep peace/manage beat (use more specific item when possible)
21	Riot control
22	Non-riot crowd control
23	Animal control
24	Nuisance/disturbing peace
25	Domestic disturbances
26	Other disputes (neighbors, friends)
27	Non-predatory crimes (drugs, prostitution, gambling)
28	Weapons control (concealed, loaded, explosives, etc.)
29	Civil complaints and procedures/ordinance violations

CODE SHEET D - cont.

<u>Code</u>	<u>Description</u>
-------------	--------------------

Traffic and Parking

- | | |
|----|---|
| 40 | Traffic general - use one of the ones below if possible |
| 41 | Parking enforcement (over-time, abandoned, zones) |
| 42 | Moving enforcement (speed, drunk, improper turns) |
| 43 | Accident related |
| 44 | Administrative (weight limits, vehicle inspection) |

Dealing With Special Classes of Persons (NOTE: Except in the case of missing persons, this category implies direct interaction.)

- | | |
|----|--|
| 55 | Political/subversive groups |
| | Economic group |
| 57 | Media |
| 58 | Police-lesser rank/recruits |
| 59 | Racial or ethnic groups (including minorities) |
| 60 | Citizen general - This is added in contrast to Community relations - general: use this category unless the goal of the police action indicates it is clearly directed at community relations as in "officer friendly," "speaking to community groups," and so forth. |
| 61 | Mentally ill, retarded, senile |
| 62 | Feeble, handicapped |
| 63 | Sick or injured |
| 64 | Emergencies - general |
| 65 | Public drunkenness/intoxicated person |
| 66 | Dead body |
| 67 | Juveniles |
| 68 | Missing persons/lost child |
| 69 | Hostile citizen |
| | Illegal aliens |
| 71 | Victim |
| 72 | Witness |
| 73 | Suspect/prisoners |
| 74 | Other police/equal rank |
| 75 | Other police/higher rank |
| 76 | Other CJS officials |
| 77 | Other service agents/public/community |
| 78 | Previously convicted (probationers, parolees) |
| 79 | Informants |

CODE SHEET D - cont.

<u>Code</u>	<u>Description</u>
<u>Miscellaneous Problem Issues</u>	
80	General - non-crime incidents (Cotton Bowl duty, funeral escorts, parades)
81	Community relations - general (e.g., officer friendly, speaking to community groups--Code 82, 83 when possible)
82	Community relations - minorities
83	Community relations - juveniles
84	Information requests
85	Administration - internal (e.g., inspection, promotion, commendation, complaints) (NOTE: Refers to record keeping regarding the running of the department itself, but not to reports on incidents)
86	Legal knowledge - possession of, demonstration of competency with laws
87	Police conduct (e.g., honesty, corruption, force, legality, etc.)
88	Not applicable
89	Administration of legal procedures (warrants, orders, summonses)
90	General knowledge/skills/abilities
91	Support services/equipment, departmental (e.g., take care of car, clean weapon)
92	Property/property damage, general (non-crime, non-emergency)
93	Maintenance of safe conditions - non-traffic (hazardous conditions)
94	Licensing - bicycle, finger-printing of non-criminals

CODE SHEET E - RESPONSES
(Columns 25 - 26)

<u>Code</u>	<u>Description</u>
00	Responds to call/deal with-handle: Use when police handle on-site incidents and/or dispatched calls that may or may not be crime-related. GIVE A MORE SPECIFIC ANSWER.
01	Observe/perform surveillance
02	Investigate--crime alleged/suspected
03	Obtain information--non-crime: understanding minorities, human nature, juveniles; gather information (diagrams) for accidents, community problems
04	Obtain information--crime: no alleged or suspected incident
(NOTE: If item does not distinguish between crime and non-crime information, use 03 - non-crime.)	
Search and seizure	
06	Give information/advise/teach/counsel
07	Give warning/lecture/reprimand
08	Mediate
09	Issue citation
10	Use of force--no arrest specified
11	Arrest--no force (use for arrest unless force is specified)
12	Arrest--force
13	Prepare report/forms
14	Testify
15	Talk/discuss/socialize (sports events, conversations, develop rapport, etc.)
16	Employ emergency procedure
17	Plan/research/handle data
18	Request assistance from/make referral to other agency/citizens/police
19	Provide special transportation/escort (non-medical emergency)
20	Prepare/maintain equipment
21	Secure/guard property
22	Secure/guard persons (e.g., protect dignitaries)
23	Use equipment
24	Pursue/apprehend/lose suspect
25	Give physical assistance
26	Secure evidence
27	Confer/share information

CODE SHEET E - cont.

<u>Code</u>	<u>Description</u>
28	Supervise
29	Provide assistance
30	Evaluate; make judgments; determine value of
31	Decide/use discretion
32	Perform clerical duties
33	Develop program of community relations
34	Deterrence/prevention
35	Patrol - unspecified
36	Motor patrol (car, motorcycle, helicopter, boat)
37	Non-motor patrol (bicycle, foot, horse)
88	No action
98	Multiple response - more than one police response indicated (avoid like plague)
99	Not applicable

CODE SHEET F - ROLE CORRELATES
(Columns 14 - 15)

Code

- 01 Citizen assessment of police/community relationship
- 02 Citizen attitude toward police characteristics (e.g., personality, honesty, corruption, etc.)
- 03 Citizen attitude toward general police performance
- 04 Citizen attitude toward specific-incident police performance
- 05 Police assessment of police/community relationship
- 06 Police attitudes toward police characteristics (e.g., personality, honesty, corruption, etc.)
- 07 Police attitudes toward general police performance
- 08 Police attitudes toward specific-incident police performance
- 09 Police attitudes toward work, conditions of work
- 10 Citizen understanding of police job
- 11 Police understanding of police job
- 12 Police attitude toward citizen characteristics
- 13 Participation in police policy-making
- 14 Prior expectations about job-satisfaction
- 15 Officer's attitude with Duty, causality, life, self
- 16 Officer's physical, emotional condition/health habits, problems

APPENDIX E
POLICE JOB/TASK ANALYSES
A DISCUSSION OF CONTENT AND METHOD
BY
CHARLES E. SUSMILCH

E-1

APPENDIX E
POLICE JOB/TASK ANALYSES
A DISCUSSION OF CONTENT AND METHOD

I. Introduction

In exploring the empirical literature on "what police do," it was apparent that several distinct methodologies have been used in addressing the question; among these are analyses of calls to police, analyses of calls dispatched to police units, the analyses of activity logs maintained by officers or observers, detailed accounts of police/citizen interactions given by observers, surveys of citizens, surveys of officers and an approach generally identified as job/task analyses.¹

Prien and Ronen (1971) identify a job analysis as an attempt to delineate various dimensions of a job in which both the duration and condition of work may be analyzed as well as the hypothesized qualifications of the worker. Theoretically, job analyses would attempt to delineate the dimensions of an entire occupation or occupational assignment while task analyses would focus on the elements of the tasks required for the performance of the job. However, the various studies analyzed for this project did not all maintain this distinction. Because so many items were constructed around tasks, we elected to refer to this general class of studies as task analyses.

We determined that a large number of task analyses of policing were

1. Although most police job/task analyses are based ultimately on police officer surveys, they are distinguished from a more general body of officer surveys; task analyses tend to focus on the content and performance of the job while officer surveys more generally address themselves to a broader range of attitudes and issues related to the job.

either in progress or recently had been performed² for the purpose of designing and/or validating criteria for police officer selection and/or promotion or for the purpose of designing training curricula. Because these studies represented a deliberate effort to examine the nature of the police job and further represented a sizeable investment of government resources, it was decided that completed task analyses should be explored as a potential major source of information about the nature of the police role.

II. Selection of studies

The project staff learned of existing task analyses either through the staff review of the policing literature or as a consequence of attending a conference on police task analyses sponsored by LEAA in November 1978. Copies of reports and/or data collection instruments were obtained through the library or by direct contact with the various project directors. Final selection of studies for inclusion in this study depended on the availability of the research instrument, and documentation about its use, and on staff evaluation of substantive and methodological merit.³ The substantive emphasis was on studies which explicitly endeavored to answer the question, "What do police officers do?" and which tended to be specific in their descriptions of tasks. Studies were eliminated which depended upon only a few (50 or less) respondents as were studies which utilized panels of "experts" rather than job incumbents. (We argued that no one else could be as knowledgeable about job content

2. A 1978 conference sponsored by LEAA and attended by this project staff was attended by persons representing at least 60 private organizations or police agencies which had either completed, were conducting or were planning police job analyses.

3. A methodological review of each study was prepared according to a common outline; these provided the basis for decision-making.

as the incumbent.)

Ultimately, nine studies of the police job were selected for analysis. The study identities and a variety of information about them are presented in Figure A-1. Figure A-2 provides methodological information about the studies.

III. Dimensions of the studies

A. Geography. With the exception of the Glickman, et al. (1976), i.e., the National Manpower Survey, which included the Boston, Massachusetts and Rochester, New York SMSAs in their samples, the studies have been conducted outside the northeast. Although our bibliographic search made us aware of studies done in Hartford, Connecticut, New York City and Pennsylvania, we were unable to obtain copies of these reports. Our efforts to obtain the Hartford and Pennsylvania studies included requesting the studies from the National Criminal Justice Reference Service. Although we learned of these sources through an NCJRS bibliographic search and they had NCJRS acquisition numbers, we have not been able to acquire these reports.

B. Jurisdictions. The studies selected run the gamut from a study of a single large metropolitan department (Jeanneret and Dubin, 1977), to a multiple jurisdiction single SMSA (Lifter, Allivato and Jones, 1977), to multiple departments in single states (Kohls, et al., 1979; Wollack and Associates, 1977; Lowe et al., 1977 and Goodgame and Rao, 1977), to multiple department, multiple state studies (Rosenfeld and Thornton, 1976; Smith, 1972 and Glickman, et al., 1976).

C. Sponsors. Except for the Rosenfeld and Thornton (1976) piece, which was sponsored and funded through private (non-profit) sources,

these studies have been sponsored and funded by governmental or quasi-governmental units of government. Funding ultimately was derived from LEAA in each of these cases.

FIGURE E-1

STUDIES SELECTED FOR ANALYSIS

	<u>Title</u>	<u>Sponsor</u>	<u>Author(s)</u>	<u>Jurisdiction(s)</u>	<u>Date</u>
1.	The Validation of Entry-Level Police Officer Selection Procedures in the State of Washington	Association of Washington Cities	Wollack and Associates	41 Washington State Municipal Police Departments and Sheriff's Departments	1977
2.	A Validity Study of Police Officer Selection, Training and Promotion: Volume IV Job Analyses of Positions	Houston Police Department	LFWF Management Consultants; P. R. Jeanneret and J.A. Dubin	Houston, Texas	1977
3.	Calif. Entry-Level Law Enforcement Officer Job Analysis: Technical Report No. 1	Calif. Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training	J. W. Kohls, G. W. Berner and L. K. Luke	219 Calif. Municipal and County Law Enforcement Agencies	1979
4.	The Development and Validation of a Multijurisdictional Police Examination	Police Foundation and International Assoc. of Chiefs of Police	Educational Testing Service; M. Rosenfeld and R. F. Thornton	Cincinnati, OH; Kansas City, MO; Miami, FL; Oakland, CA; San Diego, CA; Savannah, GA; MA State Police, MD State Police; Dade County, FL	1976
5.	A Job Analyses of Entry-Level Peace Officers in Georgia	Georgia Peace Officer Standards and Training Council	R. L. Lowe, K. R. Cook and D. N. Rannefeld	246 GA Municipal and County Law Enforcement Agencies	1977
6.	An Analysis and Definition of Basic Training Requirements for Municipal Police Officers in Texas	Texas Commission on Law Enforcement Officer Standards and Education	Occupational Research Program: Texas A & M University; D. T. Goodgame and Y. V. Rao	107 TX Municipal Law Enforcement Agencies	1977
7.	Suburban Police Officer Job Analysis: Twin Cities Metropolitan Area	Metropolitan Area Management Association (St. Paul, MN)	Arthur Young and Co. M. Lifter, P. Allivato and D. Jones	51 Minneapolis/St. Paul Suburban Municipal Law Enforcement Agencies	1977

FIGURE E-1 (Con't.)

	<u>Title</u>	<u>Sponsor</u>	<u>Author(s)</u>	<u>Jurisdiction(s)</u>	<u>Date</u>
8.	Project STAR	LEAA State Planning Agencies in CA, MI, TX and N.J.	The American Justice Institute; C. P. Smith	Municipal, County and State Law Enforcement Agencies in CA, MI, NJ and TX	1972
9.	A Nationwide Survey of Law Enforcement Criminal Justice Personnel Needs and Resources: Volume 8	LEAA	American Institutes for Research; A. S. Glickman, R. W. Stephenson and D. Felker	31 Law Enforcement Agencies in 10 SMSAs	1976

FIGURE E-2

Purpose of Study, Focal Position, Sample Size (X) and Number of Tasks/Task Groupings in Survey Instrument

Study	Purpose of Study	Focal Position(s)	Sample Size/Return	Number of Tasks/Task Groupings
1. Wollack & Associates (1977)	Statewide development and validation of entry level police officer selection procedures	Uniformed patrol officers with full time field responsibilities.	Lieutenant & higher 27 (8) Sergeant 61 (17) Patrol officers 219 (62) Other ranks 44 (13) Total 351 % Returned/useable - not indicated	289 Task/No Task Groupings
2. Jeanneret and Dubin (1977)	Validation of police officer selection, training and promotion policies. The emphasis is on selection	All departmental positions were examined. The authors focus on one position, an entry level position, but all positions identified are discussed in great deal	Police executives: Captains/Lieutenants 65 (8) Detectives 74 (9) Sergeants 64 (8) Police officers 616 (75) Total 819 % Returned/useable 94%	536 Tasks/24 Duty-Functional Areas
3. Kohls, Berner and Luke (1979)	Develop baseline information for the development and validation of entry level patrol officer selection standards and practices	Entry level officers assigned to radio patrol	Incumbents 1720 Supervisors 675 Total 2395 % Returned/useable incumbents=83% % Returned/useable supervisors=88%	387 Tasks 110 Incidents 17 Subgroups 497 Items
4. Rosenfeld and Thornton (1976)	Development and validation of a multijurisdictional police selection examination	Police officers	Patrol officers 806 Supervisors 154 Total 960 % Returned/useable = 89%	141 Tasks/8 Subgroups
5. Lowe, Cook and Rannefeld (1977)	Develop baseline information for the training and selection of entry level police officers	Entry level/general duty law enforcement officers	Entry level police officers 606 % Returned/useable = 54%	119 Tasks/14 Subgroups
6. Goodgame and Rao (1977)	Evaluate job relatedness of Texas basic training for municipal law enforcement officers	Patrol officers, first line supervisors	Patrol officers 2466 First line supervisors 494 Probationary patrol officers 276 Total 3236 % Returned/useable = 81%*	395 Tasks/22 Task Groups

FIGURE E-2 (Con't.)

Study	Purpose of Study	Focal Position(s)	Sample Size/Return	Number of Tasks/Task Groupings
Lifter, Allivato and Jones (1977)	Develop and validate system for selection of entry level patrol officers	Patrol officers	Patrol officer observations 285 Hours/patrol observations 1500 % Returned/Useable = Not Applicable	71 Activities/10 Activity Groups
8. Smith (1972)	Develop criminal justice (including police) curriculum and training packages**	The police (undifferentiated)	Police Officers 1640 Police Supervisors 237 Total 1977 % Returned/Useable = Approx. 85%***	89 Expectations/20 Situations
9. Glickman, Stephenson and Felker (1976)	Assess personnel and training needs for the criminal justice system**	Police chief executive Police mid level manager Patrol officer Detective/criminal investigator Criminal investigator/supervisor Patrol line supervisor Police planner Evidence technician	Police chief executives 38 Police mid level manager 64 Patrol officers 150 Detective/criminal investigator 154 Criminal investigator/supervisors 96 Patrol line supervisors 165 Police planners 48 Evidence technicians 32 Total 747 % Returned/Useable Not provided	46 Tasks (Police patrol officer and patrol supervisor instrument) 49 Tasks (Detective and detective supervisor instrument) 25 Tasks (Mid-level manager and police executive instrument)

*This is an upper bound estimate, the report only specifies the original sample as "over 4,000".

