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Author(s): Geoffrey P. Alpert, Ph.D., Jeff Rojek, Ph.D., J. Andrew Hansen, M.A.

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**BUILDING BRIDGES BETWEEN POLICE RESEARCHERS AND
PRACTITIONERS:
AGENTS OF CHANGE IN A COMPLEX WORLD**

Final Report to the National Institute of Justice

By

Geoffrey P. Alpert, Ph.D.
Jeff Rojek, Ph.D
J. Andrew Hansen, M.A.
University of South Carolina

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PROJECT STAFF

Geoffrey P. Alpert, Ph.D.
University of South Carolina
Department of Criminology and Criminal Justice
Currell College
1305 Greene St.
Columbia, SC 29208
Phone: 803-777-6424
Fax: 803-777-9600
geoffa@mailbox.sc.edu

Jeff Rojek, Ph.D
University of South Carolina
Department of Criminology and Criminal Justice
Currell College
1305 Greene St.
Columbia, SC 29208
Phone: 803-777-3495
Fax: 803-777-9600
rojekj@mailbox.sc.edu

J. Andrew Hansen, M.A.
University of South Carolina
Department of Criminology and Criminal Justice
Currell College
1305 Greene St.
Columbia, SC 29208
Phone: 803-777-3623
Fax: 803-777-9600
hansenja@email.sc.edu

ABSTRACT

The present study uses a mixed-methods research strategy to examine police practitioner-researcher partnerships. The study has two primary research objectives: (1) examine the prevalence of police practitioner-researcher partnerships in the United States; and (2) examine the factors that prevent or facilitate the development and sustainability of police practitioner-researcher partnerships. The subsequent goals to be accomplished through these objectives are as follows: (1) identify the current level of participation in partnerships with researchers among law enforcement agencies; (2) identify the characteristics of agencies who participate in these partnerships; and (3) gain an understanding of the important lessons learned from practitioners and researchers for forming these partnerships in order to inform future participants in these efforts. The study employs three data-collection strategies to accomplish these objectives and goals. First, a nationally-representative sample of law enforcement agencies was surveyed to capture the prevalence of police practitioner-researcher partnerships and associated information. Second, practitioner and researcher representatives from 89 separate partnerships were interviewed, which were identified through the national survey. The interviews were the primary data-collection effort for gaining insight into the barriers to and facilitators of the development and sustainability of these partnerships, as well as the benefits of partnering. Third, four case studies were conducted on model partnerships that were identified during interviews with practitioners and researchers. While these case studies provide a detailed look at sustainable partnerships, the primary purpose of the case studies is to support a multimedia component of this study. The videos that represent this multimedia component convey important information from one peer to another. This strategy is directed to the practitioner community in order to facilitate dissemination of these important relationships by credible sources.

The national survey revealed that the level of participation in partnerships with researchers by law enforcement agencies is low overall, with only 32% of responding agencies reporting involvement in these relationships. Further examination of the characteristics of these partnerships shows overall participation in formal, short-term and long-term partnerships were less common, 18% and 10% respectively. Participation in either of these formal partnerships is correlated with the size of the agency. Partnerships are also more common among municipal police departments and state law enforcement agencies compared to county agencies. Lastly, agencies which report they use information sources produced by the research community are more likely to engage in partnerships, particularly for those agencies who reported the use of information provided by the National Institute of Justice.

The practitioner and researcher interviews provided important lessons and informal rules necessary to engaging in successful partnerships, which can be grouped into three general areas. First, there are structural characteristics that partners have to negotiate, such as how the partnership will be supported, geographic proximity of partners, permanency of key participants, and the institutional demands for both partners. Second, both parties need to have values that orient them to partnership participation. The agency and its members need to see value in the incorporation of research and involvement of outside researchers, as well as being open to changing the way they do business. The researcher has to emphasize the desire to help and not judge the agency, have a shared stake in improving the agency and community, and value the knowledge of practitioners. Third, both parties have to effectively manage their interpersonal relationship. This involves establishing trust between partnership members and effective and ongoing communication about the expectations, roles, and products of the partnership process.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In recent years, problems confronting public institutions have become more complex and the demands from stakeholders have increased, but resources have diminished. One mechanism government institutions have used to address these conditions has been the formation of partnerships with other government agencies, private organizations, community organizations, community leaders, and academic institutions (Vigoda, 2002). The underlying goal of these partnerships is to combine the resources, skills, and knowledge of the actors in a way that allows them to achieve better results in managing problems more effectively and efficiently than could be accomplished either individually or by government agencies alone (Lasker, Weiss, & Miller, 2001). Within the context of policing, this trend can be observed in partnerships with community members and institutions (community policing) or partnerships with other agencies (multi-agency task forces). The focus of the present study is an analysis of the collaborations between law enforcement agencies and the research community.

Background

While both sides of the practitioner-researcher partnership arguably benefit from their participation, the public policy consideration largely focuses on how the researcher can improve the law enforcement agency and/or its practices. Ideally, the research partner adds a degree of empirical knowledge and analytical skills that can improve an agency's ability to identify problems and formulate effective responses. As such, police practitioner-researcher partnerships represent an interpersonal form of research utilization by law enforcement agencies. In essence, agencies can incorporate research into their organization by reading research articles and other sources to decide on their application alone, which assumes "knowledge is something that can be neatly packaged and passed to those who need it" (Fyfe & Wilson, 2012, p. 308). Alternatively,

agencies can partner with a researcher to engage in a two-way exchange between research-based knowledge of the researcher and the experienced-based knowledge of the practitioner. This allows the researcher to introduce new ideas and challenge the traditional assumptions of the practitioner while allowing the practitioner the opportunity to challenge the researcher, to explore how such ideas could be implemented, and what impact they would have in their specific setting (Rynes, Bartunek, & Daft, 2001).

Over the past two decades there has been a concerted effort to foster these more interactive, two-way exchange partnerships that are intended to incorporate research knowledge and skills to help agencies identify and respond to their questions. Federally-funded programs such as Ceasefire, Drug Market Analysis Program (DMAP), Locally Initiated Researcher Partnerships (LIRP), Strategic Approach to Community Safety Initiative (SACSI), Project Safe Neighborhoods, and the Smart Policing Initiative have all required agencies to partner with members of the research community. Over time, these efforts have fostered a growing number of advocates for these partnerships among law enforcement executives. Moreover, the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) has become a strong supporter of these partnerships. In a 2004 report, the IACP asserted these partnerships are “critical to discovering and implementing best policing practices” (p. 3), and argues that developing police practitioner-researcher partnerships should be a primary goal for every law enforcement agency in the United States.

Despite this advocacy, little is known about how common it is for agencies to engage in these partnerships, as well as what factors contribute their success or failure. The goal of this study is to provide insight on these issues. First, a national survey of law enforcement agencies was conducted, capturing information on agency utilization of research to inform decisions on policies and practices, experience in partnerships with researchers, and characteristics of past and

current partnerships for those with this experience. In total, 871 agencies from a sample of 2,015 surveyed agencies responded. Second, based on partnerships identified through the survey, interviews were conducted with practitioner and research representatives from 89 separate partnerships, which provided insight on benefits of, barriers to, and facilitators of participating in these partnerships. The following are the key findings from these efforts.

Research Utilization

This study frames involvement in partnerships as a form of research utilization. An example of a solitary form of research utilization is a police executive who reads a professional or academic journal and uses the information, while an interpersonal form is a partnership with a researcher. The national survey explored the general use of research by police practitioners. Overall, the responding agencies reported that research findings to some degree inform their decisions on policies and operations. The majority of agencies (77.7%) reported they sometimes or very often use research findings to inform their decisions on policies and operations. The patterns of reported levels of research used by small and medium-sized agencies were similar to those of state and large agencies, although the largest of responding agencies (those with 500 or more sworn personnel) were more likely to report using research very often to inform policies and decisions. The commonly reported issues for which agencies reported using research to inform their decisions were as follows: use of force (73.5%), emergency/pursuit driving (59.3%), response to domestic violence (45.8%), and response to mentally ill (45.6%)

However, findings from this report do not reflect a strong connection with the work of the research community (e.g. Police Executive Research Forum or Police Foundation). The most common response provided by the agency representatives when asked which research outlets they use were the professional journals (e.g. Police Chief Magazine or FBI Law Enforcement

Bulletin) (84.7%) and other publications of the IACP (71.3%). These are not outlets where members of the research community commonly publish their work. More than half of the respondents (58.7%) reported looking to publications from the National Institute of Justice (NIJ), which are largely composed of reports from funded research conducted by individuals from academic or research institutions. However, publications produced by the National Institute of Justice represent only a small fraction of all empirical work produced by the research community, particularly researchers from academic institutions. The overwhelming majority of academic researchers, who represent most of the police research community, publish their work almost exclusively in academic journals, which only 34.1% agency respondents reported using as a research outlet.

Partnership Prevalence

Less than one-third of agencies responding to the survey reported they had participated in a partnership with a researcher in the past five years. Further review of the responses showed the level of participation is related to agency size, 48% of agencies with 100 or more officers reported partnership participation, but only 25% of agencies with 50 to 99 officers and participation continues to decline as agency size decreases. Agency size is also related to the nature of partnership involvement. Overall, only 18% of agencies reported participation in coordination partnerships (defined as a formal and short-term form of research partnership), with 32% of agencies with 100 or more sworn personnel reporting involvement, followed by 11% for agencies with 50 to 99 officers, and continual decline with agency size. Similarly, only 10% of all responding agencies reported participation in collaboration partnerships (defined as a formal and long-term form of research partnership), with 14% of agencies with 100 or more sworn

personnel reporting involvement, followed by 7% for agencies with 99 to 50 officers, and continual decline with agency size.

Additional analysis also revealed a positive relationship between agency size and involvement in coordination and collaboration partnerships among agencies with 100 or more sworn personnel. Coordination partnerships were reported by 18.0% of agencies with 100 to 199 sworn personnel and the level of participation positively increases with agency size, where the level of participation for agencies with 400 to 499 sworn personnel was 38.5%. However, this level of participation further increases to 51.1% for agencies with 500-999 officers and 67.7% for agencies with 1000 or more officers. A similar pattern was observed for participation in collaboration partnerships with researchers, albeit at lower levels of participation for all levels of agency size given the lower levels of participations in this form of longer term partnership. These results suggest that participation in research partnerships is largely the practice of a small number of very large law enforcement agencies in the United States, with only moderate levels of participation for agencies with 100 to 400 officers and lower levels of participation for agencies with fewer officers.

In addition to these considerations for size, agencies which reported using research-based publications (i.e. more likely to be produced by the research community) to inform their decision making were more likely to engage in partnerships regardless of other significant influences, particularly if they reported using NIJ publications. This relationship held for the examination of all responding agencies, as well as the large agencies (100 or more sworn officers). The analysis does not provide a direction for the relationship, whether those agencies that use research publications to inform decisions are more likely to engage in partnerships or agencies that engage in partnerships are more likely to use research publications. Nonetheless, it highlights a

link between the knowledge transfer of products from the research community and the knowledge exchange practice of partnerships. It also highlights the potential influence that the NIJ, and other similar entities, can have in influencing knowledge transfer and the future growth of police practitioner-researcher partnerships.

The most common reason agencies provided for not participating in a partnership with a researcher was that they did not have the funding and/or resources to engage in such a relationship (56%), followed by agencies reporting they have not been approached by a researcher (27%). However, it is important to note that most of the partnerships reported in the survey were not supported by external grant funding (e.g. National Institute of Justice, Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA) or Office of Community Oriented Policing (COPS Office) grants). The most common source of support was funding provided by the agency (38%), followed by support from an external grant (30%), the research partner providing funding (29%), and a number of partnerships operated without funding (22%). Each of the responses is not mutually exclusive, as agencies could have used more than one source over the course of the partnership.

The Benefits of Partnership Participation

During the interview portion of this study, police practitioners and researchers involved in the examined partnerships were asked about the benefits to practitioners from engaging in these relationships. This question was intended to provide insight on why practitioners decided to get involved in a research partnership and continued to engage in them, and thereby what other currently non-participating agencies may find of value from them. The analysis of the responses revealed four general benefits:

The Insight and Skill of the Researcher

The respondents reported the researchers bring theoretical and scientifically-based knowledge that offers a different perspective on the problems and issues with which agencies must deal. In a number of cases, this knowledge base was from the field of criminology, but also included researchers from a number of other disciplines (e.g. psychology, sociology, computer forensics, engineering, and military science). The researchers can also bring methodological skills agencies find useful, such as complex statistical analyses, survey design, sampling, ways to improve data quality, or evaluation design. It is argued that these knowledge and skills improve the identification of problems and lead to the incorporation of new policies and practices.

Third Party Credibility

Third-party credibility provides an internal utility to agencies. Police practitioners noted an independent researcher gave them confidence in the evaluations that were conducted of their programs/practices or problems. Researchers also represent third-party credibility to agency stakeholders and the public. Many of the practitioners commented that researchers provided credibility to their activities or policies to outside entities, either as a result of the perceived independence in the perspectives offered by the researcher or the specific empirical evidence they provided.

Increased Capacity and Efficiency

Agencies reported that partnering with researchers increased the operating capacity of their agency, whether providing an analytic ability the agency does not possess or simply an individual to conduct research the agency wants completed but does not have the time or

resources to dedicate. The researchers also expanded the capacity of the agencies through grant funding, which included assisting in the development of grant proposals or performing the required evaluation component. In addition, evaluations conducted by researchers reportedly assist in improving agency efficiency, identifying which programs and practices were more or less effective and thereby efforts and resource can be more efficiently directed.

Impact on Public Safety and Relationship with Community

An underlying reason for many agencies to form partnerships with a researcher is to improve their ability to address crime, disorder, and other public safety issues. Many partnerships achieved that goal, and the researchers also improved the relationship between agencies and communities in a number of partnerships. In some cases, the researchers acted as a broker or facilitator between the agency and other community organizations by conducting surveys of community members, which created an opportunity for citizen input. A number of the practitioners also noted a more utilitarian benefit from their involvement in a research partnership, in that the information and findings that result from their efforts may be useful to the law enforcement community in general.

While the above considerations all relate to the reported benefits to law enforcement agencies, it is also important to recognize these partnerships provide benefits to the researchers as well. From a research productivity perspective, participation in partnerships provided researchers access to the agencies, their personnel, and data, which provide the information to produce publications, the currency for academic researchers. Researchers also report partnerships provide experiences they can bring to the classroom to improve their teaching, as well as mentorship opportunities for students. On a more general level, involvement in partnerships

provides a degree of personal satisfaction. Some of the researchers commented on the value of seeing their work in an applied context, contributing to efforts at improving an agency or community.

Barriers to and Facilitators of Police Practitioner-Research Partnerships

The barriers to and facilitators of partnerships were not separate issues for agencies and researchers. Instead, they were often two sides of the same coin. For example, if the development of trust between the participating practitioners and researchers was viewed as a facilitator to partnerships, then the absence of such trust was identified as a barrier. The police practitioners and researchers provided a number of barrier/facilitator issues, which can be grouped into three general categories:

Structural Characteristics

Structural characteristics refer to the resources and other components that represent the setting of the partnerships. These structural characteristics include the following:

Financial Support – Receiving grant funding is the best way to provide resources to support partnerships. In many situations, the absence or ending of funding would limit potential accomplishments of the partnership. However, a number of partnerships did not operate with grant funding at all or for the full length of the partnerships, instead operating with funding provided by the law enforcement agencies, academic institutions, other sources, or simply operating without any funding. Sustainable partnerships operated with a mix of these various sources.

Geographic Proximity of Partners – The geographic distances between the law enforcement participants and researchers varied, and ranged from being co-located in the

same community to being on the opposite sides of the country. However, a number of practitioners expressed a preference for working with researchers located in or near their communities. This proximity allowed for a higher level of researcher involvement and interaction, which the practitioners preferred and viewed as facilitating the interpersonal relationship between partners.

Permanence of Key Participants – Turnover in key partnership participants, practitioners and researchers, is a barrier to development and success of partnerships. Changes in personnel slowed the progress of projects and can potentially threaten partnerships. Change requires that new members be brought up to speed, buy-in must be reestablished, and interpersonal relationships have to be renewed and improved.

Institutional Demands for Both Partners – Practitioners exist in agencies while researchers most often work in academic institutions, which carry a broader set of rules and regulations that can pose barriers to partnerships. Agency concerns, or the concerns of legal representatives with oversight of agencies can create difficulty in the sharing of data with researchers due to confidentiality, data control issues, and potential liability. At the same time, institutional review boards at universities that have oversight on research conducted by faculty members can require a lengthy review process and a resulting set of stipulations that limit what the practitioner and research partners want to accomplish.

Value Orientation of the Participants

The value orientation of the participants captures the beliefs and perspectives of the practitioner and research partners on working with one another and what they are trying to accomplish.

Practitioner Values – Partnerships are facilitated when key practitioners and other agency members value the incorporation of research and the involvement of outside researchers, as well as being open to changing the way they do business.

Researcher Values – Researchers that emphasize the desire to assist agencies and not judge them facilitated partnerships. In addition, a number of practitioners reported they prefer working with researchers who express a shared stake in improving their agency and community, as well as researchers who show they value the knowledge of practitioners.

Interpersonal Relationship of the Participants

The interpersonal relationship relates to the social dynamic of partnerships. Practitioners and researchers express the need to feel comfortable in working with each other, which are influenced by two elements, communication and trust:

Effective and Ongoing Communication - Communication provides the opportunity to address potential barriers to trust. As part of this process, it is important for the law enforcement partner to communicate what is expected from the researcher, and the researcher must explain what is needed from the agency to conduct the research. This communication includes discussing the various roles for all participants, procedures for accomplishing the project, and the work products that will result. Moreover, it is important for both partners to maintain continual dialogue and to inform each other about issues, changes, and progress. The most successful partnerships involve partners who have mutual respect and genuinely like each other.

Trust - Trust is viewed as a prerequisite to the establishment of police practitioner-researcher partnerships, particularly from the viewpoint of the law enforcement partners. While it is important for the law enforcement executives and officers to trust the researcher as it relates to the project, it is more important for the researcher to be trusted as a person. The researcher's motives for engaging in a partnership are central to this trust, with concern about whether the researcher enters with objectivity or bias and whether the researcher will exploit the relationship for personal gain. In addition, addressing these concerns and forming a strong relationship is not only the key to establishing the partnership, but it is necessary to sustain one.

Implications

While the current level of participation in partnerships falls well short of the IACP goal of every agency in the United States being involved in one, it is reasonable to assume that partnerships have grown in number and accomplishment over the years. Forming partnerships in every agency may be unrealistic and unattainable for a variety of reasons, including that there are not enough researchers to support them. Nonetheless, the advocacy for these partnerships among prominent law enforcement executives and the IACP, along with the funding initiatives of the National Institute of Justice and other agencies provide a supportive environment for the continued growth and development of these collaborations.

The results of the present study provide additional reasons for developing and sustaining partnerships. Agency participation in partnerships with researchers is low overall in law enforcement, principally in agencies with fewer than 500 sworn personnel. More and better dissemination of the benefits of participating in these partnerships needs to be communicated to the law enforcement and research communities. Additionally, the findings from the present

research can serve as important lessons for both agencies and researchers to understand potential barriers and successful facilitators for partnerships. Organizations such as NIJ, BJA, COPS, and IACP are ideal for disseminating these important lessons to both communities. While these organizations have done considerable work forging these relationships, the findings from the present study suggest the need to continue to expand these efforts to those who have not experienced the benefits of a partnership and to focus on the new generation of police leaders and applied researchers. Incorporated in these outreach efforts should be opportunities for networking among members of the law enforcement and research communities. One of the primary reasons agencies have not participated in a partnership is they have not been approached by a researcher, which suggests there has been a reluctance or lack of opportunity in both communities to interact and form personal relationships. As many respondents to this study noted, forming trust through these personal links is a critical element for forming partnerships.

The future expansion of police practitioner-researcher partnerships will also depend on the supply of researchers willing to engage in these efforts. From the researcher perspective, participation requires them to be pulled away from other research opportunities and engage policing professionals, as well as deal with the issues of funding discussed above. It is unknown how many researchers desire to participate in partnerships with police practitioners, although it is reasonable to assume there are not enough willing researchers for every agency. This researcher supply issue is even more acute for medium and small agencies (agencies with less than 100 sworn personnel). According to researchers interviewed as a part of this study, one of the benefits of engaging in a partnership with the police is the ability to collect data that will allow them to pursue their personal research interests, which in turns allows them to address institution demands for publication. This will often drive researchers to partner with agencies that will

allow them to capture a large number of cases for analysis, whether it is crimes committed in the jurisdiction, use of force incidents, or any other issue of interest. This motivation arguably explains why the policing literature is dominated by research conducted with larger agencies. However, it also suggests the pool of available researchers willing to partner is even smaller for small and medium agencies, which may partially explain the lower rates of partnership participation found among these agencies in the present study. This limited pool of willing research partners argues for the need to identify approaches that will bring researchers to work with medium and small agencies that will be mutually beneficial to each party.

In closing, it is important to acknowledge that the value of partnership participation is not solely for the agency and research team involved in a given relationship. As a number of practitioners interviewed in this study noted, the product of these partnerships, whether lessons learned or other empirical results, have value to the law enforcement community as a whole. This represents the underlying reason why federal funding sources support these partnerships through grants. When framed in this light, police practitioner-researcher partnerships can be viewed more generally as a means for bringing research to practice, or what is more broadly termed knowledge translation. Partnerships represent a more interactive form of translation, where a more passive form is represented by researchers publishing results with the expectation that practitioners will locate and incorporate this knowledge on their own. These research translation efforts are found across a number of other fields, including medicine, public health, nursing, and education. The scholars and practitioners in these fields have also recently begun to focus on another related issue in the translation process that has relevance to policing, understanding how research knowledge is ultimately incorporated or ignored by practitioners. This is evident in the recent calls for adding a third step (T3) to the well-known National

Institute of Health two steps (T1-basic research and T2-clinical research) of evidence-based knowledge translation (Westfall, Mold, and Fagnan, 2007). T3 represents the examination of the research dissemination and implementation processes. Thus, in order to fulfill the goal of police practitioner-researcher partnerships producing knowledge for the greater good of the law enforcement community, attention in the future should also be directed toward identifying the best means of disseminating the information gained through these partnerships to foster further adoption of the partnering strategies and the effective response practices they employ.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

During the past two decades, public administration scholars have reported the rise of a “governance” orientation in public institutions that is reshaping the way these entities interact with their communities (DeWitt, Kettl, Dyer, & Lovan, 1994; Grell & Gappert, 1992; Vigoda, 2002). This is largely a reaction to traditional government approaches wherein agencies independently assess issues and allocate resources as they deem appropriate. However, in recent years the problems confronting public institutions have become more complex, the demands from stakeholders have increased, and resources have become increasingly constrained. These conditions have overwhelmed the stand-alone capacity of public institutions and have prompted calls for organizational change and innovation that can address contemporary problems impacting communities (Callahan and Holzer, 1994). The solution to this need for change for many public institutions has been the adoption of a ‘governance framework’ based on a process of shared responsibility among government institutions and stakeholders. The primary mechanism government institutions have used to foster such shared governance has been the formation of partnerships with other government agencies, private organizations, community members and organizations, and academic institutions (Vigoda, 2002).

The underlying goal of these partnerships is to combine the resources, skills, and knowledge of the actors in a way that allows them to achieve better results in managing problems more effectively and efficiently than could be accomplished either individually or by government agencies alone (Lasker, Weiss, & Miller, 2001). There exists a wide variety of partnerships that involve relationships among agencies, businesses, community groups, and combinations of these entities. The effectiveness of these types of partnerships, including those involving law enforcement, is beginning to be recognized in practice and in the literature. One of the most

notable policing examples of shared governance through partnerships is community policing. A principal focus of community policing is the shared responsibility among law enforcement, other government agencies, and community members to identify, prioritize, and develop successful solutions to social problems (Greene, 2001; Skolnick & Bailey, 1986). This partnership orientation can also be observed in the various multi-jurisdictional task force initiatives across the law enforcement community. These various endeavors frequently involve multiple law enforcement agencies contributing a limited number of personnel and resources to a combined unit designed to address a specified problem such as gangs, drug activity, or organized crime. The underlying premise is that the coordinated response of multiple agencies will be more effective than the response of each agency individually (Hayslip & Russell-Einhorn, 2002).

Police Practitioner – Researcher Partnerships

The partnership with law enforcement that is the focus of this report involves collaborations between law enforcement agencies and the research community. Police practitioner-researcher partnerships are founded on the assumption that collaborations between agencies and researchers will integrate findings from established and accepted scientific methodology into efforts to evaluate police responses and understand social problems. In turn, these results will make police agencies more effective in serving their respective communities (Braga & Hinkle, 2010; IACP, 2004). There has been increased advocacy for the establishment of practitioner-researcher partnerships within the law enforcement community, a movement that is evidenced in a recent report by the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP). The Report asserted that these partnerships were “critical to discovering and implementing best policing practices” (IACP, 2004, p. 3), and argued that developing police practitioner-researcher partnerships should be a primary goal for every law enforcement agency in the United States.

Despite this encouragement from the IACP and others, the existing literature on research partnerships has been limited. Until recently, it consisted mostly of case studies of law enforcement efforts that involved an academic partner. The discussion on the relevance of the relationship between researchers and law enforcement agencies was often an afterthought and was certainly not the focus of any form of in-depth analysis. A gratifying exception was McEwen's (2003) review of 41 practitioner-researcher partnerships supported by the National Institute of Justice's Locally Initiated Research Partnerships (LIRP) in policing program. While McEwen's review provided important insight on factors that aided the success of these partnerships, the review only covered projects that were the product of federal funding.

A review of the literature that existed at the time, and of McEwen (2003) in particular, prompted some questions: What is the prevalence of police practitioner-research partnerships? What portions of existing partnerships are the product of or supported by federal funding relative to other sources (e.g. no funding or agency funds)? There was also interest in knowing if these partnerships could exist without federal grant support. In addition, if non-federal grant support partnerships exist, do the factors reported by McEwen as contributing to the success of partnerships apply similarly to non-federally support projects? These issues can be expressed in two central research questions which form the basis for our study:

1. *What is the prevalence of police practitioner-researcher partnerships?*

Subsumed under this question is an interest in the characteristics of these partnerships, the characteristics of the agencies who participate in these partnerships, and the reasons why agencies have not participated in these partnerships.

2. *What prevents or prompts the development and sustainability of police practitioner-researcher partnerships?*

Central to exploring this question is the goal of examining partnerships across various settings, whether determined by the form of funding available, the size of the agency, or the type of project or projects addressed by the partnerships in question.

This project was planned in early 2009 and since that time police practitioner-researcher partnerships have gained substantial attention in the practitioner and research communities. The journal *Police Practice and Research: An International Journal* has dedicated two special issues in 2010 and 2012 to the topic of research utilization and partnerships, and the journal *Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice* has similarly dedicated one special edition in 2010. These issues include assessments by researchers and practitioners of their experiences and perspectives on these partnerships, results from their studies, and critiques focusing on barriers to and facilitators of partnerships. The IACP published the results of a survey and focus group interviews of law enforcement executives in 2011. In part, these examined the issue of collaborations between police practitioners and researchers. The results provide some insight into the prevalence of these partnerships as well as some guidance on future efforts. The systematic examination of these partnerships offered in the present study can be viewed as building on the literature and filling some of the gaps that exist in our understanding of such partnerships.

Overview of Methods

Three data collection strategies were designed to address these research questions. First, a nationally-representative sample of law enforcement agencies was surveyed to capture the prevalence of police practitioner-researcher partnerships and associated questions. Second, interviews were conducted with 90 individuals who were the lead practitioner in a partnership with a researcher and with 57 of the respective researcher partners. The identification of these partnerships was based on survey responses in the first step. A total of 106 partnerships were

initially selected from the survey for the purpose of interviewing the lead practitioner and researcher members of these partnerships. The actual number of practitioner and researcher respondents is based on the ability to locate and receive the voluntary participation of these individuals. The interviews were the primary data-collection effort for gaining insight into the barriers to and facilitators of the development and sustainability of these partnerships. The goal was to capture information on this topic through the specific partnerships in question and other experiences. Third, four case studies were conducted on model partnerships that were identified through the interview step of this project. While these case studies provide a more detailed review of sustainable partnerships, the primary purpose of these case studies was to support a multimedia component of this study. Each case study involved video interviews with the lead practitioner and researcher partners, and sought to provide insight into the reasons why each partner became involved in their partnership and what they saw as the keys to the success of their partnership. The videos are intended to be a medium for conveying these insights on a peer-to-peer level, particularly for the practitioner community, in order to facilitate dissemination of these important relationships by credible sources.

Organization of Report

This report is divided into eight chapters. Following this introductory chapter, Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature wherein police practitioner-researcher partnerships are framed in the context of the broader literature on research utilization. Chapter 3 provides a detailed review of the methodology for data collection and analysis, and Chapters 4-7 present the findings of the study. Chapter 4 reports the results of the national survey of law enforcement agencies' involvement with partnerships, along with results related to the utilization of research by agencies. Chapter 5 examines the reported benefits of participating in these partnerships based on

the interviews of the selected partnership members. Chapter 6 presents the insight on the barriers and facilitators to the development and sustainability of partnerships as provided by the interviews. Chapter 7 describes the characteristics of the four partnerships selected for the case studies. Finally, Chapter 8 discusses the implications of the above findings for the future development of police practitioner-research partnerships.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

While both sides of the practitioner and research partnership arguably benefit from their participation, the public policy consideration largely focuses on how the researcher can improve the law enforcement agency and/or its practices. Ideally, the research partner adds a degree of empirical knowledge and analytical skills that can improve an agency's ability to identify problems and formulate effective responses. As such, police practitioner-research partnerships represent an interpersonal form of research utilization by law enforcement agencies. The review of the literature on partnerships provided in this chapter is framed using this logic of research utilization. A brief review is provided on the evolution of policing research, which gives consideration to the relationship between police practitioners and researchers over time and also addresses the concerns about the limited utilization of research by police practitioners. This review is followed by a discussion of the broader conceptual and empirical literature on research utilization across disciplines, and the current efforts of knowledge translation to improve research utilization. Knowledge translation incorporates a number of practices, which include elements of collaborations or partnerships between researchers and practitioners. We then discuss the existing knowledge on police practitioner-research partnerships.

Evolution of Policing Research

The desire to link scientific knowledge with the day-to-day operations of the police has existed for nearly a century. The innovative efforts of August Vollmer in the 1900s to create professionalism in American law enforcement connected officers with faculty from the University of California, Berkley to provide instruction on a variety of topics, including criminology, sociology, and public administration (Vollmer & Schneider, 1917). Interestingly,

this practice was not unique to the United States. In the early 1900s, The School of Scientific Police in Rome was a required program for all police commissioners and similarly exposed police officers to knowledge from the social, behavioral, and natural sciences. The underlying premise of the school was to apply scientifically-based knowledge to police work in order to “become more efficient in preventing and fighting criminality” (von Borosini, 1913, p. 882).

The efforts of Vollmer represent the foundation of modern policing research in the United States. However, these reformers were ahead of their time since police organizations of this period were still influenced largely by political corruption and occupied by untrained personnel (Haller, 1976; Richardson, 1974; Walker, 1977). Moreover, the scientific literature related to issues of crime, delinquency, and criminal justice organizations was largely non-existent or at best underdeveloped in the United States. These were not the best conditions for ushering in a new era of police professionalism informed by empirical knowledge. Even as police professionalism improved and scientific knowledge on related issues grew in the decades that followed, there is little evidence that police leaders were relying on the research literature to inform their practices, with the exception of a few classic works on police administration (Smith, 1940; Wilson, 1950).

Walker (2004) notes that research inquiry into the police remained limited until the American Bar Foundation (ABF) Survey conducted in the 1950s. Contrary to the prior work of Wilson (1950) that focused on the formal elements of organizational resources and procedures, the ABF incorporated field studies to examine the behavior of officers. One of the most important findings from this work was the considerable level of discretion officers exercised on a daily basis, and the observation of various factors that influence this discretion (Walker, 1992). Subsequent qualitative efforts would follow over the next decade and a half, similarly focused on

capturing officer behavior in the field (e.g. Bayley & Mendelsohn, 1968; Bittner, 1970; Reiss, 1971; Rubenstein, 1973; Skolnick, 1966; Wilson, 1968). These researchers were granted access to the agencies as outsiders to focus largely on the development of empirical knowledge that would contribute to the academic literature. Unlike the outcomes of the partnerships formed in the past few years, these studies were not designed specifically to help agencies improve their operations, although the findings provided information for external stakeholders to argue for change. Nonetheless, these classic research efforts have served as the critical foundation for the current study of the police.

Impact of the 1967 President's Commission

While these early efforts were important contributions, a more significant catalyst for the growth in criminology and criminal justice research, including policing research, was the 1967 President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (Sherman, 2004 Skogan & Frydl, 2004). One of the central recommendations of the Commission was the need for the federal government to fund research to improve our understanding of criminal behavior and the response of criminal justice agencies (President's Commission, 1967). The Commission argued that such federal sponsorship was required since state and local agencies did not have the incentive or resources to fund the continuous research agenda that was needed to understand the impact of criminal justice agencies (Petersilia, 1987). Moreover, this funding stream would provide valuable scientific knowledge that for improving the operations of all criminal justice organizations in the United States. Congress valued this suggestion and soon passed the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, which included the establishment of the National

Institute of Justice (NIJ)¹ under the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA). The NIJ became the criminology and criminal justice research agency that was requested by the commission and the evaluation arm of the Department of Justice.

The research that would soon follow in policing, whether funded by NIJ or other sources, produced influential findings that challenged traditionally held assumptions about police patrol practices and investigations (e.g. Greenwood, Chaiken & Petersilia, 1976; Kelling, Pate, Dieckmann & Brown, 1974). Policing research since this point has continued to proliferate at an exponential rate, covering a wide variety of issues and practices including the use of force, racial profiling, community-oriented policing, domestic violence response, problem solving, and many others. Skogan and Frydl (2004) illustrate this growth by noting that only 3 of the 12 “highly regarded” journals in criminology and policing existed before 1967. They further observed that these journals had produced nearly 7,000 articles on policing at the time of their analysis, with the overwhelming majority produced since 1967. Similarly, based on a review of *Dissertation Abstracts International*, they found that, since 1861, there were more than 1,300 dissertations that contained the word police in the title, with only 69 of these dissertations produced before 1967 and more than 1,250 since 1967 (p. 21). Moreover, this growth in research was not isolated to policing, but reflected a pattern across the criminology and criminal justice discipline. Collectively, this growth in research has produced a large body of theoretical and empirical literature that police leaders and their personnel can draw upon to inform decisions, practices, policies, and training.

¹ Under the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 the National Institute of Justice precursor was named the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice (NILECJ) The NILECJ was later renamed the NIJ, which accompanied other organizational changes in the Department of Justice. However, the mission of representing the federal government’s conduit for federal funding of criminology and criminal justice research remained the same (Petersilia, 1987). As a result, we use NIJ for simplicity to cover both entities.

The President's Commission also recommended an increase in higher education among law enforcement personnel that was influential in building the criminology and criminal justice research community. The 1968 Omnibus Crime Act created the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP), which provided loans to students working or pursuing employment in criminal justice agencies that subsequently spurred colleges and universities to develop criminology and criminal justice courses and programs. Although the LEEP program had its share of critics and its funding was eventually ended (Fry & Miller, 1976; US Comptroller General, 1975), its contribution to the growth of the criminology and criminal justice discipline cannot be disputed. These early courses helped develop the stand alone discipline that now has more the 200 bachelor degree programs, along with numerous programs granting master's and doctorate degrees (Finckenauer, 2005). The development of these academic programs created an institutional home for researchers who were interested in investigating, directly or indirectly, issues of interest to the police. Moreover, LEEP provided funding for many police officers to receive a college education that would introduce them to the ideas and works of this scholarly community (Office of Justice Programs, 1996), and the modern criminology and criminal justice programs that are the roots of this initiative that continue today (Bratton, 2006).

Impact of the Community and Problem Oriented Policing Movements

An additional influence on policing-related research emerged with the community and problem-oriented policing movement. In part, a growth in research on related topics was spurred by funding from the Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS) Office established by the Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement (VCCLE) Act of 1994. In addition to providing funding for law enforcement agencies to implement community policing and problem solving initiatives, the COPS office made a large investment to support research on these issues. Skogan

and Frydl (2004) note the COPS office transferred more than \$46 million to the National Institute of Justice between 1995 and 2001 to fund this research, representing the single largest investment in policing-related research. However, the influence of the community policing movement on the production of research was even broader than those research endeavors funded by COPS-NIJ. Ahlin and Gibbs (2012) emphasize that a considerable number of publications on community policing and related topics (e.g. problem solving, problem oriented policing, hot spots) predate the passage of the 1994 VCCLE Act. They also indicate this publication trend continued after the decline in funding for research and implementation efforts, suggesting the research community was responding to a broader pattern of practice in law enforcement with and without research funding.

The community and problem-oriented policing movement also highlighted two emerging trends in police-related research. The first was an increase in applied research. Researchers were focusing on empirical investigations to improve police practice by evaluating the implementation of new initiatives or assessing their impact. Second, researchers were often forming partnerships with agencies to engage in these efforts, in some cases playing an active role in developing new initiatives or what is broadly termed “action research” (Mock, 2010). Notable examples of these trends are represented in Eck and Spelman’s (1987) influential work on problem-oriented policing in Newport News, VA or the Boston Ceasefire Initiative (Braga, Kennedy & Tita, 2002; Kennedy, Braga, & Piehl, 2001).²

Paralleling these trends in the research community is the emergence of law enforcement leaders who have embraced the idea of incorporating research to inform their decision making and operations. This orientation is perhaps captured best by William Bratton’s (then Chief of the

² It is important to acknowledge here that this discussion is for an overall review on the evolution of policing research, and its connection to the law enforcement practitioner community, and as a result it does not do justice to the immense amount of empirical and theoretical work that has been accomplished over the past four decades.

Los Angeles Police Department), keynote speech to the 2006 National Institute of Justice conference: “I embrace and encourage the need for research, because I am a change agent, who constantly needs timely accurate information to help shape my initiatives and understand my challenges” (p. 1).³ This orientation is similarly found in the broader framework of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP). The mission of the IACP is to support the improvement of law enforcement agencies, which for some years has conducted research and established model practices intended for use by the broader law enforcement community. However, in 2004, the IACP took assertive effort to create a link between the research community and law enforcement practitioners through the formation of a Research Advisory Committee. The committee is composed of researchers and law enforcement leader, with a mission to “help guide the IACP and its partners in identifying and conducting law enforcement policy research on the most important issues facing police executives” (Wellford, Serpas, & Firman, 2007, p.1). One of the goals within this mission is to develop a national law enforcement research agenda that will identify research priorities for the law enforcement community. In addition, the committee has responsibility for promoting the development of police-researcher partnerships.

Lingering Difficulties in Connecting Research to Practice in Practice

Despite growth in policing-related research and expanding acceptance among law enforcement leaders of research as a valuable asset, some researchers have raised doubts about the impact of research. Bayley (1998) asserts that despite more than three decades of policing research, including broadly accepted evaluations on the efficacy of certain police practices, there has been little in the way of widespread operational changes. Bayley further notes, in relation to

³ See Bradley and Nixon (2010), Stephens (2010), Bueermann (2012) for similar insight from current and former law enforcement leaders in the United States and Australia.

the police, that “it seems to me that the connection between policy research and policy is not close” (p. 5). Weisburd and Neyroud (2010:2) suggest this lack of connection is the result of a “fundamental disconnect between science and policing.” They assert police agencies do not view science, particularly social science, as an integral element that should inform day-to-day operations and decisions. Weisburd and Neyroud note this may be partially attributable to the idea that the research community often focuses on issues of limited interest to the police officials or, at minimum, not a high priority to them. This conclusion is not unique to policing in the United States. Scholars have also commented on this police practice-research disconnect in Australia, New Zealand, England, Norway & other European countries (Hanak and Hoifinger, 2005; Bullock & Tilley, 2009; Knutsson, 2010; Wilkenson, 2010)

The IACP (2011) conducted a survey of members in 2009 that explored perspectives on research utilization. The majority of the 731 respondents, who represented a range of agencies in size and region, reported they often or always have an interest in learning about new research relevant to law enforcement and the criminal justice system. This result would appear to counter the concerns raised above, but a more thorough review of the survey results shows a less definitive conclusion. The respondents are simply reporting that they have an interest in learning about research, but their answers do not define the degree to which they use research to inform decision and operations, or even what constitutes research. When asked about utilization, 30% of the respondents reported that research often or always influences their decisions and another 61% reported research occasionally influences their decisions. However, when asked about the sources they typically drew on for relevant research, more than 90% reported professional law enforcement associations and over 70% reported conferences and training courses. Approximately 40% mentioned academic or technical journals and 34% referenced universities

and colleges. In addition, some of the respondents raised questions in their survey responses about the “relevance of academic or university-driven law enforcement research to the practical issues they face” (p. 6).

These results from the IACP survey are vague and offer little to help accurately evaluate the impact of research on police practice. Responses such as “occasional,” “often” or “always” do not clearly define a level of use. When agencies report the use of research from professional law enforcement associations and academic or technical journals, it is unknown if they weigh each equally or if more weight is given to one over the other. Regarding the issue of the source of research, however, the evidence does suggest law enforcement leaders are more likely to rely on the literature from professional associations or training/conferences than that produced by the research community, defined here as researchers associated with academic or research institutions. This information paints an uncertain picture of practitioner-researcher relations, but does not speak to the progress made or the potential increase in the connection between the work produced by the academic community and police practice. While the IACP survey was not longitudinal, nor is there an identical or similar older survey for comparison, it is reasonable to assume more law enforcement professionals look to the empirical and theoretical works of the research community to inform their decisions and agency operations than was the case 30 or 40 years ago. Nonetheless, many researchers and scholars believe there has not been enough progress.

If there is any comfort for the police researchers, it is that they are not alone. Other criminology scholars have commented on the limited impact of the discipline’s work across various areas of the criminal justice system and related public policy (e.g Austin, 2003; Pratt, 2008). More broadly, scholars working across the fields of medicine, public health, nursing,

education, and organizational science have similarly highlighted this research-practice gap (Ebbutt, Robson and Worrell, 2000; Lomas, 2000; Rynes, Bartunek, and Daft, 2001; Graham et al., 2006; Zwarenstein and Reeves, 2006; Lang, Wyer, and Eskin, 2007; Thompson et al., 2007; Green et al., 2009; Grishaw et al., 2012). Thus, while the connection between the research community and law enforcement practitioners has unique dynamics, it is also likely patterns exist in these relationships that reflect what is found in other disciplines. It is important to explore these other relationships and the following section places the law enforcement practitioner-researcher relationship in the broader context of the research-practice literature. Our discussion starts with the long standing literature on research utilization, and then shifts to the more recent literature on knowledge translation.

The Utilization of Research

The investigation of research utilization has its roots in the more broadly-framed research traditions on innovation diffusion (Rogers, 1962) and knowledge utilization (Havelock, 1969).⁴ While these broader perspectives recognize non-research forms of knowledge, such as craft- or practice-based knowledge, the literature that has developed overwhelmingly focuses on the use of scientific-based information grounded in theory and empirical evidence produced by individuals working in academic institutions and research organizations. The research utilization literature is expansive and crosses multiple disciplines in formation and application, and it is beyond the scope of this literature review to provide a thorough examination. Instead, the discussion here focuses on the two-communities framework and related concepts that have been used to explain the barriers to research utilization by policymakers and practitioners across

⁴ See Estabrook et al. (2008) for a discussion on the conceptual evolution of the knowledge utilization field.

fields, which provides a comparative reference for examining the utilization of research by law enforcement practitioners.

The Two-Communities Perspective and Research Utilization

The two-communities approach argues practitioners and researchers reflect separate cultures that “often have conflicting values, different reward systems, and different languages” (Caplan, 1979, p. 459). Rich (1991) notes these culture differences are defined by five interrelated characteristics. First, there is often distrust between practitioners and researchers attributed to the perceived goals and valuation of research. Rich illustrates this point by citing a National Research Council (1978) report as follows: “we noted considerable tension in program officials, who feel that they have received little help from research, and research administrators, who are weary of anti-intellectual program managers and their demands for how-to-do manuals” (p.44).

Second, practitioners and researchers operate under different reward systems. Rich notes practitioners are rewarded for producing concrete results and thus are interested in information that helps them address issues in their applied setting. Alternatively, researchers work in a community, and generally in institutions, that reward the productivity of scholarship (i.e. publications or funded research), often valuing such products for their intellectual rather than their applied contribution. This can lead to different orientations for why research is conducted, and subsequently links to the first characteristic.

Third, there is a difference in the language and jargon used by the research community members that negatively impacts communication with practitioners. Rich acknowledges researchers often communicate to their primary audience of interest (other researchers) through the use of a writing style, technical terminology, and forms of analysis framed for scholarly

journals. Practitioners who have little familiarity with this terminology and analytical approaches are less likely to review reports and other forms of communication that utilizing it.

Fourth, practitioners and researches have different interpretations of time, particularly in relation to their goals. Practitioners often work on pressing problems with deadlines, often needing timely information. Rich states practitioners will often note, “I would rather have some information now which I can use than all of the information after a decision has already been made” (1991, p. 324). He observes researchers, on the other hand, are rewarded for high-quality research, and thus see less of a problem with sacrificing punctuality in the completion of the project in order to improve the quality of research.

Fifth, practitioners and researchers differ on what they define as relevant research. Rich is vague in articulating this characteristic, except in noting that relevance is defined by the questions being investigated. However, following the logic of the other four characteristics, it can be argued that practitioners and researchers often have an interest in investigating different questions. Practitioners are likely to be interested in examining issues they view are relevant to their organization or constituency, whereas researchers are more likely to be interested in exploring theoretical and conceptual issues relevant to the research community, which can be published in the academic journals. These differences suggest these two groups do not overlap naturally, but that the actors can find mutual areas of interest.

One important consideration with these cultural characteristics of differentiation is that they are presented as applying to the generic functional roles of practitioners and researchers. While this allows for broad application, it does not address whether the degree of cultural divide varies across specific practitioner fields or academic disciplines. In other words, the functional roles of practitioners and researchers may create general cultural differences across fields and

disciplines, but there may be other background factors that influence the degree of difference. For example, many individuals conducting medical research often hold medical degrees, absent perhaps individuals in pharmaceutical or other technical research. Thus, the medical researcher has some level of identity with the medical practitioner, whether the general practitioner or emergency room physician. These similar educational backgrounds create some degree of commonality in language and terminology, knowledge, and professional ethics.

Conversely, there is no professional mandate for higher education in policing, or for graduate education, as is the case in medicine. Despite the four-decade-old recommendation of the 1967 President's Commission and precedent set by the LEEP initiative, only one percent of law enforcement agencies in the United States require new hires to have four year college degrees (Reaves, 2010). Nonetheless, there is evidence that officers are increasingly obtaining college degrees. A 1988 national survey of large (100 or more sworn personnel) law enforcement agencies revealed 23% of officers within these agencies had a four year college degree, compared to 4% in 1970. A review of recent studies that capture officer levels of education in individual agencies reveals rates of officers with four year college education or more between 14% and 48% e.g. (Harris, 2011; Ivie & Garland, 2011; Rojek, Rosenfeld, & Decker, 2012; Rydberg & Terrill, 2010; Strohshine & Brandl, 2011).

