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MEASURING COMMUNITY BUILDING

INVOLVING THE POLICE

**THE FINAL RESEARCH REPORT OF THE
POLICE-COMMUNITY INTERACTION PROJECT**

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THE POLICE-COMMUNITY INTERACTION PROJECT

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PCIP Advisory Committee members:

- Ed David, Chief of Police, Lowell, MA.
- Warren Friedman, Executive Director (retired) Chicago Alliance for Neighborhood Safety
- Rev. H. Ward Greer, Executive Director, Albany United Methodist Society
- Johnnie Johnson, Jr., Member, Alabama Board of Pardons and Parole and Chief (retired) Birmingham Police Department
- Dennis Rosenbaum, Professor, Department of Criminal Justice, University of Illinois-Chicago
- Marty Tapscott, Chief (retired) Richmond Police Department
- Ralph B. Taylor, Professor, Department of Criminal Justice, Temple University.

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University at Albany

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- Susan M. Hartnett
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Dr. Phyllis McDonald, now at Johns Hopkins University, was PCIP project monitor from January 1998-June 2000. She was a full member of our advisory team. She was helpful and insightful throughout the project. Particular thanks, Phyllis, for urging us to stick with the case studies and for preferring comprehensive measures to measurement precision.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

MEASURING COMMUNITY BUILDING INVOLVING THE POLICE

The project “Measuring the Community Interaction Variables in Community Policing” was one of the first three projects funded under the Measuring What Matters Program. The project staff decided the most accurate short name for the project is the Police-Community Interaction Project (PCIP) because we are trying to develop measures of the ways in which police departments and communities interact. These police-community interactions are important whether or not a particular police department has adopted an explicit philosophy or strategy of community policing.

PCIP has two broad goals.

(1) We seek to **define** (or identify) **separate dimensions** on which police-community interaction can be described and to advance the **measurement** of these dimensions.

Police departments and specific neighborhoods interact in a bewildering variety of ways. Practitioners and researchers assume that the police and forces in the communities in which the police work “jointly produce” certain public safety outcomes, such as feelings of safety or fear, levels of disorder and crime, and levels of trust and cooperation. These outcomes are jointly produced, whether or not the community and the police are consciously working together. If the police and community groups are cooperative rather than conflicting, and working together in a planned manner, then the joint production might be “co-production” of public safety outcomes, as is assumed to occur in some forms of community policing. To determine which, if any, of the many possible interactions are really important for reducing crime, fear, and disorder, and for

strengthening neighborhoods, people must first be able to describe a large number of these interactions in ways that will allow for meaningful comparisons across time and across places. Therefore, our first goal is to conceive, identify, or define recognizable patterns of interaction and to find ways to treat these ideas as quantities that vary in amount and can be shown to fluctuate over time or across places.

(2) We seek to **facilitate the use** of measures of these interactions **by both police departments and by neighborhood groups, rather than only by researchers.**

The rationale for this second goal is the belief that police departments and communities will often be on their own, without the assistance and collaboration of researchers to document and assess the nature of their actions. Consequently, if measures of the co-production process are to be deployed, either to assist those specific communities or to learn from those communities, then the police and neighbors will often have to do it on their own.

Why are these Interactions Important?

Many observers have noted the huge variety in whether and how much collaboration, cooperation, and conflict occurs between police and neighborhood residents. Behind our interest in measuring (and therefore ordering) this variety is our belief that the timing and nature of this interaction does matter. Similar approaches may have different effects in different places. Some approaches may be more possible in some cities and neighborhoods than others. Some kinds of interaction must occur before others are likely. For example, leadership development and problem solving training might have to occur before residents participate effectively in problem solving. Consequently, we want to know how to describe interaction differences systematically. If we can

measure variation, we can link these differences in level and amount of interaction to both the differences in context (e.g., different neighborhood composition) and to the differences in outcomes (e.g., fear went up rather than down when police told residents about community crime rates). Without the development of systematic measures of police-community interaction we can not be sure what city contexts produce different levels and types of police-community interaction or whether these interactions produce positive neighborhood outcomes.

The long term goals of policing are measured in terms of contributions to community well-being rather than in terms of crime and disorder levels (Alpert and Moore 2000; Moore 1999; Zhao 1996). Therefore, questions about when and how the police interact with neighborhoods ought to be assessed by contributions to neighborhood outcomes, not police outcomes. There is sufficient research on policing impacts to suggest that the police can effect crime, disorder, fear, and satisfaction with the police, for some period of time. This same research indicates that police alone cannot maintain those temporary improvements in communities unless something else occurs in the neighborhood. So the ultimate goal is getting that “something else” to occur. It is important to ask how the "working with neighborhoods" part of policing relates to both the short term reductions of problems and the long term sustaining of community.

There are some common themes in the varied descriptions about the "something else" in neighborhoods that appears to contribute to maintaining community -- with or without the police. Identifying these common themes was PCIP's first task. We have labeled these themes under the unifying concept of “community building.” This report summarizes our efforts at conceptualizing police contributions to neighborhood

community building and our attempts to provide systematic measurements of police involvement in community building activities.

Conceptual Development

Measurement starts with conception. One of the most important parts of the measurement development process is the hard work of defining a concept. As we have said above, the ultimate concern of community policing is not police structure or behavior, but rather the quality of communities. Like Skogan (1990), Spergel (1976), and Wilson (1987), we believe that economic, political, and demographic forces have far greater effects on neighborhood life than do neighborhood institutions or the police. *However*, neighborhood institutions *mediate* between these broad societal forces and neighborhood residents, and they may be *critically involved in modifying local effects* of national forces (Byrum 1992; Cortes 1993; Sampson, Raudebush and Earls 1997; Spergel 1976; Warren 1978).

While these neighborhood institutions, not the police, are responsible for what Hunter (1985) calls "parochial" or neighborhood order, there are critical linkages between private, parochial and public orders and the institutions that sustain them (Hunter 1985; Comer 1985). The police, as an institutional component of the public order, interface with both institutions of the private order (family and friendship networks) and institutions of parochial order (informal cooperation among neighbors).

Community policing is a reorganization of police resources and priorities to increase the intersection of the police with the parochial order (Alpert and Moore 2000; Bayley 1994; Kelling and Coles 1996; Moore 1999). It is based on a recognition that the dominant police paradigm of the reform era -- professional crime fighting -- by-passed

parochial order to intersect with individuals (Bursik and Grasmick 1993; Kelling and Coles 1996). If community policing is to seek citizens as co-producers of order, it must be involved in processes by which neighborhood institutions are built and sustained. Hence, it is important to ask first about general processes of neighborhood building, rather than about police approaches to neighborhoods. **In other words, our strategy is to identify general neighborhood strengthening processes and then to ask how the police might connect with these.**

We have turned to three streams of community theory for identification of critical neighborhood processes: (1) urban politics and sociology, (2) community organization, and (3) neighborhood organizing. While these literatures overlap and complement each other, they focus on different aspects of the neighborhood institution problem. It is important to integrate these literatures to obtain a well-rounded list of concepts that figure prominently in sustaining neighborhoods. Currently, community practitioners and researchers generally refer to such neighborhood sustaining variables or actions as building “community social capacity” or engaging in “community building” efforts.

Community actions can include varying attention to **community building processes**. Community building processes are *identifiable activities and measurable process characteristics of community actions that are theoretically connected to increased community social capacity*. Community social capacity is critical for the maintenance of *long-term* neighborhood stability and quality of life (Chaskin 2001, Cortez 1993, Mattessich and Monsey 1997, Potapchuck et al. 1997). Community social capacity, as defined by Mattesich and Monsey (1997:61), is “the extent to which members of a community can work together effectively, including their abilities develop

and sustain strong relationships, solve problems and make group decisions, and collaborate effectively to identify goals and get work done.” Developing measures of police involvement in community building processes is critical to understanding the connections between policing strategies and neighborhood outcomes. Police-resident co-production is police involvement in community building.

Community Building Processes and Policing

PCIP has defined five major community building clusters or dimensions in which the police are often active.

1) Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space

Definition: The ways and extent to which organizations and residents act to reduce abuses in the use of neighborhood space or to enhance the appearance and quality of neighborhood space as a place to live.

2) Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods

Definition: the manner and extent to which a neighborhood is recognized as a unique place to be considered separately from other neighborhoods in the city by agencies making policies that affect the neighborhood or providing services to the neighborhood.

3) Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts

Definition: the types and levels of activities to encourage residents in a neighborhood to contribute their efforts to concerted or collective action to improve the neighborhood.

4) Steps for Resident Participation

Definition: the forms and degree of resident involvement and decision-making about the collective interests in a neighborhood.

5) Steps for Coordinating Organizations

Definition: The extent of coordinated interaction between two or more organizations concerning issues related to a specific neighborhood in a city.

We developed measures of these concepts in three phases. In Phase I, we developed our initial ideas about the interaction dimensions and identified police behaviors that appeared to fall along these dimensions. In Phase II, we took the initial ideas about what kinds of behavior to look for and developed an Observation Protocol. We used the Observation instrument for one year in 3 Indianapolis neighborhoods. In Phase III, we developed two more measurement instruments. First, we devised a “case study protocol” that provides for systematic measures of the community building interactions through use of first hand knowledge of a case or detailed written reports about that case. This protocol enabled us to see whether the interactions that we observed in Indianapolis could also be found in other cities. Second we devised a survey instrument (which can be used either as a mailed questionnaire or a telephone interview) in order to provide a less expensive, more use friendly way to measure the community building processes. The survey instrument also facilitates gathering data from a large number of neighborhoods.

Phase I: Concept Recognition Efforts

In our original review of the three streams of community literature, we actually found seven frequently mentioned interaction dimensions, which appear important if neighborhood residents are to solve problems effectively. Throughout the course of the early stages of this project the number and nature of these interaction dimensions have changed and evolved into the five dimensions discussed above.

After the identification of the primary concepts, our next step in the development of measures was the preliminary exploration of the relevance of these dimensions to community policing work. A cursory exploration of the community policing literature

provided numerous prima facie examples of these dimensions in police interaction with either residents or neighborhood organizations. These examples suggested to us that trained evaluators had described interactions for which our concepts might provide a reasonable taxonomic device, even though our concepts were rarely used by the evaluators. It also suggested that we might be able to assemble indicators for these interaction dimensions using police examples. Importantly, this review yielded examples where the police interaction arguably damaged the social capacity in neighborhoods and others where it apparently enhanced that capacity. We decided to pursue a more detailed analysis of the cases in which these interaction examples were reported.

First, we sought additional evidence of how germane these ideas are to policing work and whether the police recognized these process dimensions cognitively. We did this by conducting ten preliminary interviews with experienced community policing officers. We drew two basic conclusions from these interviews. (1) The officers' descriptions of their work revalidated the evidence in research literature that these dimensions helped to organize the numerous interactions in which they engaged. (2) However, the officers generally do not conceptualize their work in this way.

Next, we developed implementation narratives of community policing efforts as described in the literature for the identification and initial measurement of our interaction variables. This effort had three objectives.

1. To build a sample of police-neighborhood interaction statements.
2. To determine how well those interaction statements could be sorted along the five dimensions and more specific variables within them.
3. To investigate to what extent the variables vary in extent or degree rather than in kind.

We selected community policing implementation reports from nine cities for our initial extraction of interaction data. These cities contained extensive implementation narratives, were not focused solely on internal departmental issues, and met our selection criteria. We then recruited nine graduate students in the summer of 1998 and assigned to each one all the reports from a particular city. The students extracted more than 800 statements of police-neighborhood involvement from the multiple reports from the nine cities.

As these involvement statements were submitted to us, our approach to defining variables and specifying indicators became increasingly interactive with the data. This interactive process produced 17 separate variables in the five community building dimensions described above. For measurement purposes, 158 detailed interaction statements were chosen for our graduate student recruits to code. We conducted three separate coding exercises of the 158 statements. We made changes in the codebook definitions and instructions between each reliability test.

The overall results of these agreement tests revealed that there was variation in the amount of agreement achieved among the coders. On some variables the coders reached high levels of agreement on the presence and level of a particular variable. For other variables, the level of agreement was lower. Although the project's first attempts at measuring agreement did not produce substantial agreement across all 17 variables, the results certainly illustrated substantial face validity for the interaction dimensions, and many of the variable measures achieved acceptable reliability.

Phase II: Field Testing and Refinement

Indianapolis was selected as the field site for observing the interaction dimensions using the codebook developed from our interaction statements. Selecting a small number of neighborhoods in Indianapolis provided the opportunity to further develop the measures of police-community interaction, refine and test the reliability and validity of the measures, and assess the utility of these measures for a major urban police department and the neighborhoods it serves.

Our field methodology, modeled after what Skogan and others have done to examine police involvement in community activities, was to attend community meetings and events where both police and residents were in attendance. Data about the meetings and events were collected using two complementary coding strategies. First, graduate student coders completed a general code sheet for every meeting and event attended. This sheet captures both general and dimension-relevant information including location and type of meeting, issues related to meeting process, number and types of organization represented, number and characteristics of resident present, and overall balance of resident, police, and other group influences on the meeting. Second, the coders were asked to complete a different codesheet for every issue discussed at a meeting. Multiple issues are typically discussed during a community meeting. For example, seven different issues were discussed during a neighborhood association meeting the observers attended on January 27, 2000. These issues included tax preparation assistance to low-income families, stolen automobiles, neighborhood noise, police recruitment of Hispanic officers, a continuing education program, a new domestic violence initiative, and fund raising for

a community center. The issue-specific codesheets focus on capturing different aspects of the police-community interaction dimensions for every issue discussed.

There were several other data collection strategies used to supplement the meeting data. First, graduate students completed approximately fifty ride-along hours with community policing officers. Second, structured interviews were conducted with the district deputy chief, the community relation's officer, neighborhood leaders, and other police officers that frequently attended community meetings. Third, multiple interviews were conducted with key informants during the later stages of the field strategy experience. These interviews were structured to clarify coding of meetings and also identify interactions in the neighborhood that were not reported at the meeting. Finally, graduate student coders were asked to write notes in a field journal to react to what was occurring within the meeting, what the coding scheme was not capturing, and describe the problems with the operationalization of the variables. These notes were critical in the early stages of the project when refining the variables.

We worked with WESCO area residents and West District police officers for two years. In the first six months in the field, the research focused on training the coders, collecting preliminary information, and conducting initial interviews with police and neighborhood leaders. In the next six months, we attended sixteen neighborhood meetings. These meetings served as pretest opportunities. We used our observation practice to pinpoint problems with the variables and devise workable solutions to these concerns. This attention resulted in significant revisions and elaboration on the coding rules for the issue-specific codebook.

In the second year, we deployed a revised codebook in the field for an entire year. Doing so allowed us to assess how the various dimensions change over time.

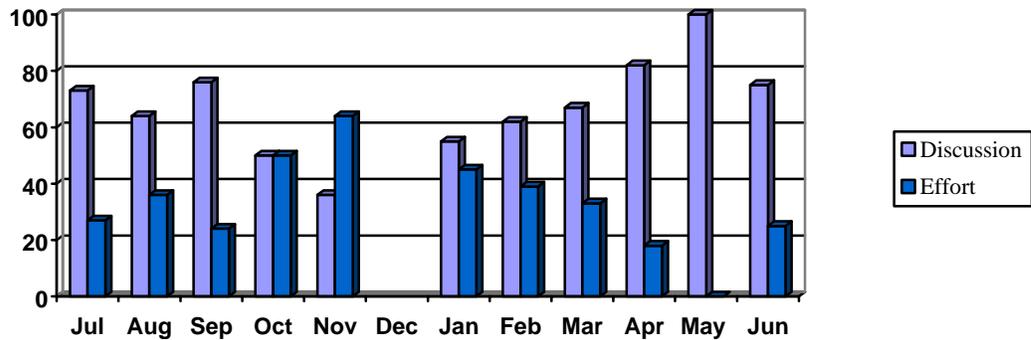
Police-Community Interactions Overtime

The observers attended 31 meetings or events from July 1999 through June 2000. They attended 7 WESCO Umbrella Organization meetings, 8 WESCO Community Policing meetings, 2 Haughville Neighborhood Association Meetings, 5 Stringtown Neighborhood Association Meetings, 2 Hawthorne Neighborhood Association Meetings, 2 Community Task Force Meetings, and 5 WESCO community events.

During these observations, 191 issues were talked about or acted on. The meetings were rather informal and the process often spontaneous. Residents and other participants raised nearly as many issues from the floor as were on the agendas. Neighborhood leaders and police treated the agendas as rough drafts only, and they were willing to change or abandon them, depending on the other issues raised during the meeting.

The PCIP data allows us to explore fluctuations in community building processes overtime. For illustrative purpose we examined fluctuations in the “Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space” and “Steps for Resident Participation” processes occurring in our observations of WESCO police-community meetings. To examine these trends, monthly “issue-averages” were created for the presence and characteristics of the Improvement and Participation steps that occurred in WESCO throughout each month. Each data display presents *the percentage of the issues* recorded per month that are characterized by a certain Improvement or Participation value. For example, Exhibits 1 and 2 illustrate some aspects of Improvement and Participation community building processes.

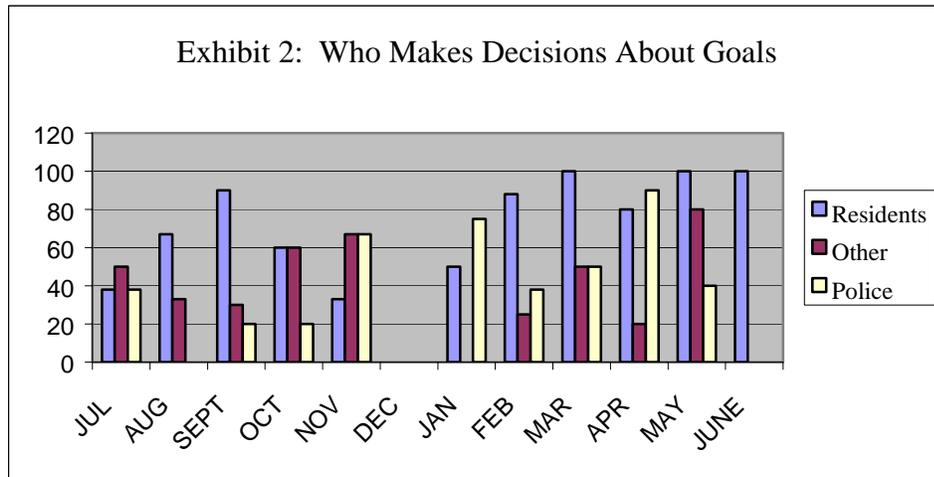
Exhibit 1: Variation in Type of Improvement Activity Over Time
 (% of Improvement Issues that are Discussions or Efforts)



The general trend in Exhibit 1 illustrates little action (efforts – 2nd bar) to improve neighborhood space is reported at the meetings we observed in WESCO. There is though a tremendous amount of discussion regarding improvement needs (1st bar). Yet, some interesting fluctuation patterns do occur. Many of the efforts recorded in October and November were feedback reports on implementation responses to previous meeting discussions. Particularly, a prostitution sting, drug house raids, and implementation of an anonymous tip program were all implementation responses to numerous complaints and discussions at previous meetings. Thus, high periods of consistent discussion about particular improvement issues are likely to be addressed and the implementation & results reported at future meetings.

The next graph, Exhibit 2, illustrates who makes decisions about what improvements are important overtime. There are several interesting findings. First, the data show that the residents of WESCO participated frequently in decisions about goals. Although there was some fluctuation regarding how active they were in decisions about goals, residents clearly had a voice in deciding on what should be done about neighborhood issues. Second, the police had some input into the decisions about goals,

although such input changed over time. In general, the police were much more active in making decisions about goals during the last six months of the project compared to the first six months.



Our data indicate that *community building processes exhibit considerable fluctuation over the course of one year*. If one were to only observe only a few meetings or a few months of this interaction, one could obtain a misleading picture of the nature of the co-production or community building processes. Similarly, if one expresses only average levels of participation or other dimension values, one could misrepresent differences across time and not be able to determine whether community building was going up or down. Information for critical understanding of how police work with neighborhoods would be hidden.

The observation data for the WESCO district distinctly illustrate that community building in the later half of 1999 looks very different from the 1st half of 2000. Trend data help to raise critical questions about what actually occurred in the neighborhood one is studying or attempting to improve. Trend data also provoke a search for potential explanations of the variation. Understanding trends and what causes variation in police

contributions to community building overtime allows both researchers and practitioners to feedback such information to improve police-community co-production efforts.

A second important lesson was that *community building processes can be related to one another*. Variation in characteristics of the steps used to improve WESCO neighborhoods appear to be influenced by changes in other community building process variables. The trend data illustrate how internal changes in the police department, coordination with new organizations, and changes in city and neighborhood leadership can influence the targets of neighborhood improvement and the levels of actual effort.

Reliability of Meeting Observations

We studied whether two independent observers could agree on the presence and level of community building processes. We initially examined observer agreement in four meetings over four months to refine our observation protocol and mold a shared understanding of the measurement instrument. After this initial refinement stage, the project continued to examine agreement between two observers present at the same meeting throughout the remaining year in the field. The constant re-examination of agreement was especially necessary when we made changes to the observation codebook and hired a new field staff observer.

Observers were quite adept at recognizing police efforts to Identify with Neighborhoods and police Encouragement of Resident Efforts. Field observers had a more difficult time agreeing on Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space, Steps for Resident Participation, and some aspects of Steps for Coordination. Based on these periodic comparisons, we made additional changes to the definitions and coding rules for

these variables. These modifications improved observers' mutual understanding of these concepts by the years end.

Recommendations for Future Field Observations of Police-Community Meetings:

Training is Key

Observers need to put in many hours learning the variable codebook, attending meetings, and engaging in practice coding. An important component of this training must be "interactive and consensus" coding sessions. Field observers need to understand why they chose one code over another, what others perceived, and why they agreed or disagreed on the coding of a variable. Examining agreement scores can pinpoint potential problem sources, but discussion of observer experiences is essential in applying the observation protocol.

Consistency in Observers

Having the same observers working in the field for a long period of time is advantageous. It takes time and practice to learn the codebook and to develop a shared understanding of the observation protocol. Equally important is becoming comfortable in the observation setting. Police-community meetings can have a routine, which allows observers to learn what is likely to come next in the agenda, or what a particular person is likely to discuss based, upon the past agenda or her organizational affiliation. Vital to higher reliability and accuracy is thorough knowledge of the participants in community meetings.

Phase III: Finding Community Building in Other Cities

After the observation period, we constructed another instrument, called the "Case Study Protocol," for two purposes. First, we wanted to determine if the measures of the

police community interactions, as developed in our field site, could be deployed in other cities. Second, we wanted a method to test the inter-observer reliability within neighborhoods and to begin the process of validity assessment. To do this, we devised a protocol that would guide either readers of case study reports or persons with first-hand knowledge of specific communities through the identification of police-community interactions and ask them to assign values to interaction data.

Within each community building dimension targeted by the case study protocol, we were interested in three broad categories of interaction variables. These *interaction types* are defined below.

Presence/absence measures. Some questions simply asked about the presence or absence in an area of a type of interaction. We assumed that this kind of data would be the most often observed or recorded in case studies and therefore the easiest to code.

Dispersion/concentration measures. Some questions asked how dispersed or concentrated an interaction was within an area. Dispersion can occur across people (how representative of the area population was a group?). It could also occur across space (what portion of the space in an area received this kind of attention?). It could also occur across organizations (what proportion of organizational types were included in a network?) And finally, it could occur across community issues or functions (how narrow or broad in scope were the issues that received attention?) Such questions required the study to contain information about how comprehensive, representative, or expansive the interaction was, or which groups, spaces, and issues were ignored. We assumed that dispersion information would be less often available than presence/absence and would require more difficult decisions by respondents.

Fluctuation measures. Some questions asked what amount of an interaction occurred. Was the level of interaction low, medium or high? Other questions asked whether the interaction level varied over time in the area. We assumed this information would be the least often available or observable.

Utilizing specific selection criteria, eight cases from evaluations conducted in three cities were selected for examination. These cases are listed below.

- ◆ Spokane, two cases: Project ROAR, West Central NRO project (Giacomazzi, McGarrell, and Thurman, 1995; Thurman and Bogen, 1993)
- ◆ Seattle, one case: South Seattle Precinct (Fleissner, Fedan, Stotland, and Klinger, 1991; Lyons, 1999)
- ◆ Chicago, five cases: (Rogers Park, Morgan Park, Englewood, Marquette, Austin) (DuBois, 1995; Skogan and Hartnett, 1997; Whelan, 1995)

We sought four people to complete the protocol for each of the 8 communities. Two evaluators with first hand, deep knowledge of the case were recruited for each site. The evaluators had served in some research capacity in the site they were assigned to score, and they had contributed to the written record that was used to complete the protocol by the other two coders for each site. The second pair in each case was graduate students who filled out the protocol using only the written record of the case study.

Reliability and Validity of the Case Study Protocol

The research design permitted us to examine both the reliability and the validity of the case study protocol. First, by comparing the levels of agreement between two independent coders of written case study documents we can gauge the reliability of our instrument. Higher levels of agreement would indicate higher levels of reliability. Second, by collecting data from coders and evaluators we can assess the validity of our instrument. We viewed the agreement between coder and evaluator as a reasonable, if modest, measure of validity of coder decisions. If our coders, presumably individuals

with little prior knowledge of the cases, agree with evaluators, presumably individuals with extensive knowledge of the case, we believe we have demonstrated some level of validity.

The results of our reliability analyses suggest that the case study protocol produced the most reliable measures of the Identification and the Improvement dimensions. The overall reliability within the other dimensions was acceptable but not as high as these dimensions. The reliability within dimensions also varied by the interaction variable type. Consistently, our coders had higher levels of agreement on the items measuring the presence/absence of interactions or the dispersion of interactions compared to those items asking them to rate the fluctuation of these interactions over time.

Our comparison of evaluator and case record coders suggests that the validity of these case study measures is somewhat lower than the level of reliability. Evaluators confirmed the assessments made by coders at an acceptable level for the Identification and Encouragement dimensions. However, across all of the dimensions, the fluctuation interactions produced the lowest levels of validity. In addition, for the dimensions measuring Neighborhood Improvements, Resident Participation, and Coordination, there appear to be some discrepancies between the assessments made by coders and those made by evaluators. In other words, one can draw more accurate conclusions from case studies about the identification and encouragement steps taken by police than one can about Resident Participation, Coordination, or Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space.

In addition to this systematic comparison of responses to the protocol, we also asked our evaluators, experts in community policing, to comment more generally on the content validity of the dimensions and their elements. The seven evaluators were

unanimous in their judgment that the community building dimensions captured a comprehensive range of police-community interactions and that the dimensions were quite relevant in classifying the interactions that they had studied. In general, they were most pleased with the definitions and elements of the Participation dimension.

Phase III: The Survey of Neighborhood Organization Leaders

While our field observations proved useful in describing how police and residents interact over time, we realized three distinct, yet somewhat related, limitations of this approach. First, this approach is likely to be less attractive and feasible to resident organizations or police departments due to the frequency with which observation are made and the resources that it requires. Second, because these observations are focused mostly on meetings, interactions taking place outside of meetings and more general descriptions of the social context of the neighborhood are not captured. Finally, the amount of resources that this approach demands makes it more challenging to make comparisons across neighborhoods. In short, we felt a need to provide these groups with a simplified and more feasible method for assessing these interactions.

In addition, the field observation did not provide information into the larger structural and social characteristics of the neighborhoods in which these interactions were taking place. For the purposes of theory testing and development, there was a need to produce a more efficient tool for data collection that could be used at one point in time across a larger number of neighborhoods. The development of the neighborhood organization survey was guided, at least in part, by all three of these concerns.

Two pretests of the survey were distributed to neighborhood association presidents in Albany and Schenectady, NY. The pretests proved to be a valuable

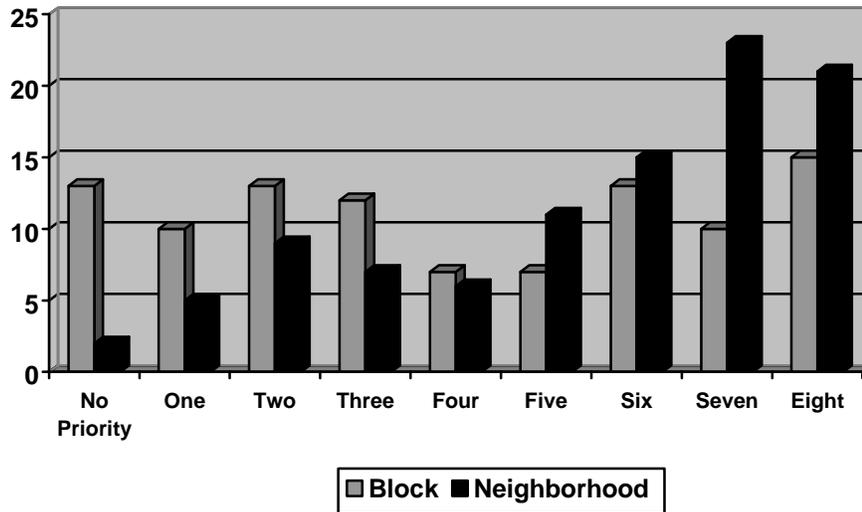
experience for a number of reasons. First, the reactions of respondents from the first pretest convinced us that our original draft had included too many items that were too specific or that required information that these resident leaders were not aware of. As a result, we reworded and eliminated a number of items. These pretests also encouraged us to add some important questions that we had failed to include in earlier drafts of the survey. Finally, the responses from the pretest gave us some insight into the response rate we could expect. We concluded that we could not expect more than a 30% response rate based on the current written version of the survey.

Following the pretest, two versions of the survey were distributed to neighborhood leaders in Indianapolis. Resident leaders from block clubs throughout the city received a written questionnaire instrument while presidents of neighborhood associations and umbrella organizations completed the survey by way of a telephone interview.

Survey Data

The survey provided us with a unique opportunity to explore how these community building processes might vary across a large number of neighborhoods in Indianapolis. Responses to the survey suggest that neighborhoods vary in the number of improvement issues that they address. Some neighborhoods address a large number and wide variety of priority improvement issues while other neighborhoods face a much more limited range of issues. These patterns are displayed in Exhibit 3 below.

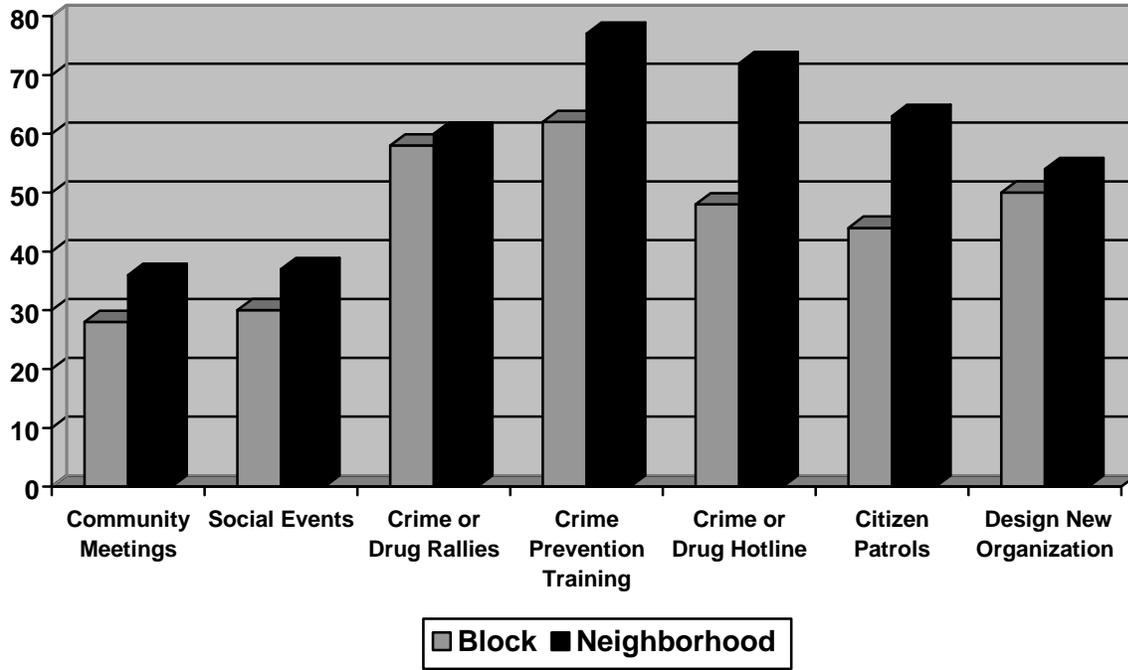
Exhibit 3: Range of Improvement Issues



We believe that it is important to assess the nature of these improvement issues because the co-production interactions present in a neighborhood facing few issues are likely going to be quite different from those interactions in a neighborhood facing a multitude of critical issues.

The survey also revealed some patterns in the means police use to encourage residents to contribute to neighborhood efforts. These data indicate that the police role in initiating encouragement activities varies depending on the activity. The police appear to be most highly involved in initiating crime/drug rallies, providing crime prevention training, and initiating crime/drug reporting hotlines. However, the police seem less likely to suggest the use of community meetings or neighborhood social events as a means of getting residents involved.

Exhibit 4: Police Steps in Encouragement Activities
 (% of respondents reporting police involvement in initiation)



Survey Reliability and Validity

Reliability

We assessed both the inter-item and intra-neighborhood reliability of survey items measuring police-community interaction. Overall, the inter-item analyses suggested modest to high levels of inter-item reliability for the four police-community interaction dimensions measured in the survey. For the most part, across both samples, the correlations indicated that the items within each of the dimensions are related to one another in ways we had expected. The alpha reliability coefficients suggest that our items do a reasonably good job of measuring these co-production dimensions as we have defined them. Reliability coefficients were highest for items measuring Steps to Improve Neighborhoods and Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts. We assessed intra-

neighborhood reliability by comparing the responses of two independent respondents living within the same neighborhood. This analysis produced only modest, and at times poor, levels of reliability. These low levels of agreement may reflect our inability to produce fair points of comparison. Due to the small sample size we were restricted to relying on comparisons of block club leaders and neighborhood association leaders. Future tests of the intra-neighborhood reliability of survey items need to be accomplished by using multiple respondents from the same community organization.

Validity

Relationship Between Co-Production and Community Social Capacity

In an attempt to examine the construct validity of the survey items measuring police-community interaction, we examined the relationship between co-production and the capacity of neighborhood residents to solve local problems. We expected to find positive relationships between the community building processes measured in the survey and the extent to which residents are confident in their ability to collectively address problems facing the neighborhood. These expectations were based on theory and research suggesting that co-production leads to more socially organized neighborhoods (Skogan and Hartnett 1997; Skogan et al., 1999, 2000) as well as examples from case studies that suggest that more socially organized neighborhoods are better equipped to advocate for effective police-community interaction (Lyons 1999).

In order to assess these expectations we used an index measuring community social capacity as the dependent variable and estimated the independent effects of a variety of co-production variables measured in the survey. These coefficients are presented in Exhibit 5 below.

Exhibit 5: Variables Predicting Community Social Capacity

Independent Variable	Standardized Coefficient	Significance
Poverty Index	-.204	.283
Crime Index	.025	.883
Crime Issue Importance	-.082	.539
Residential Stability	-.152	.416
Black Population	-.058	.692
Racial Heterogeneity	-.050	.695
Improvement Steps – Problem Solving Index	.166	.210
Identification Steps Index	.262	.064
Identification Steps – Accessibility Index	.433	.000
Encouragement Steps – Message Index	.282	.027
Encouragement Steps – Activity Index	.418	.006
Participation Steps Index	.389	.002
Participation Steps – Non-Representation	.182	.186

Community social capacity appears to be related to police accessibility, both encouragement messages and activities, and participation steps. These coefficients suggest that resident confidence in their ability to solve problems is highest in neighborhoods where the police and residents are engaged in more frequent and more balanced interactions with one another. Unfortunately, due to the cross-sectional nature of these survey data, it is difficult to offer a definitive explanation for why these relationships exist. In other words, we cannot ascertain whether community building processes increase community social capacity or if neighborhoods high in social capacity have more influence over the forms of co-production they engage in with the police.

Conclusion

There are many important specific questions one could ask in determining the progress made by this project since January 1998. But there are probably no other questions more important than are the interactions real and if so, does it matter. After 3

1/2 years of looking, our answers to both are affirmative. We are more certain of the first yes than the second.

We have been fairly successful in getting a variety of different kinds of people to recognize police-community interaction behaviors, using a variety of different kinds of prompts and referencing a variety of places.

- In lengthy, open ended interviews, we listened to community policing officers in 6 different cities identify these dimensions and describe what aspects of their work entailed developing elements of these dimensions.
- In lengthy coding sessions following training session, graduate students were able to extract more than 800 “police involvement” statements from community policing reports from nine different cities. They were able to agree on the classification of specific process variables most of the time.
- In 18 months of field observations of three contiguous neighborhoods, we were able to observe and reliably code police-resident interactions in neighborhood meetings, district meetings, and a sample of events.
- Responding to our case study protocol, seven experienced police researchers reported that these interaction processes were comprehensive and included most of what they recalled from their research experience with eight different communities in three different cities.
- Responding to the written or interview version of the survey, neighborhood leaders were able to report values for these interactions in 100 neighborhoods in three cities (20 from Albany and Schenectady and 80 from Indianapolis).

We think the concepts describe phenomena in the empirical world, that occur with considerable frequency in lots of places, but that vary in socially significant ways.

That leads to the so what question. There are lots of real things that do not require expensive measurement. Until these measures are used in more systematic research, whether this behavior called community building matters is a matter of some conjecture. We will return to how those conjectures can be turned into research below. Knowledge about the payoff for engaging in community building is tentative. Some of Skogan and colleagues’ (1997; 1999, 2000) research suggests that higher levels of participation in problem solving result in both more solved problems and increased community capacity.

Mattessich and Monsey (1997) report case study confirmation of connections between specific community building steps and at least one element of community capacity. As they readily admit, measures of process and outcome are very simple in these studies and perhaps misleading. Naparstek and colleagues (2000) claim connections between community building and levels of community social capital. However, their study appears to ignore the simultaneous effects of the changes in community composition; leaving open the challenge that structural change not community process is responsible for the outcomes. Our own analysis of the connections between community building and collective efficacy, or social capacity, suggest a modest positive association. Causal ordering cannot be confirmed with these data.

Finally, practitioners behave as if these community building processes make a difference. In the absence of good scientific data, practitioner experience is often the best guide. This is not to say that unsystematic experience is an adequate substitute for research, but the assumptions of practice offer many good suggestions for explicit hypotheses.

General Comparison of Instruments

Our experience with these instruments to date do not suggest that any of the community building processes we have conceptualized and attempted to measure should be excluded from future measurement attempts.

In terms of appropriate instrumentation, each instrument that PCIP constructed has strengths and weaknesses. For those desiring to measure community building in police-community interactions, their choice of instrumentation boils down to three questions. What are the goals and purposes in measuring the community building

processes? What resources (money, time, and energy) are available to explore these goals and purposes? What degree of detail is necessary to meet the measurement goals and purposes?

In general, the observation protocol probably represents the best balance of comprehensive community building content that is feasible to collect. This is not surprising. The observation protocol was our first and primary instrument. It is the means that we used to define these concepts operationally. It captures most of what we mean by each of the dimensions. Some specific issues about each dimension follows.

Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods

In our limited experience, the case study protocol probably has the most comprehensive and accurate measures of identification. The current survey may rely on too few items to tap the different forms of identification and the observation protocol is not necessary to pick up the major facets of Identification.

Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts

Encouragement elements did not change much from our initial conception and are fairly similar across instruments. The survey and case study items are actually somewhat richer than the observation items, since they tap resident efforts to mobilize the police as well as the other way around.

Steps for Resident Participation

Probably the greatest strength of the observation instrument, relative to the others, is the rich detail of participation among all visible participants in a community building process – residents, police, and many other kinds of organizations. This instrument also connects participation in decisions to specific issues – a relationship that begs for more

and better research. What kinds of issues engender the most participation? The least? The most conflict? The most cooperation? In our view, only the observational approach really captures these data. Moreover, the observation form, when used appropriately, appears to be the most accurate measure of changes over time, especially in this dimension.

Steps for Coordination

The survey instrument is the least effective in examining coordination, or collaboration (if that is the better term), among non-police and non-resident organizations. The case study and observation protocols do a far better job of this. While we did have trouble connecting specific agency contributions to specific issues, the observation protocol does track what agency representative raises an issue. The case study protocol examines the activities of eight different types of organizations (rather than the 11 types in the observation form), but it cannot tie agency coordination to issues.

Steps for Improvement of Neighborhood Space

In terms of enumerating the neighborhood agenda (what are the issues that need attention?) the observation protocol and the case study instrument provide for more detail than the survey, although this could be easily corrected in the survey. We are convinced that, any set of survey questions about neighborhood issues or problems must include, at a minimum, some enhancement targets rather than just abuse targets and some issues far afield from law enforcement – such as economic improvement or education. We are not implying that the police should be involved in these issues, but the fact of the matter is that in many places they are. We ought to measure how broadly or narrowly gauged the police community building role is.

In addition to what issues and how broad or narrow the agenda, the other aspect of Neighborhood Improvement was How? On this score, we think that the final version of the observation issue protocol and codebook provide the most accurate items to represent what Goldstein (1987) and others have meant by problem-solving. The case study and survey instruments both rely, probably too much, on respondents' general ideas about problem-solving (although the survey does tap some specific problem-solving elements).

Future Measurement Development Steps

We recognize that there are more questions to be answered, but believe PCIP has established a solid conceptual and measurement base for examining police contributions to neighborhood community building. Our current list of important next steps includes the following.

Instrument Dependency

First, deploying all three of these instruments in the same communities for a significant (12-24 month) period would provide valuable information about the sensitivity of the variable measures to different methods and instruments.

Sample Dependency

The problems of a limited and perhaps biased observation sample can be reduced by increasing the sample of events that are observed within a community. This task is very labor intensive, but it is certainly worth undertaking. It is also possible that one would need to alter the sampling plan within the same city, or in different cities, if neighborhood organization varied substantially.

A related issue concerns which data sources to use in the case study protocol or the survey. Comparing survey results from multiple respondents within the same

organization is an important step that we could not take here. Comparing several members of the same neighborhood association, same block club, same church, etc. would be quite informative of the stability of the variables across respondents.

One special case of sample-dependency studies would be very important to pursue, according to several of our advisors and community respondents. Perceptions of police and of residents in the same neighborhood should be compared. This comparison is particularly important to make *before* either police departments or resident groups should go off and conduct measures of their own, on their own.

Additional Criterion Validity Data

PCIP was hampered in assessing the accuracy or meaning of our police community interaction measures by the absence of criterion measures. Since the police interaction measures are based on the more general community building concepts, there should be some opportunity in some places to use other community building measures as criteria in assessing the police community interactions. For example, resident participation variables should correlate positively with general resident volunteering, voting in local elections, and so on.

Dilemma of Scope and Precision

Community organizers and police on our Advisory Committee were concerned with how the measures might be used and strongly argued that there is real danger in “measures driving action” (such as police focusing on the law enforcement function because that is what is measured – see Alpert and Moore 2000). The practitioners argued that if community building requires comprehensiveness, or if narrow focus on one aspect of community building might be detrimental, then PCIP would make a more valuable

contribution by maintaining scope at the expense of precision. We can say now that not only were they correct about the practical implications, but also that some research supports the need to measure community building as a *set of processes* connected to a *set of outcomes* (Bennett 1998; Mattessich and Monsey 1997). Nevertheless, in the instrument development process there is a tradeoff between how many variables are operationalized at once and the quality of the measurements. Therefore, for the purposes of *refining* these measures (but not for *applying* them), focusing on one or two dimensions at a time could easily be justified.

Future Research Questions

The research agenda that can be pursued with police community building measurements is exciting and important. When these process measures are added to existing measures of community structure, police department structure, public safety outcomes, and community social organization a number of both theoretical and policy questions can be addressed.

First, how do these processes influence each other? The theoretical and practical strategy literature on this question is highly speculative and highly ideological, respectively. Research would reduce the reliance on both.

Second, how are these police related community building processes connected to other processes of community building? Are the contributions to community building that the police might make found in isolation from or in conjunction with community building activities of other community agents?

Third, how are community building processes related to specific public safety outcomes such as levels of crime, levels of disorder, levels of fear, and levels of satisfaction with police services?

Fourth, do community building processes result in increased collective efficacy or increased community capacity, as is proposed?

Fifth, what is the relationship between levels of collective efficacy and crime, or other community problems? There are some studies of this relationship (e.g., Sampson and Raudenbush 2001) but no one would assert that our knowledge of these connections is well established. As a special part of this investigation, one should certainly examine whether the explicit use of these measures during a community building effort enhances the level of community building that is achieved.

The research literature does not provide solid answers for these questions, in part because we have not had the tools to assist us in determining if community building was actually taking place. We believe the continued development and application of the police-community interaction measures can help to build this knowledge.

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CHAPTER ONE

MEASURING THE PROCESS AT THE POLICE-NEIGHBORHOOD INTERFACE

The project “Measuring the Community Interaction Variables in Community Policing” is supported by grant 97-IJ-CX-0052 from the National Institute of Justice to the University at Albany Hindelang Criminal Justice Research Center and the Indiana University-Bloomington Department of Criminal Justice. It was one of the first three projects funded under the Measuring What Matters Program. The staff decided the most accurate short name for this research is the Police-Community Interaction Project (PCIP), because we are trying to develop measures of the ways in which police departments and communities interact. We believe that these measures of police-community interaction occur and are important whether or not a particular police department has adopted an explicit philosophy or strategy of community policing. We will return to the relationship between community policing and police-community interaction at the end of this chapter.

The Police-Community Interaction Project (PCIP) has two broad goals.

(1) We seek to **define** (or identify) **separate dimensions** on which police-community interaction can be described and to advance the **measurement** of these dimensions.

Police departments and specific neighborhoods interact in a bewildering variety of ways. Practitioners and researchers assume that the police and forces in the communities in which the police work “jointly produce” certain public safety outcomes, such as feelings of safety or fear, levels of disorder and crime, and levels of trust and cooperation. These outcomes are jointly produced, whether or not the community and the police are consciously working together. If the police and community groups are cooperative rather than conflicting, and working together in a planned manner, then the joint production

might be “co-production” of public safety outcomes, as is assumed to occur in some forms of community policing.

Zhao (1996:30) defines co-production as “cooperation between public servants and citizens in a community to accomplish community goals.” The particular form of co-production that he finds most relevant to local public order and safety is “mutual adjustment in an organized form...between citizens and public agents to formulate policies and address local problems” (1996:31). His notion of police sponsored co-production is very similar to what we will call “police-community interaction,” or “police community building activities.”

Developing more systematic ways to describe police-community interactions is important. To determine which, if any, of the many possible interactions are really important for reducing crime, fear, and disorder, and for strengthening neighborhoods, people must first be able to describe a large number of these interactions in ways that will allow for meaningful comparisons across time and across places. Therefore, our first goal is to conceive, identify, or define recognizable patterns of interaction and to find ways to treat these ideas as quantities that vary in amount and can be shown to fluctuate over time or across places.

(2) We seek to **facilitate the use** of measures of these interactions **by both police departments and by neighborhood groups, rather than only by researchers.** In order to make these measures usable by the people with day to day responsibility for community well being, practitioners (residents, police, and other agency officials) must **understand the ideas** and their importance, and find the measurements of them **feasible to employ and relevant to their decision making.**

The rationale for this second goal is the belief that police departments and neighborhoods will often be on their own, without the assistance and collaboration of researchers to document and assess the nature of their actions. Consequently, if measures of the co-production process are to be deployed, either to assist those specific communities or to learn from those communities, then the police and neighbors will often have to do it on their own. Moreover, getting both the police and neighborhoods involved in a critical assessment about whether and how well they are working together is often a major component in a community policing strategy. Therefore having tools to that help to plan and assess a complex cooperative process may be especially useful in community policing cities.

A **primary value** guiding this project is **usable knowledge**. We are assuming that quality knowledge, as judged by researchers, and quality practice, as judged by people who work and live in communities, not only can exist side by side but also can support each other.

Origins of the Project

This project was conceived in the course of a year long Policing Research Institute convened by the National Institute of Justice and the Community Oriented Policing Service within the US Department of Justice in 1996. The Institute was comprised of a number of police executives, researchers, community organizers, advocates, and media experts who came together under the theme of "Measuring What Matters" in policing. A series of papers were commissioned and the group met three

times to discuss the two major questions under that theme: what matters in policing? and how can the things that matter be measured? (Langworthy 1999)

In the course of the institute, consensus developed that standardized, reliable measures of community policing practices are very important but generally lacking. Moreover, in thinking about possible causal chains or sequences that might produce public safety outcomes, we know more about what to measure and how to measure it at both the front end and at the back end of the causal chain than in the middle.

The “front end” of the causal chain would usually include **causes and context** of neighborhood character and police behavior. For example, variables such as poverty, migration patterns, economic shifts, housing quality, neighborhood composition, nature of city politics, levels of racism have been used to measure neighborhood context. Police department context has included measures of police officer culture, department decision structure, officer morale and job satisfaction, training, and so on. At the “back end” of the causal chain, a variety of **outcomes** have been measured including fluctuations in crime, disorder, fear, resident satisfaction with the police, neighborhood quality of life, resident satisfaction with the neighborhood, neighborliness, and so on.

While we should certainly seek improvements in our thinking about what to measure and in our techniques for measuring context and outcomes, Measuring What Matters participants agreed that we are on even weaker footing about the “in between” aspects of the causal chain. We need much more effort to measure how police and neighborhood residents get together to ameliorate the causes of neighborhood distress, to adjust creatively to neighborhood contexts, and bring about desired outcomes. We need to know about those in-between interactions because we can not determine whether the

outcomes we measure are related to what was done, and how much of it was done, unless we can describe the doing itself.

Why are these Interactions Important?

Many observers have noted the huge variety in whether and how much collaboration, cooperation, and conflict occurs between police and neighborhood residents. Behind our interest in measuring (and therefore ordering) this variety is our belief that the timing and nature of this interaction does matter. Similar approaches may have different effects in different places. Some approaches may be more possible in some cities and neighborhoods than others. Some kinds of interaction must occur before others are likely. For example, leadership development and problem solving training might have to occur before residents participate effectively in problem solving. Consequently, we want to know how to describe interaction differences systematically. If we can measure variation, we can link these differences in level and amount of interaction to both the differences in context (e.g., different neighborhood composition) and to the differences in outcomes (e.g., fear went up rather than down when police told residents about community crime rates).

The importance of systematic descriptions of police-neighborhood interaction can be appreciated by comparing three competing views about the order of and effects of this interaction.

- (1) One strongly held view is that neighborhoods have to be **organized before** they can work effectively with the police to reduce crime and disorder (Friedman 1994; Friedman and Clark 1999). In this view, a certain level of neighborhood

cohesion, trust, and collective efficacy must be attained before residents will be able to work as partners with a large, complex agency such as a police department, especially on issues as controversial and potentially divisive as crime. Important implications of this view are that a city should invest resources, such as salaries for community organizers, to bolster neighborhood infrastructure prior to the police intervention in the community. If this view is correct, then the causal ordering would show that neighborhood organization precedes police-resident partnership in order for the partnering to be meaningful and effective (See also Hess 1999: 30).

- (2) A second view is that the police can enter neighborhoods before they are organized and assist residents to build the community organization of the neighborhood in the course of working with the police. The implication of this view is that police can initiate increases in community trust, cohesion and resident collective efficacy in the course of law enforcement and crime prevention activity that involves residents. If this view is correct, then the causal ordering should show that police-community interaction precedes neighborhood organization and that the police partnership enhances the social structure of the community. (See Rosenbaum 1987 for a general discussion of the “transplant hypothesis” and see Skogan and Wycoff 1986 and Skogan 1990: 143-147 for case study examples involving the police as organizers.)
- (3) Finally, a third view is that the police can effectively reduce crime and disorder first, and as a result of this police work, neighborhoods then will organize effectively to maintain the results of the police efforts (Kelling and Coles 1996; Wilson and Kelling 1989, 1982). In this view, police should aggressively reduce disorder and crime in

order to stem community decline. Community organization is expected to result from the reduction in crime, but active community participation with the police is not considered essential to the police contribution (Bratton 1999). In this version of the causal chain, trust, cohesion and collective efficacy go up after disorder, crime, and fear go down. The implication is that the police alone have primary responsibility for stabilizing a neighborhood, which the residents will subsequently maintain.

There is some modest research to support all three claims and maybe all three are right -- about different neighborhoods and about different organizing strategies. But we can not be sure at the moment, partly because there are few ways to compare neighborhoods on their level of effective organization. The police (and the residents) really can not tell us, for example, how much joint decision making about problems occurred in a particular neighborhood or whether the residents “had their act together” before the police sought their input about problems. They cannot tell us if the problem agenda would have been different if the residents had been better organized or more representative. And they cannot tell us if community organization improves in the course of collaborating with the police.

While there is this puzzling disagreement about how to describe neighborhood organization and when in that process police and neighborhoods can best link up for joint work, these competing causal claims do share two important principles.

First, there is agreement about the ultimate outcomes of concern. All three points of view agree that the ultimate value of policing is not good police work but good neighborhoods. This means that answers to questions about when and how the police interact with neighborhoods ought to be assessed by contributions to neighborhood

outcomes, not police outcomes. There is sufficient research on policing impacts to suggest that the police can effect crime, disorder, fear, and satisfaction with the police, for some period of time. This same research indicates that police alone cannot maintain those temporary improvements in communities unless something else occurs in the neighborhood. So the ultimate goal is getting that “something else” to occur. It is important to ask how the "working with neighborhoods" part of policing relates to both the short term reductions of problems and the long term sustaining of community.

Second, there is some agreement about the basic neighborly interactions in well-organized, healthy, vibrant neighborhoods. In other words, there are some common themes in the varied descriptions about the "something else" in neighborhoods that appears to contribute to maintaining community -- with or without the police. Identifying these common themes is taking up in the next chapter under the unifying concept of “community building.” Then in Chapter Three we define the community building processes in which police appear to be involved. There are no acceptable ways, in any literature of which we are aware, to measure these interaction patterns so that the measurements can be used by the police, or neighborhoods, or by researchers. That is why we will try to do so. Chapters 4-7 describe our measurement attempts.

Purpose of This Research Report

Primary Audience

The intended primary audience of this report are researchers, city policy makers, community leadership trainers and organizers, police planners and trainers, and others who are interested in

- The theory or logic model behind our measurements.
- The development of the measures.
- The strengths and weaknesses of the current measures.
- And the next logical steps in advancing this measurement.

In other words, the primary audience of this report is associated with the first goal of PCIP: to identify and measure police-community interactions.

People who are more concerned about the second goal (how practitioners might use these measures) may be more interested in the next PCIP report, a handbook for practitioners that will examine why, how, and when to use police-community interaction measures. However, throughout this report we are concerned with whether practitioners will understand the purpose of the measures and be able to implement them. These issues are themes in most chapters. In addition, Chapter 8 reports in detail factors that may affect the likelihood of adoption and the probability of productive use. Our sources for those factors are discussions with police and residents in three different cities during the feedback of our survey measures and a two day conference with the practitioners on the Advisory Committee.

Conceptual Development

Measurement starts with conception. One of the most important parts of the measurement development process is the hard work of defining a concept. Indeed, our NIJ monitor and our Advisory Committee thought that this project would make its most important contribution by sorting through the literature and talking with or observing practitioners long enough to recognize common themes in police-community interaction and put some names on those themes. We were told that NIJ officials considered funding only the definitional part of PCIP. Eventually, the decision was made to fund the instrumentation as well as the conceptual work. We think this decision was important

because the struggle to measure has definitely influenced our understanding of the interaction concepts. We have taken the position that if we can't measure an interaction – at least in the minimal way of getting two informed people to agree on the existence of something when they see it – then it might not exist.

It is important to recognize that the development of measures is an iterative, often tedious, process. One of the main values of this report is to tell researchers what missteps we have taken both conceptually and metrically so that they need not repeat these mistakes. We also wish to suggest what conceptual ambiguities remain, how these might be resolved, and what measurement steps might be tried next. As grueling as this work might be, we remained convinced of both its importance and potential. There is widespread agreement that improvements in process measures are not only critical in the examination of policing and public safety (Langworthy 1999, Kerley and Benson 2000, Duffee, Fluellen and Renauer 1999) but to the whole field of planned community change (Mattessich and Monsey 1997:49; Hess 1999:30-31; Naparstek et al. 2000).

Strategies for Operationalizing Concepts

The work of PCIP was roughly organized into three phases. Phase One began in January 1998 and was completed in March 1999. Phase One focused on the development of the basic ideas about police-community interaction and the construction of the initial instrument to measure those interactions through observation. The main ideas in this phase were reported in article form (Duffee, Fluellen, and Renauer 1999; Duffee Fluellen and Roscoe 1999). The steps that we took to identify those concepts and construct the observation protocol were the subject of our initial project report (Duffee, Renauer, Fluellen, and Scott 1999) and are reported in briefer fashion in Chapter 4.

Phase Two began in June 1998 and was completed in July 2000. It focused on the deployment of the initial instrument in three contiguous Indianapolis neighborhoods where residents were working actively with the Indianapolis Police Department. PCIP had two field observers in these neighborhoods for 18 months to attend meetings and events in which both the police and residents participated. Our main effort in these months was the field testing and constant revision of an observation protocol that captures police-community interaction in detail.

The observation protocol provides for fine-grained, longitudinal depictions of police-community interactions. The observation method is complicated and requires training to use. Therefore it is fairly costly, in people's time, if not also in money. It is perhaps the least user friendly of our measurement techniques. The observation method provided us with the greatest control over what was being recorded and therefore seemed to be the logical way to start, especially when measuring phenomena that were poorly understood. The efforts taken by our field staff to argue through what they had seen and how to classify it were absolutely essential in refining the definitions of the interaction concepts and in the construction of other instruments. Moreover, the data produced by this observation method provide the best evidence that these interactions are *processes* which develop (for better or worse) over time. The observation method and examples of the data are provided in Chapter 5.

Phase Three began about January 2000 and will be completed in August 2001. It had two primary objectives. (1) We wanted to ascertain the generalizability of our interaction concepts, or to determine that the interaction processes that we observed in Indianapolis could also be found in other cities. (2) We wanted to undertake some

additional analyses about the stability (reliability) and accuracy (validity) of our measures, which were not feasible to do immediately with the observation data, since we had observations for only three neighborhoods.

In order to accomplish these objectives, we developed two more instruments for measuring police-community interactions. We think that developing these additional instruments is a valuable contribution in its own right because it required different data collection techniques. To the extent that we have been able to show that these interactions are measurable in different ways, rather than just observed by trained researchers, we are on safer grounds in claiming that these phenomena are “real” rather than products of our measurement technology.

Both of these instruments benefited greatly from our experience in observing police officers and neighbors at work on community affairs in Indianapolis. Unlike the observation protocol, these new instruments require less training to use than the observation protocol and do not need to be employed continuously to be useful (although their value increases greatly if they are used periodically rather than once).

The second instrument is a “Case Study Protocol.” The case study protocol grew, in part, out of our Phase One research, when we were combing through published case studies of community policing for factual examples of the kind of police-community interactions that we wanted to observe in Indianapolis. As we went through this case study literature, Dr. Phyllis McDonald, then our NIJ project monitor, urged us to assess the value of these descriptive case studies in learning about police-community interaction. In other words, what can we learn about the ways in which police and communities interact from already written case studies? This seemed to be an important

question, since so much of what we “know” about community policing is in the forms of case studies that provide qualitative, narrative descriptions of police and residents interacting in the course of community policing implementation. We decided that we could address this challenging question in a way that would also provide us with some evidence that our Indianapolis interactions were not unique to that city. While our proposal had called for addressing this generalizability issue by conducting field visits to two other cities, the case study protocol allowed us to investigate the existence of these interactions in 8 different neighborhoods in three different cities. PCIP Research Report #2 (Scott, Duffee, and Renauer 2001) and Chapter 6 in this report.

The third instrument is a survey schedule for asking resident leaders (such as neighborhood association and block club presidents) about public safety issues in their area and how they work with the police on these issues. It can be used as either a telephone interview schedule or a written questionnaire, although our experience indicates that the interview approach is much more effective. The questionnaire version of this instrument was pre-tested in Albany and Schenectady, NY, and then mailed to block club leaders in Indianapolis. The interview script was devised from the questionnaire and used with neighborhood association leaders in Indianapolis.