**Both Smith (1972) and Glickman, et.al. (1976) focused on the entire criminal justice system. Only information relevant to the police is presented here.

***Overall completion rate given in report, subgroup completion rates not given.

D. Authors. The majority of these studies have been conducted by some type of corporate research/management organization. Two of the studies have been conducted by in-house research staffs of state POST (Police Officer Standards and Training) Councils, i.e., Kohls, et al. (1979) and Lowe, et al. (1977). One of the studies was conducted by a university-affiliated research group, i.e., Goodgame and Rao (1977).

E. Purpose of Study. Two themes are predominant: training and officer selection. Of the two themes, selection has been the most important. Discussions regarding meeting EEOC hiring guidelines are common and often quite detailed (c.f. Wollack and Associates, 1977; Jeanneret and Dubin, 1977).

F. Focal Positions. The major interest has focused on entry-level patrol positions. This focus tends to coincide with substantive interests in selection and training. Three studies focus on supervisory positions in addition to entry-level positions, e.i., Jeanneret and Dubin (1977); Goodgame and Rao (1977) and Glickman, et al. (1976).

G. Methods. Though not reported in Figure E-2, the studies, with the exception of Number 7 (Lifter, et al., 1977) and Number 8 (Smith, 1972), use a task analysis questionnaire methodology to collect data. The Lifter and Allivato study uses a combination of field observations and post shift interviews as its principal data collection method. The Smith (1972) study (i.e., Project STAR) uses a questionnaire method, but the nature of the items in the questionnaire is sufficiently distinct from that in the other studies to warrant using a label other than task analysis for the STAR instrument. The STAR instrument is entitled "Role Perception Survey"; therefore, we will refer to the STAR methodology/instrument as the Role Perception

Questionnaire.

H. Samples. As can be seen in Figure E-2, sample sizes for these studies tend to be large. Except for Lowe, et al. (1977), each of the studies utilizing questionnaire techniques obtained information from supervisory staff as well as incumbent staff. In the Wollack and Associates (1977), Kohls, et al. (1979), Rosenfeld and Thornton (1976) and Smith (1972) studies, supervisors were not asked about their own jobs but about the jobs of entry-level officers.

I. Return/Useable Rates. For two studies, we were not able to establish the return/useable rates from the information supplied in the reports we reviewed, i.e. Wollack and Associates (1977) and Glickman, et al. (1976). Of the returned/useable rates we could establish, only the Lowe et.al. study (returned/useable = 54 percent) had a rate below 80 percent.

J. Number of Tasks. The final column of Figure E-2 presents data on the number of tasks utilized in these studies. There is considerable variation in the number of tasks used in instruments as well as variation in the way items were grouped. With this much variation, one would expect there to be substantial between-study differences in topical coverage and the specificity with which topics are covered.

K. Item Groupings. In Figure E-3 we present the original task classification labels that researchers used to organize items in their instruments. Two studies, i.e. Wollack and Associates (#1) and Glickman et al. (#9), did not group items in their instruments. In Figure E-4 we present the category labels for task groupings that were used by researchers in their final reports. Comparison of the two tables indicates that four of the studies utilized the same categories for both their instrument and their report, i.e. Jeanneret & Dubin; Lowe, et al.; Goodgame and Rao and; Lifter,

FIGURE E-3 ORIGINAL TASK GROUPINGS

2. Jeanneret and Dubin (1977)	
1. Performing Routine Enforcement	15. Maintaining Radio Communications
2. Engaging in Traffic Control	16. Processing and Controlling Property, Automobiles, Supplies and Records
3. Investigating Traffic Accidents	17. Processing and Investigating Job and License Application
4. Responding for Calls for Service	18. Training
5. Apprehending and/or Arresting Actors	19. Performing Miscellaneous Office and Technical Functions
6. Performing Group/Crowd Control	20. Directing and Organizing
7. Investigating (Routine)	21. Performing Personnel Administration
8. Investigating (In-depth)	22. Monitoring and Evaluating Performance
9. Maintaining Surveillance	23. Performing Operational, Administrative and Budgetary Planning and Control
10. Processing and Controlling Prisoners	24. Engaging in Continuing Education Activities
11. Performing Emergency Control and Special Functions	
12. Piloting and Observing from Helicopter	
13. Performing Direct Public Service and Public Contact Functions	
14. Performing Court and Court-Related Functions	

3. Kohls, Berner, and Luke (1979)	
1. Patrol Function	10. Custody Procedures
2. Patrol Inspection	11. Training
3. Patrol Contact	12. Community Relations
4. Patrol Response	13. Reading
5. Traffic Supervision	14. Reporting
6. Criminal Investigation/Accident Investigation	15. Weapons
7. Evidence and Property Procedures	16. Physical Activity and Physical Force
8. Auxiliary Function	17. Writing
9. Civil Procedures	

4. Rosenfeld and Thornton (1976)	
1. General Police Duties	5. Traffic Control and Traffic Accident Activities
2. Standard Patrol Checks	6. Service Activities
3. Standard Patrol Activities	7. Search and Seizure
4. Response to Patrol Situations	8. Arrest Procedures

ORIGINAL TASK GROUPINGS

5. Lowe, Cook and Rannefeld (1977)	
1. Criminal Investigation, Detection and Follow-up	8. Crime Prevention and Community Relations
2. Arrest, Search, and Seizure	9. Legal Activities
3. Traffic Accident Investigation	10. Maintenance of Equipment
4. Traffic Maintenance and Control	11. Booking and Handling of Prisoners
5. Managing Disputes	12. Performance of "Non-enforcement" Activities
6. Patrol Activities	13. Office/Desk Activities
7. Crowd or Riot Control	14. Learning and Training

6. Goodgame and Rao (1977)	
1. Planning and Organizing	13. Preparing Criminal Cases and Testifying in Court
2. Directing and Supervising	14. Engineering the Roadway Environment
3. Inspecting and Evaluating	15. Analysing and Using Accident Data
4. Training	16. Controlling Civil Disturbances
5. Patrolling and Enforcing Traffic Laws	17. Maintaining Notebook and Daily Log
6. Investigating	18. Preparing Reports
7. Investigating Traffic Crashes	19. Maintaining Files
8. Interrogating Suspects	20. Jailing Procedures
9. Apprehension of Suspects	21. Staff Support of Line Operations
10. Arresting and Searching	22. Service Non-Police Action Calls
11. Directing and Controlling Traffic and Enforcing Parking Regulations	
12. Preparing Traffic Cases and Testifying in Court	

7. Lifter, Allivato and Jones (1977)	
1. Administrative and Non-Patrol Activities	7. Preliminary Crime/Accident Investigation
2. Routine Patrol Activities	8. Follow-Up Crime/Accident Investigation
3. Responding to Service Calls	9. Identifying Physical and Safety Hazards
4. Providing Emergency Services	10. Enforcing Traffic Laws
5. Checking Out Suspicious Situations	
6. Performing Arrests at Accident of Crime/Accident	

ORIGINAL TASK GROUPINGS

8. Smith (1972)	
1. General Performance of Duties	11. Booking Prisoners
2. Crowd Control	12. Preparing Offense Reports
3. Civil Disorders	13. Community Relations and Education
4. Regulating Vehicle and Pedestrian Traffic	14. Collecting Evidence
5. Family Disturbances	15. Pre-trial Case Preparation
6. Public Service Assistance	16. Probation Officers (Informing)
7. Arrest	17. Parole Officers (Informing)
8. Interrogating a Suspect	18. Probation Officers (Assisting)
9. Testifying in Court	19. Parole Officers (Assisting)
10. Holding a Suspect	20. Off-duty Behavior

et al. Three studies utilized different groupings in their instruments and reports, i.e. Kohls et. al.; Rosenfeld and Thornton and; Smith. The Wollack and Associates study makes use of category groupings only in their report. The Glickman et. al. study does not use grouping at all.

Examination of the category labels in Figure A-4 is fascinating in and of itself. Certain of the categories in the Jeanneret & Dubin and the Goodgame and Rao instruments are reflective of the fact that these studies are interested in a number of focal positions in addition to the general patrol officer position. Different researchers have combined tasks in different ways. As an example, note that the Lifter, et al. and the Kohls, et al. studies combine criminal and accident investigation tasks, while other researchers separate these types of tasks. Each study has its own unique way of organizing the tasks in similar or overlapping content areas. Whereas one study may have a category for "family disputes" another may have a category for "managing disputes". Still other studies cover the content area under a general label of "response to patrol situations" or "response to service calls" categories.

We can only wonder what kinds of instrumentation effects are introduced into studies by differences in the grouping of tasks. It would seem reasonable to expect that an identical set of crime prevention items might be perceived quite differently by respondents depending upon whether they were grouped by themselves in a category labelled "crime prevention" or whether they were interspersed with other items in a category labelled "crime prevention and community relations."

Data in the reports of task analyses are frequently aggregated to the category levels presented in Figure A-4. Cross study comparisons are

FINAL TASK GROUPINGS

1. Wollack and Associates (1977)	
1. Performing Routine Patrol Duties	7. Investigatin Criminal Cases
2. Performing Traffic Enforcement and Control Duties	8. Preparing Cases for Trial and Testifying in Court
3. Handling Emergency Situations	9. Performing Jail Duties
4. Writing Reports and Completing Forms	10. Controlling Civil Disputes and Disturbances
5. Handling and Investigating Traffic Accidents	11. Escorting Persons and Vehicles
6. Apprehending and Arresting Suspects	12. Performing Public Relations or Training Duties
	13. Performing Support Duties

2. Jeanneret and Dubin (1977)	
1. Performing Routine Enforcement	15. Maintaining Radio Communications
2. Engaging in Traffic Control	16. Processing and Controlling Property, Automobiles, Supplies and Records
3. Investigating Traffic Accidents	17. Processing and Investigating Job and License Application
4. Responding to Calls for Service	18. Training
5. Apprehending and/or Arresting Actors	19. Performing Miscellaneous Office and Technical Functions
6. Performing Group/Crowd Control	20. Directing and Organizing
7. Investigating (Routine)	21. Performing Personnel Administra-tion
8. Investigatin (In-depth)	22. Monitoring and Evaluating Performance
9. Maintaining Surveillance	23. Performing Operational, Administra-tive and Budgetary Planning and Control
10. Processing and Controlling Prisoners	24. Engaging in Continuing Education Activities
11. Performing Emergency Control and Special Functions	
12. Piloting and Observing from Helicopter	
13. Performing Direct Public Service and Public Contact Functions	
14. Performing Court and Court-Related Functions	

CONTINUED

3 OF 4

FIGURE E-4 (Con't.)

E-16

FINAL TASK GROUPINGS

3. Kohls, Berner and Luke (1979)

- | | |
|---|---------------------------|
| 1. Arrest and Detain | 17. Conferring |
| 2. Chemical, Drug, Alcohol Test | 18. Explaining/Advising |
| 3. Fingerprinting/Identification | 19. Giving Directions |
| 4. Decision-Making | 20. Interviewing |
| 5. First Aid | 21. Mediating |
| 6. Review and Recall of Information | 22. Public Relations |
| 7. Inspecting Vehicle, Property and Persons | 23. Using Radio/Telephone |
| 8. Investigating | 24. Testifying |
| 9. Line up | 25. Training |
| 10. Searching | 26. Custody Paperwork |
| 11. Securing and Protecting Property | 27. General Paper Work |
| 12. Surveillance | 28. Reading |
| 13. Traffic Control | 29. Diagramming/Sketching |
| 14. Emergency Driving | 30. Writing |
| 15. Transporting People, Objects | 31. Restraining/Subdoing |
| 16. Vehicle Stop | 32. Physical Performance |
| | 33. Weapons Handling |

4. Rosenfeld & Thornton (1976)

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| 1. Responding to Routine Calls | 8. Crowd Control |
| 2. Search and Seizure | 9. Dangerous Emergencies |
| 3. Discretion in Patrol Activities | 10. Court Testimony |
| 4. Booking Prisoners | 11. Gathering Information and Reporting |
| 5. Facilitating Traffic Flow | 12. Arrest Procedures |
| 6. Business and Non-Business Checks | 13. Arrest Reports |
| 7. Community Relations | 14. Work Preparation |

5. Lowe, Cook and Rannefeld (1977)

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Criminal Investigation, Detection and Follow-up | 8. Crime Prevention and Community Relations |
| 2. Arrest, Search and Seizure | 9. Legal Activities |
| 3. Traffic Accident Investigation | 10. Maintenance of Equipment |
| 4. Traffic Maintenance and Control | 11. Booking and Handling of Prisoners |
| 5. Managing Disputes | 12. Performance of "Non-Enforcement" Activities |
| 6. Patrol Activities | 13. Office/Desk Activities |
| 7. Crowd or Riot Control | 14. Learning and Training |

FIGURE E-4 (Con't.)

E-17

FINAL TASK GROUPINGS

6. Goodgame and Rao (1977)

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Planning and Organizing | 12. Preparing Traffic Cases and Testifying in Court |
| 2. Directing and Supervising | 13. Preparing Criminal Cases and Testifying in Court |
| 3. Inspecting and Evaluating | 14. Engineering the Roadway Environment |
| 4. Training | 15. Analyzing and Using Accident Data |
| 5. Patrolling and Enforcing Traffic Laws | 16. Controlling Civil Disturbances |
| 6. Investigating | 17. Maintaining Notebook and Daily Log |
| 7. Investigating Traffic Crashes | 18. Preparing Reports |
| 8. Interrogating Suspects | 19. Maintaining Files |
| 9. Apprehension of Suspects | 20. Jailing Procedures |
| 10. Arresting and Searching | 21. Staff Support of Line Operations |
| 11. Directing and Controlling Traffic and Enforcing Parking Regulations | 22. Service Non-Police Action Calls |

7. Lifter, Allivato and Jones (1977)

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Administrative and Non-Patrol Activities | 7. Preliminary Crime/Accident Investigation |
| 2. Routine Patrol Activities | 8. Follow-up Crime/Accident Investigation |
| 3. Responding to Service Calls | 9. Identifying Physical and Safety Hazards |
| 4. Providing Emergency Services | 10. Enforcing Traffic Laws |
| 5. Checking Out Suspicious Situations | |
| 6. Performing Arrests at Scene of Crime/Accident | |

8. Smith (1972)

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Assist Criminal Justice System and Other Agency Personnel | 8. Displaying Objectivity and Professional Ethics |
| 2. Build Respect for Law and Criminal Justice System | 9. Protecting Rights and Dignity of Individuals |
| 3. Provide Public Assistance | 10. Providing Humane Treatment |
| 4. Seeking and Disseminating Knowledge and Understanding | 11. Enforcing Law Impartially |
| 5. Collecting, Analyzing, and Communicating Information | 12. Enforcing Law Situationally |
| 6. Managing Cases | 13. Maintaining Order |
| 7. Assisting Personnel and Social Development | |

impossible because the categories utilized from study to study bear little relation to one another. An item concerned with stopping and questioning a suspicious person may occur in a "general patrol" category in Study A, in a "crime prevention" category in Study B, and in a "check out suspicious situations" category in Study C. In order to make cross-study comparisons we felt it was necessary to equate task analysis items for content across studies.

IV. Re-coding of original studies

The need for comparability across studies led to the creation of "The Codebook of Codebooks" the development of which is described briefly in the body of the report (Chapter I) and more extensively in Appendix C. The Codebook itself is provided in Appendix D.

An examination of the Codebook will reveal all the types of information which were preserved about items in the process of recoding them into the common scheme. As a basis for a discussion about the content and methods of the task analyses, we elaborate here on five item content characteristics which are articulated by the recoding scheme.