While these data represent an increase in the education levels of law enforcement personnel, they do not suggest a common cultural link as is found in the educational experience of medical practitioners and researchers. A college degree is not universal among law enforcement officers in the United States, nor is it the case that those with degrees have similar training to those who conduct police research. Perhaps more importantly, a four year degree is not the same as a post-graduate education in a social science field, which would expose

practitioners to the language and knowledge of the research community. At the same time, few members of the research community who conduct policing-related research have practical experience in policing. They therefore have very little understanding of the tacit knowledge that is the basis for the norms, values, and assumptions that guide police practitioners. In short, the practitioner-researcher cultural gap that inhibits research utilization may be greater between police practitioners and those who conduct policing related research than in many other fields and disciplines.

The Police Practitioner-Researcher Cultural Divide and the Utilization of Research

A review of the policing literature reveals a police practitioner and research culture divide that has been documented directly or indirectly for decades and which is consistent with Rich's (1991) observations. Westley (1970) commented on the level of distrust he experienced from the police when conducting his classic ethnographic work on the Gary (Indiana) Police Department in the early 1950s. Van Maanan (1978) noted in his ethnographic work in the 1970s that officers were socialized to distrust researchers, among others, because they were often "out-to-get-the police"(p. 354). However, the two cultures framework has received more attention in the past few years given the increased interest in improving the utilization of research among police practitioners. As noted above in the introduction, the journal *Police Practice and Research* has dedicated two special issues (2010, 2012) to the topics of research use and partnerships, and the journal *Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice* has similarly dedicated one special edition (2010) to these topics. The majority of the articles in these special journal editions discuss one or more of the characteristics that embody the cultural divisions outlined by Rich (1991), which they present as real or potential barriers to the police utilizing research.

Distrust

Bradley and Nixon (2009) attribute a good portion of the distrust that police practitioners have of researchers to the critical police research tradition which often finds fault in police practices. At best, this perception has led practitioners to view the work of researchers as ill-informed and irrelevant (Engel & Whalen, 2010; Rosenbaum, 2010). However, other practitioners have come to view the work of researchers as intended to discredit the police (Bratton, 2006; Marenin, 2004), and as ideologically or politically motivated (Bradley & Nixon, 2009; Wilkinson, 2010). In turn, researchers have accused police practitioners of having little interest in incorporating evidence on effective and ineffective practices (Weisburd & Neyroud, 2011), often valuing experience over researcher evidence (Lum, Telep, Koper, & Grieco, 2012). The practitioners' subsequent retort is that researchers devalue the knowledge practitioners have gained through years of experience (Boba, 2010; Bradley & Nixon, 2009; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2010).

Different Rewards

Law enforcement agencies and, more specifically, law enforcement leaders, operate in an environment where they are accountable to external stakeholders that including political officials, citizens, and the news media (Engel & Whalen, 2010). These leaders need to engage in efforts to satisfy the demands of stakeholders, whether it represents a reduction in crime, being seen as responsive to these stakeholders, or at least being perceived as doing the "right thing" (see Crank & Langworthy, 1992). The reward for the chief or sheriff is continued stakeholder support and the more tangible benefit of keeping his/her job. Thus, the agency leader needs research that aids in his or her ability to satisfy stakeholder expectations and demands.

By contrast, the reward system of tenure and promotion for university-based researchers values the publication of research, particularly in high-ranking journals, and grant funding

(Boba, 2010; Buerger, 2010; Skogan, 2010). Ideally, this research productivity is compatible with the practitioner's need to be responsive to stakeholders and issues in their jurisdiction, wherein the researcher could be producing empirical work to support the practitioners needs. However, policing scholars have noted that engaging in such "applied" research often does not carry much weight in the academic setting (Weisburd & Neyroud, 2011). Moreover, this applied work often results in publications in low-tier journals or reports produced for the practitioner community, which carries less esteem in the academic reward system or having little value in the case of reports (Buerger, 2010; Lum et al., 2012). This can often result in what Rosenbaum (2010) calls "one way street" research, wherein the researcher collects data and produces a product of scholarly value to satisfy their institutional demands, but produces nothing of value for the agencies which cooperated in the effort. This one-sided outcome subsequently comes to reflect or even widen the culture gap of what each side wants from policing-related research.

Communication

The failure of researchers to provide texts that effectively translate research that is of use to the practitioner community is an oft-cited issue. Policing scholars and practitioners have noted researchers largely present their findings in overly lengthy formats filled with jargon that is not user friendly to the law enforcement practitioner community (Bueerman, 2012; IACP, 2011; Stanko, 2010; Stephens, 2010; Weisburd & Neyroud, 2011). As Bratton (2006) states, "[m]uch of the social science research that I encounter appears to be written by academics for academics" (p. 3). He further suggests this presentational approach inhibits the ability of practitioners to "gauge the relevance, importance and reliability of the research" (p. 4). The outlets for presenting research findings also illustrate this communication characteristic of the cultural divide. Consistent with the differing systems of rewards, researchers typically present this work

in academic journals, bypassing the practitioner-based publication outlets since they are generally not recognized as a productivity indicator in academia (Buerger, 2010). As a result, research that may be relevant to the practitioner community usually does not reach this group because of the culturally-preferred dissemination route of researchers.

Interpretation of Time

Police administrators operate in constantly changing environments with issues that emerge rapidly and demand attention (Bratton, 2006; Buerger, 2010. Weisburd & Neyroud, 2011). This fuels an administrator's need to have timely information, empirically-based or otherwise, to form immediate or near-term responses that fulfill the agency's mandate and satisfies stakeholders. However, Skogan (2010) asserts policing researchers, like other researchers, need time to produce, citing that quality research requires time to conceptualize issues, collect data, and conduct analysis and produce reports. He notes such a process will often take three years at a minimum. This longitudinal pattern of research subsequently produces a sentiment among practitioners that by the time results are produced they are outdated and thereby of less value (Fleming, 2010; Wilkinson, 2010). Bratton (2006) observes "[k]nowing what happened two years ago, let alone five or ten, is often of no value and is not included in the decision-making processes of practitioners" (p. 4).

Relevance of Research Produced

Stephens (2010) points out that policing related research is often driven by something that has gone wrong, such as use of force, misconduct, or discrimination. The examination of these topics is consistent with the critical research tradition identified by Bradley and Nixon (2009), and although these may be uncomfortable issues for law enforcement leaders to address, they are relevant issues for the police in a democratic society. However, law enforcement leaders

also point out there are a number of issues relevant to the function of their agencies that the research community ignores (IACP, 2011; Knutsson, 2010; Weisburd & Neyroud, 2011). Bratton (2006) asserts he and fellow law enforcement practitioners want research that will “advance the field and enhance productivity, and research designed to measure effectiveness” (p. 4). Moreover, law enforcement practitioners want research and recommendations on the implementation of programs and practices that will work in their actual operating environment. Absent such practical utility, practitioners will likely view researchers as “work[ing] in the ivory tower of academia, but [not] here in the real world” (Engel & Whalen, 2010, p. 107).

Practitioners’ argue this lacunae concerning the production of practically relevant research and recommendations is partly the result of researchers having little experience or knowledge of the everyday issues that confront law enforcement agencies (Engel & Whalen, 2010; Weisburd & Neyroud, 2011). Manifestly, researchers with practical experience have more credibility with law enforcement practitioners, given the belief they better understand the nature of police work (McConnell, 2009). At the same time, researchers counter that most law enforcement practitioners have little or no understanding of theory, research design, and analysis (Skogan , 2010), which necessarily hampers their ability to appreciate and utilize research to inform their decisions. These ongoing counter claims only further illustrate that most police practitioners and researchers develop different definitions of what is and is not valued knowledge (Buerger, 2010) and they work with like-minded individuals in organizations that perform different social functions. The inevitable result is the formation and maintenance of the previously mentioned cultural differences (Wingens, 1990).

Collectively, these examples represent barriers to any form of research utilization by practitioners, whether the willingness to draw unilaterally on research publications to inform

decisions or the ability to productively engage in partnerships with researchers. However, they do not represent the definitive and universal state of police practitioner-researcher relations. There are many examples wherein police practitioners have used research and engaged in partnerships with researchers, as is the case in other professions. The basis to the study of research utilization is to identify the factors that have allowed practitioners and researchers to transcend these barriers, with the obvious goal of using these factors to support future expansion of research utilization. The following section provides a review of the factors identified in the research utilization literature, followed by a related discussion on the concepts of knowledge transfer and knowledge exchange. Both of these discussions provide a basis for understanding the potential value of police practitioner-researcher partnerships, as well as key issues related to the development and sustainability of these partnerships.

Examining Patterns of Research Utilization

The traditional rational model of research use suggests researchers produce knowledge that is disseminated to users (practitioners), who in turn use it to inform their decisions (Davis, Nutley, & Walter, 2008; Rich, 1991). This assumes the practitioner is utilitarian in nature and scientifically-produced knowledge is the best resource for improving their decisions and maximizing the performance of their organization. Reflecting on this general position of the research utilization field of study, Huberman (1994) notes this is an oversimplified model that presents practitioners as passive targets who will change their behavior based on the results of a valid study communicated to them by any means. Our understanding of the cultural divide between practitioners and researchers suggests such a smooth process does not exist. Instead, Huberman's (1994) synthesis of the findings on research utilization across occupational fields and academic disciplines suggests research use is influenced by a number of factors that

including the following: the organizational setting of practitioners and researchers, quality research dissemination efforts by researchers, practitioner evaluation of research, and interpersonal links between practitioners and researchers.

In most cases, practitioners who will potentially use research, and researchers who produce scientific knowledge, exist in prescribed organizational settings. The practitioner likely works in the hospital, school, corporation, police department, and other similar work environment. Conversely, the researcher usually works in a university, research center, or similar entity. The organizational setting captures the orientation of the leadership and the culture of the members within this context. Huberman's (1994) review concludes that the variables of an organizational setting essentially capture the willingness of practitioner organizations to use research, and the emphasis of the research organization to disseminate research findings to potential users, which in turn sets the stage for individual organizational members to engage in these respective efforts. Huberman finds that practitioners are more likely to use research when there is a familiarity among organizational members with the process of research dissemination, a commitment of key administrators to incorporate research into the organization, and past utilization of research to inform organization operations. Huberman observes researchers are more likely to engage in the dissemination of their research if their organization (university, research center) prioritizes these efforts, provides rewards for engaging in them, and also if there is experience within the organization of dissemination to practitioners.

While an organizational setting can establish an orientation for disseminating and using research in general, it does not establish whether a specific set of findings and recommendations from a study will be used. Huberman's review explains the likelihood of use is, in part, influenced by the quality of the researcher's dissemination efforts. He notes that quality includes

the development of dissemination products that are readable by the practitioner, provide specificity in presentation, provide realistic recommendations, and focus on variables that can be reasonably manipulated to create change. Quality dissemination is also captured by the creation of practitioner-specific products, the use of multiple channels of dissemination, and through repeat contacts. On the practitioner side, Huberman finds the use of a specific research product by practitioners is influenced by the logical factors of their ability to understand the main findings and the perceived quality or validity of the study. However, he also noted evaluation is influenced by the researcher's credibility and reputation, the amount of time and resources that would be devoted to using findings, and the degree to which the findings and recommendations comport with the practitioners' opinions and organizational objectives.

Finally, Huberman finds interpersonal links between practitioners and researchers, particularly those that occur in-person, are the keys to research utilization. Unlike research publications (print or online) and conferences, interpersonal exchanges allow for a back and forth (what if ...) in the presentation of research that provides the practitioner the opportunity to ask questions to better understand the methods, findings, and recommendations preferred by researchers. Interpersonal exchanges also provide the researcher the opportunity to work with the practitioner describing how their findings and recommendations would apply in the practitioner's specific context. Huberman notes engaging in this applied form of research dissemination requires researchers to acknowledge practitioner expertise in evaluating the local contextual factors that will impact the utilization of research in guiding decisions and practices. He also observes the degree to which researchers and practitioners can sustain this interactivity becomes crucial in determining whether the research will be used in the near future or down the road.

Collectively, the variables identified by Huberman reflect the culture gap between practitioners and researchers. The variables that influence dissemination and use of research essentially reflect the different elements of this cultural gap. This approach, which centers on identifying the dynamics of organizational culture, communication, interpretation, and social interaction, reflected the dominant orientation of the research utilization literature until the early 1990s. Accordingly, Estabrooks and colleagues (2008) note that, starting in the 1990s, the evidence-based approach becomes an emerging and eventually dominant theme in the research utilization literature.

The evidence-based model initially emerged in the medical field in the early 1990s, but has subsequently spread to include other professions and academic disciplines including public health, nursing, psychology, and social work among others (Satterfield, 2009). Consistent with the research utilization tradition, the central motivation for developing the evidence-based approach stemmed from a desire to close the gap between research-based knowledge on best practices and the practices used by medical practitioners (JAMA, 1992). The evidence-based model contains two basic components for closing this gap. First, the research community needs to produce quality basic research with strong methodological rigor, with emphasis often given to randomized control trials or other experimental research designs (Nutley, Walter & Davis, 2002; Sackett, Rosenberg, Gray, Haynes, & Richardson; 1996). In addition, conducting systematic reviews, including meta-analyses of basic research studies, is regarded as an important tool for providing condensed reviews of key findings and recommendations that are user-friendly for practitioners (Graham et al. 2006). Second, practitioners need to be trained to find and review quality research or condensed review, so they will use it to inform their decisions (JAMA, 1992; Lang, 2004).

The evidence-based model has also found its way into criminology and criminal justice, and policing in particular. Consistent with the framework found in medicine and other fields, Sherman (1998) defines evidence-based policing as “the use of the available research on outcomes of police work to implement guidelines and evaluate agencies, units, and officers” (p.3). This model of policing, however, has not been without its critics. For example, Laylock (2012) argues evidence-based advocates overemphasize the value of experimental research designs when informing police practices relative to other useful approaches. Sparrow (2011) contends evidence-based policing creates a one-directional relationship for the sharing of knowledge, wherein the researcher imparts “valued” knowledge gained from science to the practitioners to inform the latter’s decisions and practices. He further notes this ignores the important contribution of practitioner knowledge gained through experience, which hampers the two-way exchange of knowledge required for problem-solving and the implementation of change. It also jeopardizes the working relationships between practitioners and researchers.

It is not the purpose of this section to debate the merits of evidence-based policing, nor to align with a particular side. Instead, the debate on evidence-based policing provides the basis for understanding where partnerships between police practitioners and researchers fit within the scope of research utilization. In its most basic form, the evidence-based model operates under the assumption that researchers provide valuable knowledge practitioners will use if they want to improve performance. Moreover, improving such utilization can be accomplished by increasing the quality of research and training practitioners to effectively access this research. The limitation of this perspective is that it ignores the fact that other factors, identified by Huberman (1991), influence research utilization, particularly the sustained two-way communication Sparrow (2011) appears to view as crucial for connecting research to policing. Evidence-based

practitioners and scholars, however, have not ignored these considerations. Paralleling the development of the evidence-based model, particularly in the fields of medicine and public health, has been the emergence of conceptual and empirical work on knowledge translation. This work reflects an overall strategy for identifying different approaches for fostering research utilization, and specifically the unique value practitioner-researcher partnerships potentially provide in these efforts.

The Knowledge Translation-Knowledge Exchange Framework

Knowledge translation is defined here as the effort to move research knowledge into practice (Green, Ottoson, Garcia, & Haitt, 2009; Henry & MacKenzie, 2012; Lang et al., 2007). While this definition essentially has a parallel framework to research utilization, the translation literature has largely remained disconnected from the earlier work on research utilization, except for the work of a few scholars (i.e., Green et al., 2009). This disconnect can be explained because the two literatures were developed in different fields. The research utilization literature was developed in the social and behavioral sciences and used the work of diffusion research as a springboard. The knowledge translational literature was largely developed from the medical and public health fields following the recognition that research, despite the emergence of the evidence-based model paradigm, was still not sufficiently influencing the actions of medical practitioners (Lang et al., 2007). Nonetheless, the concept of knowledge translation has been adopted in an increasing number of fields, including criminology and criminal justice. For example, the National Institute of Justice has recently begun to frame its effort to support research and its dissemination to practitioners as “translation criminology” (Laub, 2012).

Following the work of Green and colleagues (2009), knowledge translation is the most recent direction in the study of research utilization. It provides a suitable framework for

understanding the relationship of practitioner-researcher partnerships relative to other strategies for increasing the use of research knowledge among practitioners. Specifically, partnerships sit on a continuum as a form of knowledge exchange, which lies at one end of the continuum opposite the practices of knowledge transfer. What differentiates moving from the end of the continuum that represents knowledge transfer to the end of the continuum that represents knowledge exchange is the degree of interaction between the practitioner and researcher; whether the flow of knowledge is one- or two-directional also affects the placement on the continuum. Knowledge transfer refers to efforts being made to get research into the hands of practitioners (Lavis, Ross, McLeod & Gildiner, 2003; Mitton, Adair, McKenzie, Patten, & Perry, 2007). It also reflects a dissemination of research that involves limited contact between the research and practitioner, and is a one-directional flow of knowledge from researchers to practitioners. The underlying assumption, therefore, is that exposure to research will foster utilization by practitioners.

The recent focus on knowledge transfer in the medical and public health fields has resulted from the recognition that, even with efforts to improve the quality of research under the logic of evidence-based research, there remain meager rates of research findings and conclusions being used to drive decisions and practices (Green et al., 2009; Lang et al., 2007; Lavis, 2006). The traditional passive approach of dissemination by researchers has been to publish articles in academic journals or make presentations at research-based conferences (Green et al., 2009; Kerner, 2006; Mitton et al., 2007). The problem with these dissemination outlets is they are not popular among practitioners. This disjunction can be related to Rich's (1991) comments on the cultural divide between researchers and practitioners, with researchers producing research products practitioners view as written in a style and language that is inaccessible and of little use

to them. In addition, the research literature in medicine and public health are expansive and practitioners have little time to read through and decipher it given other responsibilities (Choi, McQueen,& Rootman, 2003; Kerner, 2006).

Recognition of this issue has resulted in additional efforts to improve practitioner exposure to research, which Lavis (2006) and Lavis, Lomas, Hamid, and Sewankambo, (2006) classify as an effort by researchers to push research into the hands of practitioners or to facilitate practitioners' use of research in their daily activities. These efforts include directly communicating research at forums or conferences for practitioners. Facilitating practitioners to incorporate research findings can involve creating published products that are packaged in more user-friendly formats that will increase practitioner willingness to read the materials, or creating websites that operate as "one-stop shopping" for systemic reviews of research findings. Collectively, these practices reflect elements of what Huberman (1994) identified as imperative to productive dissemination of information.

Attention to efforts to improve knowledge transfer is also observed in the criminology and criminal justice field, and specifically policing. The National Institute of Justice and Office of Community Oriented Policing Services hold conferences where researchers present their work to audiences made up predominantly of practitioners. The National Institute of Justice now produces more user-friendly synopses of studies they fund and have more recently moved to user-friendly web-based multimedia formats for presenting the findings of funded research. The Center of Problem Oriented Policing and the Office Community Oriented Policing Services provide one-stop web-based libraries that contain brief reviews of research efforts designed for use by the law enforcement community. The recently created Crime Solutions website (crimesolutions.gov), maintained by the Office of Justice Programs, reflects a similar one-stop

site that provides a vetting process for identifying programs and initiatives under an evidence-based orientation, including some that are policing-related (National Institute of Justice, 2012). The goal is to provide a user-friendly library of reports on programs and initiatives with quality empirical evidence to support or refute their impact. Another strategy to facilitate transfer is the Evidence-Based Matrix developed by researchers at the Center for Evidence-Based Crime Policy at George Mason University. The Matrix categorizes “all experimental and quasi-experimental research on police and crime reduction into intersections between three common dimensions of crime prevention – the nature of the target, the extent to which the strategy is proactive or reactive, and specificity or generality of the strategy” (Lum, Koper, & Telep, 2011, p. 3). Also included in the Matrix is a classification of each program’s effectiveness based on the research findings.

While these efforts are important for increasing the accessibility and digestibility of research for the practitioner, scholars have noted that such dissemination efforts can leave the impression that “knowledge is something that can be neatly packaged and passed to those who need it” (Fyfe & Wilson, 2012, p. 308). Davies and colleagues (2008) note that the incorporation of research-based knowledge into the practitioner setting is a complex social process wherein this knowledge source has to interact and compete with other forms of knowledge, which often does not result in the direct transfer of research knowledge into practice. As a result, they assert the use of research by practitioners has to be seen as an “ongoing, creative, unfolding process rather than any clearly delineated process” (p. 190). This reality requires a translation strategy that involves more interaction between the practitioner and researcher, wherein the research-based knowledge of the researcher and the experienced-based knowledge of the practitioner are

each recognized and valued (Kerner, 2006). Rynes and colleagues (2001) observe the failure to engage in such efforts is the basis for why most knowledge transfer efforts are ineffective.

This interactive relationship involving a two-way exchange of knowledge reflects the knowledge exchange strategy of translation (Lavis, et al., 2006). Consistent with Huberman's (1994) observation, scholars in the medical and public health fields have asserted these exchange relationships, otherwise called partnerships or collaborations, represent the strategy most likely to increase research use among practitioners (Lomas, 2000; Lavis, 2006; Mitton et al., 2007; Davis et al., 2008). Huberman (1994) notes the interpersonal links developed through such partnerships are more important than a study's findings or its impact, noting the results of the study often decay over time and the maintenance of links between practitioners and researchers is vital in order to connect current findings to emerging issues.

The exchange strategy reflects a more direct application of research use in the practitioner setting, wherein the researcher becomes more involved in this effort. This approach recognizes the need to integrate the empirical knowledge of the researcher and experiential-based knowledge of the practitioner (Davis et al., 2008; Kerner, 2006; Lavis et al., 2006). Such an applied approach allows the researcher to introduce new ideas and challenge the traditional assumptions of the practitioner while allowing the practitioner the opportunity to challenge the researcher, to wrestle with how such ideas would be implemented and what impact they would have in their specific setting (Rynes et al., 2001). These exchange partnerships can therefore involve undertaking specific evidence-based practices in the practitioner settings or problem-solving exercises in which researcher and practitioner knowledge is used to create new solutions (Davis et al., 2008; Lavis et al., 2006). In the latter case, the researcher may draw on diverse sets

of theoretical and empirical knowledge to contribute to this problem-solving effort, as opposed to a predetermined specific evidence-based practice for practitioners to apply.

In addition, the knowledge exchange strategy can vary in the level of its application. Practitioners and researchers may come together to develop general policies at a state or national level or to set an agenda on future research that is of mutual interest to both groups. Within the policing context, such activity can be seen in the recent efforts of the Community Oriented Policing Services and the Bureau of Justice Assistance in the Officer Safety and Wellness initiative, in which researchers and practitioners were brought together to identify potential policy directions and future research agendas related to this topic (COPS, 2011).

The present study, however, focuses on more applied knowledge exchange efforts that reflect partnerships between specific law enforcement agencies, or groups of agencies, and researchers. It is important to recognize that such partnerships are not simple endeavors. The issues related to the practitioner-researcher culture gap, along with Huberman's (1994) considerations on research use, are relevant to the development of these partnerships. The following section provides an overview of police practitioner-researcher partnerships, followed by a discussion of the factors that impact their development.

Police Practitioner-Research Partnerships

As we have seen, partnerships between police practitioners and researchers are not a new concept. One of the classic pieces of policing research, the Kansas City Preventative Patrol Experiment, conducted in the early 1970s, was a practitioner-researcher partnership that was generated by questions inside the agency regarding patrol deployment (Kelling et al., 1974). While additional examples of researchers working with agencies would follow, these relationships often represented the researcher getting the cooperation of an agency to conduct a

study that pursued questions of interest to the research community (McEwen, 1999). These relationships did not reflect the knowledge exchange strategy. However, there has been an emergence and growth in police practitioner-researcher partnerships over the past 20 years more in line with the knowledge exchange model.

The Growth and Prevalence of Police Practitioner-Researcher Partnerships

A major impetus for the growth of these partnerships has been federal funding. Sherman (2004) identifies the Drug Market Analysis Program (DMAP), funded by NIJ, as one of the first in a stream of grant initiatives requiring the partnership of practitioners and researchers. The DMAP grants were built around the partners working together to design and evaluate police efforts at addressing illegal drug markets. Sherman asserts this initiative was a success in that it produced a body of scientific knowledge through publications on initiative sites and involved police leaders engaging with scientific findings. However, the DMAP initiative was ended in the mid-1990s, which Sherman notes was due, in part, to the overall cost relative to only four program sites.

The DMAP was followed by the Locally Initiated Research Partnerships (LIRP) in policing program funded by NIJ. Between 1995 and 1996, the program funded 41 police practitioner-researcher partnerships nationwide in agencies with jurisdictions that ranged in size from 2,000 to 7 million citizens (McEwen, 2003). The partnerships were funded with the idea of expanding community policing and were intended to provide models that would alter the traditional working relationship between police agencies and researchers. The basis to the LIRP initiative was to fund collaborative partnerships between police agencies and researchers in which both partners engaged in identifying an issue to address, evaluating that issue, designing and implementing a solution, and evaluating the impact of this solution (McEwen, 2003).

At the same time, the NIJ was funding other police practitioner-researcher partnerships outside of the LIRP initiative that were specifically directed at addressing violent crime. The first of these efforts was Boston's Operation Ceasefire initiative, which represented a collaborative effort between the Boston Police Department, other criminal justice agencies (local, state, and federal), community organizations, and researchers from Harvard University's John F. Kennedy School of Government. The initiative relied on data-driven problem-solving and targeted enforcement strategies aimed at specific gangs thought to be responsible for violent crime (Kennedy et al., 2001). Although it is important not to overestimate the role of the researchers relative to other partners in this initiative, academics were undoubtedly crucial in assisting the agencies with the implementation of the data-driven process for defining the problem, as well as developing response efforts and evaluating those responses (Braga et al., 2002). The success of the Boston partnership in reducing levels of youth violence (see Braga, Kennedy, Waring, & Piehl, 2001) spurred the NIJ to fund the implementation of Ceasefire replication efforts in ten cities under the Strategic Approach to Community Safety Initiative (SACSI), with each site incorporating a collaborative partnership between law enforcement agencies and researchers (Roehl *et al.*, 2006). In addition, the Ceasefire and SACSI initiatives were the basis to the federally funded Project Safe Neighborhoods (PSN) program, which also incorporates partnerships between law enforcement practitioners and researchers. PSN, initiated in 2001, has been implemented in all 94 U.S. Attorney districts, and the initiative continues today (McGarrell et al., 2009).

The most recently funded police practitioner-researcher partnership initiative is the Smart Policing Initiative supported by the Bureau of Justice Assistance. The Smart Policing Initiative is built on the underlying premise that law enforcement agencies need to be “effective, efficient,

and economical” in a fiscal climate where agency budgets are constrained, and the opportunity for staffing increases are limited (BJA, 2011, p.3). A data-driven approach to identifying problems and the utilization of “best practices” is proposed as the solution to improving policing under these conditions. The initiative calls for law enforcement agencies to partner with a researcher to engage in efforts that combine intelligence-led and evidence-based practices in order to address crime and other related community problems (BJA, 2011). The initiative has funded more than 30 partnerships to date that have primarily implemented offender-based and place-based strategies to address specific crime problems (Smart Policing, n.d.).

Collectively, the DMAP, LIRP, Ceasefire, SACSI, PSN and Smart Policing programs suggest that police practitioner-researcher partnerships that reflect a knowledge exchange strategy are becoming more common. The partnerships provide law enforcement agencies the opportunity to draw on the analytical expertise and the empirical knowledge of researchers to develop more effective responses to community problems (Braga & Hinkle, 2010; IACP, 2004; McEwen; 2003). At the same time, they present researchers with the opportunity to engage in research efforts that have a direct impact on the policies and operations of agencies, as well as on community problems. They also afford researchers the ability to pursue the traditional research interest of developing knowledge for the criminal justice community at large as well as within their specific academic discipline.

In addition to the funding provided by the NIJ and BJA, police-researcher partnerships have increasingly found support from the law enforcement community in recent years. Law enforcement officials who have participated in these partnerships have become advocates to their peers on the value of their experience (Beal & Kerlikowske, 2010; Engel & Whalen, 2010). Police practitioner periodicals have presented articles to their readership that outline the benefits

of engaging in these partnerships (Cosner & Loftus, 2005; Sanders & Fields, 2009). Former Los Angeles Police Chief William Bratton’s call to researchers best exemplifies this sentiment: “I am asking that more of you begin to work with us and among us in the real work laboratories of our departments and cities to help us prove or disprove the beliefs and practices that practitioners like myself and most of my colleagues deeply believe in, espouse, and practice” (Bratton, 2006, p. 2).

Consistent with the knowledge exchange logic, Bradley and Nixon (2009)—the latter a former law enforcement practitioner—have argued for “close and continuous collaborative relationships” between practitioners and researchers. They argue that past efforts to produce research intended to impact policing failed to understand the limitation of the research diffusion process that relied on publications in academic journals and other outlets. Further, they observe that past approaches emphasized researcher knowledge over the experience based knowledge of practitioners, which generated resistance among practitioners. As a result, they advocate for improving interactive partnerships that respect the knowledge both communities have to offer when identifying and developing responses to issues. In sum, they favor a participatory action research approach (also see Marks, 2009; Wood, Fleming, & Marks, 2008).

In strongly supporting these partnerships, the IACP (2004) has argued police-researcher partnerships are crucial to improving police operations and practices, and that every law enforcement agency should be participating in these kinds of efforts. In an attempt to support this advocacy, the IACP developed two complementary publications for researchers and practitioners offering guidance for the establishment and continuation of these partnerships (see IACP, n.d.a; IACP, n.d.b). In 2004, the IACP also formed a Research Advisory Committee (RAC) composed of law enforcement professionals and university-based researchers (Wellford, Serpas, & Firman,

2007). As we have noted above, the RAC is responsible for the promotion of partnerships between police leaders and researchers at their respective local universities.

In light of this support, the IACP conducted a survey of its members in late 2009 regarding their collaboration with college/university researchers (IACP, 2011). Of the 731 respondents, 45% reported they had collaborated with researchers in the past or were currently collaborating with researchers. Proximity to a college or university did not appear to be a factor in collaboration as 60% of agencies who reported there was a college or university within 30 miles also reported having no experience in these collaborations. However, knowledge of a local college's or university's research capacity appeared to impact participation. Sixty-four percent (64%) of those respondents who knew about the local research capacity had participated in collaborations. Conversely, 70% of agencies who were not aware of this local research capacity had never collaborated with a college or university researcher.

Collectively, the support for practitioner-researcher partnerships from federal funding and the advocacy of practitioners, along with the limited evidence of their presence and utility, demonstrate that an orientation to the knowledge exchange form of knowledge translation is present, but not prevalent, in law enforcement. However, this is only part of the story. This support alone does not guarantee police practitioners and researchers will be able to come together successfully and develop a working relationship to address issues of mutual interest. This will require further examination of the specific issues that emerge in the building of relationships between the members of these two communities.

Influences on the Development of Police Practitioner-Researcher Partnerships

Attention to police practitioner-research partnerships was limited prior to 2009. The most notable work that predates this point in time is McEwen's (1999; 2003) evaluation of the LIRP

program, which reports on the functioning of these collaborations and the factors that influenced their development. However, as we have noted above, the series of special editions in academic-based policing journals, the first of which came out in 2009, were partially or fully dedicated to the topic of police practitioner-research partnerships. The discussion by these authors largely centered on the practice of participatory action research, which reflects an approach consistent with the knowledge exchange strategy that centers on the elements of high interactivity between participating parties and the two way exchange of knowledge between practitioners and researchers in developing a research or change endeavor (e.g. Beal & Kerlikowske, 2010; Bradley & Nixon, 2009; Fleming, 2010; Marks, 2009; Mock, 2010; Steinheidler & Wuestewald, 2012) The authors, composed of practitioners and researchers, identified key factors for successful collaboration based on their specific experience and general advocacy.

Consistent with the observations of Davies and colleagues (2008), police practitioner-researcher partnerships that revolve around research and change are messy, at times frustrating, and represent demanding work (Buerger, 2010; Lum et al., 2012). These efforts have to contend with the competing demands law enforcement agencies face and a variety of local political circumstances (Hoover, 2010; McEwen, 2003). At the same time, this literature identifies both potential and real benefits that accrue to practitioners and researchers when they engage in these partnerships (Engel & Whalen, 2010; Foster & Bailey, 2010; McEwen, 2003). Police agencies can infuse new ideas and practices into their operations, they can have quality evaluations of their efforts and of the issues they face, and they can gain a degree of credibility from stakeholders by working with researchers to improve their practices. Researchers increase their accessibility to agencies and data, improve their future research efforts through the insight provided by practitioners, and are permitted intimate involvement in efforts that have direct

impact on problems and issues they generally study from a distance. In addition to this discussion of benefits, and of particular interest to the present study, this emerging body of literature identifies a number of interrelated factors that influence the development of these partnerships: trust, involvement of the right individuals, communication, and permanency of personnel.

Trust

Trust is often cited as the most important factor in the development of police practitioner-research partnerships. Given the critical tradition of police research (Bradley & Nixon, 2009), practitioners may be apprehensive about opening their doors to researchers when they are unsure of a researcher's motives. Trust between the police and researchers takes time to build, sometimes years, and is often the primary burden of the research (Boba, 2010; Engel & Whalen, 2010). In order to gain acceptance and legitimacy, the researcher has to "pay their dues" by doing ride-alongs with officers, meeting with staff and officers department-wide, and assisting the department at times outside the scope of the project (Engel & Whalen, 2010; IACP, n.d.b; McEwen, 2003). This trust provides evidence the researcher is interested in helping the agency rather than simply exploiting the agency for data and other information solely for personal interest. This time-intensive demand explains why McEwen (2003) found that LIRP sites with no preexisting relationships between the agency and the researcher took longer to develop. Moreover, the formation of trust is not a guarantee, nor is it permanent, rather, it is an ongoing goal and accomplishment that characterizes the partnership (Greene, 2010). The formation and continuation of this trust creates interpersonal relationships between practitioners and researchers that form the basis for the necessary and mutual commitment (IACP, 2004)

Involvement of the Right People

Logically, partnerships depend on police officials who are open to research and researchers who are open to working with the police (Boba, 2010). The implicit assertion here is that not all practitioners and researchers have this orientation. The police partner has to show an appreciation for research and commitment to its utility in informing their agency's practices (IACP, n.d.b). Consistent with this proposition, the IACP survey (2011) found that police leaders with graduate degrees are more likely to have an interest in using research and that their agencies are more likely to have collaborated with a college or university researcher. Police leaders with bachelor's or associate's degrees reported lower rates on both of these measures, yet these rates were higher than police chiefs with a high school diploma as their highest level of academic completion—this group came in last.

Similarly, researchers have to be comfortable working in a police environment and work to understand the local police culture (McEwen, 2003). Moreover, they have to be willing to address questions of interest to the law enforcement agency, show appreciation for agency demands and needs, and be flexible in their methodological approaches to research such that they accommodate specific situational conditions (Boba, 2010; Bradley & Nixon, 2009; Bratton, 2006; Engel & Whalen, 2010; Sparrow, 2011). Steinheider and colleagues (2012) suggest that researchers who are former police practitioners may be ideal to effectively fill this research partner role, asserting such individuals are more likely have an orientation to the above considerations. While this may be the case, it is important to recognize there have been a number of researchers without such experience who have effectively engaged in partnerships with the police. Regardless of a researcher's background, the premise of involving the right people to foster a mutual respect for the knowledge and expertise each party offers is imperative to achieving the respective and communal goals of the partnership.

Communication

Communication between the practitioner and the researcher is connected to the above issues of trust and the involvement of the right people. Partnerships require open discussions about the expectations, goals, and possible risks early on in their development (Buerger, 2010; Fleming, 2012; Stephens, 2010). This helps to clarify the roles and responsibilities of each party. Moreover, this communication should continue throughout the project through meetings, phone calls, and email, and is facilitated to some degree when the agency and researcher can be in geographic proximity (Boba, 2010; McEwen, 2003). The traditional research approach has been to gather data and return some time later when the analysis is done and the final report is complete. This approach reflects neither the interactive process of the knowledge exchange strategy, nor the expectations of practitioners. The police partner wants to be kept informed about what is going on with the proposed project or research endeavor (Fleming, 2010). Interim reports allow them the opportunity to share their perspectives about the project and potentially allow them to adjust their practices before the partnership is complete (IACP, n.d.a). The efforts of continuous communication and interim reports also partially address practitioners' demands for more timely research results (Greene, 2010; McEwen, 2003; Skogan, 2010).

Clearly, the final written products of the research also address concerns of communication. Consistent with the above discussion on the culture gap between police practitioners and researchers, practitioners do not want the extensive literature review and description of methodology, nor do they favor reports filled with academic jargon typically found in a final report from a grant or in an academic publication (McEwen, 2003). Instead, they want a concise and readable report, which suggests researchers need to be mindful of creating two or more publication formats to address the demands of their different audiences (Stephens,

2010). Moreover, researchers should consider how to report negative or bad findings in a constructive way to reduce defensiveness from the practitioner and give them advance notice of these findings before they are released to the press (IACP, n.d. a). This does not mean suppression of findings, however; rather, it serves to perpetuate positive relations and simply allows the agency to not be caught off guard.

Permanency of Personnel

Boba (2010) observes partnerships are ultimately the product of relationships between people. The above three factors that are key to forming partnerships are based in the quality of interpersonal relationships and, as a result, partnerships are vulnerable when one of these individuals leaves. It is not uncommon in partnerships for police personnel taking a lead role in a project to promote, transfer, or retire. Similarly, researchers often leave their college or university to take a position at another institution (McEwen, 2003). These changes can slow the progress of a partnership in light of the need to bring new individuals up to speed or to develop new interpersonal ties among the main players. It remains a real risk that these ties may or not materialize such that a project may be terminated (see Decker & Rosenfeld, 2004). McEwen (2003) asserts that such changes can be particularly difficult to recover from if a researcher with special skills leaves. There have been few proposed solutions to this problem other than general statements that both parties should try to ensure key personnel stay in place or develop strategies to cope with turnover (IACP, 2004; McEwen, 2003).

These four factors reflect the basic culture gap between practitioners and researchers. Together they suggest there is a need to build interpersonal relationships and cross this divide between the two sides of the spectrum to increase research utilization (or knowledge translation) through partnership. McEwen (2003) also asserts that sustaining established partnerships

requires additional efforts. It is important to recall that the LIRP partnerships he was reviewing were grant funded, with an important consideration being the continuation of the partnership after grant funding had ended. One strategy he observed across the project sites was the maintenance of informal contacts between practitioners and research. A number of the LIRP partnerships involved practitioners and a researcher with a preexisting relationship, with this grant funded project frequently representing just one of many efforts wherein they have worked together. A second strategy involves future support for the partnership with recurring funding in the police budget. The third strategy is the formation of a memorandum of understanding between the practitioner and researcher to engage in future research. However, examination of these sustainability approaches is largely non-existent.

The Present Study

The review of the literature illustrates the concern that research findings and related recommendations risk not having an impact on the day-to-day decisions and behaviors of practitioners across a large number of occupational fields, an outcome that is due, in part, to a cultural gap between practitioners and researchers. There is an extended body of literature, initially categorized under the term research or knowledge utilization, and more recently knowledge translation, that has focused on what influences partnerships and how to improve the uptake of research knowledge among practitioners. The knowledge translation literature emerging from the medical and public health fields has given particular attention to specific strategies and tactics for improving this outcome. Within this translational approach, a knowledge exchange strategy that reflects partnerships between practitioners and researchers has increasingly been recognized as the most effective way for increasing the use of research in the decisions and actions of practitioners. The review of the literature also reveals the parallel

between the research utilization and culture gaps in various occupational and professional fields and observations made by policing scholars regarding law enforcement agencies, thereby embedding policing in the broader context of research utilization and knowledge translation. More important to the present study, policing scholars have also increasingly come to view partnerships between police practitioners and researchers that reflect the interactive knowledge exchange strategy as the most effective approach for improving research utilization in law enforcement practice.

This relevance of police practitioner-researcher partnerships is the basis of this study. When this study was proposed in 2009, there was little empirical work on partnerships in a policing context, despite the growing support for their use by researchers, funding agencies, and law enforcement officials. While the IACP had given strong support for these partnerships and advocated for their use in every law enforcement agency in the United States, there had been no empirical analysis on the presence or utility of these partnerships. In addition, there had been limited examination of the barriers to and facilitators of the development of these partnerships. The present study was designed to address these limitations through different data collection and analysis strategies that included surveys, qualitative interviews, and case studies that were oriented to addressing two general research questions:

1. *What is the prevalence of police practitioner-researcher partnerships?*
2. *What are the barriers to and facilitators of the development and sustainability of these partnerships?*

Since this study was proposed there has been an expansion of the literature on police practitioner-researcher partnerships that informs these research questions, which is covered in the above review of the literature. However, there are still important gaps that exist in relation to

these questions. The IACP survey (2011) represents the first effort to measure the prevalence of partnerships. It is a convenience sample of association members that reports on the overall prevalence of partnerships and its relationship to education level of agency leaders and proximity to college/university. Unfortunately, there is little insight on the influence of other agency characteristics, particularly the relationship of agency size and resources. More important, the IACP survey does not distinguish the nature of partnerships. Thus, reported participation in a partnership could mean anything from completing a survey or providing a researcher data to the more interactive knowledge exchange approach outlined above. This study addresses these and other considerations related to prevalence.

In relation to the barriers and facilitators to partnerships, there have been a limited number of publications since 2009 that have addressed these issues to some degree which are incorporated with McEwen's (2004) findings in the above discussion on the factors that influence the development of partnerships. These new publications are largely based on the authors' experience in a specific partnership or their general reflection on these relationships usually based on past experience. What is still missing in the literature on barriers and facilitators to partnerships is a comprehensive examination of a large number of partnerships, which the present study represents. As will be discussed in the next chapter, this study was designed to include the examination of 100 different police practitioner-researcher partnerships gained through interviews of the lead practitioner and researcher in each.

The goal in examining this large number of cases was to include partnerships with different characteristics (i.e. type of funding, nature of origin, length of existence, and degree of success as defined by its participants) in order to identify consistent and divergent barriers and facilitators across settings. In addition, the design was intended to capture and report on more

detailed information and illustrations than found in the literature to date. It is important to note that although the authors had reviewed McEwen's finding when proposing this study, the decision was made to not review the more recent publications prior to the analysis of the interview data. The authors wanted a grounded approach (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) to identifying the barriers and facilitators to partnerships that would avoid fitting the data to preexisting categories. This allowed the data to identify barriers and facilitators that could possibly support the above categories and identify additional considerations.

CHAPTER 3: DATA AND METHODS

This study employed a multi-method strategy for data collection that encompassed surveys, interviews, and case studies. These strategies were intended to capture the perspectives of practitioners and researchers who have past or current involvement in a police practitioner-researcher partnership. Consistent with the research questions, the goal was to identify the prevalence of these partnerships, as well as barriers and facilitators as described by the participants of these partnerships. The proposed data collection efforts of surveys, interviews, and case studies unfolded in a three stage process, wherein each stage set up the data collections of the ensuing stage. The intent was to progress through (1) a broad sample of agencies that may have engaged in partnerships with researchers, (2) interviews of practitioners and researchers who have participated in partnerships, and (3) case studies of successful partnerships.

National Survey

The national survey was a stratified, random sample of 2,015 municipal, county, and state law enforcement agencies. The survey had two primary objectives: (1) provide insight into the prevalence of police practitioner partnerships; and (2) identify agencies who have engaged in partnerships, whether past or current, that would be included in the second stage of data collection discussed below. The survey instrument was subsequently divided into two sections in relation to these objectives. Appendix A contains a copy of the survey instrument.

The first section captured information on partnership prevalence by first asking respondents if they had participated in a partnership with a researcher or research team in the past five years. The survey broadly defined a research partnership as follows:

A relationship with a researcher with the goal to define or implement a research project. Examples include situations where police agencies and researchers work together to learn about training, leadership, policies, procedures, or other related matters. These efforts can

also include police agencies and researchers working together to develop, implement, and/or monitor policies, new programs, and initiatives.

Agencies that reported participation in a partnership were then asked to define the nature of the partnership commitment. The goal of this second question was to distinguish between the formality and length of partnerships. The survey utilized a three category classification system outlined by the IACP (n.d.a; n.d.b). The respondents were asked to classify the nature of commitment in their partnerships as one of the following:

Cooperation – short term and informal partnerships that may involve such efforts as the agency seeking advice from a researcher or simply providing the research partner data for analysis.

Coordination – more formal partnerships that center on a specific project or goal, such as contracting a researcher to conduct a specific analysis or jointly securing grant funding with a researcher to evaluate a specific initiative. The partnership ends with the conclusion of the project.

Collaboration – formalized long-term partnerships where police agencies and researchers work together on multiple projects over time. An example of such a partnership could involve a MOU or contract between an agency and university or researcher for engaging in ongoing and multiple research efforts.

In recognition that some agencies may have participated in more than one research partnership over the past five years, the respondents could identify more than one type if they have been involved in different types of partnership. Thus, agencies that had been involved in two cooperation type partnerships and one coordination type were asked to check both the cooperation and coordination categories.

The first question provides the opportunity to explore the present research interest on the prevalence of practitioner-researcher partnerships. The type of partnerships captured by this question are intended to be more inclusive than those found in the LIRP, Ceasefire, SACSI, PSN, and Smart Policing programs. Ceasefire, SACSI, and PSN focus on improving an agency's ability to understand and respond to problems of violence in their respective communities (Braga

et al., 2002; Roehl *et al.*, 2006). LIRP included a broader array of partnerships, with projects that included such efforts as developing community policing in agencies, creating a crime analysis capacity in agencies, and improving the response to domestic violence, to name a few (McEwen, 2003). Smart Policing partnerships have largely focused on intelligence-led strategies that have place-based or offender-based approaches. The question used for the present study is intended to capture these efforts as well as other projects that focus on improving agency operations, such as research efforts evaluating training and policies related to the use of force or police misconduct.

The second question is an opportunity to measure the degree to which agencies are engaging in partnerships that are consistent with the knowledge exchange model outlined above. Cooperative partnerships represent efforts with limited interaction between the agency and researcher that suggest a partial commitment to the idea of bringing in external knowledge and resources to improve the function of the agency. Coordination and collaboration represent the next step. Here, agencies have bought into the idea of working with a research partner to the point they have established a formal relationship oriented to addressing a defined problem or problems. The primary characteristic distinguishing coordination and collaboration is that the former represents a short-term partnership oriented to the completion of a single project and the latter is a long-term partnership that incorporates multiple projects. Thus, collaborations represent an even stronger commitment to the practice of partnerships.