We had two primary goals in developing the survey instrument. First, we were aware, as described above, that the observation protocol would be difficult for practitioners to use on their own. So, we wanted to develop a data collection technique that was less complicated and less costly. Second, some of the steps required to investigate the soundness of these interaction concepts and measures required many more neighborhoods than we could observe. Some of these steps require statistical analyses of

how one measure of one concept relates to other measures of the same concept. Other steps require that we examine the “causal chain” of context, neighborhood organization, and police-community interactions, using data from many neighborhoods. We thought that we could gain an adequate sample of neighborhoods for these steps if we surveyed resident leaders in all Indianapolis neighborhoods. While we developed the survey instrument and conducted the survey primarily for these reasons, the Indianapolis survey also serves as a demonstration of the feasibility of using neighborhood leaders, rather than solely police, as data sources. This would, we think, provide more balance in our knowledge of how policing affects community than we can gain by relying on surveys of the police. The survey instrument is discussed in Chapter 7.

Feedback from Practitioners

The measurement development process was facilitated greatly by the feedback from one measurement task to another. We improved our interaction definitions through the process of gathering data. Our different data collection techniques influenced each other.

In addition to this kind of feedback, the measurement process was improved greatly by the periodic reactions and suggestions we received from practitioners about the measures. This feedback took two different forms. First, we assembled an Advisory Committee that included researchers, police executives, and community organizers. The feedback from the community and police practitioners was especially valuable in thinking through how to communicate effectively with police and residents to obtain the data and how to explain to practitioners where these data best fit in their practice.

The Advisory Committee provided valuable feedback throughout the project about the existence and meaningfulness of the interaction processes, about how these data were most likely to be gathered and considered by practitioners, and about the potential problems that users of such data could experience.

A second form of feedback was sought from people who helped to generate the data. We held feedback sessions with neighborhood association leaders in Albany and Schenectady about the survey data, and with residents and police in Indianapolis about the observation data. Our experience and assessment with these reactions are reported in Chapter 8.

Assessing the Measures

As one might expect, each of our instruments not only has different uses but also possesses different strengths and weaknesses. The observation method, for example, is dependent on an observer being present when a particular interaction is occurring (or at least is being discussed). Thus, this method misses things that are not observed, and we are not sure how different the picture of interactions in a particular neighborhood would be if the missed things were included. The survey method, in contrast, allows participants in the community to report on every kind of interaction that they know about. Arguably, then, this method is more complete than observation. However, this method provides for very little control over how respondents define what they report. We suspect, for example, that asking people in this survey method about “problem-solving” provides for exaggerated accounts of how much problem-solving goes on, because both police and residents are very liberal in their assessment of what counts as problem-solving. The case study protocol provides for a less precise measure of interaction than

the observation method but probably more precise than the survey. It also requires (much like the observation protocol) that the person filling out the instrument has direct evidence of interactions. Like the observation method, it is not as easy to use for collecting information from many neighborhoods at once.

These various strengths and weaknesses of each instrument are discussed in detail in the chapters (5, 6, and 7) devoted to reporting their development. Chapter 9 attempts to integrate and summarize what we know about measuring these interactions across all three methods.

Next Steps in Measurement Development

Many additional steps should be taken to improve the interaction measures that are reported here. We will provide more detailed suggestions for some of these steps in Chapter 9. In broad terms, however, some of the more valuable future measurement tasks would include the following.

- First, deploying several different instruments in the same neighborhoods over the same period of time would provide valuable information about how different the same interaction patterns are when measured in different ways.
- Second, a broader sample of neighborhoods from different cities would provide valuable data about the relationship between context, interaction, and outcome, especially data concerning the impact of police department and city on the nature of resident-police interaction.
- Third, in regard to either the case study or the survey methods, it would be useful to examine independent responses from the police and the residents to determine through “data-mirroring” whether they perceive these interactions similarly.

- Fourth, and perhaps most important, one could use one or more of these measures in an actual community-building effort to determine if feedback about interactions can improve practice.

How Do These Processes Relate to Community Policing?

Both our police and community advisors were very concerned that the police-community interaction measures be presented and understood as separable from community policing. Both the chiefs and the organizers were adamant in their view that the police-community interactions we are measuring exist and are important whether or not a police department engages in something it calls “community policing.” They pointed out that even if community policing fades as an explicit strategy, police and residents will continue to jointly produce community characteristics by the way and extent to which they cooperate, conflict, or ignore each other.

This is not to say that these measures are irrelevant to “community policing.” Indeed, we would think that many forms of, but certainly not all forms of, community policing would include explicit attention to the quality of police-community interaction. In these cities where police-resident collaboration is relevant, the instruments that we have developed might assist the police, or the residents, or both, to assess how well they work together and whether they can do better.

Therefore, we think that police-community interactions, as described on the following pages, are important community processes regardless of the particular policies adopted by the police department. But we think that these measures are more likely to be used by practitioners, rather than researchers, when the police and residents are interested in working together.

We begin our account of this measurement development in Chapter 2 by examining the ideas of co-production, community building, and police community building as a means of co-production. In this chapter we review three different literatures that help to define community building processes and asks whether these are related to police work. Chapter 3 then overviews our final working definitions of police community building and other important terms and provides an illustration of how community building might unfold around public safety issues.

CHAPTER TWO

COMMUNITY BUILDING PROCESSES AND POLICING: SEEKING A THEORETICAL GROUNDING FOR THE MEASURE OF POLICE- COMMUNITY INTERACTION

The goals of this chapter are:

(1) to examine the possible connections

between the police and other forms of social control, and

(2) to make the case for measuring those connections at the neighborhood level.

There are many variations of “community policing.” But as we indicated in Chapter One, even versions that differ dramatically on matters of how and when the police and residents contribute to community control agree on two basic points. (1) Any enduring improvement in community conditions is jointly produced by police and residents. (2) The long term goals of policing are measured in terms of contributions to community well-being, strength, health, etc. rather than in terms of crime and disorder (Alpert and Moore 2000; Moore 1999; Zhao 1996).

If we are interested in how police and community forces come together to make improvements, and if we are interested in some levels of community conditions or qualities that are broader than crime and disorder; then we need a theory or logic model that poses an explicit set of expectations about relationships among these forces. To be implemented seriously, for example, community policing must be guided by a theory of how police actions may contribute to increases in neighborhood collective efficacy, participation, and related processes. We cannot just assume that any community interventions taken by police will be efficacious. Some of them might do harm. Perhaps

some approaches make residents more hesitant to engage in community affairs or less confident in collective contributions to community well-being?

Drawing from three streams of community theory, namely urban political sociology, community organization, and neighborhood organizing, this chapter identifies a number of neighborhood processes that appear prominently and repeatedly in different accounts of building and sustaining strong neighborhoods. While important contributions to these literatures date back to the turn of the last century, in the 1990s the common themes in these different accounts began to be collected under the general heading of “community building.” So, after briefly reviewing three community research traditions, we will then spend more space defining this emergent concept of community building to help us specify the general community processes of concern.

Finally, this chapter examines the relevance of certain community policing behaviors to these general neighborhood strengthening or community building processes. It concludes that police contributions to these community building processes can and should be measured. We begin with a brief discussion of the potential connections between social control efforts supplied by the police and the social control processes that might be supplied by community residents, in order to locate what “co-production” might entail and where it might be located.

The Compatibility of Social Controls: the Possibility of Co-Production

The big question for community policing is whether changes in the level and nature of social control provided by the police will have negative or positive effects on other forms of social control. While much of community policing rhetoric anticipates

positive results of police collaborating with community residents, this optimism seems to have formed oblivious to the rich research literature, which often expects *conflict* rather than *congruence* among forms of social control (Hunter, 1985; Comer, 1985).

The best known and most influential work in this tradition is probably Black's theory of the behavior of law. Black posits a negative correlation between formal social control, such as policing, and other forms of control (1976). In other words, he says it is common and natural to find that when levels of police control increase, levels of control exerted by friends and neighbors decline. He describes this negative association as a "succession" effect rather than a "displacement." By this, Black means that as the complexity, formality, and anonymity of modern society breaks down older forms of value maintenance, such as provided by friends and neighbors, the law fills the breach. He does not see the stepped-up police efforts as causing the reduction in neighborhood controls, but instead he sees the increased formal control caused by the reduction in informal control, which in turn is caused by modernity (particularly economic and political changes). Therefore, while the police do not cause the reduction in community, Black's theory of law does not suggest that getting both increased police intervention and increased community intervention in the same time and place will be easy or likely.

There are other equally plausible and perhaps more troubling interpretations of this negative association between police efforts and resident efforts. Observing conflicts between public social control institutions such as the police and neighborhood social controls in four Chicago neighborhoods, Spergel proposes that formal social control drives out commitments to other social controls (1976:90-91). In Spergel's view, then, formal or state control does not *follow* informal control, but instead, *displaces* it. In this

explanation of the negative association, increases in formal controls by the police cause decreases in informal social controls by neighbors and friends. Spergel does not actually test this proposed conflicting relationship because he does not study these neighborhoods over time. But he proposes that agents of state control do not cooperate well with neighborhood agents, in part because these formal agencies are controlled by policy makers who are removed from the neighborhood. In addition, he thinks that these state agents, such as the police, are organized to intervene with individuals as clients or offenders but are not organized to support neighborhood traditions, values, customs, and leadership patterns. In his view, state control “atomizes” or “individualizes” rather than recognizing and supporting community.

If Spergel’s explanation were correct, then community policing, like any other form of policing, might harm rather than help neighborhoods, by reducing informal collective controls, increasing dependency on state agents, and contributing to further deterioration in other social institutions. Recently, two books about social control and community policing have adopted precisely that explanation.

First, William Lyons’ (1999) reports on community policing in South Seattle over a six year period. He finds that the Seattle police department redefined the roles of community groups in such a way as to neutralize their independent, positive effect on order in the Ranier Valley, to coopt them as “police boosters” for traditional enforcement practices, and to reassert centralized rather than community policing. Second, William DeLeon-Granados (1999) reviews a variety of state social control practices in western states, including community policing, community prosecution, and civil abatement practice. Much like Lyons, he argues that the state controls in almost all cases that he

examined increased community divisiveness, distrust and ill-feeling rather than increasing communal cooperation and we-feeling.

These case studies are compatible with the more general theoretical positions taken by Hunter (1985), Comer (1985), and Bursik and Grasmick (1993). All three of these theoretical works argue that there are three levels of social control, connected to three levels of social organization (family and friends, neighborhoods, and the state). All three also argue that, while any of the three levels of control can break down or become ineffective, the more challenging problem in modern urban society is that the connections among them break down. For example, the processes of neighborly social control and the processes of policing may not work together well. In other words, it is the compatibility of social controls, or the co-production of social order, that is problematic in urban neighborhoods (Hunter 1985).

Kerley and Benson (2000) find it surprising that explicit attention to the compatibility, or to the interactions that might increase compatibility, is usually absent from community policing implementation narratives and is apparently not approached in any systematic way by the police. We would agree. The field would appear to need systematic process evaluations, guided by community theory, which would examine the extent to which the police contribute to neighborhood processes for improving neighborhoods. In order to conduct such studies, we need to become more specific and exacting about ways in which police and neighborhood agents of control might work together.

Compatibility of Social Controls in the Police Literature

In his review of police policy, Bayley (1994:145) posed Hunter's general question about social control as it applies to the police: "The challenge is to find ways of using the police for crime prevention without ...discouraging the strengthening of other social processes that are critical to the enterprise...." Kelling and Coles (1996) observe that the police cannot alter basic structural conditions that cause poverty and crime, or what they call the "basic problems of society." They are optimistic that the police can have a positive short-term impact on neighborhood crime rates. They agree with Bayley however that short-term effects on crime rates are not sufficient. Instead, they say, the social controls exerted by the police must (1996:155): "help to create conditions in neighborhoods and communities that will allow other institutions -- the family, neighborhood, church, community, and government and commerce -- to deal with these basic problems of society."

Proponents of community policing, such as Bayley and Kelling and Coles, focus on rethinking policing strategies. But they agree that enduring improvement in communities is dependent on changes in the more subtle and complex social controls provided by neighborhood and state institutions in the course of changing economic, social, and political structures.

Bayley agrees with Kelling and Coles on the significance of the police-community linkage for long term neighborhood improvement; however, he is less sanguine than they about the consequences of an increased police role in neighborhood order for the invigoration of other social institutions. He is aware that increased reliance on state control as a path toward neighborhood order is tampering with the limitations on police typically imposed by the liberal, democratic state. He assesses its invocation as a

last, desperate gamble. Both the theory and practice of democratic urban order have rarely given the police a central position, and they should be so elevated, in his view, only with extreme caution (1994:127-128).

Similarly, Skogan (1990: 156) states “Theories that stress the importance of resurrecting informal social control reflect nostalgia for village life that is long gone from cities....” He asserts that the most powerful sources of neighborhood disorder and decline are racism and economic inequality, which are not addressable at the neighborhood level. Indeed, to focus on the neighborhood level of improvement, in his view, may disadvantage poor and minority communities that are at the losing end of economic and political decisions that about neighborhood resources (1990:156).

While the most important, most powerful forces to affect communities are not addressable in communities, this does not mean that neighborhood-level changes are unimportant or unnecessary to community conditions. On the contrary, there are numerous actions that can be and are taken within neighborhoods and between neighborhoods and outsiders that are an effective component of a larger, more encompassing community improvement strategy (Byrum 1992; Grogan and Proscio 2000). (It is also important to recongize that organized neighborhoods, by cooperating with each other, can affect those larger social forces and social policies that are out of reach of any one neighborhood group working alone. See Delgado 1986 for one case study of such a strategy.)

In our view, the problem with current thinking and practice in community policing is that, while cognizant of the requirement of institutional changes beyond police interventions, community policing strategies do not specify plausible connections

between policing structures and action priorities and sustained neighborhood improvement. Current rationales for community policing tend to be driven by two related trends: (1) both police and citizen dissatisfaction with the professional/bureaucratic police paradigm and (2) some modest research findings connecting increases in disorder to increases in crime and urban decline (e.g., Skogan 1990). Enthusiasm for these research findings are bolstered by some recent evidence (mostly from New York City, e.g., Bratton 1995) suggesting that aggressive police control of disorder may also reduce levels of serious crime. But they are contradicted by more recent, longitudinal data from Baltimore (Taylor 2001; 1999a; see also Sampson and Raudebush 2001) and by more recent concerns about the negative impacts of the NYC style of policing on other important aspects of community (Grogan and Proscio 2000:173).

The proposition that short term reductions in disorder and crime provide the stage on which social institutions flower is, at this point, merely an assumption guided by no theory and contrary to much empirical research about the prerequisites for strong social institutions (Bursik and Grasmick 1993; Hope 1995). To the extent that this relationship is articulated at all in the community policing literature, the idea seems to be that if police increase order, then enhanced opportunities will emerge for citizen participation in community life, neighbors' sense of efficacy will increase, or both.

While we would agree that citizen participation and increased sense of neighborhood efficacy are important variables, we would disagree that police effects on disorder and crime are sufficient to increase either. On the contrary, Hope (1995) points to low levels of civic participation in safe and orderly suburban enclaves as a direct contradiction of the presumed effects of increased civic participation for reduction of

crime in urban settings. In any case, the impact of policing on crime, disorder, and perhaps on fear, seems to be an indirect contribution, at best, to the development of community. A multitude of studies suggests that community efficaciousness withers quickly without direct participation in collective actions that have observed positive consequences (Bursik and Grasmick 1993; Castells 1983; Cortes 1993; Delgado 1986; O'Brien 1975). So, in contrast to the assumption that community efficacy is a consequence of police actions to reduce crime and disorder, is the equally plausible assumption that collective efficacy is a consequence of the ways in which the police interact with neighborhood groups. Community efficacy may be more directly linked to the co-production process than to crime and disorder outcomes (Bennett 1998).

Neighbors observing the police reduce crime is not the same as neighbors gaining experience in controlling crime with the police. What the police do to reduce or prevent crime may promote dependency of the citizenry on the police and thereby reduce the growth of civic institutions. Or, citizens may participate with the police but fail in their attempts to improve the community. Or, they may learn from working with the police some lessons about civic engagement that they generalize to other problems. It would be this last option that we would call police community building.

We propose that assessments of and revisions in police strategy must be guided by a theory of how police actions may contribute, directly or indirectly, to increases in neighborhood civic efficacy, participation, and related processes. Without a theory of police effects on these variables, there is no guide for the police about whether or how much they should involve neighborhoods in policing and no means to test whether long term trends in neighborhood conditions can be linked to police actions.

If policing does not influence positively the variables that sustain neighborhoods, then at least two other interpretations of community policing gains some credence. One interpretation would hold that city politics-as-usual is co-opting neighborhood residents into paying for the negative outcomes of urban growth by convincing residents that the sources of crime and disorder are connected only to forces in neighborhoods, rather than to larger economic and policy changes (Skogan 1990; 1993; McGahey 1986). Therefore, neighborhood residents themselves are responsible for neighborhood decline, and neighbors, assisted by the police, can arrest that trend, without alterations in the political economy of cities. This interpretation would present community policing as a marketing effort by city elites to have neighborhoods substitute police services for political and economic actions that sustain neighborhood institutions (Manning 1988; Rabrenovic 1996: 136).

A second, equally plausible interpretation would hold that the police simply do not know how they influence neighborhoods, either positively or negatively. Their affect on neighborhood variables may simply be unknown to them because of the gap in our knowledge about police influence in this area. Policing's negative effect on these variables may, therefore, be incongruent with its intent (Kerley and Benson 2000; Grinc 1994).

Certainly some police departments and some city governments may take community seriously and may work with neighborhood residents to reverse the negative effects of seventy years of urban growth politics. This would appear, in fact, to be the main assertion in *Comeback Cities* (Grogan and Proscio 2000), although those authors propose that the reversal of urban decline is more a happy accidental confluence of

separate efforts than a consciously coordinated effort. But if urban neighborhood comeback is to progress, police strategies must include processes that strengthen social institutions (Grogan and Proscio 2000: 173-174).

These theoretical alternatives for community policing have been developed elsewhere (Bennett 1998; Duffee, Fluellen and Roscoe 1999; Duffee 1996; Lyons 1999; DeLeon-Granados 1999). This report is a methodological contribution to that larger project of examining police effects on neighborhood institutions. Our present task is to identify those variables which are commonly identified with strong neighborhood institutions, develop indicators for those variables, and determine how policing interactions may influence them. We think that these measures are necessary if police influence on community organization is to be meaningfully examined. The rationale of this approach follows.

Community Building and Community Social Capacity

As we have said above, the ultimate concern of community policing is not police structure or behavior, but rather the quality of communities. Like Skogan (1990), Spergel (1976), and Wilson (1987), we believe that economic, political, and demographic forces have far greater effects on neighborhood life than do neighborhood institutions or the police. However, neighborhood institutions mediate between these broad societal forces and neighborhood residents, and they may be critically involved in modifying local effects of national forces (Byrum 1992; Cortes 1993; Sampson, Raudebush and Earls 1997; Spergel 1976; Warren 1978).

While these mediating institutions, not the police, are responsible for what Hunter (1985) calls "parochial" or neighborhood order, there are critical linkages between

private, parochial and public orders and the institutions that sustain them (Hunter 1985; Comer 1985). The police, as an institutional component of the public order, interface with both institutions of the private order (family and friendship networks) and institutions of parochial order (informal cooperation among neighbors).

Community policing is a reorganization of police resources and priorities to increase the intersection of the police with the parochial order (Alpert and Moore 2000; Bayley 1994; Kelling and Coles 1996; Moore 1999). It is based on a recognition that the dominant police paradigm of the reform era -- professional crime fighting -- by-passed parochial order to intersect with individuals (Bursik and Grasmick 1993; Kelling and Coles 1996). If community policing is to seek citizens as co-producers of order, it must be involved in processes by which neighborhood institutions are built and sustained. Hence, it is important to ask first about general processes of neighborhood building, rather than about police approaches to neighborhoods. In other words, our strategy is to identify general neighborhood strengthening processes and then to ask how the police might connect with these.

We have turned to three streams of community theory for identification of critical neighborhood processes: (1) urban politics and sociology, (2) community organization, and (3) neighborhood organizing. While these literatures overlap and complement each other, they focus on different aspects of the neighborhood institution problem. It is important to integrate these literatures to obtain a well-rounded list of concepts that figure prominently in sustaining neighborhoods.

Exhibit 2.1 presents a list of community processes that we gleaned from these three literatures (Duffee, Fluellen and Roscoe 1999; Duffee, Fluellen and Renauer 1999).

Each of these processes was extracted from the empirical and theoretical literature because it appeared to have some effect on increasing or sustaining “community social capacity” or “social capital” at the neighborhood level. As defined by Mattessich and Monsey (1997:60), **community social capacity** is

“the extent to which the members of a community can work together effectively,” including the abilities to

- **Develop and sustain strong relationships**
- **Solve problems and make group decisions**
- **Collaborate effectively and get work done.**

These authors intend “community social capacity” to be synonymous with “social capital” (1997:62). Sampson, Raudenbusch and Earls (1997) use the term “collective efficacy” to refer to this neighborhood characteristic.

Mattessich and Monsey define the processes that contribute to community social capacity as “community building processes” or “any identifiable set of activities pursued by a community in order to increase social capacity” (1997: 56-57). We have followed their lead and define **community building** as

Identifiable activities and measurable process characteristics of community actions that are theoretically connected to increased community capacity.

The discussion that follows indicates in broad strokes the aspects of community building processes that have been recognized in three distinct community research traditions that are summarized in Exhibit 2.1. In Chapter 3, we will describe our conception of the specific community building processes for which we developed measures.

EXHIBIT 2.1
COMMUNITY PROCESSES FROM THREE COMMUNITY LITERATURES

Theoretical Tradition (Illustrative Works in Parentheses)	Community-level processes with apparent effects on community social capacity or collective efficacy
Urban Politics and Sociology (Byrum 1992; Logan and Molotch 1987; Wilson 1987; Swanstrom 1985)	Buffering actions and resiliency factors such as ties that link residents to the larger society, that keep neighborhoods from being isolated, that reduce turnover or increase commitments to a place; processes that residents use to influence external decisions about their community and to import external resources; actions that promote the livability or use value of community or control to treatment of city space as a commodity.
Community Organization, including the political economy and political ecology of community organizations, program implementations studies, especially with federal-local connections, and studies of resident or client inclusion or exclusion from policy making roles and social work community practice. (Jones 2001; Lipsky 1980; McLaughlin Irby and Langman 1994; Reid 1965; Spergel 1976; Warren Rose and Bergunder 1974)	Actions linking agencies that provide services to neighborhoods to non-local centers of policy (such as city hall; state government; federal agency); actions linking several different service organizations to each other in a neighborhood; agency collaboration with or cooption of residents in designing and governing programs; processes by which resident influence agency policy makers or control service providers; steps by which agencies identify with or fail to communicate with local residents; strategies agencies use to demobilize residents.
Neighborhood or Community Organizing; Neighborhood Social Movements; Grassroots organizations and their tactics (Boyte 1980; Castells 1983; Delgado 1986; Rabrenovic 1996; Stoecker 1994)	Linkages within units of social movement; linkages between grassroots organizers and organizations and external (outside of neighborhood) allies; strategies used to gain voice, recognition; strategies to build solidarity, commitment to purpose; tactics to reduce growth politics. or to reduce exchange value as driving premise for how to shape cities; strategies for influencing central decision makers; processes to build a democratic decision structure in community; strategies to recruit, train, and retain member.

Ameliorating the Effects of the Macrosystem: Urban Politics and Sociology

Urban political sociology and political science examines variation in neighborhood conditions as influenced by race, class, and power. For example, this literature depicts the economic dislocation of individuals as a by-product of the shift from a manufacturing to a service economy. The community effects of that shift are based on the differential composition of neighborhood populations and neighborhood resources (e.g., Logan and Molotch 1987; Wilson 1987). As financial capital has become more

mobile and less geographically committed, and as the distribution of wealth has become increasingly unequal, certain neighborhoods have been virtually isolated from participation in broader social and economic networks (Byrum 1992; Comer 1985; Wilson 1987).

The political study of those same trends has focused in the political and economic policies that have supported and encouraged that economic change, to the benefit of “big capital” (Logan and Molotch 1987). Political and economic elites have cooperated to subsidize city center and suburban growth at the expense of urban neighborhoods. These policies have government (and/or city residents) pay for the “negative externalities” of economic growth, such as pollution and reduced housing values in older urban neighborhoods, while the positive externalities, such as increasing land value, have accrued to an economic elite (Byrum 1992; Logan and Molotch 1987; Swanstrom 1985). These authors describe such policies as promoting the “exchange value” (or the economic value) of city land at the expense of the “use value” of the land, or the quality of residential life that the land will support (Stoecker 1994).

This literature generally does not indicate how to reverse such trends. Indeed, this literature is often not concerned directly with changing policies but with explaining the negative effects of political and economic structures on communities. However, it does identify certain neighborhood processes as “resiliency factors” or “buffers” against the worst effects of these macro-level changes.

Urban politics and sociology consistently identifies *networking between a neighborhood and non-neighborhood people and organizations*, *promotion of use values in land use*, and *neighborhood autonomy or influence on external decisions*, as processes

that maintain neighborhood strength. It identifies *networking within* a neighborhood as critical to building trust and influence. It sees both internal networking and autonomy as negatively affected by the concentration of poverty, which reduces the social capital in an area by reducing the discretionary resources neighbors can devote to collective action at the neighborhood level.

Police strategy and community policing research is unfortunately, if understandably, distant from most of the urban political sociology literature, although the impact of political and economic forces on “community disorganization” and crime are well known (Sampson and Wilson 1998). Possibly the inattention to this literature is related to police desires of being “nonpolitical.” The police research generally seems to accept the police account of being removed from politics by the professional model introduced in the progressive era of political reform. This police view of isolation from politics because of the progressive era reforms does not jibe with the analysis of the same progressive reforms in the urban political sociology literature. For example Swanstrom (1985) explains those progressive reforms, such as bureaucratization and civil service, as the successful moves by the economic elite (e.g., “big capital”) to reduce the power of ethnic, working class neighborhoods to control city services. In this view, the progressive reforms in policing did not remove the police from politics but switched their allegiance (and their control) in the urban political struggle from the neighborhoods to downtown business and political elites. (See also Walker 1977 for a similar theoretical view and see Haller 1971 for a detailed case study of progressive reform impact on the Chicago Police Department). In this version of police politics, progressive reformers established a strong headquarters bureaucracy to wrestle control of the police (and other city services) away

from ward politicians. This reform strengthened the network connections between precincts and central offices. If community policing promotes police decentralization and reattachment to neighborhoods, it could also pit the police against powerful economic interests who historically have favored low cost city services and benefited from keeping neighborhoods weak players in city politics (Byrum 1992, Grogan and Proscio 2000; Logan and Molotch 1997).

The police and police researchers, correctly enough, do not see the police in the business of structural change (Kelling and Coles 1996). But an unintended result is that they tend to ignore the effects of political and economic change on the social control functions police do perform. Neither the police nor police researchers often ask if police efforts to strengthen neighborhoods are negated by countervailing policies about housing, transportation, and urban development (Grogan and Proscio 2000; McGahey 1986). Grinc (1994) concludes that there are a series of impediments to residents working cooperatively with the police, especially in areas of concentrated poverty that have been created by policies supporting exchange values rather than use values in the design and operation of cities.

The Nature of Community Organization

Another segment of the community literature examines the nature of community service organizations and “community decision organizations”, the interactions among these, and the level of participation they provide for neighborhood residents (Warren, Rose, and Bergunder 1974). This literature has its roots in documents produced by and about settlement houses (Meacham 1987) and in the work of rural sociology and agricultural extension (e.g., Sower, Holland, Tiedke, and Freeman 1957). In the 1960s,

the War on Poverty ignited an explosion of research on policy implementation (Pressman and Wildavsky 1973), and on service coordination and client empowerment (Warren, Rose, and Bergunder 1974 on Model Cities; Rose 1972 on Community Action; McLaughlin 1976 on compensatory education; Marris and Rein 1982 on the Ford Gray Areas Projects). This literature is largely (although by no means exclusively) associated with the research on social work community practice.

This body of research stresses the complexity of federalism as the context for program planning and implementation. It focuses on the nature of interorganizational networks that provide the formal structure for neighborhoods and the ways in which those networks achieve domain consensus and preserve their institutionalized approaches to social problems. The consensus in this research is that these interorganizational networks normally function to dampen down innovation, or rechannel proposals for change into routines established by and controlled by established agencies. In general, the agency network structure operates to protect organizational domains and professional prerogatives and to block neighborhood participation in determination of services (Benson 1975; Lipsky 1980; Warren, Rose, and Bergunder 1974:81-103).

This literature identifies several of the same key community building processes as does urban politics and sociology, although for slightly different reasons. The community organization research focuses its attention on the nature of the public and non-profit organizations that often perform the “mediating function” -- connecting macrosystem forces to local residents through the provision and coordination of services. It identifies conflicts both between the interests of neighborhood residents and the interests of agency

survival (Warren 1978:249) and between espoused or formal organizational goals and the interests of agency workers (Lipsky 1980).

Community organization research recognizes the growing importance of the *linkages*, through bureaucratic structure and funding authority, *of local agency service units to their non-local central offices*. It stresses the negative impact of those commitments to external networks on the ability of agencies to cooperate within a neighborhood. It also stresses the threats to *neighborhood autonomy or influence* stemming both from vertically organized agency networks and from agency behavior that protects its agents from the scrutiny of non-professional service recipients or clients (Lipsky 1980; Warren, Rose, and Bergunder 1974). It also indicates that *communication between residents and agencies* is often limited by agency control of communication channels, agency and agent antipathy to collective actions by residents, and bureaucratic commitments to *orderly and peaceful routines that avoid expressions of conflict* (Hess 1999).

The police literature is more closely aligned with this body of research than the macro-system literature. For example, Lipsky (1980) treats the police as one form of street level bureaucracy, and community network studies have included police agencies in their examination of network structures (Spergel 1976; Hall, Clark, Giordano, Johnson and van Roekel 1977). Police culture research examines the isolation of officers from the populations they serve (Skolnick 1967). The control of discretion research examines police antipathy for organized community review of police practices (Bayley 1994; Walker 2001).

There is no reason to assume that these normal patterns of agency separation from community will not also affect the implementation of community policing (Skogan and Hartnett 1997). That is, the police may restructure internally and reprioritize objectives, but they are less likely to include neighborhood organizations or residents as decision makers (Lyons 1999; Goldstein 1987).

Community Organizing

Since the 1970s, the social movement literature has included neighborhood interventions as social movements (Alinsky 1969; Boyte 1980; Castells 1983; Rabrenovic 1996; Stoecker 1994). This research examines the nature of neighborhood grievances, mobilization strategies, the manner in which residents organize, the problem solving tactics they use, and movement characteristics that are associated with enduring grassroots influence or co-optation by political and economic elites.

This literature stresses *neighborhood grievances* arising from three sources: collective consumption needs, neighborhood governance, and neighborhood collective identity or shared culture (Castells 1983). Consumption needs are reduced when *user values are promoted* in land use decisions. Neighborhood governance is advanced when *influence processes* are strong. Collective identity is promoted by *internal networking* (Hess 1999). This literature highlights the importance of *balance between internal and external networking* within a neighborhood movement (Hess 1999: 30; Mattessich and Monsey 1997: 16). It also underscores the importance of *attention to process* in guiding a movement and maintaining membership (Delgado 1986; Lyons 1987:114-128; Mattessich and Monsey 1997:34; Reitzes and Reitzes 1982). The study of movement tactics highlights *communication processes*, both in terms of which parties are provided

opportunities to voice preferences and the means for resolving conflicts both within the collective effort and between the collectivity and external groups (Hess 1999; *Stoecker 1994*). *Castells (1983) identifies the emergence of shared culture, the maintenance of autonomy, and links to external allies* as critical components of successful movements.

The police literature rarely taps into neighborhood organizing research and vice versa, the community organizing literature generally ignores the police (Grogan and Proscio 2000). Organizers may avoid crime as a mobilizing issue because it can be internally divisive, reduce neighborhood morale and reflect poorly on an area (Skogan 1988). In addition, community organizers, especially in poor communities, are more concerned about social justice, economic improvements and redistribution of resources than they are about crime (DeLeon-Granados 1999). The police, as part of the state, most often gain experience with neighborhoods through their own centrally planned initiatives rather than in response to grassroots demands (Duffee 1996; Grinc 1994; Weingart, Hartmann and Osborne 1994). When the police are of concern to organizers, it is typically as a target of protest rather than as an external ally (Duffee 1996; Woliver 1993). But this lack of articulation between policing and neighborhood grassroots efforts has the consequence that police strategists and researchers rarely take advantage of neighborhood organizing research that could have a bearing on social control and crime prevention. As a New York organizer put it to one of the authors, “The police do not know how to organize neighborhoods” (see also, Skogan 1990). Weingart, Hartmann and Osborne’s (1994) collection of case studies of neighborhood mobilizations against drug markets provides numerous examples of police ineptness in relating to neighborhood grassroots organizing.

The relationship between the police and community organizers is probably a two way street. Police may not work well with organizers; but it is also likely that organizers have difficulty working with the police. These two important groups in urban social control networks often do not share the same goals or at least have different priorities; and even when they might share priorities they often differ on means (Hunter 1985; Skogan 1988). Often neighborhood leaders have significant conflicts with the mayor and these will create conflicts with the police. As Lyons points out in the Seattle case, police decisions about which neighborhood groups to legitimize and support have major political ramifications in defining community and in distributing political and economic resources (1999). There are more stakes involved than what happens to crime; and those other stakes may be just as important as crime in determining community social capacity (Hess 1999).

In sum, diverse community theory and research literatures are replete with examples of neighborhood level processes that help to sustain neighborhoods or build community. Exhibit 2.1 summarizes the discussion of this complex literature as the source for our neighborhood community building dimensions. Policing strategy and community policing research have generally overlooked the three theoretical traditions that recognize these neighborhood level processes.

Community Building as a Unifying Concept for Theory and Practice

As is evident from the illustrative sources cited in Exhibit 2.1, the recognition of neighborhood-level processes to improve community have emerged over a long span of

time in quite diverse research areas. During the previous decade, explicit attention to these processes increased dramatically as a result of a new round of community improvement efforts. As was true in the period 1955-1960, private foundations rather than government have been initiators of much of this effort (Chaskin 2000; Hess 1999; Grogan and Proscio 2000). This new movement to improve communities (especially poor, inner city communities) has been marked, perhaps more than in previous, similar efforts, by cooperative arrangements involving the public, private, and non-profit sectors, multiple levels of government, and local grassroots organizations. Partnerships and partnering are prominent, if vague, elements in the rhetoric associated with these efforts. The larger and more complicated of these initiatives, especially those with national foundation support, have been classified as “Comprehensive Community Initiatives” or “CCI” (Chaskin 2000). However, the more general term for the cornerstone of these approaches is “Community Building” (Hess 1999; Mattessich and Monsey 1997). Community Building appears the best unifying or guiding term for the many discreet neighborhood improvement processes that community research has identified. While still suffering from ambiguous and overlapping terminology and from a lack of measurement (Hess 1999; Mattessich and Monsey 1997), the community building concept appears to be the most widely recognized in the world of “community practice” (Hess 1999). Based on our review of the community building literature, it is the concept that most accurately and comprehensively reflects the community processes that we have sketched above and will define in greater detail in Chapter 3.

Two recent reviews of community building practice provide lists of the more specific processes subsumed under that broad idea. One of these, *Community Building:*

What Factors Make It Work? (Mattessich and Monsey 1997), is a review of the empirical (mostly case study) literature that links specific neighborhood factors to increases in “community social capacity” or “social capital.” Mattessich and Monsey include in their review characteristics of neighborhoods and characteristics of community organizers that contribute to community social capacity. But the heart of their review concerns specific community building processes that improve capacity.

The second monograph, the Urban Institute’s recent review of HUD’s HOPE VI program, also identifies patterns of activities among residents, community agencies, and governments that, in the authors’ view, have made many HOPE VI sites successful. The evaluators define HOPE VI as a community building approach to the renewal of public housing communities (Naparstek et al. 2000; see Grogan and Proscio 2000 for a similar but less comprehensive view of HOPE VI). Naparstek and colleagues trace these community building activities in several HOPE VI case studies. These two lists of community building processes are provided in Exhibit 2.2.

**EXHIBIT 2.2
COMMUNITY BUILDING PROCESSES ENUMERATED IN TWO REVIEWS OF COMMUNITY
BUILDING CASE STUDIES**

<i>Naparstek et al. 2000: Community Building Makes a Difference</i>	<i>Mattessich and Monsey 1997: Community Building: What Factors Make It Work?</i>
residents involved in setting goals and strategies	widespread, representative participation
organizers recognize assets not just problems	well developed communication patterns
organizers create communities of manageable size	low competition among organizations
organizers fit strategies to the neighborhood	activities of self-understanding, including heightening group identity, agreeing on community priorities, agreeing on goal achievement processes
organizers provide comprehensive and integrated services	adopting issues with benefits to many community members
community actions strengthen community values while increasing human capital and social capital	balancing product and process focus
organizers and community residents develop creative partnerships with institutions in city	promoting community member ties to outside organizations
	progressing from simple to complex tasks
	measuring needs and problems systematically
	training people in community building
	involving indigenous community organizations
	seeking and using outside technical assistance
	continuously grooming new leaders
	decision control by residents, especially about budget or resource allocation
	balancing resources in amount (too few can stifle, too many can overwhelm) and source (from both inside and outside the

Community Building and the Police

The Narrowness of Public Safety Outcomes

Should we be concerned with police contributions to community building? This question can be asked as a moral or policy position (Ought the police to do this?) or as a scientific question (Do the police engage in activities called community building? With what results?). In our view, raising the policy question is legitimate. Perhaps the police role should be far more limited for some reason? However, we think the most appropriate time to ask the policy question – what ought the police do? – is when we are armed with relevant data about processes and results. In other words, we would prefer to ask the scientific question first. Do the police engage in community building activities and, if so, do these result in increased community social capacity?

Are the police in the business of improving community social capacity? Some might argue that this social outcome is beyond police competence or domain. For example, in one of the Measuring What Matters Institute sessions, one of the participants said, “It’s about crime, stupid.” The implication was that expansion of the police role beyond crime reduction was not appropriate. No one would argue that the police should engage in activities that increase community social capital at the expense of decreasing public safety. But would we want the police to respond to crime in a way that reduces community social capacity? It is unlikely that we would want that kind of outcome to occur.

Phrased positively (do police build capacity?) or negatively (do police harm capacity?), the question about whether the police influence community social capacity, or the level of social capital, in a community is a reasonable transformation of the “big question” about policing posed by both Bayley and Kelling and Coles at the beginning of this chapter. Yes, some more specific outcomes such as crime reduction, disorder reduction, and fear reduction are important; but these outcomes alone are not the whole story. We do want to know that these outcomes are achieved in a way that does not reduce other important social outcomes, such as level of social capital in a community. Some social control theories and some policing strategies propose that increased social capacity will actually enhance the crime, disorder, and fear outcomes because co-production of social order may be more effective than police production (Bennett, 1998; DeLeon Granados 1999; Lyons 1999; Zhao 1996.) There are good scientific reasons to be concerned about not only crime and disorder outcomes but also about community capacity or efficacy outcomes.

The Lack of Community Building Process Measures in Most Policing Research

If police influence on community social capacity is a theoretically relevant outcome, then community building processes are also relevant, since, community building processes are the community-level actions that are expected to increase social capacity. This expectation, of course, may turn out to be incorrect. Perhaps communities that engage in community building fare no better on capacity than those that do not? Perhaps the macro level political and economic forces simply overwhelm anything that can be done at the neighborhood level? This is the possibility that Hope (1995) presents at the end of his review of crime prevention research. He suggests that suburban enclaves

are safe places because of their structural advantages not their community capacity. Therefore, perhaps inner city crime ridden communities cannot overcome structural disadvantages with community building.

There is some community building research that supports the expected causal connection between community building and community capacity (Mattessich and Monsey 1997). There is also some research that finds impacts of community capacity on crime (Sampson, Raudenbush and Earls 1997; Sampson and Raudenbush 2001). We do not know whether the community building engaged in by the police is sufficient in quality or quantity to have such effects.

The two primary reasons for this lack of knowledge about such a big question are (1) these police activities and their effects have rarely been studied and (2) there are precious few tools or means available by which to identify and measure these police activities. Indeed, community building researchers admit that lack of quantification is a general problem in community building research (Hess 1999; Mattessich and Monsey 1997). Therefore it is certainly not surprising that examinations of the nature and effects of police community building are sporadic, poorly designed, and unsystematic. However, it is important to appreciate some of the obstacles to community building research unique to policing and to discuss briefly how PCIP has tried to overcome some of these.

Lack of Theory.

Police research generally begins with what the police are doing or want to do. That is, the research tends to be driven by police activity and policy. Unless the police are explicitly, consciously engaged in community building (see discussion of CAPS,

below), this research may not include in the design a means of capturing community building activities.

To our knowledge, the one police evaluation that has succeeded in identifying and measuring a number of the community building processes of concern to us is the evaluation of CAPS, the approach to community policing in Chicago (Skogan and Hartnett 1997; Skogan, Hartnett, DuBois, Comey, Kaiser and Lovig 1999). Skogan and his colleagues have recognized the need to examine citizen mobilization, participation, and problems-solving at the beat level. Their measures are quite similar to ours in a number of respects; and the data that they have produced about the police and residents working together have been fairly successfully translated into our terms (see Chapter 6 in this report, for example.) Skogan and his team did not start deductively with ideas about community building and then translate them into police relevant terms. They began, instead, with the responsibility to evaluate whether and how well the Chicago PD implemented what it designed. The overlap in CAPS and PCIP concepts and measures occurs because CAPS is an explicitly community-building approach to community policing (Skogan 2000; Skogan and Hartnett 1997)..

Aggregation Problem.

Even when the police research is trying to describe the strategies used by the police to engage residents, to elicit their ideas, or to mobilize their energy, it often provides a general description of a department's approach, rather than document the approach unique to each neighborhood. This is a frequent deficit in community policing research. It often examines community policing at the city level. It often does not provide for detailed accounts of how police worked with residents in specific neighborhoods for a

prolonged period of time – despite the fact that it is at this level that we should look for community building activity (Hunter 1985; Skogan et al 1999).

Task/Process Tension.

The police are doers, concerned about task completion. (In our experience, so are the residents active in community affairs.) They are often much more concerned about whether an outcome is reached than with how it occurred. Policing research often follows suit: measuring outcomes with precision but providing only suggestive, anecdotal narratives about “how” the police operated. While the outcomes are important, as discussed above, if we wish to reproduce some of them (and avoid others) then we also need greater exactitude about process – in this case about community building. It will *not suffice* to sketch some of the means police used to recruit residents or to seek their priorities. We will need to know instead about a variety of community building practices as conducted in the same area for a prolonged period of time.

Lack of Measures.

While the above problems are probably the most important, it is also true that the police lack relevant measures. Alpert and Moore (2000) argued that if police were to be held accountable for community improvement and crime prevention, in addition to enforcing the law, then they would need a new set of measures to both guide and assess that community practice. In many respects, PCIP is an attempt to create some of the measures that Alpert and Moore requested.

How PCIP Proceeded

In order to reduce if not avoid these typical problems, PCIP has taken the following approach.

Theory.

First and foremost, we sought to be guided by community building theory and research, not by police policy or police research. It was not that the latter was unimportant: indeed we could never have developed the measures that we have without relying on the extant police research (see Chapter 4). But we wanted our measures to be guided by the appropriate community concepts. Therefore, we did not examine the police research until we had a first draft of the concepts we wished to measure.

Aggregation Problem.

All PCIP instruments are designed to be deployed at the “community” level. This typically means at the neighborhood level. but there are some apparently viable exceptions. We discuss the appropriate level in more detail in Chapter 3. Specific definitions of “community” are provided in Appendices C and D. In testing our instruments we sought a variety of ways to focus the data gathering at the community level.

Task/Process Tension.

We were fortunate enough to be able to avoid the pressure to measure outcomes rather than processes. Indeed, it was the rationale of the project that while outcome measures could be improved, they had received more attention than process measures. As is indicated in Mattessich and Monsey list of community building activities in Exhibit 2.3, above, one important activity is the balancing of task completion and the attention to process. In other words, good community builders will recognize this tension and attend to both specific task accomplishments and to how they were achieved. PCIP has tried to provide some measure of this balancing in police-community interaction. In another

way, however, PCIP frequently faced the task/process tension that we have not yet successfully resolved. The problem we face is convincing police and residents to be interested in these processes. In order to persuade them that attending to these processes are worth the investment, both the police and residents would like to know the “payoff” (the outcome). But it is hard to discuss the outcomes when there is so little research that connects process and outcome. And it is unethical to promise results that have not been demonstrated. So the dilemma persists at a different level. We will return to this issue in Chapter 8.

Lack of Measures.

It was of course, the goal of PCIP to overcome this measurement deficiency in relationship to policing. Our problem was exacerbated, however, by the lack of more general measures of community building. While our primary goal was to develop measures that make community building relevant to policing or translate general community building terms into police terms; we really had to develop community building measures directly from concepts. There were few existing measures to use as models or guides. This lack of generic measures hampers the instrument development seriously. For example, examining the criterion validity of a new measure requires the existence of an accepted or known measure of the same concept (Thornberry and Krohn 2000). Generally, such criteria do not exist. We return to this problem and how we have handled it in Chapter 7.

Summary

In this chapter we have asked whether formal police controls and informal neighborhood controls are compatible. We have shown that some forms of police action

may be damaging to informal controls. Some police interactions with communities may contribute to informal controls. Even effective forms of co-production by formal and informal control agents may not be able to overcome structural disadvantages enough to make a difference. The argument is that compatible control actions will build social capital, or strengthen neighborhood institutions and neighborhood connections to the city and the rest of society and that this social capital can be drawn upon to maintain community processes and solve new community problems. But we will not know whether police engage in such activities or whether these police community building activities have the expected outcomes until we can measure what the police are doing with neighborhood residents.

In the next chapter we provide a review of community building concepts and their definitions, an overview of the police-community interaction concepts for which we devised measures, and a brief diagrammatic example of how police community building could evolve. Then in chapters 4-7 we will describe how measures for the police-community interactions were developed and assess their strengths and weaknesses.

CHAPTER THREE

POLICE COMMUNITY INTERACTION

In the previous chapter, we proposed that the critical issue regarding policing strategy is whether it influences positively or negatively the variables that sustain neighborhoods or build parochial social order. Currently, community practitioners and researchers generally refer to such neighborhood sustaining variables or actions as building “community social capacity” or engaging in “community building” efforts. Thus, we believe the proper meaning of police-community “co-production”, so often referred to in community policing literature, is whether or not the police engage in community building activities and, if so, whether these result in increased community social capacity.

The community building aspects of police-community relations has not received much research attention, nor an explicit conceptual elaboration. Conceptual elaborations in community policing research focus on broad, policy level enunciation of community policing “components” like consultation, mobilization, and problem-solving (see Maguire & Mastrofski 2000 for a review of the various research on community policing dimensionality). Many empirical examinations of policing target street level encounters with individual citizens as a unit of analysis (e.g., Parks, Mastrofski, and DeJong 1999), rather than broader police-community interactions occurring in a neighborhood and involving neighborhood institutions and external organizations, as would be required for understanding police contributions to community building. Over the past three years, PCIP has addressed these conceptual and methodological issues in policing research. This chapter provides the basic conceptual definitions necessary for the development of

measurement instruments that can depict police contributions to building neighborhood community capacity.

The PCIP approach to developing measures of police-community co-production was deductive in nature. We started by examining the literature and research that describes vibrant and sustainable neighborhood processes, then explored whether such sustaining processes could characterize community actions involving the police. This literature suggests three important conceptual areas that will be examined here. First, "**community actions**" (or collective action) within a neighborhood can develop desired neighborhood outcomes. Second, vibrant and sustainable neighborhoods are considered to have a strong "**community social capacity**." Third, certain process characteristics of community actions, called "**community building processes**", are more likely to strengthen community social capacity than other kinds of community actions.

Community Actions

In 1977, Roland Warren stated, "In a sense, a community is what it does, and much of what it does can be grasped by studying episodes of action (p. 309)." Community actions have beginnings and ends, thus they are episodic in nature. According to Warren (1977:308), "They are initiated to accomplish some purpose; they involve a process of organization and task performance in the direction of accomplishing the purpose, which in the process may be modified; then with the resolution of their effort the action subsides, and the episode is finished."

- o *Community action* = processes, tasks, and organization used to accomplish a purpose within a neighborhood.
 - a. We refer to community actions targets as community *issues*.

Within any neighborhood a variety of community actions may be occurring. Some of these actions may involve the police alone (police deciding to raid identified drug houses without neighborhood consultation), some may involve the police in collaboration with residents (such as collaborating on a neighborhood clean up), and some may be actions taken by the neighborhood alone (a resident organization starts a long-term neighborhood beautification project). Finding and labeling such neighborhood community actions is a key methodological issue. In Chapter 5, we discuss our field strategy, which examines issues related to finding instances of police involvement in community actions in neighborhoods. The three PCIP instruments approach community action differently. For example, our protocol for observing community meetings (Chapter 5) depicts the police-community interaction *within each* specific community action. This ability to measure the characteristics of police-community interaction at the community-action issue level is the great advantage of the observation protocol, yet it comes with certain research costs (see chapter 9). The observation protocol is time consuming, expensive and may miss community actions that fall outside the sample of behavior that is observed. Our case study and survey instruments ask respondents to summarize the characteristics of police-community interaction based on their experiences in a neighborhood. Thus, the respondent summarizes or generalizes about police-community interaction *across different community actions*.

Community action has two important components. The PCIP instrumentation has attempted to provide measures of both characteristics of community actions.

- o Community action may include varying attention to **community building processes**.
- o Community action may focus to varying degree on **task accomplishment**.

Community Building Processes

- 1) *Community Building Processes* = Identifiable activities and measurable process characteristics of community actions that are theoretically connected to increased community capacity.
 - a. We refer to specific elements of community building processes as “community building variables.” When the processes involve the police, then we refer to “co-production processes”, “police community-interaction,” or police community building.

Mattessich and Monsey’s (1997) book entitled *Community Building: What Makes it Work: A Review of Factors Influencing Successful Community Building* has played a central role in our conceptual development. PCIP and Mattessich and Monsey’ work ask a similar research question:

Research relevant for our examination – consistent with this idea – is research that examines the link between a specific community building process and community social capacity. From this research, we can identify *critical ingredients* that lead from whatever activities a community attempts to a resulting increase in community social capacity (emphasis added) (p.10).

In other words, PCIP has attempted to develop measures of the “critical ingredients” that build community capacity and that also involve the police. We call these critical ingredients “*community building processes*”, as do Mattessich and Monsey (1997:27-43). Many scholars and community activists believe that community actions must pay attention to community building processes if *long-term* neighborhood stability and quality are to be achieved (Chaskin 2001, Cortez 1993, Mattessich and Monsey 1997, Potapchuck et al. 1997). In this chapter, we will introduce five clusters or dimensions of police community building that PCIP has identified and measured.

Task Accomplishment

- 2) *Task Accomplishment* = the development and implementation of projects to provide services and products to a community, turning resources into programs (Hess 1999). Progress towards identifying goals, solutions, and a division of labor to address

neighborhood goals; the actual implementation of solutions or the means to accomplish specific objectives in a neighborhood. A large number of community practice scholars now use the term “community development” as a synonym for task accomplishment (Hess 1999). However, community development originally had a much broader meaning that was quite similar to what is now called community building (Mattessich and Monsey 1997; Warren 1978). Readers must be careful, therefore, with a specific author’s definition of community development. We will use community development in its new, narrow connotation to mean task accomplishment.

- a. In community actions that involve the police, task accomplishment may often be synonymous with “crime reduction efforts,” “fear reduction efforts,” “disorder reduction efforts,” or other actions about public safety issues in a neighborhood.

Community organizers and community practice researchers have long recognized that exclusive attention to task accomplishment or community development (“getting things done”), may hinder long-term community social capacity. The community literature provides many examples of people and organizations focusing so much on accomplishment objectives that the processes that build community are ignored or sacrificed. Some neighborhoods may accomplish important tasks and implement projects, with very little resident involvement or attention to building community (Weingart, Hartmann, Osborne 1994). The diminution of community building often happens because of lack of time or other resources including lack of sufficient knowledge or appreciation of the need to keep people on-board and committed as issues are addressed. The task accomplishment focus may lead to reduced efficacy, increased dependency, and a crisis in urban service delivery, unless it is balanced with community building. Simultaneously, good community organizers and much community research recognize that community building requires successful task accomplishment in order for the community building process to be maintained. Thus, collective actions need to accomplish their objectives because the process without objective accomplishment is an

eventually an empty, unrewarding process. Yet, would such “non community-building” efforts provide a lasting solution to neighborhood problems?

Community Organizing

- 3) *Community Organizing* = “the process of bringing community members together and providing them with the tools to help themselves” (Mattesich and Monsey 1997:60). When used in this generic way, synonymous with “community practice” (Hess 1999).

As we will use the term, community organizing is a generic term that means community practice or community intervention. Any person or group engaging in such practice would be a community organizer or community change agent. When police engage in community building, they may be acting as community organizers.

There are different styles and strategies of community organizing. Any of these strategies probably include some degree of attention to community building processes. Different organizers would vary considerably in the specific community building processes that they emphasized and on how they sequenced these processes. There are a number of different community change typologies that attempt to look at these differences systematically (e.g., Duffee 1996; Hess 1999; O’Brien 1976; Rothman 1974). One of the more typical classifications would include Social Action, Locality Development, and Coordinated Planning (which now are often called Comprehensive Community Initiatives). When community building is defined as we do (or Mattesich and Monsey 1997), then all these styles of community intervention intend to have effects on some community building processes and, through them, on community social capacity.

Some popular treatments of planned community change and some scholarly reviews (e.g., Hess 1999) use the term community organizing as a synonym for Social

Action strategies. Those that do so associate community organizing with the strategies of Saul Alinsky (1969). In this report, Alinsky-like community change will be referred to as Social Action (O'Brien 1976; Warren 1977). Community Organizing will refer to all attempts at planned community intervention.

Community Action Outcomes

Community Social Capacity

We have identified at least two components to the outcomes of community actions, the first being “community social capacity.” Mattesich and Monsey (1997:61). assert that other popular terms like “community capacity” and “social capital” are synonymous with community social capacity. We add “collective efficacy” to that list of synonymous terms.

- o Community Social Capacity = “The extent to which members of a community can work together effectively.
 - o This definition includes the abilities to:
 - Develop and sustain strong relationships
 - Solve problems and make group decisions
 - Collaborate effectively to identify goals and get work done” (Mattesich and Monsey 1997:61).

Having a strong community social capacity is considered a keystone for long-term sustainability of neighborhood quality of life Chaskin 2001, Cortez 1993, Mattesich and Monsey 1997, Potapchuck et al. 1997). Community social capacity is built overtime by engaging in community actions involving community building processes (Mattesich and Monsey 1997). A community action model focused on building community capacity would adhere to the “Iron Rule” of the Industrial Areas Foundation, “Never do for others what they can do for themselves. The IAF has won its victories not by speaking for

ordinary people but by teaching them how to speak, to act, and to do politics for themselves” (Cortez 1993:10).

Objective/successful task accomplishments/problem solving

An additional outcome of community actions represents successful accomplishments. In other words, are problems solved by the community actions? Is quality of life improved, etc.? While Mattessich and Monsey (1997) note that a number of external factors impact actual accomplishment, it would seem logical that communities high in capacity would also be more successful (controlling for these external factors). Alternatively, as communities develop or increase their capacity, we would expect them to be able to solve a greater number of their problems or achieve a greater number of their tasks.

Community Building Processes

In this section we will review briefly how PCIP decided to measure specific ways in which police and community groups interact in a community building fashion. The section provides definitions of community building processes and examples of how police have engaged in them.

We started by asking about the actions that make for strong, vibrant neighborhoods. We looked for ways in which neighbors treated each other, how they organized to solve problems, what they did to influence decisions by city hall, how they connected and networked with city and other agencies and organizations to get resources and high quality services for their neighborhood. We also asked what different cities did to hear and respond to these neighborhood voices and to support their capacity to act and make decisions.

Most of these studies and self-reports of neighborhoods taking action and building the capacity to act had nothing to do with crime and public safety. They included stories of neighborhoods working on housing, poverty, employment, health, education, ethnic conflict, poor city services and a variety of other concerns that affect the quality of life in urban neighborhoods.

We made the assumption that the same processes that are associated with influential and effective action on these issues also should be important in how neighborhoods deal with crime and public safety issues. In this search for effective neighborhoods, we began to see patterns – critical neighborhood activities that were repeatedly highlighted in stories of community success. We have called these patterns of interaction “Community Building Processes.”

Community Building Processes = Identifiable activities and measurable process characteristics of community actions that are theoretically connected to increased community capacity.

Initially, we identified seven major dimensions of community building in the community studies that we reviewed. But, as evident in the review in Chapter 2, the various community literatures use slightly different terms to refer to the same processes, and also use identical terms to refer to different processes. For example, the community organization literature examines networking among agencies, which is an aspect of coordination, while urban sociology and neighborhood organizing literatures examine connections or ties among residents in a community. As we sorted through these duplications and ambiguities, early in Phase I of the project, we settled on five community building dimensions. The strategy that we used to identify these dimensions

in police work is examined the Chapter 4. Each of the three ways that we have measured these dimensions is then covered in the following three chapters (5, 6, and 7).

The names we have given to these police-community interaction dimensions are:

- ◆ Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space
- ◆ Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods
- ◆ Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts
- ◆ Steps for Resident Participation
- ◆ Steps for Coordinating Organizations

Each of these dimensions will be defined below.

Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space

Definition: The ways and extent to which organizations and residents act to reduce abuses in the use of neighborhood space or to enhance the appearance, and quality of neighborhood space as a place to live.

Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space has several components:

1. What are the **priorities** in space issues?
2. Is the **range of issues** narrow or broad?
3. What **processes** are used to deal with the issues?
4. What **results** are obtained?

Examples of taking steps to improve neighborhood space:

- ✓ Seattle, Portland, Indianapolis, and some other cities have developed training for landlords in screening tenants.
- ✓ Tenant associations and neighborhood associations have worked with police, prosecutors, and other city agencies to reduce code violations by absentee landlords.
- ✓ Police in Portland and San Diego have developed problem solving teams who work with residents, beat officers, and other agencies to identify specific problems, examine why they occur, and take steps to remove the causes of these problems.
- ✓ Police and residents in Chicago held meetings to prioritize problems on each beat and set up projects to work on each one. With the help of researchers from Northwestern University, they examined how often they are successful.

Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods

Definition: the manner and extent to which a neighborhood is recognized as a unique place to be considered separately from other neighborhoods in the city by agencies making policies that affect the neighborhood or providing services to the neighborhood.

In terms of a municipal police agency, steps to identify with the neighborhood would be broad steps that provide for *police presence* in the neighborhood, *knowledge* about the neighborhood, *accessibility* to residents, and *responsiveness* to their concerns.

A number of police departments across the country have taken a number of steps to increase their ability to identify with neighborhoods. These steps include:

- ✓ **decentralizing police service physically** through the use of precinct stations, district stations, mini-stations, sub-stations, etc.
- ✓ **assigning officers** to particular neighborhoods
- ✓ **realigning officer beats boundaries** so that they are similar to neighborhood boundaries (depending on the size of neighborhoods)
- ✓ **gathering and using neighborhood-specific information**, such as by mapping crimes geographically, or surveying citizens by neighborhood about their concerns
- ✓ **holding meetings** with neighborhood residents or groups.

Examples of taking steps to identify with neighborhoods include:

- ✓ **Spokane:** police in several districts introduced “COP Shops” staffed by police and residents in some public housing complexes.
- ✓ **Indianapolis:** the police department realigned almost all beats so that officers were not responsible for parts of several neighborhoods, but instead worked within one neighborhood or with all parts of two neighborhoods. In several places, locations of major roads hampered the realignment. Officers said that in those beats that split neighborhoods, residents did not know them as well.
- ✓ **Chicago:** beat officers and residents of those beats meet monthly to discuss what is happening in the area and to solve problems. District command staff meet monthly with District Advisory Councils. Resident beat representatives attend Council meetings in some Districts.

Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts

Definition: the types and levels of activities to encourage residents in a neighborhood to contribute their efforts to concerted or collective action to improve the neighborhood.

Steps to encourage resident efforts to improve the neighborhood can be taken by a variety of people and organizations. Across the country, one of the organizations with the longest traditions of mobilizing resident to work together is the neighborhood association. But similar efforts are also undertaken by one neighbor working informally with other neighbors, by churches, by schools, and by national organizations such as ACORN.

Our advisory committee emphasized that most Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts are taken by residents and by the types of organizations described above. We agree. The Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts that PCIP is measuring are only those taken by the police. This does not imply that only steps taken by the police are important, or even that police should do these things.

Whether the police should engage in trying to encourage residents to contribute to neighborhood improvement is controversial. However, there is a long history, dating back to the 19th Century, of police doing these things.