A. Item Relevance. This characteristic (Item #3 in the Codebook) seeks to classify items in terms of five broad substantive categories. Of principal concern for task analyses is category 1, "the nature of role content." Such items take the general form "How frequently do you perform task X?" The other four types of items we discovered in the instruments we examined involved "determinants of role content" (e.g., officers on the third shift have to handle a lot of marital dispute calls); "the nature of role performance" (e.g., the officer used excess force in taking the demonstrator into custody); "determinants of role performance" (e.g., college-educated

police officers use discretion more judiciously); and control variables (e.g., various characteristics of survey respondents, such as age, sex, rank, etc.). The task analyses examined in this report are, with the exception of Project STAR, made up of items regarding the nature of role content and a few control variables. This is as expected since task analyses are primarily intended to specify the content of a particular job. Control variables would allow the researcher to examine job content across various status conditions, e.g., tenure, rank, education, etc.

B. Question Type. (Item #7 in the Codebook.) A second major content distinction of importance for task analyses involved the type of question asked by an item. Most task analysis items involve a "descriptive" question, i.e., the respondent is asked to describe the time spent on a particular type of task. Other items were classified as involving questions about "expectations": (e.g., are most police officers honest?); "evaluation of performance" (e.g., were you satisfied with how the officer handled the incident?); "statement of desire" (e.g., should more police officers be female?); and "evaluation of content" (e.g., do police officers spend too much time doing paperwork?). The studies examined in this volume primarily involved descriptive questions. The exception to this statement is Project STAR, which according to our scheme asks questions about "expectations" and "statements of desire."

C. Type of Information. (Item #8 in the Codebook.) Another dimension along which task analysis items varied involved the type of information a question asked a respondent. Three categories were found with respect to this dimension; they are "time spent," "frequency," and "importance." It was common for a single questionnaire to ask a respondent to rate both the

frequency and importance of each task.

D. Problem. (Item #11 in the Codebook.) Problems are the types of incidents, situations, persons or things which police officers interact with or respond to in doing their jobs. We have identified over 60 such problems studied in existent task analyses; these are listed on Codesheet D of the Codebook, Appendix D.

E. Response. (Item #12 in the Codebook.) We have identified over 30 behaviors⁴ used in the items from previous task analyses, these are presented in Code Sheet E in the Codebook in Appendix D.

V. Comparing the item content of the studies.

A. Comparison of "problems" identified in items. Figure E-5 presents the problem content classifications that were evidenced in our coding of items from the selected studies. We wish to make it clear that what we are talking about here is the content of questionnaire items; we are not yet talking about the substantive findings of these studies.

The most general findings from this effort have to do with emphasis placed on various problems. At least to the extent that emphasis can roughly be gauged by relative frequency, these studies have been remarkably similar in their emphasis on problem content. Across all studies, the major emphases

⁴ In coding problems and responses we encountered a number of items that involved either multiple problems or multiple responses. For example, the item "secure crime/accident scene" would involve two distinct problems, "crime" and "traffic accidents," in our coding scheme. In such cases, we coded an item twice, in several cases, an item had to be coded three or four separate times. This strategy results in more coded items in our data than original items in the instrument. Such double-coded items are identified by a dummy variable in our data files and can be sorted out for independent analysis. Figure C-1 presents a breakdown of multiple codings by study.

FIGURE E-5
PROBLEM CONTENT AS EVIDENCED IN TASK ITEMS
IN NINE STUDIES (ABBREVIATED PROBLEM CATEGORIZATION)

Abbreviated Problem Categorization*	1. Wollack & Assoc. (1977)	2. Jeanneret & Dubin (1977)	3. Kohls, Bernier & Luke (1979)	4. Rosenfeld & Thornton (1976)	5. Love, Cook & Rannefeld (1976)	6. Goodgame & Rao (1977)	7. Lifter, Alliyato & Jones (1977)	8. Smith (1972)**	9. Glickman, Stephenson & Felker (1976)***
No Specific Problem Identified (00)	15 (5.15)	26 (4.20)	13 (2.63)	4 (3.57)	5 (4.10)	18 (4.05)	6 (6.74)		9 (15.00)
Crime, Person/Property (01, 02, 03)	43 (14.78)	40 (6.46)	68 (13.74)	15 (13.39)	7 (5.74)	54 (12.16)	9 (10.11)	2 (5.00)	1 (1.67)
Suspicious Circumstances or Persons (04, 05, 06)	5 (1.72)	3 (.48)	16 (3.23)	7 (6.25)		3 (.68)	8 (8.99)		1 (1.67)
Crime Prevention (07, 08, 09)	9 (3.09)	6 (.97)	7 (1.41)	1 (.89)	5 (4.10)	5 (1.13)		1 (2.50)	
Evidence (10)	7 (2.41)	23 (3.72)	9 (1.82)	8 (7.14)	5 (4.10)	9 (2.03)			2 (3.33)
Other Crimes, Non-Predatory/Performance (27, 28)	2 (.69)	8 (1.29)	12 (2.42)	3 (2.68)	2 (1.64)	8 (1.80)			
Ordinance, Licensing (29, 34)	3 (1.03)	9 (1.45)	23 (4.65)		1 (.82)	4 (.90)	1 (1.12)		
Order-Related Problems (20, 21, 22)	10 (3.44)	17 (2.75)	5 (1.01)	2 (1.79)	5 (4.10)	13 (2.93)	5 (5.62)	2 (5.00)	1 (1.67)
Disturbing Peace/Disputes (24, 25, 26)	3 (1.03)	2 (.32)	14 (2.83)	4 (3.57)	3 (2.46)	6 (1.35)	6 (6.74)		
Misc. Non-Crime Duties (23, 80, 84)	10 (3.44)	14 (2.26)	12 (2.42)	2 (1.79)	4 (3.28)	3 (.68)	2 (2.25)		
Administrative/Support Tasks (85, 91)	17 (5.84)	160 (25.85)	26 (5.25)	7 (6.25)	10 (8.20)	80 (18.02)	7 (7.87)	1 (2.50)	7 (11.67)
Community Relations (81, 82, 83)	2 (.69)	8 (1.29)	3 (.61)	1 (.89)	1 (.82)	1 (.23)	1 (1.12)	2 (5.00)	1 (1.67)
Police Conduct/Misconduct (87)		7 (1.13)	2 (.40)					1 (2.50)	1 (1.67)
Administration of Legal Procedures (89)	2 (2.06)	8 (1.29)	14 (2.83)	2 (1.79)	4 (3.28)	8 (1.80)	2 (2.25)		

*The numbers in parentheses next to the verbal descriptors of the abbreviated problem categorizations refer to the original problem categorization found in Code Sheet D in Appendix D.

**The item N is the top figure in each cell; the percentage is the lower figure and is in parentheses.

***Many of the Smith (1972) items were concerned with performance rather than job content; these items are discussed elsewhere. (See Appendix F.)

****Codings are for Patrol Officer/Patrol Supervisor instrument.

FIGURE E-5 (Con't.)

Abbreviated Problem Categorization*	1. Wollack & Assoc. (1977)	2. Jeanneret & Dubin (1977)	3. Kohls, Bernier & Luke (1979)	4. Rosenfeld & Thornton (1976)	5. Lowe, Cook & Rannefeld (1976)	6. Goodgame & Rao (1977)	7. Lifter, Allivato & Jones (1977)	8. Smith (1972)**	9. Glickman, Stephenson & Felker (1976)***
Knowledge, Skills, Abilities (86, 90)	3 (1.03)	18 (2.91)	27 (5.45)	2 (1.79)	6 (4.92)	1 (.23)		3 (7.50)	
Traffic (40, 41, 42, 43)	69 (23.71)	63 (10.18)	72 (14.55)	12 (10.71)	16 (13.11)	110 (24.77)	17 (19.10)		2 (3.33)
Property (92)	1 (.34)	5 (.81)	5 (1.01)	1 (.89)		1 (.23)			1 (1.67)
Maintenance of Safe Conditions (93)	3 (1.03)	5 (.81)	9 (1.82)		1 (.82)		6 (6.74)		
Suspects/Prisoners Pre- viously Convicted (73, 78)	32 (11.00)	50 (8.08)	51 (10.30)	15 (13.39)	20 (16.39)	33 (7.43)	6 (6.74)	11 (27.50)	10 (16.67)
Victims, Witnesses, Informants (71, 72, 79)	4 (1.37)	14 (2.26)	12 (2.42)	3 (2.68)	4 (3.28)	6 (1.35)	2 (2.25)		3 (5.00)
Minorities, Aliens (59, 70)			2 (.40)						
Other Police Officers (58, 74, 75)	1 (.34)	64 (10.34)	16 (3.23)	1 (.89)	2 (1.64)	35 (7.88)	3 (3.37)		11 (18.33)
Misc. Persons (feeble, juv., mentally ret., in- toxicated, etc.) (61- 68)	20 (6.87)	23 (3.72)	42 (8.48)	12 (10.71)	8 (6.56)	19 (4.28)	7 (7.87)		3 (5.00)
Other Criminal Justice Actors (76)	14 (4.81)	14 (2.26)	6 (1.21)	2 (1.79)	4 (3.28)	10 (2.25)		15 (37.50)	1 (1.67)
Misc. Service Actors (firemen, ambulance drivers, social workers, etc.) (57, 77)	2 (.69)	8 (1.29)	7 (1.41)		1 (.82)	7 (1.58)			2 (3.33)
Hostile Citizens (69)	3 (1.03)	3 (.48)	6 (1.21)						
Citizens, General (60)	7 (2.41)	21 (3.39)	16 (3.23)	8 (7.14)	8 (6.56)	10 (2.25)	1 (1.12)	2 (5.00)	4 (6.67)
TOTAL	291 (100.00)	619 (100.00)	495 (100.00)	112 (100.00)	122 (100.00)	444 (100.00)	89 (100.00)	40 (100.00)	60 (100.00)

*The numbers in parentheses next to the verbal descriptors of the abbreviated problem categorizations refer to the original problem categorization found in Code Sheet D in Appendix D.

**Many of the Smith (1972) items were concerned with performance rather than job content; these items are discussed elsewhere.

***Codings are for Patrol Officer/Patrol Supervisor instrument.

have been on crime and prisoner/suspect related problems. Relative to the findings reported in Chapter V of this report about the use of patrol time, these emphases would seem to be misplaced. Both Lifter, et al. (1977) and O'Neill and Bloom (1970) report that crime-related activities account for approximately 5% of patrol time, (see Chapter II) and yet five of the studies (Nos. 1, 3, 4, 6 and 7) devote more than 10% of their items to "crime". At the same time there appears to be a lack of emphasis on "order" and "disturbing the peace/disputes," and "miscellaneous person" items; together these types of items account for from 5% to 20% of the total items in any study. Studies of the use of patrol time (Chapter II) suggest that these activities account for from 3% to 59% of patrol time.

Several deviations from the overall finding of content similarity across studies merit further discussion. Both Smith (1972), i.e., Project STAR, and Glickman, et al. (1976), i.e., The National Manpower Survey, have substantially fewer entries in Figure E-5 than the remainder of the studies. While this reflects a small number of original items in the Glickman, et al. study, the small number of entries for the Smith study is indicative of the type of questions asked in the Project STAR data collection instrument rather than the number of items in the STAR instrument. Roughly two-thirds of the STAR questionnaire items deal with what we earlier called the nature of performance, i.e., how a task is performed, as opposed to the nature of job or role content.

1. No Specific Problem. With respect to the "No Specific Problem Identified" category, the Glickman, et al. study does not conform to the pattern evidenced in the other studies. Examination of the Glickman, et al. items that were coded as "No Specific Problem Identified" indicated a number of items that described police activities in very broad terms (e.g., "Responds to scene of major occurrences," "Responds to calls for service or help and takes action to alleviate or control situation." "Photographs locations, individuals and crime and accident scenes"). The utilization of broad questions may be indicative of the Glickman, et al. effort to study complex jobs with relatively few items.

2. Crime. The "Crime Related" category involves two basic clusters of studies. Studies 1, 3, 4 and 6 have roughly 12 to 15 percent of their items classified as crime related, while studies 2, 5, 8 and 9 have roughly 2 to 6 percent of their items classified as crime related. Figure E-6 sheds some light on the nature of these groupings. Those studies having a lower percentage of items coded as "Crime Related" tend to exclusively utilize general crime items, while studies having larger percentages of "Crime Related" items tend to utilize items dealing with property crimes and crimes against persons as well as general crime items. The exception to this pattern of results is the Jeanneret and Dubin (1977) study which, although it has an overall low percentage of crime related items, has utilized property and person/crime items as well as general crime items.

3. Administration/Support. The next major content categorization involves Administrative/Support tasks. Figure E-7 breaks down this broader categorization into its components. As can be seen, three studies, Jeanneret and Dubin (1977), Goodgame and Rao (1977) and Glickman et al. (1976) place greater

FIGURE E-6
DETAILED BREAKDOWN OF CRIME-RELATED ITEMS

Abbreviated Problem Categorization	1. Wollack & Assoc. (1977)	2. Jeanneret & Dubin (1977)	3. Kohls, Berner & Luke (1979)	4. Rosenfeld & Thornton (1976)	5. Lowe, Cook & Rannefeld (1976)	6. Goodgame & Rao (1977)	7. Lifter, Allivato & Jones (1977)	8. Smith (1972)	9. Glickman, Stephenson & Felker (1976)
Crime, General	30* (70)	26 (65)	34 (50)	7 (47)	7 (100)	30 (56)	9 (100)	2 (100)	1 (100)
Crime, Person	5 (12)	5 (13)	17 (25)	5 (33)	0 (0)	10 (19)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Crime, Property	8 (19)	9 (23)	17 (25)	3 (20)	0 (0)	14 (26)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Total Crime Items	43	40	68	15	7	54	9	2	1
Percent of Total Items Coded as Crime Related	14.8	6.5	13.7	11.6	5.7	12.2	10.1	5.0	1.7
Percent of Total Items Coded as Crime, General	10.0	4.0	7.0	5.0	5.7	7.0	10.0	5.0	1.7

*Cell entries are read as follows: 30 items or 70% of the 43 "Crime" items in the Wollack & Associates study are categorized as "Crime, General" items.

FIGURE E-7
BREAKDOWN OF ADMINISTRATIVE/SUPPORT ITEMS

Abbreviated Problem Categorization	1. Wollack & Assoc. (1977)	2. Jeanneret & Dubin (1977)	3. Kohls, Berner & Luke (1979)	4. Rosenfeld & Thornton (1976)	5. Lowe, Cook & Rannefeld (1976)	6. Goodgame & Rao (1977)	7. Lifter, Allivato & Jones (1977)	8. Smith (1972)	9. Glickman, Stephenson & Felker (1976)
Administrative Tasks	4* (24)	124 (78)	16 (62)	5 (71)	7 (70)	67 (84)	3 (43)	1 (100)	5 (75)
Support Tasks	13 (76)	36 (32)	10 (38)	2 (29)	3 (30)	13 (16)	4 (57)	0 (0)	2 (25)
Total Administrative/Support Items	17	160	26	7	10	80	7	1	7
Percent of Total Coded as Admin. /Support	5.84	25.85	5.25	5.43	8.20	18.02	7.87	2.25	11.67
Percent of Total Items Coded as Administrative Tasks	1.37	20.03	3.28	3.85	5.79	14.99	4.4	2.44	9.61

* Cell entries are read as follows: 4 items or 24% of the 17 "Administrative/Support" items in the Wollack & Associates study are categorized as "Administrative" items.

emphasis on administrative tasks than do the other studies. Examination of Figure E-2 provides us with a clue regarding the nature of this finding. Each of the three studies that emphasize administrative type tasks were targeting supervisory positions as well as the basic patrol position. This distinction, then, is attributable to the original purposes of the investigators.