The survey also asked additional questions of those agencies that reported they have not been involved in a research partnership in the past five years. These non-partnering agencies were first asked if they had even been approached by a researcher to participate in a partnership. Policing scholars have observed that agency skepticism on the value of research, a lack of resources, and a distrust of researchers are all common obstacles to the formation of police

practitioner-researcher partnerships (McEwen, 2003; Greene, 2010; Weisburd and Neyroud, 2010). Following these questions, the non-partnering agencies were then asked why they had not participated in a partnership. They were able to select their response from the following options:

- Partnering with a research would not be of much use to their agency
- No funding/resources to engage in partnerships
- Lacking trust in the motives or intent of researchers when wanting to partner
- Knowledge of peer agencies having a negative experience with a researcher
- Additional reasons identified by the agency

Given the framing of partnerships within the broader interest in research utilization/ knowledge translation, we added an additional section asking agencies about their use of research. This set of questions represents a partial replication of the above mentioned IACP (2011) survey, but more importantly, it provides the opportunity to examine the link between research use and the willingness to participate in partnerships with researchers. The respondents were first asked how often they use research findings to inform their decisions on policy development and operations. Second, they were asked for which policing issues had they relied on research findings, such as use of force, patrol deployment, response to domestic violence, and so on. Third, they were asked which research outlets they relied on to inform their efforts. This question provides the opportunity to explore the criticisms made by Buerger (2010); namely, that traditional academic journals are not oriented to the police practitioner in both writing style and presentation of results, and that police personnel therefore do not view them as useful resources to help inform their practices. The outlet response included academic journals, professional journals (e.g. Police Chief, FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin) research organizations (National Institute of Justice, Police Executive Research Forum, and Police Foundation), the IACP, the

National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS)⁵ and research conducted by other law enforcement agencies. Given the issues raised by Buerger (2010), we anticipated that academic journals would have the lowest frequency of respondents reporting they utilized this research source.

The second section of the survey gathered more detailed information on the partnership experience of agencies that provided an affirmative response to the first survey question. These agencies were asked to provide more detail on the last three partnerships in which they had engaged. The additional questions on specific partnerships were intended to provide a brief outline of existing partnerships for subsequent stages of the project, which inquired about partnership longevity, funding sources, and agency ratings of success. This provided criteria for selecting partnerships with different characteristics for the interview stage of the study. Contact information on the lead agency representative was collected to initiate the next stage.

Sampling

The sample was drawn using the 2009 National Directory of Law Enforcement Agencies (NDLEA) database, which contains information on 15,759 state and local law enforcement agencies. The database contains the name of the chief executive and agency address, along with information on the type of agency, population of jurisdiction, and region where the agency is located. A stratified sampling strategy was employed to provide a nationally-representative sample of law enforcement agencies that used these three criteria from the NDLEA. Agency type categories were state police and highway patrol, municipal and county police departments, and independent city and county sheriff departments. The U.S. census categories were used to

⁵ It is recognized the NCJRS represents an electronic clearinghouse and reference source for research reports as opposed to a publisher of researcher. However, it was included given the possibility it may be a primary source police leaders and personnel go to find research findings of interest.

identify the four regions of agency location. Appendix B provides an illustration of these regions along with a categorization of all states and Washington D.C. into those regions. Jurisdiction population was divided into the following categories:

- Under 10,000
- 10,000 to 49,999
- 50,000 to 99,999
- 100,000 to 499,999
- 500,000 to 999,999
- 1,000,000 or more

However, there were 921 agencies that did not have a jurisdiction population provided in the NDLEA. This group was classified into a seventh category of “missing population.”

The initial goal was to develop a sample of 2,000 agencies for survey distribution. Appendix C provides the agencies available in each of the sampling strata and the number selected for survey distribution. The first step in the sampling process was an oversampling of state law enforcement agencies and large municipal and county agencies. This involved selecting all state police or highway patrol for each state (n=50)⁶ and all municipal and county agencies serving population with 100,000 jurisdictional population (n=827). The remaining sample (n=1,141) was randomly selected from agencies with jurisdictional populations of less than 100,000, divided across the above population, region, and agency type categories. This randomly selected portion of the sample was intended to be equally distributed across the strata listed in Appendix C. However, some strata had no agencies or low counts, resulting in some strata having fewer agencies in the sample than others. As a result of this strata representation and an effort for equal representation, a total of 2,018 agencies were initially selected. After the initial survey was distributed, three agencies were identified as not providing law enforcement services, resulting in a final sample of 2,015.

⁶ The Hawaii County Police Department is also the state police agency for the state of Hawaii, and was therefore included in this category for sampling.

Data Collection

The surveys were administered between March 2010 and July 2010. The surveys were directed to the lead executive of each agency (e.g. Chief, Sheriff, Director, Superintendent). These individuals, along with their senior staff, are the key decision makers on the implementation of policy and operations, and as a result are most knowledgeable on whether research is being considered to inform these decisions. The directions on the survey asked the executive if he/she or someone knowledgeable on these issues in the agency would complete the survey. Thus, it is assumed the individual completing survey would be able to provide informed responses to the questions. A review of the position title listed by the respondent completing the survey indicates that 61% (n= 518) were the lead executive or senior staff of the agency (e.g. Assistant or Deputy Chief, Commander, Major) and the remaining 39% (n=331) were largely composed of individuals at the Captain, Lieutenant, and Sergeant ranks.

The distribution design incorporated an initial survey mailing with two follow-up mailing of reminders. The initial survey contained a cover letter, survey instrument, return envelope, letter for NIJ verifying the projects existence, and a letter from then Nashville Metropolitan Police Chief Ronal Serpas. Chief Serpas was the law enforcement co-chair of the IACP Research Advisory Committee at the time, and a recognized law enforcement official whose letter was included to increase the survey's credibility. This initial survey mailing was conducted on March 15, 2010. A postcard was sent to all agencies two weeks later on April 1, 2010 as a reminder. Non-responding agencies were then sent another copy of the survey the following month on May 1, 2010.

As a result of a less than desirable response rate, the research team conducted a second round of surveys. This second round changed the administration protocol to contain a web-based

response option with the intent to increase response rates. The initial mailing for the second round was administered on June 10, 2010, containing the same material as the initial survey in the first round and a link for online completion. The survey link was routed through the University of South Carolina Department of Criminology and Criminal Justice to a web-based survey site maintained by QuestionPro. Access to the survey design and responses was password protected and maintained only by the research team, and each responding agency accessed only their survey with a password they were provided. Reminder letters for survey completion, along with the web-link and password, were subsequently mailed on June 18, 2010 and July 15, 2010.

A total of 871 agencies returned completed surveys, representing 43% of the sample agencies. Further examination of the response rate provided in Table 1 reveals considerable variation in the response rate across agency size, type, and region. The response rate of agencies serving large jurisdictions (population 100,000 or more) was 50%, whereas the response rate for agencies with missing population⁷ was 23% and small jurisdictions (population less than 10,000) was 30%. The response rate was also higher for state agencies, relative to county and municipal-level agencies, and the response rate was low for agencies in the Northeast relative to all other regions.

The overall response may partially be explained by agencies operating under the belief that the survey did not apply to them since they had not participated in a partnership. Despite the cover letter for the mailed survey, as well as reminder letters, noting that responses were desired from all agencies regardless of whether they had participated in a research partnership, the

⁷ The NDLEA contained missing data on the jurisdiction population for approximately 11% of agencies (a similar rate of missing data was found in number of officers). When developing the sampling stratification framework, agencies with missing population were classified in a separate population stratum. However, the survey contained a question on the number of sworn personnel. As a result, Table 1 Provides the missing population stratum, but the subsequent presentation of findings reports agency size by number officers and contains no missing data.

authors still received numerous phone calls from agencies asking if they needed to complete the survey since they had not be involved in a partnership. Although the response rate raises concerns about self-selection bias on the part of the police leaders willing to complete the survey, Table 1 shows the respondents were similarly distributed across the stratification characteristics of the initial sample. The largest differences in the distribution of agencies across the respondents and sample were observed in agencies serving populations of 100,000 or more and agencies in the Northeast, but in each case the difference in the percent representation was 6% or less.

Table 1. Characteristics of Responding Agencies and Sample Agencies

	Respondent Characteristics (N=871)		Sample Characteristics (N=2,015)		Response Rate
	<i>Number of Agencies</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Number of Agencies</i>	<i>%</i>	
	<i>Jurisdiction Size</i>				
Missing Population*	39	5%	168	8%	23%
Under 10,000	91	10%	299	15%	30%
10,000 - 49,999	137	16%	336	17%	41%
50,000 - 99,999	165	19%	336	17%	49%
100,000 or more	439	50%	876	44%	50%
<i>Agency Type</i>					
City/County Police Department	433	50%	964	48%	45%
County Sheriff	404	46%	1001	49%	40%
State Police/Highway Patrol	34	4%	50	3%	68%
<i>Region</i>					
Northeast	135	16%	400	20%	34%
Midwest	222	26%	490	24%	45%
South	297	34%	632	31%	47%
West	217	25%	493	25%	44%

Practitioner-Researcher Interviews

The second data collection stage involved conducting in-depth interviews with practitioners and researchers who had engaged in a partnership. At the time this study was proposed, insight on the barriers and facilitators to development and sustainability of partnerships was limited. Even with consideration of the recent publications on police practitioner-researcher partnerships, only a few of these factors have been identified. Thus, conducting a survey of agencies on the barriers and facilitators to partnerships would be premature given the current state of the literature, with the possibility of missing yet unidentified factors. Moreover, a survey would miss illustrations of such barriers and facilitators that would give context. As a result, in-depth interviews of practitioners and researchers were the best strategy for this study to conduct an open exploration of these barriers and facilitators.

The initial design of the study was to identify 100 partnerships through the survey responses, then interview the lead practitioner and researcher to each partnership. Centering the interviews on a specific partnership provided an opportunity to get perspectives from two sides of the same relationship, which would allow for the ability to identify where the interests and perspectives converge and diverge for each party. The practitioner interview guide captured five general themes: partnership formation, perceived benefit of partnership, current status of partnership, evaluation of the partnership, and general insight on the practice of partnering with researchers. Specific questions regarding barriers and facilitators were incorporated with the evaluation questions. Appendix D provides a copy of the practitioner interview guide. The researcher interview guide captured six general themes: partnership formation, evaluation of the partnership, balancing between partnership and institutional (presumably university/college) demands, current status of the partnership, other partnership experience, and general insight on

the practice of partnering with practitioners. Similar to the practitioner interview guide, questions on barriers and facilitators were contained in the evaluation of the partnership. Appendix E provides a copy of the researcher interview guide.

The goal in conducting the surveys was to identify at least 200 police practitioner-researcher partnership, 100 of which would be randomly selected for this interview stage. A total of 256 law enforcement agencies completed information on 393 separate partnerships, highlighting that a number of agencies had engaged in more than one partnership. One of the selection criteria for inclusion in the interview sample pool was the partnership represented the coordination or collaboration form. This resulted in the exclusion of 95 partnerships that represented the cooperation form, representing a conservative strategy for avoiding cases where relationships simply involved the research providing informal advice or the provision of data to the researcher. Given the study focus was on law enforcement, partnerships involving a jail focus from a county sheriff department were excluded. In addition, partnerships where the respondent did not define the nature of the projects were excluded, as well as those that appeared to be based on an employment (e.g. salary studies, promotion exams) issue, technical equipment evaluation, or DNA evaluation.⁸ These additional considerations resulted in 107 more partnerships being excluded. The resulting sampling pool included 191 partnerships involving 108 agencies. The research team decided to examine only one partnership per agency in order to reduce redundancy, which resulted in a final sampling pool of 108 partnerships.

The interview process involved conducting the interview with the practitioner partner first given their information was available from the survey, then interviewing the research partner after their contact information was obtained during the practitioner interview. The

⁸ Three partnerships were also eliminated given they involved a member of the research team, and 21 were eliminated as a result of the respondent not providing information on the lead department official to contact or the respondent indicated the lead official was retired.

protocol involved calling the practitioner to inform them about the project and the research team's desire to interview them. If they agreed to the interview, they were mailed or emailed additional description of the project and a copy of the interview guide. They were then called back at a determined time for an interview conducted over the phone. The research team was unable to contact 12 of the lead practitioners, due either to the practitioner failing to return calls or the retirement of the lead practitioner and no other individual to speak about the partnership. There were six additional partnerships where the research team determined the relationship did not present a partnership of interest, reflecting cases where the agency was working as a product vendor or training entity. In total, the research team conducted 90 practitioner interviews that were included for analysis. They covered 89 partnerships since the interviews revealed two of the practitioner agencies were involved in the same partnerships with a researcher. Table 2 provided the characteristics of agencies participating in the interviews.

Following the practitioner interview, the research partner was sent an email explaining the project and informing them that the research team would be contacting them in the next few days inquiring about participation in an interview. In some cases, the practitioner could recall the name of the researcher's institution or organization, but the not specific name of the researcher. The research team was able to identify these individuals through contacting the institution in some instances, but the remainder went unidentified and thereby were not included in the interviews. Of the remaining 84 partnerships, the research team was able to contact and interview 57 researchers.

The interviews of the practitioners and researchers provided extensive textual data. The general analytical approach to examining the data was a multi-stage thematic analysis strategy (Berg, 1998; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). The first stage involved an open coding procedure of

reading through each interview transcript to identify specific statements that identified barriers and facilitators to partnerships. Given the analysis involved transcripts of 147 interviews (90 practitioner interviews and 57 researcher interviews), the researcher team accomplished the open coding process with the aid of ATLAS.ti qualitative software. The software allowed the research team to select text that identified relevant themes, name each theme, and provide a related note or description. Each of the specific statements and themes were then grouped into general categories of barriers and facilitators to partnerships. Once the various themes were grouped under these general categories, the research team then reviewed the specific themes within each general category to identify the more nuanced forms that fell under general themes. A similar process was used in examining the benefits the practitioners identified from engaging in these partnerships.

Table 2. Characteristics of Agencies Participating in Interviews

	Interview Agency (N=90)	
	<i>Number of Agencies</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Jurisdiction Size</i>		
Missing Population*	10	11%
Under 10,000	0	0%
10,000 - 49,999	4	4%
50,000 - 99,999	12	13%
100,000 - 499,999	64	71%
<i>Agency Type</i>		
Police Department	67	74%
County Sheriff	14	16%
State Police/Highway Patrol	9	10%
<i>Region</i>		
Northeast	13	14%
Midwest	19	21%
South	31	34%
West	27	30%

Partnership Case Studies

The third data collection stage comprised of case studies of four partnerships. The goal of the case studies was to provide a more detailed examination of successful sustainable partnerships that could serve as models for future practitioner-researcher partnership efforts. The first criteria for case study selection was evidence of sustainability, which was defined as a partnership that continued past the initial project the members worked on and the partnership currently exists. A total of 67 of the 89 partnerships (75%) from the second stage were still active, but the majority of them were relatively new in being less than two years of existence. Only 22 of the partnerships (25%) had existed for more than two years, which served as the pool for case study selection.

The selection from these 22 partnerships centered on identifying contrasting structures of the partnership, by the degree of formality and scale of involvement on the research side. Formality was defined by the existence of a MOU between the law enforcement agency and the researcher's university, or the creation of a permanent organizational position to support a relationship (e.g. a jointly funded research position). Scope of involvement reflects whether the research side is represented a single individual or larger group such as a whole academic department. This review resulted in the selection of the following four case studies:

Formal partnership with a single researcher: Boston Police Department and Dr. Anthony Braga.

Formal partnership with a university: Broward County Sheriff's Officer and Nova Southeastern University.

Informal partnership with single researcher: Brockton (MA) Police Department and Pam Kelley.

Informal Partnership with academic unit: Richmond Police Department and Virginia Commonwealth University, School of Government and Public Affairs.

The case studies were completed by traveling to each of the above law enforcement agencies to conduct interviews of partnership personnel. Where appropriate, additional partnership personnel were interviewed other than those interviewed during stage two. While conducting the site visit, the research team conducted videoed interviews with a representative from the practitioner and researcher sides of the partnership. In the case of the practitioners, this involved the interviews of three chiefs of police and one colonel. The two lone research partners were represented in their respective interviews, and the self-selected representatives of the university and academic unit participated for the other two partnerships. The purpose of the videos was to create a multimedia format for communicating the experiences of these sustained partnerships. The logic for the interviews was based on findings within diffusion research that indicates individuals are more likely to accept and adopt ideas from individuals with whom they can identify (Rogers, 1995; Wejnert, 2002). The videos allow practitioners and researchers to hear about these models from peers that each respectively identify with given their common identity.

The reviews of these partnerships in this report are intended to be descriptive. The analysis of the interviews from the second stage of data collection focuses primarily on the identification of key themes across the various partnerships, without much description of the specific partnerships. The review of the four selected partnerships provides more descriptive depth, capturing the origin of the partnerships, nature of the projects conducted through the partnership, and the perspective of each partner regarding their working relationship.

CHAPTER 4: NATIONAL SURVEY OF PARTNERSHIPS

The survey was intended to provide insight on the prevalence of partnership participation among law enforcement agencies and their general use of research, as well as information on specific partnerships for agencies with this experience. The first two sections of this chapter present descriptive results for research use and partnership involvement. The third section incorporates a multivariate analysis that examines the influences on partnership involvement among law enforcement agencies.

Research Use

The questions about use of research were directed at capturing the respondents' views on the utility of research for informing decision and practices in their respective agencies. In line with the research utilization interest of the present study, these questions provide insight on practitioners' valuation of research and what sources they draw on for such information. The source is particularly relevant for identifying where researchers should be placing their work in order to improve knowledge transfer. The information on the use of research in general is also used in an analysis later in this chapter to examine the link between it and participation in partnerships.

The survey first asked respondents how often they use research to inform their decisions on policy development and operations, providing the response options of never, seldom, sometimes, and very often. The first column in Table 3 provides the reporting across these four categories for all agencies. The most common response was sometimes, reported by more than one half of the respondents (53.4%). The second most common response was very often (24.3%), followed by seldom (15.5%), and never (6.8%), respectively. Further analysis examined this research use across agency size, reflected in the following categories: state and large agencies,

and medium and small agencies. Large agencies were defined as agencies with 100 or more sworn personnel, with all state agencies reflecting this size. Medium and small agencies were all agencies with less than 100 sworn personnel. The large and state agencies reported a higher rate of very often and sometimes use than medium and small agencies, whereas medium and small agencies reported higher rates of seldom or never use than large and state agencies. While these difference were found, the same pattern of reporting order was found across both groups: sometimes, very often, seldom, and never.

Table 3. Frequency Agencies Report Using Research Finding to Inform Decisions on Policy Development and Operations

	All Agencies*		State and Large Agencies		Medium and Small Agencies	
	<i>Number of Agencies</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Number of Agencies</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Number of Agencies</i>	<i>%</i>
Never	58	6.8%	16	3.7%	42	10.1%
Seldom	132	15.5%	50	11.5%	82	19.7%
Sometimes	453	53.4%	246	56.8%	207	49.8%
Very Often	206	24.3%	121	27.9%	85	20.4%

* Based on 849 Respondents

The categories of use do not provide definitive measure of use, but it is assumed that those agencies reporting they very often use research to inform decisions and operations place a high value on research. These findings are similar to those found in the 2009 IACP (2011) survey discussed in chapter two, where 61% of respondents reported research occasionally influencing their decision and 30% reporting often or always. Figure 1 provides a more detailed reporting across ten agency size categories of agencies that reported they very often use research to inform decision and operations. Nearly 50% of agencies with 1000 or more sworn personnel reported they very often use research, and 42% of agencies with 500 to 999 sworn personnel reported this level of use. There is a notable drop to agencies with 400 to 499 sworn personnel,

with 25% reporting they very often use research. The reported very often use ranges from 20% to 29% for the five categories for agencies from 25 to 399 sworn personnel in size, then drops to nearly 13% for those with 10 to 24 sworn personnel and 9% for agencies with 1 to 9 sworn personnel.

Those agencies that provided a response other than never to the first question were subsequently asked in which area of policing have they relied on research findings. Table 4 provides the distribution of responses to this question in order of reporting rate. The most common response was use of force (73.5%), followed by emergency/pursuit driving (59.3%). The third and fourth most common responses were response to domestic violence (45.8%) and response to mentally ill (45.6%), respectively. The remaining identified areas were cited by 30% to 39% of the agencies (patrol deployment, homeland security issues, other community problems not listed, responses to gang activity, and responses to illicit drug active), with the exception of routine driving issues (12.8%).

Figure 1. Frequency of Agencies Reporting the Use of Research “Very Often” by Agency Size

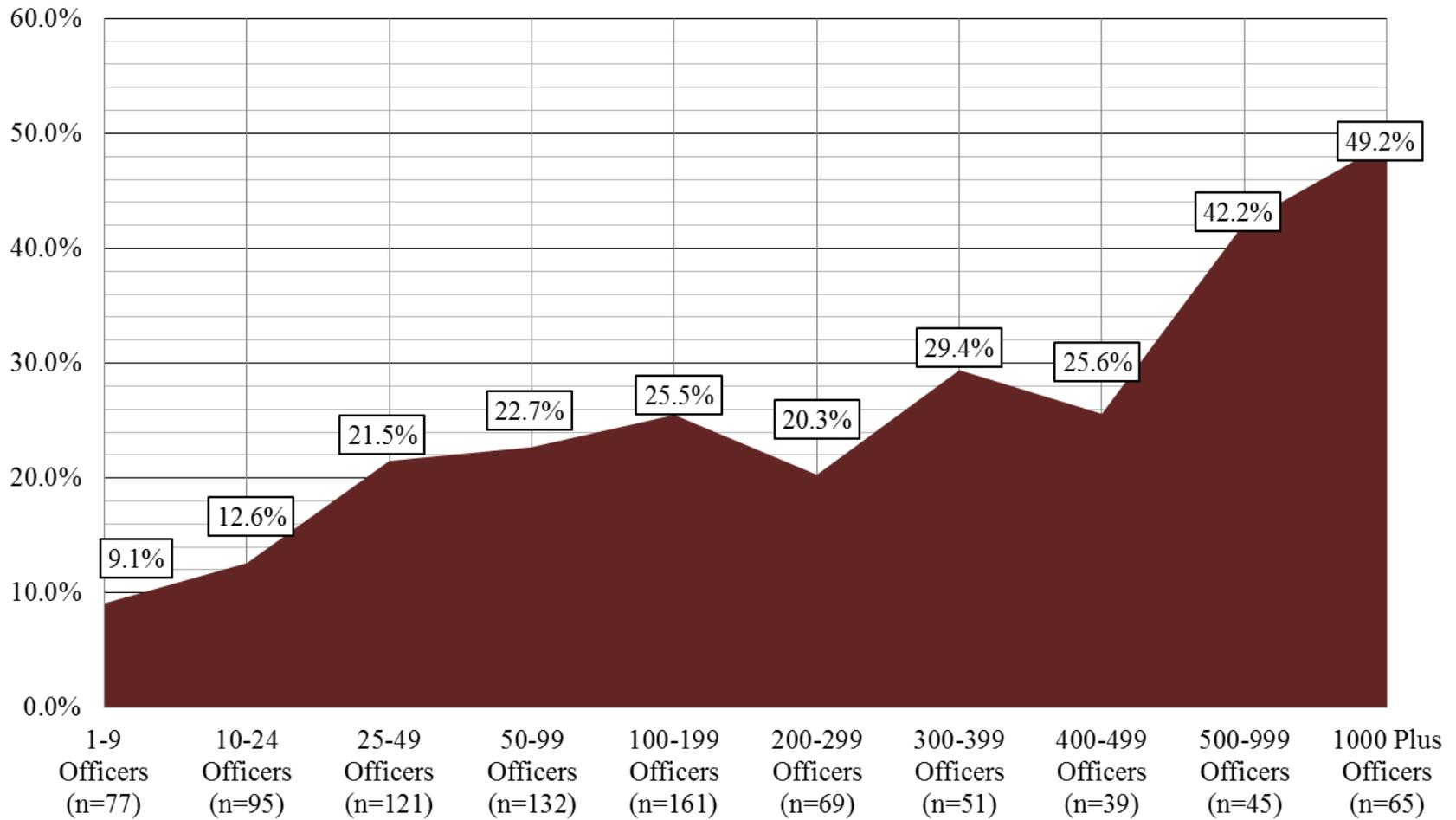


Table 4. Frequency of Agencies Reporting They Have Used Research Findings to Inform Decisions on Select Agency Issues

	<i>Number of Agencies*</i>	<i>%</i>
Use of Force	581	73.5%
Emergency/Pursuit Driving	469	59.3%
Response to Domestic Violence	362	45.8%
Response to Mentally Ill	361	45.6%
Patrol Deployment	306	38.7%
Homeland Security Issues	294	37.2%
Response to other community problems not listed in survey	237	30.0%
Response to Gang Activity	236	29.8%
Response to Illicit Drug Activity	233	29.5%
Other Issues	151	19.1%
Routine Driving	101	12.8%

* The responses only include those agencies who reported they use research seldom, sometimes, or very often, n=791.

A central question when considering whether an agency uses research to inform decisions and which areas they use research to inform is what respondents consider as a research source. The 2009 IACP (2011) survey found that respondents were most likely to rely on information from professional law enforcement associations, conferences, and training for information on research relevant to the respondent. However, less than 40% reported that they look to academic or technical journals or universities and colleges. The discussion provided in the literature review noted law enforcement practitioners have typically bypassed academic journals, where researchers generally place the results of their work, as they are in a format that is not accessible or meaningful to them. The IACP findings suggest some law enforcement practitioners do look to academic outlets for research information, but they more heavily rely on peer sources in professional associations, training, and conferences. Identifying which outlets practitioners use to gain information that informs their decisions is important for improving knowledge translation. The IACP findings suggest that researchers need to find a way to get their work into these law enforcement peer outlets to increase exposure and presumably knowledge translation.

The present study explored the same issue in the survey as the IACP study, but with a little more specificity on the research outlets that the responding practitioners use. Table 5 provides the survey responses to the outlets the respondents use for research findings for those agencies that provided a response other than never to the first question. Consistent with the IACP results, law enforcement peer outlets were the most frequently cited by the respondents. Professional journals, such as Police Chief Magazine and F.B.I Law Enforcement Bulletin, was the most cited outlet (84.7%), followed by IACP (71.3%), and research conducted by other law enforcement agencies (58.7%). However, NIJ publications, which largely represent the presentation of findings from funded research conducted by members of the research community, had a response rate (58.7%), equal to research conducted by other law enforcement agencies. The Police Executive Research Forum (PERF) was the next most cited outlet (40.2%), followed by the National Criminal Justice Research Service (NCJRS) (35.3%), and academic journals (34.1%). The Police Foundation was the least cited outlet (12.9%).

Table 5. Frequency of Agencies Reporting They Use Listed Outlet as a Source of Research Findings.

	<i>Number of Agencies*</i>	<i>%</i>
Professional Journals (e.g. Police Chief, FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, etc...)	670	84.7%
International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP)	564	71.3%
Research Conducted by Other Law Enforcement Agencies	464	58.7%
National Institute of Justice Publications	464	58.7%
Police Executive Research Forum (PERF)	318	40.2%
National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS)	279	35.3%
Academic Journals	270	34.1%
Other Sources	169	21.4%
Police Foundation	102	12.9%

* The responses only include those agencies who reported they use research seldom, sometimes, or very often, n=791.

In light of the present study’s interest in research utilization, Table 6 examines the link between the level of research use and research outlets that are the typical venue for researchers presenting their work. The reported level of using research to inform decisions in general is positively related to the use of more typical research outlets. Only 18.5% of respondents who reported they “seldom use” research reported that they rely on academic journals as a source of information, compared to 30.0% for respondents who reported they “sometimes use” use research and 53.9% for those who reported they “very often use.” In addition, only 33.9% of respondents who reported they seldom use research reported using NIJ publications as an information source, compared to 58.7% for respondents who reported sometimes use and 75.7% for those who reported very often use.

Table 6. Distribution of Academic Journal and NIJ Publication Use by Level of Reported Research Use.

<i>Level of Research Use</i>	<i>Research Outlet- Academic Journals</i>		<i>Research Outlet- NIJ Publications</i>	
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>%</i>
Seldom (n=124)	23	18.5%	42	33.9%
Sometimes (n=453)	136	30.0%	266	58.7%
Very Often (n=206)	111	53.9%	156	75.7%

While these results do not provide definitive insight on the use of research by law enforcement practitioners, they identify important considerations for the future of knowledge translation in this field. Given the respondents are most likely to rely on peer sources for research information, the research community needs to make a more concerted effort to place their work in these outlets. This placement, however, will require researchers to present their work in a format that differs from their typical journal outlets (Buerger, 2010). This means more condensed presentations that contain fewer empirical details and less academic jargon. In

addition, results highlight a link between the level of research use and the use of outlets where researchers place their work. What is missing and requires further investigation is the direction of this link. Are practitioners that value the use of research more likely to draw on these researcher publication outlets, or are practitioners who look to these outlets more likely to value research? What is perhaps missing in this analysis is the influence of education, which was not included in this survey, but discussed in the barriers and facilitators qualitative findings chapter. Additionally, as a potential support for the role of education, the above mentioned 2009 IACP (2011) study found that education level influenced the level of interest in research, with executives who had graduate degrees having the greatest interest.

Partnership Involvement

The respondents were first asked the general question of whether they had participated in a partnership with a researcher or research team in the past five years, with these partnerships being defined for the respondents as described in chapter three. Table 7 provides responses to this question. Overall, almost one third of the respondents (32%) had engaged in a partnership with a researcher in the past five years. This participation, however, is influenced by agency size. Nearly one half (48%) of agencies with 100 or more sworn personnel had participated in partnerships in the past five years. However, partnership participation among agencies with 50 to 99 sworn personnel (25%) was nearly one half the rate of agencies with 100 or more personnel, followed by agencies with 25 to 49 sworn personnel (22%), 10 to 24 personnel (10%), and 1 to 9 personnel (7%).

Table 7. Distribution of Agency Participation in Partnerships with Researchers

	Participated in a partnership with researcher in the last 5 years?			
	No		Yes	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
<i>Number of Sworn Personnel</i>				
1-9 Officers	88	93%	7	7%
10-24 Officers	87	90%	10	10%
25-49 Officers	99	78%	28	22%
50-99 Officers	101	75%	34	25%
100 or More Officers	216	52%	201	48%
Total	591	68%	280	32%

Those respondents who reported involvement in partnerships within the past five years were subsequently asked to define their partnerships based on the three categories provided in chapter three: cooperation, coordination, and collaboration. Table 8 provides the distribution of agencies reporting involvement in these three types of relationships in total and by agency size. Agencies could report experiences in all three categories if applicable. The rates in Table 8 reflect participation across all responding agencies in order to gather an overall prevalence of the partnerships. As noted in chapter three, cooperation represents an informal information exchange, whether an agency provided a research data or a researcher provided advice to members of the agency. These relationships are not a primary interest for the present study as they do not typify partnerships that reflect the concept of knowledge exchange form of translation discussed in chapter two. Nonetheless, they were included in the survey as to provide a full range of practitioner-researcher relationships. Overall, only 21% of agencies reported involvement in a cooperation based relationship with a researcher. Cooperative relationships were most common among agencies with 100 or more sworn officers (31%), with a considerable

drop off in the rate to agencies with 50-99 officers (17%), 25-49 officers (14%), 10-24 officers (7%), and 1-9 officers (7%).

Alternatively, coordination and collaboration relationships between police practitioners and researchers represent efforts where both parties work together to address an issue in the agency or their jurisdiction, with the underlying assumption that the researcher brings a knowledge base and skill set to aid the agency in these efforts. These efforts are more reflective of the knowledge exchange approach, with the duration of the project being the key distinction between these two forms of partnership. Coordination partnerships dissolve after the initial project the partners work on ends, where collaboration partnerships continue on to new projects after the initial one. Table 8 illustrates there was a lower rate of participation in coordination partnerships (18%) than cooperation relationships. However, there is a more notable separation in participation rates between large agencies with 100 or more officers and all others. Where 32% of agencies with 100 or more sworn officers participated in a coordination partnership, only 11% of agencies with 50-99 officers, 9% of agencies with 25-49 officers, 2% of agencies with 10-24 officers and participated, with no participation among agencies with 1-9 officers. Participation in collaboration was more uncommon with only 10% of all agencies reporting this experience. Only 14% of large agencies with 100 or more officers reported involvement in these partnerships, with the rate for remaining agencies sizes being one half this rate or less.

Table 8. Distribution of Types of Partnerships with Researchers

	Total Number of Responding Agencies*	Cooperation		Coordination		Collaboration	
		<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
<i>Number of Sworn Personnel</i>							
1-9 Officers	95	7	7%	0	0%	0	0%
10-24 Officers	97	7	7%	2	2%	1	1%
25-49 Officers	127	18	14%	11	9%	4	3%
50-99 Officers	135	23	17%	15	11%	10	7%
100 or More Officers	417	130	31%	132	32%	68	14%
Total	871	185	21%	160	18%	83	10%

* Agencies can report involvement in more than one type of partnership.

As Table 8 presents, a large number of agencies fall in the category of 100 or more officers. Figure 2 provides greater detail to the rate of participation among these larger agencies by separating this group into additional categories. This figure illustrates two patterns. The pattern in red represents agencies that reported participation in a coordination or collaboration partnerships, or both. The pattern in grey represents only agencies that have participated in collaboration partnerships. The rate of partnership was highest among agencies with 1000 or more sworn personnel at 68%, followed by agencies with 500 to 99 personnel at 51%. There is a drop off to 39% for agencies with 400 to 499 sworn personnel and this downward trend continues for the remaining categories (300-399 personnel at 33%, 200-299 at 29%, and 100-199 at 18%). A similar pattern was found in collaboration participation. The rate of participation was 35% for agencies with 1000 or more officers and 21% for agencies with 500 to 999 officers. Participation for the remaining categories was at 15% or less. Collectively, Table 8 and Figure 2

illustrate that participation in coordination and collaboration forms of partnership are a function, in part, of agency size.

For those agencies reporting no participation in a partnership in the five years prior to the survey, a follow-up question was asked on why they had not engaged in these efforts. The respondents were provided specified reasons and a write-in option. Table 9 presents the responses to this question, with agencies having the ability to give more than one reason. Each of the categories in Table 9 was provided as the specified reason, except for the second most frequent response of “have never been approached by a researcher.” It is important to note that before this question on reason for lack of participation, the agencies were also asked if they had ever been approached by a researcher to participate in a partnership. A large number of agencies reported they did not know, possibly the recognition that someone in their agency had been approached without their knowledge. However, this reason was frequently reported in the fill option for lack of partnership participation, representing the second most frequently reported reason when parsed out. As Table 9 presents, more than half of these non-participating agencies reported they did not have the funding or resources (56%), followed by having not been approached by a researcher (27%). The belief that partnering with a researcher would be a value to their agency was the third most comment category (15%), followed by a much lower number of agencies reported they did not trust the motives or intent of researchers wanting to partner (2%) or they heard of other agencies having a negative experience in a partnership with researchers (2%). The remaining reasons were a diverse number of write-in responses that were classified as other (16%).

Figure 2. Percent of Agencies with Coordination and/or Collaboration Partnerships

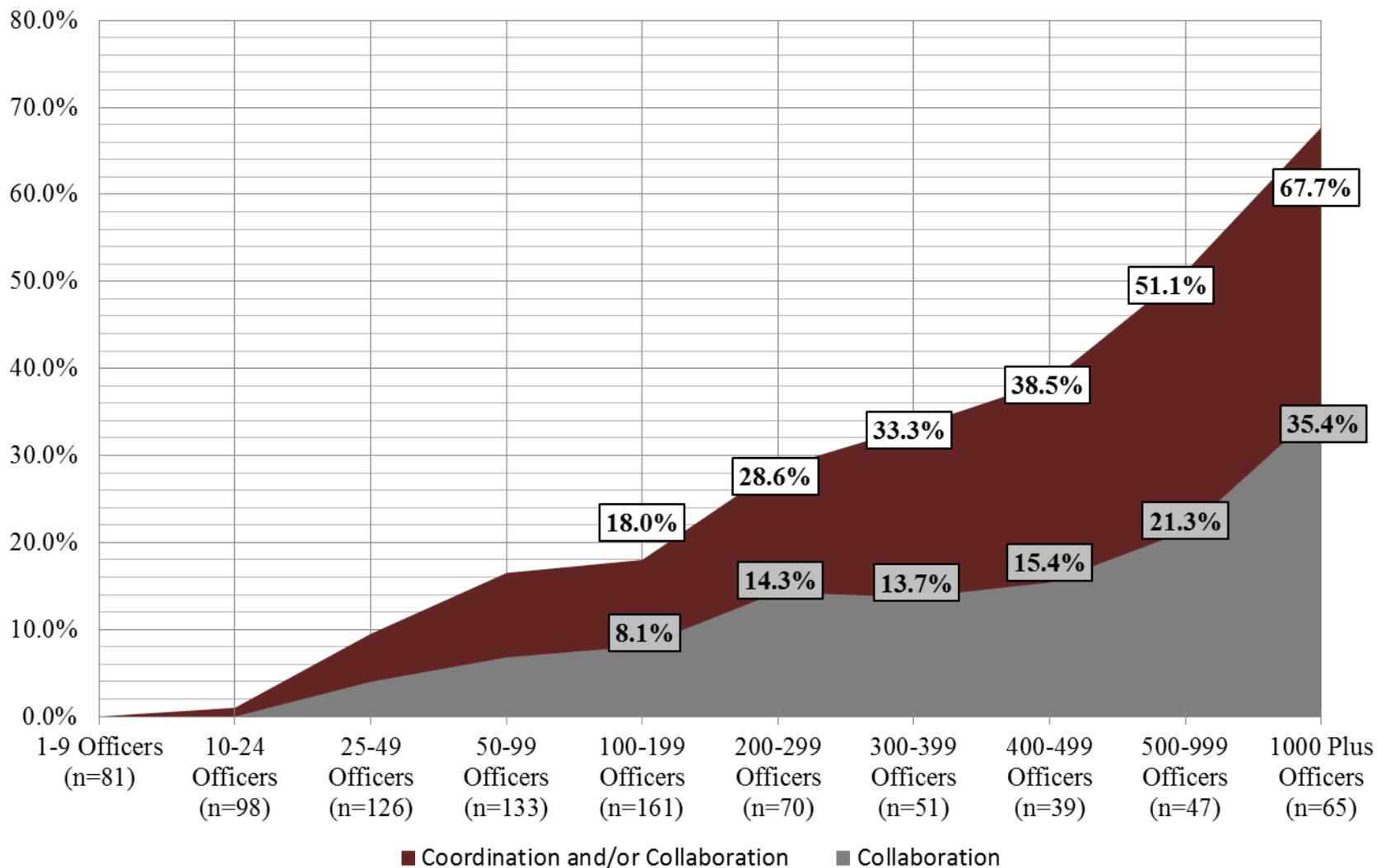


Table 9. Agency Reasons for Not Participating in a Partnership

<i>Reason Reported</i>	N	%
Do not have the funding/ resources to engage in a partnership (staffing, etc...).	328	56%
Have not been approached by a researcher.	162	27%
Do not think partnering with a researcher would be of much use to my agency.	91	15%
Do not trust the motives or intent of researchers wanting to partner with my agency.	13	2%
Heard of other agencies having a negative experience in partnerships with researchers.	10	2%
Other	93	16%

* 591 respondents. Agencies could report more than one reason.

As noted in Chapter three, the second purpose of the survey was to identify agencies who engaged in partnerships to interview in the second stage of this study. However, the responses agencies' provided on their specific partnership experiences also provide insight on their characteristics. Table 10 provides insight on the funding, longevity, and perceived level of success for the 191 partnerships that met the criteria outlined in chapter three for inclusion in the interview sampling pool, less five agencies that were missing data for classification in Table 10. Recognizing that partnerships may use more than one source of support over the course of their existence, agencies were asked to select all sources of funding used to support the partnership. While external grant funding was the second most common source of funding, only 30% of agencies reported the partnership was supported by grant funds over its life course. The most common source of support was the agency providing funding (38%), followed by external grant funding (30%), the research partner providing funding (29%), the partnership operating with no funding (22%), and other sources (9%). These figures offer promise that the future growth of police practitioner-researcher partnerships is not dependent on grant funding.

Table 10. Characteristics of Reported Partnerships

	<i>N</i> [*]	%
<i>Funding Source</i> ^{**}		
Research partner provided funding	53	29%
Agency provided funding	70	38%
External grant	55	30%
Partnership operated without funding	41	22%
Other Sources	16	9%
<i>Partnership Longevity</i>		
Partnership ended	57	31%
Active partnership has existed less than 24 months	69	37%
Active partnership has existed for 2 to 5 years	33	18%
Active partnership has existed for more than 5 years	27	15%
<i>Reported Success of Partnership</i>		
New partnership, not rated	6	3%
Unsuccessful	1	1%
Somewhat unsuccessful	4	2%
Neutral	23	12%
Somewhat successful	39	21%
Successful	113	61%

* Total number of partnerships n=186.

**Agencies could cite more than one source of funding, which was common among agencies reporting long partnerships with relationships. Arguably, funding would shift over time for these longer relationships.

Just under one third of the partnerships were no longer in existence at the time of the survey. Approximately 60% of these concluded partnerships existed for two years or less, 12% existed for longer than 2 years, and the respondents could not provide specific start and end dates for the remaining 26% partnerships. Among the active partnerships, 69 or 37% of all partnerships had existed for less than two years, suggesting these partnerships were in their early development that may or may not be sustainable over time. More than one third of the partnerships existed for two or more years (18% at two to five years and 15% at five or more years), which may reflect sustainable partnerships.

Lastly, more than 60% of the partnerships were rated as successful by the police respondent. The next most frequent response was the partnership was somewhat successful (21%), followed by a neutral response (21%), somewhat unsuccessful (2%), and only one agency (1%) reported their partnership was unsuccessful. These findings suggest that agencies who participate with researchers in partnerships tend to view them favorably. Although if there is a potential bias from the agencies who did not respond to the survey who had partnership experience, it is likely the agencies that had negative experiences would not want to complete a survey on partnerships with researchers being conducted by researchers.

Influences on Partnerships Involvement

The findings presented above illustrate that law enforcement involvement in partnerships with researchers is highly correlated with agency size. However, a review of Figure 2 reveals that even among large agencies (those agencies with 100 or more sworn personnel), a considerable number reported no involvement in a research partnership in the last five years. This section explores additional reasons that may explain the involvement in research partnerships. Analysis was first conducted with all responding agencies using data available from the survey and NDLEA. A second analysis was then conducted for all law enforcement agencies with 100 or more sworn personnel that allowed for the inclusion of data from the 2007 Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics (LEMAS) survey.

Influences on Research Partnership Involvement for all Agencies

The primary interest in the analysis of all agencies was to explore the influence of an agency's orientation to research on involvement in research partnerships. The literature review provided in chapter two articulates practitioner partnerships with researchers as a form of knowledge translation. Partnerships represent one way practitioners can draw research based

knowledge into their agencies. Another strategy is to simply review research-based knowledge that is published in various outlets, or what represents a form of knowledge transfer described in chapter two. Based on this argument, research partnerships and reviewing research publications are part of a more general pattern of knowledge translation. It is logical to deduce that agencies who review research publications are more likely to engage in partnerships with a researcher independent the influence of agency size. It is important to note that the one-time administration of the survey only allows for the ability to examine the possible correlation between these two practices, but not the direction of the relationship and thereby causation.

The overall sample contained 871 surveys, but 22 agencies were eliminated due to data missing for this analysis, resulting in 849 cases. Table 11 provides a description of variables and their associated distributions. The dependent variable was whether the agency reported engaging in a coordination or collaboration partnership. These represent the formal relationship of interest to the present study. Less than a quarter of the agencies (21%, n=181) reported participation in a one or both of these partnerships forms. Agency characteristics in the form of region, agency type, and size of agency represent control variables. Region was coded for the four regions of Northeast, Midwest, South, and West. Agency type was classified as police department, sheriff department, and state police/highway patrol. Based on the results presented in Table 8, agency size is a dichotomous variable separating with more or less than 100 sworn personnel.

The evaluation of research orientation effects encompassed four measures. The first measure is the response to whether agencies use research to inform their decisions on policy development and operations, with the responses of never (0), seldom (1), sometimes (2), and very often (3). The mean score for the 849 agencies examined was 1.95. While this measures a general organization of research, it does not necessarily suggest an orientation to knowledge

provided by the research/academic community that is central to the knowledge translation literature. This is illustrated in Table 5 where the overwhelming majority of respondents identify professional journals (e.g. Police Chief magazine, FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin) as their research outlets, which does not represent the outlets where members of the research community typically publish their empirical work. As a result, the reported use of academic journals and NIJ publications to inform agencies' decisions and practices are examined for their impact on partnership participation. As noted above, the articles and other materials published in these outlets are primarily produced by the research community. Nearly one third of the agencies reported the use of academic journals (32.7%) and more than half reported the use of NIJ publications (55.2%). As a contrast, the influence of professional publications, such as Police Chief magazine and FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, was also examined, with 81.5% of agencies reporting the use of this material to inform decisions.

Table 12 provides preliminary examination of the relationship between the three outlets and partnership participation. The results show the percentages of agencies reporting participation in a partnership with a researcher relative to their reported use of each publication outlet. There is significant relationship between the use of academic journals to inform decisions, with 14.2% of agencies reporting no use of academic journal reporting partnerships participation and 36.3% of agencies using these journals reporting participation ($p < .001$). A similar significant relationship is found with NIJ publications, with a 9.2% partnership participation rate among agencies reporting no use of these publications compared 31.3% who report the use of this information outlet ($p < .001$). There is a difference in the participation rate of those agencies that do and do not report the use of professional publications (15.9% and 22.7% respectively), but the relationship is not significant.

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics for Models Predicting Research Partnership Involvement for all Responding Agencies.

Variable	Code/Range	Frequency	Percent	Mean	Standard Deviations
Engaged in Partnership	(0) No	667	78.6%	1.95	.82
	(1) Yes	182	21.4%		
Northeast	(0) No	719	84.7%		
	(1) Yes	130	15.3%		
Midwest	(0) No	632	74.4%		
	(1) Yes	217	25.6%		
South	(0) No	558	65.7%		
	(1) Yes	291	34.3%		
West	(0) No	638	75.1%		
	(1) Yes	211	24.9%		
Police	(0) No	425	50.1%		
	(1) Yes	424	49.9%		
Sheriff	(0) No	457	53.8%		
	(1) Yes	392	46.2%		
State Police/Highway Patrol	(0) No	816	96.1%		
	(1) Yes	33	3.9%		
100 or More Sworn	(0) No	422	49.7%		
	(1) Yes	427	50.3%		
Use Research to inform	0-3				
Use Academic Journal	(0) No	571	67.3%		
	(1) Yes	278	32.7%		
Use NIJ Publication	(0) No	380	44.8%		
	(1) Yes	469	55.2%		
Use Professional Publication	(0) No	157	18.5%		
	(1) Yes	692	81.5%		

The results of the multivariate analysis of partnership participation for all responding agencies are presented in Table 13. The unit of analysis is the agency. The outcome is a dichotomous (1,0) indicator of whether the agencies participated in a partnership in the past five years, defined by involvement in either a coordination or collaboration form of partnership, or both. All variables in Table 13 are dichotomous measures with the variable label equal to one and the contrast set to zero, except for use of research to inform. This latter variable is categorical with four levels as defined above. The independent variables of primary interest are the use of the three outlets: academic journals, NIJ publications, and professional journals. The

coefficients are odds ratios (OR). OR values greater than one represent a positive relationship between the independent variable and the outcome, and those less than one represent a negative relationship.