The steps that police might take (and have taken in a number of cities) are not different from those taken by other kinds of organizations. Community organizers do the same kinds of things. What kinds of actions might be most effective and what kinds of organizations might be most effective depends on the neighborhood.

The kinds of steps that police or others might take include:

- **Spreading a message** that instills or promotes a belief in collective action. The elements of this message are (1) there are problems to work on or goals to achieve, (2) the residents in this area form a community, (3) collective action by community members may be effective in reaching goals.
- **Using the right form** (media, newsletters, informal conversation, formal meetings) for communicating that message to the intended audience.
- **Recruiting residents** to participate in activities.
- **Establishing** or helping to establish new resident organizations.
- **Suggesting particular tactics** for reaching objectives.
- **Providing training** in developing new skills or in running groups and organizations.
- **Providing support** such as material, facilities, funding, coordination or other assistance that might help the encouragement steps taken by other groups.

Examples of Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts taken by some police departments include:

- ✓ **Houston:** as part of a national fear reduction program, the Houston Police Department organized a resident organization in the Langwood section of Houston.
- ✓ **Chicago:** The Chicago Police Department and the Chicago Alliance for Neighborhood Safety trained thousands of residents across the city in the nature of “community policing” in that city and in problem solving processes.
- ✓ **Indianapolis:** Neighborhood Resource Officers in the West District provide neighborhood association leaders with letters of introduction and support that the leaders use in searching for contributions to neighborhood events from the business community.
- ✓ **Chicago:** Residents in one neighborhood erected a lemonade stand on a block known for drug dealing. Police patrols checked to determine the residents were safe.

Steps for Resident Participation

Definition: the forms and degree of resident involvement and decision-making about the collective interests in a neighborhood.

Examining the level of resident participation in neighborhood affairs requires asking questions about several related but separate components of participation. These components include:

- **Breadth of participation** across all members of a neighborhood: how representative are participants? What groups participate?
- The **size** of the resident group that participates.
- **Knowledge** by non-active residents about what active residents are doing.
- The **phases of community action decisions** in which residents participate:

- **identifying** issues
- **exploring** options or alternatives
- **making decisions** about
 - ✓ what should be addressed (priorities and goals)
 - ✓ how to solve problems or achieve goals
 - ✓ who should do what
- **Implementing action**
- **Assessing** the process, the results, and what should happen next

Examples of Resident Participation include:

- ✓ **Chicago:** In the Englewood District, *Participation from other* the District Advisory Council was co-chaired by the Police District Commander and a local religious leader. Youth (who in other districts were often left out) were actively recruited to attend district meetings. While the Council was established by the Chicago PD, the Council agenda of issues focused on social and economic problems. The police contributed to this broader agenda of community development projects. Programs were established for ex-offenders. The Council developed a strategy to attract a supermarket to the area, to close and demolish abandoned buildings, and lobbied city agencies for more services.
- ✓ **Chicago:** In the Marquette District, in contrast, Advisory Councils were only open to members and special guests. Conflicts between African American and Hispanic members of the Council emerged and were not addressed. The Council focused almost entirely on crime issues. The citizen members of the Council wanted to compare approaches to crime in different beats in the district, but the police refused.
- ✓ **Lawrence (MA):** Citizens who were organized by the Police Department to participate in community policing grew frustrated when the only action the police asked of them was to call the police when they knew of suspicious activity.
- ✓ **Seattle:** The South Seattle Crime Prevention Council embarrassed a resistant chief to meet with them and participate in a crime reduction strategy for southeast Seattle neighborhoods. The chief later claimed credit for the program and received national attention for its implementation. Early in this partnership, the SSCPC and the police jointly discussed and jointly evaluated crime reduction targets. But over time, this joint decision making eroded.
- ✓ **Birmingham:** businesses seeking licenses or zoning approvals must obtain approval of the relevant neighborhood association, whose leaders are elected in an open vote of neighborhood residents.
- ✓ **Indianapolis:** residents in three neighborhoods complained to command staff that patrol officers no longer knew who the residents were. The district commander acknowledged that turnover had reduced the ability to his officers to identify with the neighborhood and took steps to familiarize new officers and residents.

Steps for Coordinating Organizations

Definition: The extent of coordinated interaction between two or more organizations concerning issues related to a specific geographic location in a city.

The extent of coordination includes the following aspects:

- The **number of organizations** involved in coordinated effort with the police about a neighborhood.
- The **types of organizations** involved in a coordinated effort
- The **range of types** involved. (Is this a broad effort including a variety of criminal justice, social service, government, business, resident and other types of organizations, or a narrow one involving only a few types?)
- The **frequency** of organizational communication.
- **The protocol** for raising and conducting business among these organizations? (Is this a formalized or ad hoc coordination?)
- The **relative power and decision making patterns** among organizations.
- The **resources** including material, personal, or informational are contributed to a neighborhood project or to neighborhood improvement by the organizations.

Examples of Coordination include:

- ✓ **Chicago:** The Mayor's Office devised an information system by which to track follow-up by other city agencies on problems identified by the police and residents in beat meetings.
- ✓ **San Diego:** Officers involved a large number of public and private agencies in solving specific problems.
- ✓ **Spokane:** Special police officers worked with school officials to reduce problem behavior in and around schools.
- ✓ **Fairfax, VA:** Police coordinated referrals to drug treatment agencies.

The Notion of Community in these Measures

This project has focused on police interaction with residential areas, or neighborhoods, in cities. This limited focus has advantages and disadvantages and we remain ambivalent about the tradeoffs we have made in choosing this focus. Part of our problem is that the terms, "community" and "neighborhood," are difficult to define. Some researchers have used these terms interchangeably. Others have reserved the term "community" for a locality-based system that includes, but is larger and more complex than, a neighborhood. In addition, there is closely related research about cities that recognizes neighborhoods as components of cities but eschews the term community altogether.

This project has neither the time nor the resources to resolve these ambiguities in these closely related but differing terms. But it is important to highlight how we will use them and how differing perspectives on these important concepts might affect the interactions of concern to us.

We are fairly certain that the interactions and community building processes defined above will vary considerably from neighborhood to neighborhood within cities, because neighborhoods vary greatly in the number of problems they have, in the kinds of strengths they have, and in relations with police. So the neighborhood level of data collection and analysis seems essential. Our primary concern is with social processes that link residents of neighborhoods to the police departments with general jurisdiction for a larger city. We are concerned with interactions in urban residential areas and have relied primarily on research about urban community policing.

Given this focus, we are not be able to ascertain if the community building processes we've developed measurements for are applicable in non-urban areas, such as suburbs and small towns. In his conclusion, Bayley (1994) suggests that community policing in cities may have much to learn from citizen-police relationships in small towns and villages, and this may be so. In contrast, Hope (1995) suggests that patterns of neighborliness in suburban areas may be quite different from those that are found in urban settings. If he were correct, then the ways in which the police would connect with neighbors in urban and non-urban settings would also differ. We were not be able to investigate the applicability of our measures to non-urban settings.

For our purposes, a neighborhood is a residential area within a larger geographical and political entity. In common usage, neighborhoods are distinguished from the

“downtown” or “business” section of a city. They are typically recognized by name, street boundaries, and some positive and negative characteristics that set them off from other neighborhoods. They are primarily places where city residents live, although they may contain commercial strips. They tend to be more homogeneous demographically than the city as a whole. They may or may not be recognized by city planners as planning or service areas, although there appears to be a growing tendency for cities to organize services by neighborhood.

While our focus is on city neighborhoods, it is important to recognize our inclusion of an important variant that appears with considerable frequency in both community policing literature and in accounts of how neighborhoods and cities relate to each other generally. That is, our notion of neighborhood is flexible enough to include **collections of contiguous neighborhoods**, which come together (or may be pushed together) to address certain neighborhood issues. Examples of these collections of neighborhoods exist in numerous cities. In the implementation of community policing in Chicago, for example, numerous beats were collected together in districts (Skogan and Hartnett 1997). Citizens met with the police at both the beat and district levels, and there were explicit decisions made within the districts about how the beat and district groups would relate to each other. In Indianapolis, collections of neighborhoods within the central city have been collected into eight “umbrella areas.” These umbrella areas may represent from three to more than a dozen distinct but contiguous neighborhoods. In Albany, the Weed and Seed area is called the “South End,” which comprises the historic South End neighborhood as well as nine contiguous neighborhoods. In Seattle, community policing, which is now citywide (NIJ 1992), originated in a collection four

neighborhoods in the south side of the city. These neighborhood collections are not limited to policing or public safety issues. In Indianapolis, most city services intersect with the umbrella areas as distinct decision-making bodies (Goldsmith 1997). In Minneapolis, four contiguous neighborhoods known collectively as “Cedar-Riverside” came together to fend off urban renewal and develop their own housing development plan (Stoecker 1994).

Consequently, our treatment of neighborhood interaction with the police includes the interactions of these collected neighborhoods with the police. These collections are still quite different from citywide collections of neighborhood groups, such as in neighborhood resource centers and neighborhood association councils. Umbrellas or districts are still place-specific rather than citywide in their orientation. So the police-community interactions that we are trying to measure are those that occur between the residential areas in cities and the city police department. But these interactions may occur between coalitions of contiguous neighborhoods and the police rather than between the police and individual neighborhoods.

While interaction at this level is our primary focus, it is reasonable to ask whether one can characterize an entire city approach to all its neighborhoods. The few studies that compare community policing across cities, rather than across neighborhoods, would suggest that cities vary in ways that affect these interaction patterns. For example, mayors and police executives vary in the degree to which they take neighborhoods seriously. In Indianapolis, for example, the city government has taken deliberate steps to recognize and foster decision-making at the neighborhood and umbrella levels (Goldsmith 1997). Similarly, in Birmingham, neighborhoods have a long tradition of

local governance on some policy issues (Haeberle 1987). In other cities, neighborhoods are not decision-making collectivities (Hallman 1984). Cities also vary in the amount of resources they can provide to any of their neighborhoods (Rabrenovic 1996).

We think these city level variations will affect the neighborhood interaction patterns directly and indirectly, although we are not sure how. Moreover, we are not sure if there is some way to aggregate the neighborhood measures to provide a meaningful description of the city differences. Much existing writing about police neighborhood interaction is vague or careless in identifying the location of the interactions that are reported. Often, these accounts generalize about community policing in an entire city. As we have reviewed these accounts for samples of interactions, frequently we have not been able to tell if the multiple interactions described happened in one or several or all neighborhoods. For the measures we are presenting in this report here, talking about “resident participation with the police” (to take one example) implies “within a specific neighborhood.” We are not sure right now whether it is meaningful to talk about resident participation “within a city.”

Finally, it is necessary to have a brief discussion of “community.” This term is probably more ambiguous and more variously defined than either neighborhood or city. Unless specifically noted, we will use the term community and neighborhood interchangeably. Police-community interactions are police-neighborhood interactions.

The use of neighborhood and community as synonyms is conventional in some community research traditions. In others, these terms would be distinguished. In the majority of research on policing, crime prevention, and fear of crime and disorder, the term community tends to mean neighborhood when one looks at how the communities

were identified in the research plan. There is nothing inherently wrong with this approach. It also appears in non-criminal justice writing about community. For example, Stoecker's study Defending Community (1994) is a study of four neighborhoods. He often uses the term community and neighborhood interchangeably, and on occasion refers to neighborhood-communities (see also Hallman 1984 for a similar use).

There is another research tradition, associated primarily with the work of Roland Warren (1978), in which "community" is used to refer to a larger geographical area comprised not only of many neighborhoods but also several cities, in some cases. In Warren's view a community is whatever collection of entities in one geographic area that acted to sustain the "locality-relevant functions," which allow an area to sustain collective living. On a policy and practical level, Warren's notion of community is recognized in practices such as regional planning and regional government (Byrum 1992). In these places (Portland OR and Marion County IN being frequent examples), policy makers are recognizing that the community, in Warren's sense, is larger than traditional political jurisdictions. The suburbs and the city, in this view, comprise one community.

The major advantage of this notion of community is that it recognizes, even highlights, the interdependencies that sustain an area, if not some of its components. This view also helps us to recognize that inner-city problems are related to and partly caused by outer-city lack of problems. Policies by numerous actors in the private and public sector structure government services in such a way that central cities and their neighborhoods often pay for things that surrounding areas benefit from but do not pay for. These policies tend to collect poverty and crime, for example, in the inner city

neighborhoods of these regional communities (Byrum 1992, Logan and Molotch 1987, Rabrenovic 1996, Wilson 1987).

One of the major disadvantages of Warren's use of the term community is that it is exceedingly difficult to identify these places empirically, even if it makes sense theoretically. Consequently much community research, even by followers of Warren, ends up looking at neighborhoods (e.g. Spergel 1976). Because the police are rarely regionalized and because neighborhoods rarely collect regionally to make decisions about policing and crime, we think that our adoption of the neighborhood-community convention is justifiable. However, in doing so, it is important to remember that many of the forces that produce more crime in some neighborhoods than others, and make some neighborhoods better able to organize than others, are forces in that broader community to which Warren referred, rather than forces in the neighborhood-community. Therefore research about community building or about community social capacity that looked only at the police-neighborhood interactions and what they produced would be dangerously narrow in scope (Duffee, Fluellen and Roscoe 1999; Renauer, Duffee and Fluellen 1997). Police-community interactions and other forms of community building must be connected to city and regional contexts and to national forces and policies that produce advantaged and disadvantaged neighborhoods. "Bootstrapping" (or acting as if neighborhoods can fix their problems without outside support) is not only myopic about community problems and community fixes; it is also terribly unfair to disadvantaged communities (Skogan 1990.)

Illustrating the Connection between Community Actions and Building Community Social Capacity

The theoretical framework of PCIP proposes that community actions have the potential for several different kinds of outcomes including building community social capacity and solving specific problems or addressing specific issues. Our primary measurement concern focuses on the characteristics of police involvement in neighborhood community actions and especially on the community building aspects that might characterize the police involvement in community actions.

The building of community social capacity is a continuous, evolving process and does not occur overnight (Sower et al. 1957). Ultimately, a neighborhood's community capacity evolves from the variety of community actions it is engaged in and the way in which they are handled (i.e. the extent to which community actions pay attention to both community building and task accomplishment) (Warren 1977). A number of different organizations and individuals, including the police, contribute to this development of community social capacity. Thus, the balance of how community actions are handled (processed) overtime influences the strength of a neighborhoods' community capacity. The processes of some community actions should build community social capacity, while other community actions may erode an already strong level of capacity. Police activities in a neighborhood influence this balance and our measurements instruments are designed to characterize the police influence on a neighborhood's community capacity.

We will use three exhibits (3.1 to 3.3) to illustrate how separate community actions involving the police might build community capacity in a neighborhood. Exhibit 3.1 depicts a neighborhood with three resident-based organizations, a neighborhood

association (labeled A), and two block clubs (labeled B & C). The level of community capacity is weak in this neighborhood. None of the resident-based organizations have established relationships with one another and there is low resident involvement. These organizations do not have active agendas to address issues and make decisions for their locale.

In Exhibit 3.2 a different depiction of community capacity begins to evolve, one that is strengthening overtime. Exhibit 3.2 shows resident based organizations beginning to work with police on three community actions regarding drug houses, abandoned buildings, and public drinking. Efforts by the police to encourage resident involvement in the three community actions paid off and resident participation in the organizations began to increase. In their community policing meeting, the police were able bring the neighborhood association (A) and a block club (B) together, which initiated a collaboration among these organizations on the abandoned building issue.

In Exhibit 3.3 the strengthening of the neighborhood's community social capacity has continued overtime. The interaction characteristics in exhibit 3.3 depict police-community interactions that did not co-opt a neighborhood's autonomy. The police did not stifle the decision making power of the resident-based organizations and were effective in encouraging continued resident involvement. In fact, the police were instrumental and supportive in a decision by the neighborhood association (A) and a block club (B) to develop an independent organization, a community development corporation, to address the abandoned building problems in the neighborhood.

The simple illustration in the above exhibits is essentially the type of data our measurement instrumentation is designed to depict – police contributions to the

development of community social capacity overtime. Over the next chapters you will learn about the varying degrees of community building detail we can obtain from our measurement instruments and the potential accuracy of our community building depictions. In conclusion, we believe the theoretical concepts presented in this chapter and their empirical depiction overtime in neighborhoods are critical to understanding the connections between police structure, action, and neighborhood outcomes.

CHAPTER FOUR

CONCEPTUAL REFINEMENT AND INITIAL INSTRUMENTATION

Introduction

In order to identify processes that help neighborhood collective efforts to prosper, we reviewed three streams of community literature that have little to do with policing (see Chapter 2 for a more detailed discussion of this literature). We avoided the policing literature in selecting our basic interaction dimensions because we did not want to be limited to ways in which police now seek to interact with neighborhoods. The literatures we reviewed were urban political sociology, community organization, and neighborhood social movements. In this literature, we found seven frequently mentioned interaction dimensions, which appear important if neighborhood residents are to solve problems effectively. Throughout the course of the early stages of this project the number and nature of these interaction dimensions have changed and evolved into the five dimensions that were discussed in the previous chapter.

While we were convinced on theoretical grounds, then, that these dimensions provided a useful framework for the specification of variables and indicators, we were also aware that these dimensions themselves would probably evolve in unpredictable ways as we struggled to elaborate interactions of police with neighborhoods, with people in neighborhoods, and with organizations concerned about and operating in neighborhoods. Thus, the one dilemma of this project is rooted in the unit of analysis problem. We wanted to remain guided by concepts that applied to several different but theoretically and practically related levels of reality while at the same time remaining open to the utility of jettisoning dimensions or inventing new ones as the definitional and

empirical work continued. We had to find ways to distinguish a conceptual framework from a conceptual straight jacket.

After the identification of the primary concepts, our next step in the development of measures was the preliminary exploration of the relevance of these dimensions to community policing work. A cursory exploration of the community policing literature provided numerous *prima facie* examples of these dimensions in police interaction with either residents or neighborhood organizations. These examples suggested to us that trained evaluators had described interactions for which our concepts might provide a reasonable taxonomic device, even though our concepts were rarely used by the evaluators. It also suggested that we might be able to assemble indicators for these interaction dimensions using police examples. Importantly, this review yielded examples where the police interaction arguably damaged the social capacity in neighborhoods and others where it apparently enhanced that capacity. We decided to pursue a more detailed analysis of the cases in which these interaction examples were reported.

Despite the fact that the authors of these case reports did not employ our concepts as a means of labeling and ordering the interactions that they reported, we concluded that there might be some payoff in mining the existing community policing implementation narratives for two reasons. First, with some notable exceptions in the urban sociology literature and in studies of interorganizational behavior, the literature on which we were relying was largely qualitative. As a result there were not a plethora of existing measures for these dimensions, which we could adapt to the police case on some theoretical grounds. Second, if we could empirically ground our interaction measures in police-

neighborhood experience, then we could make these measures more salient to practitioners.

Police Interviews

The initial search for our interaction dimensions in community policing narratives suggested that we might be able to categorize a number of police interactions within our framework. But it did not indicate that either police researchers, the police, or the neighborhood groups thought of their work in this way. Consequently, we sought additional evidence of how germane these ideas are to community policing work and whether the police recognized these process dimensions cognitively.

We did this by conducting ten preliminary interviews with experienced community policing officers. Using a snowball sampling technique, half of these were selected from our field test site and half from other cities that had been identified for their community policing programs. Each of these officers spoke with our interviewers for about an hour and a half, guided by open-ended questions that were designed to elicit information on each of these dimensions.

We drew two basic conclusions from these interviews. (1) The officers' descriptions of their work revalidated the evidence from the case study reviews that these dimensions helped to organize the numerous interactions in which they engaged in. (2) The officers, no more than the evaluators, organized their thinking about interactions in this way.

A few examples may suffice. Regarding Steps for Resident Participation we heard:

“We want the officer to think and be creative about what might be going on here and what are some of the possible answers here. The only way that you do that is by

going out and trying to tap the minds of more and more people. I'm not talking about people within the department, I'm talking about people out there in the neighborhoods."

From another:

"One thing about community policing, that we found too, is that you have to work very closely with the neighborhood. If you have an idea on something you want to do, I'll talk to community people before I'll even talk to my deputy chief and get their buy-in. Then ... it is not my project it's ours."

These officers also had comments that were relevant to our conception of

Improvement Steps:

"There are things that neighborhoods fight as far as businesses go, because of quality of life. An example of this is this same business that this neighborhood is now working with to try and get them to extend their hours. The neighborhood fought this business five years ago and actually forced them to take out a pay phone that was causing drug dealers to stand on the corner..."

From another officer:

"There are some environmental concerns. Especially gas tanks ... There were hundreds of them in a one block area, if you can picture that. The city came in and had the gas pumped out. They had the means of disposing of them without hurting anybody."

About Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods one officer related:

"We had a big vote out here about ten years ago and said let's name our area. [We modeled this idea on one historic section of town that seemed to get big mileage out of its name recognition] So I said, look guys, let's name our area. [Before this] people would call down and say "I live out here on XXXX street." Yeah? So what? Now, we named it the XXXXX Community. Now every Congressman, State Representative, City Councilman [responds]. It's recognized citywide now."

From another officer:

"[We did] a beat study to try and lay out the beats geographically. So a couple of things happened. We [no longer had] one officer who was trying to work with two different neighborhood associations. [Instead] officers were [reassigned] so that they could each be responsible for working with one each."

These interviews suggested that officers could describe such interactions with reasonable frequency and did not find the questions about these interactions unfamiliar

territory. We did not find officers puzzled by the nature of our interest in these aspects of their work.

Case Studies

After this exploratory work with both officers and prior case studies of community policing, we set out in earnest to develop in greater detail the utility of implementation narratives of community policing efforts for the identification and measurement of our interaction variables. It is important to note that this exploratory use of case studies differs in many aspects to that described in Chapter 6 of this report. This exploratory case study segment of PCIP had three objectives:

1. To build a sample of police-neighborhood interaction statements.
2. To determine how well those interaction statements could be sorted along the dimensions and more specific variables within them.
3. To investigate to what extent the variables vary in extent or degree rather than in kind.

Selection of Cases

To build a sample of case studies, we searched print and electronic sources of community policing implementation reports and consulted with a number of branches of the U.S. Department of Justice and private institutes in Washington known to have large community policing data banks or studies underway. Since we anticipated that the higher level objectives in our case studies could require active participation of evaluators, police organizations, and neighborhood groups, we decided to limit our cases to those which had been reported since 1986. We included somewhat earlier reports from Houston and Newark because of their seminal status. We were able to compile reports from 25 cities

that appeared to contain extensive implementation narratives and were not focused solely on internal departmental issues.

We did not have the resources to extract interaction narratives from each of these studies before the development of field instruments. Consequently, we prioritized our attention to cities on the basis of five criteria:

1. The presence of at least one comprehensive implementation report.
2. Reasonable access to contextual data on both the city and the police department.
3. Apparent attention in the evaluations to both the location and sequence of interactions.
4. The date of the study.
5. The presence of at least one author of the original reports who would be willing to comment on the accuracy of our summaries and the presence of other interactions that were not reported.

Applying these criteria, we selected for our initial extraction of interaction data nine cities: San Diego, Seattle, Chicago, Houston, New York City, Philadelphia, Spokane, Newark, and Oakland.

Construction of Narratives

We constructed a template for the summary of information on each document from each city. The elements of these guidelines are provided in Exhibit 4.1. We were concentrating on the descriptions of police involvement with neighborhood residents, neighborhood organizations, and other organizations about specific neighborhoods.

Exhibit 4.1
Elements of Evaluation Document Summary

1. CITY
2. SOURCE CITATION
3. CONTEXT DESCRIPTION
 - Project Background and Structure
 - Evaluation Background and Structure
 - Neighborhood Demographics
 - Actors Involved
4. MASTER TIMELINE
5. INTERACTION NARRATIVE
 - Who is Involved?
 - Time of Involvement
 - Location of Involvement
 - Categories of Involvement
 - Police with...
 - Neighborhood without the police
 - City Level
 - Internal to Police Department
 - Other
6. AUTHOR'S CONCLUSION
7. SUMMARIZER'S CONCLUSIONS AND QUESTIONS TO AUTHOR

We recruited nine graduate students in the summer of 1998 and assigned to each one all the reports from a particular city. We trained them in the use of the document summary template. We informed the students about the background and theoretical framework of the study so that they could identify interactions and so that they would extract interaction sequences from the reports in similar fashion. However, we did not ask the students to categorize police neighborhood interactions and we urged them to

include interactions, whether they bore any resemblance to the initial dimensions. We spoke of listing “involvement episodes.”

Examples of these, in no particular order, are given below.

Officer Mazzone contacted Community Board #3 to find out about what resources were available for block beautification. Officer Mazzone was referred by the Community Board to We Care About New York, an organization funded by private donations to supply equipment for block cleanups. From these contacts, Officer Mazzone was successful in developing Operation Clean-Up.

Beat officers and tactical units in the district flagged the slumlord’s buildings in their beat planners and attempted to make as many arrests as possible in these buildings or take pictures of these buildings. This evidence was sent to and contacts were made with the State Attorney’s Office in hopes that the attorneys would send the landlord a notice of nuisance abatement.

A police-community multi-service center was created where residents could go to report crimes, hold meetings, and obtain information. This small office was staffed by police personnel and civilians with the goal of reducing the physical and psychological distance between officers and residents.

A Marquette district neighborhood relations officer is the host for a monthly radio show about the CAPS program. The show is designed to improve police services to the Hispanic community.

The police chief called for a meeting with SSCPC two days before the politically motivated press conference announcing the 15 point plan proposed to the mayor by the SSCPC. The chief substantially agreed to the program, except for its demands for additional personnel resources for the south precinct. But he did allow for overtime and support from specialized units under central control, such as the traffic unit, to concentrate on South Seattle problems.

The students extracted more than 800 such involvement statements from the multiple reports from the nine cities. Because the individual reports tend to be unclear about time and place, we had limited ability to determine whether interactions within the same city but from different reports were duplications as opposed to similar events.

Since we were not trying to make statements about the frequency of events or trying to evaluate cities, we do not see this duplication as problematic.

Elaboration of Variables

As these involvement statements were submitted to us, our approach to defining variables and specifying indicators became increasingly interactive with the data. When the students began submitting interaction statements to us, we had produced four drafts of a codebook intended for sorting statements across variables and assigning values to statements within variables. In draft five of this codebook, we decided to eliminate any proposed variables for which we could not locate many (or, in some instances, any) police examples from the nine cities. It was our objective to produce a collection of interactions in which each variable appeared twenty times, a number of stimuli sufficient for inter-rater agreement tests (Bers and Smith 1990).

There were both strengths and weaknesses to this decision to limit variables to those for which we could find empirical examples. On the positive side, our collection of variables included only interactions from which we had firm evidence of actual practice in at least one (and often more) of the nine cities. This readjustment of our attention from theoretical variables to those on which police interaction has been described in nine cities increased the likelihood that our attempts to measure these interactions in Phase II and Phase III of PCIP would be more successful. We thought it also might increase the salience of these interactions to the police and neighborhood participants in our fieldwork. Additionally, we thought that limiting our development of measures in this way would enhance their utility as training material for the field staff, since we would be relying on police-neighborhood interactions that have actually occurred rather than on those that were only theoretically conceivable.

On the negative side, this decision meant that our population of variables was constrained by reported practice in nine cities. There was no guarantee that practice in these cities would be similar to practice in Indianapolis. Additionally, without adequate checks and balances in our field observer training and in our field strategy, we were concerned that we might be steering measurement away from other interactions that occur in the field site and are theoretically significant, but were not reported in the nine case studies.

There were several other benefits to examining the interactions in case studies and revising our definitions based on this empirical evidence. The interaction with the data provided us with a number of lessons about these variables, which we may not have learned in any other way. Looking back on some of these makes us now feel rather foolish. The golf professional, Lee Trevino, once defined practice as remembering what you forgot. We have had that experience. Forgetting what we knew, as it turned out, sent us down several blind alleys from which we turned only with considerable loss of time and resources. However, we are not so sure that greater care would have avoided these conceptual wrong turns. We think it is more likely that these mistakes are inherent in theoretical problem solving. We became so constrained by the contours of our initial conceptualizations that we could not identify definitional deficiencies until failures to locate logically connected indicators finally forced reconceptualization.

A second lesson from interacting with the data was the slow realization that interaction statements could not be simplified so that they contained evidence of only one variable. Our attempts to do this wasted a good deal of definitional time and, quite likely, a considerable amount of time by the case summary team. Our attempts to “purify” the

interactions pressed us to redefine variables in ways that did not seem consistent with the intent of the original concept. After we realized that single interactions may contain multiple dimensions, we changed our notion of the task to seeking to identify co-existing but conceptually distinct variables. This approach is more consistent with the problems faced by our field observers, and by practitioners, who will need to recognize these variables in the midst of other phenomena, rather than as independent behaviors. Thus, we realized our task as refining the variables so that they could each be recognized in whatever combinations they presented themselves. In other words, we remembered that our job was refining variables not statements of empirical reality.

Finally, the interplay of interaction statements and concepts was useful in reigning in what might be called “conceptual creep.” When we concentrated on the conceptual level alone, we often found ourselves tempted to add variables within a dimension that were no longer interactions but closely related context variables. For example, on several occasions we found ourselves diverted into specifying internal characteristics of neighborhood organizations rather than limiting ourselves to the ways in which they interacted with the police. These contextual variables are absolutely critical in analyzing the causes and effects of the interactions, but they do not describe the interface, itself, of neighborhood and police. It was easier to recognize these conceptual tangents when we examined the interaction statements. If a variable did not describe some interaction of the police with some other community unit, we eliminated it.

This interactive process produced 18 separate variables from the dimensions described in the previous chapter, limited, as we said, by the appearance of indicators in the nine cities. In the following sections, we report briefly on the results of three separate

tests of reliability among coders who were trying to identify and assign values to these 18 variables. We made changes in the codebook definitions and instructions between each reliability test. Following the discussion of the reliability tests we list the final 18 variables in Exhibit 4.3.

Initial Coding

When we had extracted as many interaction statements as possible from the reports from the nine cities, we trained the nine graduate students on coding the statements using the sixth draft of the codebook. We allotted three days for this training. We believed this amount of time would be adequate, but in fact it was an insufficient amount of time to cover effectively all the issues and questions that came up in the training. During the training sessions, in both general discussions about the variables and in practice coding, the students raised many good questions about decision rules for interpreting statements and ambiguities in the variable definitions. We revised the codebook based on the training sessions, but could not find time to reconvene the coders for additional training on the revised guidelines. We had to rely instead on written instructions about how the revisions responded to the problems they had pointed out.

The coders were given 158 interaction statements to code, which collectively contained 20 or more instances of each variable. These variables, the values for each, and the average Kappa coefficients from the first agreement test are reported in columns one, two, and three, respectively of Exhibit 4.2. Before going into the specific details of Exhibit 4.2 and assessing what the Kappa values tell us about our ability to define and code police-community interaction, we will first describe the interpretation, revision, and training processes that occurred between each of the three agreement analyses.

Lessons from Case Coding

After the first coding exercise, an interactive feedback session with the original coders was held. This session offered several ideas on how the coding and training exercises could be refined. Five major lessons were identified from this review process:

1. The nature of the interaction statements confirmed for us that the basic dimensions of community interaction that appear frequently in the community change literature are visibly frequent in reports of community policing.
2. There were a number of ambiguities in Codebook Six that needed clarification.
3. Often the interaction statements contained factual ambiguities that were crucial to coding decisions.
4. The time necessary for training was underestimated. As stated above, the coding started without final training on the revised codebook.
5. Perhaps we asked the coders to make decisions that were too complex. We could have simplified the first reliability test by asking them to concentrate only on coding the values of specified variables rather than simultaneously distinguishing variables from each other.

Codebook Revision

Learning from the errors of our ways, we engaged in a new stage of variable refinement. Revisions were made to the codebook based on the five lessons explicated above. Twenty interaction statements were systematically chosen based on their low Kappa or T-coefficient levels to be “interactively coded”. In these sessions, three project staff members separately code a statement, immediately compare answers, and discuss

how they arrived at a coding decision. Based on these discussions, we then tried to distinguish disagreements caused by ambiguities in the coding statements from ambiguities caused by the codebook decision rules or variable definitions.

If the source of ambiguity appeared to be the level of detail provided in the interaction statement, we made notes about the level of empirical detail that appears necessary to avoid instances where coders have to infer the presence or absence of a variable or guess about its level. Ambiguity because of missing detail in empirical accounts is probably unavoidable in the use of data collected by other researchers who were not guided by our variable definitions and scale ranges when recording interactions. Therefore, we assumed that the amount of discretion used by coders would be higher in coding documents produced for other purposes than it would be by coders coding documents collected with these variables built into the research or reporting design. Consequently, we also assumed the level of agreement we could achieve while using such case reports would be lower than researchers can achieve when data collection has been directed by guidelines about these variables. We decided that modifying the variables was not appropriate when disagreement seemed to be caused by empirical inadequacy. We responded to these empirical problems in two ways. First, we modified the interaction statements whenever possible to increase clarity. Second, we used this analysis to shape the instruments used for gathering data in the field site.

In contrast, if the disagreement seemed to be related to problems with variable definitions, the specification of scale values, or the decision rules in the codebook, then we revised those in the attempt to reduce the sources of disagreement. The results of the interactive coding were used to produce Codebook Seven and the second reliability test,

reported in column 4 of Exhibit 4.2. In Columns 3-5 of Exhibit 4.2, the italicized *g* indicates that a variable was coded in one test but not in a previous or subsequent one because of the variable modifications described above. These variable changes will be discussed later in the chapter.

Second Coding Exercise

An important difference between the second test and the first and third tests must be emphasized. The coders in Test 2 were the research staff who devised the codebook. Therefore, Test 2 indicates the ability of two persons highly knowledgeable about the variables to reach agreement during independent coding. However, it does not indicate an ability to transfer this knowledge through training to other people. The ultimate aim of this project is to produce guidelines for practitioners to use so that they can reliably record interactions without researcher assistance. Therefore, our final instruments should demonstrate acceptable reliability among coders/recorders who are relying on either self-instructional material or modest amounts of training.

In general, the second coding analysis lead to very minor wording and rule changes in the codebook and no major changes before analysis three was conducted. In fact, codebook problems discovered during the training of the third analysis coders lead to the creation of codebook 8 for them to apply in the third test.

Training of Field Staff

Following the second coding exercise, arrangements were made to train the field staff in Indianapolis. Conducted during four days from January 14-17, 1999, this training had multiple purposes. We devoted significant time to training the two field staff who were to do the majority of data gathering in the definitions of the variables, the coding

rules, and their application to coding of documents. We also spent several sessions on the development of the field strategy and in reviewing the drafts of instruments for interviewing and observing residents and police interacting.

The specification of plans for gathering data in the field and the process and problems of implementation is discussed in Chapter 5. Our focus in this chapter of the report will be on the training related to producing Codebook 8 and the third reliability test, reported in the fifth column of Exhibit 4.2. We see these activities as part of the process of revising definitions and refining the rules for distinguishing one value (or level) of a variable from another. The next chapter, in contrast, will examine the modifications in the instruments and data gathering techniques to fit our initial instruments and field plan to the idiosyncrasies of a particular police department and particular neighborhoods.

Training of the field staff consisted of an opening session that reviewed Codebook 7 in detail and a general discussion of the variables and their value ranges. The field staff had been assembling background material on several different neighborhoods and had attended some meetings involving police and residents. Based on their explorations in these neighborhoods, they pointed out several differences between the codebook variable values and distinctions that they had seen in actual interactions. For example, they had noted that in meetings with the police residents frequently broke into three groups with different levels of decision making power rather than the two groups we had included in the codebook. These discussions with field staff also resulted in minor adjustments in variable values, such as the collapsing of two values into one.

In this training we employed a new technique based on our experience in the training for the first coding session. We simplified the decisions that the field staff had to make while learning the variables. For each variable, we produced 10 interaction statements that included at least 2 examples of each level of that variable. The field staff were asked to code the levels, knowing the exact variable contained in the statements. We only moved on to the more complex decisions of identifying the variables that apply and then coding which levels also apply, when they had reached satisfactory agreement about the levels for each variable separately.

After these training sessions on the variable levels, the field staff were then given more complex interactions statements in which they had both to identify each variable occurring in the interaction and to select the level for each variable. These coding sessions were done interactively, so that the coding done by the trainer and the two field staff were compared immediately after each statement was coded.

This three-stage training seemed to go well. High levels of agreement were reached quickly in both types of practice coding. At the end of the training period, the field staff were provided with 158 interaction statements to code individually as reliability test three. Coding sheets for these statements were sent to Albany for analysis. The results are reported in Column 5 of Exhibit 4.2.

Understanding Exhibit 4.2

The following paragraphs describe further details necessary for understanding the analyses performed to create Exhibit 4.2 and the numbers reported in it. The numbers presented are Kappa statistics. A Kappa statistic measures the level of agreement between *two* coders in applying a set of codes or scores (ordinal, interval, or categorical)

to a set of stimuli. Thus, it measures the degree to which two coders were able to apply our codebook scores to 158 police-community interaction statements in a similar fashion. The strength of agreement can range from 0 (no agreement) to 1 (perfect agreement). Landis and Koch (1977) have characterized the strength of an agreement in the following way: 0 - .20 (Slight agreement), .21 - .40 (Fair agreement), .41 - .60 (Moderate agreement), .61 - .80 (Substantial agreement), .81 - 1.00 (Almost Perfect agreement).

In analysis one and two there were more than two coders (nine and three respectively). Thus, there were 36 potential coder pairs in analysis one and 3 pairs in analysis two. Analysis three had two coders, the two individuals serving as the field staff. It would be illogical to average the Kappa scores for the multiple pairs of coders to be used for comparison with the two coders in analysis three. To solve this comparison problem, we used the scores of the pair of coders for analysis one and two who scored the *highest* average Kappa scores *across all variables* for the reported Kappa scores in analysis one and two in Exhibit Seven. Thus, the scores reported for each variable are from the highest overall coder pair in tests one and two and the only pair in test three.

It should be remembered that the current interaction variables are arranged in five conceptual groupings: Steps for Coordinating Organizations, Steps to Improve Neighborhoods, Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods, Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts, and Steps for Resident Participation. Each of the five conceptual groupings have a specific number of variables that measure different aspects of any given conceptual grouping (Coordination Steps – 5 variables, Improvement Steps – 4 variables, Identification Steps – 1 variable, Encouragement Steps – 3 variables, Participation Steps

– 4 variables). Exhibit 4.3 presents a more detailed reference to the variables within each of the five dimensions.

For each conceptual grouping there is *one* “entry-level” variable. In Exhibit 4.2, the entry-level variables are as follows (they are also indicated by the **b** symbol in column two): # 1 for Coordination Steps, # 11 for Improvement Steps, # 16 for Identification Steps, #17 for Encouragement Steps, and # 20 for Participation Steps. If coders did not code the presence of an entry-level variable in an interaction statement, they *did not* proceed to code the next variable for that conceptual grouping. They recorded missing values for that whole conceptual grouping and then attempted to code the next grouping. For example, a coder who did not see density of coordination in an interaction did not make any other coordination decisions (intensity, scope, membership, and resources are left blank). Thus, the missing values in the data set measure the interaction statements where a coder did not believe a variable was present. *Only* the Kappa coefficient recorded for entry variables (# 1, 11, 16, 17, and 20) measure agreements that *include* missing values (see the **b** notation in Exhibit 4.2).

All of the remaining agreement values in Exhibit 4.2 have *removed missing values*, or in other words they report the computed agreements for only the interaction statements where coders agreed that a particular variable was present in an interaction statement. By removing the missing values (the analyses indicated by the symbol **c** in Exhibit 4.2), the coding stimuli (interaction statements) was often reduced to less than twenty statements that were coded (indicated by the **d** symbol), and statistical validity is suspect. Restricting the data analysis to include situations when coders both saw the presence of a “entry-level” variable and thus had a chance to agree or disagree on the

level of all the variables in a dimension, provides a more concentrated and direct test of the reliability among coders and definitional problems and therefore a better sense for each variable.

Exhibit 4.2
Agreement Comparisons Across Three Tests

VARIABLES	VALUE RANGE	KAPPAS <i>h</i>		
		Analysis #1	Analysis #2	Analysis #3
1)Coordination: Density	- Interval value of 2 or higher - <i>a, b</i>	.643	.810	.779
2)Coordination: Density – w/out missing	- Interval value of 2 or higher - <i>a, c</i>	.700	.923	.759
3)Coordination: Density – w/out missing	- Interval value of 2 or higher - <i>a, c</i>	.798	.978	.792
4)Coordination: Degree w/ out missing	- Few (<7) Many (7+) - <i>c</i>	.626	.668	.770
5)Coordination: Degree w/ out missing	- Few (<7) Many (7+) - <i>c</i>	<i>1.00 d</i>	<i>.385 d</i>	<i>1.00 d</i>
6)Coordination: Intensity w/ out missing	- Ordinal range from 1 – 5 (6) - <i>a, c</i>	.493	.397	.140
7)Coordination: Scope	- Present or Absent (1,0) - <i>c</i>	.298	<i>g</i>	<i>g</i>
-Product./distrib./consum. w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - <i>c</i>	.250	<i>g</i>	<i>g</i>
-Socialization w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - <i>c</i>	.242	<i>g</i>	<i>g</i>
-Social participation w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - <i>c</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>g</i>	<i>g</i>
-Mutual support w/out missing				
8)Scope w/out missing	- narrow, modest, broad, or NA. - <i>c</i>	<i>g</i>	.673	.547
9)Institutional Membership w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1.0) - <i>c</i>	<i>g</i>	.580	.927
10)Coordination: Resources w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - <i>c</i>	.834	.868	.896
-Financial w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - <i>c</i>	.793	.851	1.00
-Material/supplies w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - <i>c</i>	.901	.844	.650
-Facility w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - <i>c</i>	<i>g</i>	.491	.492
-Personnel w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - <i>c</i>	<i>e</i>	.383	<i>e</i>
-Expertise w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - <i>c</i>	.419	.823	.321
-Information Links w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - <i>c</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>
11)Improvement Steps – nature of improvement	- Exchange Value/Use Value combined or Use Value alone - with missing - <i>b</i>	.559	.670	.655
- w/out missing	- w/out missing - <i>c</i>	.257	.571	.499
12)Improvement Steps – level of improvement w/out missing	- Ordinal range from 1 – 3 - <i>c</i>	.423	<i>g</i>	<i>g</i>
13)Improvement - Type of Improvement w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - <i>c</i>	<i>g</i>	.658	.438
14)Improvement - Level of Response w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - <i>c</i>	<i>g</i>	.440	.026
15)Improvement - Level of Formalization w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - <i>c</i>	<i>g</i>	.327	.158
16)Identification – type of identification	- Choose all that apply from 5 types with missing - <i>b</i>	.459	.658	.352
- w/out 99	- w/out missing - <i>c</i>	.697	.647	.740
Type 1	- <i>c</i>	.795	.859	<i>1.00 d</i>
Type 2	- <i>c</i>	.832	.521	<i>.552 d</i>
Type 3	- <i>c</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>
Type 4	- <i>c</i>	.796	.888	<i>.629 d</i>
Type 5	- <i>c</i>	.406	.370	<i>.581 d</i>

17)Encouragement – type of encouragement - w/out missing	- Choose all that apply from 6 types with missing - w/out missing Type 1 Type 2 Type 3 Type 4 Type 5 Type 6	- <i>b</i> - <i>c</i> - <i>c</i> - <i>c</i> - <i>c</i> - <i>c</i> - <i>c</i>	.517 .538 .620 .263 .429 <i>e</i> <i>e</i> .622	.591 .583 .479 .336 1.00 .603 .505 .606	.524 .693 .606 .834 .865 .621 .603 .468
18)Encouragement – mode of encouragement w/out missing	- Choose all that apply from 4 mode examples w/out missing	- <i>c</i>	.672	.781	.713
19)Encouragement – content of encouragement w/out missing	- Choose all that apply from 4 content examples w/out missing	- <i>c</i>	.692	-.141 <i>f</i>	.250
20)Participation – types of resident participation (All types) - All types w/out missing -Residents w/out missing -Resident officers/Neighborhood Organization w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - Present or Absent (1,0) - Present or Absent (1,0) - Present or Absent (1,0)	- <i>b</i> - <i>c</i> - <i>c</i> - <i>c</i>	.342 .812 .448 <i>d</i> .448 <i>d</i>	.606 .842 .882 .793	.650 .854 .762 .895
21)Participation of Residents- Area of Influence w/out missing -Problem/Goal Formation w/out missing -Solution/Mean Formation w/out missing -Other w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - Present or Absent (1,0) - Present or Absent (1,0) - Present or Absent (1,0)	- <i>c</i> - <i>c</i> - <i>c</i> - <i>c</i>	.716 .857 <i>d</i> .571 <i>d</i> <i>e</i>	.552 .585 .904 .776	.518 .567 <i>d</i> .435 <i>d</i> 1.00 <i>d</i>
22)Participation of Resident Officers - Area of Influence w/out missing -Problem/Goal Formation w/out missing -Solution/Mean Formation w/out missing -Other w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0) - Present or Absent (1,0) - Present or Absent (1,0) - Present or Absent (1,0)	- <i>c</i> - <i>c</i> - <i>c</i> - <i>c</i>	.716 <i>e</i> <i>e</i> <i>e</i>	.552 .333 .467 .372	.518 .353 .471 .518
23)Participation of Residents with Police – intensity w/out missing	- Ordinal Value from 1 – 3	- <i>c</i>	.644 <i>d</i>	<i>g</i>	<i>g</i>
24)Participation of Residents with Police- Level of Decision-making w/out missing	- Present or Absent (1,0)	- <i>c</i>	<i>g</i>	.437	.634
25)Participation of Residents with Police – structure of participation w/out missing	- Choose one from 1 – 6	- <i>c</i>	.784	<i>g</i>	<i>g</i>
26)Participation of Residents with Police – balance of participation w/out missing	- Choose one from 1 – 3	- <i>c</i>	<i>g</i>	.487	.438

- **a** = For ordinal measures, a different agreement measure is utilized see Lawlis and Lu (1972) and Tinsley and Weiss (1975). Otherwise the Kappa statistic was computed by SPSS 6.0.

- **b** = In this “entry-level” variable, missing values were incorporated into the analysis to compute the Kappa value. See write up on page 4.19.

- **c** = Most of the agreement analyses computed the Kappa value with a restricted date set (e.g. excluding the missing values from the analyses). Thus, agreement on a particular variable category is only computed on an interaction statement when the coders both agree on the presence of that variable.

- **d** = Sample size (#of potential agreement situations or statements) is too low and statistical validity is suspect.

- **e** = The analysis was unable to compute a Kappa because one of the coders coded a category that the other did not. Thus, the crosstab had unequal rows or columns.

- **f** = The observed agreement is less than chance agreement.

- **g** = Did not conduct the analysis in reference (primarily due to new variables or changes in the codebook).

- **h** = Landis and Koch (1977) characterize the strength of the Kappa coefficient as follows:

0 or less	Poor
.01 - .20	Slight
.21 - .40	Fair
.41 - .60	Moderate
.61 - .80	Substantial
.81 - 1.00	Almost Perfect

Exhibit 4.3

Variables Describing Police-Community Interaction Prior to Field Testing

Interaction Dimension	Interaction Variable	Variable Description
Coordination	Density of Organizations	The breadth of organizations brought into the coordinated effort with the police. How many organizations are involved in the coordination?
Coordination	Degree of Density	If no specific number of orgs. can be ascertained but it clearly involves some number of organizations, then circle on the code sheet one of the following two options: Few = 2-6 estimated organizations Many = 7+ estimated organizations
Coordination	Level of Intensity	The degree to which the people, activities, and resources of the several organizations interacting with the police are coordinated. (5 response options)
Coordination	Scope	The breadth of community functions that the coordinated organization activity contributes to. Scope answers the question: How many aspects of community life are affected by the coordination? (3 response options)
Coordination	Institutional Membership	The kinds of organizations engaged in a coordinated activity. (10 categories)
Coordination	Resources	The material, personal, or informational inputs that a coordination effort among or between organizations may contribute to a neighborhood project or to neighborhood improvement. (6 categories)
Improvement Steps	Nature of Improvement	Are improvement steps designed to control “exchange value” or “use value”?
Improvement Steps	Type of Improvement	This is an indication of the type of activity that took place. Police and citizens can be engaged in <i>discussions</i> of improvement or they can be <i>actively engaged in efforts</i> to improve the neighborhood.
Improvement Steps	Level of Response	When demonstrating concern for the neighborhood, police and citizens are likely to respond in two ways. The first is a reactive response and the second is a problem solving response.
Improvement Steps	Level of Formalization	All police-citizen interactions focused on neighborhood improvements can vary in the extent to which they represent a formalized response. We are interested in distinguishing between those discussions and efforts which are formalized and those which are not. (2 response options)
Identification Steps	Type of Identification	The nature of identification actions indicated by a yes/no response to 5 types of Identification.
Encouragement Steps	Type of Encouragement	The extent to which the police were involved in activities to get residents involved and active with a collective neighborhood project. Yes/no response to 6 specific activities.
Encouragement Steps	Mode of Encouragement	The methods police used to encourage residents to participate in collective efforts. (4 categories of methods)
Encouragement Steps	Content of Encouragement	The message that the police used to encourage

		collective participation. (4 categories of messages)
Participation Steps	Type of Resident	What types of residents were participating with the police in making decisions about the neighborhood? (General Residents vs. Resident Officers)
Participation Steps	Area of Influence	What types of steps are residents taking to participate? Identifying problems, identifying solutions, or administrative input?
Participation Steps	Level of Decision-Making	Do residents participate in making decisions about problems, solutions, or administrative issues?
Participation Steps	Balance of Participation	How balanced was the decision-making that occurred between the police and residents? (3 categorical response options)

Did We Make Progress in Coding and Conceptualizing Interactions?

At first glance, the reliability results in columns 3 through 5 of Exhibit 4.2 reveal that there was variation in the amount of agreement achieved between the coders. Thus, on some variables the coders were able to reliably agree if a variable was present and agree on the precise level of a particular variable. For other variables, the level of agreement was low. Although the project's first attempts at measuring agreement did not produce substantial agreement across all 18 variables, the results certainly illustrate that there is face validity for the interaction dimensions and many of the variables achieved high agreement.

We were equally interested in assessing if there was any improvement in coding interaction statements, given the fact that changes were made to the codebook and training process between the three reliability exercises. Exhibit 4.4 describes the coding trends from analysis one to analysis two and three.

Exhibit 4.4

CHANGE IN AGREEMENT FROM TEST 1 TO TESTS 2 AND 3

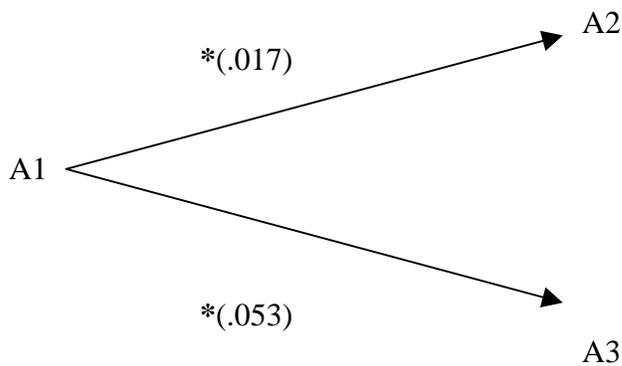
A1 = Analysis of Reliability – Test 1

A2 = Analysis of Reliability – Test 2

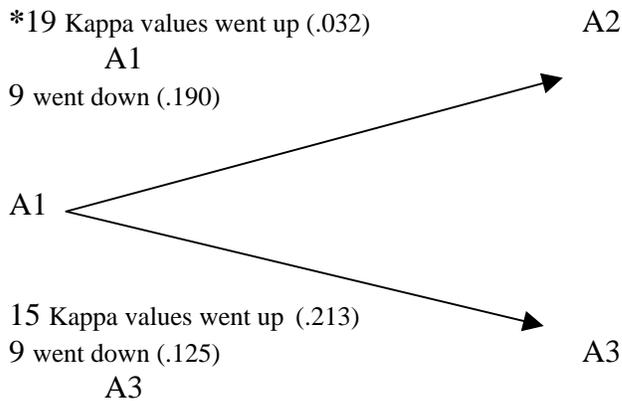
A3 = Analysis of Reliability – Test 3

* = significance achieved at the .05 level of probability.

I) The ANOVA analysis of change in Kappa value for each variable



II) Basic trend from analysis one to two and three



Note: The analyses to produce these diagrams excluded Kappa values based on an N less than 20, see symbol *d* in Exhibit 4.2.

It has already been illustrated that a key goal for this project is to develop the ability to transfer knowledge about our variables and the techniques necessary to measure them through the training of other people. The first attempt at such knowledge transfer through training was in analysis one and the second attempt was in analysis three. Thus, in Exhibit 4.4, the most important change trend to examine is from analysis one to analysis three. Did all of our insight and changes to the codebook and training help us improve the knowledge transfer to the coders in analysis three and subsequently improve Kappa values? The change trend from analysis one to analysis two (the project staff) is important to illustrate if the project staff, given their long-term involvement and commitment in measuring the variables, is any better at coding the variables compared to a population whose only involvement is a short-training period.

In Diagram I of Exhibit 4.4, an ANOVA analysis was conducted to test if the change in Kappa value for each variable analysis from test one to two and test one to three was significant. The results reveal that Kappa scores for each variable analysis differ significantly at the .05 level from analysis one to analysis two and three, although the difference between analysis one and three is only marginally significant. Diagram I provides no information on the direction, up or down, of these significant differences to analysis one.

Diagrams II provides a different way of analyzing the directional trend change from analysis one to analysis two and three. Diagram II, provides a count of the directional trend from analysis one to analysis two and three. From analysis one to two, the Kappa values for 19 variable analyses went up and in 9 variable analyses the Kappa values went down. From analysis one to three, the Kappa values for 15 variable analyses

went up and in 9 variable analyses the Kappa values went down. An ANOVA analysis was used to determine if the upward and downward trends in the analyses differed in a significant direction. The results reveal that the upward trend from analysis one to two was a significant upward trend, which was expected. None of the downward trends showed significant downward changes. Disappointingly, the upward trend from analysis one to analysis three was not significant. Thus, we can not rule out that the upward improvement in Kappa values from analysis one to analysis three was due to chance.

The trend changes from analysis one to two met preconceived expectations about project staff knowledge and ability to agree with one another. The trend changes from analysis one to three, which are more important to the project goals, require a more in-depth discussion. Diagram II reveals that the general trend from analysis one to three is upward. This is a positive result. Yet, the upward trend is not very significant and perhaps due to chance.

Conclusion

We have come a long way from the initial seven, rudimentarily defined, police-community interaction dimensions to the 18 variables listed in Exhibit 4.3. Training materials and interaction statements for each variable of police-community interaction have been developed. One hundred and fifty-eight statements describing actual police-community interactions has been extracted from implementation literature and has been extensively coded three times. The dimensions of police-community interaction developed in this project are certainly present, to varying degrees, within the existing evaluation literature on community policing. Not only are the interactions contained

within the literature, but also two independent coders will often agree substantially on the interaction variable and variable values present in those interaction descriptions.

More importantly, the efforts over the past year illustrate that training others to recognize these concepts in written statements can be accomplished with moderate to high degrees of success on many variables. Yet, consistent problems with certain variables, many of which we have recognized for some time, have plagued the agreement analysis and results. Throughout the year following these initial concept recognition exercises, numerous changes were made to address these recurring problems. In the next chapter, you will learn about our efforts to measure these community building processes in police-community meetings.

CHAPTER FIVE

PHASE II: VARIABLE REFINEMENT AND DEVELOPING THE MEASURES IN A FIELD SETTING

Indianapolis was selected as the field site to examine the interaction dimensions. Selecting a small number of neighborhoods in Indianapolis provided the opportunity to further develop the measures of police-community interaction, refine and test the reliability and validity of the measures, and also assess the utility of these measures for a major urban police department and the neighborhoods it serves. Indianapolis was selected for several reasons. First, since the early 1990s, the Indianapolis Police Department (IPD) has been committed to implementing a community policing and problem-solving model. Second, Indianapolis has a long tradition of strong neighborhoods. The partnerships that have been created with neighborhood groups through the community policing initiative have tended to be with broad-based neighborhood associations that view crime, disorder, and public safety as important issues. Third, in carrying out its community policing and problem-solving mission, IPD and neighborhood groups work in collaboration with a large number of city government units, including community prosecutors, nuisance abatement officials, and health and code officials. Fourth, the IPD's decentralized structure with a variety of neighborhoods and variation in the level of community organization makes for a valuable site of the study of police-community interaction. For these reasons, we thought that there should be a wide range of police-community interactions observable in Indianapolis, and therefore a good site for development and testing of measures.

Research Methodology

The original proposal called for the study of five Indianapolis neighborhoods. The focus of this research plan was to conduct focus groups with residents, neighborhood leaders, and police officers in these neighborhoods during the study period. The researchers planned to meet with each focus group every other month for one year. The focus group results were to be put into a larger context of community building processes by completing extensive neighborhood histories using documents, newspaper accounts, and snowball sampling techniques. We initially thought that this approach was appropriate because of the flexibility inherent to this methodology, affording us the opportunity to explore the various ways that police and residents interact. It was also thought to be a valuable methodology because the focus groups would have been given the opportunity to identify the key dimensions worth studying and what about these variables needed to be captured.

We abandoned this methodological strategy after the first advisory board meeting. The decision to revise the methodology was in reaction to the advisory board's insightful commentary. This first meeting reduced the need to rely solely on an exploratory methodological approach. The Albany research team presented its initial and working list of variables that were thought to be important for understanding police-community interaction (See Chapter 4). This initial list was informed from a variety of different sources, including the dialogue at the "Measuring What Matters Conferences," various bodies of literature, and previous work of the principal investigator. We learned several important things from the advisory board's reactions to this working list of variables. First, the list struck a responsive chord with advisory board members. It was clear from

the animated commentary that the dimensions discussed were on point. Although the advisory board cautioned us regarding the number of variables that should be focused on, it was evident that we were on the right track in identifying the community building processes worth measuring. Second, the advisory board strongly encouraged us to focus our energies on a handful of the dimensions discussed and work towards refining the operationalization of the variables and identifying the best methodological practices to capture these dimensions. When we regrouped soon after this advisory board meeting, it was clear that we needed to move beyond the exploratory focus group approach.

Our new approach, modeled after what Skogan and others have done to examine police involvement in community activities, was to attend community meetings and events where both police and residents were in attendance. Data about the meetings and events were collected using two complementary coding strategies. First, graduate student coders completed a general code sheet for every meeting and event attended. This sheet captures both general information about the meeting or event and interaction dimension measures that describe the whole event rather than specific issues (See Appendix A) captures both descriptive and dimension-relevant information. For example, the information collected using this sheet includes location and type of meeting (e.g., Umbrella Association, Neighborhood Association, Weed and Seed, etc.), issues related to meeting process (e.g., did the meeting follow an agenda, what problems arose, assessment of the effectiveness of the meeting), coordination density (e.g., how many and what types of organization were present), type of resident participation (e.g., how many and demographic characteristics), and balance of resident participation (e.g., what is the balance of participation regarding input on issues and decision-making). Second, the

coders were asked to complete a second codesheet for every issue discussed at a meeting. Multiple issues are typically discussed during a community meeting. For example, seven different issues were discussed during a neighborhood association meeting the coders attended on January 27, 2000. These issues included providing tax preparation assistance to low-income families, stolen automobiles, neighborhood noise, police recruitment of Hispanic officers, a continuing education program, a new domestic violence initiative, and fund raising for a community center. The issue-specific codesheets focus on capturing different aspects of the police-community interaction dimensions for every issue discussed. The issue codesheet is attached as Appendix B.

Three graduate students served as coders of the meetings. The two students initially brought on board underwent a rigorous four-day training session to learn the dimensions and preliminary coding rules. At the end of the training, each coder was given 158 statements used in the reliability exercise (discussed on pp. 4.15 – 4.17) and asked to identify the key dimensions present. We used the results to clarify misconceptions about the dimensions. Unfortunately, one of these coders unexpectedly left the project in its final year. Thus, we hired another graduate student to replace him, but we were unable to organize a similar training session. We did however train him by first providing reading materials that described the evolution of the dimensions during the project. In addition, he attended several meetings with the other trained coder who described the coding rules to him and modeled the coding process for him.

There were several other data collection strategies used to supplement the meeting data. First, graduate students completed approximately fifty ride-along hours with community policing officers. In the area where this study took place (discussed below),

there was one full time community policing officer that was relieved of the responsibility of calls for service. Most of the ride-along hours were with this officer as he tried to work with various residents and neighborhood leaders. Although there were other officers assigned in this police district to accomplish the community policing goals of the department, these officers still had call for service responsibility and it was difficult to predict when a ride-along would be appropriate. Second, structured interviews were conducted with the district deputy chief, the community relation's officer, neighborhood leaders, and other police officers that frequently attended community policing meetings. Third, multiple interviews were conducted with key informants during the later stages of the field strategy experience. These interviews were structured to discuss specific issues discussed in neighborhood association meetings as well as identify police-community interactions that occur frequently outside the context of a neighborhood meeting. Finally, graduate student coders were asked to write notes in a field journal to react to what was occurring within the meeting, what the coding scheme was not capturing, and describe the problems with the operationalization of the variables. These notes were critical during the later stages of the field testing experience.