4. Traffic. Examination of the "Traffic" problem category in Figure A-8 indicates that researchers other than Smith (1972) and Glickman, et.al. (1976) have utilized a substantial number/proportion of items to describe traffic-related job tasks. Two studies have allocated over 20 percent of their items to traffic-related tasks, i.e., Wollack and Associates (1977) and Goodgame and Rao (1977). Figure A-8 breaks the Traffic category into its four component categories. Accident related items are an important problem categorization for each of the studies. General traffic items are followed in frequency by moving enforcement, parking enforcement and administrative/regulatory items.

5. Suspects/Prisoners/Previously Convicted. Examination of the Suspects/Prisoners/Previously Convicted category in Figure E-5 indicates a substantial interest among researchers in police/suspect interactions. Project STAR (Smith, 1972) has the largest percentage of items in this category (27.5%).

6. Other Police Officers. One additional departure from the overall kind of similarity being discussed involves the category "Other Police Officers." Three studies, i.e., Jeanneret and Dubin (1977), Goodgame and Rao (1977) and Glickman, et al. (1976), devote a greater proportion of their items to this category than is typical for the other studies. As with the emphasis on administrative tasks by these three studies, we believe their

FIGURE E-8

TABLE VII: DETAILED BREAKDOWN OF TRAFFIC RELATED ITEMS

Abbreviated Problem Categorization	1. Wollack & Assoc. (1977)	2. Jeanneret & Dubin (1977)	3. Kohls, Berner & Luke (1979)	4. Rosenfeld & Thornton (1976)	5. Lowe, Cook & Rannefeld (1976)	6. Goodgame & Rao (1977)	7. Lifter, Allivato & Jones (1977)	8. Smith (1972)	9. Glickman, Stephenson & Felker (1976)
Traffic, General (40)	21* (30)	16 (25)	14 (19)	5 (42)	3 (19)	47 (43)	3 (18)		1 (50)
Parking Enforcement (42)	12 (17)	11 (17)	14 (19)	3 (25)	3 (19)	7 (6)	4 (24)		
Traffic, Moving Enforcement (41)	2 (3)	6 (10)	8 (11)		2 (13)	2 (2)	1 (6)		
Accident Related (43)	33 (48)	25 (40)	28 (39)	4 (33)	6 (38)	52 (47)	8 (47)		1 (50)
Traffic, Administrative, Regulation (44)	1 (1)	5 (8)	8 (11)		1 (6)	2 (2)	1 (6)		
Total Traffic related Items	69	63	72	13	16	110	17		2

* Cell entries are read as follows: 21 items or 30% of the 69 "Traffic Related" items in the Wollack & Associates study are categorized as "Traffic, General" items.

relative emphasis on interaction involving other police officers can be attributed to their interest in supervisory positions.

B. Comparison of "responses" identified in items.

A more complete picture of the item content of the various research instruments involves examination of items' "response" content as well as "problem" content. Two instruments may place similar emphasis (as measured by relative frequency) on a particular type of problem but may be quite different in terms of the responses that have been paired with that problem. For example, in comparing two instruments that utilize similar proportions of crime items, we might find that 50 percent of the crime items in one instrument involved "reporting" as a response, while only ten percent of the items in the second study involve the "reporting" response. One might reasonably expect to find quite different results from the two instruments regarding the task content of the police officer job.

If one were to describe the logic involved in constructing task items, it would appear to be the case that a problem is first identified and then responses applicable to that problem are chosen to construct items. It follows that meaningful comparisons of response content across studies must take place within homogeneous problem categorizations. Below we describe the response distributions for the four types of problems identified as having a substantial number of items across most studies.

1. Response for Crime Related Problems. The first response code "00" involves the most general response we coded. It refers to such verbs as "responds to," "handles" or "deals with." We can see in Figure E-9 that three studies (Kohls, et al., 1979; Rosenfeld and Thornton, 1976; Lifter,

FIGURE E-9

RESPONSE CODES FOR CRIME ITEMS

Response	Wollack & Associates (1977)	Jeanneret & Dubin (1977)	Kohls, Berner, & Luke (1979)	Rosenfeld Thornton (1976)	Lowe, Cook, & Ramefeld (1977)	Gondgame & Rao (1977)	Lifter, Allivato & Jones (1977)	Smith (1972)	Glickman, Stephenson, Felker (1976)
00	1 (2.33)	2 (5.00)	38 (55.88)	6 (40.00)	1 (14.29)		2 (22.22)		
01	2 (4.65)	2 (5.00)				1 (1.85)			
02	17 (39.53)	9 (22.50)	7 (10.29)	2 (13.33)		27 (50.00)	2 (22.22)	1 (50.00)	
03									
04		3 (7.50)	2 (7.35)	2 (13.33)	2 (28.57)	4 (7.41)			
05	1 (2.33)	1 (2.50)	3 (4.41)	1 (6.67)		1 (1.85)			1 (100.00)
06	1 (2.33)								
07									
08									
09									
10									
11							1 (11.11)		
12									
13	11 (25.58)	7 (17.50)	4 (5.88)	3 (20.00)		8 (14.8)		1 (50.00)	
14	3 (6.98)		3 (4.41)			2 (3.70)	1 (11.11)		
15									
16							1 (11.11)		
17	1 (2.33)	2 (5.00)				2 (3.70)			
18		1 (2.50)				2 (3.70)			
19									
20									
21					1 (14.29)		1 (11.11)		
22									
23	2 (4.65)	1 (2.50)	2 (2.94)		1 (14.29)	2 (3.70)			
24		3 (7.50)	2 (2.94)			4 (7.41)			
25									
26	2 (4.65)	2 (5.00)	2 (2.94)			1 (1.85)	1 (11.11)		
27	1 (2.33)	1 (2.50)	1 (1.47)						
28									
29									
30		4 (10.00)	1 (1.47)		2 (28.57)				
31		1 (2.50)		1 (6.67)					
32		1 (2.50)							
TOTAL	43 (100.00)	40 (100.00)	68 (100.00)	15 (100.00)	7 (100.00)	54 (100.00)	9 (100.00)	2 (100.00)	1 (100.00)

FIGURE E-9 (Con't.)

RESPONSE CODES FOR PRECEEDING TABLE

The response codes for the entries in this table are as follows:

- 00 Responds to call/deal with-handle: Use when police handle on-site incidents and/or dispatched calls that may or may not be crime-related.
- 01 Observe/perform surveillance
- 02 Investigate--crime alleged/suspected
- 03 Obtain information--non-crime: understanding minorities, human nature, juveniles; gather information(diagrams) for accidents, community problems.
- 04 Obtain information--crime: no alleged or suspected incident
- 05 Search and seizure
- 06 Give information/advise/teach/counsel
- 07 Give warning/lecture/reprimand
- 08 Mediate
- 09 Issue citation
- 10 Use of force--no arrest specified
- 11 Arrest--no force (use for arrest unless force is specified)
- 12 Arrest--force
- 13 Prepare report/forms
- 14 Testify
- 15 Talk/discuss/socialize (sports events, conversation, develop rapport, etc.)
- 16 Employ emergency procedure
- 17 Plan/research/handle data
- 18 Request assistance from/make referral to other agency/citizens/police
- 19 Provide special transportation/escort (non-medical emergency)
- 20 Prepare/maintain equipment
- 21 Secure/guard property
- 22 Secure/guard persons (e.g. protect dignitaries)
- 23 Use equipment
- 24 Pursue/apprehend/lose suspect
- 25 Give physical assistance
- 26 Secure evidence
- 27 Confer/share information
- 28 Supervise
- 29 Provide assistance
- 30 Evaluate; make judgments; determine value of
- 31 Decide/use discretion
- 32 Perform clerical duties

et al., 1977) tended to use this sort of response more often than it was used in other studies. These items in Kohls, et al., (1979) are attributable to a type of item included in that study that they call an "incident" item. These items take the form "How frequently do you handle X?". There are 110 such items in the middle of the Kohls, et al. instrument under the general heading of "Patrol Response." While the researchers analyze these 110 items separately in their final report, we have included them in this content discussion. (The reader can get a rough idea of what the response distribution of the Kohls, et al. study would have been had we not included these items by doubling the percentages for the remaining items.)

Response code "02" involves a response of "investigating." As might be expected, this was a major response category for crime items. Both the Wollack and Associates (1977) and the Goodgame and Rao (1977) studies placed substantial emphasis on the investigatory response.

The next major response category is "13," which involves reporting. The most unusual study with regard to this response is the Kohls, et al. study which has only about six percent of its crime items involving a reporting response. At the other end of the distribution is the Wollack and Associates study for which about 26 percent of the crime items involve a reporting response.

2. Responses For Administration/Support Items. As can be seen in Figure E-10, several response types tend to dominate items involving administrative/support tasks. Code "00," "handles or responds to", is a substantial response type for seven of the nine studies. Items involving "reporting," code "13," also account for a substantial block of items. Code "17," i.e., "plan,

FIGURE E-10

RESPONSE CODES FOR ADMINISTRATIVE/SUPPORT ITEMS

Response	Wollack & Associates (1977)	Jeaneret & Dubin (1977)	Kohls, Barner, & Luke (1979)	Rosenfeld Thornton (1976)	Low, Cook, & Rannefeld (1977)	Goodgame & Rao (1977)	Lifter, Allivato & Jones (1977)	Smith (1972)	Glickman Stephenso Felker (1976)
00	3 17.65	22 13.75	4 15.38	2 28.57	3 30.00	14 17.50	2 (28.57)		
01									
02									
03		8 (5.00)							
04		1 (.63)							
05									
06		3 (1.88)				7 (8.75)			
07									
08									
09									
10									
11									
12									
13	2 (11.76)	25 (15.63)	3 4	4 .4	3 0.00	18 22.50			1 14.29
14								1 (100.00)	
15							1 (14.29)		
16									
17		20 (11.54)	3 (11.54)			13 16.25			3 42.86
18		2 (1.25)							
19							1 14.29		
20	2 (11.76)	15 9.38	5 19.23		2 20.00	5 (6.25)	2 (28.57)		
21			1 3.85	1 14.29					
22									
23	9 (52.94)	5 3.13	1 (3.85)		1 .00	2 2.50			1 14.29
24									
25									
26									
27		3 (1.88)							1 (14.29)
28		16 (10.00)							1 (14.29)
29									
30		12 (7.50)	2 (7.69)			5 (6.25)			
31		15 (9.38)				3 (3.75)			
32		13 (8.13)	7 (26.02)		1 (10.00)	13 (16.25)	1 (14.29)		
TOTAL	17 (100.00)	160 (100.00)	26 (100.00)	7 (100.00)	10 (100.00)	80 (100.00)	7 (100.00)	1 (100.00)	7 (100.00)

FIGURE E-10 (Con't.)

RESPONSE CODES FOR PRECEEDING TABLE

The response codes for the entries in this table are as follows:

- 00 Responds to call/deal with-handle: Use when police handle on-site incidents and/or dispatched calls that may or may not be crime-related.
- 01 Observe/perform surveillance
- 02 Investigate--crime alleged/suspected
- 03 Obtain information--non-crime: understanding minorities, human nature, juveniles; gather information(diagrams) for accidents, community problems.
- 04 Obtain information--crime: no alleged or suspected incident
- 05 Search and seizure
- 06 Give information/advise/teach/counsel
- 07 Give warning/lecture/reprimand
- 08 Mediate
- 09 Issue citation
- 10 Use of force--no arrest specified
- 11 Arrest--no force (use for arrest unless force is specified)
- 12 Arrest--force
- 13 Prepare report/forms
- 14 Testify
- 15 Talk/discuss/socialize (sports events, conversation, develop rapport, etc.)
- 16 Employ emergency procedure
- 17 Plan/research/handle data
- 18 Request assistance from/make referral to other agency/citizens/police
- 19 Provide special transportation/escort (non-medical emergency)
- 20 Prepare/maintain equipment
- 21 Secure/guard property
- 22 Secure/guard persons (e.g. protect dignitaries)
- 23 Use equipment
- 24 Pursue/apprehend/lose suspect
- 25 Give physical assistance
- 26 Secure evidence
- 27 Confer/share information
- 28 Supervise
- 29 Provide assistance
- 30 Evaluate; make judgments; determine value of
- 31 Decide/use discretion
- 32 Perform clerical duties

research, handle data," is evidenced in the three studies attempting to measure supervisory as well as line positions, and in the Kohls, et al. (1979) study. Interestingly, the "supervise" response, i.e., code "28," is used only in the Jeanneret and Dubin (1977) instrument. The "evaluate," i.e. code "30" and the "decide" responses are used in the Jeanneret and Dubin (1977) and Goodgame and Rao (1977) studies. Response codes "20" and "23," i.e., the preparation/maintenance and use of equipment, account for another large block of these types of items. Response codes 17, 28, 30 and 31 might be used to distinguish between administrative/support task items dealing with supervisory as opposed to line functions.

3. Responses for Traffic Items. Unlike the response distributions for crime items (Figure E-9) and administrative/support items (Figure E-10), the response distributions for traffic items (Figure E-11) do not tend to cluster in a few dominant categories, but are distributed throughout the entire range of responses. A major category across the studies is code "03" i.e., "obtain information non-crime". This code is equivalent to the "investigate" response, but was used in non-criminal cases.

4. Responses for Suspect Prisoner Items. The response distribution for suspect/prisoner items Figure E-12, like that for traffic items, is characterized by response codes distributed throughout the range of responses.

VI. Discussion of item content comparisons.

This analytic exercise has been a lengthy one for both the research staff and the reader, but we believe the effort has been justified by the following utilities.

A. Basis for cross-study comparisons. Our original goal was to

FIGURE E-11

RESPONSE CODES FOR TRAFFIC ITEMS

Response	Wollack & Associates (1977)	Jenninger & Dubin (1977)	Kohls, Berner, & Luke (1979)	Rosenfeld Thornton (1976)	Lowe, Cook, & Rannefeld (1977)	Goodgame & Rao (1977)	Lifter, Allivato & Jones (1977)	Smith (1972)	Glickman, Stephenson, Folker (1976)
00	6 (8.70)	7 (11.11)	16 (22.22)	3 (25.00)	2 (12.50)	8 (7.27)	4 (23.53)		1 (50.00)
01	3 (4.35)	1 (1.59)	4 (5.56)	1 (8.33)	1 (6.25)	7 (6.36)			
02		1 (1.59)							
03	21 (30.43)	14 (22.22)	11 (15.28)	1 (8.33)	6 (37.50)	24 (21.82)	2 (11.76)		
04		2 (3.17)				2 (1.82)			
05							1 (5.88)		
06	9 (13.04)	5 (7.94)	7 (9.72)	1 (8.33)	1 (6.25)	13 (11.82)			
07			1 (1.39)						
08									
09	4 (5.80)	2 (3.17)	2 (2.78)	1 (8.33)	1 (6.25)	6 (5.45)	4 (23.53)		1 (50.00)
10									
11			1 (1.39)						
12									
13	3 (4.35)	2 (3.17)	1 (1.39)	2 (16.67)	1 (6.25)	9 (8.18)			
14	3 (4.35)		3 (4.17)			1 (.91)	1 (5.88)		
15									
16	1 (1.45)	3 (4.76)				3 (2.73)	1 (5.88)		
17	4 (5.80)	2 (3.17)	2 (2.78)			11 (10.00)			
18	4 (5.80)	5 (7.94)	3 (4.17)		1 (6.25)	7 (6.36)			
19									
20									
21	1 (1.45)	1 (1.59)	1 (1.39)	1 (8.33)		3 (2.73)	1 (5.88)		
22									
23	8 (11.59)	5 (7.94)	9 (12.50)		1 (6.25)	6 (5.45)	1 (5.88)		
24		1 (1.59)	1 (1.39)				1 (5.88)		
25									
26	1 (1.45)		1 (1.39)			3 (2.73)	1 (5.88)		
27		1 (1.59)	2 (2.78)			1 (0.91)			
28			1 (1.39)			2 (1.82)			
29		1 (1.59)	2 (2.78)			1 (0.91)			
30	1 (1.45)	6 (9.52)	4 (5.56)		2 (12.50)	2 (1.82)			
31		4 (6.35)		2 (16.67)		1 (0.91)			
32									
TOTAL	69 (100.00)	63 (100.00)	72 (100.00)	12 (100.00)	16 (100.00)	110 (100.00)	17 (100.00)		2 (100.00)

FIGURE E-11 (Con't.)