Table 12. Partnership Involvement by Use of Research Outlet for all Responding Agencies (%)

Variables		Percent Reporting Partnership	Pearson χ^2
Use Academic Journals	No (<i>n</i> =571)	14.2%	54.45***
	Yes (<i>n</i> =278)	36.3%	
Use NIJ Publications	No (<i>n</i> =380)	9.2%	61.06***
	Yes (<i>n</i> =469)	31.3%	
Use Professional Publications	No (<i>n</i> =157)	15.9%	3.48
	Yes (<i>n</i> =692)	22.7%	

Column 1 in Table 13 contains the characteristics of responding agencies. Three of the regions where agencies exist (Midwest, South, and West) are entered with the Northeast set as the contrast, with no significant difference in partnership participation across these regions.

Whether an agency is a local police department or state law enforcement agency (state police/highway patrol) is entered in the models, with sheriff’s departments set as the contrast.

The odds of participation in a partnership are greater for police departments and state agencies relative to county agencies, additional analysis (not shown) revealed there is not a significant difference in the odds of participation between police department and states agencies. As expected, the odds of partnership are greater for large agencies.

Table 13. Effects of Agency Characteristics and Use of Research on Research Partnerships Involvement for all Responding Agencies

Variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Midwest	1.083 (.318)	1.158 (.334)	1.124 (.325)	1.184 (.3334)
South	1.193 (.293)	.973 (.312)	1.015 (.303)	1.029 (.311)
West	1.227 (.309)	1.251 (.326)	1.204 (.316)	1.313 (.325)
Police	2.699** (.198)	2.432** (.209)	2.278** (.204)	2.565** (.208)
State police/highway patrol	3.507** (.388)	3.535** (.423)	2.876** (.402)	3.599** (.419)
100 or more sworn	5.316** (.214)	4.231** (.225)	4.323** (.221)	4.547** (.223)
Use research to inform	--	1.471* (.149)	1.675** (.143)	1.560** (.148)
Use academic journals	--	1.740** (.205)	2.211** (.197)	--
Use NIJ publications	--	3.665** (.253)	--	--
Use of professional publications	--	.440** (.308)	.758 (.275)	--
No NIJ or professional	--	--	--	2.117 (.387)
Use NIJ Publications only	--	--	--	8.818** (.539)
Use NIJ and professional	--	--	--	4.194** (.274)
Log likelihood	760.01	692.44	722.08	692.44
Pseudo- R^2	.208	.310	.266	.310
<i>n</i>	849	8493	849	849

Column 2 in the table includes the measures of whether the agencies use research to inform their decisions in general, and the use of the specific outlets of academic journals, NIJ publications, and professional publications. The use of research in general to inform decisions on policies and operations increases the odds of partnership participation ($p < .05$). The odds of partnership participation were more than three times greater for those who used NIJ publications as opposed to those who reported they do not (OR = 3.665, $p < .01$). The rate of partnership participation was also 74% greater for agencies who reported using academic journals to inform policy and operations as opposed to those who do not (OR = 1.740, $p < .01$). Alternatively, the

reported use of professional publications decreased the odds of partnership participation by 56% (OR = .440, $p < .01$).

While the results for academic journals and NIJ publications are consistent with those presented in Table 12, the lack of a significant relationship in Table 12 for professional publications and its significant negative relationship in column two requires further investigation. This difference suggests an interaction with one or more of the other variables in the analysis. Additional analyses were conducted excluding all other variables one at a time. Professional publications held its significant negative relationship except when NIJ publications were removed. Column 3 presents the results of the analysis less the NIJ publications. All other variables hold their relationship with the odds of participating in a partnership except for professional publications, which is now non-significant. Based on these results, an additional analysis was conducted to examine the interaction of NIJ and professional publications.

Affirmative responses to the use of NIJ and professional publications are not mutually exclusive. It is possible that agencies rely on both, either, or neither. As a result, four additional dichotomous variables were created: do not use NIJ or professional publications, use of professional publications only, use of NIJ publications only, and use of NIJ and professional publications. Table 14 provides the distribution of these variables relative to partnership participation. Each cell provides the percentages of agencies reporting partnership participation in each category, along with the total number of agencies that fall within each category. Agencies reporting only the use of professional publications had the lowest participation rate at 8.1%, followed by not using either outlet at 11.3%. The use of only NIJ publications reported the highest participation rate at 41.7%, although only 24 agencies fell within this category. Agencies reporting the use of NIJ and professional publications had a 30.8% partnership participation rate.

These dichotomous variables were then entered into the multivariate analysis, with the use of professional publications as the contrast given its negative relationship in Column 2. Column 4 in Table 13 provides the results of this analysis. The control variables hold their prior levels regarding significance and direction of association. Although agencies reporting no use of NIJ or professional publications have greater odds of partnership participation relative to agencies reporting only the use of professional publications, relationship is not statistically significant. However, there is a significant relationship with agencies reporting only the use of NIJ publications, as well as NIJ and professional publications, relative to agencies reporting only the use of professional publications. Agencies reporting NIJ are almost 9 times as likely to participate in a partnership (OR = 8.818, $p < .01$) relative to agencies reporting professional publication use only, and agencies reporting the use of NIJ and professional publications have over four times the likelihood of participation (OR =4.194, $p < .01$).

Table 14. Partnership Involvement by Use of Research-based and Professional Outlets for all Responding Agencies (%)

Use Professional Journal Outlets (e.g Police Chief Mag)	Use Research Based Outlets (Academic Journals, NIJ Publications)	
	No	Yes
No	11.3% (n=118)	41.7% (n=24)
Yes	8.1% (n=247)	30.8% (n=445)

The results suggest that agencies that look to NIJ publications to inform their decisions are more likely to engage in partnerships, whether they use NIJ publications alone or in conjunction with professional publications. This result raises a second question of whether this is an NIJ specific effect or a research outlet effect. To examine this issue a series of four dummy variables were created similar to those in Column 4 for academic journals, Police Executive

Research Forum, and Police Foundation. Each of these represents sources that can be considered more research oriented outlets than professional publications. The same analysis as presented in Column 4 for NIJ publications were conducted for each of these variable sets. Table 15 provided the odds ratios for each of these variables sets. For reference, the number of agencies that fall within each category is provided, along with the percentages of agencies who reported partnership participation in each category.

Table 15. Odds-Ratios for Interactions with Professional Publications and Specific Research-Based Outlets for all Agencies.

Interactions	Number of Agencies in Category	Percent Reporting Partnership	OR
<u><i>NIJ Publication-Professional Publication</i></u>			
Professional Only	(n=247)	8.1%	<i>Reference</i>
No Professional or NIJ	(n=118)	11.3%	2.117
NIJ Only	(n=24)	41.7%	8.818**
Professional and NIJ	(n=445)	30.8%	4.194**
<u><i>Academic Journals-Professional Publications</i></u>			
Professional Only	(n=431)	14.2%	<i>Reference</i>
No Professional or Academic	(n=141)	14.2%	1.524
Academic Only	(n=16)	31.3%	1.814
Professional and Academic	(n=262)	36.6%	2.359**
<u><i>PERF-Professional Publications</i></u>			
Professional Only	(n=401)	11.0%	<i>Reference</i>
No Professional or PERF	(n=125)	10.4%	1.502
PERF Only	(n=32)	37.5%	2.428*
Professional and PERF	(n=291)	38.8%	2.706**
<u><i>Police Foundation-Professional Publications</i></u>			
Professional Only	(n=598)	17.7%	<i>Reference</i>
No Professional or Police Foundation	(n=147)	15.0%	1.366
Police Foundation Only	(n=10)	30.0%	1.088
Professional and Police Foundation	(n=94)	54.3%	3.167**

The NIJ results are again provided in Table 15 for reference. Each of the analyses presented in Table 15 were examined with the same control variables as used in Column 4 in Table 13. Also, the use of professional publications alone was the reference category for each

analysis. The control variables produced the same results across each analysis. Namely, the variables that were statistically significant for the NIJ analysis held for each of the outlets in Table 15, as did the directions of these relationships. The results provided in Table 15 show a similar pattern. The results across the four research-based outlets suggest there is a general research outlet influence.

Collectively, the results of Table 15 indicate there is a general research influence. Agencies who report using research-based outlets along with professional publications are more likely to report partnership participation than those that draw on professional publications only, and agencies reporting the use of research-based outlets alone were also more likely when measured collectively and for NIJ and PERF based sources. The findings also suggest that NIJ publications have the greatest influence among the research outlets. Additional analysis not shown here was conducted that included all control variables in Column 4 of Table 13, the four research-based outlets in Table 15, and professional publications. Agencies reporting the use of NIJ publications had the greatest likelihood of participating in a partnership (OR=3.068, $p<.01$), followed by the use of Police Foundation (OR=1.738, $p<.05$) and PERF (OR=1.591, $p<.05$) as sources to inform decisions. As found in Column 3 of Table 13, the reported use of professional publications reduced the likelihood of participation in partnerships. Although the agencies reporting the use of academic journals to inform decisions increase the odds of reporting partnerships participation, this relationship was not significant. Thus, NIJ publications led to the greatest increase in the odds an agency reported participation in a partnership with a researcher.

Influences on Research Partnership Involvement for Large Agencies

One of the limitations to the above analysis for all responding agencies is the lack of variables that capture other possible influences on partnership involvement. For example, the

review of the literature provided in chapter two highlights that federal funding to support police practitioner-researcher partnerships have been under initiatives to support community policing, problem-oriented policing, and intelligence-led policing more recently. Agencies oriented to adopting these new initiatives may be more interested in enlisting the assistance of the research community. This may be the result of agencies wanting to model grant-funded efforts on these initiatives. Alternatively, the research community has been heavily involved in evaluating these initiatives, or is engaged in the types of analytical efforts that support them. Thus, agencies have sought out members of the research community to assist in their efforts to implement these initiatives, regardless of whether they are aware of the above grant-funded models.

The Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics (LEMAS) survey provides some indirect measures that can be used to examine the influence of these initiatives on partnership participation. The LEMAS survey is administered on a periodic basis (approximately every 3 to 4 years) to every law enforcement agency with 100 or more sworn personnel and a sample of agencies with less than 100 sworn personnel. In the 2007 iteration of the survey, the survey was administered to 950 agencies with 100 or more personnel and 2,145 agencies with less than 100 sworn personnel, with 2,840 total agencies responding or 92% (Reaves, 2010). The present student study draws on the LEMAS sample of agencies with 100 or more sworn personnel to provide additional data to the agencies of similar size captured by the national survey of law enforcement agencies on police practitioner-researcher partnerships.

The agencies with 100 or more sworn personnel among those responding to the partnerships survey provide an interesting group for examination. Figure 2, along with the results presented in Table 13, illustrate that agencies with 100 or more sworn personnel are more likely to report participation in a partnership. Yet figure 2 also illustrates that partnership participation

in these larger agencies is not universal. More than 80% of agencies with 100 to 199 sworn personnel reported that they had no such experience, and more than 60% reported the same among agencies with 400 and 499 personnel. Even among the largest agencies with 1,000 or more sworn personnel, a third reported they did not participate in a partnership. The question of interest in the analysis that follows is whether influence of an orientation to research, measured by the use of research-based outlets to inform decisions, holds among these large agencies when accounting for additional influence captured through data from the LEMAS survey.

The analysis of large agencies focuses on local police and county law enforcement agencies, excluding state agencies, with a sample of 397 agencies with 100 or more sworn personnel that responded to the survey. Matching data from the 2007 LEMAS survey was available for 335 of the responding agencies. Table 16 provides a description of variables and their associated distributions. As expected, a larger percentage of agencies (37%) reported participation in partnerships than found in the complete sample of responding agencies. Police are the majority of agencies, and agencies from the South are a larger portion of the large agency sample than found in the full agency sample. In order to control for the impact of agency size, a series of six dichotomous variables were created that match the categories in Figure 2. This strategy was implemented as an alternative to entering agency size as a continuous variable. Given the wide range of agency size, the odds ratios produced were small as they would represent the increased odd per the increase of one officer in agency. The dichotomous strategy provides the opportunity to observe the influence of agency size among this sample of larger agencies while examining the influence of orientation to research and incorporated LEMAS measures.

The analysis follows the strategy for all responding agencies. The initial regression model only examines the influence of professional publications, NIJ publications, and academic journals as they represent the primary example of practitioner- and research-based outlets. The overwhelming majority of the large agencies (86%) report they use practitioner publications as a source for informing their decisions. Two-thirds of these agencies report using NIJ publications, but less than one half reported using (45%) academic publications. Table 17 provides a preliminary examination of the relationship between the three outlets and partnership participation for large agencies. The results show the percent of agencies reporting participation in a partnership with a researcher relative to their reported use of each publication outlet. The results are similar to those reported by all agencies responding to the survey. There is a significant relationship between the use of academic journal to inform decisions, with 25.3% of agencies reporting no use of academic journal reporting partnerships participation and 51.7% of agencies using these journals reporting participation ($p < .001$). A significant relationship is also found with NIJ publications, with a 17.0% partnership participation rate among agencies reporting the use of this outlet and 47.1% who report their use ($p < .001$). Similar to the pattern observed among all responding agencies, the difference in partnership participation among agencies who report the use of professional publications compared to those who do not is small (37.5% and 34.0%, respectively) and not significant.

Table 16. Descriptive Statistics for Models Predictive Research Partnership Involvement for Agencies with 100 or more Sworn Personnel

Variable	Code/Range	Frequency	Percent	Mean	Standard Deviations
Engaged in Partnership	(0) No	211	63.0%		
	(1) Yes	124	37.0%		
Northeast	(0) No	302	90.1%		
	(1) Yes	33	10.2%		
Midwest	(0) No	277	82.7%		
	(1) Yes	58	17.3%		
South	(0) No	177	52.8%		
	(1) Yes	158	47.2%		
West	(0) No	249	74.3%		
	(1) Yes	86	25.7%		
Police	(0) Sheriff Dept.	125	37.3%		
	(1) Police Dept.	210	62.7%		
100-199 Sworn	(0) No	221	66.0%		
	(1) Yes	114	34.0%		
200-299 Sworn	(0) No	274	81.8%		
	(1) Yes	61	18.2%		
300-399 Sworn	(0) No	290	86.6%		
	(1) Yes	45	13.4%		
400-499 Sworn	(0) No	304	90.7%		
	(1) Yes	31	9.3%		
500-999 Sworn	(0) No	304	89.6%		
	(1) Yes	31	10.4%		
1,000 Plus Sworn	(0) No	286	85.4%		
	(1) Yes	49	14.6%		
Problem Solving Scale	0-4			1.95	1.34
Computer Analysis Scale	0-5			3.95	1.42
Partnership Scale	0-9			5.99	3.11
Use Research to inform	0-3			2.16	.68
Use Academic Journal	(0) No	186	55.5%		
	(1) Yes	149	44.5%		
Use NIJ Publication	(0) No	112	33.4%		
	(1) Yes	223	66.6%		
Use Professional Publication	(0) No	47	14.0%		
	(1) Yes	288	86.0%		

Table 17. Partnership Involvement by Use of Research Outlet for Agencies With 100 or more Sworn Personnel (%)

Variables		Percent Reporting Partnership	Pearson χ^2
Use Academic Journals	No (<i>n</i> =183)	25.3%	24.75***
	Yes (<i>n</i> =149)	51.7%	
Use NIJ Publications	No (<i>n</i> =108)	17.0%	29.01***
	Yes (<i>n</i> =224)	47.1%	
Use Professional Publications	No (<i>n</i> =43)	34.0%	0.21
	Yes (<i>n</i> =289)	37.5%	

The 2007 LEMAS survey does not directly ask agencies a simple dichotomous question of whether they practice community policing, problem-oriented policing, or intelligence-led policing. However, the survey contains a series of questions that provide the ability to develop scales that can directly or indirectly measure the degree of agency involvement in these practices. For example, respondents are asked about their engagement in a variety of community and problem-oriented policing practices, such as training for officers on these efforts, related policies, community engagement, and officer use of the SARA model. Given the present study's interest in practitioner partnerships with researchers, questions that asked about agency orientation to analytically related efforts supporting community policing and problem solving were used to form a scale of problem solving practice. Table 18 provides a list of the four questions that form the Problem Solving Practice Scale: encouraging officers to engage in SARA-type efforts, including involvement in problem-solving in patrol officer evaluation, upgrading technology to support analysis of community problems, and conducting surveys. The problem solving practice scale is additive, ranging from 0 to 4 depending on how many affirmative responses the agency provides on engaging in these four issues. Agencies score on the scale is positively related to their orientation to problem solving efforts emblematic of community and problem-oriented policing. Table 16 provides the mean score for this scale at 1.95.

The LEMAS survey does not ask respondents any questions about activity under the term intelligence-led policing, but does inquire about practices that are in line with this policing approach. A central component to the recent Smart Policing initiative is the use software systems and databases to engage in crime analysis and mapping, hot spot identification, and other problem solving intelligence efforts (Smart Policing, n.d). In inquiring about agency computer and information systems, the LEMAS survey asks about the different functions for which agencies use computers that includes direct questions on the above uses for Smart Policing. These questions are used here to create an Analytical Computer Use scale that captures the analytical elements of the intelligence-led Smart Policing approach. Table 18 provides the five practices for which agencies reported on whether they used computers to accomplish: analysis of community problems, crime analysis, crime mapping, hotspot identification, and intelligence gathering. The Analytical Computer Use scale is additive and based on the dichotomous response to the use of computer for the five above sections, resulting in a possible score from 0 to 5. The mean score on this scale provided in table 16 for these large agencies is 3.95.

A third scale was also created that captures the degree to which agencies partner with organizations and entities other than researchers. Under the inquiry on community policing, agencies were asked if they had partnered with the following to engage in problem solving efforts: advocacy groups, business groups, faith-based groups, local government agencies (other than law enforcement), other law enforcement agencies, neighborhood associations, senior citizen groups, school groups, and youth service organizations. The introduction to this report highlighted the new direction of governance in public organizations that views partnerships as a strategy for agencies to manage their complex environments. Law enforcement partnering with researchers was framed as consistent with the model of public administration. By extension,

consideration is given to whether agencies who partner with these other groups are more likely to partner with researchers. An additional scale was created to capture the degree to which agencies partner with other organization and entities in order to measure their openness to partnership. Like the two other scales, the Problem Solving Partnerships scale is an additive measure based on summing the dichotomous response to whether they partnered with any of the nine groups listed above. As Table 16 reflects, agencies can receive a score of 0 through 9, with an average of 5.99.

Table 18. Problem Solving, Partnership, and Analysis Scales

Problem Solving Practice Scale

1. Actively encourage patrol officers to engage in SARA-Type problem-solving projects on their beats
2. Included collaborative problem-solving projects in the evaluation criteria of patrol officers
3. Upgraded technology to support the analysis of community problems
4. Conducted or sponsored a survey of citizens on crime, fear or crime, or satisfaction with police services.

Analytical Computer Uses

1. Analysis of Community Problems
2. Crime Analysis
3. Crime Mapping
4. Hotspot Identification
5. Intelligence gathering

Problem Solving Partnerships Scale

1. Advocacy groups
 2. Business groups
 3. Faith-based organizations
 4. Local government agencies (non-law enforcement)
 5. Other law enforcement agencies
 6. Neighborhood associations
 7. Senior citizen groups
 8. School groups
 9. Youth service organizations
-

Table 19 presents the multivariate analysis results of partnership participation for the large responding agencies, and follows the same format of the analysis for all responding agencies in Table 13. The unit of analysis is the agency. The outcome is a dichotomous (1,0)

indicator of whether the agencies participated in a partnership in the past five years, defined by involvement in either a coordination or collaboration form of partnership, or both. The region, agency type, and agency size are dichotomous measures with the variable label equal to one and the contrast set to zero. Table 16 provides the scales and associated ranges for the following categorical variables: use research to inform, problem solving partnership, partnership scale, and computer analysis. The three outlets used to inform decisions (academic journals, NIJ publications, professional publication) are dichotomous with the variable label equal to one and the contrast set to zero. The coefficients are the odds ratios.

Column 1 in Table 19 contains the characteristics of the responding agencies. The relationships for region and agency type are as found with all responding agencies. There is no significant difference in partnership participation across the regions, and this pattern holds regardless of which agency is set as the reference category. Police departments are significantly more likely to participate in partnerships than sheriff's departments. Agencies with 100 to 199 sworn personnel are set as the reference category for the remaining agency size categories. The remaining agency size categories illustrate the positive relationship presented in Figure 2. While increased odds for partnership participation are not significant for the first two categories, they are for the remaining categories starting with agencies with 400 to 499 sworn personnel.

Column 2 adds the LEMAS-based scales on problem solving efforts, other partnership participation, and computer analysis uses. Only the degree of problem solving involvement has a significant relationship with participation in a partnership. The odds of partnership participation increase 34% with each additional problem solving practice that an agency engages in.

Table 19. Effects of Agency Characteristics. Problem Solving, Partnering, Analysis Systems and Use of Research on Research Partnerships Involvement for Agencies with 100 or more Sworn Personnel

Variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Midwest	.874 (.544)	.836 (.552)	1.071 (.591)	.848 (.561)	.850 (.590)
South	1.138 (.479)	1.003 (.490)	.880 (.527)	.837 (.506)	.939 (.520)
West	1.221 (.497)	.992 (.506)	1.211 (.548)	.970 (.519)	1.265 (.544)
Police	4.131** (.294)	3.499** (.311)	3.568** (.329)	3.126** (.319)	3.605** (.331)
200-299 Sworn	1.879 (.386)	1.677 (.397)	1.482 (.422)	1.522 (.409)	1.551 (.418)
300-399 Sworn	2.130 (.427)	1.950 (.440)	1.830 (.467)	1.671 (.455)	1.962 (.461)
400-499 Sworn	4.651** (.474)	4.275** (.491)	5.651** (.532)	4.080** (.503)	5.908** (.531)
500-999 Sworn	6.352** (.444)	5.417** (.463)	4.819** (.484)	4.598** (.470)	5.090** (.485)
1,000 Plus Sworn	11.869** (.424)	9.826** (.441)	11.388** (.486)	9.059** (.454)	11.512** (.487)
Problem Solving Scale	--	1.338* (.115)	1.229 (.124)	1.282* (.119)	1.249 (.124)
Partnership Scale	--	1.062 (.050)	1.041 (.056)	1.055 (.052)	1.040 (.055)
Computer Analysis Scale	--	.984 (.118)	.973 (.125)	.973 (.121)	.978 (.124)
Use Research to inform	--	--	1.213 (.226)	1.402 (.114)	1.285 (.224)
Use Academic Journals	--	--	1.579 (.311)	2.230** (.293)	--
Use NIJ Publications	--	--	5.465** (.414)	--	--
Use of Professional Publications	--	--	.346* (.466)	.698 (.420)	--
No research-based or professional	--	--	--	--	3.320*
Use research-based only	--	--	--	--	(.604) 13.286**
Use research and professional	--	--	--	--	(.835) 7.034**
Log likelihood	361.78	349.49	317.63	337.23	319.43
Pseudo-R ²	.289	.328	.422	.365	.417
n	335	335	335	335	335

Column 3 includes the measures of whether the agencies use research to inform their decisions in general, and the use of the specific outlets of academic journals, NIJ publications, and professional publications. The patterns observed in Column 2 for the direction of relationship and significance hold for agency characteristics and the LEMAS based problem solving, partnership, and computer analysis use scales. While the general use of research to inform decisions and the use of research journals is not significant, the pattern of significant relationships found for all responding agencies hold for NIJ publications and professional publications. The odds of partnership participation were more than five times greater for those who used NIJ publications as opposed to those who reported they do not (OR = 5.465, $p < .01$). The reported use of professional publications decreased the odds of partnership participation by 65% (OR = .346, $p < .05$)

These results mirror those presented above where there is a non-significant relationship in the chi-square analysis between the use of professional publications and partnership participation, but has a significant negative relationship with partnership participation when entered in the multivariate analysis. Following the strategy pursued in the analysis of all responding agencies, analyses were conducted excluding all other variables one at a time. The results were the same, the negative significant relationship for professional publication holds except with when NIJ publications are removed. As Column 4 presents, the relationship between professional publications and partnership participation is negative but non-significant when NIJ publications is removed. Column 5 provides the subsequent analysis with variables dividing the respondents by whether they reported using both, either, or neither professional and NIJ publications. The results are again similar to that of the analysis for all responding agencies. With agencies reporting only the use of professional publications set as the reference category,

the odds that agencies who reported using only NIJ publications reported partnership participation was thirteen times greater (OR=13.286, $p<.01$). The odds are seven times greater (OR=7.034, $p<.01$) that an agency reporting the use of NIJ and professional publications engaged in a partnerships relative to agencies who reported using only professional publications. The difference between the rates of partnership participation between agencies reporting the use of professional publications and neither outlets is significant, where the odds is more than three times greater for agencies reporting neither (OR=3.320, $p<.05$), holding other independent variables constant.

Analysis was also conducted for each of the additional outlets that can be considered research-based, with the results presented in Table 20. The NIJ results are again provided in Table 20 for reference. Each of the analyses presented in Table 20 were examined with the same control variables as used in column 5 of Table 19. The use of professional publications alone was the reference category for each analysis. The control variables produced the same results across each analysis. All control variables, significant and non-significant, for the NIJ analysis held for each of the outlets in Table 20, except for the problem solving scale and the use of research in general to inform decisions. In each of the additional analyses, the problem solving scale number was significant at the .05 level and raised the odds of partnership participation in each case by approximately 30% for each additional problem solving action measured. In addition, the use of the Police Foundation as an information source was significant at the .05 level, increasing the odds of partnership participation by 54%.

Tables 20 reveals the results for the other research-based outlets diverge from the pattern observed with NIJ publications and results found for these other outlets in the analysis for all respondents. Only in cases where respondents reported using academic, PERF, and Police

Foundation in conjunction with professional publications were the odds ratios significant relative to respondents who reported using professional publications on their own. Additional analysis not shown here included all variables in column 5 in Table 19, the four research-based outlets, and professional publications. Only NIJ publications out of the four research-based outlets significantly influence partnership participation, with the odds of participation being four times more likely (OR = 4.713, $p < .01$).

Table 20. Odds-Ratios for Interactions with Professional Publications and Specific Research-Based Outlets for Large Agencies.

Interactions	Number of Agencies in Category	Percent Reporting Partnership	OR
<u><i>NIJ Publication-Professional Publication</i></u>			
Professional Only	(<i>n</i> =76)	10.5%	<i>Reference</i>
No Professional or NIJ	(<i>n</i> =36)	30.6%	3.320*
NIJ Only	(<i>n</i> =11)	45.5%	13.286**
Professional and NIJ	(<i>n</i> =212)	47.2%	7.034**
<u><i>Academic Journals-Professional Publications</i></u>			
Professional Only	(<i>n</i> =146)	23.3%	<i>Reference</i>
No Professional or Academic	(<i>n</i> =40)	32.5%	1.739
Academic Only	(<i>n</i> =7)	42.9%	1.600
Professional and Academic	(<i>n</i> =142)	52.1%	2.403**
<u><i>PERF-Professional Publications</i></u>			
Professional Only	(<i>n</i> =97)	14.4%	<i>Reference</i>
No Professional or PERF	(<i>n</i> =24)	20.8%	1.420
PERF Only	(<i>n</i> =23)	47.8%	2.739
Professional and PERF	(<i>n</i> =191)	49.2%	2.501*
<u><i>Police Foundation-Professional Publications</i></u>			
Professional Only	(<i>n</i> =215)	29.3%	<i>Reference</i>
No Professional or Police Foundation	(<i>n</i> =42)	33.3%	1.371
Police Foundation Only	(<i>n</i> =5)	40.0%	2.381
Professional and Police Foundation	(<i>n</i> =73)	61.6%	2.515**

CHAPTER 5: INTERVIEWS - THE BENEFITS OF PARTNERING

The agency surveys were used to select a sample of practitioner-researcher partnership participants for in-depth interviews, as was described in Chapter 3. Although the interviews included practitioners and researchers, the former were targeted for questions pertaining to the benefits practitioners received from research partnerships. In turn, the majority of this chapter is focused on the benefits practitioners reported relative to their respective agencies. Still, several practitioners noted benefits to the policing community broadly speaking and those are provided at the conclusion of this chapter, as are researchers' descriptions of the benefits they received from partnering with agencies. The analysis of interviews followed a multi-stage thematic approach, which was detailed in Chapter 3, and so the results were logically presented in a thematic format as well. The nature of the interview protocol prohibited the quantification of codes and themes. Instead, only the most salient benefits of research partnerships were included herein.

Police practitioner-researcher partnerships afforded many benefits to this sample of law enforcement agencies, in accordance with prior research on the topic. At least 21 practitioners reported research partnerships benefitted their agencies as well as the researchers, and referred to them as “mutually beneficial,” and “a win for everybody.” A deputy chief from a Midwestern police department⁹ reported working on several partnerships and explained, “I think of it as a win-win situation for the police departments and the universities...Policing needs to improve, and the best way to get that done is by studying what is and isn't working. I can't think of a better way of doing this than partnering with researchers.” An officer from a Southeastern police

⁹ Unless otherwise noted, law enforcement agencies' employed over 100 sworn personnel. Additionally, “small” agencies had 10 to 24 sworn personnel and “medium” departments had 25 to 99 sworn staff members, based on the aforementioned survey responses.

department remarked, “I think they definitely have a place to benefit both agencies,” and went on to draw an analogy to a field often referenced with respect to researcher-practitioner partnerships when he said, “look at the arrangement in the medical field with teaching hospitals and medical schools, it works for that profession. I would like to think there would be a place for such an arrangement within law enforcement and criminal justice institutes of higher learning.”

Certain outcomes were beneficial to both parties, for instance, partnerships in this sample were awarded the International Association of Chiefs of Police [IACP] Excellence in Law Enforcement Research Award, Webber Seavey Award for Quality in Law Enforcement, and Thomson Reuters Award for Excellence in Criminal Investigations, in addition to state and local accolades. However, most benefits were acquired by one party or the other, as noted by a respondent from a police department in the West who stated, “I would certainly include and encourage law enforcement to be open to possible research partnerships with educational institutions. Even though they might not be directly related, there are benefits to both institutions and ultimately to communities.” Turning to the primary focus of this chapter, the benefits of these partnerships to practitioners, the chief of a small police department in the Northeast felt, “They can’t be negative. They always benefit the organization if they are being truthful.” The chief of a much larger agency in the Midwest correspondingly observed, “There’s only good to be gained from those partnerships.”

The remainder of this chapter describes the benefits of police practitioner-researcher partnerships, beginning with agencies’ exposure to novel perspectives and ideas from academia. Second, the benefits of researcher knowledge of content and technologies, along with knowledge of research methodology, are discussed. A few practitioners reported benefitting from informal access to researcher’s knowledge of methods and content. The benefits of researchers who, due

to their externality to the agencies and topics, were perceived as objective are described. Next, the benefits of increased efficiency and utilization of research within partnering agencies are noted. The last two sections of benefits to agencies are devoted to those of keen interest to police practitioners, relationships with their communities and public safety in their jurisdictions, respectively. The final two sections of this chapter briefly list benefits to the law enforcement community in general and researcher partners, which emerged as relevant themes although they were not included in the interview protocol.

New Ideas and Perspectives from Academia

At least 23 law enforcement agencies in the sample benefitted from exposure to new perspectives and ideas in general, which resulted from their partnerships with external researchers. Several with extensive research experiences reflected on such benefits, including a major from a Southern police department that participated in several research partnerships who said, “I’ve worked with university academics before, and they have pros and cons. One pro, university researchers are usually on the cutting edge of the field. They bring new ideas, which is really good. Working together creates a synergy of work and ideas.” A planning and research analyst from a police department in the Southwest that partnered with a nearby criminologist and his colleagues’ opined, “I do think there are benefits, but that’s my background. I see the value of getting an independent observer, getting the highbrow perspective, the outside perspective.” He added, “I’ve been doing this for 38 years, and I still learn something from this. There is always something to getting an outside perspective.”

Other practitioners described benefitting from specific projects, such as a police department in the Southeast that was mandated by the U.S. Department of Homeland Security to update their continuity of operations plans and work with a pre-determined group of researchers

from a nearby university. A captain stated his agency benefitted from “a new set of eyes on an old problem.” A police department in the South recently began their partnership with a nearby criminologist to implement intelligence-led policing but the chief reported it already helped “begin to open minds of commanders and officers about new ways to identify and deal with problems in the community.” He added, “The reality is researchers are bringing ideas, but from a law enforcement perspective, we’re bringing the reality.” Finally, a police department in the Southeast was awarded a federal grant for intelligence-led policing that mandated an external evaluator. The agency’s representative explained his agency benefitted because the social scientists possessed “a slightly different perspective,” and “bring a different viewpoint. Someone not in cop shops sees a different perspective.”

Two partnerships of varying durations were formed specifically to establish internship programs between academic and law enforcement departments, and practitioners reported their interns provided new ideas as well. A field intelligence officer from a sheriff’s department in the Northeast coordinated their internship program with undergraduate students from a local college’s criminal justice department and said the interns provided “a different lens to look at problems.” A second partnership placed law students in a police department that served the Midwestern city “for many years” to work on collaboratively-chosen summer research internships. A captain said the interns “give new ideas to the police department,” and “provided a new angle to the problem.” The researcher, who has worked as both a practitioner and researcher on many partnerships over his career, added he “had just attended a new, large scale initiative by the [police department] that improved the way they deal with violent and persistent offenders in [their jurisdiction]. That initiative was based on one of these internship projects.”

Knowledge and Best Practices from Criminal Justice

Practitioners benefitted from content knowledge of researchers, many of whom were trained and employed in the field of criminology and criminal justice. One case in point formed after a captain in a Southeastern police department was tasked with implementing a data-driven management model in his agency. He reviewed prior research on the topic and eventually contacted the author of several published papers. Since that time, the partnership has expanded in terms of topics and researchers as the original partner introduced the agency to colleagues in his university's criminology and criminal justice department and to other nearby criminologists. When asked about the benefits of this partnership, the practitioner, since promoted to deputy chief, remarked that the researchers were "some of the best minds in criminology," and later reported that the initial researcher was part of his agency's "best practices committee," which conducted annual reviews of the organization.

Another partnership began when a criminologist attended a training seminar by her Midwestern city's police department and was "approached by the captain over the sensitive crimes unit at the [police department]. He said he had a problem with getting his investigators to take sexual assault cases that involved prostitutes, and wanted to know if I could do some analysis that would shed some light on the issue and inform his investigators." The researcher responded that she "does not have the answers," but instead "has skills to offer and will work hard." She was collecting data in the agency when interviewed. The agency's representative explained the perceived benefits to his agency as follows: "If we can identify factors that make law enforcement sometimes not believe when a prostitute has been sexually assaulted, then we can develop training processes to address these issues." He added, generally, "I think it is a

positive, positive thing,” because research partners “are able to analyze issues of concern in a department and recommend solutions to problems.”

Many practitioners partnered with policing scholars from colleges and universities’ criminology and criminal justice departments and benefitted from customized policies, strategies, and programs that had been used by other agencies. For instance, the following three partnerships were initiated by agencies to implement violent and gang crime reduction models designed elsewhere. The first began when a police department in the Northeast witnessed “a sharp increase in homicides in [the city],” and the mayor and a councilman “began examining models to reduce homicides and found [a specific model].” Next, the councilman traveled to meet with the designer and the agency benefitted, according to the responding assistant chief, because they wanted to implement the model but didn’t know “how to get going.”

A Southeastern police department “found that 23 of the last 25 homicides, the victim or the known offender was either a gang member or a suspected gang member,” said a representative. At the same time, the governor had convened a crime commission that was searching for pilot sites to implement a strategy with a pre-determined research team that trained recipients on the model and then evaluated its implementation. The responding practitioner observed the “advantage of [the researchers’ university] is they lend their advanced training, thinking though logistic issues and laying the groundwork.” A deputy chief from the other side of the country explained his police department’s partnership was initiated “to discover root causes of violent crime in [the city], mostly due to high gang population.” The chief at that time “reached out to [the researcher] because he has done projects in the past and wanted a similar model.” The deputy chief reported the benefits of that partnership were “recommendations to drive down violent crime rate.”

A final example was from a Northeast city and began when the chief was leading a smaller nearby agency and worked on several crime reduction strategies with a policing researcher. The relationship continued after the chief was hired by a larger police department because he “was convinced that having a person such as [the researcher] would be helpful as a policy advisor in [their new department],” the practitioner reported. He stated the criminologist benefitted his agency because “He is an expert in the field and brought knowledge and experience to the table that we did not have.” Regarding the specific project that was the focus of the interviews, the chief said, “Benefits were perceived to be a better understanding of gun and gang violence and ways to reduce or manage them.” The chief noted the partnership was “ongoing and flourishing,” and “hopes it will last for a long time,” as evidenced by the fact that the researcher had an office in the police department. He added, “In fact, [the researcher] is well-accepted by the sworn and civilian members of the department. He is accepted as a senior-level advisor.”

Other partnerships benefitted practitioners by employing knowledge of best practices in criminal justice by identifying and addressing specific areas for improvement in their agencies. The following two examples were initiated when domestic violence experts approached their respective Midwestern cities’ police departments to audit and improve their policies and procedures. The first agency’s partnership examined the entire enforcement practice, from calls-for-service to case charging, and created a customized framework for the agency. At the time of the interview, the agency was planning another audit to be conducted by their research partner, who had become “part of the family,” to examine implementation of those changes. The benefits to the agency were that their partner, known locally and abroad, was the “number one expert on domestic violence research.”

The second partnership began when a medium-sized agency was approached to partner with researchers on a grant from the Office on Violence Against Women. The chief said there was “an ever-present need for improving services provided to domestic violence victims.” After training, the researcher collected data on calls for service, police reports, and photos; she also conducted observations of several units in that agency as well as their county sheriff’s office. The responding chief of police listed four benefits: “determine the best way to handle domestic violence calls,” “learn how to better help domestic violence victims,” “provide officers a better understanding of the domestic violence cycle,” and “training for officers.” The researcher also “found ways to better serve domestic violence victims in the area,” and “The [police department] learned more about domestic violence.” The agency was “so pleased that [they] imposed an internal deadline of one year to implement these changes.”

Concepts and Technologies from Other Fields

In many cases, police practitioners approached researchers for assistance answering research questions that were important to internal audiences and required specialties beyond criminology and criminal justice. Two different agencies in this sample partnered with the same psychologist, at different times, to address concerns about racial biases after officer-involved shootings in their police departments. The first began because, according to a responding department representative, “we had a couple of officer-involved shootings and it was a critical social question that needed to be answered so that’s what spurred it.” The researcher explained, “the way the story goes is that we had just published our first article on racial bias and police shootings. The commander in [one of the department’s districts] was working on her Ph.D. at the time and she had read about our research in the newspaper. She called my dissertation supervisor, which in turn opened the potential collaboration. So the commander initiated the

interaction.” The psychologist reported, “my responsibilities involved recruiting, running the participants [through scenarios], gathering and exploring data, and tabulating the results.” The division chief stated her agency benefitted from “answering our research question about bias in deadly force.” The second partnership with a police department in the West “was in response to the incident involving [their officers]. This created consternation amongst the police officers, many of whom thought the issue contained a racial bias. They then contacted us,” the researcher said. The responding police executive noted that their police department and the governor were the driving forces behind the research, which “tested all the recruits who entered the police academy in [a cohort] to determine their levels of racial bias.” The practitioner felt, “Benefits were perceived to be a better understanding of possible racial prejudices among recruits and officers.”

Several police practitioners partnered with researchers who were formerly practitioners themselves, albeit in fields often not associated with policing, reported ideas and knowledge were transferred and benefitted their agencies nonetheless. The first included a researcher whose background was in the local, public, K-12 education system but since opened a consulting firm. The partnership addressed gang crime by focusing on elementary students and included a city police department, two local school districts, local prosecutor’s offices, and a second local law enforcement department that served the targeted schools. The responding practitioner, a lieutenant in the police department, stated the benefits of their research partner as follows: “She had 40 years of experience working in schools and experience writing grants and had collaborated with the school districts before.” The researcher’s experience in education and with the local schools was used to craft and implement the gang and afterschool programs in a district with which she had first-hand knowledge. The lieutenant added, “We can’t do it on our own, we

need help.” In this instance, the practitioner said they benefitted because “we are good at locking people up but not working with elementary school students,” and concluded, “Police must be able to identify their strengths and be open for help where they have weaknesses.” Other members of the partnership benefitted similarly, according to the lieutenant, who reflected, “district attorney’s and school administrators needed new ideas for addressing an old problem.”

The second agency reached out to local researchers with military backgrounds after city officials, according to the responding deputy chief, “decided to collaborate to find new ideas for addressing gangs in the community.” He added, “We had just come off two record breaking years for homicides, so we were shopping for help.” The practitioner explained, “they came in saying ‘we’re not the experts in [the city], we only know the model.’ So we could draw in their expertise to apply this to our problem.” The research team “coached and led the city in customizing the military model for civilian use, and the deputy chief added that “There is also the technology component; they’ve brought in software and equipment.”

Other practitioners also benefitted from technologies that were developed by content knowledge experts in fields beyond policing. For example, a police department in the Southeast reported several research projects with a university in their city, and the most recent began after the chief attended a summer course for law enforcement executives where the researcher presented information on social network analysis (SNA) and software. When asked about the benefits of this partnership, the interviewee, who was in charge of operations and planning, said his agency “didn’t know much about SNA. We viewed that this is something we could benefit in the use with criminal organizations in the city, gangs, drug groups.” The practitioner reported his agency “saw this as another tool in the tool box with analysts and an investigative tool,” and said “We had been doing link charts forever, putting the information and linking it together. What is

the difference is that this is based on the social aspect, looking at relations between people. [The researcher's] knowledge allowed us to draw on the research in sociology to inform networks and crime." When asked to provide general sentiments regarding partnerships with researchers, the responding practitioner concluded that "They bring an outside-the-box mentality. They look at it differently."

Several police practitioners partnered with researchers to develop new technologies or software. A partnership between a Northeastern state police department and two researchers was beneficial simply because, according to the responding lieutenant, "a computer forensics expert was needed and there are not many researchers in that field." The partnership was funded by the federal government and developed a protocol to identify online viewers and disseminators of child pornography. The practitioner thought, "Partnerships are good to have," and added, "There is technology that we don't even know about, we need to work with people dedicated to the field of computer forensics in order to learn new ideas."

In the West, a police department partnered with a researcher in the area of information technology because, according to a representative, "the essential benefits of the initial research project was to develop software that could be used to monitor particular algorithms during the interview process to determine immediately if the interview is going one way or another. You know, just to give more accurate guidance on where to take it. That kind of software could be certainly beneficial to our department. Specifically, the more real world the data is then the more effective the actual software becomes to us." Finally, a medium-sized police department in the Midwest initiated a project with a nearby university-based psychologist to develop and study crime event simulators, and the respondent described the benefits of the particular project as "technology that is affordable and is tailored to fit needs of police personnel. It is a big picture

win for everybody.” He continued, “We did develop software that can be used against active shooters within the school...so if or when another Columbine occurs they are ready and prepared.”

Research Methodologies

Police practitioner-researcher partnership participants benefitted from exposure to and utilization of researchers’ methodological knowledge and abilities, such as a sheriff’s office in the West that volunteered to receive funding from their state’s transportation department to collect traffic stop data and analyze it for racial biases. The agency partnered with a criminologist because he completed a similar study in another state, as well as a local criminologist who worked in the city and had previously conducted research with the department. According to the project manager in that agency, the benefit of this partnership was simply that the “research partners provided expertise in research methods.”

A medical school-based psychology professor’s partnership began when he and colleagues received grants and conducted research in several Northeast communities related to substance abuse prevention with a variety of organizations including law enforcement. The researcher conducted surveys in the police department for that initial project. Later, the psychologist offered to evaluate the effectiveness of a newly established domestic violence unit in the police department. The chief of police stated his department benefitted from someone “trained in research,” with “scientifically-sound principals.” The researcher explained he revised the original evaluation design “to be executable” from a randomized trial to victim surveys. A police department in the Southeast initiated a partnership when the interviewee, a captain at the time, needed advice implementing a strategy and contacted a criminologist who had published extensively in the content area and worked at a local university. Over time the researcher and his

colleagues helped their partner agency design and implement that strategy. When the partnership later applied for a federal grant to evaluate their efforts, the practitioner allowed the researchers to devise the methods because “we know what we don’t know,” in terms of research design. Since that time, the partnership remained active, conducted other research projects, and evaluated newly implemented technology.

Many law enforcement agencies applied for funding voluntarily, partnered with external researchers as conditions of their awards, and benefitted from assistance with evaluation designs. For instance, a West coast police department applied for state funding to address their city’s gang violence and their research partnership formed, according to a captain, “because it was a requirement for the grant.” He explained they “applied for the grant and knew what they wanted to do, but researchers developed the plan for studying results.” When asked about benefits, the practitioner reported the researchers “provided expertise in design of the project.” The captain concluded, “We have data coming out of our ears. It’s great that you guys are willing to come out and help us see what strategies work in the community.” A Southeastern city’s medium-sized police department was selected as a treatment site for the federally-administered Operation Weed and Seed program. The research partners were located in the sociology program of a university located in a nearby city in the state and the responding practitioner reflected, “We felt that it would be good to have professors with their experience and educational background give a look at the problem to see how well the execution was.”

In addition to evaluation designs and results, a considerable number of agencies benefitted from researchers who created, administered, and analyzed surveys. Several partnerships conducted citizen satisfaction surveys, including a police department in the Midwest that wanted to evaluate their community policing initiative and “needed the assistance in putting

together a survey that would ask the right questions and get the answers that we need to better the department,” a lieutenant said. In a bordering state, another police department partnered with the research center in one of the city’s universities “for several years” to conduct annual surveys of citizens’ contacts with the police department. According to an interviewed lieutenant, “The method was provided by the [agency], [the university] determined the sampling procedure.” He added, “Researchers are specialists in surveys and sampling procedures.”

Many practitioners who benefitted from researchers’ assistance creating surveys also reported benefitting from analyses of those surveys. A Midwestern police department contacted a university located in an adjacent city because “we wanted to find out how to do surveys and methodology, and were interested in the type of information we would receive from the survey,” a representative stated. He explained, “The perceived benefit was having the university, which has the expertise to develop surveys and find out what numbers fall within the percentage confidence intervals.” He concluded, “I think agencies would be foolish not to partner with the universities. They are experts in terms of methodology and are an invaluable resource. They know how to ask questions and make the survey valid.”

A police department in the Southeast partnered with a researcher because they re-established their goals as an organization every three years and wanted citizens’ input, which they decided to ascertain using citizen satisfaction surveys. The project manager said, “I wanted to ensure the survey was going to be accurate academically, unbiased, and reflect the true beliefs of the citizens so I needed assistance from someone who was specialized.” The practitioner observed, “[the researcher] brought her expertise and the expertise of her Ph.D. students to the table, and they were responsible for drafting questions and devising distribution methods that

complimented what I was hoping to achieve with the research.” A final benefit of the partnership was researchers’ abilities to “organize the information and quantify it.”