Choosing a Study Site¹

There are essentially three tiers to the formal organizational structure of neighborhoods in Indianapolis. At the top level of this structure are eight umbrella organizations. These eight umbrella organizations have specific geographic boundaries that cover most, but not all, of Indianapolis. These organizations serve a variety of different functions including coordinating the activities of the neighborhood associations

within its boundaries, supporting and promoting the activities of the neighborhood associations, and controlling funds provided to the neighborhood associations. The second tier of this structure is neighborhood associations. Within each umbrella organization area, there are a different number of neighborhood associations ranging from as few as three (WESCO) to as many as nineteen (NESCO). Block clubs account for the final tier of this structure.

We initially selected two umbrella organizations, the Westside Cooperative Organization (WESCO) and Martindale-Brightwood, to study. These study sites were selected for two reasons. First, we thought that the size and number of neighborhood associations within each area was manageable from a research standpoint. Second, we felt that these umbrellas would allow us to test the dimensions in two contrasting environments. For example, WESCO is currently a Weed & Seed site and has made great strides in building relationships between the community and the police. The Indianapolis Police Department's (IPD) West District is often thought of as one of the model sites for community policing efforts and successes and the relationship between the police and residents is considered to be very healthy. Conversely, the Martindale-Brightwood area has had a history of poor relations between its residents and the police. PCIP staff thought that it would be beneficial to capture interactions from these different neighborhoods.

WESCO

WESCO is an Umbrella organization comprised of three neighborhood associations (Stringtown, Hawthorne, and Haughville). WESCO is within the

¹ Jody Wollan assisted us with writing the next two sections of this chapter.

jurisdiction of IPD's West District. The 1990 Census data shows that WESCO's population totaled 16,853 and its population makeup is 58% European-American and 40% African American. People of Scandinavian, German, Irish, and Slavic decent originally settled WESCO. This resulted in ethnic conflict early in the twentieth century and is evident by the division of churches into ethnic congregations. The median household income for the Near Westside, which is where WESCO is located, is \$16,642 and the median housing value is \$24,702. Twenty-nine percent of residents within the area live in poverty and only about half of the adults have at least a high school education (51%).

In addition to census data, field observers were able to gain information pertaining to the WESCO population characteristics touring the area led by staff of the WESCO office. The staff indicated that absentee landlords own a large number of the homes within WESCO, resulting in a multitude of problems pertaining to residency. The city is attempting to build better neighborhoods in the WESCO area by renovating some of the homes and creating programs that would help ensure that residents are responsible homeowners. Additionally, WESCO officials work with landlords in an effort to train them regarding their responsibilities.

WESCO also offers a variety of community resources for residents, such as social service agencies. One of the most active agencies in the WESCO area is the Christamore House. This agency provides numerous services, including after school programs, job placement, clinics, childcare, educational support, outreach programs, and many other services targeting children and families within the area. The Christamore House is located in the Haughville neighborhood, but their services are available to other residents

within WESCO. However, their primary participation comes from Haughville residents. The director of the Christamore House is also a key player in the neighborhood organizational structure of WESCO. For example, he is the Vice President of the WESCO Umbrella Association and the President of the Haughville Community Council. The Hawthorne Neighborhood also has a community center, which is available primarily for children. Stringtown is the only WESCO neighborhood that does not have a community center within its boundaries. Additional WESCO community resources include funding from the Weed and Seed program, awarded in 1991, and community development block grant funds used to develop and improve housing.

Each of the neighborhoods of WESCO has unique characteristics, providing an ideal setting for refining the dimensions.

The Hawthorne community is home to a large number of senior citizens and a rapidly growing Hispanic population. There are several Mexican restaurants and businesses in the area, creating a language barrier for residents and businesses. Indianapolis Public Schools (IPS) shut down George Washington High School in 1995. This left the area with only one public grammar school and one private Catholic School. The Hawthorne community is the most isolated in terms of participation in WESCO activities. Hawthorne residents rarely attend community-wide meetings (e.g., West District Task Force, Community Policing, and WESCO Umbrella meetings). This finding was confirmed when interviewing members of the neighborhood association who stated that Hawthorne residents seem to keep to themselves and do not participate very often in community meetings and events.

Stringtown is located in an area that has been slowly changing from residential housing to a business district. In 1984 seventy homes were taken over for business purposes (i.e., the Indianapolis Zoo Expansion). Residents believe homes will continue to be lost due to business developments. The residents of Stringtown are mainly people of Appalachian and German descent, with hardly any African American families. The WESCO staff indicated that racial tensions within this community are still extremely evident. For example, there are still private clubs that do not allow African Americans to enter. The Stringtown community also has the highest number of high school dropouts, teen pregnancies, and single parent families in Indianapolis. The Stringtown Neighborhood Association Council (SNAC) was organized in 1993 to represent their neighborhood.

The Haughville community is home to the majority of WESCO's African American residents. This community also has the Christamore House, which is a significant addition to the WESCO area based on the services it provides. As mentioned, the Christamore House also serves as the community center for Haughville residents. The Concord Village, formerly a public housing complex, is in this area as well. As part of Mayor Goldsmith's "Building Better Neighborhoods" initiative in 1992, the houses in Concord Village were torn down and replaced with newer homes in an effort to alleviate some of the drug and disorder problems occurring within the public housing complex. It should be noted that some of the strongest leadership in WESCO resides in, and works closely with, the Haughville community and the Christamore House.

The WESCO Umbrella organization is actively involved in the three neighborhoods. Most of the funding for various neighborhood projects is funneled

through WESCO. Each of the neighborhoods also has a resident on the WESCO's Board of Directors. WESCO's motto is "working together works" and they abide by that by supporting their neighborhood groups individually and collectively.

Observing the WESCO area provided PCIP field observers with the opportunity to witness how each individual neighborhood organization operated, as well as how the three communities came together under WESCO. Since there were only three neighborhood organizations and the umbrella organization, it was feasible for the observers to attend monthly meetings and events for each group. Additionally, the reputation that WESCO and the IPD West District have for being a model community-policing site allowed observers to gain insight into an area where the police and the community had developed a successful working relationship with one another.

Martindale-Brightwood

We originally selected Martindale-Brightwood as the other site to observe. Initially, this site was chosen because it appeared to be an excellent comparison site based on the structure and the dynamics in the area. Martindale-Brightwood is located on the north-south axis of 30th Street and I-70 and the east-west axis borders Monon Railroad and Sherman. The area includes Douglass Park and Washington Park (previously home of the zoo) and Martin University (a predominantly African-American university).

Historically, Martindale-Brightwood was home to work associated with the railroads, such as manufacturing positions, and attracted a large number of residents seeking labor. However, after World War II, the railroads vacated the area and many

blue-collar jobs were lost. In the 1960's and 70's the Interstate Highway construction began through the neighborhoods causing residents, primarily white, to move out of the area and businesses to close. In 1967 Martindale was declared a "poverty target area" and the residents within the neighborhood consisted primarily of poorer African Americans from other neighborhoods. Schools were closed in the following years, and the neighborhood became overwhelmed with crime, including an abundance of gang violence and drug activity. The high crime levels persist today.

Martindale-Brightwood differs from WESCO in many ways. The 1990 Census Data shows that this neighborhood has a population of 13,547. The population makeup is 96% African American. The median household income is \$16,266 and the median housing value is \$26,708. 57% of the homes are owner occupied and 16% are vacant. 37% of residents within the area live in poverty and only about half of the adults have at least a high school education (54%).

During the initial observations of the neighborhoods, PCIP field staff discovered that Martindale-Brightwood is split between two police districts. IPD's North District covers two of the four neighborhood associations, including Oak Hill and Hillside. The other two neighborhood associations, Brightwood and Oxford Terrace, reside in IPD East District's jurisdiction.

Issues Influencing the Site Selection

Initially, observers planned to attend similar monthly meetings in Martindale-Brightwood as in WESCO. However, this presented many problems due to the split districts of Martindale-Brightwood. PCIP staff anticipated resources that would cover

meeting attendance within two Umbrella areas. However, the split jurisdiction for Martindale-Brightwood created a workload that more closely resembled three areas, as opposed to two. The three observation sites consisted of WESCO, Martindale-Brightwood in the East District, and Martindale-Brightwood in the North District. This proved to be a significant strain on resources, in terms of money and observer availability. The three areas required observers to attend three sets of meetings, conduct three sets of initial and follow-up interviews, code and keep a journal on three sets of meetings, and attend three sets of events. Essentially, the time required to collect information for the project increased by a third while the availability of resources remained the same.

It was nearly impossible to attend meetings and collect all of the necessary information from each of the respective sites. Observers experienced several problems when attempting to get information from the neighborhood associations in Martindale-Brightwood. First, collecting information from the two districts was a very difficult process. The initial interviews with the East and North Districts did not uncover very much information about Martindale-Brightwood. Each district representative had plenty of information about the other neighborhood associations within their jurisdiction, however, they each seemed to think that the other district was more involved with the Martindale-Brightwood Neighborhood Association. This resulted in very little information about Martindale-Brightwood.

Initial interviews with the police and neighborhood association leaders suggested that the residents would view observers as outsiders, or as being aligned with the police, and would not welcome their attendance at meetings. In fact, crime watch coordinators

stated that they would not attend meetings in Martindale-Brightwood unless an officer, due to safety concerns, accompanied them. The police department personnel could not remember the last time they attended meetings in the area and stated that they would only attend if the respective groups invited them. This made it difficult for observers to get information pertaining to meeting times and dates in order to attend them.

Observers' concerns regarding access to Martindale-Brightwood meetings were confirmed in an interview with the coordinator of one of the neighborhood associations. He stated that there was no way observers would be able to sit in on meetings. If observers did show up they would be "ripped apart" and would be asked to leave. If residents did allow observers to sit through one meeting, they would be unwilling to talk about anything of significance. Our efforts to attend neighborhood association meetings in Martindale-Brightwood consistently failed. Additionally, observers were told that they would be denied access to the by-laws of any of the neighborhood associations.

Based on such experiences, we realized that we faced a difficult set of sampling trade-offs. We discovered that we would either have to sacrifice depth of knowledge in each area and reduce the frequency of measurement in both areas to retain the comparison between areas, or we would have to sacrifice the cross-area comparison to retain the depth and frequency of measurement in one. We debated this dilemma for some time, since depth of study (e.g., at the area, neighborhood, and sub-neighborhood levels), longitudinal comparisons of measures, and cross-area comparisons were all desirable aspects of studying the validity of the measures.

1. We wanted to apply our measures of these interactions at supra-neighborhood (umbrella), neighborhood, and sub-neighborhood (block clubs) in order to determine if these are generic processes, or apply at one level of a city's social geography but not another.

2. We wanted to take measures of the interactions over a significant period of time in an area so that we can determine if the measures capture the variations in interactions over the course of neighborhood history.
3. We wanted to take the measures in different areas so that we can determine if the measures as developed in one area will be applicable in another with different structural and compositional characteristics.

All three kinds of comparisons are necessary to examining the validity of measures and to investigating their utility for various groups of participants. Eventually, we decided that it was better to sacrifice #3 in the field test site than to sacrifice #1 and #2. We had developed other ways of making area comparisons, but we did not have other feasible ways to investigate #1 and #2. In addition, we retained the ability to compare the three neighborhoods in the remaining umbrella area. These three neighborhoods are contiguous and participate in the same umbrella organization, but they still differ in history, demographics, and resident leadership.

Although information collection efforts in Martindale-Brightwood were not very productive, observers were able to gather a variety of information pertaining to WESCO. WESCO leaders and residents welcomed observer attendance at a variety of events and meetings. Additionally, residents, neighborhood leaders, and the police were all willing to answer questions proposed by observers.

As a result of the ongoing difficulties experienced by observers in Martindale-Brightwood, PCIP staff decided to discontinue their collection efforts and focus additional collection efforts in WESCO. Instead of starting over in another umbrella organization, PCIP staff agreed that focusing their efforts on WESCO would prove to be more beneficial in the long run. Initially, the observers were expected to observe meetings in WESCO and Martindale-Brightwood for 1 year. However, since Martindale-

Brightwood was not going to be observed, PCIP staff decided to observe meetings in WESCO more in-depth and for eighteen months. This also allowed us to break the data collection into two distinct stages (discussed below). This decision incorporated a valuable longitudinal component into the observation process that was not present in the initial research design. PCIP staff agreed that it would be more beneficial to use project resources to capture comparisons of interaction processes within a neighborhood over time, as opposed to making comparisons of interaction processes between two neighborhoods.

Resources that were previously required for the observation of Martindale-Brightwood were made available for additional observations in WESCO. This allowed observers to consistently attend all of the monthly meetings, including the individual neighborhood meetings, umbrella association meetings, IPD West District Task Force meetings, and the Weed and Seed Community Policing meetings. Attending these meetings consistently for an extended period of time allowed PCIP staff to gain more of a comprehensive picture pertaining to the police-community interactions in WESCO over time.

The Two Stages of the WESCO Field Strategy

Focusing on WESCO provided the benefit of collecting data for an extended period of time. In Stage 1, the research effort was focused on training the coders, collecting preliminary information, attempting to identify archival sources of data, conducting interviews with a sample of Indianapolis community policing officers and community policing officers from five other cities, and conducting initial interviews with

police and neighborhood leaders. Considerable efforts were also wasted on our unsuccessful attempts to attend Martindale-Brightwood neighborhood association meetings. When we decided to pull out of this area, and decided to extend the length of time we would attend meetings in WESCO, we were able to focus on identifying the problems encountered with these dimensions in the field. This attention resulted in significant revisions and elaboration on the coding rules for the issue-specific codebook.

In Stage 2, we deployed a revised codebook in the field for an entire year. Based on reliability assessments, discussions between Albany and Indiana University about problems encountered in the field, and suggestions from the advisory board, the codebooks underwent significant transformations. We put the final data collection instruments into the field from July 1999 to July 2000 and the observation codebook is provided as Appendix C.

Stage 1

Below we discuss some of the major problems encountered in capturing the dimensions in Year 1 of the study. Such problems inevitably occur at the point of measurement, but we wanted to describe these problems and some of our solutions to demonstrate the hurdles we faced trying to measure what matters about police interaction in a field setting. The decisions we made, moreover, provide a good context that should assist the reader in interpreting the results and assessing reliability and validity of the measures presented in the next section. This discussion is organized according to dimension.

Coordination

Coordination refers to the extent to which the police engage in coordinated interaction between themselves and at least one other organization concerning issues related to a specific neighborhood. PCIP staff tried to capture various aspects of coordination using the codesheets, including institutional membership and intensity.

Coordination-Institutional Membership.

We attempted to identify the kinds of organizations involved in a coordinated activity. Coders were asked to circle *all that apply* to indicate all the organizational types participating in a coordinated effort (see list below with examples in parenthesis):

List of Organizational Types

1. Municipal police (Indianapolis Police Department, Sheriff's Department).
2. Other law enforcement agencies (FBI, DEA, State Police)
3. Other Criminal Justice Agencies (Prosecutor's Office, Probation)
4. Non-criminal justice government agencies/services (Mayor's Office, Marion County Health Department, Marion County Library)
5. Private business, commerce, real estate, economic development (Kroger Food Stores, Westside Community Development Corporation)
6. Schools, education, and training organizations (Indianapolis Public Schools, Martin University, Indiana University-Purdue University)
7. Faith based organizations (Westside Ministers, Any Church)
8. Private social service, health, mental health, treatment organizations (Christamore House Community Center, Westside Health Clinic)
9. Other organizations except resident organizations (Police Athletic League)
10. Resident or neighborhood organizations
 - a. Block clubs (Haugh/Warman block club)
 - b. Tenants groups (unknown, not encountered in the field)
 - c. Homeowners groups (unknown, not encountered in the field)
 - d. Neighborhood associations (Stringtown, Hawthorne, Haughville)
 - e. Umbrella groups (WESCO, Marion County Alliance of Neighborhood Associations)
11. Weed and Seed (only those employed by the Weed and Seed)

Problems Encountered in the Field. Although this appears to be an objective code, the reliability of the decision-making is complicated by the coder's knowledge of the participants. Thus, there is a steep learning curve in being able to identify individuals and their organizational affiliation. This problem is further complicated when new individuals or organizations attend meetings. Most of the time individuals were not introduced at a meeting and attendees were not asked to sign in. In addition, the coding by two observers often diverged because of different interpretations of an individual's organizational affiliation. For example, individuals often represent multiple organizations. One observer might identify an individual with one organization whereas the second observer might identify the individual with a different organization. Though both affiliations are correct, the coding form did not allow for multiple organizational affiliations and attempting to capture these multiple affiliations is very problematic. Our solution was to have observers agree on a standard organization for an individual determined on the basis of the individual's most active affiliation. The correct code, however, could only be determined after coders developed a working knowledge of the individuals and their activities.

There were also occasions when observers were either unsure of an organization's mission or did not agree on an organizational type. Such was the case with the Weed and Seed code because it did not easily fit into any of the organization types. Therefore, the code number 11 was created in June 1999 because of the active involvement of Weed and Seed staff in the various meetings attended. Other organizations create similar difficulties. Like the solution for multiple organizational affiliations, the problem with

organizational types was resolved by agreeing on a consensus as to the institutional type of a particular organization.

Finally, when the codesheet was initially deployed, coordination was coded on an issue-by-issue basis. This resulted in the observers making subjective determinations about who was or was not participating in a given issue. Not only did this diminish the reliability of the codes, it also ignored the fact that organizations, simply by their presence, can be participating in a given issue. The institutional membership code was thus eliminated from the Issue codesheet. The result was that all organizations present at a given meeting or event were considered participants regardless of whether the issue directly involved them or whether participation was active or passive.

Coordination-Intensity

Intensity refers to the level of coordination, from simply being aware of another organization through joint programming and decision-making. We initially thought that circling one of the following categories could capture intensity:

1. Police activities make them aware of other organizations and the potential for these organizations to affect the neighborhood or place or the way in which the police affect the neighborhood.
2. Police refer residents of a neighborhood to organizations that they believe may be of assistance to the resident, but who the police have no prior contact.
3. Police have initial dialogue and interactive contact with organizations for the purposes of informing them that they would like to discuss their respective activities or concerns for a specific neighborhood or use them as referrals.
4. Police are engaged in informal and ad hoc interactions with other organizations.
5. Police develop partnerships with other organizations.

Problems Encountered in the Field. The Observers encountered three primary problems when attempting to document intensity in the field. First, there was a problem with definitional clarity. That is, the distinction between levels of intensity is unclear and difficult to identify in the field. For example, the requirement of formality as the distinguishing feature between level 3 and level 4 intensity does not aid in describing the types of interactions that would cross the threshold into a formal partnership. Second, the scale above can only account for one interaction pairing. In other words, if the police, a neighborhood association, and health center, for example, were interacting, the intensity scale would only allow the observer to document intensity for one pairing. Therefore, if the police-neighborhood association intensity level were coded, the intensity of the police and the health center and the neighborhood association and the health center would be ignored. Needless to say, the magnitude of this problem increased as the number of organizations increased. Likewise, the scale does not account for differing intensity levels for individual organizational pairings. A third problem relates to the level of knowledge of the observers. If one observer has a greater knowledge of an interaction than a second observer, it is likely that different levels of intensity will be documented.

Because of low reliability and the problems encountered in the field in capturing this variable, the intensity code was eliminated from the issue codesheet at the end of Stage 1.

Issue Level Resources

We wanted to capture the degree to which the people, activities, and resources of the several organizations interacting with the police were coordinated. The coders

indicated whether any of the following resources were discussed or provided during a meeting:

- Financial Assistance
- Material Goods and Supplies
- Use of Facilities
- Personnel
- Expertise
- Information Links
- Other

Problems Encountered in the Field. The most problematic element of the resources code resulted from the observers' inability to distinguish between resources that were provided and those that were discussed. For example, an organization might suggest that food will be donated for a future event. Under the original coding scheme observers would have coded material resources. However, this code implies that the resource was actually provided during that meeting where the resources were only discussed. Thus, the discussion/provided code was added to account for these differences. In the preceding example, the food would have been coded as materials discussed. When the event occurred where the resource was actually provided, observers would code materials provided.

Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space

We attempted to capture various aspects of the use of neighborhood space dimension, including the nature of control, type of control activity, characteristics of control process, and level of formalization.

Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space -Nature of Control

We defined the nature of control as the extent to which the police actions exert control on the use of neighborhood space or facilitate the application of such controls by others. Coders attempted to capture two basic kinds of neighborhood space controls using the following coding categories.

- ❑ Exchange/Use Value (EXV)-- target the misuse/misappropriation of space. (The issue raised is concerned with people who inappropriately or illegally try to extract exchange value from neighborhood space or is concerned directly with placing controls on this behavior.)
- ❑ Use Value (USV)-- targets improvements in space rather than people or actions that reduce neighbors' use of space. (The issue raised is concerned only with enhancements or improvements in neighborhood space (but not with controlling abuses).
- ❑ N/A: the issue raised does not deal with either EXV or USV (e.g., no control of space).

Problems Encountered in the Field. The difficulties with this variable emerged from over-reliance upon interpretation of exchange/use. According to any early codebook, "exchange value is the use of space and its infrastructure for the purpose of making a private profit." As a result, observers were looking for evidence of profit--drug dealing, prostitution, or gambling. This resulted in the tendency to code use on occasions where exchange/use may have been more appropriate. The new definition focused on those individuals who misuse or misappropriate space. The actions must have targeted specific individuals or groups that abuse space. For example, graffiti cleanups are coded use value while efforts to apprehend graffiti artists would be coded as exchange/use. The distinction is the targeted individual in the actions of the neighborhood residents or the police.

Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space-Type of Control Activity

Here, we asked whether the activity was a discussion of the control or was it an actual activity engaged in to attempt to control space. Coders were asked to code one or the other.

- ❑ Discussion-- a discussion of attempts to control neighborhood space; may involve planning or a discussion of an upcoming event. (The police/citizen interaction simply involves talking about concern for the control of neighborhood space. Aside from discussion there is no current attempt to implement any activity or solution.)
- ❑ Effort-- a discussion of an actual activity that has already taken place or the activity itself. (The police/citizen interaction involves an activity that demonstrates a concerted effort to address the control of neighborhood space.)

Problems Encountered in the Field. Since a new observer became involved in the coding process, it was necessary to clarify the coding distinction between discussion and effort. We initially were viewing the choice as an “either/or” choice and were not coding both discussion and effort when applicable.

Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space-Characteristics of Control Process

The original choice for the variable was a dichotomous choice between reactive (i.e., addressing an immediate violation) or problem-solving (i.e., identifying and addressing a pattern of violations and the goal of the response is to ensure that the problem does not reoccur).

Problems Encountered in the Field. Observers rarely agreed on when an effort goes beyond reactivity and assumes problem-solving characteristics. For example, prostitution stings can be seen as reacting to an immediate violation, prostitution, but it may also be an attempt to prevent prostitution from occurring in the area again. Patterns of observers coding revealed that observers were primarily focused upon whether (in their opinion) the

final outcome of the issue, based on how the issue was handled, would result in a permanent solution to the issue or not, or was on a trajectory towards permanency. If evidence of permanency was present, the issue would be coded problem-solving and likewise if permanency was not evident the issue would be coded reactive. This created reliability problems that persisted until the end of Year 2. However, in an effort to inform later research about this ongoing problem and address these continuing problems, seven new choices were created to replace reactive and problem solving in an effort to make it easier for observers to pick up on this through meetings (new choices indicated below). After we created these new categories, we went back to the original codesheets and used field notes and interview data to decide what codes should be applied to these data.

- ❑ **Scanning strategies:** any process used or proposed to identify, document, and or record an array of control of space issues, and rank or prioritize them on the basis of some criteria such as frequency or seriousness. Common examples would include hot spot analysis, crime mapping, resident surveys or surveys of neighborhood physical conditions or social disorders. Scanning may be quite informal and unscientific, such as brainstorming at a meeting to nominate problems for attention; or may be very systematic and scientific, such as random walks and probability surveys. But in any case, **scanning is more than an individual nominating a specific problem.** It is some process that selects problems against others.
- ❑ **Analysis strategies:** once a specific problem has been selected for control (regardless of how the problem was identified), a process that seeks to determine the nature, extent, and proximate causes of a problem and selects a solution based on the analysis of the problem.
- ❑ **Implementation documentation:** a process of recording or documenting the actual implementation of a control application, regardless of how the problem was identified or the solution selected. It is evidence that the chosen solution actually occurred, and whether it deviated in anyway from what was intended. This process can be informal, as in keeping a log or journal or even oral reports of what occurred, or it may be very systematic.
- ❑ **Results documentation:** a process of recording or documenting the results of a control effort. Do people record whether the problem ceased or improved? Again,

this may be relatively brief and informal (e.g., police officer asks once of a problem was corrected) or systematic and precise (residents or police report observations of reported hot spot at random intervals for six months after the control effort).

- ❑ **Results reporting:** Regardless of the level or type of documentation of results, feedback to persons who raised the issue or exerted the control about the results of that control effort.
- ❑ **Learning from prior control efforts:** evidence that residents and the police seek to learn from one application of control to another. Evidence of attempts to improve the whole approach to application of use of space controls. For example, do they try to improve scanning, analysis, documenting and reporting processes? Do they ask which approaches have been most effective with similar problems in the past? Do they take specific steps to be more effective, or produce more positive results in the future?
- ❑ **Other:** the control of space discussion or effort observed or reported on here has none of the above 6 characteristics.

Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space-Level of Formalization

Similarly, we continued to have problems capturing the level of formalization regarding steps to improve neighborhood space. We were attempting to capture how formalized the response was to an issue (Level of formalization indicates certain *characteristics of the formality* or institutionalization of a control response). The original coding choices were 1) Informal-- there is no attempt to create new laws, programs, or regulatory practices aimed at targeting exchange/use value abuses and 2) Formal-- discussions and effort of the police and others surround the creation of institutionalized programs, new laws, or rights and responsibilities.

Problems Encountered in the Field. The difficulties associated with the intensity variable complicated the formalization variable as well. Moreover, observers continued to have problems with the level of formalization code even after Intensity was removed from the codesheet. In an effort to more effectively capture the level of formalization, new

choices replaced the formal/informal choices on the codesheets. The choices were as follows:

- ❑ **Formal program:** the control discussed or exerted is given a specific name (i.e. National Take Back the Night March; Stringtown Annual Neighborhood Cleanup)
- ❑ **Formal Auspice:** the control occurs underneath the banner or sponsorship of a broader project or organization with a formal name (e.g. WESCO Weed and Seed drug crackdown)
- ❑ **Regularized Application:** the specific control occurs at regular, planned intervals, such as annually, monthly, weekly: it is intended as an on going, recurring activity or event. It is not a one time or ad hoc response.
- ❑ **None of the above** three characteristics, but some means of control was selected or exerted.
- ❑ **Not applicable.** A control of space problem was raised (e.g. CNS1 is EXV or USV), but no means of control was determined. (E.g., CNS2, above, is Discussion only and P11 (Decision) is G/P, not decision about M/S or DOL; therefore the CNS response cannot be described as formal or not.

Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods

Identification steps include the strategies police use that foster recognition of the unique character of one neighborhood, or portion of a neighborhood, as distinct from others. It refers to steps taken to gain knowledge and familiarity with a neighborhood, or a portion of a neighborhood and the people who work and live within it. Coders were asked to indicate whether any of the items were present and whether the comments or behavior suggest positive or negative values for that type of identification.

- ❑ Decentralization
- ❑ Permanency
- ❑ Align patrol
- ❑ Place info
- ❑ Patrol Tactics
- ❑ Other
- ❑ NA

Problems Encountered in the Field. The first 3 identification types were rarely discussed in meetings. These identification types are more likely to be identified through initial or ongoing interviews with police personnel and management. Identification type “place info” and “other” are more common. “Place info” primarily occurs through the gathering and analysis of information specific to a place whereas “Other” occurs during discussions of bike patrols or Spanish language programs. Earlier problems with Identification resulted from the "policy" component of the codebook definition. Identification, as defined, was only to be coded if it were policy-driven. For obvious reasons, it was difficult to determine during meeting observations whether an identification type was policy-driven. Therefore, the policy restriction was loosened.

Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts

We wanted to try and capture several aspects of steps to encourage resident efforts, including the type of mobilization, form of dissemination, and the content of information dissemination.

Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts-Type of Mobilization

Type of mobilization is the method by which the police contribute to the transformation of resident's private resources to collective efforts at improving their neighborhood. Coders were asked to indicate whether any of the following types of mobilization effort were used in response to an issue.

- Information Dissemination
- Active Recruitment
- Design Organization
- Specific Tactics
- Training
- Other

- Not Applicable

Problems Encountered in the Field. There were very few problems with this variable. Earlier obstacles resulted from a strict interpretation of mobilization. Observers attempted to find strong evidence that a police action was mobilization. This definition limited observers to coding only clear mobilization activity while ignoring more subtle forms of mobilization. For example, crime statistics are regularly distributed at meetings but observers were not interpreting this police action as mobilization because there was no explicit statement that the goal was to get residents involved. However, by virtue of being aware of neighborhood problems, residents might mobilize to take action in their neighborhood. Thus, it was important to take a liberal definition of this variable.

Steps to Encourage Resident Effort -Dissemination Form

We attempted to capture the communication channels or forms that were used or were planned for the MOB1 information dissemination.

- News media: Police utilize local commercial news media to promote ideas about mobilization
- Newsletter/Handouts/Flyers: Police utilize a neighborhood newsletter or targeted mailing to reach specific households in an area
- Direct Contact: Police speak directly to individuals in a neighborhood on a wide scale basis
- Meeting: Police publicize a face to face meeting for residents for the discussion of neighborhood issues

Problems Encountered in the Field. There were few problems with this variable.

Steps to Encourage Resident Effort-Content of Information Dissemination

This code attempted to identify the content of the mobilization effort. Choices included the following:

- Prob.—Police disseminate information about issues or problems in an area.
- Connect.—Police stress the connections among people in an area.
- Individual Act.—Police urge individuals to take action by themselves.
- Group Act.—Police indicate that people in the neighborhood could pool time and resources to make a difference

Problems Encountered in the Field. No consistent problems.

Steps for Resident Participation

Aspects of participation that we attempted to capture in meetings include issue type, issue raising, level of decision-making, type of participants, and balance of participation.

Participation-Issue Type

The definition of issue type includes the areas of decision-making discussed or decided upon. Coders applied the following coding scheme.

1. **G/P (goal or problem):** A participant in the meeting raises a concern that something is a problem or that something should be done.
2. **M/S (means/solution):** A participant in the meeting raises a suggestion about the means of solving the problem or reaching a goal.
3. **DOL (division of labor):** A participant in the meeting raises a concern about who should work on the solution or the means.

Problems Encountered in the Field. Early problems came from observer interpretation of the variable. Observers were only documenting occasions when there was active participation by a resident in police decision making. The definition became less restrictive for Stage 2 and participation was coded on every issue discussed.

Participation-Issue Raising.

Coders identified the type of individual that initiated the discussion or identified a problem using the following codes:

- AR (Active Resident)
- GR (General Resident)
- P (Police Employees)
- Other (Identify Name)
- Unclear (Issue Raiser not known to coder)

Problems Encountered in the Field. Observers found it extremely difficult to distinguish between general residents and those that held officer positions (president, secretary, treasurer, etc.) within the organization. The definition of resident officer was altered to include the "most active" residents while general residents are those that are less active and/or do not hold officer positions. Though easier to distinguish between active and less active residents, individual coders will vary in their categorization of residents and resident officers based on their own knowledge acquired through meeting attendance and/or interviews. A second problem that was easily remedied related to the other category. This non-specific category on the codesheet did not distinguish between the individuals or organizations that comprise the other category. This problem was resolved simply by requiring the observer to identify and document this code. Observers placed all participants that did not fit into Active Resident, Resident, or Police into the "other" category. However, this placement did not allow coders to make a distinction between those that they could identify and those that they could not identify. As a solution, the "unclear" category was added.

Participation-Level of Decision-Making

Coded in conjunction with Types of Decision Making, this variable requires the observer to document the level of decision-making, discussion or decision that is occurring in a given issue.

Problems Encountered in the Field. In the field setting it is often difficult to determine when an issue moves beyond discussion and into a decision. In addition, issues often involve only discussion without ever moving to decision or they move directly to decision without any discussion. Observers developed informal rules to help resolve this problem.

Participation-Types of Participants

Coded in conjunction with Types of Decision Making, this variable requires the observer to document the active participants in a discussion. This code was entered for each of the categories identified under Types of Decision Making. For example, if means/solutions and division of labor are coded above, the types of participants were coded for both of those categories. The following categories were used.

- AR (Active Resident)
- GR (General Resident)
- P (Police Employees)
- Other (Identify Name)
- Unclear (Issue Raiser not known to coder)

Problems Encountered in the Field. The distinction between resident officers and residents has undergone the same transformation discussed in Input/Issue Raising above. This variable now identifies the active participants from among the pool of meeting attendees documented on the General Meeting Codesheet. This allowed us to make a

distinction between passive residents who are participating based on their attendance from those that are taking active part in the issues.

Participation-Balance of Participation

For each level of the decision making process (discussion and decision) that resident participants were involved in, we attempted to determine the relative balance of their influence in comparison to others. Observers did this for all areas of influence if applicable (problems, solutions, administrative, division of labor). From the individuals identified under Types of Participants as active participants, we identified the balance by checking the groups that dominated the discussion (checking two or more indicates that the balance for those groups checked was equal but dominated over other non checked groups). The categories used were police, resident participant, other, and not discernable.

Problems Encountered in the Field. This variable works along with Types of Participants. For example, by coding Types of Participants as police and other, this is indicating that the police and other group were the active participants in an issue that also included all other attendees. The balance code asks the observer to identify the balance of participation between those two active participants. Thus, circling only police implied that police dominated the discussion while circling only other implies that the other group dominated discussion. Circling both indicates that police and the other group participated equally.

Participation-Assigned/Assumed Responsibility Balance.

Assigned responsibility is a measure of the specified or agreed upon division of labor between the police, residents, and other participants. ***It does not measure their***

actual participation. It is an indication of who is supposed to do something. The persons who made the decision about responsibility may not be the same as those who are assigned to do the work.

Coders were asked to use the following code scheme.

1. Police (The *police* have agreed to *or were appointed* to perform *activities* to implement or carry out plans, decisions, or solve issues.)
2. Residents (*Residents* have agreed to *or were appointed* to perform *activities* to implement or carry out plans, decisions, or solve issues.)
3. Other (other groups have *agreed or were appointed* to perform *activities* to implement or carry out plans, decisions, or solve issues.)

Problems Encountered in the Field. No consistent problems.

Participation-Actual Work Balance

Actual work is a measure of the actual effort that is put into one's role or daily activities or duty. Just because we knew someone was assigned a role, we did not know if they were carrying out duties. Actual work balance describes who followed through on their assigned responsibilities. Unlike Implementation Balance of Labor, Implementation Activities Balance refers to who actually did something rather than who was supposed to do something.

Coders identified one of more of the below categories.

1. Police (did the work assigned)
2. Residents (did the work assigned)
3. Other (groups did the work assigned)

Problems Encountered in the Field. No consistent problems.

Stage 2

Roland Warren has stated, “In a sense, a community is what it does, and much of what it does can be grasped by studying episodes of action (1977:309).” Warren’s statement provided PCIP with a guiding philosophy for the development of its field observation strategy. To understand police contributions to neighborhood community building, the “community action episodes” that occur in a neighborhood and involve the police need to be studied. Observing police-community meetings overtime provides one opportunity to record community action episodes on issues occurring in a neighborhood. During any particular police-community meeting a range of issues will be introduced, discussed, and addressed by a mixture of meeting participants. Our observation field strategy was designed to record and track the discussion and response to each community issue introduced at a meeting. We call this strategy “issue-coding”, which provides the study of community action episodes Warren (1977) calls for.

Community actions (or issues) are episodic. According to Warren (1977:308), “they have their beginnings and their endings. They are initiated to accomplish some purpose; they involve a process of organization and task performance in the direction of accomplishing the purpose, which in the process may be modified; then with the resolution of their effort the action subsides, and the episode is finished.” Our issue-coding strategy was designed to record the episodic nature of issues, at an issue-level (i.e. how a specific issue evolves overtime) and aggregate level (i.e. across all issues, what is the pattern of community building depicted?).

Depicting the episodic nature of issues begins with an observer delineating each issue and issue change within a police-community meeting dialogue. Some issues come

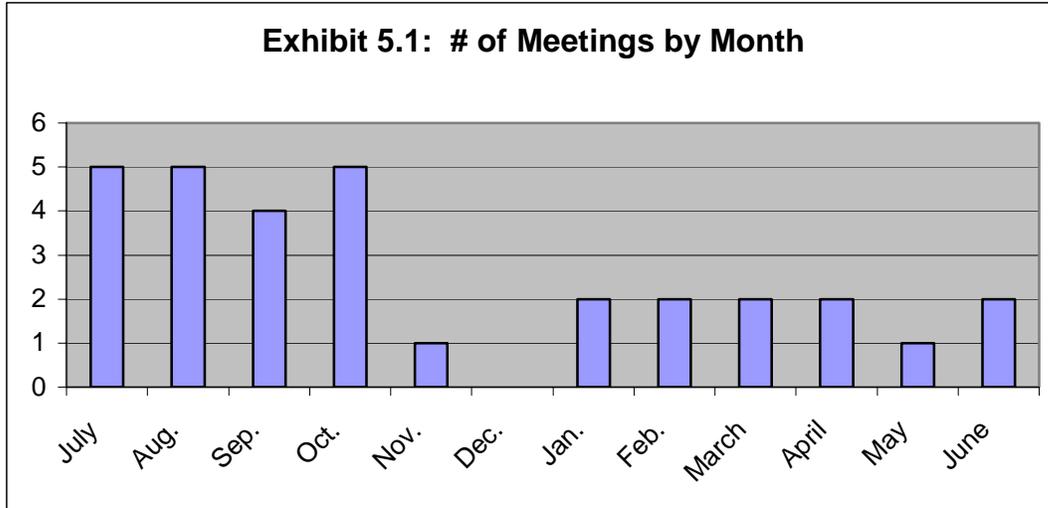
to life for the first time in a meeting one is attending (new business). One may also observe feedback on a police response to an issue that was previously introduced (continuing business). Each issue observed in a meeting dialogue is then coded for the presence of community building characteristics. For example, an issue may be raised regarding the need for Saturday night events for teens in the neighborhood. An observer can code who raised the issue? Who agreed that a lack of teen activities was a problem? Did the meeting participants begin to discuss solutions to improve Saturday night activities for teens? Did the police offer PAL funds to help address this problem or attempt to recruit residents to be involved in their solution? Our observation protocol is designed to address these processes-related questions and measure many more of the community building processes of issues raised in a police-community meeting.

In Stage 1, we attended sixteen neighborhood meetings. These meetings essentially served as pretest opportunities as we used our attendance to pinpoint problems with the variables and devise workable solutions to these concerns. In July of 1999, we decided to deploy the existing codebook at that time through June of 2000. Doing so allowed us to assess how the various dimensions change over time. This section discusses the results from this Stage 2 data collection. It is divided into three sections: meetings overview, descriptive data, and results over time.

Meetings Overview

The graduate student coders attended 31 meetings or events from July 1999 through June 2000. Coders attended 7 WESCO Umbrella Organization meetings, 8 WESCO Community Policing meetings, 2 Haughville Neighborhood Association Meetings, 5 Stringtown Neighborhood Association Meetings, 2 Hawthorne

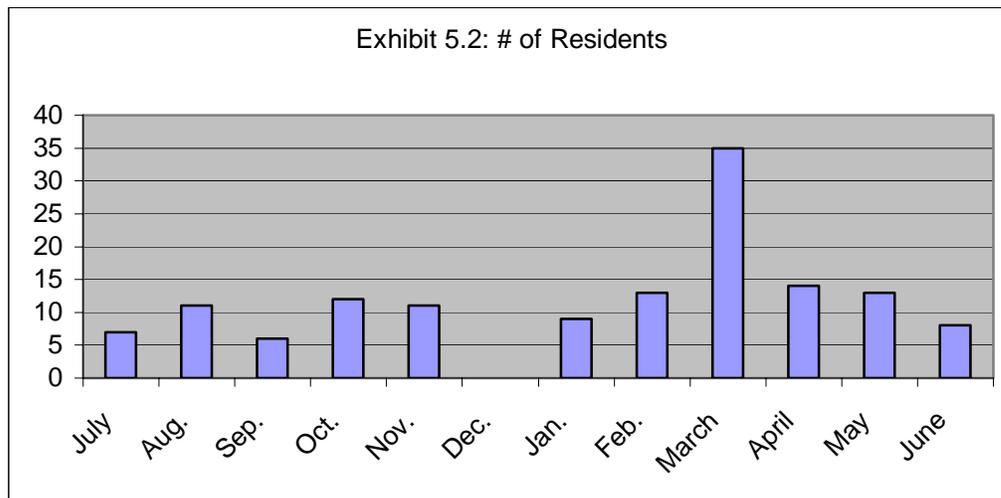
Neighborhood Association Meetings, 2 Community Task Force Meetings, and 5 WESCO Community Events. The number of meetings attended by month is provided in Exhibit 5.1 below. These data indicate that there were far fewer meetings occurring in WESCO in the last six months of the study period compared to the first few months. We think there are two explanations for this decreased activity in the last six months of the study period. First, WESCO and several of the neighborhood associations had leadership turnover at the end of 1999. Moreover, the newly elected officers were very reluctant to assume these leadership positions. Second, the lack of neighborhood activity was mirrored by changes occurring within the city and police department's leadership. When the city elected a democratic mayor in November 1999, there was concern among residents and police leaders about the changes that the new mayor would make. In WESCO, residents and neighborhood leaders were very concerned about the rumor that the Deputy Chief of the West District (Deputy Chief Jerry Barker) was the leading candidate to become the new police chief. Residents were uncertain about how this change, if it were to occur, would impact their relationship with IPD. When Chief Barker was appointed, residents were relieved when they discovered that Tim Harty replaced him in the West District. Deputy Chief Harty was highly respected and neighborhood leaders campaigned strongly for him as the replacement.



There were 191 issues discussed during these meetings. Only about half of the issues discussed were from a meeting’s agenda. Thus, the meetings that occurred in WESCO were very spontaneous in that residents or resident officers raised nearly as many issues during the meeting. It was clear that most of the neighborhood leaders treated the meeting’s agenda as a rough draft only and they were willing to change or abandon it depending on the other issues raised during the meeting. For example, even the Umbrella meetings were generally informal and not tied closely to a specific meeting agenda. Residents or resident leaders often gave impromptu speeches that would take meetings into unexpected directions. We also categorized the issues raised as standing reports, new business, or continuing business that further supports the contention that the meeting agendas were very flexible. The results indicate that approximately 13 percent of the issues raised were standing reports, 30 percent were new business, and 57 percent were continuing business. The high number of issues that fell into the continuing business category reflects the nature of neighborhood decision-making in WESCO and how residents and the police viewed the purpose of the meetings. In general, issues would be raised during meetings and briefly discussed and rarely would much problem

solving occur. Problems often were addressed outside the meetings and a resident, neighborhood leader, or police official when asked to comment about a response to an issue would present the results at another meeting.

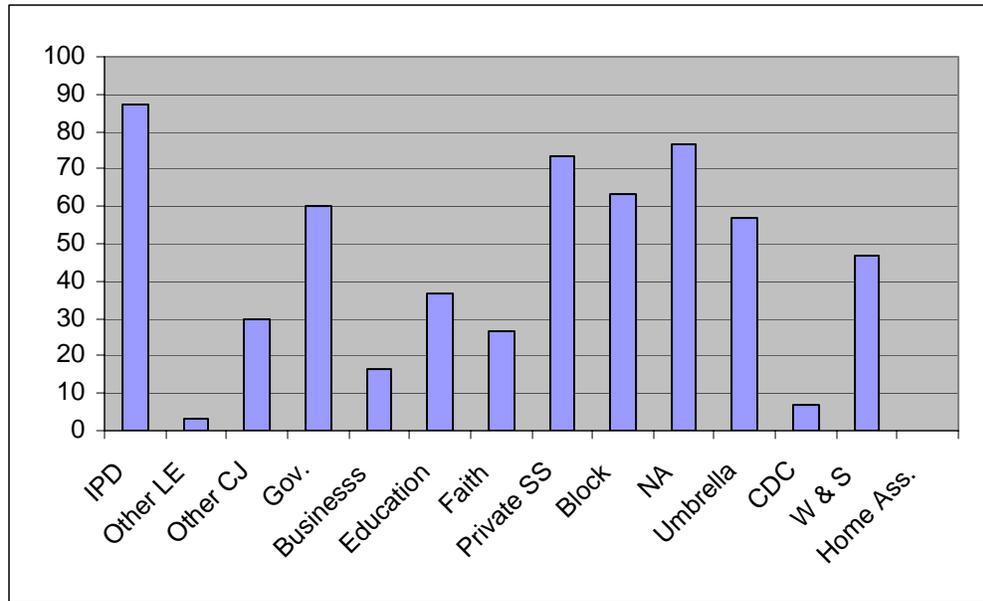
The number of residents in attendance at meetings was small. On average, twelve residents would attend community meetings and eight residents participated in events. Exhibit 5.2 included immediately below plots the average number of residents present at meetings from July '99 until June '00. These data indicate that the number of residents present at the meetings was consistent, although resident participation rose dramatically in March 2000. The newly appointed Deputy Chief attending various community meetings in March caused the momentary increase.



Although the number of residents attending community meetings and events in WESCO was small, there was strong representation of various city and neighborhood organizations. Indeed, the number of organizational representatives usually outnumbered the number of residents in attendance at a meeting. Exhibit 5.3 included immediately below provides information on coordination by examining institutional membership of

individuals attending the meetings. These data indicate that many different types of organizations attend WESCO neighborhood meetings frequently. For example, at least one representative of the Indianapolis Police Department attended nearly ninety percent of the meetings. Other criminal justice officials, usually the community prosecutor, attended about thirty percent of the meetings. Government officials, for example representatives from the Mayor's Office or health officials, attended about sixty percent of the meetings. The frequent participation of private social service agencies in the coordinated efforts of WESCO relates to the heavy involvement of the Christamore House in neighborhood activities. Neighborhood leaders, representing block clubs, neighborhood associations, and the umbrella organizations, are also frequently involved in the coordinated efforts of WESCO. Block clubs had at least one representative at over 60 percent of the meetings, neighborhood associations had at least one representative at 70 percent of the meetings, and the umbrella organization had at least one representative at just fewer than 60 percent of the meetings. A Weed and Seed representative attended approximately 50 percent of the meetings. Although there were a variety of different organizations involved in the coordinated efforts of WESCO, we were surprised to find that tenant associations, homeowner associations, and youth groups did not attend any community meetings.

Exhibit 5.3: Organizational Representation at Community Meetings



Descriptive Data

Before presenting results about changes in the dimensions over time, we wanted to present data that represents the types of issues of concern addressed in the meetings, process-related data, and provide an overview of how police and residents interact in WESCO. To do this, we present some aggregate observation data on two of the community building dimensions: Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space and Steps for Resident Participation.

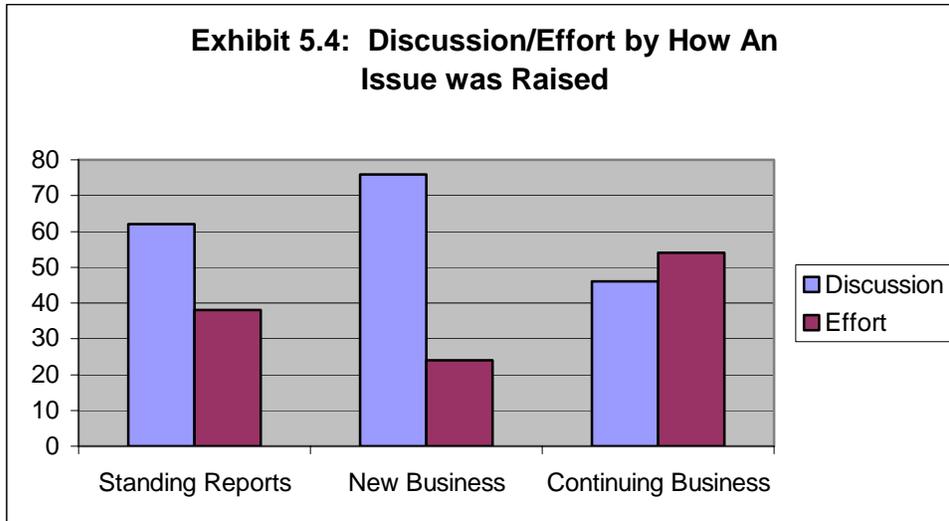
Steps To Improve Neighborhood Space and Participation in WESCO

Nearly seventy percent of the issues discussed at neighborhood meetings in WESCO were concerned with efforts to improve neighborhood space. Of the space issues discussed, 75 percent focused on controlling space abuses and 25 percent focused

on making enhancements in WESCO. It was obvious that residents and resident officers viewed meetings as opportunities to raise new space issues. The results indicate that over 50 percent of the space issues addressed were brought to the meeting as new business. There were three crime and disorder related issues frequently revisited at the meetings we attended. First, not surprising, drugs and drug dealing was a space issue frequently discussed at meetings. For example, IPD presented a standing report on pending drug cases and arrests in WESCO for drugs at almost every Community Policing Task Force meeting and WESCO Umbrella Organization meeting attended. Residents also often alerted the police about a drug “hot spot” that needed police attention during meetings. Conversely, the police often asked residents in attendance for information about drug and crime activity and used the meetings as a way to encourage participation in drug-reduction programs implemented in WESCO. Second, prostitution was another issue frequently discussed at meetings, especially at the Stringtown Neighborhood Association meetings. Residents and the police typically discussed the location of prostitution problem areas, and the police typically responded by conducting prostitution sweeps. Third, illegal dumping and trash concerns were frequently revisited during the study period in WESCO. The discussion about trash and illegal dumping issues usually involved residents making complaints, the police agreeing to step up patrols near a problem area, and a health organization focusing on clean-up.

When a space issue was raised, the process of response generally included discussing and identifying concerns, but not on exerting specific efforts. Discussions about efforts necessary to respond to a space issue occurred only thirty-five percent of the time. There was, however, considerable variation depending on how the issue was raised

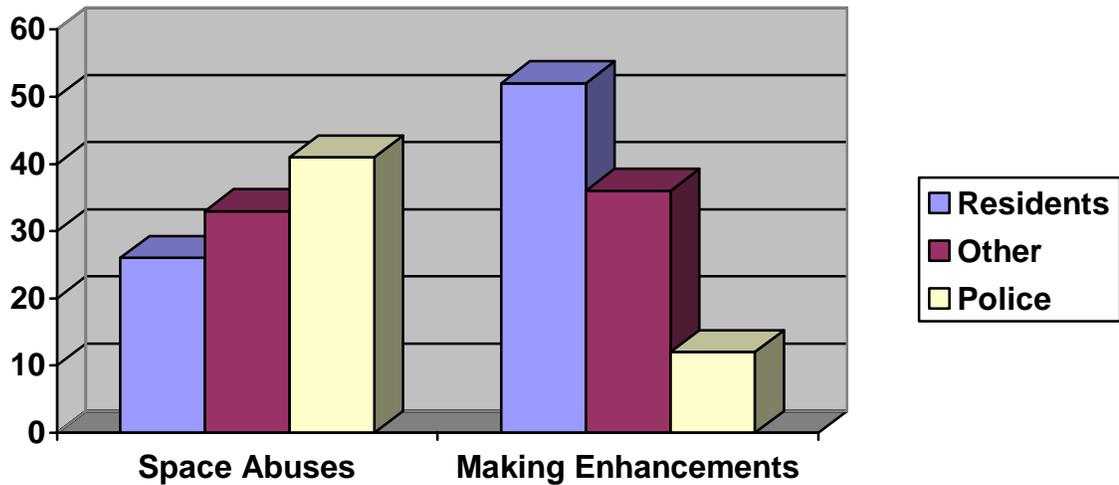
at the meeting. These results are provided in the Exhibit 5.4 below. These data indicate that new improving space issues are only discussed when first raised. Efforts to address these new business space issues are rarely discussed initially. However, when a space issue is revisited at a meeting as continuing business, usually as an agenda item, the meeting focuses on what has been done to address the problem or what needs to be done. These results indicate that there is a general movement in WESCO to respond to space issues with some form of effort, however, such a response can only be captured by documenting processes over time. A good example of the movement of an issue from discussion when it is new business to effort when it is continuing business is response to abandoned cars in one of the neighborhood association areas. A resident at a neighborhood association meeting raised this issue and several other residents echoed the concern. No suggestions were made to address the problem. At a later meeting, resident officers explained to residents that a community policing officer was to be contacted with concerns about abandoned vehicle and the officer would filter the information to the Health Department. When the problem persisted, an official from the Health Department was brought to the meeting to discuss the abandoned vehicle problem and offer suggestions about what additional steps could be taken to respond.



The data collected in WESCO also allows us to examine who participates in raising issues about these space concerns, who makes decisions about what should be done, and who is asked to respond to space concerns. It is interesting that a similar percentage of issues are raised by residents, police, and others (i.e., a category that includes non-volunteer resident organizations and non-municipal police organizations in attendance at meetings). Residents raise thirty-three percent of the space issues, police raise thirty-three percent of the space issues, and other officials raise thirty-four percent of the space issues. In general, police and the organizations represented by the other category raise issues as part of a standing report presentation. In contrast, residents typically brought issues to the meeting as new business.

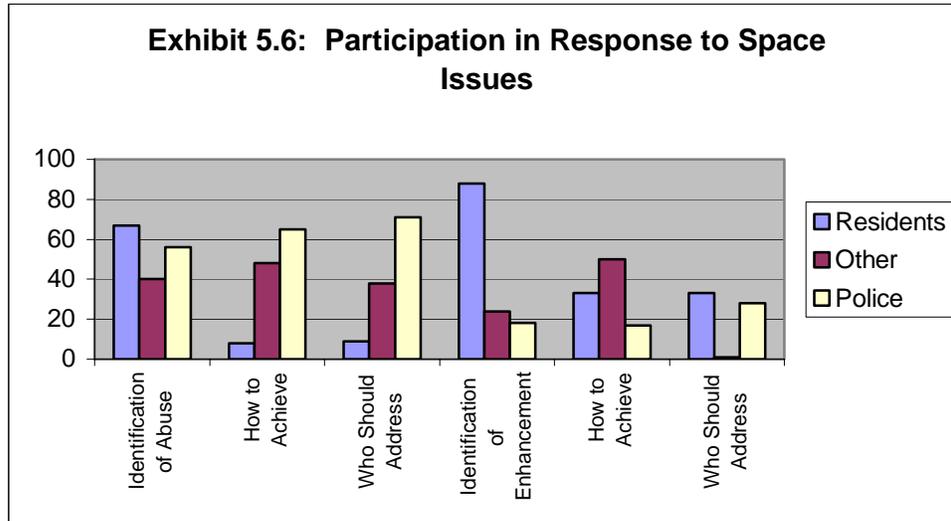
There is also interesting variations regarding who raises space issues when comparing space abuses and enhancement issues. These data are presented below in Exhibit 5.5 indicating the type of improvement issues raised by participants. These data indicate that the police are much more focused on raising issues about space abusers, like responding to drug dealers and prostitutes. Residents, however, are more likely to raise issues focused on the enhancement of neighborhood space.

Exhibit 5.5: Type of Improvement Issues Raised by Participants



This pattern was apparent across all participation decision-points as is demonstrated in Exhibit 5.6. These data indicate that when an abuse issue was discussed at a meeting, the police contributed heavily to identifying the nature of the abuse, but more importantly decided what should be done about the abuse, and who should address the abuse concern. The police, however, were generally absent from enhancement processes and residents participated frequently in the identification of the enhancement, deciding how to respond, and deciding who should address an enhancement concern. It needs to be also noted, however, that the role of the residents in deciding what should be done in response to space issues decreased as the discussion moved from identification of a concern to what should be done and who should be responsible for a response. Moreover, the data also indicates that when residents were expected to have some responsibility in response, they were often told by either the police or other organizations in attendance what their role should be. For example, when residents were assigned responsibility for a task, residents determined what that role would be only 28 percent of

the time. In contrast, when the other organizations or the police were assigned a role, they decided what their role was going to be over 80 percent of the time.



Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space Overtime

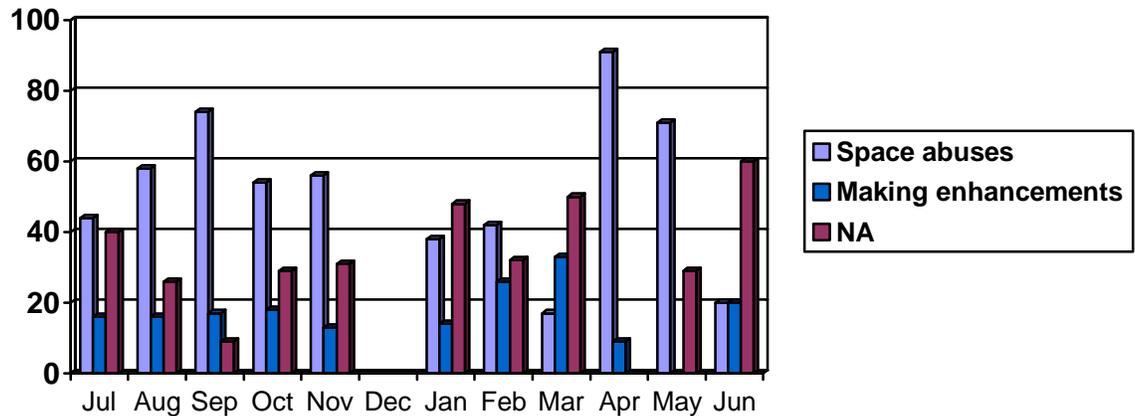
In any particular police-community meeting a number of issues will be raised for observers to identify and record. In the WESCO neighborhoods of Indianapolis, our field observers attended six different meeting forums and recorded an average of seven issues per twenty-eight meetings attended. Field observer attended between 2 and 3 meetings a month, recording an average of 17 issues a month (excluding December, where no meetings occurred), with a monthly high of 28 issues recorded in October (5 meetings) to only 7 issues recorded in May (1 meeting). This section explores the trends in the community building processes of issues recorded in our observations of WESCO police-community meetings that started July 1999 and ended June 2000.

The PCIP data allow us to explore fluctuations in community building processes overtime. This section is focused only on the trends in the “Steps to Improve

Neighborhood Space” occurring in our observations of WESCO police-community meetings. To examine this trend, monthly “issue-averages” were created for the presence and characteristics of the improvement steps that occurred in WESCO throughout that month. In other words, each data table *examines the percentage of the issues* recorded per month that are characterized by a certain improvement step. Thus, certain improvement steps may fluctuate from a high to low percentage of issues addressed during meetings overtime, or remain stable. An explanation of fluctuations or stability will be undertaken.

From July to November 1999, over 40% of the issues raised in police-community meetings in WESCO dealt with *abuses* of neighborhood space (1st bar in Exhibit 5.7 below), with a high of 74% of issues being concerned with spaces abuses in September. Making enhancements to the neighborhood (2nd bar) remained constant from July to November 1999 at less than 20% of issues raised in WESCO. The high percentage of space abuse issues in September appears to be related to a general concern over crime during this month, particularly both resident and police reports of prostitution and drug dealing that were raised during two separate meetings.

Exhibit 5.7: Variation in the Nature of Improvement Issues Overtime: (Across all meetings) (interpreted as the % of issues that deal with either neighborhood space abuses, making neighborhood enhancements, or do not focus on improvement at all)



At the start of 2000 a new pattern emerges in the percentage of abuse versus enhancement issues raised at meetings. Neighborhood space abuse issues make up 40% of issues raised for both January and February, drop to only 17% of issues in March, and then climb to the highest year total of 91% of issues in April. We attribute this declining trend in abuse issues at the beginning of 2000 to two factors. First, it was known that IPD would soon have a new Chief of Police appointed in January or February. Secondly, there was a vacant Neighborhood Resource Officer (NRO) position in WESCO and general police attendance at WESCO meetings declined in the 1st three months of the year. Keep in mind that the local police raised 41% of space abuse issues during our year in the field, more than any other organization or participant.