RESPONSE CODES FOR PRECEEDING TABLE

The response codes for the entries in this table are as follows:

- 00 Responds to call/deal with-handle: Use when police handle on-site incidents and/or dispatched calls that may or may not be crime-related.
- 01 Observe/perform surveillance
- 02 Investigate--crime alleged/suspected
- 03 Obtain information--non-crime: understanding minorities, human nature, juveniles; gather information(diagrams) for accidents, community problems.
- 04 Obtain information--crime: no alleged or suspected incident
- 05 Search and seizure
- 06 Give information/advice/teach/counsel
- 07 Give warning/lecture/reprimand
- 08 Mediate
- 09 Issue citation
- 10 Use of force--no arrest specified
- 11 Arrest--no force (use for arrest unless force is specified)
- 12 Arrest--force
- 13 Prepare report/forms
- 14 Testify
- 15 Talk/discuss/socialize (sports events, conversation, develop rapport, etc.)
- 16 Employ emergency procedure
- 17 Plan/research/handle data
- 18 Request assistance from/make referral to other agency/citizens/police
- 19 Provide special transportation/escort (non-medical emergency)
- 20 Prepare/maintain equipment
- 21 Secure/guard property
- 22 Secure/guard persons (e.g. protect dignitaries)
- 23 Use equipment
- 24 Pursue/apprehend/lose suspect
- 25 Give physical assistance
- 26 Secure evidence
- 27 Confer/share information
- 28 Supervise
- 29 Provide assistance
- 30 Evaluate; make judgments; determine value of
- 31 Decide/use discretion
- 32 Perform clerical duties

FIGURE E-12

RESPONSE CODES FOR SUSPECT/PRISONER ITEMS

Response	Wollack & Associates (1977)	Jeanneret & Dubin (1977)	Kohls, Berner, & Luke (1979)	Rosenfeld Thornton (1976)	Low, Cook, & Rannefeld (1977)	Goodgame & Rao (1977)	Lifter, Allivato & Jones (1977)	Smith (1972)	Glickman, Stephenson, Felker (1976)
00	2 (6.25)	2 (4.00)	6 (11.76)	1 (6.67)	3 (15.00)	1 (3.03)			
01	1 (3.13)	1 (2.00)	1 (1.96)						
02	7 (21.88)	2 (4.00)	4 (7.84)	1 (6.67)		1 (3.03)	1 (16.67)		1 (10.00)
03	1 (3.13)	2 (4.00)	2 (3.92)	1 (6.67)		2 (6.06)	1 (16.67)		
04		7 (14.00)		2 (13.33)	4 (20.00)	5 (15.15)	1 (16.67)	2 (18.18)	
05	4 (12.50)	4 (8.00)	5 (9.80)		2 (10.00)	4 (12.12)		2 (18.18)	1 (10.00)
06	1 (3.13)	2 (4.00)	5 (9.80)	3 (20.00)	3 (15.00)	1 (3.03)		3 (27.27)	1 (10.00)
07	1 (3.13)	2 (4.00)	2 (3.92)		1 (5.00)	1 (3.03)			
08									
09									1 (10.00)
10	2 (6.25)	2 (4.00)	3 (5.88)		1 (5.00)				
11	1 (3.13)	4 (8.00)	3 (5.88)	3 (20.00)	1 (5.00)	1 (3.03)		2 (18.18)	2 (20.00)
12	1 (3.13)			1 (6.67)		1 (3.03)			
13	2 (6.25)	2 (4.00)	4 (7.84)			2 (6.06)	1 (16.67)		
14									
15									
16									
17						4 (12.12)			
18			2 (3.92)			1 (3.03)			
19	1 (3.13)		2 (3.92)	1 (6.67)	2 (10.00)		1 (16.67)		
20									
21		2 (4.00)	1 (1.96)			1 (3.03)			2 (20.00)
22	4 (12.50)	5 (10.00)	1 (1.96)			1 (3.03)	1 (16.67)		
23	1 (3.13)	1 (2.00)	2 (3.92)			3 (9.09)			
24	3 (9.38)	2 (4.00)	1 (1.96)		3 (15.00)	2 (6.06)			1 (10.00)
25									
26									
27		1 (2.00)	1 (1.96)						
28		7 (14.00)	1 (1.96)			1 (3.03)			
29		1 (2.00)	1 (1.96)	1 (6.67)				2 (18.18)	
30		1 (2.00)	1 (1.96)						
31				1 (6.67)					1 (10.00)
32			5 (5.88)			1 (3.03)			
TOTAL	32 (100.00)	50 (100.00)	51 (100.00)	15 (100.00)	20 (100.00)	33 (100.00)	6 (100.00)	11 (100.00)	10 (100.00)

FIGURE E-12 (Con't.)

RESPONSE CODES FOR PRECEEDING TABLE

The response codes for the entries in this table are as follows:

- 00 Responds to call/deal with-handle: Use when police handle on-site incidents and/or dispatched calls that may or may not be crime-related.
- 01 Observe/perform surveillance
- 02 Investigate--crime alleged/suspected
- 03 Obtain information--non-crime: understanding minorities, human nature, juveniles; gather information(diagrams) for accidents, community problems.
- 04 Obtain information--crime: no alleged or suspected incident
- 05 Search and seizure
- 06 Give information/advise/teach/counsel
- 07 Give warning/lecture/reprimand
- 08 Mediate
- 09 Issue citation
- 10 Use of force--no arrest specified
- 11 Arrest--no force (use for arrest unless force is specified)
- 12 Arrest--force
- 13 Prepare report/forms
- 14 Testify
- 15 Talk/discuss/socialize (sports events, conversation, develop rapport, etc.)
- 16 Employ emergency procedure
- 17 Plan/research/handle data
- 18 Request assistance from/make referral to other agency/citizens/police
- 19 Provide special transportation/escort (non-medical emergency)
- 20 Prepare/maintain equipment
- 21 Secure/guard property
- 22 Secure/guard persons (e.g. protect dignitaries)
- 23 Use equipment
- 24 Pursue/apprehend/lose suspect
- 25 Give physical assistance
- 26 Secure evidence
- 27 Confer/share information
- 28 Supervise
- 29 Provide assistance
- 30 Evaluate; make judgments; determine value of
- 31 Decide/use discretion
- 32 Perform clerical duties

synthesize information derived from cross-study comparisons which were feasible only if it were possible to identify items with similar substantive content.

B. Indication of the various researchers' conceptualizations of the police job. If we take the frequency with which particular problems are identified as an indicator of emphasis, it would appear that the job of police officer is primarily involved with crime (combining the crime and suspect categories), traffic, and administrative/support-related tasks. Little emphasis has been placed on the police officer as a participating member of a criminal justice system, as a mediator of disputes, as a friend to those in need, or as a preventor of crime and dangerous conditions. As we discussed earlier, this pattern of emphasis is reasonably consistent across the instruments examined. Does this consistency occur because the instruments accurately reflect emphases in the job of police officer or is it because researchers hold some common, albeit unspecified and perhaps inappropriate conceptualization of what is involved in police work?

Our analyses so far give us little information to choose between these alternative explanations. We do know that the instrument construction phase of these studies tends to involve observations of police officers at work or review by expert (often incumbent) panels or a combination of both. In the case of some studies, these observations or reviews were conducted after initial item construction as checks on the validity of item content. Items had been written on the basis of the researchers' perception of the available police literature and it apparently was assumed that the items were representative of the range and distribution of police tasks. Even in the cases in which such procedures apparently were utilized in order to

achieve an objective sampling of work-related items, we must wonder whether they still are not subject to influence by the same underlying conceptualization of police work that we see evidenced in the final research instruments. We do know from calls for service data and from observational studies that police officers are more likely to be called to a dispute rather than a crime and that at a crime scene they are more likely to encounter victims and witnesses than they are to encounter suspects. Can such findings be reconciled with the content descriptions of the research instruments just examined? We believe not and must conclude that task analyses, while providing finer-resolution information about the nature of police tasks, do not accurately reflect the content of police tasks, either by identifying the universe of them or by documenting the distribution of time and activity across them.

C. Indication of gaps in the knowledge of the police job. We cannot know about an aspect of the police officers' job if questions about that aspect receive only minimal attention or no attention in research instruments. Before even examining substantive findings, we know that these studies will be able to provide minimal information regarding the police role with respect to problems such as crime prevention, order maintenance, disputes, community relations, dealing with juveniles, victims, etc.

D. Possible explanation for differences in substantive findings between studies. If in our substantive comparisons between studies we find differences in job descriptions, we will be able to examine the hypothesis that such differences are due to methodological differences in instrument construction rather than actual differences in the substantive makeup of jobs. Clearly, too little attention has been given in contemporaneous job analyses to the effect of item wording on substantive

findings. One effect worthy of examination has to do with the impact of the number of items on the ratings given those items. For example, if 20 items are spent on various aspects of handling a traffic accident, while only one item is spent on handling domestic disturbances, what impact do such emphases have on ratings of the "importance" of these tasks? Similarly, too little attention has been given to the impact of the hierarchical structure of sets of questions dealing with the same problem. For example, if a task analysis requests respondents to rate the frequency with which they "investigate burglaries," "question burglary suspects," "question burglary victims," "dust for fingerprints at crime scenes," etc., etc., the respondent is essentially being asked to report the frequency of the same task repeatedly. In the example given, questioning suspects and victims are component tasks of the broader investigatory task. The dusting for fingerprints items is worded so that it overlaps the investigating burglaries item. No attention has been given to these matters, yet we cannot help but believe that they impact the results of the studies.

E. Guide to future instrument construction. We believe that this effort takes us a long way in the direction of being able to carefully construct such instruments in the future. It has allowed us to present in some detail the possible problems and responses to be covered in future instrument development. It has alerted us to problems in item construction that were not obvious when we started this effort.

VII. Some Observations on Instrument Content.

Several observations we made as we attempted to analyze the content of these instruments may be of use in attempting to understand the content distributions as we have described them. First, for certain problems the

police deal with there are complex terminologies which discriminate between similar classes of problems. For example, thefts are broken down into shoplifting, purse-snatches, auto thefts, pocket-picks, burglaries, larcenies, etc., etc. And yet, there are no similar distinctions commonly made in terms of disputes, except in some instances where marital/family disputes are sorted out as a special type of problem. To the extent that researchers allow the fine distinctions made for certain problems and the gross distinctions made for other problems to be reflected in their research instruments, they are adopting a particular conceptualization of the job, and in so doing may ultimately distort the reality of the job.

Finally, certain problems encountered by the police result in the use of equipment and the issuance of reports. Traffic-related problems would seem to fit into this category. One study we analyzed contained a number of distinct items of the following form "Use a (baton, flashlight, hand signals, whistle, etc.) to direct traffic." Each time a different piece of equipment was used, a separate task was identified. Other problems, e.g., maintaining order, frequently involve no equipment other than the police officer's verbal skills and result in no paperwork being generated. Once again, routine, straightforward tasks are easy to write items about. Complex, discretionary tasks are difficult to describe and, therefore, it is difficult to write task items about them.

These observations may help explain why the content of task analysis instruments is consistent across a number of studies and at the same time quite different from what one might expect from observation and calls-for-service data.

VIII. Interpreting cross-study substantive findings.

In Chapter II, we presented the findings, comparatively and for separate studies, about the relative frequency with which various police tasks are reported to be performed and also in Chapter II. we detailed the findings about the importance attributed to the various tasks. We found that the studies presented different pictures of the frequency with which police tasks are performed. The lack of agreement is reflected by correlations among studies which ranged from $r = -.042$ to $.509$. There was greater agreement concerning the importance of tasks, although there was greater agreement about the unimportance of some tasks than about the importance of others. Among the three studies which examined importance, the correlations of findings across studies were $.212$, $.308$ and $.401$. To help interpret the importance correlations, the percentage of problem types were correlated across studies. For each of the pairings these correlations are considerably larger than the correlation for standardized mean importance ratings.

As discussed in Chapter III, it is not clear what the differences in the correlations mean. Officers in Washington State may value aspects of the job differently than officers in Georgia and Houston. Researchers may have asked about the job in different ways. Our coding scheme may not really equate item content. We suspect that each of these explanations may be viable. As examination of similar items across studies suggests why this might be the case. The first example involves three items, one from each study, that were all coded with "Crime" as the problem and with "obtain Information/Investigate" as the response or action. The three items and the corresponding standardized mean importance score for each are presented in Figure E-13. As can be seen there is substantial disagreement regarding the importance of this task. But is

FIGURE E-13

Item Comparisons

Three items involving Crime/Investigate-Collect Information:

Jeanneret & Dubin: "Photograph crime scenes, taking special precautions to record evidence as prescribed by law and by court requirements." - STANDARDIZED IMPORTANCE MEAN = 55

Lowe, Cook & Rannefeld: "Sketches and photographs crime scene."
- STANDARDIZED IMPORTANCE MEAN = 47

Wollack & Associates: "Sketch crime scene and record measurements."
- STANDARDIZED IMPORTANCE MEAN = 61

it the same task? The Jeanneret and Dubin item deals only with photographing; the Wollack and Associates item deals with sketching and the Lowe, et al. deal with both. The Jeanneret and Dubin item includes a legal standard; one would normally expect the inclusion of such a standard to increase perceived importance of a task. There is no real way for us to tell what caused the differences on these items, but we do know from our work that modest changes in question wording can have a dramatic impact on importance ratings. An example comes from the Wollack and Associates report. The first item asked about the importance of taking "witness and/or suspects statements by recorder." The second item asked about the importance of taking "statements in criminal cases." The first item received a standardized importance score of 44, the second received a standardized score of 50. It is difficult to specify the cause of the difference between these items. It may be that using a recorder is not very common and therefore not important, or it may be that the phrase "criminal cases" in the second item caused that item to be more highly valued.

Furthermore, as suggested in Chapter III, we question whether there was a shared meaning among officers within the same study or across studies about the terms "important" and "critical". Wollack and Associates asked the respondents to "Rate each task on its importance to the job of patrol officer" and note in their report that "A task or duty was considered to be most important if the consequences of making an error or performing poorly was seen as extremely detrimental to the attainment of effective law enforcement." Lowe, et al. asked raters to consider "How important is this task

for successful performance of my job?" Different levels of importance were defined for the respondent. For example, "very important" referred to an "extremely critical" task such that "failure to perform this task or failure to perform it properly would result in serious and irreversible consequences." Jeannert and Dubin asked raters to indicate what "the probable consequences of inadequate performance would be "were the task not done correctly."

There are no objective standards concerning "effective law enforcement" or "inadequate performance" so it is not possible to know what subjective base of comparison the respondents may have been using. In the case of the Lowe, et al. and Jeanneret and Dubin rating schemes, there is considerable latitude for the officer to think about consequences for the officer's own safety or career, for the case, for the client, for society, for the administration of justice, etc. There simply is no way to know which dimension is most salient to any individual respondent.

Examples of potentially more concrete and reliable rating schemes might be the following:

"Assume that no one else in the police agency would know of your action in handling this situation: how important would it be to your own self-concept as a police officer to respond as capably as possible?"

"Assume that your action in handling this situation would be known to your superiors. How severe is any reprimand or disciplinary action likely to be?"

While schemes such as these are not without their own limitations, they do clarify the nature of the judgment the officer is being asked to make.

IX. Methodological comments on item wording and instrument construction.

Although our work does not allow us to make strong assertions regarding the impact of item wording and instrument construction on importance ratings, we have seen patterns in the studies examined that we believe merit further attention. Such further attention should take the form of experimental manipulation of item wordings and instrument format, composition, etc. Below we provide some examples of areas that we believe are crucial for further examination.