Practitioners benefitted from statistical and analytical support of partners on projects other than evaluation and survey research as well. For example, the chief of a police department in the Midwest was approached by an in-state researcher at a conference who volunteered to analyze their use of force data. When asked what the specific benefits of that active project were, the principal planner replied, “having complex statistical analyses of data.” A partnership with a Midwestern police department began when the chief was working for another agency in the state where a criminologist from a university in the city conducted numerous projects including a community-based crime prevention initiative. When the practitioner was hired by another department he wanted to expand that project to his new jurisdiction and contacted his former agency’s partner. He stated that the benefit to his agency was the criminologist “analyzed the data and identified the problem.” A police department in the Northeast “partnered with the [researcher’s organization] because we have a crime analysis division, we employ [the researcher’s] personnel in the center. It is a police intelligence center that aims to link patterns and identify people involved in crime,” a representative explained. When asked about the benefits, he responded, “The agency wanted to do extensive crime analysis. The [research institute’s] employees were brought in to specialize in crime mapping and intelligence,” and added that “partnerships are very beneficial” in general, this “stands out. The goal was to use crime analysis to lower the crime rate.”

Lastly, practitioners partnered with researchers for analytical assistance and reported they had benefitted from improvements to internal databases as well. A respondent from a police department on the West coast said they partnered with numerous researchers from across the

country on a less-lethal technology project because “We had the data, but it needed to be examined in a scientific manner, with reliable statistics.” He added, “The researchers working with our data also helped clean our database. We had duplicates that they identified. They helped make the database better.” A police department in Northeast first partnered with a nearby researcher to do the analysis, “for a model to prevent domestic violence in the city.” She further described the benefits and noted, “Her closeness to the data, I trust the data. It's absolute drop dead data, absolute and it's clean. I won't trust our own systems. If an officer enters a report of a shooting then it transitions into a homicide it usually will not be changed in the system. It will still be a shooting. [The researcher] makes these changes.”

Informal Advice and Consulting

Many of the aforementioned practitioners benefitted from researchers' advice and assistance in contractual relationships. However, practitioners also benefitted from informal access to researchers as well, as demonstrated by the following three partnerships over many years and projects. The first formed several years ago because a captain in a Southeastern police department was tasked with customizing a managerial strategy for implementation in his agency. He began by reviewing the extant literature on that topic, which included several papers written by the soon-to-be research partner. The practitioner said he kept coming back to the same criminologist's works and asked him to make a presentation to the leadership. The researcher characterized this early stage of the partnership as “informal meetings,” “general conversations,” and “fact finding.” Over time, the partnership expanded as the initial researcher included several colleagues and information-gathering turned to consulting during the planning and implementation phases of the first project. Shortly after conducting their first evaluation the captain who initiated the partnership was promoted to deputy chief and began researching

potential crime reduction strategies for that role. Again, the practitioner consulted with their research partners from the earlier project, who introduced them to an ever-expanding group of colleagues with knowledge of this particular strategy. The partnership expanded in terms of topics and research partners and results from these projects have received awards and been shared at academic conferences, at which the practitioners were invited to present or just attend.

In a second instance, a New England police department worked with a researcher in the area for many years. The researcher had worked for the city for even longer. The agency representative, a grants coordinator in the agency, said her agency benefitted from “Access to timely data. She's an e-mail away. For whatever reason the U.S. Attorney calls and says they need data and I don't have the data, I call [the researcher].” The researcher provided an example, “I was working on a BJA gang grant, there was a requirement that was a research question, I went to her.” The grants coordinator continued, “Another thing is her local availability, on a formal and informal basis. She'll stop by regularly on her way into [their university]. You can't dismiss [the researcher].” The practitioner remarked, “There's the fact that, unlike most researchers, she's here two to three times a week. She's always accessible.”

Finally, a policing scholar approached the police department shortly after accepting a job in one of the Midwestern city's universities. The researcher reported, “Over time I was able to establish a relationship built on trust by working on several small projects at reduced rates, often involving doctoral students.” A captain from the agency said the researcher is “accessible” and a “true partner,” and added that “this is the best partnership” he worked on in over 25 years in law enforcement. The criminologist confirmed she “talks with people at the [police department] every day including weekends.” Informal access to these two researchers' knowledge and skills,

the focus of this section, also benefitted agencies by virtue of the often-voluntary nature of these consultations, which is discussed in a following section on funding.

Validity and Objectivity

Law enforcement agencies benefitted from valid research for internal agency purposes. For instance, a Midwestern police department partnered with a domestic violence research organization and a finance manager from the agency reported, “We like to know what we did. We can say it, but this validates what we did.” A psychologist worked with numerous police departments throughout the United States and reported, regarding a Midwestern police department, “The results of the study showed that police officers made faster, less biased decisions when compared to untrained civilians. This made police training and their experiences valid and made the police look good.” A Southeastern police department was awarded a federal grant and the responding crime analyst said, “Personally I was interested in whether the method and approaches I had developed were validated via independent testing.” The practitioner explained, “The agency wanted to articulate what we were doing, that our model appeared to be working. For some reason you need an r-value to say something.” Finally, a police department in the Northeast hired a police chief who brought a research partner from his prior agency. The practitioner interviewee stated they had benefitted because the criminologist “maintains his independence and tells us like it is. He doesn’t just tell us what we want to hear.”

Law enforcement agencies also benefitted from partnerships with researchers who were perceived to be objective to external parties as well. A Southern sheriff’s office’s representative explained, “Primarily, we wanted to do a survey because we had never done a community survey, we wanted an independent source to validate it.” The practitioner noted the researchers “Also went through to validate methods to ensure it was random specific sample and validated

questions to make sure the questions weren't biased." When asked to describe the benefits to their agency, the respondent said "We were able to have [an] independent source that way if anyone questioned it was validated by [a university]."

Other practitioners used the term credibility. For instance, the representative from a Southeastern sheriff's office described the benefits as follows: "When you have a law enforcement officer get up and say one thing, people think it's an opinion of that law enforcement officer. But when someone with a Ph.D. says the same thing, it reinforces it and makes our cases on law enforcement end much stronger. When you have a separate institution, especially a university with credibility, reviewing and being held accountable by someone outside your own spectrum helped us continue to receive grant money. Shows we are changing and trying to make things better." Lastly, a Gulf coast police department's partnership was initiated by the business community. In judging the merit of the partnership, which included surveys and interviews of officers and citizens, the practitioner stated, "We already knew a lot of the things that were said, and things we needed to do we already wanted to do. But we could use the things coming out of the [researcher's organization] report to sell it. A lot of times what a study is used for is to sell others. You often know what you want to do and what it is going to say. But this is someone else saying it." After being asked to elaborate on the importance of an independent third party, the practitioner said "It's the saying, you have the guy from out of town that knows what you do, but has credibility."

External researchers were beneficial to several partnerships in this sample because they were perceived to be objective and unbiased to the public in particular. A Midwestern police department's research partnership was initiated because the chief of police was concerned about racial profiling, a contentious issue at the time, and reached out to a local researcher to assess the

agencies' practices because they were outside of the department and would be viewed as objective. The chief stated that his agency benefitted from the "third party or outside source." A Midwestern state agency was approached by an in-state researcher to assess a local safety initiative where the state police worked with local agencies and stopped suspicious vehicles. When asked to provide his general sentiments about partnerships, the practitioner stated: "I think it's good to get the independent opinion on what we're doing. As law enforcement, if we tell you, 'it will do you good,' some people don't believe in law enforcement, and the independent person saying 'it's working' or 'it is going to work,' they are more apt to listen to them. I think it's important to have that."

A West coast sheriff's office partnered with a research team for two projects, although they employed numerous researchers on staff. A representative explained, "The sheriff has a Ph.D. He understands this. We have a number of people with Ph.D.'s in the department. But even with the purest of motive, anything we put out will be suspect. We would prefer to have an independent third party." The practitioner elaborated, "To me, as you can see I'm a fan. It gives you the unbiased opinion, or it should. [One of their research partners] always says, 'Science, is science, is science.' It is a lot better from the actions of a third party. They have the high moral ground. This is valuable in the public eye and in court."

In other cases, external researchers bolstered partner agencies' arguments for policy changes because externally conducted research was judged to be more compelling to lawmakers. For example, a West coast sheriff's department partnered to research alcohol-related offenses and implement responses, their research partner reported, "This is important for encountering problems. Like one time the [partnering] police department and I mentioned a potential policy change and the city council went ballistic. But we went back to our solid empirical base...there

was a lot of advocacy on the other side without evidence...our empirical background helped to make sense of it all.” Several respondents noted that partnerships were beneficial to agencies with regards to funding requests, including a program and research specialist from a state police department in the Northeast who remarked, “I think they are fantastic, especially at the university level because they give you a third party view of what’s going on.” He added, “The information gained from doing these types of research projects can go a long way, and depending on the issue may be beneficial in defending budgetary requests for funds.” A police department in the South participated in several partnerships after a devastating storm. The responding major explained, “It’s also something the agency can use to sell what they need. Take the data and report, and what you could get out of this. It can be ammo to sell new ideas, basis for asking for resources.”

Another partnership was initiated by a state police department in the Midwest after the legislature requested a resource allocation model to empirically determine staffing levels. The researcher explained, “The project started off with...an incredibly strong political component. The sheriff’s association in the state was saying that they did not need the state police; they could handle all of their duties. So they were saying cut the state police and give us the money...We came in as an objective outside party that was trusted.” He explained, “So when the legislature says ‘why do you need this,’ we found they needed 100 more troopers to keep minimum coverage, so you present this to the legislature they say, ‘we get it.’” The researcher added that the results were also beneficial in the eyes of their “new governor who is a self-described nerd, who has an evidence based mindset. So the trooper allocation model that is a predictive model that is in a spreadsheet that contains all these variables predicting the need for troopers. A first lieutenant reported they benefitted from, “a statistically valid measure of the number of troopers needed. We didn’t have to go on a best guess anymore.”

Time and Money

Law enforcement agencies benefitted from partnerships with researchers who added to their research capacities, as captured by the chief of a medium-sized police department in the West who stated, “In general, I think very highly of them. This type of research is the way we should be doing it. The biggest benefit for departments engaging in partnerships of this kind is that researchers can take on the bulk of the work. Unfortunately, departments often do not have the time and funds to work on research projects, so researchers provide relief to, and an outlet for, law enforcement agencies to utilize for their benefit.” One way that police practitioner-researcher partnerships benefitted agencies, in terms of time and funding, was the provision of unpaid, volunteer researchers. A Northeast police department partnered with a local researcher for nearly a decade on domestic violence and gang reduction models. The practitioner interviewee explained, “She may or may not be getting something from this, she may or may not have anything in the grant, but she sees the big picture.” The respondent provided an example of needing a couple page write up and some data and suggested that while others would have charged \$3,000 for such a project, their partner did it for free.

A police department in the West partnered with numerous researchers from across the country on a less than lethal force project, and provided data for another project approximately a decade earlier. The responding practitioner described how they benefitted from informal access to researchers as follows: “Beyond the research, I will call them and ask for information on something—no money, one friend to another. And they get back to me often within the day with that information. They go beyond to help. If I have a research project now I can call them up for advice.” A criminologist in the Southwest and his colleagues worked with the police department where he worked for nearly fifteen years and did some free jobs to develop relations and good

will with the agency. The responding practitioner added, “We’ve had an ongoing relationship, this was not a new thing, I can contact them for other things. I’ve been e-mailing for a while back and forth on another topic, I’m on this regional police planning board. I can put a call in to get insight or help with analysis. They are willing to do anything, not only things that involved funding.”

Numerous practitioners reported benefitting because their partners devoted energies to research that their agencies did not have time to conduct on their own. For example, an assistant chief of a police department in the Northeast similarly said, “Objective researchers are good because law enforcement doesn’t always have enough time to conduct all their own research.” A sheriff’s department in the Southeast partnered with researchers from a local university for a variety of research projects and an analyst in the agency explained, “We have a whole lot of managers, mid- and senior-level managers that don’t have the time to look at problems, to do research. We have datasets, we don’t have time, so many we don’t know what to do with it.” When next asked why they continued to partner with external researcher despite have in-house analysts, the responding analyst said that “even with a Ph.D. position I’m overwhelmed with opportunities and needs. I can’t address everything.” He continued, “Even in my position there is a dichotomy between operations and research. What the officers need is information now, cops on the street. My work is more long term. I run analyses on what we need to do in the future, for mid- and senior-level management to go to for that assistance.” In providing his general sentiments the analyst asked, “Do I think it’s worth it for somebody to help with research I don’t have time to do? Of course,” then added, “One individual in an agency can’t do all the research...I’m limited in time.”

A number of practitioners mentioned that their partnerships, which included or were limited to internship programs with undergraduate and graduate students, had benefitted their agencies by conducting research they did not have time for as well. The operations manager from a Southeastern police department stated, “I am a huge advocate for police and research relationships,” and explained that they have a memorandum of understanding with a university in the city for an “ongoing supply of Ph.D., quality, interns doing research analysis.” The responding practitioner added, “The interns are great...They helped us with the workload.” A second example partnership placed law students in their city’s police department to conduct one research project per summer using agency data. According to a captain from the Midwestern agency, “[the university] provided a valuable resource as the [police department] didn’t have enough staff to devote the needed time to this project. The researcher felt the internship program was “of practical value to help police and prosecutors,” and provided “a tangible benefit to practitioners.” One component of another partnership involved graduate research methods courses, taught by the researcher, who reported that for the past three years he approached the Southern police department in the city where he worked and asked for approximately 12 project topics that they wanted to work on but had not found the time or resources. The researcher brought those ideas to the first day of class, students voted on one large or several smaller projects per semester, and the courses concluded with final reports and presentations to the agency’s command staff.

Although several practitioners benefitted from the time researchers devoted to their partnerships, which reduced agencies’ workloads, others framed efficiency in terms of general funding and cost effectiveness. A captain from a Midwestern police department opined, “Limited law enforcement budgets are helped by researchers who can increase efficiency. It is not ethical

to waste taxpayers' money." The practitioner representative of a sheriff's department on the West coast thought that research partnerships "can be a very beneficial tool, especially in light of extreme financial state of government funding." An interviewee from a medium-sized Southeastern police department said, "I think they are invaluable. Law enforcement has grown, both professionally and technologically, leaps and bounds. No longer is policing just running up and down the streets and grabbing bad guys and going to jail. The push toward intelligence has led policing to get crime analysts and look at problems, and not just incidents. What's at the root of the problem? You can throw tons of resources at an issue, but never get at the heart of what's going on." A similar response was provided by a practitioner from a sheriff's office in the Southeast who thought: "It's vastly underused for helping law enforcement figure out what works and what doesn't work because the response to law enforcement problems usually just means throwing more money and people at issues and a lot of times that solution isn't as good as basic research into what is causing problems."

Practitioners also reported cost-savings and thus efficiency as benefits of their specific partnerships with researchers, not just in a general sense. A Southeastern sheriff's department partnered with an in-state researcher for a study of juvenile justice probation, which examined other states' practices that had been shown to reduce recidivism. The partnership was ongoing but a deputy director said that they already benefitted from a "cost-saving measure to identify positive outcomes." A police department in the same state partnered with a research university in their city for several projects, including crime mapping. A captain from the agency reported the partnership projects "help problem-solve crimes outside police resources, time, and money." Another law enforcement executive from the West coast worked with a researcher from the city on geographic patterns in criminal conduct. An assistant chief from that police department

reported that the perceived benefits of the active partnership were “to find better ways to use our assets and resources.” Another partnership between a sheriff’s department in the Northeast and a nearby college’s criminal justice department placed undergraduate students with knowledge of GIS in the department. The reported the benefits of the active internship program included “cost savings and doing more with less,” according to a field intelligence officer.

Agencies also benefitted from resources provided by their research partnerships, whether in terms of training, overtime, or equipment. A West coast state patrol partnered with a state university as well as state and local transportation agencies to address highway safety with respect to commercial vehicles and the responding practitioner reported, “Another benefit of the [commercial vehicle safety] project was that all officers received overtime for their participation in enforcement.” On the other side of the country, a Southeastern police department received federal transportation funding to investigate the risks of vehicular accidents by drivers under the influence of alcohol or drugs. The responding sergeant said, “The biggest benefit is it is meeting our needs particularly as a force multiplier. Sometimes we have up to two extra officers covering twenty-four-seven on the streets.” The funding also provided equipment.

Lastly, practitioners reported increased capacity for receiving grants overall as opposed to specific awards. The following are examples of long-term, sustained partnerships where researchers worked on a variety of projects. A sheriff’s office in the Southeast initially partnered with a nearby university for training but the relationship expanded over several years since that initial project, according to a department representative who said, “it has taken a life of its own... We recently started a research project on armed encounters. It was funded by a grant.” The practitioner explained, “We want to go after NIJ grants, which are difficult to get. Partnering with [the researcher’s university] helps, partnering with an academic institution.”

A police department on the West coast's partnership had existed for a few years and was still actively pursuing new projects and funding at the time interviews were conducted. A responding lieutenant said that the benefits of that partnership included the researcher's experience writing grants. The researcher believed that this experience was one of two reasons she was initially selected by the larger community-based partnerships' advisory board. The researcher explained that she had written the proposal that was accepted and provided funding for the first two school years of the project and had since written proposals for individual members of the collaboration and entire group, for which her organization was not paid but typically named as the external evaluators.

Incorporated Research into Policies and Practices

Law enforcement agencies incorporated research partnership findings and reported benefitting from those evidence-based policies. A medium-sized police department in the West partnered with the surrounding county and received funding to research trends and emerging issues in substance abuse with a designated evaluator. The responding practitioner reported that the funding was used to create a local substance abuse advisory group that included agency staff, and the researcher "helped the [advisory group] apply for two recent grants in order to continue their prevention work." The practitioner added, "[the police department] is currently applying what has been learned." The researcher felt the project "made counties value data," and made them "data driven." Another partnership began when a team of researchers were searching for communities that met the criterion for inclusion in their community-based prevention program. However, according to the lead researcher, the chief of police was "focused on DARE," and concerned about replacing the program. The research team presented information on the program options within their model and described, "what works, what doesn't," based on "evidence-based

policy from epidemiology.” The researcher thought the chief and his agencies’ “shift from DARE to no DARE,” was a strong example of the agency moving towards evidence-based policy. The chief reported the program and partnership remained active although funding ended.

Other partnering agencies established long-term, institutionalized relationships with researchers, and thus research in a broader sense as well. A medium-sized police department on the West coast “has a long-standing relationship with [their research partner] that goes back to the 1990s,” when the responding chief of police said he “discovered the world of applied policing research and met [the researcher].” The chief explained he “wanted to learn more about the world of empirical research and how it could help policing.” Since that time, the chief explained, “We also do internal research to help us answer questions,” and noted, “We now have hired our own criminologist to help change the culture of the agency, the position is an integral part of the command structure.” The chief added, “Since we spend so much money on research we should use the results. We will translate the findings into practical applications.” The researcher remarked, “[The chief] is one of the best chiefs to work with; he gets it...the importance of research and how science can improve policing and the image of the department.” He added that “[the chief] decided to make research part of his management plan. He and his mid-level managers supported totally the research efforts.” The chief reported the partnership was “still active and growing.”

A final partnership that exemplified increased incorporation of research began when a captain from a police department in the Southeast began reading research papers on a managerial strategy by a criminologist, who presented on the topic and later assisted with the design, implementation, and evaluation. Shortly thereafter, the captain who initiated the partnership was internally promoted and began researching potential crime reduction strategies that could be of

use in his new role. Again, the practitioner consulted with their research partners from the earlier project, who introduced them to an ever-expanding group of their colleagues with knowledge of this particular strategy. Since that time, the partnership continued to flourish and expand in terms of topics as the researchers evaluated several strategies with funding from the federal government, experimented with new strategies, and sought funding to empirically evaluate their current effects in the police department. Finally, that first instrumental criminologist was also a member of the department's "best practices committee," further demonstrating the incorporation of researchers in the agency. The responding practitioner, who was promoted to deputy chief since the partnership began, stated his agency benefitted because, "The [police department] is increasingly research driven, this is a goal of many of the department's leaders, and this necessitates working with researchers." He later added, "We believe in evidence-based policing. We don't do anything on a whim."

Communication and Relationships with Communities

Practitioners reported their partnerships improved relationships with the communities they served, although communities were defined differently. In some instances, partnerships between researchers and practitioners were formed for the explicit purpose of improving community relations with the involved law enforcement agencies. For example, a nonprofit in the Northeast was formed by an attorney, who explained she worked with the mayor during law school. After graduating, the researcher decided that her role would be to serve as a "broker," and "connector between the community and those serving the community," including their city's police department. She was informally introduced to the police chief, who was appointed by the mayor, and when she decided to start the nonprofit, she called the police chief and they began working together. The practitioner representative from the agency, a sergeant, described their

first research project as follows: “It basically came up because some stuff had emerged in the media... a lot of things changed and the city had some pretty significant successes in driving down gun crime but the public believed we were lying about the numbers, so we decided that we needed to do something to improve our relationship with the community, and that really just snowballed into other things. We received some complaints from citizens saying that they weren’t really satisfied with how some incidents had played out or with how our department dealt with some things, so we wanted to reassess where we were so we could start to make changes.” The sergeant explained, “The [nonprofit] developed a series of surveys for both members of the public, citizens, to take as well as members of our department. Over four to five months, the committees provided their studies and recommendations and basically we came out with a series of policies from it.” The practitioner reflected, “there were a number of things that came out of the surveys that pointed us in different directions, but in a good way,” and added that “we really just want to make a lasting change in the organization.” The sergeant, when asked about the benefits, replied, “to tie in the academic research on procedural justice out there and to provide some legitimacy for our department because we are trying to make the philosophy of community policing permeate everything we do. Feedback from these surveys helps us to move in the right direction of improving our relationship with the community and citizens.” He added, “we all can utilize the strengths of our organizations to learn more about our community.” At the time of the interviews, the partnership was planning a meeting to connect researchers and law enforcement and discuss collaborative research possibilities, including community relations.

Other practitioners benefitted from increased communication and relationships with organizations that had similar interests in their jurisdictions. A Western state’s highway patrol department received funding to evaluate a program they designed to increase commercial vehicle

safety not by focusing on truckers, but that addressed aggressive motorists alongside commercial truck drivers, particularly on highways. The responding practitioner noted, “Another perceived benefit was that the truckers and the trucking association would realize that the department was not just about enforcing trucking, and that passenger vehicles are part of the problem, if not more so the problem. In other words, truckers may come to see that law enforcement is supportive of commercial vehicle drivers.”

Police practitioners also benefitted from improved relationships and communication with service providers in their communities. A medium-sized police department in the Midwest’s research partnership began when a local domestic violence service provider located a grant that provided funds to assess local law enforcement agencies responses to domestic violence and approached their city’s police department. The partnership activities’ included an audit of the police department’s domestic violence policies and the chief observed it helped “improve the relationship between law enforcement and domestic violence advocates.” He also reported his agency had “formed a close relationship with the domestic violence service providers in the area.” Finally, the partnership provided a forum for law enforcement and domestic violence advocates in the community to “sit-down and talk through differences,” according to the practitioner. The researcher also mentioned both agencies benefitted from “relationships formed,” and a “clearer understanding of roles” of each in the community. At the time of the interviews, the chief and sheriff served on the domestic violence service provider’s board of directors as well. The improved relationships between these service providers was more striking considering that, according to the researcher, the agencies had been involved with litigation resulting from a domestic violence case and were previously unwilling to work together.

Another partnership was initiated by researchers looking for sites to administer their community-based prevention program that involved multiple community organizations and approached the selected city's medium-sized police department, school district, and a mental health service provider. The executives of the aforementioned groups agreed to partner, formed a board to administer the program, and selected among specific program options. The partnership and programs remained active despite not being funded for several years and involved monthly meetings with the participants. The responding chief stated, "The biggest benefit for the partnership was the idea that it would bring together the police department and the local school district in a collaborative effort against problems in the community. Mental health prevention programs and other community individuals and groups were also involved in prevention efforts."

Other partnerships revolved around projects that were not specifically focused on improving relationships and communication among law enforcement agencies, but such benefits were reported by practitioner interviewees nonetheless, often due to overlapping jurisdictions or interests in common. For instance, a state police department in the Northeast became involved with a partnership that included several local law enforcement agencies and an evaluator after a municipal police department was awarded a federal grant to study unsafe driving in their city's roads, which they shared jurisdiction. The agency representative reported, "Anytime you can work closer or work more frequently with agencies with similar missions you benefit, [and] you get a closer relationship with more trust and respect for what other partners are doing." The responding practitioner added the partnership "may benefit the agency down the road, as more issues come along, [and] partners look to assist each other."

Of course, the included partners also reported closer relationships amongst themselves, and numerous examples have already been provided of long term partnerships and close working

relationships. Practitioners reported that partnerships led to the establishment of relationships, not only with individual researchers, but with their institutions as well. A field intelligence officer with a Northeastern sheriff's department stated that their internship program with a local college's criminal justice department benefitted the department by "building rapport" with the college. Practitioners also reported closer relationships with academia in general as a benefit of their partnerships with researchers. One began when a sergeant from a West coast police department attended a presentation by researchers from a nearby university that discussed results from a business robbery reduction project, and approached the researchers to see how his own police department could get involved with the project. The responding practitioner, a commander in the agency, reflected that personally it "opens my mind to greater good of academia, because I have met so many people with the project." He added that the partnership "opened possibilities of what academia can bring to law enforcement."

Increased Public Safety

Public safety should not be overlooked among benefits of police practitioner-researcher partnerships. Several practitioners described how changes that took place in their agencies as the direct result of partnerships with researchers translated into increased public safety in their jurisdictions. A Southeastern sheriff's office partnered with a similarly-sized police department within the county and a nearby university to house a real-time crime center on their campus and implement intelligence-led policing with maps, data, and individualized responses to specific problems. In describing benefits the practitioner reported, "We saw a reduction in violent and property crime," and later specified they were "very excited about what we were able to accomplish, reduced five percent crime overall." Other projects were also initiated with the end goal of increased public safety but results were not yet available.

Many research partnerships targeted violent or repeat offenders with clear public safety implications. An example of a partnership in the Southeast included several projects between a police department and a researcher at one of the city's universities. The primary focus of one project was the implementation of social network analyses in the agency. The responding operations manager said with regard to the analysis, "It was eye opening to see some of them see the names in the analysis they were not honing in on," which referred to command and detectives. The practitioner representative reported, "We use [the social network analysis software] on a regular basis. Major crimes analysts use it for homicides and other violence is plugged in and look for links. The researcher added, "I would say it was very successful, within two weeks of implementing the SNA tools, it was not only used for the project but it assisted in solving a large string of convenience store robberies and a murder. It wasn't the only piece, but it was instrumental to it."

A partnership in the Northeast also increased public safety by focusing on high risk offenders and according to a grants coordinator, "It was based on [a domestic violence model]. They formed a committee with probation and parole, social services, anyone possible connected to the victims or perpetrator. Based on the analysis we identified 65 major offenders who stayed on a watch list." The practitioner explained, "[The] model is now used for high impact gang members, who are the most violent and have the most impact on the community." The practitioner described the researcher's role as follows: "They create the list on an annual basis. The 20 agencies involved meet, and someone says, 'I would like this person on the list.' [The researcher] then examines their arrests, type of crime, [and other criteria] and she assigns points to them. If you have enough points, you should be on the list." In describing the benefits of their

partnership, the practitioner stated, “It’s been really helpful to our work. We just did a sweep making [numerous] arrests. [The researcher’s] analysis helped with identifying people for this.”

Research partnerships also focused on direct threats to public safety, such as one that developed between a researcher in the Southwest and a nearby, medium-sized sheriff’s department to address avalanche safety in their jurisdiction. According to the responding practitioner, a sergeant and project manager, the partnership was based on the avalanche death of a local university student and sentiments in the area that avalanche safety received little attention compared to states such as Colorado. The sheriff’s department partnered with two nearby colleges and the newly-formed group sponsored education in this area including a forum for information exchange about backcountry safety conditions. The partnership focused on community outreach in terms of avalanche safety on local peaks and the researcher trained search and rescue teams from several agencies and shared data on snow dynamics. Later the researcher founded a nonprofit that promoted avalanche awareness and safety. The practitioner reported a reduction in search and rescue incidents since the partnership began. The researcher said, “it has been a great success,” and added, “they have had no avalanche fatalities due to “collaborative decisions,” which were not always popular with citizens. For instance, a few years ago they “made a controversial decision” and closed an area during elk season. This received negative pushback from the community, but later found several large avalanches had occurred in the area.

Benefits to the Law Enforcement Community

Practitioners reported the entire law enforcement community benefitted from research partnerships contributions to best practices. One interviewee from a West coast police department said, “I think it’s crucial. That’s how we get best practices.” Several practitioners

reported they had partnered with the specific intent of informing best practices, and that those projects had thus benefitted the field of law enforcement. For example, the chief of a medium-sized police department on the West coast explained, “[their research partner] and others will come up with research ideas, we will participate if end result will help policing.” The chief reported that the benefits of their active partnership were “to improve policing through research findings in all aspects of structure, function, funding, activities, tactics, et cetera.” Another police chief from the Southwest similarly reported on a partnership that was ongoing, “Even if findings from such a partnership can’t directly affect or benefit a department, the trickle-down effect of those collaborative findings benefits the justice community and the individual department eventually.” When the chief of another agency was asked about his sentiments towards partnerships in general, he said: “Oh, I think they’re incredibly productive, even if the research only generally contributes to the justice field and not specifically to this department, it’s still beneficial.”

The following partnerships were initiated for reasons other than informing best practices in the field of law enforcement but interviewees reported indirect benefits to the law enforcement community nonetheless. A Northeastern state police department and two researchers from a nearby state university partnered to create a protocol for identifying peer to peer networking of child pornography that could be used by investigators. A lieutenant from the agency reported, “the federal government has expressed interest in the [agency’s] protocol,” and the researcher added that “The program is currently being distributed to other law enforcement agencies and states.” A police department on the West coast partnered and created a school-based gang prevention program as part of a larger community coalition. A lieutenant from the agency reported that the model received “considerable attention from other school districts in the state

and the COPS [Office].” The researcher added the program, “expanded to many school districts,” and became a model school-based gang-prevention program. Another practitioner explained, “Policy is driven by research because oftentimes we can’t do it ourselves.” His Southeastern police department became involved with a task force on the use of conducted energy devices by law enforcement officers in the state. He noted, “We can disseminate this work for other departments to use.”

Several practitioners reported their agencies’ contributions to best practices had garnered prestige in the law enforcement community, an added benefit to participants. A police department on the West coast received funding from the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health to evaluate a workplace violence prevention program in the agency. A commander stated that the benefits were for the “greater good of law enforcement,” as the partnership provided research findings that were “transferrable to other agencies. See what concepts work and then mobilize them.” The commander added that law enforcement should “only adopt programs that are proven effective and academics help process.” He also mentioned that they benefitted from “recognition for [the police department].” A police department on the East coast received federal funding from the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration to investigate the risks of vehicular accidents by drivers under the influence of alcohol or drugs. The practitioner mentioned three benefits of the partnership, which included, “on a national level, the prestige of being involved with a project that will impact highway safety for years to come.”

A third partnership began over a decade before the interviews were conducted, after researchers approached a West coast sheriff’s department for data, and later returned and asked “what could be given back?” The partnership embarked on an evaluation of non-lethal force, or

“a consumer report on these different force options.” The responding practitioner reported, “The [first] study, that was the icebreaker that was released [over one decade earlier]. It was the most downloaded report ever from [the funding university] in a month. It was a big shock to them the report was so popular. I was being used and cited everywhere, overseas. I was in Israel, it was being quoted in Israel. I saw it translated into Hebrew. That got back to NIJ.” The interviewee mentioned several benefits of their partnership, and stated, “When the sheriff hears the department’s name associated with this study, yes. When people are citing what we are doing that is good for the department, in this environment you are always looking for positive press.” When later asked in a similar fashion what their agency gets out of their partnership, the practitioner said “Where it is important for the department is when you are getting quoted. You see our study, with the [sheriff’s department] star, being quoted. It’s like gold. You get to the end and it says, ‘this study could not have taken place without the [sheriff’s department]. It’s a big hit. Participating makes you look good.”

Benefits to Researchers

Researchers were not specifically asked about the benefits they received from their partnerships with law enforcement agencies, nor were practitioners tasked with describing the benefits of research partnerships to their partners. However, several benefits to researchers were reported nonetheless, in addition to those previously mentioned as mutually beneficial, and are summarized in this section. The ability to conduct research was perhaps the most intuitive benefit research partnerships to agencies, and the same could be said of the benefits to researchers as well. A police department in the Southeast partnered with an industrial psychologist from a nearby university to conduct citizen satisfaction surveys. The responding practitioner explained, “We could get insight from citizens and [the researcher’s university]

could benefit by extending the research within their department.” A representative from a police department in the Southeast worked with an ever-expanding group of criminologists in the area and a representative explained, “For the researchers, they were allowed to work on research that involved the [police department] including piloting new techniques in the department.” A practitioner from a West coast police department, which applied military tactics to street gangs, said it “gave [the university] a chance to learn about insurgency in the lab of [their city].”

In a similar manner, several practitioners mentioned the researchers benefitted from their ability to publish findings, a requirement for many university-based, tenure-track researchers in particular. The chief of a police department in the Midwest was approached by a researcher at a conference who offered to analyze their use of force data. The responding principal practitioner from the department said the partnership was “mutually beneficial,” because “she gets to publish and advance her research, we gain insight from her research.” Several other practitioners provided general sentiments about the benefits to researchers of publishing research findings. In the Southeast, a police department partnered with researchers from the Midwest who served as the official monitors of a federally-funded program. The practitioner, a crime analyst with a Ph.D., said, “Academics need new and good data, they want to be the first to make a splash and publish. That is the basic level of the relationship.” Another police department partnered with a sociologist from a city university and implemented social network analyses, among other projects. The responding operations manager explained, “I understand academics, they want to publish...To the extent they can publish about what we are doing, that is good.” A few researchers confirmed the benefits they received in terms of publications, including a researcher who worked with a Midwestern state agency who stated, “It provides the opportunity for

students and faculty to do state of the art and cutting edge work on real problems. The work can lead to the ability to get publications in applied journals.”

University-based researchers also benefitted from better understandings of their partner agencies specifically, as well as the police in general, which they utilized in their teaching. One researcher focused on being perceived by students to be knowledgeable on the field, worked with several law enforcement agencies in the Southeast during her doctoral studies, and later worked with a Midwestern state police department on a trooper allocation model that was the focus of her interview. The researcher reflected, “It also allows for a certain amount of credibility in a grad class about the state of the art work in the classroom.” Two criminologists explained the complementary nature of their academic duties that included teaching and research. The first worked with several different agencies in the South and used to view teaching and research as “mutually exclusive,” but his opinion had changed over time. Recently, he has come to view teaching, service, and research as “a seamless garment,” as his research informed his teaching and his teaching informed his research. He also literally used research to inform teaching as each year his graduate research methods students selected a large or several small projects, conducted the research during the semester, and reported the findings to command. Another criminologist worked with a sheriff’s office in the West on several projects and reported that the research “informs [his] teaching,” which referred to a master’s-level course on contemporary issues in policing which enabled him to discuss first-hand experiences. He also focused on turning technical reports into refereed publications, and reflected, “It all comes full circle.”

Several partnerships included internship programs or applied research projects with students, who were believed to benefit from those experiences. Indeed, at least 14 partnerships in this sample employed student researchers. A university in the Northwest created a criminal

justice advisory board with dozens of agencies and individuals. The researcher explained, “There would be discussion of ideas and opportunities for collaboration. It was an opportunity for students to work with agencies and an opportunity to improve our curriculum by exposing our students to this.” In the Midwest, a criminologist included applied research projects with the city’s police department in his graduate research methods course and stated he “wanted to provide his students with practical research experience.” A third internship program placed undergraduate students in their Northeastern county sheriff’s department because, according to the researcher, “it provides students with a good perspective on policing and crime analysis.”

A fitting conclusion to this chapter was that researchers reported personal satisfaction from their partnerships with police practitioners. A New England state police department and team of computer forensics experts designed a program that sent information about child pornography to a centralized database, which could be used to prosecute offenders. One of the researchers remarked it was the “greatest project that I’ve ever done.” Similarly, a researcher in the area of snow dynamics and backcountry and wilderness safety partnered with a nearby sheriff department in the Southwest and conducted community outreach and research on avalanche safety. The researcher described the project as “rewarding,” and he felt “engaged with the local community.” He said it was “gratifying to be acknowledged as a success,” and explained, “[the college] pays the bills, this is my passion.” In the Southeast, a criminologist worked with a nearby police department on several projects. The partnership continuously expanded and was still active when the researcher was interviewed. The criminologist described partnerships as “a gift they are giving you” and was “happy to be involved.” Finally, a researcher with a background in education volunteered for a city-level partnership on the West coast that reduced gang crime by addressing problematic behaviors in elementary school students, and included two

local law enforcement agencies. The researcher owned a consulting firm, turned down job offers, and moved from the area since it was initiated but stayed committed to this collaboration exclusively. She ignored family members' requests to retire because she was committed to the partnership, and viewed her role as validating the life works of "caretakers" in the community, including her law enforcement partners.

CHAPTER 6: INTERVIEWS - BARRIERS AND FACILITATORS TO PARTNERSHIPS

Both police practitioners and researchers were interviewed regarding the barriers to and facilitators of research partnerships. As was described in Chapter 3 and briefly noted in Chapter 5, the interviews were analyzed in a multi-stage thematic fashion and so the results were also presented by theme. As a result, practitioner and researcher sentiments regarding a particular theme were grouped together, which, in some cases allowed for comprehensive discussion of one partnership by both parties. The themes were organized in this chapter to provide a logical flow and were not quantified by the frequency they were mentioned.

Participants described barriers to and facilitators of police practitioner-researcher partnerships, which in many cases were merely opposite sides of the same coin. Other factors only proved to be helpful or problematic. At least 35 practitioners reported no initial concerns regarding their partnerships with researchers, and 19 practitioners or more found no barriers over the courses of their partnerships. In addition, at least 31 practitioners provided no suggestions for improvement, even with the benefits of hindsight. However, findings from the previously reported surveys indicated that very few police departments engaged in research partnerships, and participants were clustered in the largest agencies.

The remainder of this chapter describes facilitators and barriers of police-practitioner researcher partnerships, beginning with agencies' trust of external researchers, and concerns about their objectivity in particular. Sentiments regarding the utility of externally-conducted research from the law enforcement field, individual practitioners, and researchers are provided. The desirability of change and objective research among agencies is noted along with its effects on data access and utilization of partnership findings. The importance of buy-in from multiple levels, including agency leaders and project managers, are examined. Next, the orientations of

researchers towards helping are described. The advantages of local researchers who shared stakes in communities with law enforcement agencies are detailed. Researchers who explained expected benefits to agencies and valued their knowledge throughout are discussed. Four consecutive sections are devoted to communicating needs and goals, consistent and clear communication, the relationship between geographic proximity and community, and communicating findings, respectively. The importance of funding is detailed, as are barriers related to confidentiality and bureaucracies. Finally, the impact of staff turnover is discussed.

Agency Trust of Researchers

Trust was often mentioned as a prerequisite to the establishment of police practitioner-researcher partnerships by practitioners, including the chief of a medium-sized¹⁰ police department on the West coast who explained, “Trust and confidence between the agency representative and researcher is first order of business.” He added, “personal relationships” facilitated his projects because “it’s all about the relationships.” He continued, “Partnerships are an excellent idea but the trust must be developed between agency and researcher. We chiefs judge people and if I do not trust a researcher he or she will not get in the door.” The chief added, “I’m a good judge of character, only work with the ones I trust, and have not had a problem in 13 years as chief.” In the South, a major explained with respect to one of the research partnerships that his police department recently participated in, “It’s privately funded and it is an outside study. We don’t have to be cooperative, so they needed the buy-in of the superintendent to get the information they needed. There was a fair amount of negotiation to the sensitivities. If they were attacking the agency, then he would act in self-defense, it’s a normal reaction:

¹⁰ Unless otherwise noted, large law enforcement agencies employ over 100 sworn personnel. Additionally, “small” agencies had 10 to 24 sworn personnel and “medium” departments had 25 to 99 sworn staff members, based on the aforementioned survey responses.

stonewall or discredit the assessment.” The major explained what he meant by trust as follows: “Trust is not only in the purpose, but trust in the person. Trust to not give attribution is critical. I’ve been in some cases where attribution was given. This can be very detrimental to someone’s career, their ability to make their living, their life. The agency doesn’t forget. You know what I mean? People in the department don’t forget what you said. Earning trust on a personnel level is important.” He felt, “officers learn through their experience to be guarded.”

Some law enforcement agencies were hesitant to external researchers, as noted by a Midwestern police department’s representative who reflected, “You’re always a little apprehensive allowing an independent party into your organization, a little apprehensive about what to expect.” Several practitioners reported initial concern with regard to their trust of researchers, which did not materialize into noteworthy barriers to their partnerships. In the West, a police department partnered with a criminologist on a violent and gang crime reduction project and the responding deputy chief reported that initially, “internal people are suspicious.” He noted the only barrier to their partnership was “just the initial organizational culture adjustment,” which “was easily overcome.” The chief of a medium-sized Midwestern agency similarly remarked, “Some officers were initially concerned about the [researcher’s] sticking their noses in [the police department’s] business,” for an audit of their domestic violence process. He added that previous partnerships had left the agency “apprehensive and leery,” and that they “usually don’t work so we shy away.” The partner researcher reported she was initially concerned about “the police culture,” but found the agency “welcoming and cooperative.”

A Midwestern police department partnered with an organizational psychologist for an assessment of their agency and the responding deputy, when asked if he or his department had any initial concerns, replied, “Honestly I did, you never really know what it’s going to be like

having someone come into your facility and study what you do. In reality we had no problems.” Finally, a Rocky Mountain police department partnered with a psychologist to study racial biases in the agency. A division chief reported no initial concerns “with the university itself but the topic, subject matter involved,” but noted, “Overall there was more concern about subject than actual trust relationship.” Still, she added that their partnership was facilitated by “Trust for one. Trust is huge.” The deputy chief concluded, “As far as the partnership goes, we got very lucky; it could have gone the other way given the topic we looked at.”

Often, partnership participants reported agencies’ trust of their partners facilitated research partnerships. Cases in point included the principal planner of a Midwestern police department who mentioned the “trust factor,” in reference to a criminologist they were working with. The chief of a Northeastern police department who reported, regarding the criminologist with whom he had worked for many years, “He is trusted.” A respondent from another Northeastern police department who said their partner “was very personable and was trusted.” Several practitioners described how trust facilitated open access to data. For example, the representative of a West coast sheriff’s department who worked with a team of researchers on several projects observed, “The big thing is you have to have trust, I trust them emphatically. If you don't have this, they get what they ask for, and nothing more. We won't tell them they are missing something, or there is some other data. But there is a free sharing of data when there is trust. Without it you can kill a project in pitfalls.” He also remarked, “If you cold-call trying to give up the data we wouldn't give it up. The data is not in a library you just go get it. We have to get it for you and we would resist to give it up... We will say there are issues of privacy, cost, manpower to block.”

Others participants detailed how agencies' trust was not static but had to be earned by researchers over time. A criminologist in the West who worked with numerous agencies stated, "once they trust you, you can establish partnerships," but reflected "it takes years to establish trust." A criminologist in the Southeast worked with many agencies and said that research partnerships were "a dance in the beginning, especially for police," during which time researchers must demonstrate that they were "reliable, trustworthy, and can work with you." A Midwestern police department's crime analyst worked with a team of criminologists on National Institute of Justice-funded project and reported, "The researchers had to prove themselves to cops. Cops are standoffish, so you have to show you can be trusted." Another Midwestern police department partnered with a criminologist in the city for many projects. Lastly, the grants coordinator of a New England police department that worked with a nearby researcher for over a decade observed, "all of these years working together builds a lot of trust."

In some cases, trust was never established between researchers and agencies, or certain staff members, which created barriers to those research partnerships. A psychologist who worked with a police department on the East coast found it difficult to get officers' participation for her voluntary study and reflected, "I think, but have no proof, but my intuition tells me this project failed because officers perceived the research team to be psychologists and I think police officers are very suspicious about psychologists and what we do, but once again I have no real evidence, this is just my perception." A Southern police department partnered with researchers for a human trafficking project and the agency representative thought a barrier to that partnership "may have been an issue of mistrust, lack of understanding between mindset of professor versus law enforcement officer." Finally, in the Southeast, a social scientist partnered with the police department and worked with crime analysts in particular, she reported, "I think there's some

mistrust on the part of some crime analysts in that they don't understand why I'm coming in...I think there's some huge mistrust issues...I do think it took a long time to develop trust and I think in the end one of the crime analysts trusts me, I think I have a lot of capital with the management, people who are the decision-makers, but those crime analysts are still very distrustful.”

Particular Concerns about the Objectivity of External Researchers

Concerns about researchers' underlying biases and hidden agendas were relevant to agencies' initial trust of researchers, but never materialized into noteworthy barriers in this sample. An interviewee from a Western police department remarked, “The biggest issue with partnerships like these is always how much you trust that person, department, or group coming in and whether or not she or they have a different agenda for the research that maybe doesn't serve you or the department you work for...It's no secret that the education field and law enforcement has always had the left-right thing going on, but those concerns with this particular partnership were rapidly diminished so it was all good.” A Southeastern county police department's partnership was initiated when the state's attorney general formed a task force that included their own staff and two professors from a nearby law school. The practitioner explained his initial concerns were “the fact that we weren't included in the group initially led us to believe they had an agenda,” but later noted “any suspicion was worked through.” A Western police department partnered with a criminologist in the city and the agency representative said, “I wondered if someone from academia could be fair and unbiased towards law enforcement.” He later reported those initial concerns “were resolved because [the researcher] was a consummate professional and approached the topic at hand in an even-handed manner. We anticipated areas of conflict but there were none.” He noted the partnership was facilitated by “the objectivity of [the researcher]

and his staff...As stated earlier, pre-conceived notions that police might have about college professors, and perhaps visa-versa, had to be released in order to receive an accurate and unbiased study.” The practitioner felt the researcher was objective because the study “went where the data led.” He concluded, “now that I have seen several of them done in an objective and fair manner, I am more in favor of them.”

A Southern police department’s responding major explained the relationship between researchers’ perceived objectivity and data access as follows: “You always have to assess first, what is the real objective? Is it the stated one, or is there another? This determines what the answers are going to be. When it's genuine, I will be as true as possible. If you have an angle, I will answer the question absolutely as truthfully as possible, and nothing more. It’s like cross-examination in court, yes-no answers, and nothing more.” He continued, “Trust gets access. It's like undressing. If you don't know the person and the environment you only take off what you have to. But when there is trust you're going to feel more comfortable.” He added, “It depends on why you are really there. They are there to hurt you then we're going to be defensive...Agencies always want to see how we stack up against other departments, but don't want to look bad.”