Given the uncertainty in the future direction of the department and whether police-related abuse issues could be addressed, residents and other organizations did not press for as many issues requiring police responses during this timeframe. In fact, a deep

concern was consistently raised whether IPD would continue their strong ties with the WESCO organization and neighborhood residents under the command of a new IPD Chief and possibly a new Deputy Chief responsible for their district. By April, a new IPD Chief was in place (WESCO's prior Deputy Chief) and WESCO had been introduced to their new Deputy Chief, who stated he would continue to support and work with the neighborhoods. The new Deputy Chief and NRO's attending meetings in April were bombarded by organizational and resident concerns regarding lack of enforcement, the need for results, and the return of prostitution and drug problems to the district. It was business as usual at WESCO police-community meetings again. Thus, police management and officer turnover can certainly influence trends in the nature of improvement issues overtime. Internal police changes are most likely to influence the prevalence of space abuse issues raised in meetings.

Interestingly and perhaps logically, as less neighborhood space abuse issues were raised in early 2000, neighborhood enhancement issues increased from 14% in January to 26% and 33% in February and March. The highest percentage of neighborhood enhancement issues raised during our year in the field occurred in February and March 2000. We attribute this trend to two factors. First, given the void in police-related abuse issues, it is possible there was an effort to fill in community meeting agenda's with issues that didn't need police coordination, such issues are generally enhancement-oriented. Secondly, February and March issues were influenced by new organizations coming to meetings and promoting neighborhood enhancement-oriented agendas.

A decision was made in January that the agenda of the Community Outreach Partnership Center ("COPC" – a joint partnership between IUPUI and the WESCO

Umbrella organization and funded by HUD) would be part of the WESCO Umbrella meeting agenda, a meeting we consistently observed overtime. The primary focus of the COPC program is education and economic development in the WESCO district (e.g. continuing education certificates, tutoring, opening an neighborhood public school), crucial neighborhood enhancement concerns. Numerous members of the faith-based community also started attending WESCO neighborhood meetings during this timeframe. The faith-based organizations were attempting to open a new church in the community, which could have the capacity to house services like child-care, educational programs, and a soup kitchen. Finally, there was consistent feedback at meetings regarding the opening of new library to service WESCO neighborhoods, and the location for a new community development center. These examples provide a perfect illustration of how one community building process variable can influence another. Changes in coordination certainly influenced the nature (abuses vs. enhancements) of improving neighborhood space issues that manifested in community meetings in WESCO. Coordination with new organizations in early 2000 produced more neighborhood enhancement community actions.

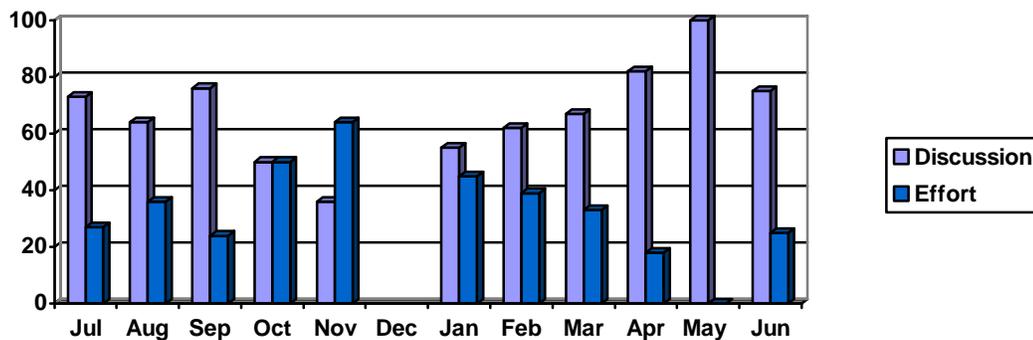
The majority of issues raised at community meetings focus on either neighborhood space abuses or enhancements. An important process concern is whether anything is being done to address the improvement concerns that are consistently raised at police-community meetings. Are police-community meetings just forums for parties to spin their wheels about neighborhood problems and never accomplishing anything? Or are actual improvement efforts occurring in the neighborhood? The next variable examined, type of improvement activity, explores the trend in discussion of

neighborhood improvements versus the actual efforts of neighborhood improvement that are reported at meetings.

The general trend in Exhibit 5.8 below illustrates little action (efforts – 2nd bar) to improve neighborhood space is reported at the meetings we observed in WESCO. There is though a tremendous amount of discussion regarding improvement needs (1st bar).

Yet, some interesting fluctuation patterns do occur. Many of the efforts recorded in October and November were feedback reports on implementation responses to previous meeting discussions. Particularly, a prostitution sting, drug house raids, and implementation of an anonymous tip program were all implementation responses to numerous complaints and discussions at previous meetings. Thus, high periods of consistent discussion about particular improvement issues are likely to be addressed and the implementation & results reported at future meetings.

Exhibit 5.8: Variation in Type of Improvement Activity Overtime: (Across all meetings) (interpreted as the % of improvement issues that are discussion or efforts)

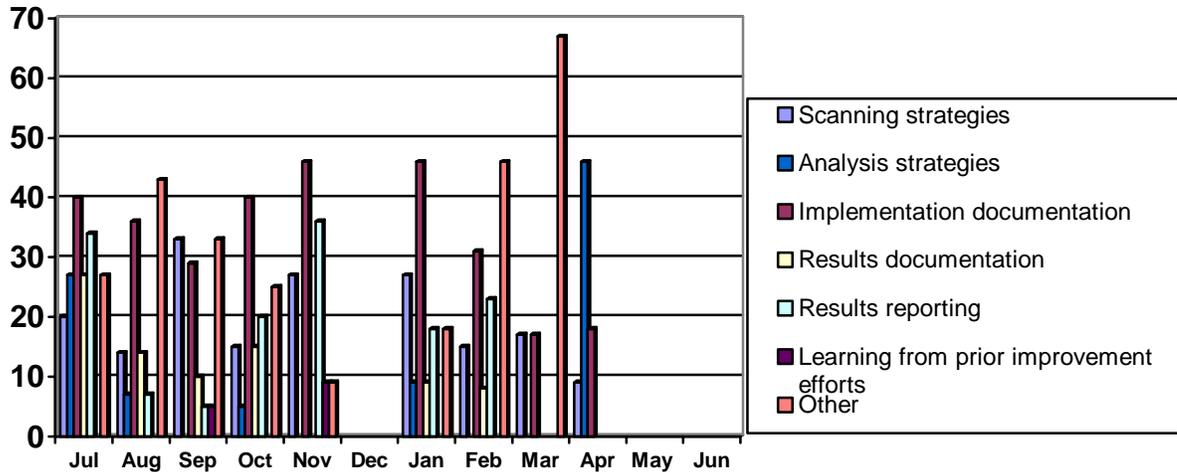


In the year 2000, variation in improvement activity looks negatively correlated - as the percentage of improvement discussion consistently rises, the percentage of improvement efforts consistently falls, ending in no efforts being reported in May. This

trend likely corresponds to the reasoning used to explain the trends in Exhibit 5.7. That is, in early 2000 there was great uncertainty surrounding the role police in WESCO would play. A subsequent reduction in police involvement occurred and there was a reduction in space abuse issues in meeting agenda's. On the other hand, many of the neighborhood enhancement issues that came to the forefront in early 2000 were very ambitious projects and were still in planning stages. In fact, aggregate analyses reveal a greater percentage of abuse issues *are coded as efforts* (38% are efforts compared to 27% of use value issues). Exchange value issues are more likely to be reported as actual efforts because many are "reactive" or simple solutions, and can be easily implemented by the police – a curfew sweep, prostitution sting, extra patrol. Thus, many space abuse efforts require less organizational coordination, external funding, and planning.

Throughout our year in the field the most common problem solving process observed in police-community meetings was implementation documentation (more processes were actually coded as "other", which essentially means a problem solving process was not discernable for that issue). These data are provided below in Exhibit 5.9. During the first seven months of meeting observations, between 30 and 40% of improving space issues involved implementation reports of efforts occurring in the community or discussions regarding the initial planning of future efforts. The reduction pattern of implementation reports given at meetings in the year 2000 corresponds with the overall reduction in improvement issues classified as efforts occurring in the community (see Exhibit 5.8 above).

Exhibit 5.9: Variation in Characteristics of the Improvement Process (Problem-Solving) Overtime: (Across all meetings) (interpreted as the % of improvement issues that involve a particular problem-solving process characteristic)



The raising of improvement issues involving implementation reports was primarily by individuals representing “other” organizations (46%). Police raised 32% of the implementation documentation issues and residents raised 23%. Implementation reports revealed that the police (50%) and other organizations (43%) did the bulk of work on implementing improvement tasks (this data is from the participation variable category “actual work balance” recorded for issues involving an implementation report, where actual work balance was also coded: N = 30). Reported resident involvement occurred in 20% of the improvement implementations. The discovery that police and other organizations are heavily involved in discussing improvement implementations and also do most of the implementation work *is consistent with their control over improvement solutions and division of labor decisions*. One might expect those who make decisions regarding solutions to improve neighborhood space and who carries out solutions, will also provide feedback on their implementation efforts.

The general problem solving trend in Figure 3 illustrates an incomplete application of a problem solving model occurring in the WESCO district. Figure 3 more closely resembles a problem solving process called “laundry meetings” by Skogan et al. (2000: 17). Residents’ air their problems at police-community meetings (“drop off the shirts”), then come back in a month to hear police reports of what they have done (Skogan et al. 2000:17). Thus, in WESCO meetings there was a high level of resident input into identifying problems (see participation section) and a high level of implementation documentation occurring at meetings, but very few issues involve *analysis* of a problem or *attempts to learn* from prior improvement efforts.

Steps for Resident Participation Overtime

Earlier we discussed the number of residents attending meetings over time. If relying solely on the number of residents in attendance as a proxy for understanding participation in a neighborhood, one would interpret these results as supporting the conclusion that there was not significant change over time. Although the attendance of the newly appointed Deputy Chief increased the number of residents in attendance for one month, the data indicate that this change was an aberration. However, measuring the number of residents in attendance at meetings provides an incomplete and unreliable picture of resident participation. Indeed, the data collected from the meetings indicate that resident participation, when measured as the forms and degree of resident involvement and decision-making about the collective interests in a neighborhood, did change over time. We are able to illustrate these changes by presenting participation data for improving space issues over time. We present data on who makes decisions about what improvements are important (goals), who makes decisions about how to achieve

improvements (means), and who should address improvements (division of labor). These data are presented and discussed below.

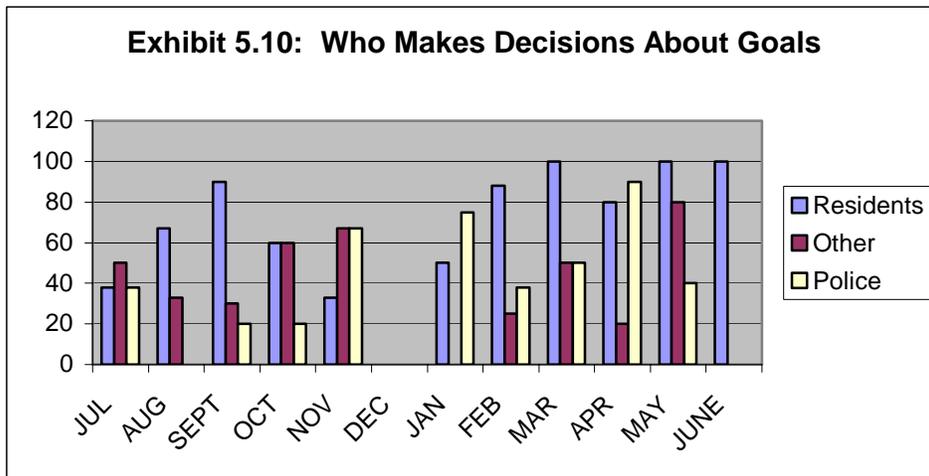
Who makes decisions about what improvements are important over time (Goals).

Exhibit 5.10 provided immediately below illustrates data on who makes decisions about what improvements are important over time. There are several interesting findings.

First, the data show that the residents of WESCO participated frequently in decisions about goals. Although there was some fluctuation regarding how active they were in decisions about goals, residents clearly had a voice in deciding on what should be done about neighborhood space issues. Indeed, residents had input into the decisions about goals in every space issue discussed in March, May, and June. In September of 1999, they had goal input into about ninety percent of the issues discussed. There were a couple of months where residents input into decisions about goals decreased. Residents were involved in making decisions about goals for space and enhancement issues, although such input was somewhat higher with enhancement issues. Space issues were heavily emphasized in WESCO and residents appear to take these issues very personally.

A second finding about this exhibit is that the organizations that are combined as the other category are consistent players in making decisions about goals. There were a few months where these organizational representatives are absent or where their role is minimized, but in general the groups that make up this category participated frequently in decisions about space goals. These results are tied to the central role that a private social service agency plays in defining the issues of concern in WESCO. This organization had a long-term, active presence in the neighborhood concerns of WESCO and obviously had a strong voice in defining issues of concern in WESCO.

Third, the police had some input into the decisions about goals, although such input changed over time. In general, the police were much more active in making decisions about goals during the last six months of the project compared to the first six months. There are two influences that account for these changes. First, as noted earlier, the residents elected to lead WESCO at the end of 1999 were reluctant to take on these leadership positions. The police helped fill this gap in leadership and increase their role in making decisions about goals. Residents were likely to raise issues of concern and contribute to the decisions about goals, but police were also more actively involved in making these decisions as well. Second, one of the strategies police used much more frequently to address problems in the last six months of the project was to bring a representative from an organization to address concerns raised at earlier meetings.



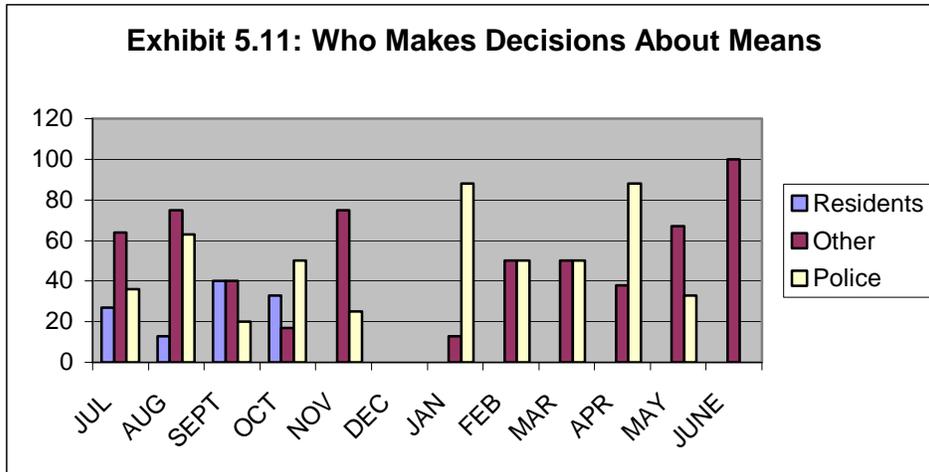
Who makes decisions about how to achieve improvements (Means). A very different picture emerges when considering the data on who makes decisions about means. The data on means is presented below in Exhibit 5.11. These data indicate that residents are

virtually absent from decisions about means. Residents did not give any input in decisions about means from November until the end of the project. These results reflect a pattern we often saw in meetings: residents raise issues and make contributions to goal decisions, but the responsibility for deciding what should be done and who should do it fall to the police or to representatives of other organizations.

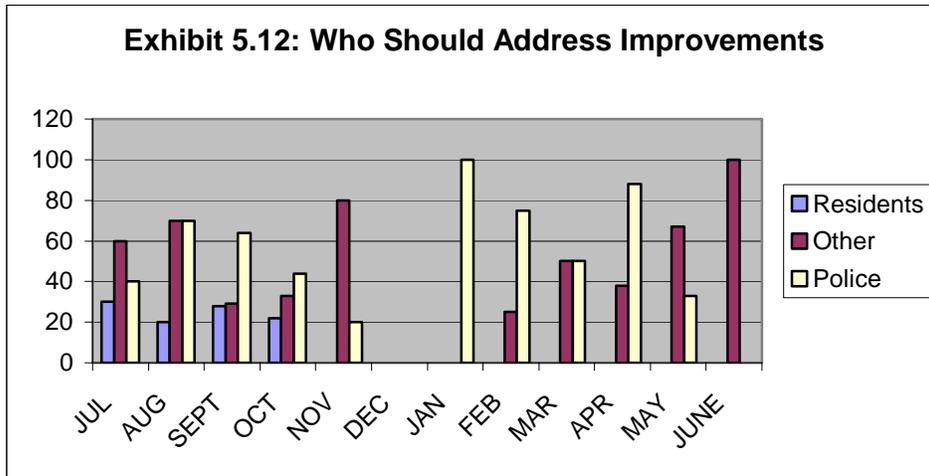
Residents had some input into decisions about means in the first few months of Stage 2 data collection. This pattern of participation can be tied to two different influences. First, in part it reflects the type of meetings being observed during that time period. Residents planned several community events from August to October of 1999 and the meetings provided an opportunity for residents to decide the nature and focus of those events. These events were also enhancement-related issues which were more likely to be owned and of concern to the residents. Second, there was a very interesting dynamic that occurred in the WESCO umbrella meeting in September. It was the first umbrella meeting, and one of the few, where the Hawthorne Neighborhood Association attended. Their attendance was related to a homicide that occurred in their neighborhood. The neighborhood association meeting was well attended and the momentum carried over to the Umbrella meeting. The presence of Hawthorne residents and their concerns about crime generated a discussion between all of the neighborhood association leaders and the police about crime in WESCO and what needs to be done to more effectively respond to it. We asked about issue-oriented participation in our follow-up interviews with residents. They confirmed that resident fluctuation varied depending on the issue being addressed. For example, one of our informants said, “people in our neighborhood tend to be very issue oriented. If there’s a murder or people are upset about something or

somebody is going to come in and build a housing project that they're going to have 100 low income houses, everybody would come to that. We don't have a lot of people that just work in the trenches of those day-to-day bringing services to the neighborhood, working with city administration. They expect the three or four community leaders to do that on their behalf. They just trust us to be their guardians.”

Another interesting pattern shown by the decisions about means chart is the symbiotic involvement of the police and the organizations in the other category making decisions about means. These results are tied to the concerns about abuse issues in WESCO and the police reactive response to address these concerns. The police, and representatives of the other category, often took individual responsibility for responding to an issue. Thus, while the residents may bring up issues, the police or others usually say that they will look into it or handle it. During the first several months of observation, there was more collaboration and participation from a greater number of residents. Later, however, participation levels dropped off and residents did not actively participate to the extent that they had in earlier meetings. The pattern also shows how the police often relied on other organizations to respond to a problem, but did not mobilize residents to participate.



Who should address improvements (Division of Labor). Exhibit 5.12 immediately below presents the results about who should address improvements. The results depicted show a pattern that is identical to the means data. Residents are almost completely missing from discussions on division of labor. Residents participated in division of labor decisions from July through October, but disappeared starting in November. As we mentioned earlier, the new leadership of WESCO was reluctant to move residents to discussions about what needs to be done and take responsibility for responding to an issue. In addition, the police in attendance rarely attempted to mobilize citizens in any systematic way. When police management attended meetings, the chief would encourage residents to participate but there would not be any follow-up with them. When other officers attended, the police would not even make encouragement statements in the meeting. Our follow-up interviews with both police officers and residents attending these meetings indicate that such encouragement steps were much more likely to occur outside the meeting. The police would contact specific individuals or specific groups about what needs to be done and to take responsibility for a specific issue.



The above exhibits and discussion highlight the following conclusions regarding the utility of examining police-community meeting observations overtime.

1) *Community Building Processes Can Exhibit Variation Overtime:*

If one were to only observe select meetings or aggregate all observations to form opinions about police contributions to neighborhood community building, important information necessary for improved critical understanding of how police work with neighborhoods would be hidden. Having to choose observations from one month over another may lead to a misrepresentation of the community building occurring in a neighborhood. The above data for the WESCO district clearly indicate that community building in the later half of 1999 looks very different from the 1st half of 2000. Trend data help raise critical questions about what actually occurred in the neighborhood one is studying or attempting to improve. Trend data also provoke a search for potential explanations of the variation. Understanding trends and what causes variation in police

contributions to community building overtime allows both researchers and practitioners to feedback such information to improve police-community co-production efforts.

2) *Community Building Processes Can be Related to One Another:*

Variation in characteristics of the steps used to improve WESCO neighborhoods were influenced by changes in the measurements of other community building process variables. The trend data illustrates how internal changes in the police department and coordination with new organizations advancing a different neighborhood agenda can influence the targets of neighborhood improvement and the levels of actual effort being reported.

Observation Reliability

Beginning in March of 1999, the PCIP field staff in Indianapolis started initial observations of police-community meetings occurring in the WESCO district of Indianapolis. This was the project's first attempt to measure "real-time" community building processes occurring in the field. Our ultimate goal was to develop a depiction of community building processes occurring in the WESCO district of Indianapolis overtime. Before such a formal record of interaction could be measured, we needed to examine the feasibility of our new observation strategy and the extent to which field observers could agree on what occurred within a police-community meeting.

Field observers had now spent two months learning about variable definitions, doing practice coding of narrative descriptions of police community-interactions, and sitting in on a few police-community meetings. This new "field" stage of the project

faced similar concerns as we had 6 months prior when we started our concept recognition exercises. Could two independent coders in their observations of neighborhood meeting dynamics and dialogue agree on the presence and type of community building processes happening? We initially examined observer agreement in four meetings over four months to refine our observation protocol and mold a shared understanding of the measurement instrument. Even after this initial refinement stage, the project continued to examine Kappa agreement between two observers present at the same meeting throughout the remaining year in the field. The constant re-examination of agreement was especially necessary when we made changes to the observation codebook and hired a new field staff observer.

The Process of Examining Observer Agreement for Community Meetings

Observer agreement on community building processes discovered in police-community meetings was examined for 11 meetings beginning 3/16/99 and ending 3/25/00. Two field staff observers would attend the same meeting and independently take notes and fill out codesheets for the process characteristics of issues they perceived as occurring during the meeting. Exhibit 5.13 immediately following this section presents the agreement results on the existence (column 2) and type (column 3) of community building processes when coders were in agreement about an issue that was presented at a meeting.

Interpretation of Exhibit 5.13

It is important to acknowledge that these Kappa statistics are the aggregate agreement results for all 11 meetings in which two observers were present. During this timeframe one field observer left the project and a new student observer was acquired (new observer agreement was measured at 3 meetings). A variety of codebook changes were also made during this year timeframe. Unfortunately, given the low N's for the Kappa computation (a recommended $N = 20$ for statistical reliability), we cannot quantitatively explore how these changes in field measurement influenced these aggregate Kappa numbers, but we offer interpretations based upon observer feedback.

This table presents Kappa agreement scores for the project's five Community Building Process Variables. These variables and their sub-categories (or types) are listed down the first column. The second column examines observer's ability to agree on the existence of a community building process in the discussion of an issue. Notice that there are no scores in the second column for the variable "Steps for Resident Participation"; this is because participation is constant for every issue presented in a meeting. Meaning, one can always code who participates in an issue, but not every issue will involve one or more of the other 4 community building process variables.

Field observers were quite adept at recognizing police efforts to identify with neighborhoods (.722) and police encouragement of resident efforts (.619). Observers also did a decent job at categorizing the types of identification and encouragement that were occurring (column 3).

Field observers had a difficult time agreeing on the existence of "Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space" (.415), "Resources Discussed" (.282 – not better than chance agreement) and "Resources Provided" (.463) on issues recorded during a meeting.

The Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space variable has consistently been a difficult variable for coders to initially understand. Some observers have a broad notion of what activities and discussions illustrate neighborhood improvement steps, where as other observers are more conservative in their conception of what activities connote improvement of neighborhood space. Overtime, the project has made numerous revisions to this variable's definition, name, sub-categories, and narrative examples. Just when the original field observers had improved upon their shared understanding of when improving space was occurring in a meeting, a new field observer was hired as a replacement. Part of the low agreement can be attributed to inadequate training and practice for the new field observer. When observers agreed that steps were taken to improve neighborhood space, they did a good job of agreeing upon the characteristics of the improvement steps (column 3). We conclude that the agreement problem on Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space is more attributable to observer error and practice, rather than conceptual inadequacies, which have been greatly improved overtime.

The low Kappa agreement for Resources Discussed and Provided on an issue came as a surprise. We have concluded that the measurement of resources per issue is too difficult a task, but can be captured at a more general level of coordination (e.g. listing all the resources mentioned or occurring for an entire meeting, rather than per issue). Paying attention to the existence of all the six resource categories per issue is tedious and unnecessarily redundant. For example, coding the presence of a resource like "information link" or "expertise" every time an invited guest expert or official discusses an issue in a meeting does not make sense, providing a code for their general presence and involvement at a meeting is much more efficient (i.e. you don't lose any important

information).

Recommendations for Future Field Observations of Police-Community Meetings

Training is Key

Observers need to put in many hours learning the variable codebook, attending meetings, and engaging in practice coding. An important component of this training must be “interactive and consensus” coding sessions. Field observers need to understand why they chose one code over another, what others interpreted and perceived as occurring, and why they agreed on the presence of a variable. Examining Kappa agreement scores can pinpoint potential problem sources, but there must be more engaged discussion about observer experiences in applying the observation protocol. Similar consensus coding sessions were used by the Chicago evaluation team to determine final values for their codes.

Consistency in Observers

Obviously, having the same observers working in the field for a long period of time will be advantageous. It takes time and practice to learn the codebook, work on improving coding differences, and develop a shared understanding of the observation protocol. Equally important is becoming situated and comfortable with the observation environment. Police-community meetings can have a routine, which allows observers to learn what is likely to come next in the agenda, or what a particular person is likely to discuss based upon the past agenda or one’s organizational affiliation. We discovered a

vital component to higher agreements is a better understanding of the “participants” in police-community meetings. This is especially helpful in the coding of participation, which requires observers to classify discussants as representing residents, police, or other organizations.

Conclusion

In Phase II, we were able to make significant progress in refining the dimensions by using an observational methodology. We faced several obstacles, including having limited resources for training, turnover in field staff, and difficulties in site selection. Moreover, we struggled with how best to communicate between the two geographically separate sites (Albany-Bloomington). Despite these obstacles, this chapter has demonstrated the considerable success we had measuring the dimensions in a field setting. We were also able to highlight the potential and obstacles for using such a methodological strategy in the future.

Exhibit 5.13: Observation Reliability Table

KAPPA AGREEMENT ACROSS ALL CODERS		
<i>Community Building Process Variables</i>	COLUMN 1 <i>Agreement on the Existence of a Community Building Process Variable in an Issue</i>	COLUMN 2 <i>Agreement on a Type of Community Building Process Characteristic</i>
Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space	.415 (.008) (N = 37)	NA
1- Space Abuse vs. Making Enhancements	NA	.567 (.003) (N = 22)
2- Discussion vs. Effort	NA	.904 (.000) (N = 22)
3- Reactive vs. Problem-Solving	NA	.909 (.000) (N = 22)
4- Formal vs. Informal	NA	.909 (.000) (N = 22)
Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods	.722 (.000) (N = 37)	NA
1- Type of Identification occurring (5 types)	NA	.583 (.024) (N = 15)
Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts	.619 (.000) (N = 37)	NA
1- Type of Encouragement occurring (6 types)	NA	.748 (.000) (N = 36)
2- Mode of Encouragement Message (5 types)	NA	1.000 (.000) (N = 14)
3- Content of Encouragement Message (5 types)	NA	.576 (.031) (N = 14)
Steps for Resident Participation	(participation can be coded on every issue - unlike improvement, identity and encouragement, which may not occur on every issue)	
Who Raised the Issue? (P8)	NA	.793 (.000) (N = 152)
Issue Type (goal, means, division of labor) (I5)	NA	.412 (.000) (N = 117)
Who Discussed the Issue? (P9)	NA	.512 (.000) (N = 260)
Balance of Issue Discussion? (P10)	NA	.492 (.000)

		(N = 297)
Who was involved in Decision-Making about Issue? (P11)	NA	.443 (.000) (N = 236)
Balance of Issue Decision-Making (P12)	NA	.457 (.000) (N = 262)
Assigned Responsibility Balance (P13)	NA	.440 (N = 73)
Actual Work Balance (P14)	NA	1.00 (.000) (N = 84)
Steps for Coordinating Organizations	Steps for Coordinating Organizations	Steps for Coordinating Organizations
Resources Discussed	.282 (.066) (N= 37) not sig. Kappa.	.462 (.147) (N = 7) not sig. Kappa
Resources Provided	.463 (.013) (N= 29)	.588 (.088) (N = 7) not sig. Kappa

* No measure of association computed. At least one variables was constant.

CHAPTER SIX

PHASE III: THE CASE STUDY PROTOCOL

Development of the Case Study Protocol

Introduction

Much of what we know about community policing comes from case studies of community policing in various cities. These case studies are diverse in their goals, design, length, and richness of detail. Collectively, they provide much needed information about the stated purposes of community policing in particular places, strategic and structural components of community policing, implementation process and obstacles, and, occasionally, results (for recent reviews of these studies, see Kurki 2000 and Kerley and Benson 2000).

In social science generally, case studies have been used for two broad purposes. First, they are often used to explore and describe phenomena, or to provide sufficient evidence to pose concepts and possible relationships. Early in the project, our case study applications were consistent with this more common and more often recommended use of case studies in the identification of concepts, the development of measures, and the construction of research design. To date, we have employed case study information for developing concepts and measures in four distinct ways.

They assisted in our conceptual process, particularly with content validity. They also assisted greatly with indicator development. Numerous case studies provided excellent examples of specific behaviors within the five interaction dimensions. As we sorted and compared these examples, the more frequent and distinct patterns were assumed to be good indicators of police behavior of the type we wished to measure. The

case studies also were used in forming our initial ideas about variable values. They assisted in developing ideas about differences in degree.

Lastly, the case studies were useful in developing our sampling strategy for our fieldwork. They provided cues about four puzzling sampling questions.

- What types of neighborhoods should be selected for measurement?
- Where in these neighborhoods would the different interactions likely to be found?
- How often should the measures of different interactions be taken?
- What different data sources should be used to derive valid measures?

Case studies can also be used, with less frequency and effectiveness, in measuring concepts and testing relationships. While the second use is less recommended than the first, case studies can be employed in this way, especially when the phenomena of interest are very complex, difficult to separate from context and difficult or impossible to manipulate (Miller 1991; Yin 1989). Community policing would appear to be one area where the second use of case studies may have potential, and therefore, where the limits of that application should be carefully explored. When the inductive, exploratory phases of research are productive, theories may be more formally stated and hypotheses deduced and tested. As this process evolves, case study methods may be replaced by more narrowly focused and precise measurement techniques, and greater attention will be paid to sampling and estimation of population values. Research moves from formulating theory to testing and revising theory (Blalock 1969).

Community policing research is emerging from the exploratory and developmental stage. More systematic and structured inquiry is underway. Concepts are being measured with greater exactitude (e.g., Duffee, Renauer, Fluellen, and Scott 1999; Maguire and

Mastrofski 2000; Roth and Ryan 1999; Zhao, Lovrich, and Thurman 1999) and relationships are being posed and tested in modest ways (Hickman, Piquero, and Greene 2000; Kerley and Benson 2000; Lovig and Skogan 1995; Skogan, Hartnett, DuBois, Comey, Kaiser, and Lovig 1999; Travis, Novak, Winston, and Hurley 2000).

In this transition stage of community policing research, it is worthwhile to assess the continuing value of the case study method, and of case study results, in advancing scientific knowledge of community policing. While most researchers are familiar with the general process of induction-deduction-revision and with the general strengths and weaknesses of case study methods, there are few empirical examinations of the merits of case study data for taking measures and examining relationships. This represents one of the main reasons we are examining case studies. We seek to explore what aspects of police-community co-production can be measured most accurately and reliably.

There are five broad issues or problems in community policing research that make this use of case studies attractive. First is the feasibility of alternatives. As mentioned above, complex phenomena that are difficult to isolate or extract from their natural environments require reliance on case study methods or on very complex measures of multiple, clustered variables in numerous sites. As examples of the second approach, both the Project on Human Development in Chicago Neighborhoods (e.g. Sampson, Raudenbush and Earls 1997) and the evaluation of community policing in Chicago (Knutson and Skogan 1998; Skogan and Harnett 1997) suggest the scale of data gathering necessary to examine clustered data within one city. Since many theoretical questions regarding community policing would entail similar within-city detail for a large number of cities, such an exacting approach may not be feasible. Case study data may therefore

be of continuing interest in asking how city differences affect neighborhood differences in co-production activities.

The second issue concerns the plausibility of causal connections in quantitative research. Survey methods that permit taking community policing measures in a large and representative sample of cities are now being employed (Mastrofski 1998; Roth and Ryan 1999, Weisburd and Greenspan 1998). Nevertheless, we may wish to use available or new case studies to validate and enrich some of the explanatory relationships visible in survey findings. In other words, we may want to merge case study process detail and survey data sets to provide explanations of the linkage process posed in the surveys and to serve as a guide for reformulation of theory on the basis of unexpected findings (Miller 1991).

The third issue is the great cost sunk in existing case studies. It is reasonable to ask whether a greater percentage of that cost can be recouped through the reuse of case study data to advance theoretical knowledge. Can data from at least some of these cases be combined to examine relationships among variables in secondary cross-case analysis and possibly meta-analyses (Duffee, Fluellen, and Renauer 1999)?

The fourth problem is the need to present a credible case for investing in the high cost of structured measurement and longitudinal designs. Given the nature of police-community interaction activity, measures of most of these exchanges cannot be obtained from routinely produced agency data. Commitment from police and residents to the measurement process will likely be required. Police and neighborhood activists are both quite busy. In order to convince them to participate in generating data about how they interact, it would be useful to demonstrate to them the linkage between how they work

together and the problems they solve or objectives they accomplish. That is, we need to show that this process data has potential payoff for accomplishing practitioner goals (Friedman 1998). If we can use case study data to demonstrate such linkages, the credibility of new data collection efforts increases.

A fifth reason to examine case study data in this way is less specific but perhaps more important. Case studies often have a long self-life. In criminal justice, the classics are often case studies. *Justice Without Trial* (Skolnick 1967), *Varieties of Police Behavior* (Wilson 1968), *Criminal Justice* (Blumberg 1967), *Plea Bargaining* (Heumann 1977), *Society of Captives* (Sykes 1958), *The Prison Community* (Clemmer 1958), to name just a few, are some of the more resilient studies of criminal justice behavior. Similarly, it is likely that some of the case studies of community policing will have greater intellectual longevity than the quantitative, theory testing research that will follow. Therefore, it is important to ask of these case studies whether they can be used to make statements about “what community policing is like.” Are they useful in determining how community policing is implemented? Are they useful in connecting the knowledge of “what it is like” to “what it does?” While we often know that we are overgeneralizing when we use case studies in this way, we often do it anyway, with some words of caution. Which of these generalizations are safest? When should we take the cautions most seriously?

What are the hazards of using available case studies to make statements about the co-production aspects of community policing? Can these problems be overcome by extracting similar information systematically from case reports? Can we specify characteristics of case studies that make this process more or less possible? Or, are the statements we can make about police interaction with neighborhoods from these sources

so variable and idiosyncratic of the study or of the judgments entailed that this use of case studies should be eschewed? These are some of the questions we sought to answer through the development and implementation of the case study protocol instrument.

While we invested effort into evaluating the most appropriate uses of case studies for measurement and theory testing, our original interest in the collection and analysis of case studies was guided by a much more basic need. During the second phase of PCIP, we had spent a great deal of time developing and refining our field observation measures. This effort had allowed us to capture a variety of police-community interactions over an extended period of time. However, given the time and energy that we were devoting to this, we were concerned that these measures of community building processes could be observed in other cities. It was important to us that we ascertain the generalizability of our interaction concepts, or to determine that the interaction processes that we observed in Indianapolis could also be found in other cities.

Research Design

The goal of this research design was twofold. First, we had to determine if the measures of the police community interactions, as developed in our field site, could be deployed to derive values for these interactions in other cities in which case studies had been completed. Second, we needed a method to test the reliability and validity of assessments of police-community interaction that are contained within case studies. In order to do this, we had to devise an instrument that would guide readers of case study reports to the relevant material on police community interactions and provide a means of assigning values to interaction data. Once we had done this we had to determine the

characteristics of case studies that would make them eligible for this measurement application. Finally, we had to determine a means of assessing whether case study reports provided an accurate and complete record of the police-community interactions that occurred in that case.

We began by constructing a “case study protocol.” The protocol was based on prior content analyses of cases (see Chapter 4) and an observation protocol developed during the fieldwork phase of PCIP (see Chapter 5). The case study protocol used in this analysis is 40 pages in length. It contains detailed definitions of key concepts, instructions for completing items, and questions that ask case study coders to enter roughly 940 specific variable codes, based on their reading of case study reports (see Appendix D). The protocol questions were designed to measure a variety of specific variables within each of the five dimensions of police-community interaction. We discuss the specific content of these variables in the next section. Within each dimension, we were interested in three broad categories of interaction variables. These categories require varying degrees of specificity in interaction data, and demanded of the case study researchers and coders varying levels of judgment. These *interaction types* are defined below.

Presence/absence measures. Some questions simply asked about the presence or absence in an area of a type of interaction. We assumed that this kind of data would be the most often recorded in the studies and the easiest to code.

Dispersion/concentration measures. Some questions asked how dispersed or concentrated an interaction was within an area. Dispersion can occur across people (how

representative of the area population was a group?). It could also occur across space (what portion of the space in an area received this kind of attention?). It could also occur across organizations (what proportion of organizational types were included in a network?) And finally, it could occur across community issues or functions (how narrow or broad in scope were the issues that received attention?) Such questions required the study to contain information about how comprehensive, representative, or expansive the interaction was, or which groups, spaces, and issues were ignored. We assumed that dispersion information would be less often available than presence/absence and would require more difficult decisions from coders based on what was implied in the case study descriptions.

Fluctuation measures. Some questions asked what amount of an interaction occurred. Was the level of interaction low, medium or high? Other questions asked whether the interaction level varied over time in the area. We assumed this information would be the least often available, in part because no accepted standards of level now exist (we will return to this problem below, in the analysis section). In addition, questions about fluctuation in level required researchers to report about the development of interactions over time and to do so in such a way that coders could recognize the developmental pattern.

To select cases for using the protocol, we sorted through roughly 30 separate case studies of community policing reported between 1982 and 1997. Since we needed cooperation of the original researchers in the cases, for reasons described below, we selected cases that were relatively recent, and fairly fresh in the researchers' experience. We also selected case studies in which the focus on police-community co-production

processes was in important, if not the sole, interest of the researchers. Since we wished, eventually, to make comparisons across cases, and to take measures of fluctuation in interaction over time, we also sought case studies that included the inception of the community policing initiative in an area and had tracked the interaction for more than a year. In this way, we hoped to be able to standardize in a rough but meaningful way the evolution of interaction from beginning to middle to end periods of the studies. Finally, we selected only cases in which the case study unit of analysis was interactions at the neighborhood level. Insisting that the case studies had a similar unit of analysis was the most important criterion, because it is theoretically driven. We wanted cases that described police community interaction in roughly equivalent sub-city areas. As Hunter (1985) argues, the most appropriate level at which to examine co-production of social order is at the intersection of the state and the neighborhood. Informal, neighborhood control occurs through the voluntary collective efforts of neighbors, facing similar control problems with commitments to the same place. We want to know how police intersect with this voluntary, neighborhood effort.

These criteria resulted in the selection of eight cases from evaluations conducted in three cities. These cases are listed below.

- ◆ Spokane, two cases: Project ROAR, West Central NRO project
(Giacomazzi, McGarrell, and Thurman 1995; Thurman and Bogen 1993)
- ◆ Seattle, one case: South Seattle Precinct
(Fleissner, Fedan, Stotland, and Klinger 1991; Lyons 1999)
- ◆ Chicago, five cases: (Rogers Park, Morgan Park, Englewood, Marquette, Austin)
(DuBois 1995; Skogan and Hartnett 1997; Whelan 1995)

The final selection of case studies left us with a written record of a community policing implementation in five Chicago Prototype Districts, two neighborhoods in

Spokane, and one in south Seattle. The overarching goal guiding the design of this study was to compare empirically what could be known about the interactions between the police and neighborhoods from the written case study record with that which could be obtained from first hand knowledge. In order to accomplish this goal, we sought four people to complete the protocol for each of the case studies; two evaluators with first hand, deep knowledge of the case and two coders who would fill out the protocol using only the written record of the case study.

The coders consisted of graduate students who had previously completed one graduate level course in community intervention. Each coder received six hours of training about the project and about the dimensions and variables in the protocol. In training, coders also received examples from other case studies of the kinds of material they should look for within the written records and the kinds of judgments they were being asked to make. However, no practice sessions or trial coding was provided for in the training. Evaluators consisted of individuals who had served in some research capacity for their respective case studies and who had contributed to the written record that our coders were using to complete the protocol. Evaluators received a detailed letter about the project, a first year PCIP report, a detailed letter about the purpose of the coding and design of the study, and the protocol for the case or cases, which they had studied. We assumed that these evaluators were very familiar with community policing research and deeply knowledgeable about their own study and its police department. We did not provide them with training in the use of the protocol.

Before turning our attention to the data that the case study protocol produced and a discussion of the reliability and validity of these measures, we briefly review how each

of the dimensions of police-community interaction defined by PCIP were measured in the case study protocol.

Case Study Measures of Police-Community Interaction

The field observation codebook provides the opportunity to assess these community building interactions on a meeting and issue basis. In the case study protocol we ask evaluators and coders to record the levels of these interactions throughout the course of a community policing implementation. As we mentioned above, some of these questions ask about the simple presence or absence of an interaction. Other questions ask about how dispersed or concentrated these interactions were throughout the study neighborhood. Finally, at times, evaluators and coders were asked to assess the development of these interactions over the course of the entire study period. We have referred to these assessments as fluctuation measures. We collected information on each of these categories of variables across all five of our interaction dimensions. Below we describe the variables contained within each of the dimensions in more detail.

Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods

Information on the presence, dispersion/concentration, and fluctuation of the following interactions was collected in the case study.

- Physical decentralization evidenced by district stations, storefront stations, etc.
- Permanent assignment of officers to beats.
- Alignment of patrol beats to coincide with the physical boundaries of neighborhoods.
- Collection of data by a crime analysis unit.
- Police foot patrol.
- Police bike patrol.
- Regularly scheduled meetings between police and residents.

Steps to Improve Neighborhoods

Information on the presence, dispersion/concentration, and fluctuation of the following interactions was collected in the case study.

- The types of issues addressed by improvement plans.
- Distinctions made by the police between reactive solutions and problem solving solutions.
- Training on problem solving made available to the police.
- Resident involvement in problem solving.

Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts

Information on the presence, dispersion/concentration, and fluctuation of the following interactions was collected in the case study.

- Police share information about crimes and problems in the neighborhood to residents.
- Police promote a message encouraging residents to interact and collaborate with one another.
- Police suggest specific things that residents can do to improve their neighborhood.
- The types of media or outlets for these encouragement messages.
- Direct attempts by the police to recruit additional residents to work on a problem solving effort in the neighborhood.
- The characteristics of residents who were not involved in the problem solving activities of the neighborhood.
- Attempts made by the police to help residents design or form a new resident-based organization.
- Training provided by the police to residents so they could work to improve the neighborhood.
- Police provide resources to aid resident efforts.

Steps for Resident Participation

Information on the presence, dispersion/concentration, and fluctuation of the following interactions was collected in the case study.

- Avenues provided by the police so residents can help identify problems.
- What types of residents were excluded from providing input into the identification of problems.
- Level of resident input into identifying neighborhood problems.
- Avenues provided by the police so residents can help identify potential solutions to neighborhood problems.

- What types of residents are excluded from providing input into the identification of solutions to neighborhood problems.
- Level of resident input into identifying solutions to neighborhood problems.
- The type of problems that residents had a role in developing a solution to.
- The balance between police and resident involvement in problem solving activities.
- The amount of effort that police and residents contributed to community meetings.
- The level of resident commitment to future actions after meeting with the police.

Steps in Coordination of Organizations

Information on the presence, dispersion/concentration, and fluctuation of the following interactions was collected in the case study.

- Police coordinated with
 - Other Law Enforcement Agencies
 - Other Criminal Justice Agencies
 - Government Departments and Services
 - Private Business, Chamber of Commerce, BIDs
 - Schools and/or Training Organizations
 - Churches and/or Faith Community
 - Social Service, Health, or Treatment Agencies
 - Research Organizations
- Police received training on coordinating with other agencies.
- Police received training on making referrals to other agencies.

The table on the next page, Exhibit 6.1, offers some examples of the types of data that were collected within each of these variable/dimension categories.

Exhibit 6.1

Examples of Case Study Protocol Questions For Each Type of Interaction for Each Dimension

Interaction Dimension	Presence/Absence	Dispersion	Fluctuation
Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods	Indicate the kinds or police facilities present in ____ district (district station, mini-station, store front, other (physical decentralization example)	Was this facility designed to serve all residents in district? In specific neighborhoods? In specific blocks?	Did this facility open before, at the beginning, the middle, or the end of the case study period?
Steps to Improve Neighborhoods	Indicate the issues for this area that the police addressed during the case study time frame (drugs, gangs, personal crime, property crime, target hardening, general crime conditions, physical decay, social disorder, economic development, parking and traffic, public services, other)	Were the actions taken about ____ issue aimed at entire area, specific beat, specific blocks, specific places?	During the case study time frame, did the level of attention to planning these activities change (indicate high, medium or low for beginning, middle, and end time periods)?
Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts	Did police directly recruit residents of ____ area through: informal contacts on street during meetings other (recruitment example)	Did police recruitment efforts succeed in obtaining representation of all residents in the area? If not, what groups were left out (by gender, race, age, class, other)?	Did police attention to recruitment change over the case study period?
Steps for Resident Participation	Did residents identify issues or problems as they saw them through: drop-in at station? non-emergency calls? informal contacts? surveys? meetings? (identifying issues example)	In obtaining input about issues did police respond differently to people they identify as leaders than to general residents in the area?	Graph the level of resident input into determination of issues for four case study time periods.
Steps in Coordination of Organizations	During the study period, did the police meet with (8 different types) of organizations about issues in ____ area?	Which types of organizations were not involved? Were residents involved in the coordination?	Did the frequency of contact with ____ type change over the study period?

Overview of the Data: Establishing the Generalizability of Interactions

We mentioned above that the original purpose of this case study analysis was to examine the extent to which the interactions that we had been observing in Indianapolis were generalizable to other populations. In other words, we were attempting to demonstrate the presence and variability in these co-productions processes in other cities. We believed that if these interactions were not unique to Indianapolis, case study evaluators would be able to recognize and report some variation in these community building processes in their respective cities. This section of the chapter attempts to address this issue by presenting some data from the case study analysis. In addition, in the next section we discuss the content validity of these measures by reviewing evaluator comments to the case study protocol.

The tables presented below offer a brief overview of some of the data we were able to capture with the case study protocol. We display these data to suggest the potential that community policing case studies represent for understanding these interactions and to demonstrate the presence of these interaction variables in other cities. These tables reflect the data reported by case study evaluators, not the case study coders. We chose to focus on the information provided by evaluators because we believe that first hand knowledge is more instructive for the purpose of demonstrating generalizability. First, we illustrate the nature of these interactions within a sample of the cases. These tables demonstrate that the nature of police-community interaction in other cities appear consistent with our definition and measurement of these processes in Indianapolis. Second, we illustrate the potential for comparing these interactions across

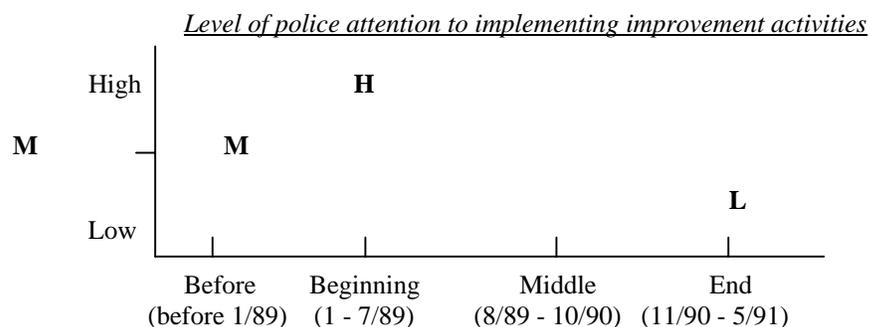
cases. These tables demonstrate that there is variability in police-community interaction across research sites.

Within-Case Data Depiction

Steps to Improve Neighborhoods

The case study protocol contains a number of items that measure police-community interactions designed to improve the neighborhood, either through enhancements or by enforcing laws protecting the neighborhood against various abuses. One way the police and residents can work to improve the neighborhood is through the implementation of activities designed to improve the neighborhood. The number of improvement activities that are actually occurring or the attention placed on implementing these activities can vary over time. The graph below, Exhibit 6.2, depicts the implementation of these improvement activities in one of the case studies.

Exhibit 6.2



This graph, taken from one of our case study protocols completed by a site evaluator, suggests that there is some fluctuation in improvement activities over time.

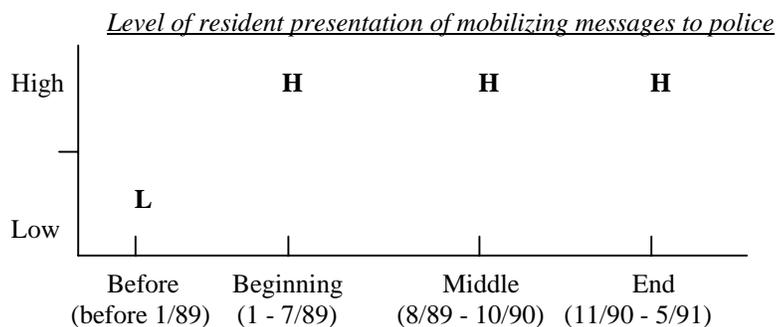
This is consistent with our observation of these interactions in Indianapolis, which

demonstrated that both discussion and implementation of improvement activities varies over time.

Steps to Encourage Resident Effort

In the case study protocol we assessed not only police attempts to encourage resident effort, we also measured attempts that residents make to encourage the participation and involvement of the police. Residents may advise the police that they should be sharing information with the community about crime or other issues, that the police should be getting to know other residents and their common interests, or that the police should be doing things to improve the neighborhoods with neighborhood groups or individually. In other words, the level and forms of police-community interaction in a neighborhood may be initiated by the encouragement messages the residents present to the police. Exhibit 6.3 depicts the development of these messages recorded by one case study evaluator.

Exhibit 6.3



The evaluator who completed the graph that is presented above also made some comments in the margin. The comments read, “The abduction of two young females in 1991 made for a highly charged and ambitious citizen’s group in (neighborhood) who, once organized, were persistent for police resources”. These data illustrate the rather

episodic nature of some police-community interactions. They also suggest, as we discuss in Chapter Seven, that there is some evidence that residents can motivate the police to engage in various forms of co-production.

Steps for Resident Participation

Our observations of meetings in Indianapolis suggested that there were differences between the level of input police and residents had into identifying issues and problems in the neighborhood and that these differences varied over time. The graphs below, Exhibit 6.4 and Exhibit 6.5, present some evidence from the case study data that these patterns can be observed elsewhere.

Exhibit 6.4

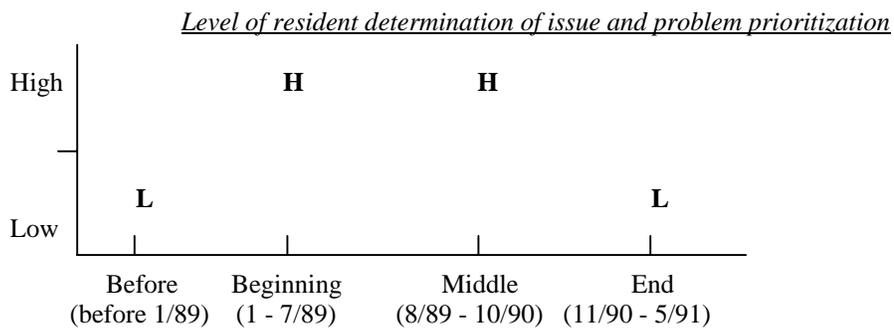
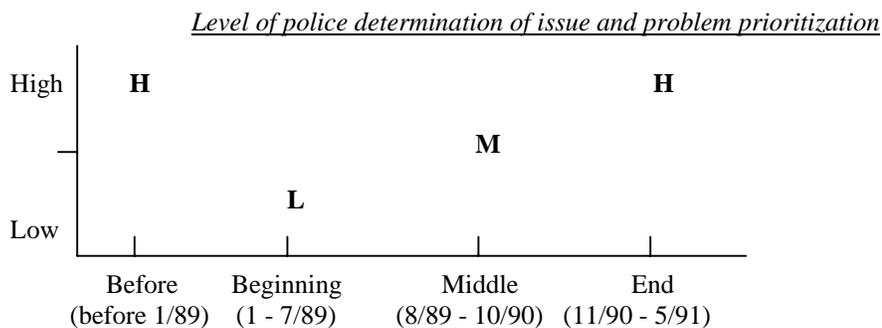


Exhibit 6.5



The graphs above illustrate how the case study protocol allows us to depict the balance between police and residents in determining issues and problems over time. We have argued that it is important to measure the extent to which co-production involves contributions from police and residents that are balanced and compliment one another. These interactions suggest that, in this city, police and residents trade the responsibility of determining what neighborhood problems to address. Throughout the study timeframe there were no instances in which the police and residents had an equal role in identifying the issues that should be addressed.

Across-Case Data Depiction

At the beginning of this chapter we mentioned that case studies have the potential to provide a rich source of data that could be used for theory development and testing. Such an inquiry would seek to examine the relationship between interaction variables contained within a single case study over time. In addition, theory development and testing could also benefit from an examination of these community building concepts across a sample of cases. The patterns that emerge from combining case studies could prove to be extremely valuable in an attempt to better understand the nature of police-community interaction. In the two tables below we attempt to illustrate this potential by demonstrating what these data look like when multiple case studies are compared over several different variables. We do not present these data to make any final definitive statement about the relationship between these variables. We believe more data should be collected before such a determination. However, we do think these tables illustrate the potential for this type of examination.

In the first table, Exhibit 6.6, we examine three concepts that appear to distinguish police-community interaction across these eight case studies. These interaction variables include the variety of issues that are addressed by police and residents, the distribution of mobilization or encouragement messages, and the extent to which residents are involved with the police in problem solving activities.

Exhibit 6.6: Improvement and Encouragement Steps Across Case Studies

CASE STUDY	VARIETY OF ISSUES	ENCOURAGEMENT TARGETS	PROBLEM SOLVING WITH RESIDENT INVOLVEMENT
	Narrow (one or two single issues) OR Broad (multiple issues)	Narrow (Active residents and select area.) OR Broad (Active as well as non-active residents and targeted throughout the entire neighborhood.)	
Spokane – ROAR	BROAD	BROAD	YES
Spokane – NRO	BROAD	BROAD	YES
Chicago – Englewood	NARROW	NARROW	NO
Chicago – Rogers Park	BROAD	BROAD	YES
Chicago – Morgan Park	NARROW	BROAD	NO
Chicago – Marquette	NARROW	NARROW	NO
Chicago – Austin	BROAD	NARROW	NO
Seattle – South Seattle	BROAD	NARROW	YES

These data suggest that there may be a relationship between resident involvement in problem solving, how encouragement messages are targeted throughout the neighborhood, and the variety of issues that are addressed. When residents are involved in problem solving there appears to be a more broad approach to the issues that are addressed and more residents in the neighborhood are encouraged to participate. This may suggest that when residents are involved in problem solving they input into neighborhood problems that would otherwise not be recognized or addressed.

The next table, Exhibit 6.7, presents data on three variables. We examine the presence of resident involvement in problem solving in relation to two encouragement activities that the police may rely on, providing training, and suggesting specific tactics.

Exhibit 6.7: Problem Solving and Encouragement Activities Across Case Studies

CASE STUDY	Problem solving w/ residents involved	Suggest tactics that residents should use.	Provide training for residents to use.
Spokane – ROAR	YES	NO	YES
Spokane – NRO	YES	NO	YES
Chicago – Englewood	NO	YES	NO
Seattle – South Seattle	YES	YES	NO
Chicago – Rogers Park	YES	YES	NO
Chicago – Morgan Park	NO	YES	NO
Chicago – Marquette	NO	YES	NO
Chicago – Austin	NO	YES	NO

These data suggest that there may be a relationship between training provided to residents and whether the police suggest specific tactics residents can use to address neighborhood problems. The only two neighborhoods where the police did not suggest specific tactics were also the two neighborhoods where residents were offered training. Resident involvement in problem solving appears to be equally distributed across these other two variables. We should reiterate that these tables are presented for illustrative purposes. It is important to note that eventually there was citywide training provided to residents in the Chicago cases but this occurred after the conclusion of the study time period.

In conclusion, these graphs and tables demonstrate that a systematic examination of case studies can provide data that can be used to examine relationships between variables and develop and refine theory. We mentioned earlier that it would be helpful to have some information on the reliability and validity of these community policing case

studies before they were used for this purpose. In the next section we provide a brief overview of our attempt to examine the reliability and validity of these case study measures.

Reliability and Validity of the Case Study Protocol

The research design described earlier permitted us to examine both the reliability and the validity of these case study measures. First, by comparing the levels of agreement between two independent coders of written case study documents we can gauge the reliability of our instrument. Higher levels of agreement would indicate higher levels of reliability. Second, by collecting data from coders and evaluators we can assess the validity of our instrument. We viewed the agreement between coder and evaluator as a reasonable, if modest, measure of validity of coder decisions. If our coders, presumably individuals with little prior knowledge of the cases, agree with evaluators, presumably individuals with extensive knowledge of the case, we believe we have demonstrated some level of validity. We briefly discuss the results from this analysis below before concluding with a discussion of content validity and the generalizability of these police-community interactions.

Reliability

In the first section of this chapter we described the variables that are measured in the case study protocol. When we examined reliability we were interested in the reliability of the measures by the interaction dimension as well as by the variable category (presence, dispersion, and fluctuation). This allowed us to assess various levels

of reliability relative to the type of interactions being described as well as the specificity with which we were asking coders to measure them. The table on the next page, Exhibit 6.8, presents the agreement percentages between our case study coders for each of the variable categories within each interaction dimension.

This table suggests that the case study protocol instrument produced the most reliable measures of the Identification and the Improvement dimension. The overall reliability within the other dimensions was acceptable but not as high as these first two dimensions. This table also illustrates that the reliability within dimensions varied by the variable type. Consistently, our coders had higher levels of agreement on the items measuring the presence/absence of interactions or the dispersion of interactions compared to those items asking them to rate the fluctuation/development of these interactions over time. The low levels of agreement may be due to our failure to provide coders with clear definitions of the interaction levels (low, medium, and high). Future implementation of the case study protocol may wish to refine these measures or provide coders with a more definitive set of criteria on which to base their ratings of the level of these interactions over time.

Exhibit 6.8: Case Study Reliability

DIMENSION	VARIABLE TYPE	RELIABILITY
IDENTIFICATION	TOTAL	Y (87%)
	PRESENCE	Y (94%)
	DISPERSION	Y (81%)
	FLUCTUATION	N (67%)
IMPROVEMENTS IN NEIGHBORHOOD SPACE	TOTAL	Y (81%)
	PRESENCE	Y (90%)
	DISPERSION	Y (83%)
	FLUCTUATION	N (33%)
ENCOURAGING RESIDENT EFFORTS	TOTAL	Y (74%)
	PRESENCE	Y (80%)
	DISPERSION	Y (80%)
	FLUCTUATION	N (10%)
RESIDENT PARTICIPATION	TOTAL	Y (74%)
	PRESENCE	Y (89%)
	DISPERSION	N (64%)
	FLUCTUATION	N (61%)
COORDINATION AMONG ORGANIZATIONS	TOTAL	Y (73%)
	PRESENCE	Y (72%)
	DISPERSION	Y (77%)
	FLUCTUATION	N (54%)

Note: Reliability Agreement Criterion = 70%

Validity

Assessing the validity of the case study protocol mirrors the strategy used to assess the reliability with one exception. In measuring reliability we compared pairs of coders who had read the same written case study documents and completed the same instrument. We now compare coder-to-evaluator pairs who had completed the same case study instrument, the coders using only the written documents and the evaluators using their first hand knowledge. We assume that the validity of the instrument will be

reflected in the level of agreement between coders and evaluators. The results of this analysis are presented in the Exhibit 6.9 below.