A. Item length and complexity. Authors often attempt to cover too much ground in a single task item. An example of such an item reads "Familiarize self with business establishments on beat, their employees, hours of operation, type of merchandise, susceptibility to particular offenses, nature of alarm systems and physical layout in order to minimize susceptibility to crime and to increase effectiveness of enforcement in the event of crime." Such an item, we believe, simultaneously presents the rater with too many stimuli to rate. When faced with complex stimuli, it is likely that the rater will select some component of the total stimuli. The researcher of course will not have control over what component gets selected. In our own effort to code the content of such items, it was common for independent coders to arrive at very different content codes for such items.

B. Hierarchical structure of items. It was not unusual, particularly with respect to criminal matters, for instruments to include what were essentially overlapping items. For example, one set of criminal investigation items included the following: "Initiate and complete preliminary investigation of reported crime." "Conduct preliminary felony investigations" "Conduct preliminary misdemeanor investigations." Also included in the set of items were

a number of activities that one would perform when conducting a preliminary criminal investigation. The more general items tend to be rated as more important than the more specific items. To the extent that a problem area is composed of such general items, it may distort the importance of that problem area vis-a-vis other problem areas or the same problem area in another study.

C. The use of synonyms. The use of apparent synonyms should be examined for their impact. What is the likely impact, for example, of asking "How important is it to the job of the police officer to handle burglary cases," versus asking "How important is it to the job of the police officer to investigate burglary cases." "Handle" would appear to be a more encompassing verb than "investigate," but perhaps less glamorous.

D. The use of multiple verbs. Sometimes item writers use multiple verbs when constructing items, e.g. "organize, conduct and photograph line ups." To the extent that one of the verbs identifies tasks that are done by specialists rather than generalists, one could see a drop in importance ratings. For example the task statement "Conduct line ups" might well be more applicable to a general patrol officer than the broader task statement.

X. The need for a conceptual framework.

While the methodological problems are significant enough to limit the utility of cross-study comparisons, perhaps the most significant problem we have noted in reviewing task analyses is the persistent lack of an underlying conceptual/measurement model. We know that existing task analyses have been done without the benefit of such a model. Researchers have allowed "experience," "expertise," or "reality" to serve as the basis for answering often poorly articulated questions about which content areas to cover and

the degree of specificity to use in covering them. When a conceptual framework is used, both the questions and the answers are articulated. Without the benefit of a conceptual/measurement model, the answers are not observable and are therefore not open to scientific inspection. If one is forced to search for an empirically identifiable model in the questionnaire, that which is found may look and sound a bit strange. Were we to reconstruct a measurement model from some of the studies we have examined, a small part of it might be portrayed as follows:

One content area police officers deal with in their jobs is traffic control and enforcement. A number of dimensions are important in this content area; these are: patrolling, using radar equipment, performing stationary surveillance, issuing tickets, issuing warnings, using flashlights to control traffic, using whistles to control traffic, using hand signals to control traffic and removing dead animals from roadways. Another content area is dealing with family disputes. There are no dimensions of this problem area of concern to us. It is sufficient to ask if the police officer handles such incidents."

Such a model represents a view of policing which may have been common prior to research on calls for service and observational and self-report studies of the use of time. The model does not correspond to what is now known through other methods about the content of the police job.

Why inaccurate models should emerge in the absence of a conceptual framework is not hard to understand. Crime-related activities are more technical and more likely to involve tools than are the people-handling tasks of service and order maintenance. Because technique has been specified for handling criminal situations and because these situations can be thought of in terms of the tools which might be required, it is relatively easy to

conceive of distinct questions about handling crime-related situations. Much less concrete information is available about the techniques and tools for dealing with the situations which, in very general terms, require the "handling of people." The techniques will depend both on the objective elements of the situation and on the characteristics of the persons involved. The interaction of these sets of variables produces a wide variety of situations which may call for different techniques; it is difficult to develop classification schemes and to prescribe methods. The tools involved are primarily interpersonal skills and these too are difficult to classify. The total result is that it simply is more difficult to conceive of the items which reflect the people-handling situations. A great deal more will have to be observed and conceptualized about these tasks before items about them can be readily written. Given the reliance of task analyses on questionnaire methodologies, it is unlikely they will seek the basic information unless closely guided by a careful conceptual framework.

Extensive observation probably will be required before complex situations can be categorized and distilled to the types of codes and brief descriptions which are suitable for questionnaires. And while observational studies may be necessary to "flesh-out" a conceptual framework, they must be guided by at least a skeletal measurement model if whole areas of the job are not to be under-detailed.

While we are not prepared to offer a fully developed model, our consideration of these issues and our examination of the role theoretic literature for this project have suggested a skeletal model which we think could benefit task analyses or any other approaches to examining the police role.

XI. A role theoretic framework.

Gross, Mason and McEachern define a role as "...a set of expectations...a set of evaluative standards applied to an incumbent of a particular position" (1958:60). A position refers "...to the location of an actor or class of actors in a system of social relationships" (Gross et al. (1958:48). The system of relationships consists of a focal position; the one of greatest interest to the researcher is the "counter positions" with which the focal position interacts. In order to specify the aspects of a role associated with any position, it is necessary to identify the counter positions and the set of interactions which occur between the focal and counter positions.

We suggest conceptualizing the interactions as actions which occur within the context of situations, problems or incidents. At the first and most general level of analysis, the situation can be identified as the problem or condition about which the police are called or which attracts the attention of the police. The actions can be understood as the police response to the counter position or positions within the context of the situation.⁵

A. Mapping counter positions.

The set of all possible counter positions is extremely large and is limited by a researcher's creativity in stratifying the world into subsets. Any single research effort is limited to the extent that it deals with a few of the large number of possible counter positions. In the majority of

5. Of course, any interaction is more complex than this simple model suggests. The police definition of the situation is part of the response and actions of the counter position as well as of the focal position determine the response. However, this model identifies the first "cut" to be made into the clay; ever finer cuts can identify the role interactions in greater detail.

studies done on the police role, the selection of counter positions would appear to be done as much by fiat as by design (but see Preiss and Erlich, 1966; and Cain, 1973). Selections of counter positions would appear to be based on frequency of interaction or importance of interaction.

The terms presented in Figure E-14 represent the counter positions which have been examined, to some degree, in the empirical literature on the police role. This list of counter positions represents a mixed bag of occupational positions (e.g., judge, prosecutor), ascribed positions (e.g., juveniles, minorities) and achieved positions (e.g., victims, suspects). While we have endeavored to make this list as extensive as possible, we are confident that the astute reader can add other counter positions that would be useful in order to get to "know" about the police officer position. An observation study which focused specifically on identifying and describing the persons with whom the police interact probably would be the best means of assuring the completeness of the list.

B. Identifying problems/situations.

Figure E-15 suggests types of situations which bring the police officer into contact with persons in counter positions. This list, too, was derived from existing task analyses and represents an amalgamation and homogenization of the situations identified in the studies. As we argued in Chapter V, better means of identifying problems, situations, incidents and conditions are needed. We do not have a solution, but wish to point to the issue as one which needs immediate and substantial consideration by police scholars and researchers.

Figure E-14

Counter Positions Presently Examined
in Research on the Police Role

Citizens, General
Business Proprietors
Convicted Persons (probationers, parolees)
Criminal Justice Functionaries/Non-police
Feeble, Handicapped
Hostile Persons
Informants
Injured/Sick Persons
Intoxicated Persons
Juveniles
Mentally Ill, Retarded, Senile
Minorities
Missing Persons
Police, Equal Rank
Police, Higher Rank
Press
Social Service Agents
Suspects/Prisoners
Victims
Witnesses

Figure E-15

Situations Which Bring the Police Into
Contact with Occupants of Counter Positions

Crime, general alleged
Crime, person alleged
Crime, property alleged
Crime, consumptive/non-predatory (e.g., drugs, gambling, prostitution)
Suspicious persons
Suspicious circumstance
Crime prevention, general
Crime prevention, person crimes
Crime prevention, property crimes

Peace-keeping, beat management, disorder prevention
Riot control
Non-riot crowd control (demonstrations)
Disturbing peace/nuisance
Domestic disputes
Other disputes (neighbors, friends)
Animal control
Weapons control

Traffic, general
Parking enforcement
Moving enforcement
Vehicular administrative enforcement (e.g., weight limits, inspection stickers)

Community relations
Information requests
Miscellaneous services (e.g., funeral escorts, parade escorts)
Unsafe or dangerous conditions (e.g., highway debris, blocking of fire lanes)
Police misconduct
Legal proceedings
Internal police administration

Figure E-16

Action Taken by Police in Response to
Problems, Situations, Incidents, Conditions

Arrest, no force
Arrest, use force
Employ medical emergency procedure
Employ non-medical emergency procedure
Escort
Inform, advise, teach, counsel
Investigate (crime-alleged)
Issue citation
Mediate
Observe, perform surveillance
Obtain information (crime-related)
Obtain information (non-crime-related)
Prepare, maintain equipment
Prepare reports/forms
Provide physical assistance
Pursue, apprehend
Refer to other functionary
Research, plan, handle data
Respond to, handle, deal with requests
Request assistance
Search
Secure evidence
Secure, guard persons
Secure, guard property
Share information/data
Talk, discuss, socialize
Testify
Use equipment
Use force (non-arrest situation)
Warn, lecture, reprimand

C. Identifying responses.

The actions listed in Figure E-16 are the police actions which have been identified in task analyses. As with problems/situations, a better system of classifying responses is greatly needed. Improved classification systems probably are the first step to a higher quality of research into the nature of the police role.

We think that a major advantage of a conceptual model based on identifying focal and counter positions and their interaction is that it acknowledges the fact that policing is a business of handling people. It will draw attention to the types of responses various types of people have and to the responses which different people need and/or receive. It will serve to emphasize and encourage the identification and classification of the interpersonal skills necessary for the handling of various types of people in different situations. This could correct the bias in current studies toward techniques and tools and should help illuminate dimensions of people-handling situations which previously have been obscured. We do not anticipate that the attention on focal positions would cause researchers to overlook or undervalue aspects of the law enforcement function of policing. Rather it should enrich knowledge of that and other functions by examining the role of the police in relation to each major actor in the situation.

XII. Some reflections on our analyses of task analyses.

Theoretically, task analysis should provide a desirable means of answering the question, "What is the content of the job?" We have conceptualized the answer to the question in terms of the incidents or problems to which police respond and have examined nine police task analyses to compare

their pictures of the police job.

Respondents to task analysis surveys have been asked to rate different tasks in terms of relative frequency of occurrence, importance and time spent. Any individual attempting to summarize findings across studies faces a difficult problem. We set out to seriously attempt such a summary and after many months of effort still wonder if we have been able to accomplish what we set out to do. We can see across surveys, for example, that much of an officer's time is spent on general patrol and that officers feel this is an important part of their job. We can see that dealing with Crime, Evidence and Suspects are considered important parts of the job, but that not much time is actually spent doing these kinds of things. Traffic related tasks, on the other hand, seem to take a substantial amount of time, but tend not to be seen as an important part of the job. To such findings a skeptic might reasonably ask, so what? Quite literally, millions of dollars have been and continue to be spent on such studies. We have spent many months and thousands of dollars trying to summarize and understand these findings, yet when forced to, we can only make very general statements that everyone seems to have known anyhow.

We are not in a position to judge the utility of individual studies for the agencies which conducted or participated in them. It is possible that information was derived from this work which met the specific need for which a particular study was designed. Perhaps, for example, a study produced new information about the frequency with which certain elements of an investigatory process were performed. Our point is simply that these studies provide no new information about either the distribution of police time across various types of incidents or problems and no new information about what it is police

actually do in responding to these situations. Certainly, some information was lost in our recoding process but without such a process the various studies could not have been compared at all. And yet, with such a process, it became apparent that the content differences among studies were great enough to make any substantive comparisons very difficult to interpret.

Whatever their utilities, we have to conclude that task analyses, in their current forms, are not very useful for presenting a general picture of policing and are even less useful for analyses which seek to identify differences across types of communities or across various population groups. We don't believe these limitations are inherent in task study methodologies. The use of a conceptual framework and attention to methodological problems could result in a task analysis instrument which could be productive of rich information if administered across a variety of settings.

Despite the gloomy tone of our reflections, we do not feel the efforts we invested in task analyses were non-productive. While they yielded no really new substantive information, the process of critiquing the studies and attempting to reconceptualize their constituent items greatly sharpened our own thinking about the police role and research needs associated with it. People who have struggled to conceptualize and construct the studies have perhaps had similar experiences. Like studies of calls for service and dispatched calls, task analyses sensitize us to the next steps to be taken and the next questions to be asked in the effort to understand the police role.

APPENDIX F

DISCUSSION OF PROJECT "STAR"

Throughout the discussion of the task analyses we have indicated that the Project STAR (Smith, 1972) instrument was a "creature of a different stripe." We believe that the examination of several typical items from the STAR "Role Perception Survey" will help make this point. Figure F-1 compares the two major types of items found in the STAR instrument. The first type has to do with what we have described earlier as the nature of role content. Essentially these items are directed at what kinds of things police officers do. These items come close to the items we found in task analyses. The second type of item involves what we have called nature of role performance items. Such items are concerned with how an officer does something rather than what the officer does. Such items tend to have a good deal of evaluative content. By this we mean that it would be possible to score many of these items on a good-bad or positive-negative dimension. For example, three of the four items presented in Figure F-1 (excluding the second role performance item) are stated such that they involve illegal, unprofessional and unethical behavior. This is a clear difference from most task analysis items which are purposefully constructed to be neutral in evaluative content.

Still another difference between the STAR instrument and the task analysis instruments involves the types of ratings made by respondents. The STAR respondents were asked to first rate the "desirability" of the trait or behavior involved in an item and then were asked to rate the "probability" of that trait or behavior actually occurring. The desirability rating is reflective of the evaluative content of the items.

APPENDIX F

DISCUSSION OF PROJECT STAR

BY

CHARLES E. SUSMILCH

FIGURE F-1
 EXAMPLES OF TWO TYPES OF ITEMS
 FOUND IN THE PROJECT "STAR" SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Nature of Role Content Items

Spend a disproportionately large amount of time writing reports.

When preparing offense reports, police officers verify information given to them by others.

Provide defendant background information to defense counsel.

Offer suggestions on the placement of probationers.

Nature of Role Performance Items

Permit a person's racial origin to impair their objectivity.

Tolerate verbal abuse from the person being arrested.

Slant court testimony to support their own position.

Act more harshly to quell disorders involving some groups more than others.

Our pointing to differences between the STAR instrument and the task analyses instruments should not be misconstrued as being reflective of our preference for one format over the other. The different approaches accomplish different things and the only problem we see is that Project STAR has frequently been misinterpreted as simply being another task analysis. This perception is likely to arise because of the enormity of the Project STAR endeavor. In addition to generating a listing of the task content for the police officer job, the STAR researchers conducted in 4 states a large survey of role perceptions. We now turn to a discussion of the survey instrument utilized in that survey.

A breakdown of the problem content for the STAR items, controlling for the "nature of content/nature of performance" distinction is presented in Figure F-2. Two types of problems dominate both the "content" items and the "performance" items. The first major problem involves "suspects or prisoners," the second major problem involves "other criminal justice system officials" e.g. probation officers, prosecutors, judges, etc. Little or no attention is directed toward traffic related duties, administrative/support duties or the "no specific problem" category. As the reader will recall, these problems tended to be emphasized in the task analyses we examined. We believe these dramatic content differences observed are directly related to the different purposes of the STAR project vs. the task analyses. STAR was concerned with the entire criminal justice system rather than only the police institution. STAR was particularly concerned with the interaction between the different components of the criminal justice system. Hence there is a deemphasis in STAR on the non-criminal aspects of the police role.