Practitioner interviewees reported that researchers who lost their objectivity and became involved with political situations created barriers to their research partnerships. A Northeastern police department partnered with researchers from a Midwestern city to implement a homicide reduction model and the agency representative reported the research team “came to [the city] with pre-conceived notions about the [police department].” She explained, “They created a final report that was based on speculation, not fact.” The practitioner thought politics were involved and the team of researchers had “hidden agendas.” The practitioner suggested, “[The research team] should have been objective and open-minded and sought solutions instead of finding

fault.” She concluded these partnerships were generally “very valuable,” if there were “no hidden agendas, not politically connected, and look for solutions not political ties.” A representative of a West coast police department explained that one university in the city “seems to turn issues into political problems,” which “is a problem that will probably not be resolved, so we stay away from those problematic relationships. We will not work with some of those who have not helped us. Others from [that university] we might work with under very restricted conditions.” A researcher from another university with whom the department reported a positive partnership similarly observed, “the need to be objective, and not being political.” She also added that objectivity was also important to her academic colleagues as “Some of [her university’s] faculty were also concerned of whether we were always going to be seen as presenting the interest of the police, and not the interests of others involved.”

Perceived lack of objectivity by researchers caused stakeholders to question findings. For instance, a partnership began when a city council ordered a study of racial profiling in their police department and hired an independent consultant. The responding practitioner reported, “We struggled getting his data; part of the contract was access to all raw data. I guess he never expected an agency to request the data used to reach his findings. For that matter, we weren’t sure about his findings. I was suspicious because we didn’t get everything we were entitled to. His company has vested interest in finding racial profiling. As a project manager that’s my concern, do research or do training but not both.” Another racial profiling project was conducted by a Midwestern police department that partnered with a university in their city with whom they had worked for decades. The agency representative reported, “In terms of the partnership, the community did not seem to accept [the university] as an outside, neutral, third-party, so it seemed to pose problems for community acceptance.”

For their part, many researchers also described the importance of remaining objective. A criminologist who worked with her city's police department on several projects mentioned, "the recognition that it's research that has to be objective, not supporting one side or another," as well as "the need to be objective, and not being political." A social scientist in the Midwest who worked with many agencies stated, "Researchers must remain neutral and not part of the agency, must be external," and added, "When a researcher loses neutrality or tries to hide things, or gets involved in political situations, or makes negative comments to the media, it makes it very difficult to conduct good research in the agency." Others noted the importance of remaining objective particularly when addressing leadership. A criminologist who worked on several research partnerships, including an ongoing relationship with the police department in the South, reported he had "taken the chief to task" when they were in disagreement. He felt this increased his perceived legitimacy among the rank and file as well as the chief because he was viewed as objective. Another criminologist in the South with decades of partnership experience in multiple agencies stated, "The researcher must be open and honest. Not just supporting the chief."

A few practitioners reported initial concerns about researchers precisely because they truthfully reported findings, such as a Midwestern police department that partnered with criminologists in their city for several projects. The responding captain noted there were "Some initial concerns about potentially negative findings because researchers report what it is." A state police department that partnered with a criminologist in their jurisdiction for several projects and the responding practitioner said their initial concern was "Regardless of whether it's good or bad, he will tell us what's going on; could have turned on us 180 degrees but it didn't."

The Utility of Research and External Researchers

Practitioners' initial orientations towards research, broadly defined, were often mentioned among facilitators and barriers to their partnerships with researchers. To begin with, numerous practitioners in a variety of different roles and levels of their respective organizations described a historical trend among law enforcement agencies against incorporating externally-conducted research findings in their policies and practices. Examples included a commander in the West who noted that police departments "operated in a vacuum in the past," and a member of the U.S. Attorney's Office who worked with tens of local, state, and federal agencies on a partnership and said, "law enforcement agencies sometimes work in silos and they don't know what universities have to offer." Likewise, a representative from a Northeastern sheriff's department observed, "Some police feel that they are cops and know their beats and don't want to hear from civilians." The deputy director of a sheriff's office in the Southeast stated, "Sometimes police think they know everything and don't know the true benefit of getting outside information from other organizations." The chief of a Northeastern police department that worked with a criminologist on a range of projects reflected, "We may need to have a slight cultural change. While [the researcher partner] is well-accepted, some do not accept the overall nature of academic work on crime and the police." Law enforcement agencies were often guided by anecdotal evidence, as noted by a captain from a police department in the Midwest who felt, "There is a lack of true information. Often, law enforcement knowledge, policies, and practices are based on the chief's prior experiences and not research."

These general sentiments in the field of law enforcement towards the usefulness of research were often paralleled by comments of practitioners regarding the utility of external researchers. The representative of a Southeastern sheriff's office explained, "If you're talking

about law enforcement research, researchers need to get out of academia and into the field to get a better understanding. It's one thing to write a paper, it's another thing to see it." A planning and research analyst from a Southwestern police department that worked with a nearby criminologist for many years remarked, "You have the academic perspective and the frontline; it's about melding the two." A crime analyst with a Ph.D. from a Southeastern police department attended annual meetings of the American Society of Criminology and observed, "Academics have no concept of reality." He later described the work of academics and practitioners as simply "two different things." The responding assistant chief of a Southwestern police department replied, when asked about his sentiments towards research partnerships, "The problem is you've got academics and law enforcement personnel sort of go at things differently and it's rare to find an academic who can operate in concrete terms that law enforcement has to deal with on a day to day basis. There has to be a pretty big bridge to gap between the operational attitudes and realities." A Midwestern police department's representative reported fellow officers thought "academics don't know anything." Researchers noticed these sentiments among practitioners, as evidenced by a criminologist who partnered with her East coast city's police department on a number of projects, and worked with other agencies in the past as well, who felt there was a sense among practitioners that "If you've never worn a gun or badge you don't know the job." A social scientist in the Midwest who had worked with an agency for a number of years noted that some practitioners viewed academics as existing in the "ivory tower."

Interviewees often mentioned practitioners' orientations towards research hand-in-hand with the amounts of education and training they had received on that subject. A chief deputy of a medium-sized police department in the Midwest, who was a captain when he managed the project, had a master's degree and explained he "understands complexities behind academia and

real world applications.” He added, “Being a graduate student has led to my success in the partnership; I understand what my agency can get from research.” A Southeastern police department partnered with several academic units from a nearby university and the responding major reported, regarding colleagues at the agency, “The ones who come out and want to do it, who are coming to us with research issues, are the ones who have gone to grad school.” A Southeastern criminologist worked with a police department in his university’s city and explained that the chief was completing his master’s degree at time. The researcher said, “The police department gets it,” in reference to the benefits of research. He added that the agency was “progressive and open,” which he attributed to the chief’s “leadership and vision.” The chief confirmed that he “just completed a M.A. and had gained an appreciation for intelligence-led and problem-oriented policing.”

Several previous practitioners discussed the law enforcement field and their own sentiment regarding the utility of research and external researchers, which may be summarized as unconvinced. In this section, examples are provided of researchers who emphasized the importance of conducting practical research as well. A criminologist who worked with her Southeastern city’s police department on a number of projects and worked with other agencies in the past as well thought that projects needed to be “realistic and practical,” and “not based in the ivory tower.” A substance abuse prevention expert on the West coast who implemented his program in many agencies explained, “You need a theory with practical implications, not too abstract. Make sure the theory provides deliverables, efficacy, and benefits. They are very practical guys and they don’t like bullshit.” An epidemiologist who had worked with several police departments across the country opined, “The success of a partnership involves whether it is feasible, that is, does it center around translational research? All products and efforts must be

spelled out and available and deliverable.” She added, “Academics need to develop an understanding of how the department or police agency intends to use the program.” Lastly, a policing researcher who worked with several agencies said, “A successful researcher must have a good understanding and appreciation of what the police do on a daily basis.”

In contrast to the aforementioned, interviewees emphasized the importance of agencies that valued research and strove for empirically-driven policies and practices. A Southeastern police department’s partnership initially began with a criminologist from a nearby university, now a member of their best practices committee, and since expanded to a number of criminologists from several schools. The responding deputy chief explained his agency’s standpoint and said, “We believe in evidence-based policing. We don’t do anything on a whim.” He added, “The [police department] is increasingly research-driven, this is a goal of many of the department’s leaders, and this necessitates working with researchers.” In the West, a police department worked with a criminologist in their city on several projects, and the researcher attributed the success of their projects to an “open culture,” “really high quality employees,” and “very progressive chiefs,” who “see the benefit in research.”

Several respondents focused on the orientations of law enforcement executives instead of entire organizations. A criminologist who worked with the chief of a West coast police department for decades remarked, “[The chief] is one of the best chiefs to work with; he gets it...the importance of research and how science can improve policing and the image of the department.” The researcher added, “Chiefs may want to make their department better and having science be a part of that improvement will make the department work better and appear progressive.” A criminologist who worked with individuals at different levels of multiple agencies on a variety of topics reflected, “Projects worked best because chief is interested

seriously in how the research can help.” He explained, “This is different from having researchers come in and do their work, but when the chief wants to know about the research and how it can improve his or her department is when the partnerships will work the best.” He reported, “There were no barriers because [the chief] decided to make research part of his management plan. He and his mid-level managers supported totally the research efforts.”

The orientations of practitioner participants were affected by their employing agencies, and the same was true regarding the institutional expectations of researchers’ universities, colleges, and private research organizations. A law school-based researcher in the Midwest suggested that others interested in applied research needed to “work for a school and department that values applied research,” but found often in academia, “action-oriented research is frowned upon.” A full professor of sociology in the Southeast opined, “it depends where you are,” and added, “Applied research is fun and exciting but not rewarded.” A policing scholar who conducted applied research while working for two major universities reported she was currently part of a Midwestern unit that sees value in partnership. She contrasted her university with her previous university, which did not value her contract with a state police department that lasted over 10 years. A public policy researcher in the West worked with agencies in the United States and abroad and mentioned researchers “need the work to be valued in academic settings,” because “If it’s not valued by the department it’s not going to happen.” A criminologist in the Southeast who worked with several agencies in the U.S. observed partnerships were time-intensive and created issues earning tenure and said she therefore “couldn’t do this at [top-ranked criminology and criminal justice department’s in the U.S.], maybe as an associate.”

Despite considerable remarks from practitioners about external researchers not understanding the practical aspects of policing that were their realities, many described how their

own research partners strove for sensible research designs that provided usable findings. A police department in the Southwest was actively involved in several research projects with a nearby criminologist. A planning and research analyst reported, “They were very receptive to our interests. They were pragmatic. They did not come in here and be academic-ey. They worked with their audience.” On the West coast, a police department partnered with a team of military intelligence experts and the responding chief of police reported “They get the subtleties of law enforcement; they get it, what we do.” In the Midwest, another agency worked with a criminologist for a decade and a captain from the agency explained she was able to provide context to the research, which was uncommon among researchers. He went on to explain context was necessary to “bridge the gap,” between researchers and practitioners by providing “actionable” research. The researcher also felt the success of their ongoing relationship was the result, in part, of her ability to conduct research that was “accurate and useful” to the agency. She felt that the lack of partnerships between police and researchers was partly due to the current focus on quantitative methods in criminology and criminal justice, created by journals in the field that published findings without context and thus provided little benefit to practitioners that need to understand not only that a problem exists, but also why it exists in order to fix it.

Only a few practitioners reported research designs incompatible with everyday law enforcement were implemented in their own partnerships, despite the aforementioned concerns. A Northeastern state police department worked with a local police department in the state that received federal funding to target distracted driving because they shared jurisdiction over that city’s roadways. A member of the agency explained, “One negative aspect of the study was that by agreeing to participate, the other city involved in the study acted as a control...so it precluded the agency from conducting similar law enforcement activities in that area, essentially they were

exempt from law enforcement, with regards to cell phone enforcement.” A West coast agency was required by its city council to partner with external researchers to collect data on traffic stops to determine whether racial biases existed and the responding practitioner noted, “Initially, officers were afraid data would come back and show they engaged in racial profiling and being disciplined. Traffic stops plummeted because they didn’t want any evidence against them.”

Another West coast agency partnered with a research team for an evaluation of non-lethal force and the responding practitioner explained, “Where they were missing was the knowledge and insight from working the street. Everything works in the lab. You need to examine it in field conditions. For example, they test the weapon bench mount, and they were getting mad because we were shooting them off hand. That’s how we use them in the field, that’s how we want to know if it works, not bench mount.”

Only a few participants reported practitioners’ lack of appreciation or understanding of research had negative effects on their partnerships once they were in motion. An officer from a Southeastern police department received a fellowship to conduct research in her department with the guidance of a research group. When asked if she had any initial concerns, the practitioner responded, “Oh yeah, absolutely, I had...no idea if I was doing the right thing. You know, I had no experience in research, it wasn’t my focus in school.” A team of epidemiologists from across the country worked with multiple agencies on workplace robbery reduction strategies, and one described, “One problem we had was with police departments understanding and disseminating the program. For example, one police department decided to change the program. They renamed the program and tried to do it all their way. This means we cannot include them in the evaluation.” A criminologist who partnered with a West coast agency noted the partnership could have been improved by, “more of an awareness by the police of what it takes to do a good study,

and the IRB process, knowing that making changes creates problems with IRB. They don't have to completely know about the process, just aware of what it takes to do a good study.”

Agency Sentiments Regarding Change

Although researchers’ objectivity towards their partnerships with police practitioners was vital, interviewees also explained the importance of objectivity among agencies. An interviewee from a Midwestern police department, which partnered with a nearby university to conduct citizen satisfaction surveys, reported, “Contributory factors included going into the project with no preconceived notions, having the goal of obtaining information that is reliable, and doing something with the information, whether it be change procedures, or adjust accordingly, in other words, being open-minded.” The chief of a small police department in Northeast that assessed citizen satisfaction said they conducted an “honest evaluation and were open to the possibility of negative findings.” A state police department in the Northeast initiated a partnership with a criminologist after a prior study that was required by the state’s general assembly and conducted by criminologists from another university found the department disproportionately stopped minority motorists. The responding major managed the project and explained, “At a minimum, the participation of the [state police] in such a voluntary study revealed that the agency was genuinely concerned with the findings of previous studies and we were committed to digging deeper into the numbers in an attempt to understand why the disparities, although slight, existed.”

Agencies also facilitated their partnerships with external researchers by providing complete access to their agencies and data. A representative from a Midwestern police department worked with a criminologist in the city to examine their handling of sexual assault cases and noted, “Anything she wants, I will provide.” The deputy chief of another department in

the same region conducted an organizational assessment and reported, “we gave the researchers complete access to our department.” The deputy chief of a West coast police department that worked with military experts on a gang reduction model that was facilitated by “the access given to the [researcher’s university] by the chief, they had unlimited access to the data, anything they wanted.” In the Southeast, a police department partnered with several researchers and evaluated changes to their illegal immigration enforcement policy. The senior administrative manager who was also the agency’s project manager explained, “It was made clear from the beginning that the department would not hold data back from the university and that an open relationship would be kept.”

A West coast police department partnered with a researcher to examine racial profiling in the department and an agency representative explained regarding the partnership, “He had full cooperation with the city and full cooperation with the police department, our agency is very transparent and progressive, with other agencies data could be an issue but we have nothing to hide. We basically said ‘here’s the data, analyze it and tell us what it says.’ The data is what it is.” On the other hand, a Southern police department recently conducted “a wide range assessment...There were some 400 items examined,” a major explained. He reported there was trust initially but “It got off track after the initial draft came out, parts of it the chief had issues with. It took away from everything else, accusations of cover up, why are we trying to hide something.” The major suggested, “If you are worried the department has an issue to be addressed you need to be completely open, because as soon as you don’t want to say something, you are seen as covering up,” and added “you need to be open, transparent.”

Another aspect of agencies’ orientations towards research that facilitated research partnership was the extent to which they were willing to inform their policies and practices based

on research findings. A criminologist in the Midwest worked with a police department in her city and reported the relationship turned a page when, one year after their first project, she attended a meeting where the command staff was “arguing over data.” She remarked how when she started the department’s leadership did not understand the value of using data at all and a year later they were arguing over its quality. Another researcher in the Midwest partnered with a police department where she worked for several projects, including a school-based randomized experiment, and reported, “they were very open,” with respect to changing their curriculum based on that experiment. A lieutenant from a police department in the West worked with a nearby criminologist to evaluate a methamphetamine initiative, said the agency had “no problems with civilians overlooking” their operations and were “open to suggestions.” Several practitioners reported initial concerns about changing their practices, which were satisfied when researchers explained how similar revisions benefitted other agencies.

Several interviewees described how agencies’ reluctances to revise their practices created barriers to their partnerships, such as a lieutenant from a Midwestern agency who said, “I used the analogy it’s like looking through your underwear drawer, they questioned what was going on and the troopers tried to be open to findings.” A researcher who worked with several agencies throughout his career observed, “Another barrier is law enforcement agencies are heavily tradition-bound, they can be resistant to changes...Another barrier, some people are all about entrenchment, they want to keep their position and the way they do things, and don't want to change what they do.” A planning and research analyst from a Southwestern police department that worked with a criminologist on multiple projects stated, “The most difficult task is getting patrol officers to go beyond their normal approach...They had to work their way up the chain, to the district or regional manager level—they had an interest in doing something. But getting

officers to go here, they think they are an officer and they can't do this.” He added, “This is a little hard with the line level officers. They don't want to always do something new. They see it as just another new program. They will say they just want to, ‘let me go back to what I'm doing.’ It’s a tough culture to change.”

Buy-In from Key Participants

Interviewees noted that research partnerships necessitated support from multiple levels of law enforcement agencies, as noted by a researcher who worked with many agencies in the Midwest who said, “The best way to get and stay involved in important projects is to maintain and keep good relationships with all levels of management and officers.” A criminologist in the West who worked with multiple agencies felt, “key players from top to bottom must buy in,” in order to create an “overall department strategy.” He added that his research team conducted in-service trainings to “make sure all were on board.” A criminologist who was located in the Southeast but also worked with agencies in other regions stated, “The chief may want to be innovative, but the mid-level managers can get in the way, or officers may not do what they are told.” A planning and research analyst from a Southwestern police department reflected, “You always have this organizational bastard, the old lieutenant, that organizational bastard lieutenant that can dig their heels in and fight it and thwart everything.”

Support of law enforcement agencies’ leadership facilitated research partnerships when they mandated the support of subordinates in their respective organizations. The representative of a Midwestern police department noted her partnership was facilitated by the chief who simply told his staff “this is what we’re going to do.” A partnership in the Midwest required officers to use a new lethality assessment for domestic violence victims that was previously developed and tested by the research team. A researcher reported the project was facilitated by the chief’s

directive to officers that “you must do this,” and later noted that the “directive demonstrated administrative support.” A deputy chief from the police department said there were no initial concerns because “most officers knew that it was a study that was supported by the chief.” A sociologist reported that his team’s partnership with a Southeastern police department was facilitated by the “chief’s support.” He added, “The chief was passionate about the project and well-respected by officers,” which the researchers learned from focus groups with officers. Also, the chief told officers to “do extra work,” and they complied. Finally, a psychologist in the Midwest conducted survey research in over 30 agencies over the past five years and reported, “Having the chief on board, support, is critical.” She explained executives’ support increased the “swiftness and response rates,” of their voluntary surveys.

Interviewees reported the support of law enforcement agencies’ leadership had not always garnered the necessary support of subordinates who felt forced, resented the extra work, or were not properly informed by their immediate superiors. A Midwestern researcher said, “I’ve worked with many agencies,” and concluded his interview with the following comment: “There has to be a commitment to change at the top, and key players throughout the organization who buy in. I’ve rejected to work on projects because the chief or sheriff wants change by force.” An epidemiologist reported, “One specialist in [a Western police department] simply decided not to go through with the training. The sheriff signed off; but we had problems with one employee.” She observed, “lower-level employees would say, ‘nobody asked me to do this,’ or ‘I never wanted to get involved in this program.’ They are bitter about the work because the higher level administration signs off on it, but they have to do the work. What happens is that we talk to the superiors, who sign off on the work, but they dump the work on their inferiors. Also no work is taken away, only added. They end up asking us, ‘so what happens when you leave in two

years?”” Finally, a major from a Southern police department noted, “The officers first work for their sergeants and lieutenants—that is who they really work for. They work for the department and the chief, but it is the sergeants and lieutenants they answer to everyday and who direct them. If the message does not make to the officers because they do not communicate it to them or don’t buy into it, then...”

Several researchers first gained buy-in from law enforcement executives but reported this strategy created problems with other staff. A lieutenant from a Southeastern agency said there were no concerns initially, but emerged among the command staff when they realized the researcher, “had the chief’s ear,” and held influence. He reported colleagues’ wondered, “Who is this person coming in to affect my job?” Two criminologists who partnered with a police department in the same region reported that some officers initially viewed them as “[The chief’s] boys,” a negative sentiment among staff they overcame by emphasizing they were paid by the university and received no money from the agency. One of the researchers also reported he had “taken the chief to task” when they were in disagreement, which increased his perceived legitimacy among the rank and file and chief. A criminologist in the Northeast worked with several agencies across the country reported that starting with the chief led others to view him as the “chief’s stooge” at a Northeast police department. He also noted that some patrol officers disliked the chief, which made him “guilty by association.”

Law enforcement agencies’ project managers, points of contact, and champions facilitated research partnerships and often prevented others from blocking partnership activities or access to data. A Midwestern criminologist noted, when applying for an external award, “The leadership were very weary of what we were doing, they thought that we were going to make them look bad. The officer we’re working with gave us a heads up of what was going on. So I

wrote a letter telling them about what we were doing, and this was for the success of the project, and it dealt with those concerns.” A commander in a West coast sheriff’s department explained, “You need someone walking you through the bureaucracy. There are a lot of pitfalls in the department like this. There are people with different goals and agendas and your research can run into these and you don't even know it. You need an ally to get you around the pitfalls. For example, you have a deadline for a grant and you need something, and you hit a pitfall that blocks your grant. You need a champion that is tracking it through who already knows the possible pitfalls. For example, I had this situation where someone wanted to get some data and this data assistant saw this as extra work, didn't want to do it, so was stopping it. I was a commander by this time and I could force it through and get her to do it. But this would have killed the project without the help.” In a similar manner, a major from a Southeastern police department found, “Even with the relationship with [their partner university], there is still problems sometimes, someone else in the agency doesn't agree with the project or the researcher having access to the data, and cuts off the data.” He provided several examples of prior research projects and dissertations that he assisted and provided necessary data.

Practitioners also reported that support from communities had facilitated partnerships with researchers, and created barriers as well. In the West, a medium-sized police department was approached by a group of researchers looking for sites to implement their community-based prevention programs, and the responding chief of police reported, “Community support was also a contributing factor to the project and partnership.” A medium-sized sheriff’s office in the West partnered with a researcher in the areas of snow dynamics and backcountry safety for outreach and avalanche forecasting. The project manager attributed the success of their project to a “receptive population.” He explained community support was required when they made

unpopular decisions to close unsafe public lands. A partnership in the West was initiated by a prevention researcher who approached a police department to examine alcohol-related offenses and provide better responses to alcohol use among young adults, which focused on a few college drinking areas. The agency representative explained, “We have been successful despite protests from some bar owners. We helped facilitate working relationships and communications between multiple parties of police, academics, and community.” The practitioner remarked, “I likened what we were doing in this project as trying to get a flower to grow with the petals working independently of each other. Without a crisis or disaster, or change in law, without those compulsions, these people generally did not want to come together.”

Other practitioners reported political barriers from actors external to research partnerships. A grants coordinator from a Northeastern police department explained, in order to receive state funding for their gang initiative, the department had to “articulate their gang problem,” but described initial problems created by one “local politician.” She explained that when they were applying for the gang grant the politician publically stated his support. Later, the responding practitioner received a call from the politician who commanded, “You can’t say we have gangs and a gang problem,” and that they had to stop providing this information. A partnership in the Southeast worked on several projects but the most recent, according to the responding administrative manager, was “a very politically-charged topic.” The researcher stated, “We knew the report would be cherry-picked,” and reported a local politician approached him before a presentation and said, “These are the new slides I want you to use.” The same politician also repeatedly made edits to the final report and they argued because “she thought the report was not spun enough.” Partnership participants also reported politics created barriers to the utilization of research findings, including a West coast police department that partnered with

a nearby researcher to address alcohol and drug use in the community. The agency's representative described, "The other barrier is the beverage industry itself; we know they actively oppose policies that reduce college drinking... We look at opportunities for policies like the early closing of bars and liquor stores. They attack those who challenge them."

Researchers Emphasized Desires to Help, Not Judge

Partnerships were facilitated by researchers who emphasized that they wished to partner with police practitioners to help, not to tell them what to do or judge them. In the Midwest, a medium-sized police department was approached by the domestic violence shelter and service provider in their city to audit and revise their policies and procedures and the chief of police reported some initial concerns among officers. This diminished as the researchers emphasized, "we're here to help you," we are "not pointing fingers" and "not judging." He added, "Researchers were not judgmental," and "don't question old policies." The chief concluded research partnerships were "all in the selling," and explained researchers must present themselves as there to help. A captain from a Midwestern police department described, "There is always some fear of researchers but [their partner] avoided conflicts by asking the [police department] 'what are your needs?' Others have approached the agency and want to tell us what to do." He reported, "No barriers because [the researcher] approached the [police department] asking 'what are your needs?' Others want to tell us what to do and have not been well-received." A Southeastern criminologist worked with the police department for several projects and described her orientation as "I know research and I can help you do what you do better." She felt her role as "more like a consultant," and added that she was "there to help them, not tell them what to do." Finally, a criminologist in the Northeast who worked with numerous agencies in the

United States stated, “you must be a giver,” which referred to helping agencies. He and remarked that he told participating officers, “I am here to observe, not to judge.”

Several participants reported researchers tended to approach agencies asking for something, such as data, but needed to provide something in return. A West coast sheriff’s department first worked with a team of researchers by merely providing data. Approximately one decade later, the researchers approached the agency and asked, “What could be given back?” The practitioner explained, “One thing [the university] did, they said, ‘this is what we want, what do you want?’” A criminologist from a Southeastern university first began working with his partner agency via “informal meetings,” and “general conversations,” regarding a managerial strategy. Later, the researcher and two colleagues decided to establish a more formal relationship, approached the agency, and asked, “How can we be of help?” The original partner criminologist viewed partnerships in general as “a gift they are giving you,” and focused on “how can we help?” Another criminologist with a similar approach took a job at a Southeastern university and immediately had one of his new colleagues introduce them to the local police chief. The researcher explained he approached the chief with the orientation of “what can we do for you?” He concluded, “Academics come in asking for something, they need to offer something.” A researcher in the Midwest worked with many state, local, and federal agencies on violent crime reduction initiatives and explained, “there has to be some benefits to them... You can’t just go to them with requests.” In providing concluding sentiments, the researcher said, “You can’t just go with your hand out,” but instead “must be results oriented” and focused on “what can we do for you?”

Several researchers reflected how they established partnerships by initially or consistently working as volunteers, and felt volunteering demonstrated their desire to help partner agencies.

A criminologist in the Midwest noted, “The researcher must pay his or her dues, doing research for no pay and gaining the trust and confidence of the practitioners and their community.”

Another interviewee from a U.S. Attorney’s Office worked with numerous cities in the region on a violence reduction partnership. He believed that there was a need for more, “outreach to law enforcement from academic researchers,” and thought that one way for academic researchers to get involved was by initially volunteering to help. A psychologist who worked in a Northeastern medical school briefly worked with a police department in the region as part of a substance abuse prevention project, and later approached the agency to evaluate their domestic violence unit for free. The responding chief of police mentioned several times the researchers were seen as “altruistic” by the agency, and said they made a good first impression with him based on their initial presentation and “pro bono work.”

Volunteering time was not only important when researchers established partnerships with police practitioners; several interviewees suggested researchers volunteer their time between paid projects to maintain their partnerships, such as a criminologist in the Northeast who worked with many agencies across the country and reflected, “Sometimes there is no money or tangible benefit but the researcher needs to do work to keep the relationship healthy.” In a similar manner, another criminologist in the Northeast worked with many agencies in the area, most of which were funded in order to maintain the research center he founded. He and a colleague reported, however, they worked on smaller “good will,” and “in-between” projects and hoped they would result in funding. The lead researcher noted they “keep working to sustain partnerships between projects.” A Southwestern police department worked with a team of criminologists for nearly a decade on various projects. The responding agency analyst noted, “They are willing to do anything, not only things that involved funding.” He explained, “It

removes a barrier, a traditional barrier of mistrust and suspicion. It doesn't remove everything, but it turns a black wall into an opaque wall.” A police department in the Northeast had partnered with a nearby researcher for almost a decade. The responding representative shared, “She may or may not have anything in the grant but she sees the big picture, I'll put her in for \$50,000 on this grant down the road.”

Local Researchers Shared Stakes in Communities

Many partnerships were formed, in part, because of shared stakes in the communities where researchers and practitioners lived and worked. For example, a Midwestern agency received federal funding that required an external research partner and reached out to a criminologist from a research university in the area because he, “lives and works in [the city],” and had, “a stake in the community.” A police department in the Southeast received funding from the Bureau of Justice Assistance that required an independent evaluation, so a request for proposals was sent out and a group of researchers from a university in the city were selected and aided in the evaluation design. The responding practitioner noted he preferred working with a local group because, “they are part of the community so they have a stake in working on this and community safety.” A major from a Southeastern sheriff’s office reported on his agency’s partnership with a nearby university for leadership training as follows: “What I think also has made this work is we have an educational institution want to be a part of community development. They want to be involved in outreach.” The major added, “The key is the two parties are on the same page. Both agencies really and truly wanted this to happen.”

A Southeastern police department began working with a criminologist from a university in the city as soon as she was hired. The researcher explained that after meeting the chief and having him guest lecture in one of her graduate courses, she approached him to collaborate on a

grant application. The agency's project manager added the researcher, "lived in the same city," so there was "trust and buy-in." A final case in point was provided by a partnership between a Southeastern police department and two members of a university's criminal justice department in the city. The researcher interviewee reported he had a colleague introduce him to the chief of police within the first two weeks of moving to the city. The criminologist explained his university had a mission of conducting research that was relevant to the community and therefore tried to be visible in the community and to "make people aware of what you do." He and a colleague who worked several projects with the agency had similar sentiments towards community service; he noted, "We view this as our community."

The following two partnerships were initiated by local politicians and researcher partners became involved due to their commitments to those jurisdictions. The first example included a researcher who lived and worked in the area for approximately 30 years as an educator, school administrator, and school board member. She was approached over a decade ago by the city council and city manager to work on a collaboration that included their police department, various non-profit organizations, local school districts, and another local agency that served those schools. Since that time the partnership continued to grow and expand in scope. The researcher added that the collaboration has been careful to include only people who were "committed to seeing something happen," and were "committed and passionate." The researcher demonstrated the dedication of partnership members and explained that she owned a consulting firm but only worked with this collaboration and turned down many job offers. Since partnering, she moved from the area but stayed committed to this collaboration and ignored family member requests to retire.

In the second instance, the responding deputy chief of a West coast police department explained their partnership began after the city's mayor, congressional representative, and provost of a university in the area met at a state-level meeting and decided to collaborate to find new ideas for addressing gangs in the community. The provost reached out to a group in his university experienced with irregular warfare, and the researcher conducted several presentations for city executives including the mayor, chief of police, a deputy chief, city attorneys, and social service providers. The deputy chief explained, "We had just come off two record breaking years for homicides, so we were shopping for help. The people at the [university] were interested, they live in the community and were interested in doing something about it." The deputy chief added there were no initial concerns because "I'm a lifelong resident of the area and I know about [the university] and what they do." The researchers volunteered their time, and the deputy chief felt this demonstrated their desire to help the community as opposed to obtaining funding.

A few partnerships encountered barriers that practitioners attributed to working with non-local researchers who lacked buy-in or devotion to local issues and needs. For instance, a Midwestern police department began working with a criminologist in the state when a new chief of police was hired and brought his previous partner from a community-based crime reduction initiative in his former agency. However, the agency concluded the previous city's model would not be applicable without substantial revisions. The practitioner felt those researchers "couldn't get cultural differences between [the two cities]." Another Midwestern police department partnered with a research group from the Southeast in order to use their community policing self-assessment and the responding lieutenant described working with local versus distant researchers as follows: "We've had a lot of local partnerships, through the local university or local groups or programs, and I'll be honest, I'm more willing to do those types of partnerships than what we did

here with [the research organization] because that local group will tend to have more of a buy-in with the research. You know, they tend to be just as invested as we are in the project so both sides tend to be on the same page...I think the results end up being better for the community all around.” A final practitioner contrasted partnerships with two universities in his West coast police department. The first institution “is interested in local issues,” and the responding assistant chief of police noted their “civic minded approach.” He added, “They have good quality people with whom we have good relations, trust, and confidence. They have a desire to create good relations.” The second university in the city “is more interested in global relations, they seem to want our data for their own use and not too interested in giving back to us.”

Researchers Explained Anticipated Benefits to Agencies

Police practitioners described benefits that resulted from partnerships with researchers who convinced agencies of the value of their proposed partnerships early on, including a major from a Southern police department who said, “You have to sell it and be open.” He explained how researchers should approach the agency and discuss, “what we are going to do here, we’ll sit down and show you what we found, and what you could do, show different things you could do, what others are doing.” He later added, “You got to sell it. If you want buy-in to the program, you have to sell it.” A police department on the East coast received federal funding to research risks of driving under the influence of drugs or alcohol, and the responding sergeant suggested, “Explaining to them, agency representatives, in our case officers, the benefits, whether if it’s monetary or in practice, explaining benefits to individuals involved from the beginning increases the benefits to everyone involved.” In the Southeast, a sheriff’s office partnered with a nearby university for leadership training and several other projects and a major explained, “Sometimes there is a dichotomy between researchers and practitioners. With the partnership, they not only

have an understanding of the academic, but the members on the board can relate to practitioners. They understand our perspective: what will the research provide, what are the practical implications, what recommendation will it provide?” The representative of a West coast sheriff’s department suggested this strategy to a researcher who requested data, he said, “I told him ‘you don’t cold call asking for the data. I would write a letter to the sheriff.’ I said, ‘write a one page letter, not a grant. Say what’s this going to do for him and cost. And you only get one shot.’”

Several criminologists with considerable backgrounds conducting research for law enforcement agencies suggested others who wished to establish research partnerships must first approach the leadership and convince them the proposed research would be valuable and beneficial to their agencies. One criminologist who worked with several agencies in the Midwest, and was formerly a practitioner in the region, felt researchers “gotta be proactive,” with regards to approaching law enforcement agencies,” and, “gotta sell the idea of research, concept of research and evaluation to them.” He thought one aspect was “convince them that they will benefit.” Another criminologist in the West noted, “CJ departments and researchers have to justify their value to agencies.”

Several respondents suggested researchers provide examples of how similar research had been conducted in, and was beneficial to, other agencies. The lieutenant from a Southeastern police department explained that a criminologist the agency had worked with approached the chief to apply for a grant on organizational change from the COPS Office. The lieutenant noted, “The message was sent in a manner that emphasized how the partnership would benefit the [police department].” He added, in general, “The most important consideration for researchers is emphasizing how the research will help the agencies.” He stated, “You need the practitioner, they don’t need you,” and felt agencies just want to know “how does this help me?” To do this,

he thought researchers should cite what other law enforcement agencies were doing because it was a tight knit community and chiefs were be more likely to participate if their colleagues were.

A Midwestern police department was approached to replicate a domestic violence lethality assessment by a group of social workers, and the deputy chief explained there were initial concerns about changing their procedures but, “They were able to sell the staff on that fact that this format had been shown to work somewhere else previously.” One of the researchers from that partnership was interviewed and also thought researchers must emphasize, “I get something out of it; you get something out of it too.” A final example was provided by the project director of a team of violence prevention specialists who were looking for a site to include in their community-based prevention program. The chief reported, “Yes, there were some initial concerns, primarily that the [prevention program] was going to move the department away from other programs already in place.” The researcher reported the chief was primarily concerned about replacing DARE but was open to alternative programs. Over time, the researchers convinced the chief that their project had merit based on results from other jurisdictions, and the lead researcher said it was important to “use research to show what works.” He concluded the interview by remarking researchers “have to reach out to law enforcement, have to show them what works.”

A few practitioners related how their research partners inadequately explained projects during the initial phases of their partnerships, which created barriers. The chief of police of a Southern police department suggested their partnership could have been improved by a “Pre-event briefing so we would have been able to more aptly understand what it is what they were doing for us, why it was important.” Another representative from a police department in the West suggested in relation to when the criminologist worked with approached the agency, “It

could have used more setup, background on the concepts and reasons for doing this.” He described a former project with another university and reported, “They asked us to rank these behaviors but would not tell us what this was for. I understand they don't want to tell us and bias us, but if you don't tell officers what this is about they just fill it out to get it done with no thought or care. There is no context or understanding in how they should be looking at this. So, they are not really getting what they want.”

Researchers Valued and Incorporated Agency Knowledge

Researchers described the importance of valuing agency knowledge in general, and asking for practitioners’ inputs to research projects. A prevention researcher who worked with at least one dozen law enforcement agencies, including a medium-sized police department in the West, said researchers “have to reach out to law enforcement...and have to want their thoughts.” A criminologist in the Midwest who worked with various agencies explained, “you have to... do the things they see as important and give a damn about their work,” and added, “show interest in their ideas and work.” Another criminologist in the Midwest worked with at least three agencies and reported, “I just try to be myself. I'm not smarter, or elitist, more intelligent. I just try to express that I have something to offer, skills they might be interested in, and they have a ton of knowledge for me.” One interviewee had served as both a researcher and a practitioner, and conducted research in many agencies including the Midwestern city where he currently worked. He thought researchers need to understand that law enforcement agencies’ “are not just bugs to be studied but people to work with.” He felt researchers should conduct, “Not just research on them, but with them.”

Practitioners reported researcher partners valued their knowledge, which facilitated their partnerships. In the Northeast, a police department partnered with a psychologist in the state and

evaluated their recently formed domestic violence unit. The chief said the researcher valued staff participation and “made us a part of the study.” The chief of a medium-sized police department in the Midwest reported the researchers with whom his agency worked on a domestic violence audit, “asked open-ended questions,” which made the practitioners feel their input was valued. In the Southeast, a police department partnered with a social scientist in the city for several projects and the project manager reported, “She has really been interested in finding our ways we use [social network analysis] and the systems in new ways. She is very intuitive, not just sharing with the analysts, but attempting to understand how the analysts work. There is a sharing back and forth.” He added that the researcher was, “willing to be flexible, interested in our law enforcement practices.” A medium-sized police department in the Southeast received funding from a federally initiative, which required an external evaluation. A representative reported in relation the researchers, “They were open to suggestions. Many times the researchers sought out more input from the police department.”

A degree of flexibility was required of those researchers who valued and incorporated agencies’ knowledge into their partnerships. Flexibility among research staff members was noted by many participants. The flexibility of researchers, in terms of facilitating partnerships with police practitioners, was oft-noted with respect to selecting or refining research topics and goals. The importance of this was mentioned by an epidemiologist who worked with several agencies during graduate school and afterwards and found, “Success depends on who is defining it...and academics have different ideas of success when compared to practitioners.” Because researchers and practitioners often had different goals, successful researchers solicited and incorporated their goals into partnership projects. For example, the researcher coordinated his school’s internship program with a police department in the city and explained how each fall he emailed the police

chief and district attorney to provide notice of the upcoming summer internships and advertised the program in the law school as well. Next, he interviewed and selected law students to participate. Last, he attended meetings for each placement that included the student, police chief, and local district attorney where they discussed and selected a research problem that would be the focus of their summer internship. The coordinator explained that the chief and district attorney ultimately picked the problems because he and the school wanted them to be of, “genuine and mutual interest to the Chief and D.A.”

Researchers who valued law enforcement agencies’ knowledge in terms of research methods also facilitated their partnerships. An East coast police department partnered with the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration and an external evaluator. The agency’s representative said the researcher had “No reservations at all. If anything came up, related to personnel or procedure, they were flexible... Receptive and made whatever changes they could. If they couldn’t change, for instance, due to validity, we would negotiate.” He later commented, “Big thing is the flexibility...They don’t try to force anything on us. They realize we’ve got policies and procedures and they work within those very well.” A Southeastern police department searched for a team to evaluate a change in their illegal immigration policy and the responding representative explained, “I also reached out to [a nearby university] to discuss a proposal for the project, I went to them initially but didn’t have a good feeling with this research team. We partnered with [another university] because I had a better relationship with them.” He continued, “The department wanted a multidisciplinary approach. We didn’t feel that [the nearby university] was in favor of that type of approach. [The lead researcher’s university], however, seemed to prefer a multidisciplinary approach, which was used in a previous partnership.”

Researchers' flexibility also facilitated their partnerships with law enforcement agencies with regards to data collection. For example, one responding practitioner noted in relation to their research partner, "[they] worked within the confines of our already existing schedule." The project manager from a sheriff's office in the same region reported, "The researchers were open to [the agency's] existing data collection process." A psychologist in the Midwest who worked with two agencies in the sample of partnership participants explained, "We wanted to add more variables to the questionnaire, but you have to keep things consistent, changing things all the time is just going to piss people off." Finally, a psychologist in the Northeast evaluated a nearby police department's domestic violence unit and explained that the original plan was a "randomized trial," which provided "cell phones to a treatment group of high risk domestic victims." However, the data collection procedure was, "changed," in order to be "executable," to asurveys of victims.

Researchers also facilitated their partnerships and expressed their flexibility by not telling agencies what to do. The chief of a police department in the Northeast explained that his agency's partnership with a nearby psychologist was facilitated by "a great presentation" to him, which emphasized that the researchers were, "not here to tell you how to do your jobs," but instead "here to collect data." The chief also noted they were, "non-threatening." A partnership in the Southwest had operated for many years and an analyst from the police department noted their relationship was facilitated by researchers "Not coming in here with a, this academic aura, the ivory tower mentality. [The lead researcher] and [his] folks didn't do that. You can't come in here, 'we're going to come in and show you everything,' like they know everything. If you have someone do that, I would not want to use their information, data, or results. I would not trust it."

Interviewees also noted that researchers could not force practitioners to use results in any particular way. An epidemiologist who worked with agencies across the United States said, “At the end of the day it is about the partnership, we as academics can't just tell the police what to do.” A criminologist who worked with agencies in many states said, “Researchers shouldn't say ‘this is what you should be doing.’” Finally, a Midwestern partnership was formed by a domestic violence shelter and research organization that approached the chief of their city's police department to audit their policies and procedures and create a new model based on their results. However, the agency's project manager explained, “street police were selected to train other officers,” which she felt was better than having an external researcher come in and tell people how to do their jobs better.

Upfront Communication of Needs, Methods, Roles, and Outcomes

Police practitioner-researcher partnerships were facilitated by the manner that participants communicated needs, goals, and research methods with one another. On the other hand, unsuccessful lines of communication created initial concerns, some of which materialized into noteworthy barriers. For instance, the chief of a Midwestern police department said, “There are always concerns with partnerships, especially in regards to communication.” Researchers and practitioners mentioned the importance of discussing participants' needs in the beginning of research partnerships. A criminologist who worked with his city's police department in the West stated, “Researchers need to be on the same page as the practitioner in terms of needs and goals. We need to have those discussions up front and live with the agreement.” A criminologist in the Northeast who worked with agencies across the country similarly felt, “The key is to discuss up front the needs of the researcher and practitioner and to accommodate each other's needs.” A Midwestern police department was approached by a private policing research organization to

participate in focus groups. A sergeant from the department reported, “There was a clear understanding of what they were trying to research.” He added, “explaining what the project entailed, the objectives, and what they hoped to gain helped us understand what they were looking for, so we could work with them.”

Other interviewees described the importance of communicating partnership methods and activities. For example, a representative from a Western sheriff’s office reported the project was facilitated by four factors, one of which was that the researchers “walked [the agency] through the methods.” The chief of a police department in the West partnered with a researcher of violence prevention and explained, “[The researcher] held a meeting with our department and provided a memorandum describing the research they wanted to conduct on violent deaths...[The researcher] and her department at [her university] were really organizing what they wanted to do with whatever information we provided, but the memorandum they provided us with months ago seemed to have the whole process mapped out.” A criminologist who worked on several projects with the West coast police department where she worked reflected, “One thing that is problematic, and it’s more of an academic issue that I’m also guilty of, not conveying the project in a meaningful and manageable way...I [was] writing a city grant with an NIJ approach, with all this methodology. That is not what they want. They want something that is to the point and says what you’re going to do.”

In addition to discussing research partners’ needs and goals, as well as research methods, interviewees felt it was important for all members to have a clear understanding of their own and others’ roles. A representative from a police department in the West worked with a range of researchers and topics in the past said, “Being a researcher myself I think it is a good idea as long as everyone understands what needs to be done.” A lieutenant from a Midwestern agency felt

that partnerships between researchers and practitioners in general were, “Very useful, as long as both have a clear understanding of the expectations and capabilities. We need to know what they can do and what they can expect them to do.” The chief of a Northeastern sheriff’s department felt that generally, the “devil is in the details; making sure everyone knew their roles...Easily-defined roles.” A representative from a Southeastern sheriff’s office explained, “One of the big things, willingness for everyone to be honest with each other about what their roles and jobs need to be. If anyone steps outside roles, everyone at the table knows that your role is this or that. Offer suggestions but no one tries to do the other person’s job. Open and honest communication.” He reported the project encountered early difficulties, which were removed when a new group of practitioners were introduced, and said, “We for the most part now we realize a common goal we just have different jobs to reach that goal. Understand role and responsibility makes it easier to get the job done and come together.”

Finally, partnership participants felt specific details regarding the outputs of research projects should be communicated early on. A psychologist worked with two police departments in this sample reported, “It is important to try to make sure that there is lots of communication. It is easy for academics to see things a certain way. See the metrics for academia is articles, grants, et cetera, and these are important. But, a successful partnership, you have to maximize the possibility that it is a beneficial outcome for everyone.” An epidemiologist who worked with several agencies said, “All products and efforts must be spelled out.” However, a lieutenant from a Midwestern police department noted in relation to their research partner, “even though we made it clear from the beginning that comparing our findings to other departments was something we wanted to get out of this whole thing,” they were not provided others’ results. He reported, “Communication would have had to be the biggest barrier in all of this,” and suggested,

“maybe there could have been better communication through the process but I understood that we made our goals and expectations clear from the outset.”

Consistent and Clear Communication

The importance of communication persisted throughout research partnerships, as evidenced because “consistent” and “regular” communications, often in the form of meetings, were frequently mentioned among the facilitators of research partnerships. On the other hand, practitioners reported researchers often failed with respect to this variable. A crime analyst from a Southeastern police department reported, “Some academics take the data, disappear, and we never see them again.” Alternatively, the representative from a Midwestern state highway patrol partnered with a researcher from a statistics center at a state university noted facilitators of the partnership were that they “communicated often,” “held a lot of meetings,” and the research partner “kept [the practitioners] informed along the way.” A major from a Northeastern agency remarked, “Regular dialogue between [the researcher’s university] and [the agency] helped both partners understand issues as they arose during the study.”

A staff member from the U.S. Attorney’s Office noted a facilitator of their partnership included, “There was ongoing dialogue among the consortium members.” A representative from a Southeastern police department that worked with a team of social scientists reported, “The project manager had daily close contact with the research team. Communication was conducted primarily through phone and email. Frequent correspondence was key to having open communication with the researchers.” He explained, “During the project, there was a major policy change from pre-arrest inquiry to post-arrest inquiry; the team was able to readjust focus of study easily, success was equated to the open lines of communication between researchers and practitioners.” Researchers exhibited similar sentiments, such as a social worker who worked

with agencies in several regions who felt researchers must give “consistent feedback.” An epidemiologist who worked with a West Coast police department on a commercial robbery reduction project reported her team made “monthly phone calls and conference calls to help keep things in place.” She said, “Every month I would suggest a conference call to monitor where the program was at, how it was doing.”