Exhibit 6.9: Case Study Validity

DIMENSION	VARIABLE TYPE	VALIDITY
IDENTIFICATION	TOTAL	Y (82%)
	PRESENCE	Y (88%)
	DISPERSION	Y (74%)
	FLUCTUATION	Y (75%)
IMPROVEMENTS IN NEIGHBORHOOD SPACE	TOTAL	N (64%)
	PRESENCE	Y (71%)
	DISPERSION	N (65%)
	FLUCTUATION	N (44%)
ENCOURAGING RESIDENT EFFORTS	TOTAL	Y (77%)
	PRESENCE	Y (83%)
	DISPERSION	Y (78%)
	FLUCTUATION	N (37%)
RESIDENT PARTICIPATION	TOTAL	N (60%)
	PRESENCE	Y (78%)
	DISPERSION	N (49%)
	FLUCTUATION	N (51%)
COORDINATION AMONG ORGANIZATIONS	TOTAL	N (65%)
	PRESENCE	N (60%)
	DISPERSION	Y (72%)
	FLUCTUATION	N (40%)

Again, using an agreement criterion of 70%, this table suggests that the validity of these case study measures is somewhat lower than the level of reliability. Evaluators confirmed the assessments made by coders at an acceptable level for the Identification and Encouragement dimensions. However, across all of the dimensions, the fluctuation interactions produced the lowest levels of validity. In addition, for the dimensions measuring Neighborhood Improvements, Resident Participation, and Coordination, there

appear to be some discrepancies between the assessments made by coders and those made by evaluators. In other words, one can draw more accurate conclusions from case studies about the identification and encouragement steps taken by police than one can about resident participation, coordination, or steps to improve the neighborhood.

Content Validity

In addition to completing the case study protocol, evaluators were generous enough to also complete a validity assessment survey. The purpose of this survey was to capture their reactions to the conceptualization of our five interaction dimensions and their assessment of the adequacy with which these variables represent police-community interactions. We asked the following questions about each of the five interaction dimensions.

- Do these ideas make sense?
- Do our current indicators represent the ideas in a reasonable way?
- Should we consider other variables, other indicators, or different domains of interaction?

The following patterns emerged from these validity assessments. First, across all case studies, evaluators indicated that the conceptualization of these ideas were understandable. In some instances our evaluators noted that specific elements of the protocol made the completion of the instrument more difficult, but the ideas themselves appeared to resonate with the evaluators. Second, evaluators consistently noted that our measures were reasonably comprehensive and captured the majority of the interactions that they were aware of. Therefore, on the whole, these validity assessment surveys suggested that the conceptualizations of these interaction dimensions were consistent with the co-production processes that they had observed in their respective cities.

However, the evaluators did offer some additional recommendations for some interactions that they felt were important but not included in the case study protocol. We list these additional items and relevant evaluator comments below because we believe they have the potential to advance the future documentation and measurement of community policing case studies.

Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods

- Variation in the presence of specially designated problem-solving officers.
- Any attempt the police make to address the highly mobile and transient nature of the resident population. This might include attempts to meet and integrate new residents into the neighborhood.
- Simply increasing contact with residents in the neighborhood may not increase identification or resident access to the police.
- Does the Department compensate officers for staying in the same patrol beat that would be commensurate with other promotions?

Steps to Improve Neighborhoods

- The number of repeat residents in problem solving efforts demonstrates that previous activities were positive and rewarding.
- Do police and residents learn from problem solving experiences and modify their strategies based on these experiences?
- How can police contribute to the long-term sustainability of problem solving?
- What are some unintended consequences of problem solving?
- To what extent do these improvements represent a positive for some residents but a negative for others?
- Are there elements of coordination in improvement activities?
- Do improvements to the neighborhood reduce fear? Does this fear reduction include reduced fear of police misconduct?
- Are officers evaluated on these improvement activities?

Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts

- Residents and business owners, not the police, can often be the primary source of neighborhood mobilizing.
- There should be a distinction between mobilizing/organizing random residents opposed to focusing on coordinating already established resident-based organizations (e.g. block clubs or neighborhood associations).
- Can the police assist the longevity or sustainability of resident-based groups?

Steps for Resident Participation

- no recommended additions

Steps in Coordination of Organizations

- Do police personnel “buy into” coordination?
- Does coordination enhance police performance or make their job easier?
- What role do residents play in coordination?
- Does police coordination with other agencies diminish resident participation?

Conclusion

For our research purposes, we found that prior case studies were very instrumental in the tasks of conceptualizing, developing instrumentation, and determining an appropriate field strategy. As one should expect, there are hazards in using case studies for these purposes. If appropriate safeguards are not taken, this use of case studies could lead to prematurely narrowing the conceptual domain, ignoring other important indicators, and making inaccurate assumptions about where and how to find variables in a new field setting. But these hazards seem to be controllable and outweighed by the advantages the case studies provide.

Using prior case studies as a data base for measuring new concepts and examining relationships among variables is, not surprisingly, much more difficult. However, we are cautiously encouraged by our initial analyses. If cases are selected carefully, especially on an appropriate and consistent unit of analysis (in our case, the district or neighborhood), then case studies cannot be dismissed as a source of valid measures of at least some police community interactions.

Based on this analysis, what kinds of case study information about the co-production process should engender the most confidence? First, as we have shown, data on the presence or absence of specific kinds of police-community interaction and on the dispersion of those interactions in a specific neighborhood are more available and are less ambiguous than data about fluctuations in interactions over time. When reading case studies that met our selection criteria, using the preparation and guidance for reading them that we provided to our coders, one could have reasonable confidence in the following kinds of statements about police-community interaction.

- The kinds of steps taken by the police in a neighborhood to provide accessibility, improve responsiveness, and increase communication with residents (identification).
- The nature of issues or problems that residents and the police were addressing in a neighborhood and extent to which those improvement steps included problem-solving characteristics (Improvements in Neighborhood Space).
- The kinds of steps that the police took to encourage civic engagement by residents (encouraging resident efforts).
- The kinds of decisions about the neighborhood that residents contributed to and the balance of decision making by police and the residents (resident participation).
- The kinds of organizations that the police interacted with in the course of identification, improvement, and encouragement activities and the contributions made by these other organizations (coordination).

Similarly, one could be fairly confident in statements about:

- Whether or not identification efforts extended over the entire neighborhood and included most of the residents (the dispersion of identification).
- Whether or not improvement steps were concentrated (such as around business property) or widespread in a neighborhood (the dispersion of improvements).
- Whether the improvement steps were narrowly focused in crime and public safety or were more broadly gauged (the scope of improvements).
- Whether encouragement steps reached different groups or residents or missed important segments of the population (the inclusiveness of encouragement).

These conclusions lead to cautious optimism about further use of case studies. The case studies provide rich detail that may be systematically scanned for important

information about types of interactions and dispersion of interactions in widely disparate places that have been studied by different people at different times. Being able to use these studies in this way is an efficient way to multiply our knowledge about some aspects of the co-production process.

The bad news in this research is equally important. Without a means of measuring fluctuation in these interactions over the course of police-resident collaboration, it is impossible to determine whether community policing increased, decreased, or did not affect the co-production of social order. As Kerley and Benson (2000) point out, one likely reason for the modest effects of community policing on measured outcomes (usually crime, fear, and disorder) may be the lack of community policing effects on the extent to which parochial and public social control have been integrated (see also Hunter 1985). These case studies can not lead us to valid conclusions about the connection between community policing process and outcome because they do not provide adequate longitudinal coverage of the process in specific neighborhoods.

Finally, if this attempt to use prior cases in this way proves ineffective, this systematic assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of previous cases may be beneficial. We can see at least two extensions of this work. First, the case study protocol, which we designed to guide readers to specific variables in written reports, could be revised to serve as an instrument for data collection in new studies. If a revision of the protocol were used prospectively, then the demands for measures of fluctuation could be increased.

Second, whether or not our specific instrument were employed, this analysis might lead to the design of new case studies, in which the data requirements for police

community interaction measures are more effectively captured. Certainly, this analysis of prior studies suggests the need for much greater attention in the future to changes in community organization over a substantial period of time, as residents work with the police. Presently, research on variety in community policing appears to focus on variations in activities across places. There are many important questions to be asked on this level. However, the essence of community policing arguments is the strengthening of community over time. We will need data that examines changes in community social control activities and process in order to determine if community policing has such effects.

CHAPTER SEVEN

PHASE III: THE NEIGHBORHOOD ORGANIZATION SURVEY

Development of the Neighborhood Organization Survey

Lessons from Observations

While our field observations proved useful in describing how police and residents interact over time, we realized three distinct, yet somewhat related, limitations of this approach. First, this approach is likely to be less attractive and feasible to resident organizations or police departments due to the frequency with which observation are made and the resources that it requires. Second, because these observations are focused mostly on meetings, interactions taking place outside of meetings and more general descriptions of the social context of the neighborhood are not captured. Finally, the amount of resources that this approach demands makes it more challenging to make comparisons across neighborhoods.

Conducting systematic field observation was a very complex and time-consuming enterprise. We mentioned earlier that one of the main goals of the project was to produce measures that resident organizations and police departments could use to assist them in assessing how they interact and collaborate to improve neighborhoods. As we continued to attend meetings and systematically collect these data we began to realize that while this method may prove useful to researchers, there was probably less utility in this approach for police and resident groups. We reasoned that most resident organizations and police departments probably do not possess the time or the resources that are necessary to capture these interactions at the frequency with which we had been measuring them. In short, we felt a need to provide these groups with a simplified and more feasible method for assessing these interactions.

As we began to conduct interviews with resident leaders and police officers we realized, not surprisingly, that there were a variety of important community building interactions and activities that were not taking place within meetings. It became clear that relying only on the observation of meetings might provide only a partially complete picture into the number, nature, and frequency of these interactions. In addition, the field observation did not provide information into the larger structural and social characteristics of the neighborhoods in which these interactions were taking place. Therefore, our interviews with neighborhood leaders and police officers prompted us to consider how we might be able develop a more systematic method for capturing this information.

Finally, while the field observation approach provided a detailed account of how these interactions varied over time, the resources required for such an examination did not permit us to more carefully explore how these interactions might vary across a sufficient number of neighborhoods. Knowledge about such variation might provide some insight into the structural conditions that give rise to various forms of co-production. In addition, examining these interactions across multiple sites should provide the opportunity to explore how these interactions might be related to a variety of outcomes such as informal social control, social capital, and collective efficacy. In sum, for the purposes of theory testing and development, there was a need to produce a more efficient tool for data collection that could be used at one point in time across a larger number of neighborhoods. The development of the neighborhood organization survey was guided, at least in part, by all three of these concerns.

Which Variables are Better Measured in the Survey

The field observation results that were presented in the previous section of this report demonstrate the rich and detailed information that can be gathered by this approach. While the items captured in the survey share the same theoretical origins as those collected through observation, the nature and detail of these interactions differ in several important respects. First, the survey does a better job of systematically capturing perceptions of resident leaders concerning the interactions that they have with the police. Second, as already mentioned, the survey is able to capture both interactions and characteristics of the neighborhood that go beyond what occurs in the context of a community meeting, or otherwise in front of an observer.

Recent research exploring the nature of neighborhood incivilities has demonstrated some differences between official measures of disorder, objective assessments of disorder made by trained observers, and resident perceptions of disorder (Taylor 2001). If the same can be said about police-community interaction, the perceptions that residents and police have about what they do, or do not do, together may be distinct from what is revealed in an objective assessment of their interaction behavior contained within meetings. The survey presents the opportunity to gather this interaction data from the perspective of the resident leader. This is a valuable contribution in that the co-production interactions that residents are cognizant of, and place importance in, may differ in some respects from those that are most easily and readily observed in meetings. For example, while our field observations provided information into police attendance and involvement at community meetings, the survey is able to capture resident perceptions of police accessibility. In addition, future adaptations to this version of the

survey would permit us to explore police perceptions of these co-production interactions. Surveys completed by both residents and police in the same neighborhood would allow us to compare their perceptions about how they are interacting and could provide rich information to be used in training and planning sessions.

The advantage of the field observation approach is that detailed information about police-resident decision-making can be captured. In addition, these interactions can be further specified based on the nature of the issue and followed over time to develop a better understanding of the decision-making and problem-solving processes. While the survey aims to capture elements of these processes, it does so in a much more general manner. In short, detail and specificity are sacrificed for a more efficient point-in-time assessment. In addition to these more general assessments, the survey is also designed to capture characteristics of the neighborhood that are not readily observed in meetings. Some research has suggested that while active resident leaders may not be representative of the neighborhoods in which they reside, they are capable of providing detailed and accurate accounts of the social characteristics of their neighborhoods (Everett et al. 1992; Mazerolle et al. 1998). Therefore, the survey does a better job of capturing information about the social organization of neighborhoods. These variables include assessments about the level of informal social control, the amount of trust and social cohesiveness among residents, as well as confidence residents have in collective action.

Survey Item Development

Pretests

During this final phase of PCIP we began the task of developing the items to include in the neighborhood organization survey. In addition to adapting some of the measures we had been systematically observing in meetings, we also attempted to capture some description of the organization and their goals, the nature and extent of informal social control and social capital that exists within the neighborhood, as well as resident perceptions of crime and disorder. Because the majority of the items contained within the survey had never been used before, we wanted to conduct one or two pretests prior to full implementation. The purpose of this pretest was to receive feedback concerning the wording and content of the survey items and to gauge the response rate we might expect from a sample of neighborhood organizations. In addition to completing the survey, respondents were also asked to complete a pretest questionnaire. The pretest questionnaire asked respondents to indicate a) the most time consuming questions, b) any items that respondents found confusing, c) any additional co-production activities that they were aware of but were not included in the survey, d) whether they had enough information to respond to items measuring general levels of informal social control, and e) any changes they recommended we consider.

Our first attempt at the use of the survey came with the cooperation of the Council of Albany Neighborhood Associations (C.A.N.A.). In March, 2000, surveys were distributed to two resident leaders in each of approximately 24 neighborhood associations in Albany, NY. Based on the completion of the survey, comments collected through the

pretest questionnaire, and discussion with respondents during a feedback session, we determined that a number of changes to the survey were necessary.

First, some resident leaders indicated that certain items in the survey did not capture all the co-production interactions that they were aware of. For example, a number of respondents indicated that residents in their neighborhoods were actively involved with the police in citizen patrols. In their view, by excluding this activity we had failed to capture an important aspect of their interactions with the police.

More importantly, the majority of respondents indicated concern that in this early draft of the survey we were attempting to capture too much information. For example, one of the original items was designed to measure police approval of informal social control. A number of residents indicated that while they did have enough information to offer an informed opinion about the level of informal social control in their neighborhood, they were unable to offer any insight into the police response towards these activities. Additionally, one of the survey items asked about the importance of 28 specific issues that neighborhood organizations may deal with and the tactics that they use to address these issues. Based on the suggestions from several respondents we concluded that this specificity was probably not necessary and as a result we decided to collapse several of these categories, thereby shortening this set of items substantially.

Based on a variety of recommendations and insights gathered from this first pretest, a second draft of the survey was developed. With the assistance of Schenectady United Neighborhoods (S.U.N.) a second pretest was completed. In June, 2000, the second draft of the survey was distributed to two resident leaders in each of seven neighborhoods in Schenectady, NY. Based on the completed surveys, comments

collected from the pretest questionnaire, and discussion with respondents at a feedback session, we were able to draw a number of conclusions concerning the new draft of the survey and engage in some additional modifications.

First, it appeared that the revisions we had made based on the recommendations gathered from the first pretest had improved the ease with which respondents were able to complete the survey. Comparing the responses of the second pretest with those from the first pretest, there were fewer items that respondents indicated were confusing, too time consuming, or required information that they were not knowledgeable of. Second, several respondents in this second pretest indicated that in addition to the questions we were asking, we should also include several more items concerning specific characteristics of the organization and the neighborhood. For example, one respondent pointed out that there were not enough items that would distinguish neighborhoods based on demographic characteristics. While we had anticipated collecting this information from additional official sources of data, this reaction prompted us to consider the importance of gathering this information from the respondents as well.

The pretests proved to be a valuable experience for a number of reasons. First, the reactions of respondents from the first pretest convinced us that our original draft had included too many items that were too specific or that required information that these resident leaders were not aware of. As a result, we decided to eliminate questions asking respondents about a) the activities and co-production interactions of residents and other organizations exclusive to the respondent's organization, b) the number of residents engaged in informal social control in the neighborhood, and c) the police reaction to these informal social control activities. These pretests also encouraged us to add some

important questions that we had failed to include in earlier drafts of the survey. Items that were added as a result of the pretests include questions about a) the attendance at general and board meetings, b) police involvement in citizen patrols, and c) the level of crime, violence, and poverty in the neighborhood. Finally, the responses from the pretest gave us some insight into the response rate we could expect. We concluded that we could not expect more than a 30% response rate based on the current written version of the survey.

Two Final Versions

As we were planning for the full implementation of the survey in Indianapolis we began to contemplate the use of a telephone interview version of the survey in addition to the written version. The adaptation of the written instrument into a telephone script provided a number of interesting opportunities. First, we surmised that a telephone version of the instrument would generate a greater response rate. A research design that allowed us to implement both a written and a telephone version of the instrument would provide us with a unique opportunity to test this assumption. Second, assuming we were correct in making this assumption, the implementation of a telephone survey offered the potential for far more returns, not only in respect to response rate but also in terms of completed items.

In July, 2000 we contracted with the Indiana University Center for Survey Research (CSR) to complete the telephone version of the survey. This represented the second phase in the revision and development of the survey items. At this time the latest draft of the written survey and an adapted draft of a telephone script were sent to CSR for

their review. During the next month, through a collaborative effort between the Center's Project Manager and PCIP staff, the survey was further modified for use as a telephone script. The experience of the CSR proved to be an invaluable asset as the pencil and paper instrument was transformed into an interview script. The majority of changes to items at this point involved alternative introductions to questions and slight changes in the wording of response sets. CSR staff indicated that this rewording, while not changing the original intent or interpretation of the items, would improve the ease with which the items would be read and understood over the telephone.

The Center also indicated a number of concerns with the content of several of our items. These substantive problems revolved around the inclusion of multiple interactions within single items. CSR staff were concerned that residents might find it difficult to complete these items because they could have different responses to each element of the item. For example, we were interested in the extent to which neighborhood residents had input into problems and solutions. The original item asked respondents to indicate their agreement with the following statement, "Residents provide input into problems and potential solutions but the police decide on the most appropriate course of action". Following the advice of CSR we decided to split this item into two parts, the first item measuring resident contributions to identifying problems, and the second item measuring police and resident collaboration on selecting solutions to problems. As the telephone version of the survey developed, corresponding changes were made to the original pencil and paper version. By August, 2000 we had completed all item revisions and had two final versions of the survey (see Appendices E and F).

Survey Sample

Resident-based organizations in Indianapolis, as in many large urban areas, represent three distinct levels of aggregation that overlap one another. The smallest organizations represent block clubs. While there is no formal list or accounting of all block clubs within Indianapolis, Crime Watch Coordinators within each of the IPD districts do maintain mailing lists of block club participants. Neighborhood associations represent the next level of resident organizations. While the geographic boundaries of these organizations vary throughout the city, these organizations represent multiple blocks. The Department of Metropolitan Development (DMD) maintains information on the boundaries and leadership of these organizations. Finally, in Indianapolis large district organizations are referred to as Umbrella groups. These umbrella organizations encompass multiple, but contiguous, neighborhoods and are also included in the directory maintained by the DMD.

We were interested in collecting information from each of these three types of resident organizations. These three levels of organizations formed what amounted to three separate availability samples. We referred to the first sample as the Block Club sample. We obtained a list of block club participants maintained by the IPD's Crime Watch Coordinator. This original list consisted of 930 residents throughout the city. We referred to the second and third samples as the Neighborhood and Umbrella samples. Using the list of registered organizations maintained by DMD and Geographic Information System (GIS) software, we were able to cross-reference the boundaries of these organizations with the jurisdictional boundaries of the IPD. Neighborhood and umbrella organizations falling outside the boundaries of the IPD were then eliminated

from each of their respective samples. Our decision concerning which samples, or portions of samples, should receive which version of the survey was guided primarily by the fact that we did not have access to the telephone numbers of block club participants. Therefore, given the smaller size of the neighborhood and umbrella samples and the fact that we did have access to telephone numbers for these groups, it was decided that the entire block club sample would receive the written version of the survey through the mail while the neighborhood and umbrella samples would receive the telephone version.

The first wave of the block club survey was mailed to all of the 930 residents in September, 2000. This initial mailing contained an introductory letter, a sponsorship letter from the IPD Chief of Police, a self-addressed postcard used for final report requests, and a copy of the instrument. A second wave containing a follow-up letter, the sponsorship letter, the postcard, and another instrument was mailed in November after removing approximately 100 invalid addresses. This mail survey generated 143 usable returns for a return rate of approximately 17 percent.

A note concerning the response rate for this mail survey is in order. While one would expect to find a somewhat lower response rate for a survey administered through the mail compared to a questionnaire administered over the telephone, the response rate generated from the block sample is a cause for concern. Based on our experience with the pretest we expected to achieve a somewhat higher response rate than what we have just reported. There is some evidence that the original mailing list maintained by the IPD Crime Watch Coordinator contained individuals who were not involved in a block club. In order to better address this issue we asked police administrators within each of the department's districts to review the mailing list to eliminate individuals they, upon closer

inspection, knew to be not associated with Indianapolis block clubs. These corrections suggest that an additional 150 individuals should have been eliminated from the original mailing list. As a result, the final population is considerably smaller than that used to calculate the response rate reported above.

As stated above, the interview schedule was administered to the neighborhood and umbrella samples over the telephone by the CSR. A pre-survey letter was mailed to neighborhood and umbrella sample respondents prior to the start of calling. The purpose of the letter was to introduce respondents to the study and to establish a convenient time to conduct the interview. At the beginning of the interview period there were 131 neighborhood organizations and 31 umbrella organizations represented in the directory. All cases with confirmed valid telephone numbers were called up to fifteen times, unless the respondent refused or there was insufficient time before the end of the study. Cases with unknown validity (persistent no answers or answering devices) were called a minimum of eight times, with calls made during the morning, afternoon, evening, and weekend. After eliminating invalid phone numbers and numbers with unknown validity, the final sample sizes were reduced to 117 for the neighborhood sample and 29 for the umbrella sample. Interviews were conducted between August 28, 2000 and October, 10, 2000 and lasted an average of 58 minutes. The final completion rates were 71 percent for neighborhood organizations and 55 percent for umbrella organizations. Refusal rates were below 10 percent for both neighborhood and umbrella organizations.

Measuring Police-Community Interaction in the Survey

Introduction

In the last section we provided a general overview of the development of the survey. This section seeks to provide a more detailed description of how the original police-community interaction dimensions identified by PCIP were measured in the survey. While the survey measured a variety of neighborhood characteristics, the purpose of this section is to describe the measurement of the key co-production or interaction dimensions. In doing so we attempt to draw connections to the measurement of these concepts in the previous two instruments; the observation codebook and the case study protocol. This is a challenging task for at least two reasons. First, the previous chapters of this report have demonstrated how the PCIP dimensions have changed and evolved over time. Part of this revision and development reflects a learning process on our part. This change occurred as we gained more experience observing residents and police interacting in Indianapolis and as we read the case study protocols completed by our coders and evaluators. Throughout this process we determined that several of our original concepts could not be measured, either because they were not observed by field observers or case study evaluators, or because there was a lack of agreement or consensus among observers or evaluators.

Another, more self-explanatory reason for the differences between our instruments is the nature of what we are attempting to describe. The observation codebook is designed to describe the interactions between police and residents that develop through regularly scheduled meetings. The codebook and analyses of these data focus on the meeting and the issues contained within these meetings as the main units of

analysis. Therefore, the interactions that we are describing tend to be very exact and specific in nature. For example, we could use the observation codebook to assess the extent to which residents contributed to the selection of anti-crime rallies as a response to violent crime. The interaction phenomena described in the case study protocol are somewhat more broad in nature. The focus here is on interactions between police and residents that are contained throughout the implementation of a community policing project. While we ask coders and evaluators to comment on the development and fluctuation of these interactions over time, the main emphasis is on a more general accounting of these interactions throughout the study timeframe. The neighborhood organization survey is the least specific of all the instruments. In the surveys residents are asked to generalize about their experiences with the police. For example, observing meetings might reveal that residents tend to have a lot of input into solutions aimed at addressing non-crime related problems in the neighborhood but relatively little input into addressing crime related problems. Responses to the survey would not be able to reveal such patterns because residents are forced to generalize across all of their experiences. These between-instrument differences will be discussed throughout the remainder of this section.

Dimensions of Police-Community Interaction

Steps to Improve Neighborhoods

We measured Steps to Improve Neighborhoods in two main ways. The items measuring this dimension reflect a) the importance of a variety of neighborhood issues and b) the extent to which the police relied on problem solving strategies to address these improvement issues. These specific items are listed below.

Issue Importance

“Please tell me how important each issue is to the work of ORGANIZATION NAME.”

- 1) Very Important
- 2) Somewhat Important
- 3) Not Too Important
- 4) Not At All Important.

- Traffic
- Quality & Availability of Public Services
- Reducing Personal Crime
- Reducing Property Crime
- Reducing Social Disorder
- Reducing Physical Decay
- Local Economic Development
- Negligent or Absent Landlords
- Reputation of the Area
- Police Respect for Citizens
- Police Listening to Residents’ Concerns
- Need for More Police

Problem Solving Processes

“Thinking about the activities of the police and the interactions the police have with residents, please tell me how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.”

- 1) Strongly Agree
- 2) Somewhat Agree
- 3) Somewhat Disagree
- 4) Strongly Disagree
- 5) Neither Agree nor Disagree.

- “Once a specific problem is found in your neighborhood, police attempt to determine the nature, extent, and causes of a problem and select a solution based on the analysis of the problem.”

- “The police provide feedback on how their solutions or efforts to address problems are proceeding or the results that occurred.”
- “When solving problems facing the neighborhood, the police often coordinate with other city or county agencies.”

As these items demonstrate, improvement steps were measured primarily by asking resident leaders about the importance of various issues that they addressed and the extent to which the police relied on problem-solving strategies in addressing neighborhood issues in general. These items allow us to assess whether neighborhoods are focusing on a narrow range of priority issues or are addressing a wide variety of issues. In addition, we are able to determine how the residents perceive the problem-solving steps that the police are implementing to address these issues.

While these items represent some similarity with the manner in which this dimension was measured in the other instruments, they also reflect some differences. In making a comparison to the observation codebook it is important to note that the survey items reflect the perceived importance of these issues while the observation codebook was more concerned with the frequency with which various issues were raised during meetings. In addition, observations permitted us to measure the extent to which specific issues were addressed by a variety of problem-solving strategies/processes and record how these changed and evolved over time. This is an advantage compared to the more general assessment of problem-solving that resident leaders made in the survey. On the other hand, the case study protocol was less specific about the importance of these issues and focused on which issue were addressed by the police department during the study timeframe. However, the case study protocol did collect some more general information about the development of problem-solving strategies over time. Another noticeable

difference is the presence of an item measuring police coordination contained within this dimension. We had originally developed a separate dimension that measured police steps to coordinate with other agencies. Our experience convinced us that while these types of interactions were readily reported in written case studies, resident leaders were much less informed as to the presence or quality of these coordinating steps. For this reason we only included a single item in the survey that measures this concept and have included it as a problem-solving variable falling within the Improvement dimension.

Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods

We measured Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods by asking resident leaders to rate their agreement with a variety of statements associated with police attempts to identify with neighborhoods. In addition, we also asked respondents about their perceptions of police accessibility. These items are presented below.

Identification Strategies

“Thinking about the activities of the police and the interactions the police have with residents, please tell me how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.”

- 1) Strongly Agree
- 2) Somewhat Agree
- 3) Somewhat Disagree
- 4) Strongly Disagree
- 5) Neither Agree nor Disagree.

- “Your neighborhood has had permanently assigned beat officers for more than a year.”
- “Your neighborhood’s permanently assigned beat officers are often called to perform duties outside of the neighborhood.”
- “Police keep track of reported crimes, calls for service, or arrests in an attempt to identify the unique characteristics of the neighborhood.”

Police Accessibility

“Next, thinking about the times ORGANIZATION NAME has worked with the police during the past year, please indicate how accessible each of the following has been. During the past year how accessible have the following groups been to the people living in the neighborhood?”

- 1) Very Accessible
- 2) Somewhat Accessible
- 3) Not Too Accessible
- 4) Not At All Accessible

- Regular Patrol Officers
- Community or Neighborhood Officers
- Police Middle-Management, such as sergeants or lieutenants
- Police Upper-Management, such as a district captain, deputy chief, or chief

The least amount of variation across instruments is reflected in this dimension of police-community interaction. The most logical explanation for this is that many of the identification steps reflect policies that do not change with much frequency. For example, decentralization evidenced by the presence of a police storefront station is something that can be measured at one point in time and expected not to vary with great frequency. The same can be said of other identification steps such as permanent beat assignment and collecting place-specific information. Therefore, for the most part, the content of survey items measuring identification steps tend to share quite a lot in common with the measurement of these concepts in the observation codebook and the case study protocol.

There are some notable exceptions to this however. For example, the survey contains four items that measure a concept that we have labeled, accessibility. The survey presents a unique opportunity to measure not only some objective assessments of identification steps but also some expected outcomes. We have included resident ratings of police accessibility within this dimension because we believe that these perceptions should reflect attempts the police have taken to identify with neighborhoods.

Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts

Survey items measuring this dimension asked respondents about a) the extent to which police promote encouragement messages, b) the frequency with which the police collaborate with residents in activities that encourage resident efforts, and c) the extent to which the police have helped residents establish organizations.

Spreading an Encouragement Message

“Thinking about the activities of the police and the interactions the police have with residents, please tell me how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.”

- 1) Strongly Agree
- 2) Somewhat Agree
- 3) Somewhat Disagree
- 4) Strongly Disagree
- 5) Neither Agree nor Disagree.

- “The police encourage neighborhood residents to get to know one another.”
- “The police encourage neighborhood residents to work together to solve problems.”
- The police inform residents about crime in the neighborhood.”

Encouragement Activities

“Next, I am going to ask about police involvement with community activities and issues. How often have the police been involved in the following activities/events during the past year?”

- 1) More than once a month
 - 2) About once a month
 - 3) A few times a year
 - 4) Not at all
- community meetings
 - neighborhood social events
 - crime prevention training or education
 - anti-crime or anti-drug rallies
 - neighborhood citizen patrol
 - crime or drug reporting hotlines or programs

Establishing New Resident Organizations

“Please tell me how much you agree or disagree with the following statement.”

“In the past year, the police have helped residents establish new resident organizations or block clubs.”

(Do you:)

- 1) Strongly Agree
- 2) Somewhat Agree
- 3) Somewhat Disagree
- 4) Strongly Disagree, or
- 5) Neither Agree nor Disagree

These encouragement steps represent a variety of strategies that police may use to encourage residents to contribute their efforts to collective action to improve the neighborhood. In the survey these steps are primarily measured by asking residents about the extent to which the police promote this type of message and the frequency with which police participate in neighborhood activities that have the potential to encourage collaborative efforts. These messages include the police encouraging residents to interact with one another as well as the police encouraging residents to collaborate to solve neighborhood problems.

This approach is similar to that taken in the observation codebook and case study protocol with only a few exceptions. First, the observations provided the opportunity to code the type and content of encouragement messages that were associated with each issue that was addressed in the meeting. The survey is substantially less specific because we only ask residents about two types of encouragement messages, when residents are encouraged to interact with one another and when residents are encouraged to work together. In addition, with the survey these are general assessments concerning the presence of these messages as opposed to the issue specific ratings we have for the observation. The second exception, as is the case with all these measures, but it does

warrant repeating, is that the observation codebook and the case study protocol permit us to assess the dynamic nature of these encouragement messages and activities. The ability to ascertain how these interactions fluctuate over time is not possible with these more general assessments collected in the survey.

Steps for Resident Participation

The survey provides an assessment of five important aspects of the participation dimension. These include a) means taken to address issues, b) balance in participation, c) implementation of activity, d) determining problems, solutions and roles, and e) representativeness of participation. Descriptions of these various participation and the items used to measure them are discussed and listed below.

Means Taken to Address Issues

For each of the improvement issues that respondents rated in terms of their importance, we also asked about the tactics that their organization used to address each issue. These tactics allow us to roughly categorize neighborhoods in terms of the level of resident involvement in addressing neighborhood problems. These items are listed below.

“For each of the following issues, please indicate the type(s) of tactics that your neighborhood association has used.”

- 1) Provide services for individual residents who have problems.
 - 2) Mobilize residents to address issues on their own.
 - 3) Coordinate with the police to address issues.
 - 4) Advocate the needs of residents to state/local officials, business/developers, other agencies.
- Traffic
 - Quality & Availability of Public Services
 - Reducing Personal Crime

- Reducing Property Crime
- Reducing Social Disorder
- Reducing Physical Decay
- Local Economic Development
- Negligent or Absent Landlords
- Reputation of the Area
- Police Respect for Citizens
- Police Listening to Residents' Concerns
- Need for More Police

Balance in Participation

The survey includes a number of items measuring the balance between police and resident involvement in a variety of co-production activities. In these items balance is determined by asking the respondent about the initiation of the activities. These items are listed below.

“Next, please think about who initiated each of the activities we just talked about.”

Would you say:

- 1) the police
 - 2) the residents
 - 3) a resident organization, or
 - 4) the police and residents about equally
- community meetings
 - neighborhood social events
 - crime prevention training or education
 - anti-crime or anti-drug rallies
 - neighborhood citizen patrol
 - crime or drug reporting hotlines or programs

Implementation of Activity

In the process of co-production, police and resident often agree to contribute time and effort towards collective activities. We were interested in measuring these extent to which police and residents follow through with these decisions. The survey items measuring this construct are listed below.

“Please tell me how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.”

- “The police follow through with decisions made with the residents.”
- “The residents follow through with decisions made with the police.”

(Do you:)

- 1) Strongly Agree
- 2) Somewhat Agree
- 3) Somewhat Disagree
- 4) Strongly Disagree, or
- 5) Neither Agree nor Disagree

Determining Problems, Solutions, and Roles

The following items measure the participation that police and residents have in determining the problems in the neighborhood, the solutions that should be used to address these problems, and the role that the each other will play in implementing these solutions.

“Please tell me how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.”

- “Residents participate in identifying and ranking problems.”
- “Once a problem has been identified the police and residents work together to decide what steps will be taken to address the problem.”
- “The police often determine what role residents will play in programs, activities, initiatives, and joint partnerships with the police.”
- “The residents often determine what role the police will play in programs, activities, initiatives, and joint partnerships with residents.”

(Do you:)

- 1) Strongly Agree
- 2) Somewhat Agree
- 3) Somewhat Disagree
- 4) Strongly Disagree, or
- 5) Neither Agree nor Disagree

Representativeness of Participation

Our observations of police-community interaction and understanding of community policing case studies encouraged us to explore the extent to which those

resident that were the most active and most likely to collaborate with the police were representative of the entire neighborhood. We asked respondents which groups of residents they had the most difficult time attracting or getting involved in neighborhood activities. These items are listed below.

“Sometimes organizations find it difficult to get residents involved in local activities that affect the neighborhood. Please tell me if ORGANIZATION NAME has had difficulty getting any of the following groups involved in activities.”

- Youth
- Middle-Aged Residents
- Elderly or Retired Residents
- White Residents
- African American Residents
- Latino Residents
- Residents of some other race or ethnicity
- Home-Owners
- Residents who Rent Apartments or Houses
- Males
- Females

(Would you say:)

- 1) a lot
- 3) a little, or
- 5) none at all

All of these survey measures of resident participation seek to differentiate between co-production that provides little role for resident involvement with that which seeks to include residents at the center of these interactions. For example, by measuring the tactics used to address specific problems we can ascertain the extent to which residents are excluded from the attempts to improve neighborhoods. In addition, these items also represent the extent to which residents exhibit initiative in addressing neighborhood problems by planning a variety of co-production activities. Finally, we attempted to have resident leaders assess for us which groups of residents that they had a

difficult time getting involved in the activities of the neighborhood. These items were included because we believe that it is important to measure not only the level of resident participation that is occurring but also the extent to which that participation is representative of all residents in the neighborhood.

These survey measures of resident participation differed from the observation and case study measures in a number of respects. First, these survey measures do not distinguish between the different formats available for resident input and decision-making. One of the strengths of the case study protocol was that it contained specific items that distinguished between resident input and decision-making that occurred in meetings, official contacts, and informal conversations. Second, these survey items do not measure the balance of input and decision-making with the specificity that is achieved in the observation protocol. For example, through observations we were able to determine the relative balance between general residents, other neighborhood officials, and the police in contributing ideas and making decisions.

Overview of the Data

In discussing the other instruments we have attempted to offer some description of how these data can be displayed to demonstrate variation in police-community interaction. In this section of the chapter we seek to offer a general overview of the interactions that we captured with the survey before we discuss the reliability and validity of the items in more detail. The data presented below reflect the written surveys completed by block club participants and the telephone interviews completed by leaders of neighborhood associations.

Descriptive and Demographic Data

In addition to measuring how police and residents interact, we were also interested in some characteristics of the areas in which these interactions take place, as well as characteristics of the resident leaders who completed the survey. The first two graphs below, Exhibit 7.1 and Exhibit 7.2, demonstrate variation in the racial composition and the level of violence in the blocks and neighborhoods that we surveyed.

Exhibit 7.1: Race/Ethnicity of Area Residents
(% of areas that respondents described as primarily)

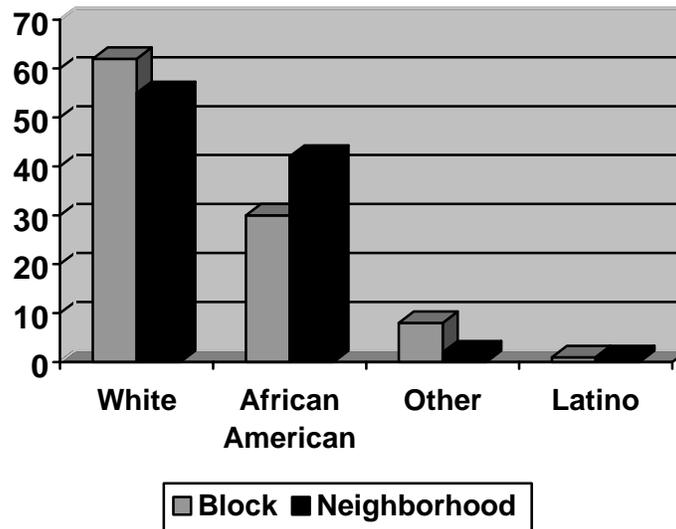
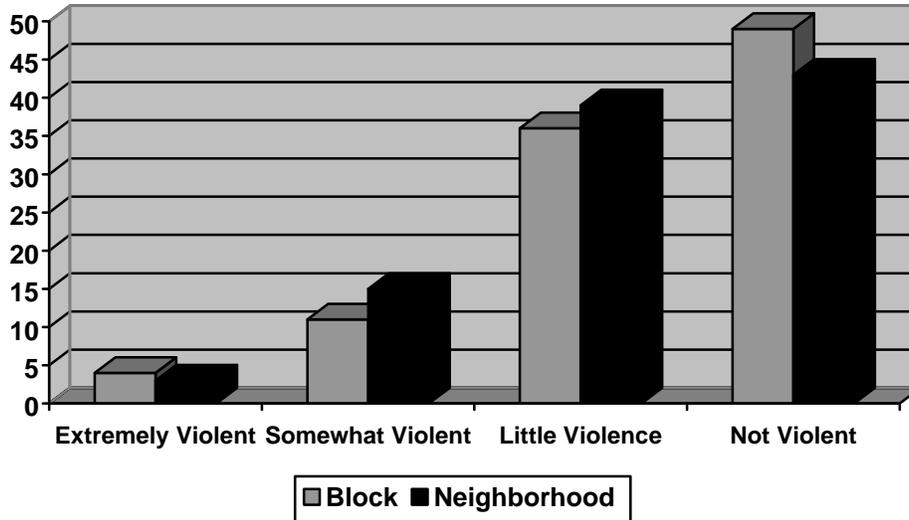


Exhibit 7.2: Level of Violence
(% of areas that respondents report as)



These graphs indicate that most of blocks and neighborhoods represented have a majority of white residents. In addition, most resident leaders describe their blocks or neighborhoods as being either not violent or having little violence. However, a small proportion of the neighborhoods are predominantly minority and a small percentage of respondents do acknowledge higher levels of violence in their blocks and neighborhoods.

The graphs below, Exhibit 7.3 and Exhibit 7.4, report some demographic information pertaining to the respondents who completed the written questionnaire and the telephone interview.

Exhibit 7.3: # of Years Organization Established

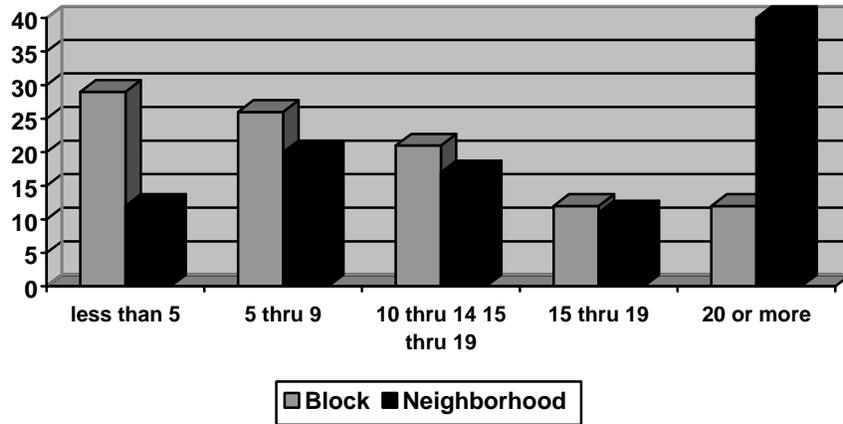
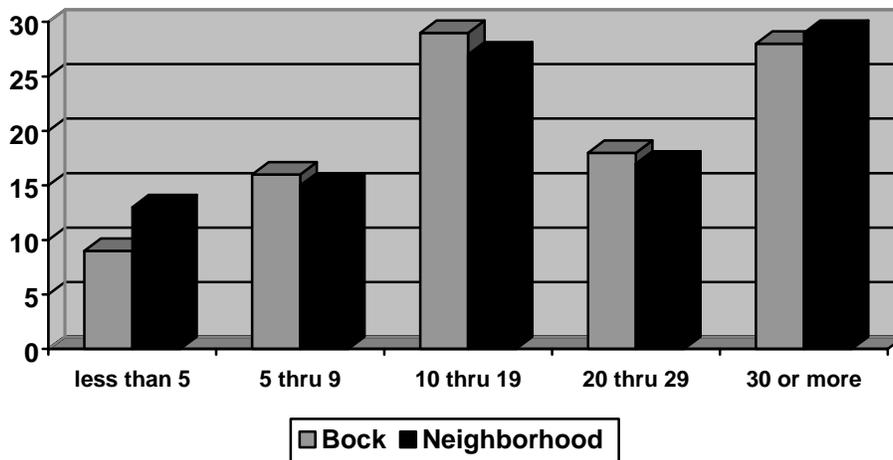


Exhibit 7.4: Length of Respondent's Residency



The organizations represented in our samples differ by the number of years they have been established. In general, the neighborhood associations have been in existence for longer periods of time compared to the block clubs. Over half of the neighborhood associations were established more than 15 years ago. In comparison, less than 30 % of the block clubs have been in existence for that long. However, it is also important to note that many of the block clubs in Indianapolis have been in existence for as long as neighborhood associations. In addition, within the past decade Indianapolis block clubs

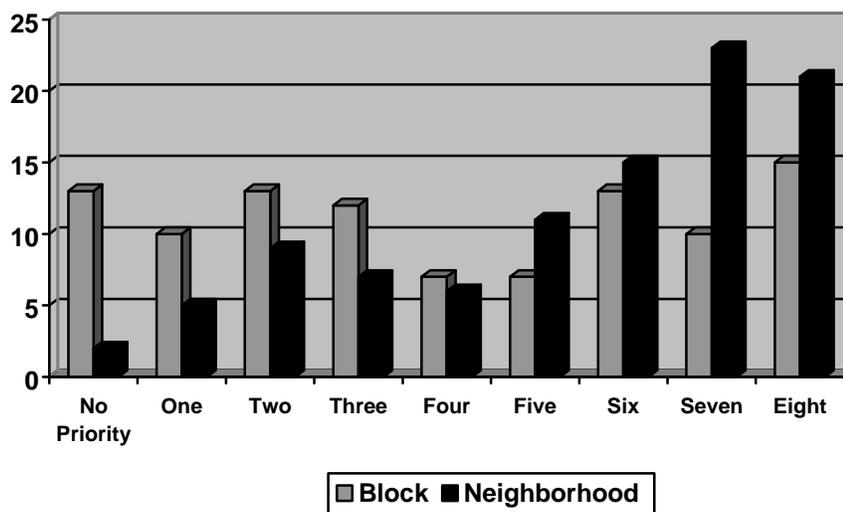
have increasingly been encouraged to officially register and be recognized. This may explain why there appears to be a larger number of newly established block clubs. These data also indicate that survey respondents tend to be long term residents of the blocks and neighborhoods in which they live. In both samples close to half of the respondents have lived in the same neighborhood for over 20 years.

Police-Community Interactions

As we mentioned in the previous section of this chapter, the survey focuses on four of the original dimensions of police-community interactions. In the remainder of this section we present some tables illustrating some results from the survey. The purpose is to illustrate how community building processes might vary across the neighborhoods in Indianapolis. While the observation data show that police-community interaction varies over time (see Chapter 5), these data show that these same processes vary over space.

Steps to Improve Neighborhoods

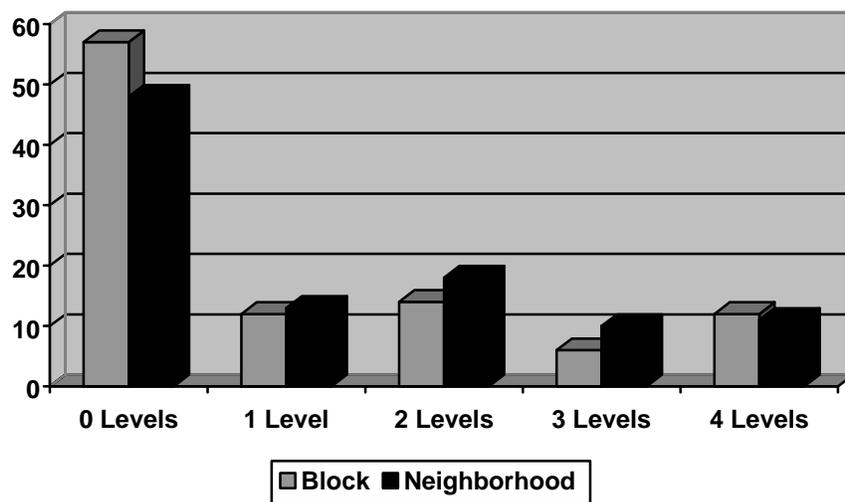
Exhibit 7.5: Range of Priority Issues



In the graph above, Exhibit 7.5, we have calculated a new variable that represents the number of issues that respondents indicated were a priority in their block or neighborhood. Priority issues were defined as, those issues categorized as “Very Important” by the respondent. This graph represents the distribution of this new variable and illustrates that some organizations report a broad range of issues as very pressing while others report facing a considerably narrower range of issues that are very important. These data also suggest that, compared to neighborhood associations, block clubs are more likely focus on a narrow range of critical issues. Approximately 36 percent of the block clubs reported fewer than three priority issues. Alternatively, close to 60 percent of the neighborhood associations reported that they have more than five priority issues. We would anticipate that co-production in an area with few priority issues would be very different from that found in areas reporting a multitude of critical issues.

Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods

Exhibit 7.6: High Police Accessibility
(Police “Very Accessible”)



In the graph above, Exhibit 7.6, we have created a new variable representing the number of levels (patrol, neighborhood, middle-management, upper-management) that the respondent reported as very accessible. The frequency distribution of this new variable suggests that it is not uncommon to find areas where none of the police officers are perceived as highly accessible. However, the other categories are distributed more evenly and illustrate that some neighborhoods have high ratings of accessibility across multiple levels of the department, while other areas experience high accessibility in only one or two levels.

Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts

Exhibit 7.7: Police Steps in Encouragement Activities
 (% of respondents reporting police involvement in initiation)

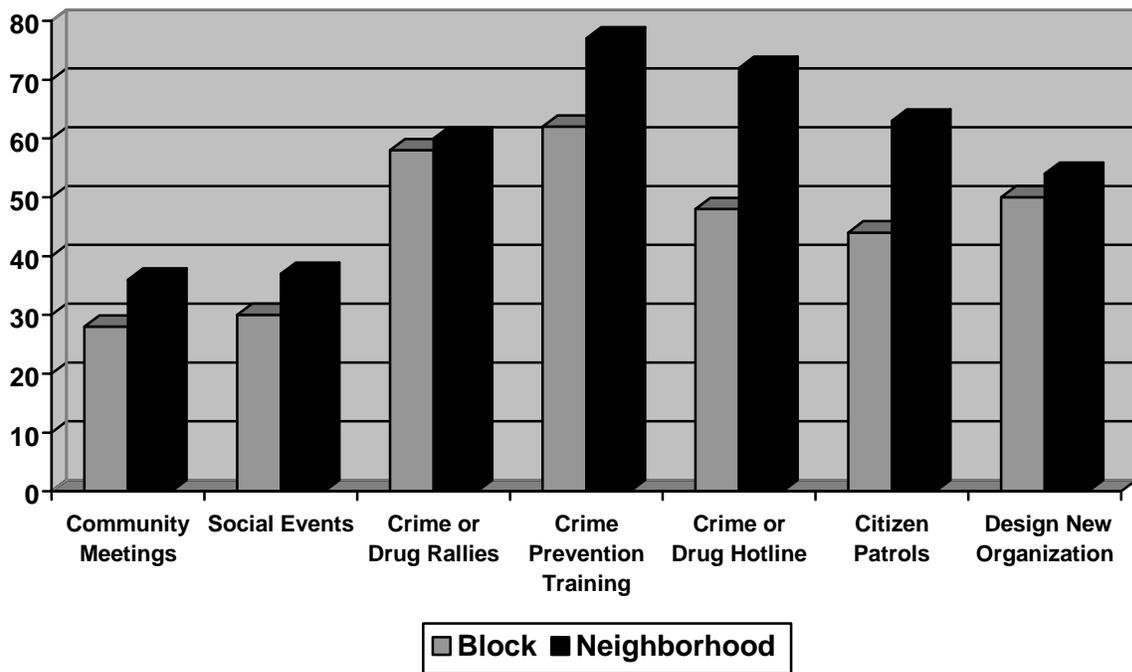


Exhibit 7.7 shows the percentage of block and neighborhood participants who reported that the police played a role in initiating various encouragement activities. These percentages include the police completely initiating the event on their own as well

as the police collaborating with residents in initiating the activities. These data indicate that the police role in initiating encouragement activities varies depending on the activity. The police appear to be most highly involved in initiating crime/drug rallies, providing crime prevention training, and initiating crime/drug reporting hotlines. However, the police seem less likely to suggest the use of community meetings or neighborhood social events as a means of getting residents involved. These findings appear to be consistent with our observations of police-community interaction that occurred in the WESCO district of Indianapolis (see Chapter 5).

Steps for Resident Participation

Exhibit 7.8: Percent of Block Club Leaders Reporting Action is Started by Residents, Police, or Both Together

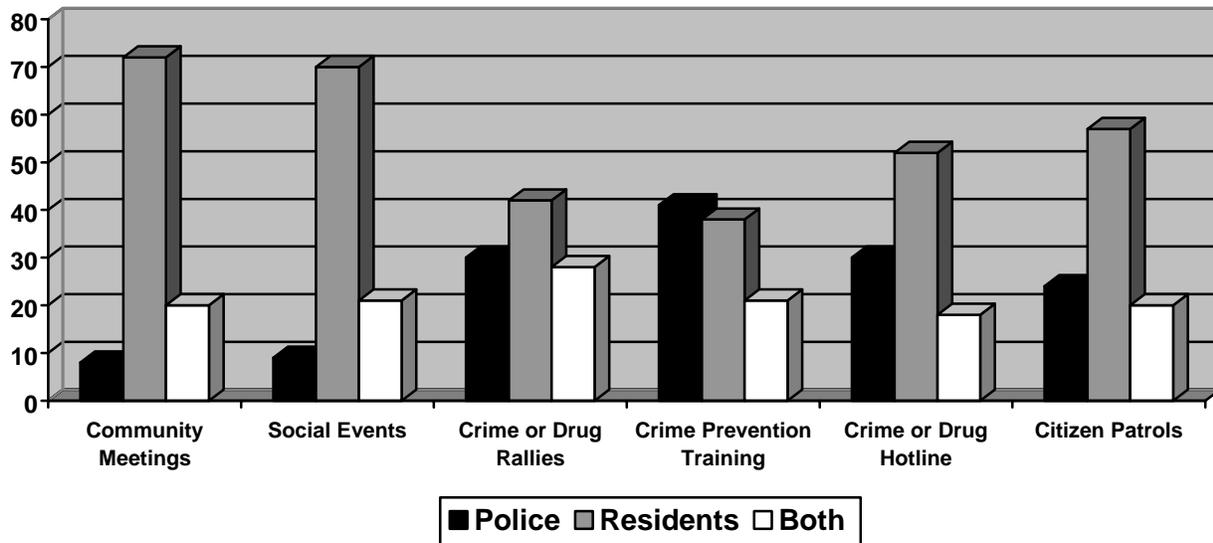
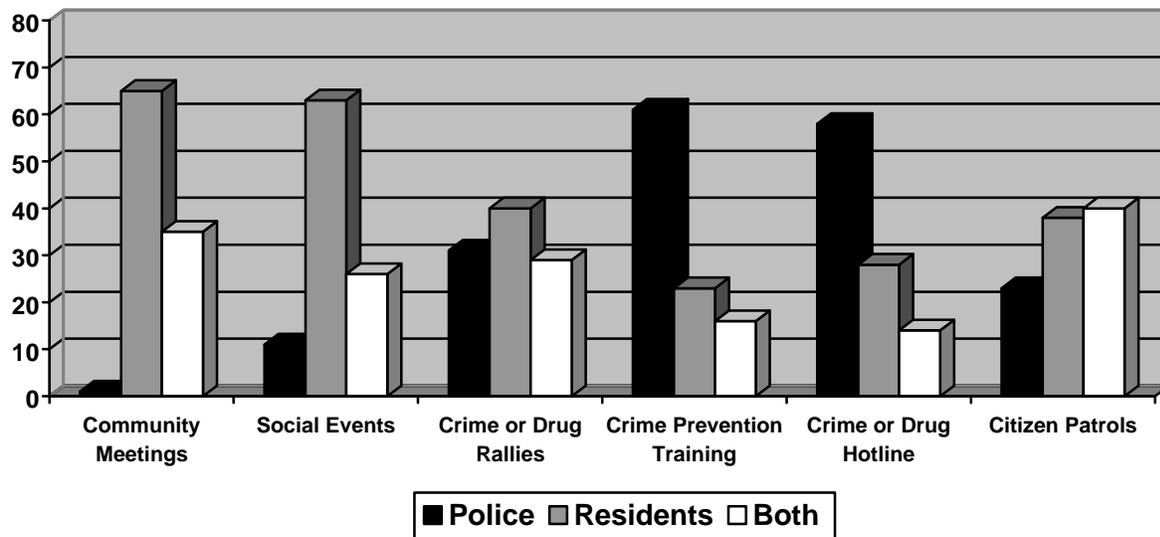


Exhibit 7.9: Percent of Neighborhood Association Leaders Reporting Action is Started By Residents, Police, or Both Together



The graphs above, Exhibit 7.8 and Exhibit 7.9, look at who initiates six kinds of activities when residents are working with the police. These data suggest that the balance between police and resident participation depends largely on the type of activity. Residents appear to take the lead in initiating community meetings and social events while the police appear to take the lead in initiating crime prevention training and reporting procedures. Developing citizen patrols is one type of activity that appears to involve a substantial amount of collaboration between police and residents.

These data illustrate some demographic characteristics of the sample respondents and neighborhoods in which they reside. In addition, the tables depicting the police-community interactions demonstrate the variability across the neighborhoods and within the measures of co-production. We turn our attention now to a discussion of the reliability and validity of these survey measures.

Reliability and Validity of Survey Measures

Introduction

Because the survey represents assessments of police-community interaction across a substantial number of neighborhoods, these data provide a reasonable opportunity to assess issues of reliability and validity. However, the presence of missing or invalid information from some respondents, the lack of multiple respondents within some neighborhoods, and the challenge of finding reasonable criterion variables to validate these measures does present some challenges for this assessment. We highlight these challenges throughout the discussion of this analysis.

This analysis will focus on two types of reliability and two types of validity. We begin with a discussion of the inter-item reliability of the interactions measured in the survey. This analysis allows us to draw some conclusions concerning the extent to which these items appear to be measuring distinct concepts. We would expect, for example, that four items measuring police attempts to identify with neighborhoods would be correlated with one another. Therefore, this first type of reliability tells us something about the ability of items to measure a shared concept. Following this analysis we begin a discussion of the intra-neighborhood reliability of the survey. This form of reliability is directly comparable to the reliability that was discussed in relation to the observation codebook and the case study protocol. In these earlier analyses we were assessing the level of agreement between two independent observers of interaction phenomena. Our analysis of the intra-neighborhood reliability of the survey is similar in that we are assessing the level of agreement between two resident leaders living in the same neighborhood and responding to items measuring police-community interaction.

We assess the validity of these survey measures by investigating criterion validity and construct validity. Criterion validity is the relation of a test score to some known external criterion that indicates the quantity being measured. For example, we could establish criterion validity if we could show that our survey measure of police involvement in social events was related to some official accounting of these activities. This was the most difficult form of validity to measure with the survey because we struggled to find criterion or proxy variables for the interactions we were capturing. In light of the fact that this research was conceived out of a concern for better measures of the ways in which police and residents interact to co-produce social order, this challenge is not surprising. Following this analysis we begin a discussion of the construct validity of our survey measures. Construct validity is the extent to which a measure is related in theoretically expected ways to other constructs. Therefore, in this section we attempt to assess the extent to which our measures of police-community interaction are related to the structural conditions of neighborhoods as well as a variety of outcomes that we would expect.

Reliability

Inter-Item Reliability

There are a number of ways we could assess the inter-item reliability of this survey. This analysis and discussion will involve three methods. First, we will examine the correlations between items measuring a distinct concept. Second, we will calculate the appropriate inter-item reliability statistic for each group of items. Third, where possible, we will factor analyze items contained within distinct dimensions using principle components factor analysis.

Steps to Improve Neighborhoods

In the last section of this chapter we indicated that Improvement Steps were measured in the survey by assessing the importance of a variety of neighborhood issues and by assessing the problem-solving strategies that the police use to address these issues. While we do expect the items measuring problem-solving strategies to be capturing the same concept, the same cannot be said for the importance of issues. There is no reason to assume that the importance of these various issues are capturing a single concept. For this reason we only assess the inter-item reliability of the problem-solving component to this neighborhood improvement dimension. The three items measuring problem-solving include:

“Once a specific problem is found, police attempt to determine the nature, extent, and causes of problems and select solutions based on the analysis of the problem.”

“The police provide feedback on how their solutions or efforts to address problems are proceeding or the results that occurred.”

“When solving problems facing the area, the police often coordinate with other city or county agencies.”

The data presented below in Exhibit 7.10 and Exhibit 7.11 suggest that there is a substantial level of inter-item reliability in the measurement of police problem-solving strategies. This conclusion is based on the substantial correlations between items, the alpha coefficients defining this concept, as well as the factor loadings.

Exhibit 7.10: Neighborhood Association Sample
Correlation Matrix

	Problem Determination	Problem-Solving Feedback	Problem-Solving Coordination
Problem Determination	1.00		
Problem-Solving Feedback	.569 .000	1.00	
Problem-Solving Coordination	.521 .000	.478 .000	1.00

n = 84; $\alpha = .77$

Factor Analysis

Problem-Solving Item	Factor Loading
Problem Determination	.857
Problem-Solving Feedback	.836
Problem-Solving Coordination	.794

Exhibit 7.11: Block Club Sample

Correlation Matrix

	Problem Determination	Problem-Solving Feedback	Problem-Solving Coordination
Problem Determination	1.00		
Problem-Solving Feedback	.689 .000	1.00	
Problem-Solving Coordination	.632 .000	.595 .000	1.00

n = 126; $\alpha = .84$

Factor Analysis

Problem-Solving Item	Factor Loading
Problem Determination	.857
Problem-Solving Feedback	.836
Problem-Solving Coordination	.794

Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods

There are a number of items within the Identification dimension that we expect will form a single construct. These items include measures of permanent assignment, beat assignment integrity, the collection of neighborhood specific information, and police accessibility. The correlations and factor analyses presented below in Exhibit 7.12 and Exhibit 7.13 suggest that there may be two separate concepts defining these dimensions. In particular it appears that the presence of permanent beat assignment and the level of adherence to these permanent assignments are somewhat distinct from the other measures defining the identification dimension. These results suggest that beat integrity is more difficult to adhere to in neighborhoods where residents report having permanently assigned officers. This concept of permanent assignment appears to be distinct from the concept composed of items measuring police collection of neighborhood-specific information and various levels of police accessibility.