FIGURE F-2
PROBLEM CONTENT FOR ALL PROJECT STAR ITEMS
(N/% of question type)

F-4

Problem	Nature of Content	Nature of Performance
No Problem (00)		1 (1.53)
Crime (01, 02, 03)	2 (4.88)	5 (7.63)
Suspicious Persons and Circumstances (04, 05, 06)		
Crime Prevention (07, 08, 09)	2 (4.88)	1 (1.53)
Evidence (10)		1 (1.53)
Other Crime (27, 28)		
Miscellaneous License and Ordinance (29, 94)		
Order (20, 21, 22)	2 (4.88)	6 (9.16)
Disputes (24, 25, 26)		3 (4.58)
Miscellaneous Duties (23, 80, 84)		
Administrative Support (85, 91)	1 (2.44)	1 (1.53)
Community Relations (81, 82, 83)	2 (4.88)	4 (6.11)
Police Conduct (87)	1 (2.44)	1 (1.53)
Administrative Legal Procedures (89)		
Knowledge (86, 90)	3 (7.32)	
Traffic (40, 41, 42, 43)		3 (4.58)
Property (92)		
Safe Conditions (93)		
Suspects/Prisoners (73, 78)	11 (26.83)	20 (31.30)
Victim, Witness, Informant (71, 72, 79)		3 (4.58)
Minorities, Alien (59, 70)		2 (3.05)
(58, 74, 75)		
Other Police		
Miscellaneous Persons (61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68)	2 (4.88)	4 (6.11)
Other Criminal Justice System Officials (76)	15 (36.59)	9 (13.74)
Other Service Agents (57, 77)		
Hostile Citizen (69)		1 (1.53)
Total	41 (100.00)	65 (100.00)

F-5

This is most vividly pointed up by the lack of emphasis on traffic related tasks and administrative tasks. Crime related activities are primarily discussed in relationship to the apprehension, arrest and processing of suspects and prisoners, i.e. the very part of the role that brings police into contact with other members of the criminal justice system.

It is also of interest to note that there is a greater emphasis on the "how" rather than the "what" of the police role in Project STAR. We think that this emphasis is probably best understood in terms of the historical events immediately preceeding and contemporaneous to the undertaking of STAR. The Sixties had seen urban and campus riots. The role of the police in controlling these riots became a principle issue during those times of social unrest. Although there was some soul searching about whether or not the police should even be involved in controlling such unrest, the principal questions raised concerned the "hows" of police behavior e.g. excessive use of force, discriminatory behavior and the illegality of police behavior. This period also saw an explosion in the area of prisoner/suspect rights; again the concern was with the "hows" of police behavior. Such a concern with the "hows" is very different from the concerns in the later Seventies with the "whats" of police behavior, which arose primarily as a result of charges of discriminatory hiring practices. The role was then conceptualized in terms of "what" in order to assess criteria for hiring, firing and promotion.

Before moving to a comparison of the substantive findings for Project STAR, it is necessary to discuss some modifications of our standard procedures for making such comparisons. Because Project STAR items have evaluative content (i.e. the behaviors discussed can be seen as being indicative of "good" or

"bad" policing), we did not feel that aggregating over items in a particular problem category would be appropriate. For example, a problem category with one positively worded item and one negatively worded item could appear to have the same aggregated "probability" rating as a problem category with two neutrally worded items. Our first inclination was simply to code each item for positive or negative content. But we realized that the Project STAR respondents had essentially done this for us with the desirability ratings they had made. Figure F-3 presents some summary data on the desirability ratings made by STAR respondents. The reader will note that the percentages of items rated as "undesirable" are very consistent across research sites (within item type). In no site by site comparisons were respondents in disagreement about desirability/undesirability for more than two items. This is a remarkable degree of agreement. Because of the high level of agreement on the desirability of items we decided to reflect the "probability" scores of items that were rated as undesirable. Through this procedure we attempted to simulate an instrument where all items were positively worded.

Examination of Figure F-4 indicates considerable cross site consistency in probability ratings within problem categorizations for both types of items. The separation of items into two types makes it very difficult to draw substantive conclusions regarding the relative probability of particular problems occurring for the "nature of content" items. There are simply too few items in most categories for us to be able to make any substantive comments in which we could place confidence.

There is a separate problem with our usual approach in interpreting the nature of performance items. In such items respondents simultaneously rate both a set of "whats" (i.e., our problems and responses) and a "how" (i.e.,

FIGURE F-3
PERCENTAGE OF PROJECT "STAR" ITEMS
RATED AS UNDESIRABLE BY ITEM
TYPE AND STATE

ITEM TYPE	STATE			
	Michigan	Texas	New Jersey	California
Nature of Content	12%	17%	15%	17%
Nature of Performance	33%	33%	35%	35%

FIGURE F-4
PROJECT "STAR"
UNSTANDARDIZED MEAN PROBABILITY RATINGS* BY
TYPE OF ITEM AND PROBLEM CATEGORY
(N/% for Michigan, Texas, New Jersey, California)

Problem	Nature of Content	Nature of Performance
No Problem (00)		1 (4.0, 3.9, 3.6, 3.8)
Crime (01, 02, 03)	2 (3.9, 4.0, 3.8, 4.0)	5 (3.0, 2.9, 2.8, 3.1)
Suspicious Persons and Circumstances (04, 05, 06)		
Crime Prevention (07, 08, 09)	2 (3.8, 4.0, 3.9, 3.9)	1 (3.5, 3.7, 3.4, 3.4)
Evidence (10)		1 (3.5, 3.7, 3.3, 3.4)
Other Crime (27, 28)		
Miscellaneous License and Ordinance (29, 94)		
Order (20, 21, 22)	2 (3.4, 3.4, 3.4, 3.4)	6 (3.4, 3.3, 3.2, 3.5)
Disputes (24, 25, 26)		3 (3.6, 3.9, 3.9, 3.8)
Miscellaneous Duties (23, 80, 84)		
Administrative Support (85, 91)	2 (1.9, 2.0, 1.9, 1.7)	
Community Relations (81, 82, 83)	1 (3.2, 3.5, 3.2, 3.1)	
Police Conduct (87)		
Administrative Legal Procedures (89)		
Knowledge (86, 90)	1 (3.5, 3.6, 3.4, 3.5)	
Traffic (40, 41, 42, 43)		3 (3.2, 3.4, 3.2, 3.3)
Property (92)		
Safe Conditions (93)		
Suspects/Prisoners (73, 78)	11 (3.5, 3.4, 3.2, 3.3)	20 (3.3, 3.3, 3.2, 3.3)
Victim, Witness, Informant (71, 72, 79)		3 (3.5, 3.5, 3.5, 3.67)

*Scale was: 1 = very unlikely to 5 = very likely

FIGURE F-4 (Con't.)*

Problem	Nature of Content	Nature of Performance
Minorities, Alien (59, 70)		2 (3.5, 3.5, 3.5, 3.6)
Other Police (58, 74, 75)		
Miscellaneous Persons (61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68)	2 (4.2, 4.3, 4.3, 4.2)	4 (3.6, 3.8, 3.6, 3.7)
Other Criminal Justice System Officials (76)	15 (3.2, 3.2, 3.0, 3.1)	9 (3.2, 3.4, 3.3, 3.5)
Other Service Agents (57, 77)		
Hostile Citizen (69)		1 (3.6, 3.5, 3.3, 3.8)
*Total		

*Scale was : 1 = very unlikely to 5 = very likely

they respond to problem A with response B: "politely" or "efficiently" or "without bias," etc.). Our method has no way of sorting out whether the respondents were responding to the "whats," the "hows" or both the "whats and the hows" in any particular item. It perhaps would have been possible to create a code for the "hows" of police performance. We did not do so because this issue is for the most part only relevant to the Project STAR research instrument.

In summary, we see Project STAR as a very specialized type of effort, directed primarily at the inter-connections between component institutions of the criminal justice system. Given this focus, the STAR pays a lot of attention to an important but small aspect of the total police role.

The nature of STAR's instrument was substantially different from the task analyses instruments. Our coding of codebooks strategy was not able to capture the content of STAR's items as completely as we were able to capture the content of the task analyses items. Each Project STAR item contains more types of content than the typical item in task analyses. With such multiple contents it is hard to establish which of the several stimuli in the item respondents are rating. Of course, with appropriate experimental design and careful item construction, it would be theoretically possible to vary as many different types of item contents (whats, hows, when, etc.) as wished. Project STAR was not conducted under such conditions, nor has any project we know of been conducted under such conditions.

APPENDIX G

NOTE ON DATA ACQUISITION

APPENDIX G

A NOTE ON DATA ACQUISITION

The original intent of this project was to conduct comparative secondary analyses of original data sets. In the case of task analyses, this proved impossible because of the difficulty in obtaining the data.* Despite intense efforts, original data sets were obtained for only PROJECT STAR and for the Georgia POST study (Lowe, et al., 1977). Obstacles included destroyed data sets, data that was never put into machine readable form, data that was "tied up" in court cases, data that had not yet been fully analyzed by principal investigators and data that had disappeared with principal investigators.

Many acquisition problems seemed related to the corporate/bureaucratic organization for funding and conducting research. More than once, we were told by a research organization that raw data had been turned over to a unit of government, only to have the unit of government maintain that the researcher had the raw data.

Tracking down a person responsible for the conduct of a study was a time consuming, expensive and frustrating task. It was not unusual to call "X Research Corporation" to ask to speak to "Dr. D", only to be told that Dr. D didn't work there. Such a response would lead to our reply that Dr. D must have worked there at one point in time because we possessed a report, published by the corporation, which had Dr. D's name on it. At that point we were likely to be transferred to "Somebody in the accounting department who had worked at X Research Corporation for a long time." The accounting person

*In the case of attitude studies, a preliminary analysis of item content indicated that comparative analyses would be inappropriate given the non-comparability of items.

could usually supply us with a lead to where we might find Dr. D. Upon finding Dr. D, an undertaking which might involve two or three more calls, Dr. D would almost invariably report that Research Analyst R, at Corporation Y would best be able to answer our questions because the data collection part of the study had been sub-contracted to Corporation Y. There is about a 50/50 chance that Corporation Y is still in business and about a 1/100 chance that Researcher R still works there. Researcher R has almost always: a) gone back to school; b) moved to California; or c) left no clue to his/her whereabouts.

If locating members of the research staff proved impossible, we would attempt to deal with the bureaucrat who had supervised the project for the research corporation or the bureaucrat who had supervised the project for the funding agency.

Finding Bureaucrat B is almost always as easy and rewarding as finding Dr. D and Researcher R. Bureaucrat B has also, almost invariably: a) gone back to school; b) moved to California; or c) taken a job with the Water Resources Board. If you reach Bureaucrat B, s/he will inform you that s/he is: a) not Bureaucrat B; b) you should talk to Dr. D; or c) that s/he left a complete set of documentations and tapes back at Bureaucracy B. This last answer is perhaps the cruelest. It leads the searcher back to Bureaucracy B, where the new Bureaucrat B informs you that when s/he got there, things were a "mess", so s/he just threw everything out and started his/her own system.

We learned, too, that it is common practice for profit-making research corporations to keep data sets only until it is determined that the project

has been satisfactorily completed and that sufficient time has passed that there probably will be no requests for additional data analysis. This apparently is a cost/benefit decision based on the need to provide space for current data sets. We did not question any of our contacts about their corporation's opinion about archiving this data in a data bank and none indicated that we might be able to locate their data in such a repository.

Before deciding that re-analysis of attitude surveys would be inappropriate, we made some initial efforts to retrieve these data sets. Early indications were that the original attitude data would have been easier to acquire. As compared to task analyses, the attitude studies were more likely to have been conducted by private individuals who either sustain an interest in the subject and/or are reluctant to destroy something so personal (and sometimes personally painful) as data sets which they had constructed.

Our experiences with trying to retrieve data convinced us of the need to promote data archiving. We wonder whether it would be worthwhile for funding agencies to require, as condition for the final payment of some percentage of the grant award, that the data be archived either with the funding agency or with a data bank such as that maintained by the Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research at the University of Michigan.

APPENDIX H
POLICE DISPATCH CODES

APPENDIX H

During the course of the project an interest developed in determining the nature of the coding schemes which departments use for classifying citizen requests for service. Having determined that task analyses commonly make finer and more numerous distinctions among crime-related situations than among non-crime-related situations, we were curious as to whether police coding schemes were similar.

For each of the 50 states, two cities were selected randomly, with the only criterion being that one of the cities be one of the larger ones in the state and that the other would be a smaller city. Letters requesting copies of the call codes were sent to the police departments in each of the selected cities. Of the 100 agencies contacted, eighty-five responded. Among these responses were 13 indicating that the agency used full or plain language (complete sentence) communication of the situation rather than codes, 11 which seemed to represent either the "administrative" codes (e.g., 10-2: "meet supervisor") or extensive lists of codes for recording the nature of the incident after an officer had submitted a report, and 6 which indicated that agencies were in the process of restructuring their communications systems. This left 55 responses from 55 cities in 39 states in which clearly the codes were used to indicate the nature of a call to the responding patrol officer. Each of the coding schemes was analyzed in terms of the absolute number and the percentage of total codes which were allocated to each of twelve categories. The results of this analysis are presented in Pp. 118-119 of Chapter IV.

The following tables report the percentages and numbers of codes which

represent the problem/situation categories listed across the top of the tables.

The cities and states are identified by letter and number rather than by name. State identifications were assigned randomly, but cities with the same state identification are in fact within the same state. Population figures based on the 1970 Census are reported for each city.

City, State, Population	<div> <div>Crime - Major</div> <div>Crime - Minor</div> <div>Order Maintenance</div> <div>Traffic (Non-accident)</div> <div>Administrative</div> <div>Service</div> <div>Accident/Injury</div> <div>Vice</div> <div>Internal Communications</div> <div>Suspicious Circumstances/Persons</div> <div>Civil Issues (Rules and Ordinances)</div> <div>Miscellaneous</div> </div>												Total
	Z N	Z N	Z N	Z N	Z N	Z N	Z N	Z N	Z N	Z N	Z N	Z N	
City a, State 1 91,607	26.3 29	11.8 13	7.2 8	10.9 12	1.8 2	6.3 7	8.1 9	3.6 4	3.6 4	13.6 15	3.6 4	2.7 3	100 110
City a, State 2 40,036	20.8 29	4.3 6	12.9 18	5.7 8	7.9 11	8.6 12	12.2 17	3.5 5	1.4 2	5.7 8	5.7 8	10.7 15	100 139
City a, State 3 189,986	15.3 18	5.9 7	5.9 7	7.6 9	1.7 2	2.5 3	6.8 8	5.1 6	42.7 50	2.5 3	2.5 3	.8 1	100 117
City a, State 4 48,157	13.1 8	1.6 1	1.6 1	4.9 3	8.1 5	4.9 3	3.2 2	0 0	57.3 35	1.6 1	0 0	3.2 2	100 61
City b, State 4 <25,000	0 0	0 0	3.9 2	7.8 4	0 0	5.8 3	1.9 1	0 0	72.5 37	5.8 3	0 0	1.9 1	100 51
City a, State 5 497,024	19.3 17	1.1 1	13.6 12	4.5 4	2.2 2	4.5 4	7.9 7	1.1 1	28.4 25	6.8 6	7.9 7	2.2 2	100 88
City b, State 5 118,344	13.9 20	3.4 5	9.0 13	4.1 6	2.7 4	3.4 5	4.1 6	2.0 3	46.1 66	4.1 6	2.0 3	4.1 6	100 143
City a, State 6 62,929	10.9 14	3.1 4	12.5 16	7.8 10	1.5 2	6.2 8	5.4 7	4.6 6	40.6 52	4.6 6	1.5 2	.7 1	100 128
City b, State 6 262,933	11.5 6	0 0	5.7 3	1.9 1	0 0	5.7 3	5.7 3	0 0	57.6 30	7.6 4	0 0	3.8 2	100 52
City a, State 7 335,075	20.8 10	2.0 1	4.1 2	6.2 3	0 0	4.1 2	8.3 4	2.0 1	47.9 23	4.1 2	0 0	0 0	100 48
City b, State 7 216,067	6.6 3	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	2.2 1	2.2 1	0 0	88.8 40	0 0	0 0	0 0	100 45
City a, State 8 158,017	16.6 16	6.2 6	10.4 10	7.2 7	0 0	7.2 7	6.2 6	4.1 4	28.1 27	6.2 6	2.0 2	5.2 5	100 96
City a, State 8 137,715	9.8 14	3.3 5	11.2 16	2.8 4	2.1 3	2.8 4	2.8 4	2.1 3	52.1 74	5.6 8	1.4 2	3.5 5	100 142
City a, State 9 80,386	.9 1	0 0	4.6 5	2.7 3	1.8 2	1.8 2	16.6 18	0 0	65.7 71	1.8 2	0 0	3.7 4	100 108
City a, State 10 177,738	14.1 13	4.3 4	13.0 12	4.3 4	2.1 2	6.5 6	4.3 4	1.0 1	40.2 37	7.6 7	0 0	2.1 2	100 92
City b, State 10 744,570	16.5 20	5.7 7	9.9 12	.8 1	17.3 21	6.6 8	16.5 20	2.4 3	6.6 8	9.9 12	1.6 2	5.7 7	100 121