Several practitioners suggested more communication would have improved their partnerships, including the representative of a Western sheriff’s office that worked with a team of researchers to study racial bias in traffic stops, and said, “Ongoing communication” and a “follow-up,” would have improved the partnership. A representative of a West coast police department that partnered with a research evaluation group explained, “There weren’t any meetings, just some conference calls over the phone that informed us, that every quarter they would send us some type of matrix for us to fill out with all the statistics they wanted.” He reflected, “I want to say they did send a brief synopsis, maybe, updating us on the status of the research a long while ago, but I can’t say for certain.” When asked for recommendations, the officer suggested, “Really just if they would keep us up-to-date on the status of the research. We’re fine working with them by providing information, but it’s a little unnerving to turn over so much information over such a long period of time and not know exactly what’s being done with it.”

Interviewees reported that frequent, in-person meetings facilitated their research partnerships, such as a criminologist who worked with the state patrol where he lived and worked in the Midwest who believed, “you have to play in their park,” and “go to meetings.” Another criminologist worked in the West with a number of agencies noted, “[the] agency must get a proper process out of researcher, communication, periodic meetings.” A psychologist who

worked with two police departments in this sample noted the difficulty of discussing race with officers and making changes to his instruments during projects. He observed, "Meeting together often you can work on these forms of communication and establish the program." The chief of a Midwestern police department reported in relation to their partnership, "We never felt abandoned and we were always well-informed since we've always had conferences arranged to plan everything that were well attended." Finally, a West coast sheriff's department noted that their partnership could have been improved by "more time with researchers." The representative explained they only saw or spoke with researchers when data was needed.

A few research partnership participants described differences in languages between researchers and police practitioners in general. A lieutenant from a police department in the Midwest felt that, in general, "One of the biggest problems between these two groups is that they speak a different language and coming together like this gets at a better understanding of what each of them needs." Similarly, a criminologist who was interviewed for his projects with a Northeastern police in the past felt practitioners and researchers "speak different languages," and possessed "two different sets of eyes with two different orientations." A Southeastern police department's crime analyst who held a Ph.D. stated, "Having sat on both sides of the fence I have the ability to speak to cops and academics. I can speak both languages." A major from a Southern police department that partnered with numerous researchers over the years noted that one of the issues had been common language. The practitioner explained, "They will use different terms in talking about something," and reported, "It will sound like English but each side doesn't know what the other is talking about." The practitioner added, "The researcher is unable to get the answers they want because the police cannot understand the questions."

A few respondents stated language differences actually created barriers to their research partnerships and provided specific examples. A captain from a Midwestern police department said the only barrier to their partnership with a nearby criminologist that over the years was “understanding academics.” The representative of a Midwest police department reported the only barrier to their partnership was “they were not familiar with police terminology.” Lastly, a practitioner from a Southeastern police department said regarding their partnership, “They will make one comment and when you take it apart it is just academic double speak, but their next comment is a good point.”

Geographic Proximity and Communication

Partnership participants reported geographic proximity was important for in-person meetings and discussions. A psychologist in the Midwest partnered with two agencies in this sample of research partnerships noticed, “they want the research partner to be at all meetings.” A researcher on the West coast worked on several school- and community-based projects with local agencies and reported their ongoing partnership was facilitated by the fact that “they met regularly,” which was approximately once every two weeks. Another police department on the West coast partnered with military experts in the city, who felt the partnership was facilitated by “close proximity” and “geographics,” because if a practitioner had a question or an issue they could just travel to their school.

Several research partnerships were designed in a manner that required agencies to partner with researchers and felt nearby researchers were preferable. For instance, an East coast police department received funding from the Bureau of Justice Assistance that required an independent evaluation. The agency requested proposals from researchers, and selected a team of social scientists in the city. The responding practitioner preferred working with local researchers for

several reasons and said, “For one, it fosters an ongoing relationship. If they are from the [out of state university], how often are they going to be onsite?” The responding practitioner explained his colleagues “were more interested in getting the researcher involved in the steering process, not just the back end document,” and noted the traditional academic approach was “we see them twice, they produce a report at the end, and we put it on the shelf.” Thus, the agency “wrote in the contract that [the researchers] had to attend monthly meetings.” The practitioner went on to suggest that because interactive processes were more useful, researchers could be contracted for twenty percent of their work week, have an office at the department, and show up on a given day weekly. The respondent noted this was hard to do without the researcher being local because “If you have people from out of town, New York, you meet with them twice and write the report. With local researchers, they want a project again.”

In a second example, a Southeastern sheriff’s office sought to provide leadership training and reached out to nearby researchers because, according to the responding major, “The agency wanted to develop something in house because it is expensive to send people to Washington D.C. for two or three weeks for training, but did not have the capacity to do it in house.” He continued, “The agency put out a bid to the universities in the area,” and the chosen university “changed the program. Instead of [their previous partner university’s] professors coming here to teach, now [sheriff’s office] personnel were teaching side by side. This helps with bridging the theory and practice gap, the fact you have sworn people in there teaching with [the new university partners’] professors.”

Practitioners and researchers believed that close proximity between these parties was important for informal contacts that established and maintained interpersonal relationships among partners as well. A Northeastern police department partnered with a nearby researcher for

a variety of projects, which was facilitated by “her local availability, on a formal and informal basis. She'll stop by regularly on her way into [her university],” according to the department representative. Another researcher in the Midwest recently met the chief of a nearby city’s police department, with whom she had no prior contacts or familiarity, at a conference in the state. The researcher reported, “We don't have anything right now, but I have lunch with him every couple months,” because there may be partnership opportunities down the road. Another Midwestern researcher reflected on his previous seven year long partnership with an agency in the Southeast, where geographic proximity was very important for “routine, informal, periodic contact.” The researcher explained that he met a commander while conducting training, who later “opened doors” for him at the agency. In that partnership, he often walked to the agency, had lunch with officers, and said this was important because “They want to know who you are, more than your academic credentials.”

Several interviewees reported distances between researchers and practitioners created barriers to partnerships. A practitioner in the Midwest worked with a major research university in the state, as well as research schools in the Southwest and Southeast, and said “the [local university] was more responsive because it was a local school.” A Southern police department partnered with a criminologist in the state and the chief, when asked about barriers to their partnership, replied, “Distance, he is located 90 miles from us so when we wanted to get together for face to face discussion we had a schedule issue.” He suggested, “proximity would have improved, more structured face to face involvement.” A medium-sized police department on the East coast received federal funding that required an external evaluator. The responding practitioner noted in relation to barriers, “Don’t think there are, distance perhaps.” He later suggested “closer access” could have improved their partnership.

However, many partners were not located nearby but reported several strategies for reducing those distances, including a willingness to travel. For example, two criminologists who worked together at a Northeastern university's research center had considerable partnership experiences, and felt attending all meetings in person facilitated all their partnerships. They later reported traveling two and a half hours to attend all meetings with one of their partner agencies, a strategy they felt helped practitioners gain knowledge of when, where, and how they could contribute. The researchers gained knowledge on all the components of the project, and lastly gave their partners a sense that they were committed to the research. Another partnership in the Southeast included a diverse group of community members, including a practitioner who reported, "We went back and forth between two locations because some people lived in different parts of the state so we tried to accommodate as best we could," and added, "Most people made all the meetings."

Another strategy for overcoming geographic distances between partnership participants was using technology to meet visually, if not in-person. The chief of a West coast police department reported, "It is important to get people together in a physical location but using video conferencing if necessary. I want to look at the researcher and see if I can see any cues." A Southeastern police department was selected as a pilot city to implement a violence and gang reduction model that was funded by the state. The state's crime commission contracted with a team of researchers from an in-state university for research and training and the responding practitioner stated that "[the researcher's university] is 3 hours away from [the police department] would be a slight barrier. It would have been more beneficial to have them physically here more than they are able to be." However, he added, "doing webinars has been important as far as communication," when he discussed the facilitators of that partnership.

Presenting Research Partnership Findings

Partnership participants described the consequences of how results were presented by researchers in terms of increased utility and decreased harm from negative findings. A researcher in the area of substance abuse prevention who worked with many agencies in the West thought it was important to “give back information in a useful way,” and thus focused on “how will people I’m studying use this?” A project manager from a Northeastern sheriff’s department felt, “cops don’t care about the process and how researchers got there,” instead their orientation was “show me right now what the answer is.” A prevention researcher described the importance of communicating the results for his program that had been implemented in several areas as follows: “So you have to always be thinking how to speak the language of cops. I use maps, with big red dots and anecdotal reports to present the data.” Lastly, a sergeant from a medium-sized sheriff’s office in the west reported their project partner produced very technical information in a practical way.

Another way that researchers assisted agencies in realizing the full potential of research findings was by discussing the results, and their implications, with their partner agencies, as opposed to just sending them a final report. A chief in the Northeast noted several factors facilitated his partnership with a research organization, which included “a quality document at the end of the project,” and “sat down with the [police department] and presented the results.” One criminologist in the West who worked with many agencies described, “making the research useful,” by providing executive summaries and recommendations with clear writing free of jargon. He added, in hindsight, it was always better to talk with agencies about findings rather than just sending them a final report.

Several researchers mentioned the importance of providing draft findings to agencies, such as a criminologist who worked with several Midwestern agencies. Regarding one of those projects, the researcher first provided a draft report and asked the agency, “Did I miss anything?” After discussions of parts of the report, such as definitions, the criminologist provided a final draft of his findings. Another criminologist in the West worked with many agencies throughout her career, and thought one way to establish trust was “talking with them” throughout the project, which included “discussing rough drafts,” and giving the agency an opportunity to respond to findings first, that is before publishing them. A crime analyst from a Southern police department reported, “The agency as a whole felt that [the partner university] did a great job at articulating the project at a higher level,” because they provided draft documents so that results were not taken out of context.

Another way researchers increased the usefulness of their research findings was providing results in a timely manner. A couple of respondents noted researchers and practitioners had different time demands. A criminologist in the Southeast who worked with law enforcement agencies for almost two decades and said, “It’s hard because cops are a train on a track. Researchers aren’t on trains, we’re on merry-go-rounds.” Another criminologist in the West worked with several agencies and reflected one of the facilitators was his understanding that “Police want answers yesterday; researchers need to provide timely information.” For these reasons, researchers suggested working on the practitioner’s timelines, such as a criminologist in the Midwest with considerable partnership experience who felt that deadlines were much more important for police and therefore she always tried to conduct research with a “constant sense of urgency.” A psychologist who worked with many agencies in the U.S. and abroad added, “You don’t drop the ball” and “deliver what you say and on time.” Interviewees also suggested

providing results in an ongoing manner. A criminologist who partnered with law enforcement across the country and observed, “It can be difficult for academics and practitioners to fit timelines together.” He therefore suggested, “Being transparent and using intermediate outcome measures or work products or less-rigorous analyses can help practitioner without big cost to researcher.” He explained researchers must give regular updates and ask, “What can I do for you to help you make informed decisions?”

Several practitioners reported their research partners provided results in less than satisfactory means, which created barriers to their research partnerships. For example, a lieutenant from a Midwest police department explained a barrier to their project was, “the final report we received was very difficult to read, for me and some other higher-ranking personnel who are accustomed to this type of research. So we asked them... to come in and explain the numbers to us, you know, to break down how they got the results that they got, but they said it would cost us \$1,500 to have them do that for us and that left a real bad taste in our mouths.”

The respondent from a Midwest police department observed their partnership could have been improved by, “better communication of results.” He noted the researcher presented the results to the department in a very academic manner and some of the officers did not understand “data lingo.” The responding commander of an agency in the West explained that the partnership, “started well, went bad,” as it “took forever,” and the researcher kept “making excuses and wouldn’t return calls.” Eventually the agency was provided, “raw data and tables in a useless report.” The commander reported the researcher was paid the entire amount upfront, was “gun-shy,” and said this project limited his ability to request funds for research from the chief in the future. Finally, a Southern police department was required by the U.S. Department of Homeland Security to update their continuity of operations plans with a pre-determined group of

researchers from a nearby university. The responding captain explained the university used a “boilerplate format,” and had “no willingness to tweak the format to fit a public safety need. The outline used was based on a government agency that was not involved with public safety or public health.” He remarked, “That’s why they call it the ivory tower.”

In several extreme cases, no results were ever provided to agencies. The chief of a Midwestern police department partnered with a researcher and said, “I’d like to know what was done with the results, though. I’ve yet to receive any follow-up from [the lead researcher] or [the] graduate student on the data they collected and I’m curious to know if they’ve taken it any further or if it’s been published.” When asked if he had any suggestions for improving the partnership, the chief responded, “Well I’d like to know if the research was ever extended. As I mentioned before, I was never followed up on by [the lead researcher] as to what was done with the findings of the analysis. I’d be interested to know if anything else has been done with it, if it’s been incorporated into other research or further research.” A West coast police department received state funding to research alcohol sales and juvenile accessibility, and partnered with an evaluation group. The responding practitioner from a West coast police department discussed, “We didn’t or haven’t received any feedback from them, and that would have been nice. I think they indicated originally there would be something, like a report, available when the research was finished, but we haven’t received any type of update on it and we would appreciate something.” Lastly, a Midwestern police department partnered with several other local agencies and a university in the South. The responding deputy chief reported, “It was just disappointing that we didn’t get a result. During the project period, we had good interaction with the group that was conducting research but it just all of a sudden ended.”

An oft-inherent difficulty regarding the presentation of research partnership findings was the potential for diverse interpretations. For example, the chief of a Northeastern police department noted, “The only negative is that outsiders can interpret the findings almost any way that they want. Also, law enforcement and the public often view findings differently.” A researcher that worked with a sheriff’s office in the West reported a problem was the “media can interpret the findings incorrectly.” One of his local roles was vetting reports before they were released to the media and public. He also felt that researchers and practitioners can have competing goals, such as “law enforcement’s concern with the political ramifications of findings versus academics concern with accurate reporting of those findings.” Because of the potential political liabilities of interpreting results incorrectly, several participants suggested partners discuss findings together. A criminologist in the Northeast who worked with many agencies in the U.S. suggested, “With any finding tell the practitioner first.” He felt, “In a partnership it is important to have both sides discuss process and findings. What do the findings mean?” The criminologist added, “Presenting negative findings is a tricky proposal, because of the political world, but negative findings can be handled well, if the information is shared in a timely manner, explaining the implications, what they mean and how the practitioner’s side of the story can be told.”

The media was commonly mentioned as problematic with respect to presenting research findings. First of all, several researchers with extensive experience partnering with law enforcement stated, in the words of one who had worked with many local agencies in the Midwest, there can be “conflict between politics and research,” and thus it was important “not to go to the press first with findings.” A criminologist who has worked with another of agencies said he focused on letting the departments know about results and “not running to the media.”

Another criminologist noted in relation to his partnering agency, “The agency had been burned by a researcher from the department and it soured the relationship.” He reported, “There had been a problem in the past because one researcher had gone to the press.” When asked about the most vital factors for successful research partnerships, the criminologist replied, “don’t go to the press”, and explained, “There are ways of being critical without burning bridges.” Another criminologist worked with most of the law enforcement agencies around his university and reported that one of the common factors was “trust, no media.” He explained one project in particular where findings were quite negative and he was asked not to make the findings public. He agreed to “bury” the report for two years, which endeared him to the police department. He said that since the department paid for the report he had no trouble not releasing it, and it would take two years to get the results published in a peer-reviewed journal any ways.

Two criminologists with extensive backgrounds working with local law enforcement agencies included clauses in their contracts that prohibited them from sharing information with the media, which protected themselves and their partner agencies. One in the Midwest worked with state and local agencies in the region and reported, concerning his partnership included in this sample, he was able to avoid some problems by having a “MOU that stipulated the [police department] owns the data.” Even if they “want to verify data,” or “want to file a lawsuit,” the media would have to get the data from his partner agency. He explained he was thus “contractually prohibited” from sharing information with the media, which was necessary because “You gotta protect yourself.” In the same region, a criminologist worked with many agencies across the country, including two in this sample, and reported she was, “very protective of this agency.” She explained, “How you deliver bad news” was vital for establishing trust, and said bad news should always be “delivered in private, not involving the media.” This

criminologist also had “strict media policies,” which she outlined when she talked to the media and often included a clause specifically about the media in her contracts.

Many practitioners referenced researchers’ emphases on publishing partnership results, often were in peer-reviewed journals. For example, a representative from a Southeastern police department reported, “I understand academics, they want to publish.” In addition, practitioners reported positive relationships with researchers who were not focused on publications. For instance, a Southeastern police department searched for a research team and the responding senior administrative manager reported the first group they considered was “focused on publications, not working with them,” and so another was selected as their research partner. A planning and research analyst from a Southwestern police department had worked with a team of criminologists on formalized projects for nearly a decade and noted, “Their approach goes beyond the publish-or-perish model. I never sensed that in them. Their first motivation was to have an impact.” The lead researcher added, in general, a “researcher has to be committed to doing more than just publishing. He or she must be dedicated to improving agency or law enforcement, working with the agency to improve quality of life in larger community.”

However, researchers reported partnerships actually reduced their ability to publish, including a full professor of criminology who worked with many agencies and said, “my research and publishing dropped off.” A full professor of criminology on the West coast reflected, “this was to the harm of my publication and career.” Similarly, an associate professor of criminal justice who reported, “ my publishing has definitely slowed,” and added “it’s good for getting data to have, but you still need time to publish.” Another full professor of criminology in the Northeast who worked with many agencies in the region reported, “Research pushed out publications,” and had 12 projects that needed to be published. Finally, a social scientist who

worked with a police department where her university was located explained, “I find it very hard to publish this because it's not driven by a research questions, it's not driven by the literature, it's driven by institution needs.” She added, “I don't have time to do the literature, you know? They want this question answered, I'll answer it.”

Funding and Costs to Agencies

Many researcher-practitioner partnership participants noted that external funding had facilitated their projects. One interviewee with decades of research partnership experience, as a researcher and formerly as a practitioner, felt, “money is incidental, it creates the opportunity.” A criminologist worked with several agencies in his Northeastern state and said other agencies had, “a will to partner but not enough resources.” A Midwestern police department partnered with over one dozen agencies and a university in the Southeast for a project that improved information sharing. The agency representative reported the department had no initial concerns and explained the importance of initial investments to start partnerships as follows: “the DOJ money is kind of like an incubator that can bring about changes if you invest it in the right ideas...the money can reach the seed and help it grow into a real vision.” When asked if there were any barriers, the practitioner responded, “No not at all, if you think about it, this isn't a small amount of money being invested in a small or short-range goal, it's a massive investment that's been leveraged into something that the Midwest can really benefit from.” A psychologist who worked with a Western police department noted, “Funding agencies now get that the partnerships are needed and then support them. So we had no funding issues.”

In many cases, funding was necessary in order to alleviate practitioners' initial concerns with respect to partnerships with researchers. A criminologist who worked with several agencies in the Southeast noted some agencies are “wary of partnering without funding because their

resources were already spread thin.” On the East coast, a criminologist felt a facilitator of her partnership was she “approached the police department with funding for the project,” and thus there were no costs to the agency. Other practitioners reported initial concerns were exclusive to funding, including an analyst from a police department in the West that worked with a nearby criminologist on several projects. When asked if they had any initial concerns, the analyst replied, “No, not that I'm aware of, the only concern is cost.” A commander from a Western police department reached out to a criminologist for assistance with citizen satisfaction surveys and noted their initial concerns were “just the cost,” which was tens of thousands of dollars.

Financial barriers to research partnerships were often noted by practitioners, including a captain from a Southeastern police department who referred to “typical government barriers,” which included, “funding, staffing, lack of resources.” The project manager from a Midwestern police department listed “money and time” as the only barriers to their partnership. Often, lack of funding barred the collection of additional data. In the Northeast, an agency partnered with a researcher to examine their stop and search statistics for racial biases and the responding major stated that the only barrier was “a flawed benchmark used in the study that was necessary due to funding limitations.” He added that the partnership could have been improved by “more commitment from [the researcher’s university],” in terms of improving upon that benchmark, but acknowledged “that would have increased the cost to [the police department].” A Northeastern criminologist and his research group were selected as a research partner for a federally-administered grant and conducted, “interviews and focus groups with offenders to answer what, when, and where, but not why.” The lead researcher explained that these “data were not as useful for designing interventions,” but that there was not enough funding to answer ‘why.’ A police department in the West partnered with several groups of researchers from universities in the city,

one of which described how time proved a barrier to one project in particular as follows:

“Another problem was the difficulty in getting all the data, there was not enough time. The crisis intervention study ended by being a feasibility study because we could not get our data. With [another] project, half the data was in hard copy, it was labor intensive just to get the data.” The researcher continued, “We had one crime analyst from the west precinct pulling all the information, she was overwhelmed.”

Others expressed concerns about wasting funds, including a captain of a Midwestern police department, which received a grant from the Bureau of Justice Assistance, who stated one his initial concern was “wasting taxpayer funds if the project was not a success.” He added, “It is not ethical to waste taxpayers’ money.” Even with funding to support the engagement of the resource partner, they agency resources can still be stress. The responding practitioner from an agency in the Midwest explained, “Good thing is we didn’t pay [the research group] who worked with us, but it drained our resources in terms of time. For the first round of surveys at least 94 of our officers took at least a half hour of their time on the clock to complete the surveys. So we didn’t directly pay [the research group], but time is money and we didn’t get the return for our officers’ time invested that we hoped or even expected to receive.” He continued, “It all really seemed to have been a waste of time. I mean they said we could use it as a baseline for if we wanted to repeat the survey in five years or so, but then if we went forward with that idea then, to me, we might be wasting our departments’ resources all over again.” A Southeastern police department’s analyst contributed, “There has also been a lot of money wasted,” on research partnerships.

Some participants described how funding was problematic to partnerships in general. For instance, a researcher in the Midwest with decades of experience as a practitioner and a

researcher felt, “Money is necessary but not sufficient,” and explained that he was aware of partnerships where the police “didn’t value research, just valued the money,” and only did the minimum required of them to receive funding while the results were underwhelming. Another researcher in the West who worked with over a dozen agencies said, “On the negative side, unsuccessful partnerships are driven by grant money, not a desire for improvement.” He told agencies, “If it’s about improvement, we can find the money.”

Several practitioners reported working on projects that were externally-funded, which ended and created barriers to their partnerships’ sustainability. A Midwestern agency worked with several other law enforcement agencies and a university that received funding from the Department of Justice. When the assistant chief was asked to describe any barriers to their partnership, he related there was a “Lack of success due directly to the fact that it was entirely federally funded project, so when funding disappeared so did the project. We visited face-to-face at least once a year as a large group but it just dried up when the funding did.” A member of the U.S. Attorney’s Office worked with numerous agencies on a violent crime initiative and noted that the only barrier to the partnership was, “funding after the BJA grant ended.” On the West coast, a lieutenant from a police department that partnered with a researcher as well as other public agencies noted with regard to barriers, “Budget, there was no external funding for year three.” A criminologist in the Midwest with extensive research partnership experience said that the difference between a project and a partnership is that, in the latter, “when the money dries up you find money somewhere else.” Other partnerships initially received external funding and were able to demonstrate the benefits of those resources so that the project remained when funding ceased. In one instance, a Midwestern police department worked with a faculty member from the city’s law school on a Bureau of Justice Assistance-funded project on problem oriented

policing. The researcher explained that the grant funding was used to, “recruit and hire a professional crime analyst,” who “was able to demonstrate their value to the department for a permanent position,” which “institutionalizes” that position.

Many partnerships involved volunteer researchers from their beginning, which reduced or removed initial concerns regarding costs associated with research partnerships for practitioners. On the West coast, a responding lieutenant noted that his agency had no initial concerns because the researcher “initially approached the group as a volunteer.” He added, “so there were no costs for her services upfront.” Another researcher in the South volunteered with her city’s police department and explained: “There was an implicit agreement that we would do this demo project for them, and they got the free labor out of us and we got demo data... There was no funding barrier initially, which I think really helped because the neither [the researcher’s university] or the police had anything to lose. It was my time as a [university] faculty that I used... None of the public agencies or bureaucratic agencies had anything to lose. There were very low hurdles going forward. That was really beneficial.” A West coast sheriff’s department partnered with researchers to study non-deadly force and the agency representative explained that as the project progressed, “they didn’t have all the data they needed, suspect behavior, how the events unfolded, the sequence; that was in the narrative of the reports. We did not have the time or the personnel to pull this for them. So they hired reserves. That cost a lot more, about \$25,000. They paid it.” The responding practitioner added, “Beyond the research, I will call them and ask for information on something...no money, one friend to another. And they get back to me often within the data with that information. They go beyond to help. If I have a research project now I can call them up for advice.”

A few researchers reported concerns that arose from the voluntary nature of their partnerships with law enforcement agencies. A criminologist described working with the police department in their city, and noted that two other members of the research team asked, “Should we be doing this for free? Does it diminish what we are doing? Should we be doing this without funding? We can't do what we want without money...It was starting to feel like if you want something for free you go to [their university], if you want to pay you go to [another universities in the city].” Another criminologist who worked with a police department in the city where she worked reported several problems related to volunteering, beginning with the following: “As for barriers, funding has been an issue. We had a meeting with them early on to make it clear were we not working for free. Our dean made this clear. But now I've been working with the [group of practitioners] on some projects on auto thefts, and it is all for free.” She explained how they brought in members of her department a few years back to help with another project and were unwilling to pay them, but then turned right around and hired an outside consultant. She reported another colleague will not work with the agency unless they had a grant, and the department realized that this individual was just using them.

Practitioners said researchers who only worked when paid were not well-received by agencies, including a practitioner who worked for a Southeastern police department that received funding from the National Institute of Justice and said, “The researchers were seeking a grant opportunity. I wanted graduate assistants to analyze data and provide feedback. Applied research is the only way to go. But it boggles my mind to see the numerous research opportunities available but researchers can't research unless they have a grant. I provided [the university-based group] tons of data, preliminary data, and their first thought was grant. It has to be a cool idea, and you have money available. I call this the business of academia.”

Confidentiality Laws and Bureaucracies

Several interviewees reported initial confidentiality concerns among practitioners' regarding their partnerships with researchers. For example, a Midwestern police department's representative who explained the agency and a researcher in the city partnered to examine investigation of sexual assaults in the agency and their "only concern was confidentiality of data." Another Midwestern police department partnered with a law school in their city for many years that placed student interns in the agency, and a captain noted there had been, "some concerns about trust as the police department has confidential information around and the interns are allowed to access the department's records." In the West, a partnership was formed when a researcher in the area of information technology approached a nearby city's police department and the responding practitioner related, "Our biggest basic concern was her ability to see what she could see, you know, what was legally available to her, what was confidential, mostly security issues. We did a background check on her, but still she was limited in her ability to access certain things." He added, "The inherent risk in the partnership and research always causes delays in the project and hesitation." He later reported that the only barriers to that partnership were, "All of the measures we had to take to prevent any risk in the partnership, the background check and other things just delayed us in getting to work, all the red tape and such."

Two agencies reported initial confidentiality concerns necessitated the involvement of their legal departments. The representative from a Southeastern police department that partnered with a researcher noted, "the biggest concern is the ability to share the information. The SNA project includes names." He explained, "We have an in-house attorney, counsel that deals with developing MOUs. The initial requirements were that we gave them code numbers to refer people. This was confusing to the end users, didn't help folks in the field... We got the general

counsel to okay the use of names.” A West coast sheriff’s department decided to examine non-lethal force and the responding practitioner, when asked if his agency had any initial concerns, replied, “Oh yeah, our lawyers got involved, and their lawyers got involved. The researchers trusted each other, but it was the higher ups. The big thing was the privacy issue.” The practitioner asked, “How do we get the data to them, but not get bit in the butt?”

Practitioners also reported confidentiality laws created real barriers to their partnerships with researchers. For instance, a Midwestern police department partnered with a domestic violence research organization for an audit of the domestic violence enforcement process in the city and the agency’s research and finance manager mentioned that law enforcement, corrections, and probation “cannot share information according to [state] law.” A Northeastern police department worked on a violent crime initiative with many researchers, including a group from an out of state university. An assistant chief said a barrier to that relationship was that her agency, “can’t give [the university’s] research team data from their intelligence unit according to federal law,” and reported an overall “lack of information sharing.” In the Midwest, a police department partnered with a policing research group to use a survey they created. The representative of another police department said their barrier was “[the research group] wouldn’t let us compare our findings with those of the other departments that used the same survey due to some confidentiality issue.”

Several interviewees reported Institutional Review Boards created problems for their research partnerships and slowed the process or reduced the utility of research products. The first example involved a Southeastern police department that partnered with an in-state researcher to evaluate a gang prevention program in the agency and the responding practitioner said a barrier to that work was “human subjects’ research was hard.” In the Southeast, a police department

partnered with a team of social scientists that evaluated their illegal immigration enforcement policy and a senior administrative manager reported, “Waiting for IRB approval drug out the time frame of the project being that it was a touchy topic. Ultimately the study had to be adapted in order to meet IRB approval, so the timeline was extended for the project.” Further south, a sheriff’s department partnered with a researcher in the state to research different juvenile justice programs and their effects on recidivism. The responding deputy director said the “only impediment was getting IRB to give access to their own agency data in their system for research purposes.” A psychologist who studied racial biases in two police departments, in the Northeast and West, described how IRB limited results he could share with those agencies, thereby reducing the usability of his research. He explained, “One example is anonymity, we as academics must guard and protect the identity of the respondents. We may be interested in individuals who exhibit real racial bias; but we must follow the IRB and not identify any individual person. Also I don't want to get named in a lawsuit...so that's example of how you have to reinforce IRB boundaries and protocols.”

Several practitioners reported their agencies included data ownership clauses in their contracts. A West coast sheriff’s department worked with researchers from several universities on a non-lethal technology project and reported initial concerns about others accessing their data as follows: “you don't want to lose control of it, particularly, attorneys getting a hold of it and using it. This is an issue with other police departments, and some don't want to take the risk. For the study I called chiefs to get data, to convince them...We made the researchers sign an agreement that [the police department] owned the data.” A police department in the Midwest partnered with tens of agencies and researchers to collaborate and share data, and the responding assistant chief of police reported that initially “There were conflicts, mainly with who owns the

data. Solved through a number of legal agreements, essentially a Memorandum of Understanding that articulated law enforcement reserved rights to all data and wasn't subject to state open data-record laws, fairly lengthy legal process.”

The time required to form contractual agreements differed greatly among partners. A police department on the West coast partnered with researchers from the Northeast and noted, “[their partner university] is great, but it is so far away. We tried setting an agreement with the criminal justice department at [a university in their city], but it took a long time to set up. [With the partner university] we have an agreement in a month; with [the local university] it took a year.” A criminologist formerly worked at a university in the Northeast, more recently opened an external research center, and reported that one of his practitioner’s clients “teared up” when he found out his office no longer had to deal with the university’s bureaucracy. Another member of his research team said they had more “contractual flexibility,” and the projects now involved, “less time and less bureaucracy.” A researcher who was assistant director of a consulting office at his university worked on a project with the state’s highway patrol and reflected over the host of clients with whom they had worked and said, “there is much more paperwork and people’s approvals needed with state agencies. Thus, state agencies take a long time to approve projects.”

Staff Turnover

Interviewees described how turnover of agencies’ staff had created barriers to their research partnerships, and unfortunately, as a representative police department in the West stated, “the nature of policing is that we transition staff and people, come and go, and that can make things difficult.” A police department in the Southeast received funding from their state to implement a crime control strategy and the agency representative explained, “the problem is that it is taking so long to get to the point we’re at that there’s been some turnover in people in

positions so we've had to train others in process and they weren't actually there when the philosophy was explained in detail." A researcher worked with his state's highway patrol on several initiatives and reported that a barrier to those projects was "personnel changes" during the project, as his "champion at [the highway patrol] left to take a new job." A computer forensics expert in the Northeast partnered with his state police department and mentioned one barrier was "cops including, [the project manager], keep retiring."

The negative repercussions of instability among agencies' leadership specifically was often noted. A researcher in the Northeast partnered with the a law enforcement and worked to examine racial disparities in the agency's stop and search data. He reported the department's leader when the project began moved to another state and was replaced by someone with contrasting political beliefs and priorities, and mentioned that "the priorities of leaders can impact these partnerships." The criminologist explained turnover created barriers to that partnership because the "new person has new priorities and has to learn the lay of the land," which resulted in "lost momentum." He added that generally, "instability of leadership stymies these projects," and said researchers' "can't build and establish relationships with instability at the top," which created substantial barriers to such partnerships in the field because "leadership is so unstable in criminal justice." A Southeastern sheriff's office partnered with a nearby university to conduct community satisfaction surveys and the practitioner interviewee reported there was a "change in administration and philosophies and I don't know they will do another one, which is a shame because we got a really good return rate." Finally, a criminologist who worked with many agencies simply remarked, "Another problem is because the chief doesn't stay in the position long enough."

Turnover of researchers also created barriers to their partnerships with law enforcement agencies. The representative of a highway patrol agency that worked with a research team and the responding practitioner remarked, “we would do it again so long as we could guarantee that there would be no turnover of professors.” In the Northeast, a police department had several partnerships, one of which included criminologists from a university in the city. The sergeant who managed that project said one barrier was “assistant researchers, student assistants that come on board with the university. They’re always willing to work, but since academic circumstances change so often, you know, semesters beginning and ending and students revolving through the door, sometimes it just slows the process down because we have to become acquainted with them and then get them acquainted with the project.” A Southeastern police department partnered with a group of researchers including sociologists from one university, a criminologist from another institution, as well as a policing research group. The responding project manager and senior administrative manager in the agency reported, “One concern was that perhaps there would be a turnover of researchers during the process, because some individuals may relocate during the project. It was important that the project team be cohesive. Only a few members were lost over time.” Still, he later reported, “Turnover of researchers from the team was a big barrier.” Finally, a police department on the West coast partnered with researchers from a university in the city and the responding deputy chief of police suggested, “I would have like to developed more consistency, develop the [partnership] team to work more consistently on this...The same people beginning to end.”

Participants reported that building relationships with multiple levels of law enforcement agencies’ staff was vital to institutionalizing research partnerships. A team of criminologists in the Northeast, two of whom were interviewed, worked with numerous state and local agencies

and noted they were able to sustain one of their partnerships even after “chiefs changed” in the middle, due to relationships built with command staff, especially a captain who was able to get the new chief’s support. The director of a nonprofit in a neighboring state reported the police chief, with which she had built a relationship since the center was founded, was hired by another city but the partnership remained because “they had established relationships with lower brass who supported the project when [the chief] left.” A law school-based researcher noted his school had a long history of working with a police department in their city until a chief was hired externally who, “didn’t place a value on research.” For ten years his school “maintained relationships with others but not the chief,” but once a new chief was hired they got back on track. To continue their tradition, he said the school, “hired a new, young faculty member to count on to carry-on traditions.” He explained how he and the school “made a point of introducing her”, set up ride-alongs, and ultimately “cultivating a line of succession.” Several interviewees noted that their research partnerships had survived several chiefs and felt this demonstrated the strength of their relationships, including a criminologist who relocated to a university in the Midwest and immediately approached the city’s police department. However, she knew that the partnership had been institutionalized when they hired a new chief this year, and, as part of the application process, sent applicants copies of her research and made it clear to applicants that they were entering an established partnership. A Southeastern police department and criminologist in the city worked on multiple projects and the project manager, a lieutenant, reported, “Three police chiefs have seen the validity of this partnership.”

CHAPTER 7: PARTNERSHIP CASE STUDIES

The themes presented in chapters six and seven provide the general patterns regarding benefits, barriers, and facilitators found across 89 partnerships the study examined in the interview stage. These results are intended to not only spur future partnership engagement by the practitioner and researcher communities, but also inform each side with the lessons learned from these predecessor partnerships. As noted in the Chapter 3 discussion of data collection and methods, the primary goal of the case studies was to create a multimedia component to this study that supports these goals of spurring future partnerships development and conveying lessons learned. Research on the diffusion of innovative practices and technologies indicates individuals are more likely to accept and adopt ideas from individuals with whom they can identify (Rogers, 1995; Wejnert, 2002). Thus, members of the practitioner and research communities could hear about the partnership experiences of their respective peers directly through the videoed interviews conducted during this case study stage of the present study.

In addition to this diffusion utility, the case studies' provided the opportunity to have more contact with the respective partnerships. As noted in Chapter 3, some of the site visits and video interviews were continued discussions of the partnerships with the same individuals who were interviewed in the second stage of the study, whereas other visits involved additional key members of the partnership who provided further perspectives. These discussions provided more details on the respective partnerships, captured more insight on how these partnerships formed, the nature of project conducted through the partnership, and the perspective of each partner regarding their working relationship. Insight on these interests were largely captured in the second stage interviews of all 89 partnerships, but the case study site visits provide simply more

detail to examine. Moreover, the respective practitioner and researcher parties in these four case studies sites agreed to be identified and to have their experiences discussed openly.

The primary selection criteria for the case study sites was they represented sustained partnerships, defined by the continued existence beyond on the initial project worked on by the partners. The ability to move beyond the initial project is important as partnerships can form with some form of external grant funding then dissolve once the funding ends. Thus, the ability of the partners to continue after such funding is gone provides valuable knowledge for practitioners and researchers who want to participate in long-term partnerships. The second selection consideration was related to the nature or structure of the partnership. The premise of this consideration is that there is a not a one size fits all strategy for partnership formation. For example, some law enforcement agencies may have the resources to develop and fund a formal contract with a researcher on a permanent basis, whereas other agencies do not have this financial capacity. Alternatively, some agencies want a relationship with an individual researcher where there is personalized relationship between both sides where others want a broader relationship with a university as a whole.

To provide this diverse representation of partnership models, the four case studies included in the present study were selected by their representation in one of four categories defined by the degree of formality (formal or informal), and scale of research involvement (individual research or academic department/university). Formality was defined by the existence of a MOU between the law enforcement agency and the research partner, or the creation of a permanent organizational position to support the relationship. This creates the four case studies agency categories: formal partnership with single researcher (Boston Police Department and Dr. Anthony Braga), formal partnership with a university (Broward County Sheriff's Department

and Nova Southeastern University), informal partnership with a single researcher (Brockton Police Department and Pam Kelley), and informal partnership with an academic unit (Richmond Police Department and Virginia Commonwealth University's School of Government and Public Affairs).

It is important to note that other partnership forms were found across the 89 partnerships captured in the second stage of the study. A few law enforcement agencies partnered with research institutes rather than university-based researchers. One partnership founded a joint practitioner institute that was developed through a large foundation grant. A couple other partnerships reflected consortium structures that involved multiple law enforcement agencies with one researcher. This last approach provides a promising framework for expanding research partnerships to small and medium size agencies that do not have the resources to form stand alone relations with a research or university. Unfortunately, the scope of the present study only provides for the four case study sites, which focus on only the most common forms. The remaining discussion in this chapter provides a more detailed description of each of the four case study partnerships.

Boston Police Department and Anthony Braga

Professor Anthony Braga has a history with the Boston Police Department that pre-dates Commissioner Edward Davis' arrival in 2006. Professor Braga has worked on a number of projects with the police department, including the well-known Boston Ceasefire Initiative. In addition to these efforts, he also worked with Commissioner Davis while he was the Superintendent of Police at the Lowell (MA) Police Department. Their efforts in Lowell centered on hot spots policing and violence prevention. Their partnership continued when the commissioner was sworn in at the Boston Police Department, and increased in formality. In

addition to having a faculty position at Rutgers University and a being a Senior Research Fellow at the Harvard University's John F. Kennedy School of Government, Professor Braga also functions as a chief policy analyst for the police department.

Professor Braga has worked on a number of research and crime prevention efforts with the Boston Police Department since Commissioner Davis' appointment. One of the most notable of these projects is the Safe Street Teams (SST) hot spots policing program. Shortly upon Commissioner Davis' arrival in Boston, the city was facing a rise in violence. The SST drew on the commissioner's experience in hot spots policing with Professor Braga in Lowell, MA. The project involved the selection of 13 hot spot locations based on the analysis of crime data. Each hot spot was assigned a sergeant and six officers who were responsible for primarily staying in these locations, absent emergency calls requiring additional support, and engaging in problem oriented policing efforts, which included situational/environment interventions, enforcement interventions, and community outreach/social service interventions. Professor Braga and colleagues' (2011) evaluation of these hot spots relative to comparative areas in the city has shown a statistically significant decline in crime.

Commissioner Davis noted one of the benefits of working with Professor Braga is the pragmatic goal of reducing crime. He noted the SST probably would not have happened without the research Professor Braga did on hot spots in the city. The research provided the commissioner evidence for proposing the SST initiative to the mayor and police union, which provided a basis for arguing that it would work. Commissioner Davis further noted another benefit of working with Professor Braga was he "is looking at strategic plans that will pay dividends down the road, while I'm dealing with the day-to-day crises that come in the door." More generally, Commissioner Davis stated the field of policing needs to concentrate on what

works and agencies need to have a closer relationship with the academic community to engage in this effort.

Professor Braga noted one of the benefits as a researcher from this partnership is he gets access to data that most researchers would not. He also emphasized the value of translating research into practice. As he noted:

I wanted to see theories and ideas on crime prevention implemented, and I wanted to be part of trying to making communities safer. Rather than just, you know, sitting back in my office collecting data, shaking them up and producing knowledge that way. I wanted to get out of my office and be involved.

In line with this logic of access and engagement, Professor Braga notes he has been able to “think with the department about what might work, and then design a study around the issue that we’re trying to control in ways most researchers wouldn’t be able to.” As a whole, he notes these efforts have been a value experience.

When asked about what facilitates the ability to develop and sustain partnerships, Commissioner Davis emphasized the importance of honesty between the practitioners and researchers. He noted it is important to pay attention to what the research is telling you, and that you in turn are honest with the researcher about the pros and cons of a particular strategy. This means not only from an academic or analytical perspective, but also the political perspective. He stated the practitioner has to be honest with researcher about this political context, and what is acceptable and unacceptable within it. In discussing potential barriers, the commissioner also asserted it is important for the practitioner and researcher to be on the same page regarding what is being done with the data, in particular publishing the data that he was not aware was coming out. He stated another issue is when the researcher is not having an honest conversation about the way the research is going, and the agency not having an input on the research. The commissioner noted this is often the problem in relationships that have gone bad.

From the researcher's perspective, Professor Braga stated it was important for the agency to have an open door. He noted in the case of Boston, the commissioner has allowed him to attend command staff meetings, bureau chiefs meetings, Compstat meetings, and has been allowed access to data, the officers, and the planning process. This access has provided him the ability to conduct interesting research studies. Another key to the partnership is the support he receives from the chief. Professor Braga provided an example:

When I go down to the crime analysis unit, which is our regional intelligence center, and I ask them for data to understand an increase in gun violence, they know I'm doing it at the request of the Commissioner. So I'm able to see my data quickly, I'm able to get it put in a format that I need to do analysis, and I'm able to execute things much faster than if I was coming as an outsider.

With regard to what researchers need to be aware of in facilitating relationships, Professor Braga stated it is important for researchers to be sensitive to the political environment of agencies. This means recognizing the agency is accountable to city hall and the community. He noted, "there are certain things that might make sense to you that a police department simple can't do because of the climate in the community at the moment." He noted the researcher needs to be able to let go of their desired project to be sensitive to the agency's situation, and adjust the research agenda and data collection accordingly. Professor Braga also emphasized the importance of social skills on the part of researchers, and how they treat people and develop mutual respect. Related to this point, he stated it is important for researchers to listen to agency members. He noted:

Academics tend to think that they have all the answers, or feel like they should have all the answers. And recognize this is a learning process where the police department gets as much out of it as the researcher does, and you learn things together. And that's a sure sign of a productive relationship.

One additional interesting exchange with Commissioner Davis and Professor Braga related to the issue of negative results, referring to when a strategy is not working or some other

undesirable outcome. Professor Braga stated he is honest with the commissioner in that what they are working on is a test, and they do not know what they are going to find and sometimes they are not going to find what they want. He noted when he finds a negative finding, he immediately brings it to the commissioner and other relevant stake holders where he gives his interpretation and asks for their insight on whether he is missing something. This gives the agency members the opportunity to think about and voice their concerns about the results before they go outside the agency. Commissioner Davis stated people do not expect them to be perfect and it is important to communicate the results and what the agency has learned and changed from them. He noted:

This gives us the opportunity to be honest with people, and to say this strategy either worked or didn't work and then change course with what works in the long run. And I think that's really what this accomplishes. You don't have to be afraid of a bad finding as long as you're responsive to it and you correct course. I think that's what people expect from a police department.

Broward County Sheriff's Office and Nova Southeastern University

The partnership between the Broward County Sheriff's Office (BSO) and Nova Southeastern University (NSU) started from a BSO interest in developing leadership training. The sheriff's department wanted to develop an in-house leadership training program. As one department member noted, in a department with more than 5,000 personnel it was expensive to continually send department members out of town, to Washington D.C. for example, for two to three weeks of leadership training. The department initially worked with another local university to provide a leadership course to its employees. However, around 2006 the department wanted to develop a more expansive leadership program. The BSO asked for bids from various local universities to create this program. The bid was awarded to NSU to lead the formation of the Executive Leadership Program (ELP).

The leadership program is a 17 week program containing three courses that cover Management and Leadership, Administration for the Senior Public Safety officer, and Critical Issues for the Senior Public Safety Officers. The students meet once a week on the NSU campus, as well as participate in online components. While the program was initially created for BSO, the program now includes students from other area law enforcement agencies as well. The courses are taught by NSU faculty members, BSO personnel, and other members of the law enforcement community. BSO Colonel Timothy Gillette notes this integrative teaching framework was intended to provide an opportunity to “take theories and concepts that are taught in the classroom and show how they bridge into the real world, and how you can apply them to be more effective leaders, more effective managers in the real world,” or what he framed as “bridging theory to practice.” He further noted they sought the partnership with NSU because they thought BSO and NSU each had something to offer in accomplishing this mission.

However, the ELP was only the starting point for the relationship between the BSO and NSU. The partners have jointly produced conferences for the law enforcement community and pursued grant-funded research. The partners have also engaged in a number of specific research projects focused on issues of interest to the BSO, examining such issues as domestic violence involving law enforcement personnel, armed encounters with suspects, hostage negotiation, and examining risk factors to officer mental and physical health. In addition, the BSO has been a study site for a number of NSU doctoral dissertation research projects. In commenting on this research component of the partnership, one of the BSO personal stated:

We have a whole lot of managers, mid and senior level managers that don't have the time to look at problems, to do the research. We have datasets, we don't have time. So many we don't know what to do with it. It's a win-win.

He further noted that while members of his agency have graduate degrees and related research skills, he noted there were certain skills he and his colleagues did not have. In addition, the members of his agency did not have the time to address all of their research needs. He stated the faculty of NSU presented a resource that helps them address these limitations. Related to the research relationship, NSU Provost Frank Di Piano noted the relationship also “brings instant credibility to any law enforcement training and research we do because of the BSO involvement.” Provost Di Piano additionally noted this connection provides them knowledge on what is most important to law enforcement so their research can be more relevant to that community.