Exhibit 7.12: Neighborhood Association Sample
Correlation Matrix

	Permanent Assignment	Beat Integrity	Info. Gathering	Patrol	Neighborhood	Middle Management	Upper Management
Permanent Assignment	1.00						
Beat Integrity	-.299 .020	1.00					
Info. Gathering	.347 .007	-.193 .141	1.00				
Patrol	.295 .022	-.163 .202	.486 .000	1.00			
Neighborhood	.280 .030	-.204 .119	.367 .004	.555 .000	1.00		
Middle Management	.421 .001	-.124 .344	.408 .001	.642 .000	.547 .000	1.00	
Upper Management	.188 .150	-.118 .369	.430 .001	.443 .000	.477 .000	.714 .000	1.00

n = 60; α = .68

Factor Analysis

Identification Item	Factor #1	Factor #2
Permanent Assignment	.700	
Beat Integrity	-.852	
Information Gathering		.594
Patrol Accessibility		.777
Neighborhood Accessibility		.723
Middle-Management Accessibility		.872
Upper-Management Accessibility		.819

Exhibit 7.13: Block Club Sample
Correlation Matrix

	Permanent Assignment	Beat Integrity	Info. Gathering	Patrol	Neighborhood	Middle Management	Upper Management
Permanent Assignment	1.00						
Beat Integrity	-.349 .015	1.00					
Info. Gathering	.617 .000	-.059 .690	1.00				
Patrol	.231 .115	.233 .112	.433 .002	1.00			
Neighborhood	.257 .078	.065 .661	.423 .003	.667 .000	1.00		
Middle Management	.139 .347	.073 .622	.531 .000	.421 .003	.512 .000	1.00	
Upper Management	.256 .080	.004 .980	.460 .001	.422 .003	.531 .000	.777 .000	1.00

n = 48; α = .75

Factor Analysis

Identification Item	Factor #1	Factor #2
Permanent Assignment	.824	
Beat Integrity	-.780	
Information Gathering		.655
Patrol Accessibility		.780
Neighborhood Accessibility		.802
Middle-Management Accessibility		.819
Upper-Management Accessibility		.799

In both the neighborhood and the block samples there was a negative relationship between permanent assignment and the ability of officers to maintain these permanent assignments. This may simply reflect the fact that in neighborhoods where residents are aware of their permanently assigned officer, they are also aware that these officers are often called to perform duties outside of that assignment.

Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts

The police may promote a variety of messages and engage in a variety of activities to promote the collective efforts of residents. In the last section we noted that we measured three forms of encouragement messages. The police can promote the message that a) residents should interact with one another, b) that residents should collaborate with one another, and c) that residents share the same common problems. In addition, the frequency of police involvement with residents in a variety of activities can also encourage collective efforts. We explore the inter-item reliability of these measures below in Exhibit 7.14.

Exhibit 7.14: Neighborhood Association Sample
Correlation Matrix

	Message - Interact	Message - Collaborate	Message – Inform	Community Meetings	Social Events	Training	Rallies	Citizen Patrols	Reporting Program	New Organizations
Message - Interact	1.00									
Message - Collaborate	.766 .000	1.00								
Message – Inform	.491 .000	.436 .000	1.00							
Community Meetings	.422 .001	.327 .010	.372 .003	1.00						
Social Events	.403 .001	.298 .020	.364 .004	.667 .000	1.00					
Training	.317 .013	.407 .001	.413 .001	.533 .000	.603 .000	1.00				
Rallies	.399 .001	.312 .014	.391 .002	.521 .000	.768 .000	.634 .000	1.00			
Citizen Patrols	.463 .000	.338 .008	.376 .003	.474 .000	.583 .000	.490 .000	.536 .000	1.00		
Reporting Program	.352 .005	.288 .024	.339 .007	.532 .000	.617 .000	.473 .000	.615 .000	.601 .000	1.00	
New Organizations	.552 .000	.467 .000	.458 .000	.327 .010	.317 .013	.441 .000	.380 .003	.459 .000	.350 .006	1.00

n = 61; $\alpha = .88$

Factor Analysis

Encouragement Item	Factor #1	Factor #2
Police Encourage Resident Interaction	.863	
Police Encourage Resident Collaboration	.859	
Police Inform Residents About Crime	.629	
Police Involvement in Establishing New Resident Organizations	.701	
Police Involvement in Community Meetings		.724
Police Involvement in Social Events		.878
Police Involvement in Training and Education		.703
Police Involvement in Anti-Crime Rallies		.830
Police Involvement in Citizen Patrols		.672
Police Involvement in Crime Reporting Programs		.777

These data from the neighborhood organization sample suggest a substantial level of inter-item reliability among our measures of encouragement steps. It is interesting to note the consistently positive correlations between the encouragement messages and the frequency of encouragement events. However, the results from the factor analysis presented above suggest a distinction between items measuring encouragement messages and items measuring encouragement activities. This suggests that while these items are related to one another, as evidenced by the correlation matrix, the encouragement messages and the encouragement activities appear to be related to two distinct concepts.

The graphs on the next two pages, Exhibit 7.15, examine the inter-item reliability of these items measured in the block club sample.

Exhibit 7.15: Block Club Sample
Correlation Matrix

	Message - Interact	Message - Collaborate	Message – Inform	Community Meetings	Social Events	Training	Rallies	Citizen Patrols	Reporting Program	New Organizations
Message - Interact	1.00									
Message - Collaborate	.794 .000	1.00								
Message – Inform	.421 .003	.231 .114	1.00							
Community Meetings	.412 .004	.339 .018	.422 .003	1.00						
Social Events	.271 .062	.218 .136	.159 .280	.485 .000	1.00					
Training	.213 .147	.189 .199	.150 .308	.280 .054	.548 .000	1.00				
Rallies	.151 .307	.189 .197	.072 .628	.238 .103	.427 .003	.505 .000	1.00			
Citizen Patrols	.294 .043	.322 .026	.194 .186	.504 .000	.536 .000	.350 .015	.632 .000	1.00		
Reporting Program	.402 .005	.425 .003	.235 .108	.519 .000	.435 .002	.304 .036	.422 .003	.669 .000	1.00	
New Organizations	.502 .000	.495 .000	.304 .036	.204 .164	.120 .417	-.035 .812	.294 .043	.325 .024	.376 .008	1.00

n = 48; α = .81

Factor Analysis

Encouragement Item	Factor #1	Factor #2	Factor #3
Police Encourage Resident Interaction	.730		
Police Encourage Resident Collaboration	.789		
Police Involvement in Establishing New Resident Organizations	.841		
Police Inform Residents About Crime		.771	
Police Involvement in Community Meetings		.667	
Police Involvement in Social Events			.748
Police Involvement in Training and Education			.709
Police Involvement in Anti-Crime Rallies			.805
Police Involvement in Citizen Patrols			.784
Police Involvement in Crime Reporting Programs			.609

The data from the block club participants also suggest an acceptable level of inter-item reliability for these encouragement interactions. There are some notable differences between these two samples however. First, there are fewer positive correlations between the encouragement messages and the encouragement activities in this sample. The frequency of social events, crime prevention training, and anti-crime rallies appear to be distinct and unrelated to any form of encouragement message promoted by the police. Second, the factor analysis of the block club data revealed a unique factor consisting of the item measuring police dissemination of crime information and the frequency of meetings. Therefore, we conclude that the inter-item reliability for these measures is somewhat dependent upon which sample we are examining. Reliability was highest for the neighborhood sample and the factor analysis suggests two components consistent with the distinction we have drawn between encouragement messages and encouragement activities.

Steps for Resident Participation

The survey contains a variety of items that assess the extent to which residents are involved and contribute to the collective interests of the neighborhood. These measures include the resident role in providing input and deciding upon problems and solutions in the neighborhood. One direct measure of this assesses the likelihood that residents would complain to the police about the lack of permanently assigned officers to their neighborhood. In addition to these more direct measures of resident participation, steps that the police may take to promote resident participation, such as following through with decisions they have agreed to, are included in this dimension as well. Results from the analysis of the neighborhood and block samples are provided below in Exhibit 7.16 and Exhibit 7.17.

Exhibit 7.16: Neighborhood Association Sample
Correlation Matrix

	Resident Input -Problems	Balanced Solutions	Residents Follow Through	Police Follow Through	Residents Lobby the Police
Resident Input - Problems	1.00				
Balanced Solutions	.367 .001	1.00			
Residents Follow Through	.388 .001	.479 .000	1.00		
Police Follow Through	.242 .039	.526 .000	.547 .000	1.00	
Residents Lobby the Police	.159 .180	.268 .022	.205 .082	.203 .085	1.00

n = 73; $\alpha = .72$

Factor Analysis

Participation Item	Factor #1
Residents Participate in Identifying and Ranking Problems	.604
Police and Residents Work Together to Decide What Steps to Take	.795
Police Follow Through with Decisions Made with Residents	.795
Residents Follow Through with Decisions Made with Police	.769
Residents Complain to Police About the Lack of Permanent Officers	.443

These analyses suggest a reasonably high level of inter-item reliability. However, the item measuring the extent to which residents would lobby the police for more permanently assigned officers appears to be only weakly related to the other items as evidenced by the smaller and occasionally insignificant correlations and the low factor loading. The data from the block club sample suggest a somewhat higher level of inter-item reliability but, once again, the last item does not appear to be contributing much to the overall measurement of this concept.

Exhibit 7.17: Block Club Sample
Correlation Matrix

	Resident Input -Problems	Balanced Solutions	Residents Follow Through	Police Follow Through	Residents Lobby the Police
Resident Input - Problems	1.00				
Balanced Solutions	.676 .000	1.00			
Residents Follow Through	.614 .000	.599 .000	1.00		
Police Follow Through	.443 .000	.582 .000	.555 .000	1.00	
Residents Lobby the Police	.198 .046	.238 .016	.316 .001	.214 .031	1.00

n = 102; α = .81

Factor Analysis

Participation Item	Factor #1
Residents Participate in Identifying and Ranking Problems	.814
Police and Residents Work Together to Decide What Steps to Take	.857
Police Follow Through with Decisions Made with Residents	.842
Residents Follow Through with Decisions Made with Police	.760
Residents Complain to Police About the Lack of Permanent Officers	.426

Overall, these analyses suggests modest to high levels of inter-item reliability for the four police-community interaction dimensions measured in the survey. For the most

part, across both samples, the correlations indicate that the items within each of the dimensions are related to one another in ways we would expect. The alpha reliability coefficients suggest that our items do a reasonably good job of measuring these co-production dimensions as we have defined them. Finally, the factor analysis of the Identification and the Encouragement dimensions reveal finer distinctions among items contained within these categories of interaction.

Intra-Neighborhood Reliability

The inter-item reliability of a scale tells us something about the ability of items to measure a shared concept. These coefficients are essentially created by averaging across all cases in the sample. What these coefficients do not tell us is the extent to which residents living within the same neighborhood agree with one another. Scales could be shown to have acceptable levels of inter-item reliability (i.e. all items measuring police accessibility are highly correlated with one another) and still produce low levels of within neighborhood reliability. If we had a higher ratio of respondents to neighborhoods we could calculate an alpha coefficient similar to that which was used for the inter-item reliability. Unfortunately the neighborhood sample only relied on one respondent per neighborhood and the response rate to the block club survey was low enough that we were left with an insufficient number of cases to perform this analysis. However, the presence of at least two respondents per neighborhood does permit us to use an alternative means of assessing the intra-neighborhood reliability of a number of our items.

For this analysis we utilize the weighted version of Cohen's Kappa coefficient. This is similar to the coefficient that was used to examine the agreement between field observers who coded the interactions contained within meetings in Indianapolis. We use the weighted Kappa because the response options for the survey are ordinal. This coefficient weights the differences in disagreements depending upon their location within the ordinal response categories. In other words, this statistic takes into account that disagreements across multiple response categories are more substantial than differences of a single response category. Kappa can be interpreted as a chance corrected measure of agreement. The statistic calculates the chance level of agreement, or the level of agreement that would be expected if coders were completely independent, and then determines the extent to which the data improve upon this chance level of agreement. Kappa is 1 when there is perfect agreement between respondents. Kappa is 0 when there is no agreement better than chance. Kappa is negative when agreement between respondents is actually worse than chance.

This analysis depends upon the presence of multiple respondents within the same neighborhood. The multiple aggregation of respondents contained within our samples provides us with two possible means for examining intra-neighborhood reliability. First, we can compare two block club participants who live within the same neighborhood on items that ask about co-production. Second, we can compare the responses of a block club participant and a neighborhood association leader who live within the same neighborhood.

These data provide us with at least 20 pairs of within neighborhood block club participants to compare across 16 interaction items. The number of actual comparisons

depends upon the presence of missing data. The results of this analysis are presented in Exhibit 7.18 below.

Exhibit 7.18: Block Club to Block Club Intra-Neighborhood Reliability

ITEM	% Actual Agreement (N)	Weighted Kappa
Permanent Assignment	62% (13)	.22
Level of Permanent Assignment	NA	NA
Police inform residents about crime	50% (22)	.23
Place-specific information gathering	75% (20)	.30
Police problem-solving	59% (22)	-.05
Police provide feedback	39% (18)	.02
Residents have input into problems	56% (16)	.12
Police and residents work together on solutions	37% (19)	.07
Police coordinate with other agencies	64% (14)	.24
Police determine resident role	50% (16)	.25
Residents determine police role	44% (18)	.20
Residents follow through with decisions	73% (11)	.23
Police follow through with decisions	67% (12)	.32
Police help establish new organizations	64% (14)	.43
Police encourage residents to interact	70% (20)	.17
Police encourage residents to work together	82% (22)	.42

VALUE OF KAPPA	STRENGTH OF AGREEMENT
< 0.20	Poor or Slight
0.21 – 0.40	Fair
0.41 – 0.60	Moderate
0.61 – 0.80	Good or Substantial
0.81 – 1.00	Very Good or Almost Perfect

According to this common interpretation of Kappa, we have two items that reach a moderate level of agreement. Block club participants living within the same neighborhood appear to agree when the police a) help them establish new resident-based organizations, and b) encourage residents to collaborate and work together. For the item measuring police establishing resident organizations, and the item measuring police encouragement of resident collaboration, the proportion of agreements after chance has been excluded are 43% and 42%. In addition, there are six items that fall within the “fair” category of agreement. Unfortunately, there are six items that suggest some

problems with intra-neighborhood reliability. There are five items that produce very low levels of agreement beyond what we would expect by chance. In addition, the item measuring police involvement in problem-solving produced a level of agreement that is actually worse than what we would expect by chance. The number of points of comparison does create some cause for concern. The use of the Kappa coefficient is recommended when comparing at least 20 pairs of coders, raters, or respondents. This minimum is met in only 5 of the 16 items examined here. As a result, these results should be interpreted with caution.

In an attempt to generate more points of comparison we identified 30 neighborhoods in which we had at least one respondent from each of our two samples represented. This aggregation allows us to compare the responses of a block club participant with that of a neighborhood association leader. The results from this analysis are presented below in Exhibit 7.19.

Exhibit 7.19: Block Club to Neighborhood Association Intra-Neighborhood Reliability

ITEM	% Actual Agreement (N)	Weighted Kappa
Permanent Assignment	70% (20)	.45
Level of Permanent Assignment	69% (13)	.35
Police inform residents about crime	63% (27)	.20
Place-specific information gathering	82% (27)	.10
Police problem-solving	45% (29)	-.26
Police provide feedback	71% (28)	.36
Residents have input into problems	73% (26)	.32
Police and residents work together on solutions	58% (26)	.41
Police coordinate with other agencies	46% (24)	-.09
Police determine resident role	35% (23)	-.15
Residents determine police role	42% (26)	-.13
Residents follow through with decisions	60% (25)	-.05
Police follow through with decisions	56% (25)	.10
Police help establish new organizations	40% (20)	-.18
Police encourage residents to interact	64% (28)	.00
Police encourage residents to work together	72% (29)	.01

VALUE OF KAPPA	STRENGTH OF AGREEMENT
< 0.20	Poor or Slight
0.21 – 0.40	Fair
0.41 – 0.60	Moderate
0.61 – 0.80	Good or Substantial
0.81 – 1.00	Very Good or Almost Perfect

These results suggest that two items reach a moderate level of agreement. Block Club participants and neighborhood association leaders living within the same neighborhood appear to agree when a) they have permanently assigned beat officers, and b) when police and residents work together to decide on steps to address problems. For the item measuring permanent assignment, and the item measuring collaboration on solutions, the proportion of agreements after chance has been excluded are 45% and 41%. In addition, there are four other items that fall within the fair category of agreement. Consistent with the previous analysis, there are a substantial number of items that suggest problems for the intra-neighborhood reliability of these measures. For example, four of the items produced very low levels of agreement beyond what we would expect by chance. Even more troubling is the fact that six of the items produced levels of agreement that are actually worse than what we would expect if these observations were completely independent.

There are two possible ways to interpret these results. First, it could be argued that these data suggest only modest levels of intra-neighborhood reliability for a small portion of the survey items. This is the interpretation that has been presented above. Alternatively, there is some evidence to suggest that these low levels of reliability may be due to features of this research design as opposed to the inherent quality of the items themselves. There are three characteristics of this analysis that lend credibility to this alternative interpretation. First, as was mentioned earlier, the use of Kappa becomes less

desirable as the number of points of comparison decrease. In comparing block club participants to one another we encounter a situation where the majority of items drop below the minimum requirement of 20 points of comparison. Second, while we compared block club leaders residing within the same neighborhood, we were unable to determine the proximity of these block clubs to one another. To the extent that conditions vary from block to block within the same neighborhood, these block club participants may have been responding to entirely different experiences. Finally, we are troubled by the fact that there was little consistency in the reliability between these two tests. In other words, these two attempts at measuring agreement produce very different results in terms of which items reach acceptable levels of reliability. The extremely low levels that were revealed when we compared block club participants to neighborhood association leaders may reflect very different experiences that these two groups have. If the interactions that block club participants and neighborhood association leaders have with the police differ in a number of ways, we have been comparing responses to two entirely different processes. In short, these low levels of reliability may reflect our inability to produce adequate points of comparison as opposed to problems inherent in the measurement of these concepts. Therefore, we advise caution in the interpretation of these results and conclude that more research needs to be done before we reach a definitive conclusion as to the intra-neighborhood reliability of these items.

Validity

Criterion Validity

Thus far this discussion has focused on the reliability of these survey measures. It is important to note however that reliability is a necessary but insufficient aspect of validity. In other words, a measure can be reliable but not necessarily valid. If we assume that we have produced survey measures that are adequately reliable, we are left with the task of establishing whether or not we are actually measuring what we set out to measure. Before discussing the specific elements of validity that we were able to examine, a word about the data is in order.

In the reliability analyses we utilized data from both the block club sample and the neighborhood association sample. For the purposes of these validity analyses we rely only on the neighborhood association sample. The primary reason for this has to do with the availability of external data that we use to validate these survey measures. The unit of analysis for the majority of these external variables that we will discuss shortly was the census tract. While census tracts do not align perfectly with neighborhood boundaries, it was fairly easy to aggregate these census-level data to the neighborhood level. Our final sample used for these validity analyses consisted of 82 neighborhoods, 49 of which were completely contained within a single census tract. Census-level data for the remaining 33 neighborhoods had to be aggregated to coincide with neighborhood boundaries. The list below describes the various sources of official data that we obtained at the census tract-level and relied on for these analyses.

- 1990 U.S. Census
- 1997 Marion County Health Dept. Birth Certificate Data
- 1997 Home Mortgage Disclosure Act Data
- 1998 Indianapolis Police Department Data
- 1998 Family & Social Services Administration Data

We begin with a discussion of the criterion validity of these survey measures. As was mentioned in the introduction, criterion validity is concerned with the relationship between a measure and some known external criterion that also indicates the quantity being assessed. Examining the criterion validity of these survey items, especially those focusing on a specific element of co-production, was difficult due to the limited availability of acceptable criterion variables. However, we were able to examine the criterion validity of the following survey items:

Race – In the survey we asked respondents to report the race of the majority of residents living in their neighborhood. Census figures indicating race were used to validate these responses. Dummy variables for both survey and census measures were created with two response options; majority of residents are white and majority of residents are black.

Survey and census measures of race are correlated at .812, $p < .01$. This correlation suggests that the survey item measuring neighborhood race is measured with a substantial amount of validity.

Economic Condition – In the survey we asked respondents to report the economic condition of their neighborhood. Respondents were given six categories as response options that ranged from “extremely poor” to “above middle class”. Four census-level measures of economic condition were used to serve as criterion variables. These items include the median household income, the % the population living in poverty, the % of the births that were high risk (low birth weight, teenage mother, unwed mother), the % of population receiving welfare, the % of the population that is unemployed.

Exhibit 7.20: Neighborhood Economic Condition Criterion Validity

Census Measure	Correlation	Significance
median household income	.400	p<.000
% living in poverty	-.327	p<.003
% high risk births	-.322	p<.006
% on welfare	-.403	p<.000
% unemployed	-.260	p<.021

These correlations suggest that resident leaders do a reasonably accurate job of rating the economic condition of their neighborhood.

Violence – Respondents were asked about the level of violence that residents experience in their neighborhood. Respondents were given four categories of response options that ranged from “extremely violent” to “not violent”. The criterion measure of violence is the rate of violent crime (assault & robbery) reported by the IPD in the Uniform Crime Reports (UCR). **Survey and UCR measures of violence are correlated at .205, p<.067.** This correlation suggests that the survey item assessing violence is measured with a somewhat lower level of validity. Although marginally significant, the correlation is not all that substantial.

Overall Crime – Respondents were asked how big of a problem the overall level of crime was in their neighborhood. The survey item represents a categorical response with three response options; “a big problem”, “somewhat of a problem”, “not a problem”. The criterion measure of crime is the rate of Part One UCR offenses recorded by the IPD. **Survey and UCR measures of crime are correlated at .140, p<.208.** This correlation suggests some problems with the survey item measuring overall crime.

Steps for Resident Participation – There are three items measuring resident participation that we examine for criterion validity. These items include a) residents identifying and ranking problems, b) police and residents collaborating on solutions, and c) residents following through with decisions they have made with the police. We came to the conclusion that any measure of civic engagement at the neighborhood level would serve as an acceptable criterion for these items. Local voting participation and resident involvement in voluntary organizations both represent official measures of civic engagement that would have been useful for this purpose. Unfortunately we were unable to obtain these data. We decided to use an additional survey item, the level of participation in local elections as perceived by the respondent, as an alternative criterion variable. The table below presents the correlations between this criterion variable and each of our items measuring resident participation.

Exhibit 7.21: Resident Participation Criterion Validity

Resident Participation Item	Correlation	Significance
Residents Identify and Rank Problems	-.039	.740
Police and Residents Collaborate on Solutions	.334	.003
Residents Follow Through with Decisions with Police	.298	.009

These correlations suggest acceptable criterion validity for two of the three measures of resident participation. The item measuring the extent to which residents have input into the identification of neighborhood problems is not related to our measure of neighborhood civic engagement. This finding may suggest that resident input into problems is a common element of co-production regardless of the civic mindedness of residents. However, co-production involving higher levels of resident involvement, for

example, making decisions about solutions or following through with action, may only occur in those neighborhoods where civic engagement is also high.

Overall, this analysis of the criterion validity of some of the survey suggests that most of the items appear to be measuring what we had intended them to measure. The two exceptions to this include the item measuring overall neighborhood crime and the item measuring resident participation in problem identification. The problem with the first item may simply be a result of a limited response set, creating a variable with little variance. Additionally, the item is worded in such a way that it asks about the rating of crime as a problem. This subjective assessment of crime as a problem may be distinctly different from a more objective assessment that focuses on the level of crime in the neighborhood. As mentioned in the last paragraph, the item measuring resident input into problem identification may be tapping a form of co-production that involves substantially lower levels of resident involvement compared to the other items in this dimension.

Construct Validity

Construct validity is the extent to which a measure is related in theoretically expected ways to other constructs. Therefore, we are interested in the ways in which our measures of police-community interaction are related to the larger structure of neighborhoods as well as the ways in which they are related to some important outcomes that we might expect from these interactions. It is important to keep in mind that these co-production interactions do not occur within a vacuum. We would expect that the social context of neighborhoods would shape the manner in which these interactions evolve and develop. For example, we expect co-production interactions to be lowest in neighborhoods characterized by structural disadvantages such as poverty. Likewise, we

expect to find that variation in outcomes, such as the social organization of the neighborhood, is systematically related to police-community interaction. For example, we anticipate that informal social control among residents will be highest in those neighborhoods where the police and residents are engaged in a variety of interactions and activities that encourage residents to contribute to the neighborhood.

In our discussion of criterion validity above we mentioned that one of the biggest challenges we faced with this form of validity was the lack of available criteria by which to judge our measures. We face a similar struggle in regards to construct validity but it is theoretical in nature. In order to test the construct validity of these measures we need both available construct variables and theory linking our measures with these constructs. While there has been some theory development that describes the relationship between various forms of policing, neighborhood context, and outcomes reflecting social organization, this work has been more general in nature. There is little, if any, work we are aware of that attempts to develop a theory for understanding specific elements of police-resident co-production. As a result the task of establishing the construct validity of these survey measures is a difficult one in the face of the relatively weak state of theoretical knowledge. We acknowledge this challenge and accept that this is an unavoidable challenge for any research that is proceeding in the early stages of both theory and measurement development. We turn our attention now to a discussion of the construct variables and theoretical framework we will utilize.

Construct Variables

The construct variables used in this analysis include both structural and outcome constructs. In describing the structural conditions of neighborhoods, research has traditionally examined socioeconomic status, crime rate, the instability of the resident population, and race. It is important to note that we use the percent of housing units that are occupied by owners as a proxy for residential stability. Admittedly, a more direct measure of residential stability would reflect the percentage of residents living in the same neighborhood over a period of time. We use these constructs measured by the following six variables:

Structural Constructs

- 1) Poverty Index - $\alpha = .88$
 - % receiving welfare
 - % in living in poverty
 - % high risk births
- 2) Crime Index - $\alpha = .88$
 - social disorder rate (juvenile arrest & reported vandalism)
 - Violent UCR rate
 - Property UCR rate
 - Part One UCR rate
- 3) Crime Issue Importance - $\alpha = .83$

Survey items measuring the Importance of:

 - Personal Crime
 - Property Crime
 - Social Disorder
- 4) Residential Stability
 - % of owner occupied units
- 5) Racial Composition
 - % of the population that was black
- 6) Racial Heterogeneity Index

Outcome Constructs

There are a variety of outcomes that define the social organization of neighborhoods. Although we do not have access to official measures of these constructs, we use a variety of items in the survey to create five scales measuring social organization. These scales include a) social ties/integration, b) social bonds, c) individual informal social control, d) group informal social control, and e) community social capacity. We list below the survey items used to create each of the scales and the alpha coefficient associated with each construct.

Social Ties/Integration - $\alpha = .50$

- People in this neighborhood are willing to help their neighbors.
- People in this neighborhood have a lot of friends or family living in the same neighborhood.
- How likely is it that a resident would volunteer to watch a neighbor's child while they work, attend school, or go shopping?

Social Bonds - $\alpha = .87$

- This is a close-knit neighborhood.
- People in this neighborhood can be trusted.
- People in this neighborhood generally get along together.
- People in this neighborhood share the same values.
- People living in this neighborhood plan to live here a long time.
- People living in this neighborhood are likely to recommend this neighborhood to a friend or relative.

Individual Social Control - $\alpha = .44$

How likely is it that an individual resident in your neighborhood would engage in the following activities:

- Request that the owner of a car turn down his/her stereo...
- Contact the city to complain about a broken streetlight...
- Paint over graffiti on a building...

Group Social Control - $\alpha = .74$

How likely is it that a group of residents would get together and engage in the following activities:

- Meet with local housing officials to discuss negligent or absent landlords.
- Complain to district police administrators about the lack of permanently assigned officers to the neighborhood.
- Complete an application to recognize a resident for their positive contributions to the neighborhood.
- Organize meetings with school officials to discuss the needs of youth.

Community Social Capacity - $\alpha = .68$

- When faced with problems in this neighborhood, residents are confident in their ability to work together with other residents to solve these problems.
- Together as a group, residents in this neighborhood have the knowledge, skills, and abilities to solve area problems.
- Together as a group, residents in this neighborhood have the necessary connections and relationships to solve area problems.

Police-Community Interaction Measures

We propose to test the construct validity of the survey items utilizing the following measures. In order to provide for a more simple and concise analysis we calculated these interaction indexes.

Improvement Steps – Problem Solving Index - $\alpha = .76$

- Once a specific problem is found, the police attempt to determine the nature, extent, and causes of the problem and select a solution based on the analysis of the problem.
- The police provide feedback on how their solutions or efforts to address problems are proceeding or the results that occurred.
- When solving problems facing the neighborhood, the police often coordinate with other city or county agencies.

Identification Steps Index - $\alpha = .54$

- We have had permanently assigned beat officers for more than a year.
- The police keep track of reported crimes, calls for service, or arrests in an attempt to identify the unique characteristics of the neighborhood.

Identification - Police Accessibility Index - $\alpha = .82$

- Accessibility of Patrol Officers
- Accessibility of Community or Neighborhood Officers

- Accessibility of Middle Management
- Accessibility of Upper Management

Encouragement Steps – Message Index - $\alpha = .78$

- The police encourage neighborhood residents to get to know one another.
- The police encourage neighborhood residents to work together to solve problems.
- The police inform residents about crime in the area.

Encouragement Steps – Activity Index - $\alpha = .88$

Frequency of police involvement in:

- Community Meetings
- Neighborhood Social Events
- Crime Prevention Training or Education
- Anti-Crime/Drug Rallies
- Neighborhood Citizen Patrols
- Crime or Drug Reporting Hotline/Program

Participation Steps Index - $\alpha = .75$

- Residents participate in identifying and ranking problems.
- Once a problem has been identified, the police and residents work together to decide what steps will be taken to address the problem.
- The residents follow through with decisions made with the police.
- The police follow through with decisions made with residents and neighborhood associations.

Participation Steps – Non-representative Dummy Variable

- Represents a dummy variable measuring non-representative participation. All neighborhoods with a majority black population (> 50%) that also indicated they had “a lot” of difficulty attracting black residents to participate in neighborhood affairs received this code.

Police-Community Interaction and Neighborhood Structure

Theoretical Framework

There is a body of literature that suggests that variety in police-community interaction is associated with the structure of neighborhoods. A good deal of this theory

and research has evolved from case study evaluations of community policing efforts. While it is not possible to summarize all of this literature here, a few more general observations will assist in directing our expectations for these relationships. One structural variable that appears to be consistently related to police-community interaction is residential home ownership. A variety of literature suggests that residential ownership, often measured as the percent of housing units that are occupied by owners as opposed to renters, is positively related to the level of resident participation in co-production with the police (Skogan and Hartnett 1997; Skogan et al. 2000a). Based on studies of individual participation we can surmise that residents in areas characterized by high home ownership are more aware of area problems or have a greater sense of responsibility for the neighborhood.

Other structural variables that appear to be related to police-community interaction are crime, race, and poverty. The expectations for these structural variables are less clear due to some contradictory evidence. One perspective argues that co-production will be lowest in neighborhoods that are characterized by high crime, significant minority populations, and high levels of poverty. This perspective assumes that these structural conditions breed fear, apathy, and mistrust of the police, which inhibit active resident participation in co-production interactions and activities. Evidence for this perspective has largely resulted from early evaluations of crime prevention and community policing (Wycoff et al. 1985; Skogan 1990; Grinc 1998/1994). An alternative perspective suggests that these structural conditions may actually serve as a motivation for resident participation and various forms of police-community interaction. Because the police perceive a need for action in troubled neighborhoods and because

residents reach a point where they are no longer willing to tolerate crime and disorder, the relationship between structural disadvantage and co-production may actually be positive. The recent evaluations of the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy (CAPS) have shown that attendance at beat meetings was higher in areas experiencing more crime (Skogan and Hartnett 1997; Skogan et al. 2000a). In short, while there is theory and research specifying different relationships between the structural conditions of neighborhoods and levels of co-production, some of these perspectives appear contradictory. In addition, there is little development linking these structural characteristics to specific elements of police-community interaction. We attempt to present and test a number of specific hypotheses below.

Hypotheses

We expect to find different relationships between the structural characteristics of neighborhoods and co-production depending on which aspect of police-community interaction we examine. These hypotheses are presented in the Exhibit 7.22 below.

Exhibit 7.22: Hypotheses Linking Police-Community Interaction and Structure

Police-Community Interaction Index	Structural Disadvantage Variables	Relationship
Encouragement Steps – Messages	Poverty, Crime, Racial Heterogeneity	+
Encouragement Steps – Activities	Poverty, Crime, Racial Heterogeneity	+
Participation Steps – Non-representation	Poverty, Crime, Residential Instability	+
Participation Steps Index	Poverty, Crime, Residential Instability	-
Improvement Steps – Problem Solving	Poverty, Crime Residential Instability	-

There are three elements of co-production that we anticipate will be positively associated with structural disadvantage and disorganization. These interaction dimensions include both police encouragement messages and encouragement activity, as well as non-representative participation. We expect that the police will be more actively

involved in encouraging resident effort in those neighborhoods experiencing higher levels of crime, poverty, and racial heterogeneity. There are fewer reasons to expect the police to be promoting these messages and engaging in these activities in neighborhoods that are experiencing fewer problems. In addition, the police may perceive a greater need to encourage resident interaction and collaboration in more racially heterogeneous neighborhoods. We expect to find some of the strongest associations with the dummy variable measuring non-representative participation. We assume that neighborhoods that are primarily minority but have a few minority residents participating in the collective interests of the neighborhood probably represent impoverished areas characterized by high resident turnover and high crime.

We also expect several elements of police-community interaction to be negatively associated with structural disadvantage and disorganization. These dimensions include resident participation and problem-solving improvement steps. We anticipate that fear and frustration commonly associated with the crime and poverty will inhibit resident participation. Alternatively, the police may be less willing to provide a role for resident participation in neighborhoods where crime has reached a crisis level (Weingart, Hartmann, and Osborne 1993). In addition, police problem solving is expected to be negatively correlated with measures of structural disadvantage. We would anticipate that the police would have fewer opportunities to coordinate with other agencies in neighborhoods characterized by poverty, residential instability, and crime. In addition, we expect that there will be less motivation for the police to provide feedback and evidence of problem solving to residents who we anticipate are less active in interactions with the police.

Findings

In an attempt to test these hypotheses we calculated correlations between each of the indexes of police-community interaction and the variables measuring neighborhood structure. These correlations failed to reveal any significant negative correlations between our measures of police-community interaction and the variables measuring neighborhood structure. However there were several positive correlations that we present in the table below, Exhibit 7.23.

Exhibit 7.23: Correlations between Police-Community Interaction and Structure

Police-Community Interaction Variable	Structural Disadvantage Variable	Correlation
Identification Steps Index	Crime Issue Importance	.256 (.034)
Encouragement Steps – Message Index	Crime Issue Importance	.266 (.019)
Encouragement Steps – Activity Index	Crime Issue Importance	.356 (.009)
Participation Steps Index	Crime Issue Importance	.232 (.045)
Participation Steps – Non-Representation	Residential Instability	.261 (.018)
Participation Steps – Non-representation	Crime Issue Importance	.234 (.034)

These correlations suggest that co-production interactions are consistently related to the importance of crime in the neighborhood. However, police-community interactions do not appear to be related to more objective measures of crime and poverty. Our data suggest that there is little relationship between official measures of crime and the more subjective rating that resident leaders assign to crime issues. Therefore, we might surmise that police are more responsive to what they perceive to be the concerns of neighborhood residents than they are to what official crime statistics reveal about crime.

These data also suggest that non-representative participation is more likely to be a problem in neighborhoods characterized by a high rate of residential instability and in neighborhoods where crime is perceived to be a bigger problem.

Police-Community Interaction and Outcomes

While we failed to demonstrate a consistent relationship between our measures of police-community interaction and neighborhood structure, there exists the possibility that these elements of co-production are related to some important neighborhood outcomes. In an earlier chapter we introduced and described the concept of community building. Our original interest in measuring these police-community interactions grew out of an understanding that they should be related to the development and maintenance of stronger communities. As such, throughout this project we have conceived of these interactions as community building processes. The survey instrument provides us with the best opportunity to examine the extent to which these co-production interactions are in fact related to some important outcomes.

Theoretical Framework

Theory and research on community building has pointed to a number of important outcomes that reflect the level of social organization in neighborhoods. These variables include such things as the amount of interaction that residents have with one another, the attachment residents have with their neighborhood, the likelihood and frequency of informal social control, and the degree of confidence residents have in collective action. Previously in this section we described the variables that we included in the survey in an attempt to measure these constructs. Our task at this point is to point to a narrow body of

research that we are aware of that might guide our hypotheses for how these outcome variables might be related to our measures of police-community interaction.

Thus far we have referred to these variables measuring social organization as outcome constructs. We have done so because there is a body of literature that suggests that these community building processes should lead to more socially organized neighborhoods. While it is tempting to think of informal social control or social bonds in this way, it is important to note that this definition implies a temporal order that we are uncomfortable assuming for a number of reasons. First, the survey generates data that are cross-sectional in nature. Because we are only capturing point-in-time measures of both police-community interaction and social organization, the survey does not permit us to draw any conclusion concerning how these constructs are causally ordered. Therefore, for example, even if we do find a positive relationship between an element of co-production and social capacity, we could not assume that one construct “caused” the other.

Another reason we do not assume that social organization is an outcome is that we are familiar with some theory and research that would suggest just the opposite. That is, some have suggested, and offered evidence in support of this claim, that in some instances resident organization precedes police-community interaction (Lyons 1999). In this version of temporal order, neighborhoods characterized by high levels of social ties, informal social control, and community social capacity, are successful at lobbying the police for certain forms of co-production interactions. Therefore, there appear to be competing models of causal order. In the first model, police and residents engage in a variety of interactions aimed at improving the neighborhood and this co-production is

successful at organizing and solidifying social order in the neighborhood. In the second model, residents seeking more co-productive interactions from the police, organize, lobby city and police administrators, and begin to engage in police-community interactions. While we will not be able to determine these complex issues with these data, we are arguing that we should expect to find positive associations between our measures of police-community interaction and neighborhood social organization.

Hypotheses

We expect to find a variety of different relationships between the community building processes contained within our interaction dimensions and the variables measuring neighborhood social organization. The hypotheses linking these constructs are presented in the Exhibit 7.24 below.

Exhibit 7.24: Hypotheses Linking Police-Community Interaction and Outcome

Police-Community Interaction Index	Neighborhood Variable	Relationship
Improvement Steps – Problem Solving Index	Community Social Capacity	+
Identification Steps Index	Group Social Control	+
	Community Social Capacity	+
Identification – Accessibility Index	Individual Social Control	+
	Group Social Control	+
	Community Social Capacity	+
Encouragement Steps – Message Index	Social Ties	+
	Group Social Control	+
Encouragement Steps – Activity Index	Social Ties	+
	Group Social Control	+
	Community Social Capacity	+
Participation Steps Index	Individual Social Control	+
	Group Social Control	+
	Community Social Capacity	+
Participation Steps – Non-Representation	Social Bonds	-
	Group Informal Social Control	-
	Community Social Capacity	-

As this table indicates we expect to find positive associations between a variety of interaction dimensions and a variety of neighborhood organization constructs. First, we expect to find a positive association between police involvement in problem solving and neighborhood social capacity. We are assuming that residents have more confidence in their own ability to solve problems when the police are engaging in these type of processes. In addition, police may be more likely to engage in problem solving if they believe these actions will be supported by a competent group of residents.

A variety of Identification steps are expected to be positively related to individual and group informal social control, as well as social capacity. We anticipate that residents are going to be more likely to engage in collective acts of informal social control when they have permanently assigned beat officers in their neighborhood. Residents may anticipate less danger in engaging in these activities as the familiarity with neighborhood officers increases. In addition, residents may also anticipate more positive rewards and expect that these actions are going to be more successful when there is evidence that the police are more accessible.

Encouragement steps are designed to promote more interaction between residents and encourage residents to collaborate and work together to solve the common problems facing the neighborhood. Therefore, we anticipate that these encouragement messages and activities will be positively related to social ties, group social control, and community social capacity. One explanation for this association is that the police are successful at generating resident action and confidence by promoting these messages and engaging in collaborative efforts to address crime and neighborhood social problems. An alternative explanation is also possible. Neighborhoods characterized by high levels of social ties

and frequent group activities may encourage the police to collaborate with them, thereby increasing the frequency of these police-community interactions.

The participation index is also expected to be positively associated with both levels of informal social control and social capacity. It is assumed that when residents develop a sense of responsibility for their neighborhood through their interactions with the police, this carries over into their everyday interactions with other residents in the neighborhood. In addition, we argue that these avenues for participation, coupled with the support of the police increase the confidence that residents have in their ability to solve neighborhood problems.

Finally, the dummy variable measuring non-representative participation is the only variable we expect to be negatively related to a number of the social organization constructs. We assume that neighborhoods exhibiting non-representative participation will be characterized by lower levels of trust and higher levels of dissatisfaction. Therefore, we assume that residents will be less likely to engage in group informal social control and have less confidence in their ability to solve neighborhood problems.

Findings

In order to test these hypotheses we estimated a variety of OLS regression equations. First, using the concepts measuring neighborhood social organization as the dependent variables, we examined the independent impact of each of the structural variables. Second, using these same dependent variables, we estimated separate equations for each of the indexes of police-community interaction. These co-production indexes could not be simultaneously entered into the same equation because they were too highly correlated with one another. Therefore, the standardized coefficients

presented in the tables below represent the independent effects of each co-production variable after controlling for the structural composition of the neighborhood.

Exhibit 7.25: Variables Predicting Social Ties

Independent Variable	Standardized Coefficient	Significance
Poverty Index	.020	.916
Crime Index	-.028	.863
Crime Issue Importance	.224	.088
Residential Stability	-.098	.575
Black Population	-.359	.014
Racial Heterogeneity	.155	.213
Improvement Steps – Problem Solving Index	.146	.257
Identification Steps Index	.008	.954
Identification Steps – Accessibility Index	.156	.193
Encouragement Steps – Message Index	.187	.148
Encouragement Steps – Activity Index	.215	.175
Participation Steps Index	.183	.145
Participation Steps – Non-Representation	.128	.346

The results presented in Exhibit 7.25 suggest that the only variable that predicts the level of social ties in a neighborhood is the percentage of the population that is black. As the black population in a neighborhood increases, the social ties decrease. We had expected to find positive associations between our measures of encouragement steps and social ties. These results suggest that the level of social ties that residents have with one another in the neighborhood are independent of any police-community co-production that is occurring.

Exhibit 7.26: Variables Predicting Social Bonds

Independent Variable	Standardized Coefficient	Significance
Poverty Index	-.376	.042
Crime Index	.076	.657
Crime Issue Importance	-.038	.771
Residential Stability	-.024	.894
Black Population	.045	.753
Racial Heterogeneity	.074	.554
Improvement Steps – Problem Solving Index	.225	.079
Identification Steps Index	.139	.333
Identification Steps – Accessibility Index	.400	.001
Encouragement Steps – Message Index	.171	.170
Encouragement Steps – Activity Index	.345	.028
Participation Steps Index	.282	.021
Participation Steps – Non-Representation	-.361	.007

The table above, Exhibit 7.26, presents the results of our attempt to predict the level of social bonds in a neighborhood. There is one structural variable and a variety of co-production variables that are noteworthy. First, these results suggest that social bonds are weakest in neighborhoods experiencing higher levels of poverty. This is not altogether surprising considering this index contains items that assess the level of attachment and satisfaction in the neighborhood. The only variable we had anticipated would be related to social bonds, non-representative participation, is negatively correlated with social bonds. This suggests there is less trust and cohesion between residents in minority neighborhoods characterized by little minority involvement. The other coefficients suggest that co-production is highest in neighborhoods with high levels of social bonds. The impact of participation steps and encouragement steps on social bonds may be explained by the fact that these forms of co-production require some amount of consensus among residents about what is and is not acceptable behavior in the neighborhood as well as some amount of commitment to the neighborhood. Therefore, it

is not surprising that construct measuring social bonds is positively related to the level of resident participation and the frequency of activity in these interactions.

Exhibit 7.27: Variables Predicting Individual Informal Social Control

Independent Variable	Standardized Coefficient	Significance
Poverty Index	-.258	.217
Crime Index	.153	.436
Crime Issue Importance	.097	.522
Residential Stability	.010	.960
Black Population	-.057	.727
Racial Heterogeneity	-.079	.572
Improvement Steps – Problem Solving Index	.377	.011
Identification Steps Index	.334	.043
Identification Steps – Accessibility Index	.443	.001
Encouragement Steps – Message Index	.369	.009
Encouragement Steps – Activity Index	.466	.004
Participation Steps Index	.625	.000
Participation Steps – Non-Representation	-.315	.041

The results presented in Exhibit 7.27 suggest that individual levels of informal social control in the neighborhood are independent of any structural variables. This is somewhat surprising. We would expect that the level of informal social control would at least be related to either the official or the subjective measure of crime in the neighborhood. However, all of our measures assessing police-community interaction are associated with this construct in ways that we would expect. This finding may be interpreted in a variety of different ways. Some might suggest that this provides evidence that the actions that police and resident engage in together can support a variety of informal actions taken by individual residents. Alternatively, some may offer that this suggests that the police are more willing to work, or more easily persuaded to work with

residents in neighborhoods already characterized by already high levels of informal social control.

Exhibit 7.28: Variables Predicting Group Informal Social Control

Independent Variable	Standardized Coefficient	Significance
Poverty Index	.197	.427
Crime Index	-.268	.200
Crime Issue Importance	.424	.005
Residential Stability	-.095	.592
Black Population	-.123	.448
Racial Heterogeneity	-.053	.686
Improvement Steps – Problem Solving Index	.259	.048
Identification Steps Index	.289	.038
Identification Steps – Accessibility Index	.364	.004
Encouragement Steps – Message Index	.320	.014
Encouragement Steps – Activity Index	.365	.017
Participation Steps Index	.435	.000
Participation Steps – Non-Representation	-.271	.054

These coefficients indicate that resident collaboration in informal social control is more likely in neighborhoods where crime is perceived to be a bigger problem. This suggests that crime problems may actually motivate residents to take action. The table above also suggests that police-community interaction is related to group informal social control in much the same way as it is related to individual social control. The one exception to this is the variable measuring non-representative participation. It would appear that the impact of non-representative participation on social control is less pronounced for actions involving groups of residents compared to actions involving independent residents. In general, the various interpretations of these findings mirror those that were discussed in the paragraph on individual informal social control. Regardless of the temporal order of these variables, this offers strong evidence in support of the construct validity of these survey measures.

Exhibit 7.29: Variables Predicting Community Social Capacity

Independent Variable	Standardized Coefficient	Significance
Poverty Index	-.204	.283
Crime Index	.025	.883
Crime Issue Importance	-.082	.539
Residential Stability	-.152	.416
Black Population	-.058	.692
Racial Heterogeneity	-.050	.695
Improvement Steps – Problem Solving Index	.166	.210
Identification Steps Index	.262	.064
Identification Steps – Accessibility Index	.433	.000
Encouragement Steps – Message Index	.282	.027
Encouragement Steps – Activity Index	.418	.006
Participation Steps Index	.389	.002
Participation Steps – Non-Representation	.182	.186

We had argued above that social capacity should be related to both police problem solving and identification. The findings presented above in Exhibit 7.29 fail to confirm that expectation. In addition, we had expected that social capacity would be lower in neighborhoods where there was not equal participation by minority residents. These coefficients indicate that resident confidence in their own problem solving capabilities is independent of representative participation. Community social capacity does appear to be related to police accessibility, both encouragement messages and activities, and participation steps. These coefficients suggest that resident confidence in their ability to solve problems is highest in neighborhoods where the police and residents are engaged in more frequent and more balanced interactions with one another.

Taken as a whole, these findings seem to offer some support for the construct validity of our survey measures. Police-community interaction appears to be related to a number of constructs measuring neighborhood social organization in some reasonable ways given our understanding of community building processes. The fact that our

measures of neighborhood organization are not independent of the survey encourage us to seek alternative measures before we make a definitive conclusion concerning the construct validity of our co-production items.

CHAPTER EIGHT

PRACTITIONER RESPONSES

For PCIP, “practitioners” are defined as police officials, community organizers, neighborhood organization leaders, and others (including other officials in city government) concerned directly with the practice of community building. In the course of PCIP, we have had the benefit of two kinds of reactions from these practitioners about the idea of police-community interaction, about the data produced by the instruments, and about the community and police issues that may influence decisions about adoption of the measures. First, we had lengthy and intense meetings with our Advisory Committee at three different stages of the project. The advisory committee was comprised of two community researchers (Dennis Rosenbaum and Ralph Taylor), two community organizers (Warren Friedman and H. Ward Greer), and three police chiefs (Johnnie Johnson, Ed Davis, and Marty Tapscott). Second, we held data feedback sessions in Albany, Schenectady, and Indianapolis for people directly involved in the survey and observation instruments.

In this chapter we will review the discussions with the practitioners concerning their understanding of the concepts, their initial sense of the utility of the measures, and their ideas about problems with data collection, interpretation and application. Since the instrument feedback sessions were shorter and more focused, we will report our impressions of these sessions first. We will then report in more detail the reactions and recommendations of the Advisors, who were involved in the project from the outset and were much more familiar with our goals and methods than the people in the data feedback sessions.

Practitioner Reactions to Data about Their Own Communities

PCIP committed itself to providing written feedback to all of the neighborhood leaders who wanted to see the results from the community surveys (Chapter 7). We constructed reports tailored to Albany and Schenectady neighborhood association leaders, and to neighborhood and block club leaders in Indianapolis. We held discussion sessions about the survey only in Albany and Schenectady. In Indianapolis we held a meeting with residents from WESCO and police from the West District to discuss the preliminary observation data. At the time that we met with the WESCO group, we had yet to make final decisions about how to display the data; and, therefore, we did not provide a written report. We sent survey reports to the police department in each city and police officials attended the Albany, Schenectady and WESCO meetings.

So far, these are our only experiences with community building practitioners reacting to data about their *own* behavior. As this chapter will indicate, we are still learning how the police-community interaction concepts and data might be most effectively presented to promote comprehension, interest, and ultimately, adoption. Our own interpretations and conclusions from these very early experiences are very tentative.

Data Feedback in the Survey Pretest

We pre-tested the questionnaire version of the survey in Albany and Schenectady, NY, with the kind cooperation of the neighborhood association members of CANA (Council of Albany Neighborhood Associations) and SUN (Schenectady United Neighborhoods). We followed the same procedure in requesting their assistance. In the spring of 2000, we submitted a written request asking for their participation. We described PCIP briefly, explained the purpose and nature of a pre-test, and committed to

both written and oral feedback. The member neighborhood associations approved the request by majority vote. The surveys were administered in late spring and early summer. The feedback presentations were made at regular monthly meetings in the September and October 2000.

In Albany, only the Chief and Deputy Chief of the Albany Police Department received an advance copy of the report. Since they regularly attend the CANA meetings, we did not want them to be placed in the position of trying to respond, without prior knowledge, to questions about a survey of neighborhoods that had implications for policing. The final draft of the report was not completed until the day of the meeting and the CANA members did not receive it until the presentation.

About 38 people, representing 12-15 different neighborhood associations, attended the CANA meeting. We had no way of knowing how many of those present had filled out the instrument or even remembered the survey. For CANA, it was the first meeting after the summer and the agenda seemed short, compared to some of their earlier meetings that we had attended. The President had placed us last on the agenda and had promised us 45 minutes. Some people left as we were introduced, probably because their own business was done. However, the remaining group was attentive. The presentation lasted about 35 minutes, at which time we entertained questions for another 25 minutes. While the presentation went longer than we had hoped, we still had to cut material on the spur of the moment. We provided an overview of the project, highlighted precautions that they should take in interpreting data from a pre-test, and then began to review data from each interaction dimension. We were able to cover only Improving Space, Identification, and Participation. The questions after the presentation showed

comprehension (e.g., some good questions about subjective vs. objective ratings of crime levels in neighborhoods, and differences between NA leaders' experience with police and average residents' experience with police), and mild interest in seeing the final instrument, the practitioner handbook, or both. The two police executives appeared the most interested and positive about the potential value of using such instruments, although they indicated a more pressing need at that time for a means of measuring citizen satisfaction with specific police encounters.

Although we actually had 1 hour rather than the promised 45 minutes, we discovered that it was very difficult to set the context, give warnings about uses and abuses of the data, define dimensions, and go through data while allowing any time for discussion. We speculated that a more effective forum for introducing this material might be a workshop of 2 or 3 hours devoted to the topic, rather than as one item on a general meeting agenda. Certainly, it would have helped if the report had been mailed out ahead of time. Possibly the response was mild in part because the participants had little invested in the data. They had participated at our request. We had explained why pre-test data could not be used for decision making. At most, they were able to assess whether later data from finalized instruments would be useful to them. Finally, we concluded that finding some way to get more dialogue among the police and residents would also have helped, however that was limited in this case by the purpose of the pre-test.

For the SUN group in Schenectady, we were able to mail out the report in advance to all member association presidents, as well as to the SPD chief's office. An Assistant Chief of Police and a head of the Schenectady City property department attended the meeting. PCIP was the first and main agenda item. It was a much smaller

group and a more intimate setting than was the case in Albany. Most of the participants had read the report before the meeting. Unlike the CANA meeting, everyone in the SUN meeting knew something about the project prior to the meeting – either they had filled out the survey, had read the report, or both.

We took the same amount of time in Schenectady as in Albany but managed to cover much more material and to get the participants in a complex and energetic discussion. The group expressed immediate interest in full-scale use of the survey instrument when it was completed.

In comparison to the CANA meeting, we spent more time on the data and less on the background of the project. We jettisoned any discussion of how we measured the dimensions and stressed instead why data about the interactions were important. In introducing each dimension, we relied on recent examples from the two newspapers with local Schenectady coverage. Consequently we were able to define the interactions using illustrations of their own behavior. The presentation was often interrupted with good questions.

The Assistant Chief and the Property Management official were active, non-defensive participants in discussion of what the data meant and how the instrument could be improved and used. The survey data were not very positive about the level of community building engaged in by either the police or the residents. The participants did not challenge the veracity of that data. The Assistant Chief correctly observed that some of the interaction items are questions about facts while others require generalizations and judgments by the respondent. He proposed that a police officer and a resident leader should be surveyed about each neighborhood, so that these perceptions could be

compared. The city property manager was very supportive and immediately saw applications to the ways in which his employees related to the neighborhoods. He clearly recognized the underlying, generic community building variables, not just their application to police activities. Even though the data was not from or about his department, his ability to imagine how he could use similar data was a major force in the discussion. The data challenged resident performance, not just police performance, and residents openly discussed steps that they could take to increase a level or how they had been frustrated in such attempts. There appeared to be a reasonable level of trust in the room, and it is likely that this trust was necessary to support this discussion.

WESCO Feedback

In the WESCO Umbrella district, we sent invitations to residents and the police whom we had observed for two years. We presented this meeting as a dinner in gratitude for their willingness to help us and as an opportunity for us to present preliminary data and obtain their reactions. This meeting did not come off as well as we had hoped. Because of an emergency, the Deputy Chief of the IPD could not attend, although the sergeant and lieutenant who had been active participants in the meetings that we observed were present. The resident turn out was confusing. A number of uninvited residents appeared, and a number of the key resident leaders did not attend. Consequently a number of the participants in the meeting did not have prior familiarity with the project or the research staff. Some of the participants appeared to see this meeting as another general meeting between police and residents and came prepared to raise new issues of concern to them. Consequently, while we put a lot of effort into planning the meeting, it

did not unfold as planned and was not a propitious audience for our purposes. One of the police officers commented later that residents with little if any experience with community meetings were participating in the interpretation of the data

Our presentation focused on the steps to improve neighborhood space and the steps for resident participation data. These data were similar to but not as detailed as those presented in Chapter 5.

The police officers and their grant staff seemed to understand better than most of the residents the concepts and the meaning and implications of the data. The Weed and Seed staff saw immediate applications to Weed and Seed, particularly the data on controlling abuses (weeding) and making enhancements (seeding) in neighborhood space. They did seem more attuned to the evaluative implications of the data than to its descriptive accuracy. The level of police reaction may have been limited either by the absence of the Deputy Chief or by the presence of some number of residents who were not regular participants in the meetings that we observed.

Residents by and large did not see the data as relevant and approached the discussion of the data as doing us a favor in looking at it. However, poor attendance from the residents that had been most involved in providing the data was partially responsible for this reaction. Despite this general problem, some interesting issues about the concepts and the data did emerge.

First, they had some concern about the concept “Improving Neighborhood Space.” They wanted to know whether we were concerned only about abuses and enhancements to *physical* space. There seemed to be some consensus that eliminating the word, *Space*, and using “neighborhood” or “quality of life” might be more effective. The residents

seemed concerned that focusing only on the physical does not place enough emphasis on the important interactions they have with one another, the police, or other enhancement efforts that they may be engaged in (e.g. increasing employment/education opportunities or making economic enhancements to the neighborhood).

Second, they pointed out quite correctly that some interactions of importance do not take place within or are not reported at a meeting. While this absence should not alter the conclusions we make about what actually takes place during meetings, it may change the overall picture of how residents and police identify issues and work to develop solutions. Some residents seemed to feel that the meetings were used as a forum to get issues out on the table. The actual planning, delegating, and collaborating may take place outside of the context of the meeting. Because attention to the issue is often immediate, there seems to be informal contact between police and residents far in advance of the next meeting, and because the issue or problem is solved, there is little attention to it during the next meeting. Therefore, they surmised that our data might provide a less valid picture of how issues are addressed and with what results than they would of how issues are raised.

While there was some consensus that meetings are a good place for issues/problems to be raised, some residents pointed out that fear and concerns about retaliation force them to contact the police outside the meeting or even anonymously over the telephone. The police and residents appeared to have very different opinions concerning the role or importance of anonymity in reporting neighborhood problems. An officer seemed to focus on the issues of trust and accountability. For him, anonymous reporting indicated a lack of trust in the police. In addition, when the contact was anonymous, he felt limited in his ability to provide or get feedback about results. In contrast, some residents stressed

that anonymous reporting increases the number of “tips” the police receive because they are less fearful concerning retaliation.

A few of the participants, including one of our interviewees, suggested that the participation of residents in identifying abuses of “space” issues should be higher than the data suggested. Again, the issue was how much informal contact residents have with the police, outside of the context of the meeting, that is not reflected in a meeting.

The participants did not seem to challenge the finding that in dealing with issues of abuse, the police most often took the lead in planning and implementing solutions. Neither the police nor the residents appeared concerned about the imbalance between residents, police, and other organizations in actually carrying out activities.

General Impressions from Feedback Sessions

Based on these three experiences, our current views of the issues in presenting the interaction data to practitioners are as follows.

First, it takes a substantial amount of time to present the general idea of community building and how we applied it to police interactions. This gives us a problem with time and with comprehension. Neither the police nor the residents who interacted with us were very familiar with or interested in thinking about process rather than thinking about the next neighborhood issue. We expect this to be a fairly common orientation, which is, so far, validated by our own data.

Comprehension is therefore problematic. Presentation has to be clear, quick, and emphasize the payoff; or the presentation has to be made to an audience who is already willing to listen for some reason. Since the active resident practitioners have very little

time, they will only invest in a workshop if they have been previously convinced that the topics covered there will be skills based, immediately relevant, and useful.

Consequently there would seem to be a need for a two or three stage dissemination process. In the first part of this process, information would focus on telling people briefly how interaction measures are useful. The early stages in the process would also be more effective if they included active participation by community organizers or known neighborhood leaders whose opinion and skills were trusted by the neighborhood leaders. Only in that way can we probably recruit to a lengthier workshop people willing to devote concentrated time to learning about the interactions and the instruments. In areas where community building is an explicit part of an ongoing community agenda, or where experienced community organizers are active, this two-stage process may not be necessary.

The initial or screening/recruiting presentations would be enhanced if we can design a strategy to get the residents and the police talking about their own experiences and then adapt the presentation of concepts and instrumentation to those experiences. This way, we could involve them in a discussion of their problems first and then connect the concepts to their own activities and the measures to their own struggles to work cooperatively. We came closest to this approach in Schenectady.

Police executives, police planning staff, and other city agency officials had somewhat more positive initial reactions than residents. We think there were several reasons for this. In general, they seemed to grasp the concepts and potential uses more quickly than residents. This is not surprising, given the experience that most agency officials are likely to have in obtaining and using a variety of data in their work and given

the experience that some of police officials have with the related elements of community policing.