City, State, Population													Total
	Crime - Major	Crime - Minor	Order Maintenance	Traffic (Non-accident)	Administrative	Service	Accident/Injury	Vice	Internal Communications	Suspicious Circumstances/Persons	Civil Issues (Rules and Ordinances)	Miscellaneous	
	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N
City a, State 11 32,250	23.3 39	11.3 19	7.1 12	9.5 16	2.9 5	7.7 13	10.7 18	3.5 6	8.9 15	6.5 11	1.7 3	5.9 10	100 167
City b, State 11 507,242	15.9 15	4.2 4	13.8 13	5.3 5	3.1 3	6.3 6	9.5 9	3.1 3	15.9 15	15.9 15	1.0 1	5.3 5	100 94
City a, State 12 98,477	6.0 6	0 0	12.1 12	7.0 7	2.0 2	2.0 2	1.0 1	0 0	61.6 61	5.0 5	0 0	3.0 3	100 99
City a, State 13 48,486	10.0 10	2.0 2	6.0 6	4.0 4	1.0 1	3.0 3	3.0 3	0 0	61.6 61	6.0 6	0 0	3.0 3	100 99
City b, State 13 38,274	10.4 10	0 0	5.2 5	4.1 4	1.0 1	3.1 3	3.1 3	1.0 1	63.5 61	5.2 5	0 0	3.1 3	100 96
City a, State 14 168,149	0.0 0	0 0	6.0 2	0 0	0 0	0 0	9 3	0 0	78.7 26	6.0 2	0 0	0 0	100 33
City b, State 14 276,699	3.1 2	0 0	4.6 3	4.6 3	1.5 1	0 0	4.6 3	0 0	76.5 49	3.1 2	0 0	1.5 1	100 64
City a, State 15 434,381	22.4 28	4.6 6	15.6 20	3.9 5	1.5 2	7.0 9	13.2 17	1.5 2	16.4 21	7.8 10	.7 1	5.4 7	100 128
City a, State 16 <25,000	14.0 16	1.7 2	7.8 9	7.8 9	.8 1	3.5 4	5.2 6	.8 1	50.0 57	4.3 5	0 0	3.5 4	100 114
City a, State 17 1,511,336	29.9 62	14.9 31	10.1 21	2.8 6	2.8 6	1.9 4	4.8 10	7.2 15	13.5 28	9.1 19	.4 1	1.9 4	100 207
City a, State 18 165,970	10.6 12	1.7 2	3.5 4	1.7 2	1.7 2	4.4 5	0 0	0 0	72.5 82	2.6 3	.8 1	.8 1	100 114
City a, State 19 <25,000	23.1 47	10.3 21	6.4 13	3.9 8	0 0	4.9 10	6.4 13	9.3 19	19.2 39	3.4 7	9.3 19	3.4 7	100 203
City a, State 20 <25,000	4.5 4	0 0	9.0 8	7.9 7	1.1 1	3.4 3	9.0 8	0 0	54.5 48	5.6 5	1.1 1	3.4 3	100 88
City b, State 20 65,116	11.3 11	1.0 1	9.2 9	7.2 7	1.0 1	5.1 5	8.2 8	2.0 2	42.2 41	6.1 6	0 0	6.1 6	100 97

City, State, Population													Total
	Crime - Major	Crime - Minor	Order Maintenance	Traffic (Non-accident)	Administrative	Service	Accident/Injury	Vice	Internal Communications	Suspicious Circumstances/Persons	Civil Issues (Rules and Ordinances)	Miscellaneous	
	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N
City a, State 21 125,641	34.7 33	7.3 7	12.6 12	4.2 4	1.0 1	8.4 8	12.6 12	1.0 1	3.1 3	7.3 7	2.1 2	5.2 5	100 95
City b, State 21 72,863	18.5 24	11.5 15	10.7 14	10.0 13	2.3 3	7.6 10	6.9 9	3.0 4	6.1 8	10.7 14	4.6 6	7.6 10	100 130
City a, State 22 119,897	15.1 13	3.4 3	8.1 7	5.8 5	4.6 4	9.3 8	5.8 5	3.4 3	32.5 28	4.6 4	0 0	6.9 6	100 86
City a, State 23 30,022	12.7 12	0 0	7.4 7	4.2 4	1.0 1	4.2 4	4.2 4	1.0 1	55.3 52	4.2 4	0 0	5.3 5	100 94
City a, State 24 66,934	15.0 9	5.0 3	8.3 5	1.6 1	3.3 2	1.6 1	6.6 4	1.6 1	53.0 33	3.3 2	0 0	1.6 1	100 62
City a, State 25 144,830	8.1 4	0 0	8.1 4	4.0 2	0 0	0 0	6.1 3	0 0	63.2 31	4.0 2	0 0	6.1 3	100 49
City a, State 26 87,621	9.7 8	1.2 1	9.7 8	2.4 2	0 0	3.6 3	4.8 4	0 0	60.9 50	6.9 5	0 0	1.2 1	100 82
City a, State 27 243,751	14.2 11	5.1 4	9.0 7	3.8 3	5.1 4	5.1 4	3.8 3	2.5 2	44.1 34	5.1 4	0 0	1.2 1	100 77
City b, State 27 37,857	2.6 2	0 0	2.6 2	4.0 3	4.0 3	1.3 1	4.0 3	0 0	73.3 55	2.6 2	0 0	5.3 4	100 75
City a, State 28 381,877	19.4 23	10.1 12	13.5 16	4.2 5	.8 1	12.7 15	7.6 9	5.9 7	4.2 5	15.2 18	1.6 2	4.2 5	100 118
City a, State 29 7,894,851	17.1 11	0 0	9.3 6	1.5 1	0 0	0 0	4.6 3	0 0	35.9 23	17.1 11	0 0	14.0 9	100 64
City a, State 30 366,734	25.0 12	12.5 6	6.2 3	2.0 1	0 0	8.3 4	10.4 5	4.1 2	18.7 9	10.4 5	2.0 1	0 0	100 48
City a, State 31 241,215	10.7 10	1.0 1	9.6 9	6.4 6	0 0	2.1 2	5.3 5	0 0	55.9 52	5.3 5	0 0	3.2 3	100 93
City b, State 31 144,245	4.8 5	0 0	12.6 13	6.7 7	2.9 3	1.9 2	.9 1	0 0	57.2 59	3.8 4	0 0	3.8 4	100 103
City a, State 32 34,670	29.2 29	20.2 20	8.0 8	1.0 1	1.0 1	7.0 7	4.0 4	8.0 8	0 0	2.0 2	6.0 6	13.1 13	100 99
City b, State 32 39,044	33.3 14	14.2 6	14.2 6	2.3 1	0 0	9.5 4	2.3 1	4.7 2	0 0	7.1 3	2.3 1	9.5 4	100 42

City, State, Population	Crime - Major	Crime - Minor	Order Maintenance	Traffic (Non-accident)	Administrative	Service	Accident/Injury	Vice	Internal Communications	Suspicious Circumstances/ Persons	Civil Issues (Rules and Ordinances)	Miscellaneous	Total
	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N	% N
City a, State 33 204,590	12.1 5	4.8 2	9.7 4	7.3 3	0 0	4.8 2	7.3 3	2.4 1	41.4 17	7.3 3	2.4 1	0 0	100 41
City a, State 34 40,863	35.3 35	13.1 13	5.0 5	5.0 5	0 0	5.0 5	5.0 5	8.0 8	6.0 6	6.0 6	9.0 9	2.0 2	100 99
City a, State 35 53,122	34.4 20	13.7 8	12.0 7	10.3 6	5.1 3	12.0 7	6.8 4	3.4 2	0 0	5.1 3	8.6 5	5.1 3	100 58
City a, State 36 71,505	18.0 11	1.6 1	8.1 5	1.6 1	0 0	1.6 1	4.9 3	0 0	52.4 32	6.5 4	0 0	4.9 3	100 61
City b, State 36 44,198	17.0 15	4.5 4	9.0 8	4.5 4	1.1 1	4.5 4	4.5 4	1.1 1	53.4 47	0 0	0 0	0 0	100 88
City a, State 37 38,633	5.0 4	0 0	8.8 7	7.5 6	1.2 1	2.5 2	1.2 1	0 0	73.4 58	0 0	0 0	0 0	100 79
City b, State 37 <25,000	20.4 10	10.2 5	8.1 4	4.0 2	6.1 3	4.0 2	16.3 8	8.1 4	2.0 1	4.0 2	8.1 4	10.2 5	100 49
City a, State 38 170,516	10.0 5	2.0 1	12.0 6	14.0 7	2.0 1	8.0 4	10.0 5	0 0	28.0 14	10.0 5	0 0	4.0 2	100 50
City a, State 39 307,951	14.0 10	4.2 3	9.8 7	4.2 3	5.6 4	5.6 4	9.8 7	2.8 2	32.3 23	7.0 5	0 0	4.2 3	100 71

APPENDIX I
ANALYSIS OF THE LITERATURE ON THE POLICE ROLE
BY HISTORICAL PERIOD
BY
PATRICIA EISENBART

APPENDIX I

ANALYSIS OF THE LITERATURE ON THE POLICE ROLE BY HISTORICAL PERIOD

Introduction

During the 1960's and 1970's it was discovered that municipal police do not spend a large portion of their time dealing with crime-related situations (see Chapter II). Nevertheless, many empirical analyses (Chapter II) and much of the fictional literature on the police give the impression that crime-fighting is the primary focus of police activity. This apparent disparity between the reality and the representation of the role led us to wonder whether this discrepancy is a product of modern perceptions of the police role or whether it has a historical precedent. The question motivated an analysis of the scholarly literature about the history of the police role in the United States.

Obviously, a literature review cannot determine the historical reality of the role as distinct from the written portrayal of it. It can only indicate whether that portrayal is similar for different periods of police history. The purpose of this review is to determine whether the image of police as crime fighters has been a dominant one in the portrayals of policing during other historical periods.

Methods

The available literature on the history of U.S. policing was reviewed. Of the books and articles reviewed, those selected for analysis were ones which looked at policing broadly rather than focusing on a specialized element

of policing such as investigations. Additionally, within the selected materials, the duties of the police were a principal rather than a peripheral concern of the writer. This latter criterion led to the exclusion of some otherwise valuable police histories such as Fogelson's (1977) Big City Police and Walker's (1977) A Critical History of Police Reform in which the primary focus was police corruption.

The materials were divided roughly into three historical periods: I= Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries; II= Nineteenth Century and III= Twentieth Century. The references for each of these periods are reported in Figure I-1.

FIGURE I-1
HISTORICAL REFERENCES BY PERIOD

Reference	Period		
	I	II	III
Banton, Michael (1964) <u>The Policeman in the Community</u> . London: Tavistock.			X
Flinn, John J. (1971) <u>History of the Chicago Police: From the Settlement of the Community to the Present Time</u> . New York: Arno Press.	X	X	
Fosdick, Raymond (1960) <u>American Police Systems</u> . New York: Century Book Co.	X		X
Germann, A.C., Frank Day and Robert Gallati. (1970) <u>Introduction to Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice</u> . Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas.		X	X
Hall, James P. (1975) <u>The History and Philosophy of Law Enforcement</u> . Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall/Hunt Publishing Co.	X	X	
Haller, Mark H. (1976) "Historical Roots of Police Behavior: Chicago, 1890-1925." <u>Law and Society Review</u> 10:Winter.		X	
Miller, Wilbur R. (1973) <u>Cops and Bobbies: Police Authority in New York and London, 1830-1870</u> . Chicago: University of Chicago Press.		X	
Richardson, James F. (1974) <u>Urban Police in the United States</u> . Port Washington, N.Y.: Kennikat Press.	X	X	X
Skolnick, Jerome and Thomas Gray, eds. (1975) <u>Police in America</u> . Boston: Educational Associates.		X	
Smith, Bruce (1960) <u>Police Systems in the United States</u> (Second Edition). New York: Harper and Row.		X	X

FIGURE I-1 (Con't.)

HISTORICAL REFERENCES BY PERIOD

Reference	Period		
	I	II	III
Stead, Phillip J. ed (1977) <u>Pioneers in Policing</u> . Montclair, N.J.: Patterson Smith.		X	X
Vollmer, August (1936) <u>The Police and Modern Society</u> . Berkeley: University of California Press.			X

As each of the references was read, a list was made of every function or task which was described as a responsibility of the police during the period examined. These separate items were then labeled as being either "law enforcement/crime related" or "non-crime related". The analysis compared, by period, the percentage of items which fell in the crime and non-crime categories. These data are presented in Figure I-2.

FIGURE I-2
PERCENTAGE OF CRIME AND NON-CRIME REFERENCES
IN U.S. POLICE LITERATURE BY HISTORICAL PERIOD

PERIOD	INDIVIDUAL ITEMS			
	CRIME		NON-CRIME	
	N	%	N	%
I 1600's - 1700's	21	75.0	7	25.0
II 1800's	98	51.6	92	48.4
III 1900-1965	179	52.0	168	48.0

Discussion

If the scholarly literature on the police role in the United States ever supported the definition of police officer as crime-fighter, it did so only during the period of the 1600's and 1700's. Among the four pieces of literature which discussed policing during that period, 75 percent of the references to police responsibilities could be classified as crime related. During the 1800's and the 1900's, approximately 52 percent of the references were to crime related functions while 48 percent were to non-crime related responsibilities. This suggests that evidence about the diversity of the police role has been available for a long time and the "discovery" during the 1960's and 1970's that the police spend much of their time on non-crime activities does not represent a recent or dramatic change in the nature of the police role.

Whether there have been changes in the image of the police role cannot be determined by this type of review. The present popular image of the role would seem to be shaped more by fictional and journalistic accounts of police work than by more comprehensive and empirical analyses of the job. The same probably was true during earlier periods. Since this review has dealt with only the scholarly discussions of policing, it is impossible to determine the impressions which were current during earlier periods.

It must also be acknowledged that the writings about policing during the three historical periods do not necessarily reflect objective realities about the nature of the job at those times. Except for the most rigorously empirical histories, any writing will reflect to some degree the perspective of the author, and there was no way for us to determine the extent to which a

writer's perception of the role might have been influenced by his personal preconception of the nature of the police job. Such a validation would require an examination of old police records and would be an extensive project in its own right. If this review cannot document the actual nature of the police role during previous periods, it can document the impression of the role which would be gained by reading scholarly discussions of policing which either were written during the period or about the period but at a later date. With the exception of the literature about policing during the 1600's and 1700's, the literature about the history of policing in the United States indicates that the role has for many years consisted of a mixture of crime and non-crime activities. The image of the police officer as crime-fighter is supported by neither recent empirical analyses nor by the historical literature for at least the last 150 years.

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