One of the defined characteristics of the partnership that encompasses these training and research efforts is its formality. The relationship between BSO and NSU is defined through a memorandum of understanding. In addition, the partners jointly fund a full-time research/academic position dedicated to writing grants, conducting research, and other activities that support that partnership. A website has also been established (www.nsubso.nova.edu) that defines the relationship and publicizes training, conferences and research conducted by the partners, as well as a newsletter for further marketing and publicizing of the partnership.

Another unique component of the partnership was the creation of a board of advisors to the partnership composed of nine members from BSO and NSU. According to interviewed board members, the board represents a form of “collaborative governance,” and meets on a monthly basis. One purpose of the board is to maintain communication between the department and university, which one member noted facilitates trust and the sharing of information. The board serves as a context for developing conferences and future plans for the partnerships. It serves to organize the NSU research activity conducted with BSO. One NSU faculty defined this

organizing role and said, “We’re trying to keep it organized, by trying to have everything to the board. It’s a big university and it’s hard to keep track of everything that may be going on.” He further noted that when the board was started they were not sure of all the research that was going on between the partners and they wanted “everything done under one umbrella.” All research projects between the two partners are supposed to come before the board for review to examine the merits and utility of the research, as well as provide an opportunity to discuss any concerns about the research.

Another defining characteristic of this particular partnership is the broad involvement of the university. Unlike most other partnerships examined in this study that are based on a single researcher or academic unit, this partnership has involvement from multiple academic disciplines and the leadership of the university. NSU faculty members from psychology, criminal justice, and disaster response have played a role in the partnership, whether in advisory or research capacities. The partnership also has active support from the Dean, Provost, and President of NSU, where these individuals are members of the advisory board and regularly involved themselves in related events. Members on both sides of the partnership noted this involvement and commitment of NSU leaders, along with leaders from the BSO, has been the key to the partnership’s growth and sustainability.

In addition to these formal partnership elements, members of BSO and NSU cited there is a philosophical orientation among both partners that has been important to the partnership’s existence. NSU Provost Di Piano stated the university has an orientation to being “socially relevant,” which supports university faculty conducting research informed by BSO and community input and thereby relevant to these constituencies. The Provost further noted:

The most important element is that there is some trust and mutual respect between the two [NSU and BSO]. Both believe that both have something to bring to the table. And if

it turns into BSO knows everything and you guys are just kind of lackeys that put things together for us, not going to work. And if turns into we think we are the elite intellectuals and those guys are the grunts that just do some stuff for us, not going to work. It starts with that mutual respect.

He further noted in the early development of the partnership, both sides wanted a framework for continual engagement. He recalled BSO members making the point they did not just want reports a couple times a year about the activities related to the partnerships. Instead, he said BSO has an orientation to being an active partner. He recalls the BSO position was “we want to be a part of it,” resulting in a practice where they “partnered up right from the beginning, brainstorm together, be creative together.”

Brockton Police Department and Pam Kelley

At the time this study was conducted, the Brockton Police Department (BPD) and Pam Kelley had been working together for 12 years. The relationship started when Professor Kelley was working at the Crime and Justice Foundation on a domestic violence project with the United States Attorney’s Office called Safety First. Brockton was selected as a site for this initiative and the U.S. Attorney’s Office had brought in the Crime and Justice Foundation to assist in data analysis, which was the responsibility of Professor Kelley. At the completion of this project, Professor Kelley decided to start her own research firm (Kelley Research Associates), and also became a faculty member at Stonehill College at a later point. In the capacity of her research firm, Professor Kelley continued to work with the Brockton Police Department. She has worked with the department on various funded projects and local block grants. In some cases, Professor Kelley has been funded through these initiatives directly by the Brockton Police Department, and in other cases she has worked indirectly with the department through funding from other agencies such as the local district attorney’s office.

The active partnership project at the time the partners were contacted for this study was an anti-gang strategy funded through the Senator Charles E. Shannon, Jr. Community Safety Initiative. This state-funded initiative is given to a select number of cities in Massachusetts to implement a gang response effort consistent with the Comprehensive Gang Model supported by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, and also required sites to work with a research partner (Shannon Community Safety Initiative, n.d.). The initial efforts of this project involved the development of a systematic approach to identifying gang members and gang activity in Brockton, which had not been conducted before this project. This resulted in the department developing a ranking system for identifying individuals most involved in gang and criminal activity to guide intervention and suppression efforts. As the project has evolved, it has increased connections with other local agencies and communities organizations to create comprehensive response efforts, including the use of outreach workers to connect at-risk youth with intervention efforts.

From the perspective of the police department, one of the primary benefits of the partnership has been the data management and analysis skills that Professor Kelley brought to their department. Until recently, the department records were maintained through a 1984 DOS-based computer system. This greatly impacted their ability to conduct analysis on their criminal activity, particularly when they needed quality analysis to pursue grant funding. One of the key efforts of Professor Kelley has been to draw from the hard copy reports from this older records system to create databases that can be used for analysis. One department member noted, “whenever we have a question on guns or gang violence, you go to her and her data. I trust Pam’s work.” However, the relationship has transcended this data analysis role. Professor Kelley played a role in communicating with other agencies involved in their projects, as well as assisted

the department in the development of a Compstat program. She also routinely works with the department to develop grant proposals. In describing this proposal development benefit, one department member noted:

We've been able to get \$4.2 million in funding. That's big for us, and we wouldn't have it without Pam. Times are tough, and getting grants is not easy. You need to have a quality project. The research partnership helps with the quality of the project.

The department members and Professor Kelley stated that a high level of trust is central to their partnership. Professor Kelley feels this trust is built in part on her understanding of police culture. She attributed this to her prior experience working in a law enforcement agency as a director of planning and research, as well as being married to a state trooper. She also noted this trust has been built over time by offering to help the agency, without expecting compensation. Echoing this position, a department member noted she often goes to Professor Kelley for advice or puts her on committees, and Professor Kelley does not ask for compensation. She went on to note, however, that given this commitment of Professor Kelley, the department made sure to include her in funded projects. Reflecting the degree of trust with Professor Kelley, Brockton Police Chief William Conlon stated he trusts her when she does presentations on the behalf of the department. He also noted that based on this trust, they have given Professor Kelley the remote access to their data in order to facilitate the analyses she conducts for the department.

Professor Kelley also highlighted a benefit of working in a sustainable partnership was not having to continually start over with building trust and other interpersonal dynamics in each new project. She has worked with different criminal justice agencies where the partnership is a single project and upon completion, the partnership is over and she moves on to the next project with another agency. From the researcher's perspective, each new project and agency requires a

period of establishing trust and commonality before the focus of the project is actually worked on. With Brockton Police Department her established trust and understanding provides for a more efficient research process. She notes:

About the trust and relationship we have developed over time, so you are not starting from scratch every time a project is. I already know this person, the personalities here. I know the culture. I know the computer systems. From the research aspect, that's great you don't have to take six months just to try and figure out the lay of the land and figure out what you are going to be doing. You know the next project comes up, you can start the next day because you are already here.

Chief Conlon similarly stated there is “a big plus to having somebody that you are comfortable with and that you have worked with for a number of years.” He further noted, “the last thing any department needs or wants is to have a whole bunch of different researchers coming in for each new project, because you never really get to know what to expect from them nor do they know what you expect of them.”

Chief Conlon and another department member also emphasized the value of having a local research partner in Professor Kelley relative to a researcher that is out of state. Reasoning for this local research partner is partially attributed to accessibility. The chief noted in reference to Professor Kelley that whether it is “impromptu meetings, planning sessions, brainstorming for a grant, she shuffles her schedule as much as needed to accommodate us.” A department member similarly observed that Professor Kelley comes by the department regularly, particularly when they are working on a project. She noted:

She's always here. Also, anytime we want to go in a new direction...We go to an agency that is doing this to see what they are doing, how they have it set up, and Pam goes with us.

In relation to this issue of accessibility, Professor Kelley noted you have to be responsive to the department's needs and “not bring the research agenda to the police department, but fulfill the need of the police department's agenda.” She noted this builds trust and shows she has their best

interest at heart. This, in turn, has facilitated her access to data and other support she needs to work with the department.

Richmond Police Department and Virginia Commonwealth University

The case study of the Richmond Police Department (RPD) and Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU) unfolded in a different way than the other three. The strategy for identifying case study agencies was through the survey and subsequent second stage interviews. The survey asked agencies to identify relationships with specific research partners, and interviews were then conducted with a key agency figure and researcher. In the case of the single researcher, this provided the opportunity to discuss the project listed in the survey and the origin of the partnership, whether it started with this project at hand or before. With the BSO and NSU case, the partnership was presented as a broadly focused relationship from the outset, where the individuals interviewed at the outset and during the visit were generally able to discuss various facets of the partnership and its origin. In the case of the RPD and VCU partnership, the interview in the second stage of this study was centered on a well-defined project that focused on the introduction of social network analysis (SNA) into the agency. However, discussion during this interview revealed a broader relationship between the RPD and the Criminal Justice Program at VCU, which was the focus of the site visit. The review of the RPD-VCU partnership starts with a review of the SNA project as an exemplar of the relationship then moves to a discussion of the broader relationship.

The (SNA) project emerged from the chief's attendance at a law enforcement training session held by VCU. The then-chief of RPD approached a sociologist from VCU at the session regarding her work on SNA, and wanted to explore the possibility of partnering with her and the a private SNA software vender for which she was a consultant. After meeting with various RPD

members, the VCU faculty member and RPD decided to conduct a pilot study examining the application of SNA to a specific case involving conflict between different youth groups. Both partners noted the pilot study demonstrated social network analysis, and the specific software they used from Blue Spider Analytics is a useful tool for the department's investigative and intelligence work. This outcome resulted in an expanded project where the department purchased the Blue Spider software and hired the VCU faculty member to train department crime and intelligence analysts on SNA and the software.

One RPD member involved in the project noted that one of the keys to the partnership was the flexibility of the VCU faculty members in scheduling training and settings in which the training was conducted. Moreover, faculty members were viewed as having true commitments to working with the department and interests in understanding how the analysts worked, along with how SNA applied to their day-to-day efforts. Illustrating the department's buy-in to SNA and the software as a result of this project, one RPD member noted that when reviewing cases the assistant chief often asks: "have you run this through Blue Spider yet."

On the researcher side of this project, the VCU faculty member felt one key to the project was that no funding was involved in the initial stages of the project. The initial effort was a demonstration project that allowed the agency to view whether the efforts were useful to them and the faculty member and the software company had data to examine the applied viability of their effort. The faculty member stated another key to the project's success was the close working relationship that evolved with the lead analyst. The commitment of this analyst was viewed as key because this individual was invested in keeping the project going and making it grow.

As noted, this project represents a long-standing relationship with VCU faculty working with RPD on research projects, providing training, and providing graduate student interns. While some of these specific projects had formal memorandums of understanding or contracts, the overarching relation between VCU and RPD does not have a formalized agreement, such as was found between BSO and NSU. Rather, the relationship represents continuous informal agreement between VCU, particularly the criminal justice program, and RPD to support each other's interests. Reflecting this commitment, one RPD member noted, "over the years it has been ingrained in our department. We had chiefs who were academically oriented. This builds a culture and it has been as succession of chiefs that support it." Richmond's Chief of Police Bryan Norwood echoed this sentiment, "when I arrived here in Richmond the relationship was already established and it was moving in the right direction. My goal was to keep that relationship strong and to make sure we enhance the relationship as we move forward."

Chief Norwood noted that, on a whole, the relationship with VCU through the graduate interns and faculty has provided a supplemental workforce that furthers the department's mission of serving the community. The chief further observed these individuals "bring positive thought and positive energy to the department in terms of new things, so we don't get stuck in the same old way of thinking." He stated his department seeks to be evidence-based, and these new ideas and knowledge provide a foundation for these efforts. The chief asserted the key to the relationship with VCU was the familiarity and trust. He stated, "it really all comes down to relationships again. If you know who you are dealing with, you have a level of trust, then both agencies will really profit from it." He noted that agencies need to reach out and establish relationship with the academic community, starting with small projects to build this familiarity

and trust that can support larger projects. He also stated the accessibility of the VCU faculty is a key to the partnership. The chief stated:

The ability for me to have real-time council and advice from a practitioner and a researcher in Dr. Diehl is priceless, and for any chief of a large or small municipality police department to have that ability to be able to bounce something off an academic who understands policing is a very valuable tool.

From the researcher's perspective, VCU Criminal Justice faculty member Dr. Robyn Diehl states the partnership in RDP provides real experiences and opportunities for their students, and opportunities for faculty members to pursue grants and conduct research. She further noted the broader relationship provides an avenue for connecting faculty work and knowledge to an area where they had not applied it, referencing the police department. For example, she stated the above mentioned SNA project as a product of the partnership, where "relationships that don't naturally exist that when you put the right faculty in the right room with the right practitioners, kind of evolve through creative thinking." Reiterating the chief's assertion, Dr. Diehl felt the key to their partnerships was trust between both parties. Speaking on this issue more general of researcher building trust with agencies, she noted:

If they don't build the relationship on the front end, you know a lot of times we get challenged in academia, we get grant, we get the money, and we show up at the agency and say, 'here's what we need and this is how we need it, and we need it and we need it tomorrow.' And there is, that will build a wall. And instead thinking about 'how do I develop those relationships while I'm writing the grant,' 'how do I bring the department in to say are there any other aspects of my research agenda that might fit with what your needs are that we can put together.' So that as we are moving through our research project, we're doing it together. And not simply saying, 'I'm the one who knows what we need to ask, knows how we need to ask it, and simply you need to provide me the data.' And that takes time, you know, you need to build those relationships and gain that trust on the front end. It will be worthwhile, if you do it on the front end. But, I think when you don't do that you got those barriers.

CHAPTER 8: IMPLICATIONS

The present study covers a range of issues that inform the use of research by police practitioners and the formation of partnerships between police practitioners and researchers. This chapter reviews the findings related to these topics from the present study, along with discussion on the implications of these findings. Discussion is also given to future research considerations for research utilization and researcher partnerships in policing cast in the context of knowledge translation.

It is important to acknowledge there are limitations to the findings discussed in this report. Although the survey on research utilization and partnership partnerships was administered to a stratified random sample combined with the population of large agencies, the response rate for the overall sample was 43%. As such, the results are possibly skewed by response bias. As noted in chapter three, a number of agencies receiving the surveys had inquired if the research team wanted them to respond given they had no research experiences, suggesting a number of agencies with this experience may not have responded and the inflation of reported partnership participation. In addition, and as is the case with most surveys, the national survey did not exhaust all possible dynamics of research utilization and partnership participation. For example, agencies reporting they use research to inform their decisions and their listing of specific outlets does not inform the specific nature of use or how one source is used relative to another. Further, the interviews of practitioners and researchers do not capture all existing or past partnerships and related insights, nor do they capture the perspectives of all individuals involved or observe the nature of these partnerships and nuances as they unfold. Nonetheless, this study represents one of only a handful of efforts to examine patterns of research utilization and the prevalence of partnerships with researchers in policing. It is also the first systematic effort to identify the

barriers to and facilitators of developing and sustaining police practitioner-researcher partnerships across a diverse set of partnerships, such as those partnerships that are based in grant funding and those without such support. As such, the results provide valuable knowledge on the above issues and a foundation for policy considerations and future research.

The Use of Research by the Police

The large majority of agencies (77.7%) reported they sometimes or very often use research to inform their decisions on policies and operations. The patterns of reported levels of research used by small and medium size agencies were largely similar to those of state and large agencies, although the largest of responding agencies (those with 500 or more sworn personnel) were more likely to report using research very often to inform policies and decisions. However, this reported use does not necessarily reflect a connection with the empirical work of the research community, assuming this group represents researchers at academic institutions or research organizations (e.g. Police Executive Research Forum or Police Foundation). The most common response provided by the agency representatives when asked which research outlets they use were professional journals (e.g. Police Chief Magazine or FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin) (84.7%) and other publications of the IACP (71.3%). These are not outlets where members of the research community commonly publish their work. More than half of the respondents (58.7%) did report looking to publications from the National Institute of Justice, which are largely composed of reports from funded research conducted by individuals from academic or research institutions. However, publications produced by the National Institute of Justice represent only a small fraction of all empirical work produced by the research community, particularly researchers from academic institutions. The overwhelming majority of academic researchers, who represent most of the police research community, publish their work

almost exclusively in academic journals, which only 34.1% agency respondents reported using as a research outlet.

These findings, however, should be not viewed as offering a bleak outlook on the future use of research from the academic community by police practitioners. While it is unknown how frequently police executives consulted the literature of the research community 20 or 30 years ago, it is reasonable to believe that this practice is more prevalent today than in the past. Moreover, nearly 60% of the respondents reported that they utilize NIJ publications to inform their decisions, which primarily reflect reports on grant funded research conducted by the research community. Moreover, there are recent efforts by government agencies and public institutions to improve knowledge transfer from the research community to the police practitioner community. As noted in chapter two, in 2011, the Office of Justice Programs developed CrimeSolutions.gov to act as a clearinghouse of evidence-based programs and practices to provide a practitioner-oriented resource to decision-making based on rigorous research. Similarly, the Evidence-Based Matrix developed by George Mason University's Center for Evidence-Based Crime Policy is intended to be a user-friendly tool for facilitating knowledge transfer of empirical work from the research community.

The utilization of science into practice requires decision makers to modify their behavior and be more thorough in their decision-making processes. However, the facilitation of knowledge transfer also requires researchers to modify their behavior and make their research findings available and understandable to the practitioners. One solution is for researchers to publish their work in policing periodicals (e.g. Police Chief, FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin) that were found to be widely read by practitioners in this study. Buerger (2010) points out that publishing in these venues is often viewed as having little value by academic institutions, with

emphasis instead placed on academic journals with high impact scores. Consistent with Huberman's (1994) assertion on improving dissemination, this requires academic administrators to reward scholars for making their work available to practitioners in these policing periodicals. Absent such institutional support, researchers who want to connect with the practitioner community will need to perform dual service on their own initiative, publishing their work in academic outlets and then producing a more succinct and user-friendly form for policing periodicals. Funding agencies could also require through "special conditions" that their grantees create work products that are directed to practitioners with best practices and real-world implication as a goal.

The Prevalence of Police Practitioner-Researcher Partnerships

Less than one-third of agencies responding to the survey reported they had participated in a partnership with a researcher in the past five years. Further review of the responses revealed the level of participation was related to agency size with 48% of agencies with 100 or more officers reporting partnership participation, then 25% participation for agencies with 50 to 99 officers and participation continues to decline with the decrease in agency size. Agency size is also related to the nature of partnership involvement. Overall, only 18% of agencies reported participation in coordination partnerships (the formal and short-term form of research partnerships), with 32% of agencies of with 100 or more sworn personnel reporting involvement, followed by 11% for agencies with 50 to 99 officers, and continual decline with agency size. Similarly, only 10% of all responding agencies reported participation in collaboration partnerships (the formal and long-term form of research partnerships), with 14% of agencies with 100 or more sworn personnel reporting involvement, followed by 7% for agencies with 99 to 50 officers, and continual decline with agency size.

Additional analysis also revealed a positive relationship between agency size and involvement in coordination and collaboration partnerships among agencies with 100 or more sworn personnel. Coordination partnerships were reported by 18.0% of agencies with 100 to 199 sworn personnel and the level of participation positively increases with agency size, where the level of participation for agencies with 400 to 499 sworn personnel was 38.5%. However, this level of participation further increases to 51.1% for agencies with 500-999 officers and 67.7% for agencies with 1000 or more officers. A similar pattern was observed for participation in collaboration partnerships with researchers, albeit at lower levels of participation for all levels of agency size given the lower levels of participations in this form of longer term partnerships overall. These results suggest participation in research partnerships is largely the practice of a small number of very large law enforcement agencies in the United States, with only moderate levels of participation for agencies with 100 to 400 officers and lower levels of participation for agencies with fewer officers.

Given the lack of prior research on the prevalence of partnerships, there is no way to definitively determine if this presence represents an increase, decrease, or stability in rates of participation. Nonetheless, the findings suggest a number of law enforcement agencies value participating in partnerships with researchers, particularly in relation to involvement in the more formalized forms of partnerships. It is important to note that the most frequent reason agencies provided for not participating in a research partnership was not having the funding or resources to engage in these efforts. It is unreasonable to expect federal grant funds from NIJ, the Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA), or Community Oriented Police Services (COPS) Office will ever be able to provide support for more than a few dozen partnerships at a given time. However, responses to the national survey revealed that only 30% of agencies who reported partnerships

involvement reported they had external grant funding to support the relationship at some point. Thus, while providing grant funding to support the formation of police practitioner-research partnership models is a valuable investment by funding agencies, the further expansion of these efforts in large part will depend on exposing agencies and researchers to models of alternative strategies for supporting their relationships.

The future expansion of police practitioner-researcher partnerships will also depend on the supply of researchers willing to engage in these efforts. From the researcher perspective, participation requires them to be pulled away from other research opportunities and engage policing professionals, as well as deal with the issues of funding discussed above. It is unknown how many researchers desire to participate in partnerships with police practitioners, although it is reasonable to assume there are not enough willing researchers for every agency. This researcher supply issue is even more acute for medium and small agencies (agencies with less than 100 sworn personnel). According to researchers interviewed as a part of this study, one of the benefits of engaging in a partnership with the police is the ability to collect data that will allow them to pursue their personal research interests, which in turns allows them to address institution demands for publication. This will often drive researchers to partner with agencies that will allow them to capture a large number of cases for analysis, whether it is crimes committed in the jurisdiction, use of force incidents, or any other issue of interest. This motivation arguably explains why the policing literature is dominated by research conducted with larger agencies. However, it also suggests the pool of available researchers willing to partner is even smaller for small and medium agencies, which may partially explain the lower rates of partnership participation found among these agencies in the present study.

This limited pool of willing research partners, which may impact some large agencies as well, argues for the need to consider an alternative to partnerships between one agency and one researcher (or researcher team or institute). One strategy may be the creation of regionally-based research centers that will play the role of research partner for multiple agencies within an area, particularly small and medium size agencies. Sherman (2004) recently made a similar proposal arguing for the formation of 87 locally-based Centers for Crime Prevention that would be housed in large police departments and operate in collaboration with major universities or research organizations. The centers are intended to form an infrastructure for integrating police practitioners and researchers in efforts to improve the functioning of agencies and the response to community problems. Although Sherman's proposal does not articulate if these centers would provide services to other jurisdictions in the area outside the home agency of the center, it is not unreasonable that with their pool of researchers, such centers (or some variant) could adopt this role. However, it is important to note Sherman argues for these centers to be funded through NIJ. This raises the question of whether such a center-based strategy, and thereby the servicing of small and medium agencies with researcher partners, is only viable with the support of federal funds.

In addition to these considerations for agency size, the survey also revealed a potential link between knowledge transfer and partnerships that may have implications for expanding partnerships involvement. Agencies who reported using research-based publications (i.e. more likely to be produced by the research community) to inform their decision-making and policy were more likely to engage in partnerships net of other significant influences such as agency size and type, particularly if they reported using NIJ publications. This relationship held for the examination of all responding agencies, and the large agencies (100 or more sworn officers)

alone. The analysis does not provide a direction for the relationship, whether those agencies that use research publications to inform decisions are more likely to engage in partnerships or agencies that engage in partnerships are more likely to use research publications. Nonetheless, it highlights a link between the knowledge transfer of products from the research community and the knowledge exchange practice of partnerships. It also highlights the potential influence that the NIJ, and other similar entities, can have in influencing knowledge transfer and the future growth of police practitioner-researcher partnerships. Such efforts could include the expansion of activity to expose the law enforcement community to user-friendly products reporting on funded research, as well as creating forums for the law enforcement and research communities for presenting models and key considerations for creating partnerships. NIJ currently engages in these efforts, and the results of this study suggest they should continue this investment and their expansion.

The Barriers to and Facilitators of Police Practitioner-Research Partnerships

The interviews of police practitioners and researchers reveal the formation of partnerships is a complex process that goes beyond the simple willingness of each party to participate. The interview of practitioners and researchers essentially provided lessons learned and informal rules to engaging in partnerships, which are grouped into three general considerations. First, there are structural considerations that partners have to negotiate, such as how the partnership will be supported, geographic proximity of partners, permanency of key participants, and the institutional demands for both partners. Second, both parties need to have values that orient them to partnership participation. The agency and its members need to see value in the incorporation of research and involvement of outside researchers, as well as being open to changing the way they do business. The researcher has to emphasize the desire to help

and not judge the agency, have a shared stake in improving the agency and community, and value the knowledge of practitioners. Third, both parties have to effectively manage their interpersonal relationship. This involves establishing trust between partnership members and effective and ongoing communication about the expectations, roles, and products of the partnership process.

Collectively, these findings reflect the dynamics for closing the gap between the practitioner and researcher communities and the increase of research utilization discussed in chapter two. This suggests there is consistency in the issues that face practitioner-researcher partnerships across occupational fields and academic disciplines, and points to the value of a cross field/discipline orientation to identify effective solutions to forming and improving partnerships. Moreover, these results do not diverge from the existing literature in policing on forming partnerships that were discussed in chapter two. The present study covers a larger number of partnerships and provides more detail on relevant issues and insights than the existing literature, but largely reinforces there is a coherent number of factors that are important to making police practitioner-researcher partnerships work.

The implication of the consistent findings in this study and the existing literature is the need for new and continued efforts at dissemination and outreach to foster the future formation of police practitioner-researcher partnerships. The communication of these barriers to and facilitators of partnerships provides important lessons and rules to heed for practitioners and researchers who want to engage in the practice of partnerships for the first time. At the same time, the lessons and rules of partnerships from this study are important reminders for those with experience in partnerships. Two members of the researcher team for the present study have worked with a number of agencies in partnership efforts. As they engaged in the present

research, however, they were continually reminded from these lessons and rules to partnerships of the missteps they have made along the way and considerations they have overlooked in their own experiences, even into the present. Thus, the findings from the present study have utility to practitioners and researchers who have not considered partnerships, are considering partnerships, or have engaged in partnerships.

The communication of these lessons and rules to negotiating the barriers to and facilitators of partnerships should parallel the efforts discussed in the above section on expanding partnerships involvement, and should be done through various mediums as Huberman (1994) suggests. This includes dissemination through traditional academic publications, as well as more concise products distributed to the law enforcement community or published in the periodicals connected to the field (e.g. Police Chief Magazine, FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, Sheriff Magazine). Huberman also stresses the value of in-person transmission of research to foster utilization. The results of the present study have been presented at the American Society of Criminology Conference, NIJ Conference, and to members of the Research Advisory Committee of the IACP. Additional efforts could include routinely presenting the concept of research partnerships and the findings of this study to other venues that have routine contact with members of the law enforcement community, such as the FBI National Academy. An alternative framework is the presentation of these concepts and findings to joint forums or seminars for members of the law enforcement and research community, such as regional conferences that are intended to foster networking among practitioners and researchers located near one another. Collectively, these efforts would reflect a redundancy and reinforcement that is important for research dissemination (Huberman, 1994).

Future Research Considerations for Research on Knowledge Translation and Research Partnerships in Policing

The present study on police practitioner-research partnerships was framed in the broader literature on research utilization and knowledge translation that has emerged across various academic disciplines. Partnerships are identified as a form of knowledge translation that is an interactive tactic for getting practitioners to use research knowledge, as opposed to the less interactive forms of knowledge transfer. The concept of knowledge translation is not new to criminology and criminal justice, particularly with the increasing recognition of the evidence-based model in these fields. However, it is important to recognize the study of knowledge translation, including in the medicine and public health fields, has become more expansive than the evidence-based model. The continuum of concepts of knowledge translation discussed in chapter two, with the less interactive form of knowledge transfer on one end and the more interactive knowledge exchange on the other end, come from the literature in medicine, public health, nursing, and other fields. Scholars from these fields are recognizing the importance of not only producing quality research for practitioners, but also conducting research on the process that leads to these findings ultimately being incorporated or ignored by practitioners. This is evident in the recent calls for adding a third step (T3) to the well-known National Institute of Health two steps (T1-basic research and T2-clinical research) of evidence-based knowledge translation (Westfall, Mold, and Fagnan, 2007). T3 represents the examination of the research dissemination and implementation processes.

The study of policing should follow this new direction of knowledge translation research. The evidence-based emphasis on improving the quality of research and systematically reviewing this research should continue. However, research has been missing and is needed on the process of police practitioners incorporating or ignoring the growing body research that is related to their

field. This includes examining the levels of research use, forms of adoptions, and process of adoption (Rich, 1991), to include whether the source of research knowledge is from a report on research findings or a partnership between a practitioner and researcher. Absent this research, there will be a continued lack of understanding for why research is not impacting the work of practitioners.

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APPENDICIES

APPENDIX A: Police Practitioner-Researcher Partnerships, Survey of Law Enforcement Executives

RETURN TO:

Professor Jeff Rojek
Department of Criminology and Criminal Justice
1305 Greene Street
University of South Carolina
Columbia, SC 29208
FAX: 803-777-9600
EMAIL: rojekj@mailbox.sc.edu

Police Practitioner-Researcher Partnerships Survey of Law Enforcement Executives

University of South Carolina
Department of Criminology and Criminal Justice

Thank you for participating in this study conducted by the University of South Carolina and funded by the National Institute of Justice. The purpose of this survey is to examine the prevalence of partnerships between police practitioners and researchers in the United States. The survey asks if your agency is currently involved in or has past involvement in a partnership with researchers, which could mean faculty members of colleges or universities, or members of research organizations (i.e. Police Executive Research Forum, Rand Corporation, etc...). For agencies that acknowledge current or prior experience with these partnerships, we briefly ask about their characteristics and how you would rate their success. Alternatively, for agencies that report no involvement with these partnerships we ask a few questions about the absence of work with the research community.

For the purpose of this survey we define a ***police practitioner-researcher partnership*** as a relationship with a researcher with the goal to define or implement a research project. Examples include situations where police agencies and researchers work together to learn about training, leadership, policies, procedures, or other related matters. These efforts can also include police agencies and researchers working together to develop, implement, and/or monitor policies, new programs and initiatives. In addition, these efforts can involve the following levels of commitment:

- **Cooperation** – short term and informal partnerships that may involve such efforts as the agency seeking advice from a researcher or simply providing the research partner your agency’s data for analysis.
- **Coordination** – more formal partnerships that center on a specific project or goal, such as contracting a researcher to conduct a specific analysis or jointly securing grant funding with a researcher to evaluate a specific initiative. The partnership ends with the conclusion of the project.
- **Collaboration** – formalized long-term partnerships where police agencies and researchers work together on multiple projects over time. An example of such a partnership could involve an MOU or contract between an agency and university or researcher for engaging in ongoing and multiple research efforts.

INFORMATION SUPPLIED BY:

NAME:

TITLE:

AGENCY:

Approximate number of sworn personnel:

TELEPHONE:

FAX NUMBER:

E-MAIL:

SECTION A**Experience in Practitioner-Researcher Partnerships**

1. Has your agency been in a partnership with a researcher or research team during the past 5 years?

Yes No

**If you answered yes, please answer questions 2 and 3, and the questions in sections B and C
If you answered no, please answer questions 4 and 5, and the questions in section B**

2. How would you classify the nature of the partnership commitment, or partnerships if your agency has experience with more than one over the past 5 years? (Please check all that apply)

- Cooperation – short term and informal partnerships that may involve such efforts as the agency seeking advice from a researcher or simply providing the research partner data for analysis.
- Coordination – more formal partnerships that center on a specific project or goal, such as contracting a researcher to conduct a specific analysis or jointly securing grant funding with a researcher to evaluate a specific initiative. The partnership ends with the conclusion of the project.
- Collaboration – formalized long-term partnerships where police agencies and researchers work together on multiple projects over time. An example of such a partnership could involve an MOU or contract between an agency and university or researcher for engaging in ongoing and multiple research efforts.

3. Has your agency had negative experience with any of the researchers/research teams (i.e. researcher did not finish work, results were never provided to you, researcher was dishonest, etc...)?

Yes No Do not know

4. If no to question 1, has your agency ever been approached by a researcher to participate in a partnership?

Yes No Do not know

5. What are some of the reasons why your agency has not participated in a partnership with a researcher (please check all that apply)

- a. Do not think partnering with a researcher would be of much use to my agency.
- b. Do not have the funding/resources to engage in a partnership (staffing, etc...).
- c. Do not trust the motives or intent of researchers wanting to partner with my agency.
- d. Heard of other agencies having a negative experience in partnerships with researchers.
- e. Other
Please explain other:
-

SECTION B**Questions on the Role of Research**

This section explores your views on the utility of research for informing decisions and practices of your agency. The questions are not specifically linked to practitioner-researcher partnerships, rather we are interested more generally in your use of research.

6. How often do you use research findings to inform your decisions on policy development and operations?

Never

Seldom

Sometimes

Very Often

7. In which of the following areas have you relied on research findings? (Please check all that apply)

a. Use of Force

b. Emergency/Pursuit Driving

c. Routine Driving

d. Patrol Deployment

e. Response to Gang Activity

f. Response to Illicit Drug Activity

g. Response to Domestic Violence

h. Response to Mentally Ill

i. Homeland Security Issues

j. Response to other community problems not mentioned above

k. Other: _____

8. Which research outlets do you use? (Please check all that apply)

a. Academic Journals

b. Professional Journals (e.g. Police Chief, FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, etc...)

c. National Institute of Justice Publications

d. International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP)

e. Police Executive Research Forum (PERF)

f. Police Foundation

g. National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS)

h. Research Conducted by Other Law Enforcement Agencies

i. Other: _____

SECTION C Characteristics of Past and/or Current Practitioner-Researcher Partnerships

If you have participated in a partnership with a researcher or research team please provide us brief information on these partnerships. If you have participated in more than one partnership, please list the last three partnerships.

Partnership 1:

Partnership Origin and Characteristics:

1. When did the partnership start (approx. month and year)? _____
2. What was the initial project that the partnership worked on?

3. How was the partnership funded? (please check all that apply)
 Research partner provided funding
 Your agency provided funding
 Secured external grant funding
 Partnership operated without funding
 Other: _____
4. Is the partnership still active? Yes No . 4a. If no, when did it end? _____
5. What products did the researcher produce for your agency? (please check all that apply)
 Report document
 Presentation to agency personnel
 Consultation
 Did not produce any products (Project not complete yet)
 Did not produce any products (Project completed)
 Do not know if products were provided
 Other: _____
6. Did your agency receive the product (e.g. report, presentation, etc...) from the researcher in a timely manner?

 Yes No Do not recall/ Do not know
7. Was the research conducted of practical utility to your agency's operations?

 Yes No Do not recall/ Do not know

Partnership Managers:

8. Who was the lead representative from your agency in the partnership (name, phone number)?

Partnership Success:

9. How would you rate the success of the partnership? (Circle one)

1	2	3	4	5
Unsuccessful	Somewhat Unsuccessful	Neutral	Somewhat Successful	Successful

Partnership 2:

Partnership Origin and Characteristics:

1. When did the partnership start (approx. month and year)? _____
2. What was the initial project that the partnership worked on?

3. How was the partnership funded? (please check all that apply)
 Research partner provided funding
 Your agency provided funding
 Secured external grant funding
 Partnership operated without funding
 Other: _____
4. Is the partnership still active? Yes No . 4a. If no, when did it end? _____
5. What products did the researcher produce for your agency? (please check all that apply)
 Report document
 Presentation to agency personnel
 Consultation
 Did not produce any products (Project not complete yet)
 Did not produce any products (Project completed)
 Do not know if products were provided
 Other: _____
6. Did your agency receive the product (e.g. report, presentation, etc...) from the researcher in a timely manner?

 Yes No Do not recall/ Do not know
7. Was the research conducted of practical utility to your agency's operations?

 Yes No Do not recall/ Do not know

Partnership Managers:

8. Who was the lead representative from your agency in the partnership (name, phone number)?

Partnership Success:

9. How would you rate the success of the partnership? (Circle one)

1	2	3	4	5
Unsuccessful	Somewhat Unsuccessful	Neutral	Somewhat Successful	Successful

Partnership 3:

Partnership Origin and Characteristics:

1. When did the partnership start (approx. month and year)? _____
2. What was the initial project that the partnership worked on?

3. How was the partnership funded? (please check all that apply)
 Research partner provided funding
 Your agency provided funding
 Secured external grant funding
 Partnership operated without funding
 Other: _____
4. Is the partnership still active? Yes No . 4a. If no, when did it end? _____
5. What products did the researcher produce for your agency? (please check all that apply)
 Report document
 Presentation to agency personnel
 Consultation
 Did not produce any products (Project not complete yet)
 Did not produce any products (Project completed)
 Do not know if products were provided
 Other: _____
6. Did your agency receive the product (e.g. report, presentation, etc...) from the researcher in a timely manner?
 Yes No Do not recall/ Do not know
7. Was the research conducted of practical utility to your agency's operations?
 Yes No Do not recall/ Do not know

Partnership Managers:

8. Who was the lead representative from your agency in the partnership (name, phone number)?

Partnership Success:

9. How would you rate the success of the partnership? (Circle one)

1
Unsuccessful

2
Somewhat
Unsuccessful

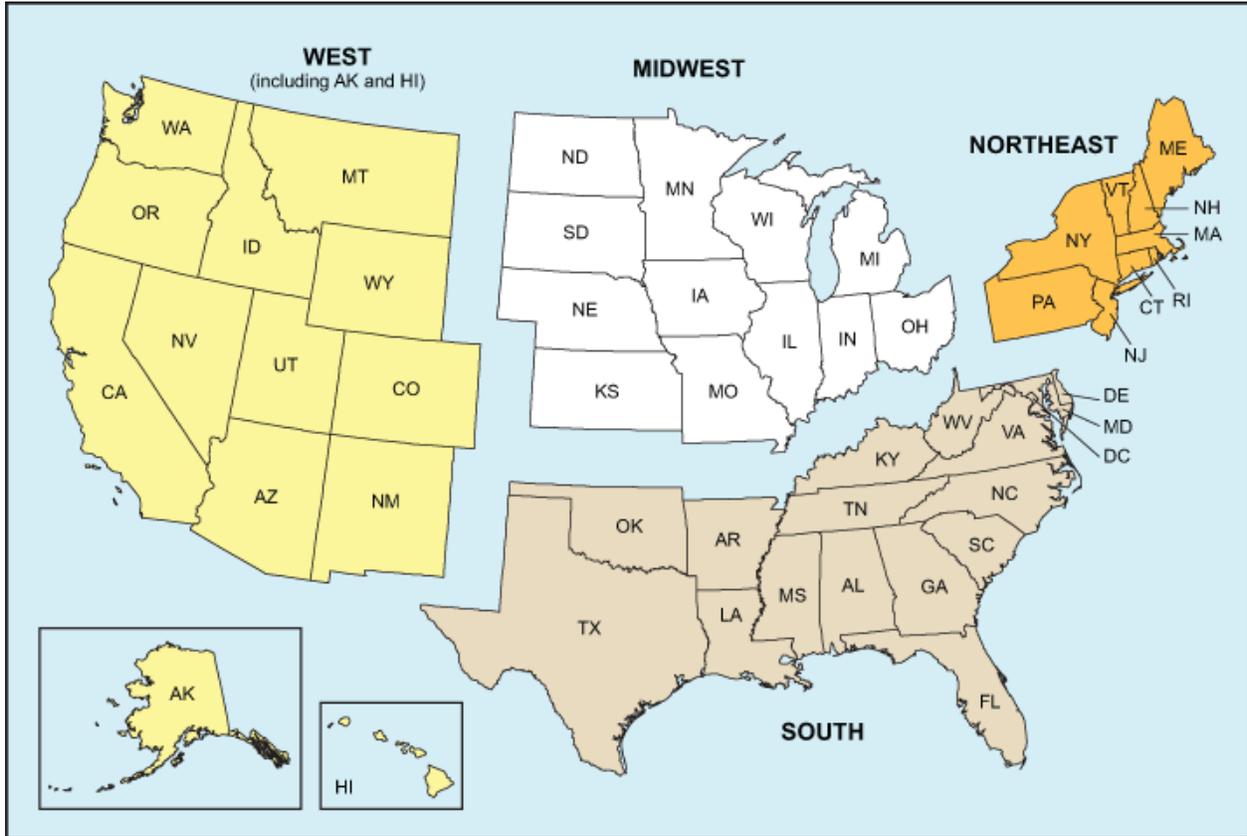
3
Neutral

4
Somewhat
Successful

5
Successful

APPENDIX B: Agency Regions

Four Regions of the U.S. Census Bureau Regions*



* Map U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

Region 1 - Northeast	Region 2 – Midwest	Region 3 – South	Region 4 West
Connecticut	Iowa	Alabama	Alaska
Massachusetts	Illinois	Arkansas	Arizona
Maine	Indiana	Delaware	California
New Hampshire	Kansas	Florida	Colorado
New Jersey	Michigan	Georgia	Hawaii
New York	Minnesota	Kentucky	Idaho
Pennsylvania	Missouri	Louisiana	Montana
Rhode Island	North Dakota	Maryland	New Mexico
Vermont	Nebraska	Mississippi	Nevada
	Ohio	North Carolina	Oregon
	South Dakota	Oklahoma	Utah
	Wisconsin	South Carolina	Washington
		Tennessee	Wyoming
		Texas	
		Virginia	
		West Virginia	
		Washington, DC	

APPENDIX C: Sample Strata by Population Served, Region, and Agency Type

Partnership National Survey Stratified Sample

Population Served	Region	Department Type	Pop. Count	Sample Count	Within Stratum, % of Population Selected	% of TOTAL Sample within Stratum
Missing Population	Northeast	State Police	9	9	100%	0.446
		County/Municipal Police	133	42	31.58%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs				
	Midwest	State Police	16	16	100%	0.793
		County/Municipal Police	363	42	11.57%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs				
	South	State Police	12	12	100%	0.595
		County/Municipal Police	332	42	12.65%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs				
	West	State Police	13	13	100%	0.644
		County/Municipal Police	43	42	97.67%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs				
Under 10,000	Northeast	County/Municipal Police	1574	42	2.67%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs	6	6	100%	0.297
	Midwest	County/Municipal Police	3090	42	1.36%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs	323	42	13.00%	2.081
	South	County/Municipal Police	2859	42	1.47%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs	224	42	18.75%	2.081
	West	County/Municipal Police	684	42	6.14%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs	129	42	32.56%	2.081
10,000 to 49,999	Northeast	County/Municipal Police	920	42	4.57%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs	53	42	79.25%	2.081

	Midwest	County/Municipal Police	827	42	5.08%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs	498	42	8.43%	2.081
	South	County/Municipal Police	738	42	5.69%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs	764	42	5.50%	2.081
	West	County/Municipal Police	364	42	11.54%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs	140	42	30.00%	2.081
50,000 to 99,999	Northeast	County/Municipal Police	93	42	45.16%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs	47	42	89.36%	2.081
	Midwest	County/Municipal Police	115	42	36.52%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs	97	42	43.30%	2.081
	South	County/Municipal Police	112	42	37.50%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs	183	42	22.95%	2.081
	West	County/Municipal Police	121	42	34.71%	2.081
		City/County Sheriffs	49	42	85.71%	2.081
100,000 to 499,999	Northeast	County/Municipal Police	30	30	100%	1.487
		City/County Sheriffs	72	72	100%	3.568
	Midwest	County/Municipal Police	44	44	100%	2.180
		City/County Sheriffs	114	114	100%	5.649
	South	County/Municipal Police	89	89	100%	4.410
		City/County Sheriffs	173	173	100%	8.573
	West	County/Municipal Police	82	82	100%	4.063

		City/County Sheriffs	66	66	100%	3.271
500,000 to 999,999	Northeast	County/Municipal Police	2	2	100%	0.099
		City/County Sheriffs	20	20	100%	0.991
	Midwest	County/Municipal Police	4	4	100%	0.198
		City/County Sheriffs	14	14	100%	0.694
	South	County/Municipal Police	19	19	100%	0.942
		City/County Sheriffs	29	29	100%	1.437
	West	County/Municipal Police	6	6	100%	0.297
		City/County Sheriffs	16	16	100%	0.793
1,000,000 or More	Northeast	County/Municipal Police	4	4	100%	0.198
		City/County Sheriffs	5	5	100%	0.248
	Midwest	County/Municipal Police	2	2	100%	0.099
		City/County Sheriffs	6	6	100%	0.297
	South	County/Municipal Police	6	6	100%	0.297
		City/County Sheriffs	8	8	100%	0.396
	West	County/Municipal Police	5	5	100%	0.248
		City/County Sheriffs	12	12	100%	0.595
Total			15759	2018		100.000

APPENDIX D: Practitioner Interview Guide

PRACTITIONER INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. How was the partnership formed?
 - Who initiated the first project/partnership? Why was it formed? Who was involved?
 - Do you recall the name of the lead research partner, and their related organization/university?
2. What was the first project the partnership worked on?
 - What was the nature of the project?
 - Who identified the problem(s) and methods(s)?
 - How was this process developed?
 - What were the resources supporting the project (external and internal to your agency)?
3. Did you have any initial concerns about the partnership?
 - Were these concerns resolved? How were they resolved? Were there areas of conflict?
4. What were the perceived benefits for becoming involved in the partnership?
5. Did the partnership continue after the initial project (i.e. were there other projects?)
 - **If applicable**, what were they?
 - **If applicable**, can you give me a brief description of other projects the partnership worked on?
6. What is the current status of the partnership (i.e. is it still active?)
7. How would you describe the nature of the your (and fellow members of your agency) relationship with the researcher partner?
8. Did/Has the partnership met your needs?
9. Did/Has the partnership met your expectations?
10. How would you rate the quality of the partnership?
 - Personal relationships, Professional relationships, Outcome of project, Were the goals achieved?
11. What factors contributed to the success (or lack of success) of the partnership?
12. What would you describe as any barriers that existed in the partnership?
13. Can you identify anything that would have improved the partnership?
14. In general, what do you think about partnerships between researchers and law enforcement agencies?

APPENDIX E: Researcher Interview Guide

RESEARCHER INTERVIEW GUIDE

You have been identified as a research partner with the _____.

1. How did you get involved in the partnership?
 - Did you work with the agency prior to this project?
 - If yes: How did you initially start working with the agency?
 - Did you know anyone in the agency?
2. What is/was your role/responsibilities in this project?
3. Overall, what is/was the degree of success as it relates to the impact of the project?
4. Similarly, what is/was the degree of success concerning the working relationship with the practitioner?
5. What are/were the factors that facilitated or created barriers to your involvement in the partnership (e.g. funding, trust, goals, respect for perspective and abilities, other)?
 - Probe - If not addressed: What are/were the factors that helped you earn or blocked access to the agency, data and people?
6. How do you balance the time-intensive demands of research partnerships with the demands of your own university/institution (i.e. publishing, teaching)?
7. Is the project still active?
 - If no: Why did it end?
8. Have you worked on any other projects with this agency?
 - Probes - a. If yes: What projects and how were they funded?
 - If no: Why not?
9. Have you participated in partnerships with other law enforcement agencies?
 - If yes: How many?
 - If yes: Reflecting across these partnerships, what factors facilitated or created barriers to your involvement in these partnerships, as well as the sustainability of your partnership with the agency (e.g. funding, trust, goals, respect for perspective and abilities, others)
(can you provide examples)
10. Based on your experience, what factors are important for making practitioner partnerships a success based on your goals and interests?