Despite the clumsiness of our first attempts at presenting this material to a user audience, one of the three audiences requested a follow-up meeting to discuss actual implementation. That would be a very high uptake rate.

Finally, in terms of increasing adoption rates, we came away with two impressions from these meetings that can only be termed speculation at the moment. These resident concerns are worth exploring further. One is that the neighborhood groups that are likely to be surveyed are, by their own admission, fairly “pro-police,” even if critical of specific events, practices or policies. At a minimum, they have more experience working with the police in non-confrontational, cooperative situations. They also see themselves as needing the police to advance their own agendas. Therefore, they are somewhat hesitant to engage in activity that the police might perceive as evaluative without the assent and encouragement of the police.

Second, as we have indicated above, many residents are very accomplishment oriented; focused on specific neighborhood objectives. In reaching these objectives, they often do not see the police as the problem; consequently they want some fairly clear connection between measuring co-production processes and solving their crime and disorder problems. For both this reason and for their concern about police reaction, police department leadership in the value and positive use of assessment data and in the connection between community organization and safety outcomes may be very critical to adoption in some communities.

Advisory Committee Reactions

The PCIP Advisory Committee was a primary asset of this project from its inception. We were fortunate enough to assemble a small, working group that had substantial expertise in their own specialties, were constantly solicitous of feedback concerning their helpfulness to the project, and who worked well together. That is a rare and valuable combination, and it resulted in contributions that are reflected throughout this report, from ideas about conception and design right through to strategies for dissemination. We are not trying to reflect all of those important ideas in this chapter, since we have employed them throughout. Instead, we want to focus on how three experienced police executives and two experienced community organizers responded to the interaction dimension concepts, to samples of data from all three instruments, and to the factors which might affect adoption and use of the measures.

These concerns were the focus of our third, two-day session with the advisors. When we met with them, we had preliminary observation data from the first 4 months of observation, preliminary case study results, and survey pretest data. Our guiding questions were: “Can PCIP data help police and residents think about the process of their interaction and make that interaction more productive? What can we do in the next six months to promote understanding and use of the PCIP concepts and instruments?”

Conceptual Issues

The advisors were asked to critique each of the five interaction dimensions, the language used to identify and illustrate them, and the specific elements of each. The

advisors examined the logic, the order in which they should be presented to a practitioner audience, and the problem of abstraction. They recommended that the interaction dimensions be introduced to people in the following sequence: Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods, Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts, Steps for Resident Participation, Steps for Coordination of Organizations, and finally Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space. We will review their conceptual concerns in that order.

Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods.

They suggested that police department identification with neighborhoods might include decentralization of policy and decisions, not just physical decentralization. While the PCIP staff had originally intended to include decentralization of decisions, we determined in Phase One that decision decentralization is better conceived as in internal police change rather than a direct interaction with neighborhoods. In contrast, physical decentralization is a direct, physical interaction with neighborhood residents. Certainly, decision decentralization is important to the quality of identification that might occur (Bayley 1994; Skogan and Hartnett 1997), but we felt that approaches to measuring it already existed.

The advisors thought that the dominant themes in the identification dimension were about police **presence, accessibility, and responsiveness**. Based on these comments, we added survey questions that directly tapped resident perceptions of accessibility, to accompany the items we asked about presence and responsiveness.

The advisors thought that the element of “permanent assignment” to a neighborhood should be understood as “long-term” assignment to a place, providing continuity in service. It should not imply that residents are opposed to officers being promoted. They

also wondered whether the idea behind permanent assignment was actually **access** rather than assignment per se.

Finally, they pointed out that in thinking about identifying with a neighborhood, it is important who defines “neighborhood.” Is it self-defined or defined by the police or some other entity (e.g. city hall?) Lyons (1999) stresses the significant political implications in which parties have the “definitional” power, and whether they use it to exclude neighborhood participants with agendas different from their own (see also Hess 1999, for a discussion of the potential negative consequences of political social capital). The Committee recommended that we consider identification measures initiated by residents as well as by the police. We have attempted to do so in the survey and the case study protocol.

Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts

Our original term for Encouragement Steps was “mobilization,” following the social movement literature. One advisor recommended avoiding the term “mobilization” as connoting military occupation, which is too real for some neighborhoods. They recommended “internal and external motivation steps;” internal by the community and external by the police. They stressed that this instrument measures external motivation, rather than all steps by anyone to motivate residents to act.

We decided eventually to use the term Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts. They raised important questions about whether all the steps listed in our measures actually are effective encouragement. The organizers were particularly concerned that we provide more detail in the survey items concerning training, so that it would be clear what training was relevant to community building and problem solving. Similarly, they raised

a question about the encouragement potential of police sharing of information about neighborhood problems. What information is shared? How useful is the information that is shared?

Steps for Resident Participation

The advisors were generally content with participation measures, although they thought we could improve the definition. They did press us to add a measure of breadth of participation, rather than relying on how many people participate. They pointed out that a neighborhood could have deep participation by a relatively large groups but still not much dispersion across the community. We have added measures of representativeness to the survey and the case study. They also thought it might be important to ask what the non-involved neighbors know about the active ones. If the non-involved know about and approve of what is being done, that may be different from places where only the active ones know what they are doing.

Steps for Coordination

The Advisors did not discuss coordination at great length. They did ask whether a more descriptive term might be collaboration among organizations. They did think that it was critical to know whether residents participate in and know about police coordination with other agencies and to determine whether police substitute agency collaboration for resident participation.

Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space

The advisors thought that the ideas in this dimension might be most effectively saved for last in presentations to practitioners in part because they found our original language for this dimension to be too abstract. When we met with them, we were still

using “Controls on Neighborhood Space” as the main concept, which we borrowed from the urban politics and social movement literature (e.g. Logan and Molotch 1987; Stoecker 1994). This literature uses the distinctions between “exchange value” and “use value” in decisions about how to design and use city land (See Chapter 2, above).

The advisors urged us to clarify that the police are the only one of many and often not the first lever of social control in neighborhoods. They also wondered whether we should focus on control of space or use of space. They insisted that talking about the values implied behind space-use decisions would never resonate with practitioners. They pondered whether the dimension might simply be “quality of neighborhood space” They urged us to find a way to focus on the question of “how do you get the neighborhood space improved?” What language would most clearly define those issues for the police and residents? Based on this discussion with the advisors, we changed our name for the dimension to Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space.

We have tried to clarify that these Steps concern the neighborhood action agenda (what are the neighborhood improvement issues) and the ways in which these issues are addressed (problem-solving or reactively). While our advisors thought these were the key parts of the Improvement question, some raised concerns about the generality of the problem solving questions in the survey instrument. They thought it would be important to ask about specific aspects of problem solving rather than ask whether “residents are involved in problem-solving.” Similarly they wished to see more detail in the Encouragement questions about police provision of training. In their view most of the training that police typically provide to residents does not improve problem solving skills or provide other community building skills.

The advisors were still doubtful whether we should be measuring all improvement issues or only those that concern the police. If it is all space issues, how should one interpret variation in police involvement, since the appropriateness of police involvement will vary by issue?

Community Building

Beyond specific reactions to the police-community interactions, we also asked whether, to what extent, and how the theory of community building should be introduced to residents and police. Would discussing this guiding concept assist with understanding of the specific interactions or would it get in the way?

One of our organizers responded that community building is important because short-term solutions to specific objectives or targets will always be repeated, unless community building takes place. Instead, residents and the police need to recognize the need for building community capacity for problem solving. He also urged that community building and reaching specific public safety objectives not be presented as alternatives, since it is a false, or at least unnecessary, choice. The question is whether residents want specific safety targets achieved *and* “more community,” not one or the other.

Our project monitor proposed that the Community Building diagrams, which we have included in Chapter 3, are a helpful way of illustrating the potential connections between community building and public safety issues. She argued that we needed to find a way to make residents and police think of community building outcomes (e.g., improved community capacity or collective efficacy) as equally important as public

safety outcomes. They should not be presented as, or misinterpreted as, merely a means to crime, fear, or disorder reduction.

Reactions to Comparative Interaction Data

Two instruments were used to produce data that compared neighborhoods to each other, the case study protocol and the survey. We asked the advisors whether such cross-neighborhood data could assist residents and police with:

- Asking questions about the quality of services?
- Asking questions about equity in service delivery?
- Designing tailored, individualized responses to different neighborhoods?
- Analyzing differences without getting defensive or using data as ammunition?
- Promoting collaboration?
- Identifying processes that need attention?
- Reminding practitioners about the range of options that are available?

After examining sample data displays that compared several neighborhoods on interaction levels (as we have illustrated in both Chapters 6 and 7), the advisors saw utility, but many potential land mines. One of our community organizers emphasized that there should be many intervening steps between these data and understanding and adoption. He said it would be critical to consider the context in which such data were presented and the steps of the presentation itself. In order to understand these data, residents or police might need benchmarks or best practices, or some other standard, such as a baseline. He also thought that obtaining “mirroring” data from both the neighborhood residents and the police could assist in initiating dialogue about the community processes that are depicted.

The advisors asked whether we would be able to provide a profile of “best steps” for each dimension. Will we be able to suggest what neighborhood organizations could do to achieve what results? Could we present a range of stories that illustrate what the concepts mean? They stressed that with practitioners, we will need narrative scenarios to make the numbers work.

In general, the advisors thought that cross-place data would be difficult to present, but that if the presentation were done well, in a trusting environment, then it could assist groups to see examples of different and perhaps better quality interaction that they could emulate. The Committee thought that there might be a problem with different groups interpreting our dimensions differently. While they thought that researchers might be careful enough to adopt the same definitions and sense of amounts, they were not so sure that practitioners would be as careful. Therefore they wondered whether across place comparisons by practitioners would always be fraught with confusion. They proposed that the solution might be to provide each neighborhood with its own baseline and signs of progress (or trends), so that they can recognize improvements against their own baseline, rather than make comparisons to other neighborhoods. All the advisors thought a key would be to determine when people were most open to examining data about what others do.

Several advisors raised an important concern about how the comparative data might be used by other parties. For example, they were worried about real estate use of area crime data in panic peddling. In general, the deployment of neighborhood contrasts to further ulterior political or economic agendas was considered a major obstacle.

Reactions to WESCO Observation Data

We presented the Advisory Committee with a sample of the WESCO observational data (such as presented in Chapter 5). In examining that data, we asked them

- To consider the ambiguities in classifying all organizations except resident groups and police as “other organizations” and the implications of that coding for measuring resident participation (e.g., is a community center a resident organization?)
- Would these data be understandable by the participants if we were to feed it back to them?
- Would these data be useful in altering the processes that residents and police engage in? (What guidelines, training, leadership is necessary to make use of the data?)

Several Committee members thought that we should look separately at the actions of different types of organizations rather than simply three classes of organizations (Police, Other, and Resident). The observation data would permit this kind of disaggregation, so that we could examine what specific “other” organizations participated in any particular issue. While the numbers of specific organizational actions would be very small, the practitioners thought this could be useful for their purposes. The advisors also raised some doubts about distinguishing organizations as belonging in the “resident” or “other” (especially, non-profit service agencies) simply on the basis of formal goals, missions, or status. They said that it might really depend more on who runs the organization and what the organization actually does rather than what “type” of organization it is. For example, several thought that there may be a problem labeling some of the larger organizations, such as neighborhood umbrellas or CDCs as “resident organizations”. These advisors felt that a number of such large agencies are controlled by external forces and

contingencies, which would make them very different from neighborhood associations and other grassroots groups.

In presenting the data about neighborhood Goal/Problems, they thought it would be analytically helpful to split-out the “group or collective issues” from the “individual gripes.” They thought that if problem solving were really to emerge, it would be around a collective issue agenda, while individual complaints would continue the “drop of the laundry” character of many community meetings.

Several advisors recognized the potential of these data to assist them with specific questions that they had often confronted in their own work. For example, one pointed out that these data would permit them to look at types of issues by who raises them. Another pointed out that the data would allow community leaders and the police to examine the proportion of problems posed that focused on people who were not well represented at the meetings (e.g., often tenants, youth, and Hispanic residents). Another pointed out that the data would permit a record of the kinds of issues on which agencies actually collaborate.

Dissemination

The advisors recommended a dissemination strategy that is balanced and reaches the neighborhoods not just the police. They thought that written presentations to practitioners should be done in part by a community person. The presentation will need stories that can be visualized. They thought this kind of presentation should start with what can be accomplished or what the instruments could reveal about police and community. Then the instruments should be described, with instructions on using them. Then a section should cover how to analyze the data and what the data displays will

provide. They suggested that coverage of the community building framework might be saved for last or for an appendix. They recommended careful attention to endorsements for a practitioner handbook. Who says this is worth reading and using? They proposed supplements to a basic report, such as “How to sell to your department,” and “How to sell to your community.”

They were convinced that written dissemination should not be the primary or only vehicle for dissemination. They proposed conference access to police and resident groups to alert them about what is available. They believed that presentation tone should offer hope but can not suggest benefits that are too easy or too distant. They agreed that level, tone, and style should vary by audience. Among the presentation outlets that they recommended were the Conference of Mayors, Neighborhoods USA, National Crime Prevention, San Diego Problem Solving, State Municipal Associations, and meetings of specific religious denominations. They thought that the dissemination strategy that McKnight and Kretzman have used for their asset based model might be emulated. They recommended contact with the National Training Centers and with ACORN for the poorest neighborhoods. Americorps, Industrial Areas Foundation and Weed and Seed were proposed.

Project Overview: Strengths and Weaknesses

Finally, the advisors departed with some general comments about the value of the idea of police community building and about overall strengths and weaknesses in PCIP. One asked whether these instruments could be conceived as “a technology for community policing”? Another raised doubts about the longevity of community policing and wondered if we may be developing tool at wrong time. This comment raised considerable

disagreement. One chief responded that on the contrary, now is the time to develop such measures; police are open to change, if they knew what to focus on. Another pointed out that communities could use these measures as a tool to determine whether they really get community policing or whether police are taking the money and doing what they have always done. Residents need some standard to determine if people are getting what they ask for.

Eventually, group consensus emerged that the real value here is “talking police-community interaction, not community policing.” They agreed with this for several different reasons. They thought that it was very important to present the neighborhood organizations as active players in community safety issues, not as passive recipients of police services. They thought the instruments and the ideas behind them were relevant to any neighborhood, whether or not a department had a community policing policy. They also felt that measuring police-community interaction should not be explained or presented in a manner that would allow either of these groups to construe community building as something done only by the police or only with the police.

They debated the political implications of using the instruments, if calling attention to and measuring these dimensions might make neighborhoods stronger and more self-governing. One advisor suggested that if that were an outcome of the instruments, then the better the instrument, the more adoption resistance might be sparked in the police department or in other parts of city government. The advisors debated this kind of division between neighborhoods and city government, based largely on their own conflicting experiences. They felt that some cities would promote neighborhood strength through community building and others would not. The advisors stressed the need to talk

about how to sell these measures to powers above the police department -- to the city executive and city council.

They agreed strongly that these are important measures, but that we will encounter problems convincing police or residents to invest in them. One of the chiefs responded that one major problem with using these instruments and data will be the chiefs' attitude and pressures. They may not want to spend the time with the data collection or run the risk of displaying the findings. They observed that it would be more problematic to measure these processes in unorganized neighborhoods. They asked if the measures could be taken in weak communities. If not, are they useful? While they understood why we had dropped Martindale Brightwood from the observation field test, they were upset with the loss of knowledge that we would have gained from that experience.

They strongly felt that the measures are only really valuable if they are used over time, but that it could be difficult to convince police or residents to sustain the measurement effort. They affirmed the importance of getting people to look beyond a year and to make commitments to long term trends. Neighborhood organizations often have reflection and evaluation sessions once a year at an annual meeting. This might be the natural point for renewal and assessment data. The instruments could be used as training or educational devices more than once a year. One of the benefits they identified was using these measures as an educational tool, which would assist residents or police to focus on a process that many have not seen or learned. They thought the instruments could be used for training, not just for assessing or diagnosing interaction levels in a community.

Adoption would be more likely if we can show the benefits of using the measures. This pressure for outcome benefits presents us with a dilemma, since we cannot know whether community building processes have benefits if they are not measured, along with tracking outcomes. The advisors agreed that research to link community building to collective efficacy and to public safety outcomes was needed. Nevertheless, the advisors responded that it is not necessary to promise outcomes that are unknown and it is important not to promise too much. But there is evidence of effectiveness in some cases that organized neighborhoods are safer neighborhoods.

The chiefs agreed that there is little need to convince citizens that they should ask for more or better service, but the instruments could assist residents to make more effective requests for police department change. The chiefs thought that in presentations to the police, one could stress the benefits of citizen cooperation with crime and political support.

The Committee thought that in making the case for the investment in data collection, it might be important to have credible messengers for the different audiences: police may have to hear from the police, neighbors from neighborhood groups. They thought that in talking to community groups, it would be important to talk about better relationships with the police, not community policing.

They were uncertain whether the instruments could or should be used for self-assessment. They thought the instruments had the potential for practitioner use, without researcher assistance, but that if used in the wrong way, the data could do some harm. When asked if the instruments could promote collaboration, they again thought of contingencies. It would not be the data but its presentation and use that determined

benefits. They thought the data could drive neighbors and police apart, if they do not understand either what the data mean or how to use it productively. They added that it would be important that neither the residents nor the police see the presenter as a carpetbagger and that practitioners must see the instruments as diagnostic not rating tools. They noted that there must be high levels of trust between police and residents to make the data useful and the level of trust will vary from neighborhood to neighborhood and city to city. In general, they stressed the importance of real concern about the human reaction to the data. Setting the stage or preparing people for looking at the data is critical.

CHAPTER NINE

ASSESSING OUR MEASUREMENT PROGRESS

Are These Community Building Concepts Worth Pursuing?

There are many important specific questions one could ask in determining the progress made by this project since January 1998. But there are probably none more important than the two big ones. Are the interactions real? If they are, does it matter? After 31/2 years of looking, our answers to both are affirmative. We are more certain of the first yes than the second.

We are trying to measure specific forms of behavior that connect police control efforts to control efforts by residents and by other organizations in neighborhood-communities. We have found a considerable and rapidly growing body of literature both by researchers and practitioners that describes these behaviors. There are differences in the ways that different authors bundle or conceptually sort these behaviors. The bundles that we have used are not the same as the ones we started with, but we can trace their evolution in ways that suggest reasonable rather than accidental changes. The conceptual bundles or dimensions that we have named are very similar to those used in two reviews of generic (non-police) community building (Mattessich and Monsey 1997; Naparstek et al. 2000). In addition, they are very similar to the indicators of “co-production networks” used by Zhao (1996:31).

As a rule, policing literature has not been as exacting about community building processes as the general community literature (e.g., Bayley 1994; Bennett 1994). We think this is related to the fact that the police research literature has generally asked “what is community policing?” rather than “what do the police do to build community?” (see

Chapter 2). Despite this different focus, the community policing literature recognizes agency coordination, resident participation, encouragement of residents, identification with neighborhoods, and improvements in neighborhood space, although somewhat different terms are used for these ideas in different places (for two of the more elaborate specifications of police community building, see Skogan et al 1999; Skogan et al. 2000a; Zhao 1996).

Community researchers are probably most at home with these ideas, particularly those that come out of the community organization and social movement or community organizing fields. Practicing community organizers (or in Hess's 1999 terms, people in community practice) recognize and try to promote these activities.

These concepts are less familiar to the police, although this varies by rank and experience. Our police executive advisors and our case study evaluators who worked with or in police departments had little trouble recognizing these concepts as applicable to their daily work. In contrast, our current evidence suggests that many front line officers, even those heavily engaged in these behaviors do not order their work world with these terms. Our data and our case study reviews suggest that the concepts are descriptive of what they do.

Conceptually, perhaps our greatest failure has been our inability to define the intensity of multi-agency collaboration in a way that was measurable (codable). The existing notions of intensity and related measures were more appropriate for pairs of service-delivering organizations coordinating services to a client(s). The relationship of the police with resident organizations, other public agencies, not-for profits, and the private sector is addressing neighborhood problems is not a service-client relationship

and it is often not dyadic. We were looking for a way to scale interorganizational sharing from basic information exchange through complex joint decision making, staffing, and programming. We continue to think this intensity of relationship is important to examine. We were successful in capturing a number of other aspects of coordination that are important to community building (see Chapter 3 for the list of elements).

We have been fairly successful in getting a variety of different kinds of people to recognize police-community interaction behaviors, using a variety of different kinds of prompts and referencing a variety of places.

- In lengthy, open ended interviews, we listened to community policing officers in 6 different cities identify these dimensions and describe what aspects of their work entailed developing elements of these dimensions (Chapter 4).
- In lengthy coding sessions following training session, graduate students were able to extract more than 800 “police involvement” statements from community policing reports from nine different cities. They were able to agree on the classification of specific process variables most of the time (Chapter 4).
- In 18 months of field observations of three contiguous neighborhoods, we were able to observe and reliably code police-resident interactions in neighborhood meetings, district meetings, and a sample of events (Chapter 5).
- Responding to our case study protocol, seven experienced police researchers reported that these interaction processes were comprehensive and included most of what they recalled from their research experience with eight different communities in three different cities (Chapter 6).
- Responding to the written or interview version of the survey, neighborhood leaders were able to report values for these interactions in 100 neighborhoods in three cities (20 from Albany and Schenectady and 80 for Indianapolis; Chapter 7).

We think the concepts describe phenomena in the empirical world, that occur with considerable frequency in lots of places, but that vary in socially significant ways.

That leads to the so what question. There are lots of real things that do not require expensive measurement. Until these measures are used in more systematic research, whether this behavior called community building matters is in all honesty a matter of some conjecture. We will return to how those conjectures can be turned into research in the final section of this chapter. At the moment, the payoff for engaging in community

building is tentative. Some of Skogan and colleagues' research suggests that higher levels of participation in problem solving result in both solved problems and increased community capacity. Mattessich and Monsey report case study confirmation of connections between specific community building steps and at least one element of community capacity. As they readily admit, measures of process and outcome are very simple in these studies and perhaps misleading. Naparstek and colleagues (2000) claim connections between community building and levels of community social capital. However, their study appears to ignore the simultaneous effects of the changes in community composition; leaving open the challenge that structural change not community process is responsible for the outcomes. Our own analysis of the connections between community building and collective efficacy or capacity suggest a modest positive association. Causal ordering cannot be confirmed with these data.

Finally, practitioners behave as if these community building processes make a difference. In the absence of good scientific data, practitioner experience is often the best guide. This is not to say that unsystematic experience is an adequate substitute for research, but the assumptions of practice offer many good suggestions for explicit hypotheses.

A Comparison of Instruments and Data Collection Techniques

The Police Community Interaction Project has developed three measurement instruments and three related methodologies designed to locate and assess levels of community building processes in which the police engage. There are numerous contrasts between these three instruments (observation, case study, survey), and each instrument

has measurement strengths and weaknesses. In this section, we first compare the general methodological differences between the instruments in terms of specificity, administration, and usability. We then integrate the knowledge learned from our various reliability tests to form conclusions regarding the stability or dependability of the measures of the separate community building processes. Finally, we discuss some comparative validity issues – concerns about accuracy that are more specifically focused on particular instruments than is the validity discussion with which we opened.

General Differences Among the Instruments

Exhibit 9.1 examines some broad differences across the three community building measurement instruments developed and tested by PCIP. Listed down the far left column of Exhibit 9.1 are seven different methodological criteria (unit of analysis, sampling issues, collection issues, comparative issues, type of data record, cost, and training) upon which the instruments are contrasted.

EXHIBIT 9.1: POLICE-COMMUNITY INTERACTION INSTRUMENT COMPARISON

	OBSERVATION	CASE STUDY	SURVEY
<i>Unit of Analysis</i>	Measures highly specific CB processes occurring at a meeting-level & within each issue presented at a meeting. Can aggregate CB processes across issues or examine how separate issues influence data trends.	Measures generalized (aggregate) CB processes occurring in a specific location during a study timeframe. Unable to examine how specific issues, meetings, or events contributed to the aggregate measure of community building.	Measures generalized (aggregate) CB processes occurring in a specific location. Targets respondents' attention to a specific timeframe (e.g. over last 6 months, etc.). Unable to examine how specific issues, meetings, or events contributed to the aggregate measure of community building.
<i>Sampling Issues</i>	Will miss important interactions that occur outside meeting setting and not reported at a meeting. Thus, problems with the sampling of events.	Arguably captures interactions that are missed by observing meetings. Yet, data are still highly dependent on the coders' knowledge and what they perceive as important in answering the questions. Response rate should not be a problem.	Arguably captures interactions that are missed by observing meetings. Yet, data are still highly dependent on the respondents' knowledge and what they perceive as important in answering the question. There may be a low response rate among resident respondents.
<i>Collection Issues</i>	CB processes are measured in "real time" by neutral observers. Accuracy of historical record not susceptible to memory decay.	CB processes are measured retrospectively by coders, whose perceptions may not be neutral. Depending on sampling timeframe, memory decay may influence accuracy of coding.	CB processes are measured retrospectively by coders, whose perceptions may not be neutral. Depending on sampling timeframe, memory decay could pose a problem, but less so than case studies.
<i>Data Record</i>	Must be done on an ongoing basis to produce a longitudinal record. Provides the best method for measuring community building processes that are dynamic and fluctuate overtime. Provides the most detail on community building characteristics and dynamics for a single community..	Provides a historical record of community building that is perceived to have occurred. Includes questions designed to capture the dynamic nature of community building processes (presence/absence, dispersion/diffusion, & fluctuation). Thus, provides direct but rough longitudinal measures. Not as detailed as observations, but more detailed than survey.	Provides a cross-sectional record of community building. Can be used to examine the dynamic nature of community building processes if the same sample population is repeatedly surveyed overtime. Provides the least detail on community building characteristics and dynamics, but has the potential for the broadest coverage within and across communities.

	OBSERVATION	CASE STUDY	SURVEY
<i>Comparative Abilities</i>	Capable of producing data for cross-neighborhood comparisons, but not an efficient method to do so, likely producing a low sample size. Can also do comparisons across different meeting types.	An efficient method for examining cross-neighborhood comparisons, but more cumbersome than the survey. Very useful for doing cross-city comparisons.	Most efficient method for examining cross-neighborhood comparisons. Capable of producing large sample sizes. Not as efficient for doing cross-city comparisons as the case study protocol.
<i>Training</i>	Uses a highly complex observation protocol, requiring extensive training and consistent practice. Is more accurate when observers become situated to the observation environment overtime, knowing most of the participants and meeting formats. May require a special research staff to maintain implementation.	Requires little training for implementation. Providing a basic introduction to theoretical and instructional material would be necessary. The case study is more complex than the survey.	Requires no training for implementation. There should be attempts to develop support for the survey prior to implementation. Survey needs to include basic introduction to community building and policing. To implement overtime will require a strong commitment on part of neighborhood organizations or police.
<i>Cost</i>	Very costly in terms of money, time, and energy required to have well-trained and consistent coders attend meetings overtime.	A very inexpensive method in terms of the money, time, and energy required for measuring community building processes occurring within a study timeframe. Can take a couple hours to thoroughly complete.	A relatively cheap method for measuring community building processes. The survey becomes more expensive and timely if it is implemented repeatedly overtime, targets a large sample size, and uses telephone interviews. Takes 30-90 minutes to complete.

The obvious appeal of using the observation protocol instrument is the capacity to produce a fine-grained, longitudinal depiction of community building processes. Chapter 5 (pp. 5.35-5.61) illustrates only some of the numerous questions such trend data can be used to explore and the theoretical and practical relevance of a record that can disaggregate police-community interaction to the issue/meeting level. Yet, such collection is a complex, arduous, and expensive task to maintain for long periods of time. Observation data collection efforts are perhaps best reserved for a trained, committed research staff that wishes to explore the deeper theoretical and empirical connections between police-neighborhood actions and outcomes overtime. Until a less complex observation protocol is developed, only a handful of neighborhood and police practitioners would have the time and resources to maintain long-term observations with such detail. A more practical alternative for police and neighborhood practitioners might be to do sporadic but systematic “spot-check” observations, such as done of the beat meetings in Chicago (Skogan et al. 1999). Such observations may highlight new dynamics occurring in police-community building interactions and at the very least would provide some information for having conversations regarding the improvement of process and community building.

The case study protocol (see Chapter 6 and Appendix D), given its low cost and ease, is practical for both researchers and practitioners to utilize. However, its retrospective data collection method poses a number of limitations. The utility of the case study protocol is dependent upon the detailed knowledge of the history of interaction processes by those completing the case study instrument. To date, few researchers and fewer practitioners systematically document or track police-neighborhood interactions

overtime. Thus, the utility of the case study protocol for examining the *existing* pool of police-community interactions in case reports is fairly limited. It will provide better assessments of presence and of dispersion than of fluctuation in time. However, either the case record must provide the kind of narrative detail as we found in the Spokane, Seattle, and Chicago reports, or respondents must be as familiar with the police-community interactions as were the evaluators of those cases. As researchers and practitioners become more cognizant of and begin to keep better records of interaction, either formally (detailed meeting minutes, internal documents) or informally (taking field notes, keeping a diary), the utility of the case study protocol will improve. Thus, the case study protocol will be more effective for researchers and practitioners who are informed about the protocol and community building processes prior to their data collection efforts or project they wish to assess.

The survey instruments, like the case study protocol, are fairly simple to use at relatively low cost. Therefore, they are practical for both researchers and practitioners to utilize. The survey can be targeted at a number of different populations and utilized for a variety of purposes. For example, the survey does not have to be used city-wide, as we did. A neighborhood association leader might use the survey to examine differences in police-community interaction that different block captains in the neighborhood report, thus examining the spacial differences of interaction in a single neighborhood. The survey may not provide the most detailed or dynamic measures of police community interaction, yet it can provide basic information on police-community interactions for neighborhoods and police to use in developing action plans and strategies to improve community building and quality of life. Given the feasibility of larger neighborhood

samples, the survey method provides a great opportunity, given larger sample sizes, to do theory testing on the connections between neighborhood structure, police-community interactions, and crime and quality of life outcomes.

Finally, we should clarify the different means used in the three instruments to obtain records of interaction dynamics or changes across time. Only the case study protocol asks respondents *directly* to judge the fluctuations in time. The observation protocol and the survey, in contrast, ask either the observer or respondent to describe current interactions. (There are differences in the definition of “current” in these instruments; nevertheless, the general difference from the case study approach is the same.) The observation protocol and the survey will produce trend data *only if* repeatedly used. In addition, the frequency of the repetition will vary. The survey could conceivably be used several times a year (although respondent fatigue and other repeated-measure inaccuracies become an issue). Our Advisors doubted that residents or the police would have the resources or stamina to use a survey more than once a year. In any case, the longitudinal record will be large-grained, with large gaps between data points, producing a temporal record, we suspect, that would not vary greatly from the one produced by the case study protocol. The observation record is considerably finer-grained, at least as we deployed it. The objective was to record events as they happened. Since many community building activities have a monthly cycle; producing this record is feasible but not easy.

Relative Reliability of Our Measurements

Exhibit 9.2 provides an assessment of each measurement instrument’s current ability to provide agreement between two observers or respondents about community

building processes in the same neighborhood (or meeting). Previous chapters in this report delve into the details of these reliability analyses. Exhibit 9.2 synthesizes those results. Listed down the far-left column are the five community building dimensions that each instrument has attempted to measure. The exhibit cells describe the results of our summary assessments of how stable the process measures are across observers.

EXHIBIT 9.2: INTER-OBSERVER OR INTRA-NEIGHBORHOOD RELIABILITY COMPARISON

Dimension	OBSERVATION	CASE STUDY	SURVEY (*)
<i>Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Substantial agreement in coders' ability to recognize identification occurring in an issue discussion. - Moderate agreement in coder's ability to agree on the specific identification steps or processes mentioned/occurring. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Substantial agreement in both coder to coder and coder to evaluator tests (especially regarding presence/absence, then dispersion). - Fair agreement on fluctuation of Identification. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Moderate agreement on only one identity item (permanent assignment), - Fair agreement on other identity processes.
<i>Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Moderate agreement in coders' ability to recognize improvement occurring in an issue discussion. - Moderate to substantial agreement in coder's ability to agree on the specific improvement steps or processes mentioned/occurring. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Substantial agreement among coders, but only fair agreement from coder to evaluator (best agreement for presence/absence coding) - Fair agreement on fluctuation of Improvement steps. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Less than chance agreement on police use of problem-solving. - Poor to fair agreement on police feedback
<i>Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Substantial agreement in coders' ability to recognize encouragement occurring in an issue discussion. - Substantial agreement in coder's ability to agree on the specific encouragement steps or processes mentioned/occurring. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Substantial agreement in both coder to coder and coder to evaluator tests (especially regarding presence/absence, then dispersion). - Fair agreement on fluctuation of Encouragement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Moderate agreement on 2 of 3 encouragement items, between block clubs in the same neighborhood. - Poor to less than chance agreement when comparing a block club to the neighborhood association
<i>Steps for Resident Participation</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Moderate to substantial agreement in coder's ability to agree on the specific participation steps or processes mentioned/occurring. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Substantial agreement is only for presence or absence aspects of participation. - Fair agreement on dispersion and fluctuation aspects of participation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fair agreement on many participation items. - Yet, the items that achieve fair agreement differ according to what groups are compared.
<i>Steps to Coordinate with Organizations</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Poor and not even chance agreement on the discussion and provision of resources coded <i>per issue</i>. - More accurately measured at a meeting level, rather than resources per issue. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Substantial agreement among coders, but only fair agreement from coder to evaluator. - Fair agreement on fluctuation of coordination. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Only one question relates to coordination. Chance to fair agreement.

(*) = Interpret these survey conclusions with caution. In general, the survey data provided low reliability scores for comparisons of two respondents from the same neighborhood. The low agreement may reflect our inability to produce fair points of comparison (i.e. ensuring that block club leaders or neighborhood association leaders had similar experiences and points of reference). More reliability testing of the survey needs to be accomplished using multiple respondents from the same community organization. It is important to underscore that other forms of reliability, not covered in this table, were high in the survey.

Interestingly, there is some consistency across all three measures regarding their abilities to provide reliable measures of distinct community building processes. All three instruments produce very consistent, reliable measures for two variables, “Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods” and “Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts.” It is also interesting to note that throughout our three-year refinement process, the identification and encouragement variables *changed the least* from their original conception. The frequency of these variable’s occurrence within a meeting or written document is also low in contrast to participation and improvement processes.

The high reliability that we have obtained for measuring Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods makes logical sense. Identification aspects like permanent assignment of officers, the use of foot patrol, or police analyzing crime data at the neighborhood level are tangible, objective social actions that people can often recognize either in their neighborhood or in a written document. Secondly, many of the identification steps we attempt to measure are staple components often attributed to “community policing,” not foreign activities or ambiguous concepts that few people recognize. In the future, the measurement of this dimension might become more discriminating if we added measures of the strength or quality of the identification. For example, one could ask how often residents use a neighborhood police facility, or how many residents are aware of it, rather than whether it exists.

The relatively high reliability that we have obtained for Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts may have a similar cause. Most lay persons can recognize basic encouragement efforts carried out by the police, such as disseminating information about neighborhood problems, talking about the importance of residents working together,

actively recruiting residents, training residents about crime prevention, or showing support by attending a community event. Thus, encouragement activities are also often tangible, recognizable activities. Arguably, encouragement activities are likely to be remembered by residents. Such activities can be personally empowering and are atypical of traditional policing contacts with citizens.

Aspects of the Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space dimension have received lower reliability scores. Subsequently, we have identified a number of coding problems and made changes. Only recently has PCIP settled upon new terminology, clarifying previous conceptual ambiguities of this dimension. For example, this dimension was once termed “controls on neighborhood space” and coders had to differentiate between “exchange value” and “use value” controls. By replacing the words “controls”, “exchange”, and “use” with “improvements”, “abuses”, and “enhancements”, respectively, understanding of what the variable attempts to measure has improved.

Another factor influencing measurement reliability of the improvement variables is the frequency of their occurrence in a meeting, neighborhood, or written document. In the meetings that we observed, over sixty percent of the issues raised were improvement issues, which were often expressed in a fast flurry, all lumped together. Coders vary in the level of detail that they use in recording these “packages,” with some recording 3 or 4 separate issues when another records one more general issue that incorporates the others. Coders’ conceptions of “improvement” can also be more or less generous. For example, some coders feel that a discussion about the location of a new library does not sound like an improvement activity, while others recognize that a new library located within a neighborhood can greatly enhance the quality of life for many residents.

The reliability analysis suggests some problems with our case study and survey measures of Improvement Steps. We believe the lower levels of reliability for these items can be attributed to our attempt to measure the problem-solving aspects of improvement activities. Problem-solving activities are not necessarily visible activities in a community and one needs first-hand knowledge to code its presence or the level at which police engage in problem solving. Secondly, problem-solving activities are subtle. One may not get the sense “oh, they’re doing problem-solving now.” Finally, the survey and case study questions used the basic term “problem-solving and feedback”, without providing much in the way of a definition or example of what is meant by such terms. Respondents may have had different understandings of what problem-solving entails and where and when it occurred.

Without question, Steps for Resident Participation is our most dynamic and complex community building variable. It is our most comprehensively measured concept, requiring the coding of various participation characteristics (8 separate coding decisions in the observation codebook). Arguably, Steps for Resident Participation is the most important community building process and should receive the highest priority in terms of future development and application. Much of the debate not only in community policing, but in a variety of other community building endeavors is the extent, kinds, meaningfulness, and effects of resident participation (Hess 1999).

Ensuring highly reliable measures of participation requires successful negotiation of two difficult tasks. First, the coders must label participants. Thus they need a thorough understanding of which people are residents, which are police, and which represent other organizations. The discussion of the Indianapolis field experience in Chapter 5 explains

how difficult and time consuming that it may be to identify and classify participants in police-community interactions accurately. Sometimes participants are never introduced and sometimes they have multiple affiliations. A second problem with participation is based on the coders' ability to understand and differentiate aspects of community actions. Coders must differentiate among goals, means to achieve them, and division of labor discussions and decisions. Often goals are never explicated or goal and means discussions may merge so that it is difficult to separate the two. Many decisions are implicit and do not involve an explicit, formal vote. Some issue discussions and meeting formats are so busy and noisy it is difficult to accurately follow along.

Answering the participation questions in the case study or survey questionnaires is also a challenging task. Respondents are asked to sum up all their experiences and knowledge regarding the participation within police-community interactions, which likely involve numerous issues, events, and meetings. Then respondents attempt to arrive at a conclusion regarding the relative participation of various organizations. In more interactive settings, one can understand how it is difficult for two participants or researchers to generalize and to agree on the amount of participation that occurred. This task is more complex in the case study protocol, which asks respondents to make these judgments over time as well as place. Exploring the contrasts in participation among the active "players" in a neighborhood is also a very political question. In one sense, measuring participation provides a glimpse of the power struggles within police-community interactions. Of all community building dimensions, the measurement of steps for resident participation is the most likely to be influenced by subjective

interpretations and ideology. This problem might be greater when the participants rather than a neutral observer is asked to make the rating.

The final dimension, Steps to Coordinate with other Organizations, experienced some coding problems, some of which have been fixed. From our field observation experience, we learned the difficulty of attempting to measure coordination per issue and made the switch to generalize coordination occurring in a meeting. Measuring coordination reliably is similar to participation in that it requires knowing who the organizational representatives are at a meeting (having a detailed meeting agenda could help in identification). Coordination reliability in the case study and survey results is related to the varying depths of knowledge respondents have regarding which organizations police worked with and the level of that coordination. We also discovered that the police have some difficulty connecting collaborations with a particular agency or organization to a specific neighborhood, unless they are working with that agency in only one neighborhood. In a city where neither the police nor the other organizations are highly identified with neighborhoods, this will be more of a problem.

Relative Validity of the Instruments

We have addressed the larger, cross-instrument validity questions at the beginning of this chapter. In this section, we will only discuss matters of differential levels of validity, across instruments. Since we have had very limited opportunity to conduct criterion and construct validity analyses, most of what we have to say here concerns differential content validity. To what extent do the items in one instrument better represent a concept than items in another instrument?

In general, it would be true that the survey instrument in its present form provides less comprehensive measures of the dimensions than the other two instruments, although this varies somewhat across specific variables. While this is a weakness of the survey, it is a cost of its strengths: the survey is the cheapest way to get data on all the processes for a large number of neighborhoods. Because it is the most feasible approach to produce data for a large sample of neighborhoods, it is also the instrument with the highest potential for complex statistical analyses of criterion and construct validity. In order to get those benefits, the instrument sacrifices comprehensiveness in its measures of concepts. It settles for only one or two items, in some cases, as a means of tapping fairly complex behavior. As it is, the written version of this instrument required 30-90 minutes to complete, according to our pre-test respondents, and the average phone time in the interview version was 55 minutes. These times can be reduced somewhat, since many of the items that we had to ask were not police community interaction measures but measures of other variables that we needed for validity and hypothesis testing purposes. However, researchers should note that for every cause or consequence measure that they remove from the survey, they will need to find an adequate substitute in another, compatible data set and the means to link it to the survey responses.

Also in general terms, the case study protocol may have the most comprehensive set of items for each dimension. The value of this protocol is more limited by the level of knowledge possessed by the person who completes it than by what it asks them about police-community interaction. The important exception to this statement is the manner in which we approached community building dynamics. We acknowledge that our approach in that instrument to asking about fluctuation in community building over time

is inadequate. In broad terms, there are two ways to approach these fluctuations. Either we find a way to describe fluctuation against some objective, external standard, or we find a way to anchor the respondent's reporting of levels relative to some specific point in the case study period (probably the end or the beginning). There are advantages to each approach. If we can identify a reasonable, objective standard (is meeting with neighborhood residents once a month more identification than meeting with them once a year? 12X more?), for each process, then we can make more precise comparisons across neighborhoods. But developing such standards will be difficult and controversial. Making the measure of fluctuation internal to each case (is there more or less now than at Time 1?) may be easier to do and will allow for directionality of process levels, but it will not enable comparisons of levels across sites. Another way to approach this problem with this instrument may be to remove the retrospective aspect and simply have the respondent answer here and now about presence and dispersion (as is done in the other two instruments). Of course, one would then have to use repeated measures to produce trend data, as is true of the other instruments.

Finally, the observation protocol probably represents the best balance of comprehensive community building content that is feasible to collect. This is not surprising. The observation protocol was our first and primary instrument. It is the means that we used to define these concepts operationally. It captures most of what we mean by each of the dimensions. The exception to this is identification, but not because of protocol content. If our experience with identification in Indianapolis holds up elsewhere, only certain facets of identification are observed with any frequency in the meeting context. When they come up, they appear to be very important. For example, no

other issue engendered any stronger reaction from residents than the claim during the summer that the officers no longer recognize the residents. (A claim that also brought swift remediation from the Deputy Chief.)

Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods

In our limited experience, the case study protocol probably has the most comprehensive and accurate measures of identification. The current survey may rely on too few items to tap the different forms of identification and the observation protocol faces the limits discussed above.

Steps to Encourage Resident Efforts

As mentioned above the Encouragement elements did not change much from our initial conception and are fairly similar across instruments. The survey and case study items are actually somewhat richer than the observation items, since they tap resident efforts to mobilize the police as well as the other way around.

Steps for Resident Participation

Probably the greatest strength of the observation instrument, relative to the others, is the rich detail of participation among all visible participants in a community building process – residents, police, and many other kinds of organizations. This instrument also connects participation in decisions to specific issues – a relationship that begs for more and better research. What kinds of issues engender the most participation? The least? The most conflict? The most cooperation? In our view, only the observational approach really captures these data. Moreover, the observation form, when used appropriately, appears to be the most accurate measure of changes over time, especially in this dimension.

Steps for Coordination

The survey instrument is the least effective in examining coordination, or collaboration (if that is the better term), among non-police and non-resident organizations. The case study and observation protocols do a far better job of this. While we did have trouble connecting specific agencies contributions to specific issues, the observation protocol does track what agency representative raises an issue. The case study protocol examines the activities of eight different types of organizations (rather than the 11 types in the observation form), but it cannot tie agency coordination to issues.

Steps for Improvement of Neighborhood Space

In terms of enumerating the neighborhood agenda (what are the issues that need attention?) the observation protocol and the case study instrument provide for more detail than the survey, although this could be easily corrected in the survey. We are convinced that, at a minimum, any set of survey questions on issues or problems must include enhancement targets rather than just abuse targets and should include some issues far afield from law enforcement – economic improvement for one and probably education for another (we did not do as well with education as economic improvements). We are not implying that the police should be involved in these issues, but the fact of the matter is that in many places they are. We ought to measure how broadly or narrowly gauged the police community building role is.

In addition to what issues and how broad or narrow the agenda, the other aspect of Neighborhood Improvement was How? On this score, we think that the final version of the observation issue protocol and codebook (Appendices B and C) provide the most accurate items to represent what Goldstein and others have meant by problem-solving.

The case study and survey instruments both rely, probably too much, on respondents' general ideas about problem solving (although the survey does tap some specific problem solving elements).

General Comparison of Instruments

Our experience with these instruments to date do not suggest that any of the community building processes we have conceptualized and attempted to measure should be excluded from future measurement attempts. All five of these community building processes received moderate to substantial reliability results across the three instruments, with the exception of intra-neighborhood reliability in the survey, which is generally low. However, even with the intra-neighborhood reliability, we do not believe the current data illustrate conceptual problems. Instead, we were unable to provide a reasonable intra-neighborhood reliability test. In contrast, our inter-item reliability in the survey is quite good for a number of our variables. Our general success at achieving reliable measures does not mean that conceptual and measurement improvements could not occur. On the contrary, we urge others and ourselves to continue this measurement project. We will discuss some specific tasks that we think are important in the next section.

In terms of appropriate instrumentation, this section has attempted to maximize reader knowledge regarding the utility, data characteristics, and cost attributed to each measurement instrument. Each instrument has strengths and weaknesses. For those desiring to measure community building in police-community interactions, their choice of instrumentation boils down to three questions. What are the goals and purposes in measuring the community building processes? What resources (money, time, energy) are

available to explore these goals and purposes? What amount of process detail and process dynamics are necessary to meet the measurement goals and purposes?

Future Measurement Development Steps

We recognize that there are more questions to be answered, but believe PCIP has established a solid conceptual and measurement base for examining police contributions to neighborhood community building. Doubtless other researchers working on these issues may suggest equally intriguing and valuable additional measurement development steps; however, our current list includes the following.

Instrument Dependency

First, deploying all three of these instruments in the same communities for a significant (12-24 month) period would provide valuable information about the sensitivity of the variable measures to different methods and instruments. For example, we have noted in Chapters 5, 8, and in the validity discussion above that the accuracy of the present observation protocol is dependent on how well and how often things occurring outside the observed events are reported in the observed events. The case study protocol and the survey instruments do not have this limitation, but they are more affected by differences in perception, attitude, and experience of respondents. For example, we suspect that both police and residents will report more problem-solving activities as occurring than neutral, trained observers would observe. A related problem is that police and residents who are well-trained in problem-solving (as happens in many Chicago beats) may report less problem solving than police and residents who are not trained, because the trained respondents, like our observers, would be more constrained

in applying the term. These and similar questions can be investigated only by having multiple, different measures of presumably the same phenomenon. The three PCIP instruments, or other instruments, could be employed simultaneously in the same place for the same time to address some of these questions. Analysis across instruments should show convergence among different measures of the same construct and divergence among different constructs measured in the same instrument.

Sample Dependency

The problems of a limited and perhaps biased observation sample can be reduced by increasing the sample of events that are observed within a community. This task is very labor intensive, but it is certainly worth undertaking on at least a small scale. We recognize the ambiguities in deciding how to sample events in a community. In Indianapolis we chose to focus on the most visible, formally recognized community organizations—umbrella districts, neighborhood associations, and block clubs. In discussing this method with colleagues and a deputy sheriff in South Carolina, it appeared that the more appropriate sample of events in some areas of that state would be church-centered. It is also possible that one would need to alter the sampling plan within the same city, if neighborhood organization varied substantially. These issues are important, but well beyond the scope of this report.

During the last 6 months of our observation period, we interviewed a panel of neighborhood leaders monthly so that we could ask them to clarify or interpret interactions that we observed and to report on interactions that did not occur or were not reported at the observed events. It appears to us that such debriefing interviews may have potential to reduce sampling and coding error. However, we would want more time to

experiment with the most effective form of interviewing. Obviously, adding this check on the observations increases the complexity and expense of an already expensive method.

A related issue concerns which data sources to use in the case study protocol or the survey. Comparing survey results from multiple respondents within the same organization is an important step that we could not take here. Comparing several members of the same neighborhood association, same block club, same church, etc. would be quite informative of the stability of the variables across respondents (who, unlike our observers are not trained and not necessarily in the same place at the same time). We were able to compare two evaluators and to case record coders in the case studies. These comparisons do provide evidence of reasonable intra-neighborhood agreement between two neutral observers.

One special case of sample-dependency studies would be very important to pursue, according to several of our advisors and community respondents. Perceptions of police and of residents in the same neighborhood should be compared. This comparison is particularly important to make *before* either police departments or resident groups should go off and conduct measures of their own, on their own. Does it matter that the report of participation is taken from police rather than residents? Or, does it matter that residents rather than police report on the steps that police have taken to identify with the neighborhood or to encourage residents? While the resident-police mirroring is important as a metric task, it also has high potential as a community building task in its own right. Getting police and residents to compare how they see their interactions and to

discuss together why differences or similarities in perception exist might be more valuable than what the pre-discussion data “say.”

Additional Criterion Validity Data

Of no real surprise to us, PCIP was hampered in assessing the accuracy or meaning of our police community interaction measures by the absence of criterion measures. Our literature reviews in community building and community policing lead us to expect this frustration, but overcoming the deficiency is possible and important. Certainly, the step suggested above of comparing interaction values across instruments is perhaps the most direct approach to this problem. But there are others. Since the police interaction measures are based on the more general community building concepts, there should be some opportunity in some places to use other community building measures as criteria in assessing the police community interactions. For example, resident participation variables should correlate positively with general resident volunteering, voting in local elections, and so on.

Dilemma of Scope and Precision

It could be beneficial for future measurement efforts to focus on one or a few of the above community building processes rather than all five. But we need to clarify what we mean by this and the hazards in such a focus.

At our first Advisory Committee meeting, we presented our advisors with our intent to measure 7 interaction dimensions (which were reduced to 5 during Phase One). While they thought all the dimensions sounded like activities that actually happened, nevertheless the researchers on the Committee recommended reducing the scope of our measurement efforts. They pointed out, quite correctly, that if we pursued all dimensions

with equal vigor, we would end up with precision on none. We think that this in fact happened. However, we consciously rejected this advice because other Committee members thought that breadth or scope of conceptualization was more important than precision, at this point in time.

Community organizers and police on the committee, who were more concerned than the researchers with how the measures might be used, strongly argued that there is real danger in “measures driving action” (such as police focusing on the law enforcement function because that is what is measured – see Alpert and Moore 2000). The practitioners argued that if community building requires comprehensiveness, or if narrow focus on one aspect of community building might be detrimental, then PCIP would make a more valuable contribution by maintaining scope at the expense of precision. We can say now that not only were they correct about the practical implications, but also that some research supports the need to measure community building as a *set of processes* connected to a *set of outcomes* (Bennett 1998; Mattessich and Monsey 1997).

Nevertheless, in the instrument development process there is a tradeoff between how many variables are operationalized at once and the quality of the measurements. Therefore, for the purposes of *refining* these measures (but not for *applying* them), focusing on one or two dimensions at a time could easily be justified. In our view, the dimensions with which we are least satisfied are Coordination and Improvements in space. Additionally, even though the measures of Encouragement show fairly high reliability and reasonable validity, we think that some of the advisors concerns about Encouragement might need special, focused studies. In particular, we wonder if the separate Encouragement steps are additive. For example, it appears possible that police

messages about community problems when expressed alone, without the shared ties and collective action components, may not be mobilizing. It may also be the case that some police Encouragement steps do not produce commitments to collective action. Initially, we had asked our coders to attempt to connect encouragement steps to evidence of greater participation. We dropped this task in order to increase reliability. But the need remains to determine what actions should really count as Encouragement Steps. Multicollinearity among the survey dimensions did not permit us to explore the independent contributions of each dimension or to explore possible interactions among dimensions.

Future Research Questions

The research agenda that can be pursued with police community building measurements is exciting and important. When these process measures are added to existing measures of community structure, police department structure, public safety outcomes, and community social organization a number of both theoretical and policy questions can be addressed.

For many researchers and practitioners, probably the greatest interest is in the consequences of increasing, strengthening, enhancing or building community, as defined here. There are several related causal connections that the process measures would enable us to study. We will mention them briefly in a rough order of ascending complexity.

First, how do these processes influence each other? The theoretical and practical strategy literature on this question is highly speculative and highly ideological, respectively. Research would reduce the reliance on both. The reviews of community building, in either policing or in general terms, tend to simply bundle these dimensions together as compatible, logically connected, and mutually sustaining (Skogan and Hartnett 1997; Mattessich and Monsey 1997; Hess 1999). We are not so sure. One of our case study evaluators, William Lyons (1999) documents potential conflicts between interagency cooperation and resident participation. He concludes his book with the speculation that the police will engage in highly coordinated law enforcement task forces rather than work with residents. DeLeon-Granados' conclusions are similar (1999). In general terms, the CAPS studies suggest that interagency collaboration on problems is proceeding at a more rapid pace than collaborative problem solving with residents (Skogan et al. 1999, 2000a). These police related impressions are similar to Hess' observation (1999) that Comprehensive Community Initiatives are often more effective in bringing outside agencies to the table than in getting resident participation in agenda setting. The potential conflict between agency coordination and resident participation would not be a new story. It would parallel earlier discoveries from the War on Poverty (Rose 1972; Warren Rose and Bergunder 1974). Questions of relationships among community building are not limited to coordination and resident participation. We have mentioned several others, including the empirical connections between Encouragement Steps and Participation. Do efforts to mobilize residents actually increase resident contributions to community affairs? One can ask similar causal connections about the other dimensions. In addressing these, designs that allow us to look at when processes

fluctuate are probably critical. Mattessich and Monsey (1997) propose that whether external agency efforts are effective in community building depend largely on whether the local residents are sufficiently organized to influence what happens. (See also Hess 1999 and Friedman 1994).

Second, how are these police related community building processes connected to other processes of community building? Are the contributions to community building that the police might make found in isolation from or in conjunction with community building activities of other community agents? For example, Naparstek et al. (2000) and Grogan and Proscio (2000) suggest that the community building efforts by housing authorities, police, CDCs, and resident organizations are compatible, mutually reinforcing and have multiplicative effects. But they do not have the measures to verify such assertions.

Third, how are community building processes related to specific public safety outcomes such as levels of crime, levels of disorder, levels of fear, and levels of satisfaction with police services? When we say these connections are “first,” we are not implying a ranking of importance. But police and residents are not likely to invest the work in collecting such data without some knowledge of the empirical relationships among these things.

Fourth, do community building processes result in increased collective efficacy or increased community capacity, as is proposed? Some community actions can accomplish specific objectives without increasing the ability of the community system to reproduce those problem-solving efforts later or to apply them to other issues. Our initial analyses of the cross-neighborhood data in the survey (as presented in Chapter 7) suggest some

association with collective efficacy. But we do not have temporally ordered data. Possibly neighborhoods with higher levels of community capacity are the ones that engage in community building with the police. Since these are on-going in real life, this mutual causation is logical and likely, but also complicates the research designs.

Fifth, and the last we will sketch here, would be the relationship between levels of collective efficacy and crime, or other community problems. There are some studies of this relationship (e.g., Sampson and Raudebush 2001) but no one would assert that our knowledge of these connections is well established.

Even if the data connecting community capacity and lower levels of community problems continues to be supported, that does not mean that we know how to build or increase that capacity or whether the efforts to do so are worth the marginal benefit in capacity that they might produce. Examining these kinds of questions will inevitably take us in the other causal direction: what causes community building and can planned interventions to build community have a sufficient influence on community building outcomes, holding structural causes constant, that the efforts are worth while?

As a special part of this investigation, one should certainly examine whether the explicit use of these measures during a community building effort enhances the level of community building that is achieved. One would presume that monitoring and feedback to participants of process data would highlight the community building in the community action and thereby reduce the chances of sacrificing process to task accomplishment.

Again, the research literature does not provide solid answers for these questions, in part because we have not had the tools to assist us in determining if community building was actually taking place. We believe the continued development and

application of the police-community interaction measures can help to build this knowledge.

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APPENDIX A:

Codesheet – General Meeting Coding:

- Q1. Observer:
- Q2. Umbrella District:
- Q3. Location of meeting:
- Q4. Type of meeting:
- Q5. Police District:
- Q6. Beat:
- Q7. Month:
- Q8. Day:
- Q9. Year:
- Q10. **Time meeting began:**
- Q11. **Time meeting ended:**

General Coding – Steps for Coordinating Organizations:

- C1. How many separate organizations are present:
(use written document coding rules)
- C2. Number of Representatives from each organization: **SEE ATTACHED**
- C3. What types of organizations are present (number below; for names see attached):
 - 1. local police
 - 2. other law enforcement agencies
 - 3. other criminal justice agencies
 - 4. non-criminal justice government agencies/services
 - 5. private business, commerce, real estate, economic development
 - 6. schools, educational and training organizations
 - 7. faith based organizations, churches
 - 8. private social service, health, mental health, treatment organizations
 - 9. other organizations except resident organizations

10. resident or neighborhood organizations: *(If you know you have a resident neighborhood organization, but cannot determine if it is one of a-e types, then circle 10).*
- a. block groups/clubs
 - b. tenants groups
 - c. homeowners groups
 - d. neighborhood associations (open to all residents)
 - e. umbrella groups, representing or serving more than one neighborhood
 - f. community development corporations (CDC's)
11. Weed & Seed (director or staff only-- code committee members by their individual organizational affiliations)

C4. Number of organizations who regularly attend this forum
 - add R next to organization on sheet

C5. Number of the attending organizations who are represented for the first time
 - add F next to organization on sheet

C6. Does there appear to be an established protocol of raising and conducting business?

- Do the organizational representatives appear to understand who can do what in this setting?
- Yes
 - No
 - Unclear
 - Not applicable

C7. Does one organization appear in charge of running the meeting?

- Yes (name of organization)
- No

C8. General Resources (not issue by issue, example food provided or meetings space provided)

- | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Financial | <input type="checkbox"/> Disc. | <input type="checkbox"/> Prov. |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Material | <input type="checkbox"/> Disc. | <input type="checkbox"/> Prov. |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Facilities | <input type="checkbox"/> Disc. | <input type="checkbox"/> Prov. |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Personnel | <input type="checkbox"/> Disc. | <input type="checkbox"/> Prov. |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Expertise | <input type="checkbox"/> Disc. | <input type="checkbox"/> Prov. |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Info. Links | <input type="checkbox"/> Disc. | <input type="checkbox"/> Prov. |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other | <input type="checkbox"/> Disc. | <input type="checkbox"/> Prov. |

Comments:

General Coding - Steps for Resident Participation:

P1. Types of residents present:

- AR. Active Residents
- GR. General Resident

P2. Count of residents present:

- AR
- GR

P3. Resident turn out (is it good?)

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

P4. Representativeness: (Check the boxes for the resident groups known to reside in the area **who appear not to be represented** by the active or general residents present)

- Gender: Male Female
- Race/ethnicity: White African American Hispanic Other
- Age: Young Adult Elderly

Participation – General Balance

P5. Input Balance (check the groups or groups who raised the most issues)

- P for police. Police employees (sworn or civilian)
- AR for Active Residents (as defined in P.1. above)
- GR for General Residents (as defined in P.1. above)
- O. Other (all other organizational representatives or individuals; institutional member categories 2-9 and 11 above in C.3., above)

P6. Discussion Balance (check the group(s) who discussed issues the most)

- P for police. Police employees (sworn or civilian)
- AR for Active Residents (as defined in P.1. above)
- GR for General Residents (as defined in P.1. above)
- O. Other (all other organizational representatives or individuals; institutional member categories 2-9 and 11 above in C.3., above)

P7. Decision Balance (check the group(s) who exerted the most decision power)

- P for police. Police employees (sworn or civilian)
- AR for Active Residents (as defined in P.1. above)
- GR for General Residents (as defined in P.1. above)
- O. Other (all other organizational representatives or individuals; institutional member categories 2-9 and 11 above in C.3., above)

General Coding - Meeting Quality of Process

QP1. Minutes (check the option to indicate if someone read or distributed minutes from previous meeting Did some one read the minutes from a previous meeting)

- Yes
- No
- Not applicable (for a one time meeting or event)

QP2. Agenda (Check the appropriate box for the presence of agenda)

- Printed
- Announced
- Neither
- None

QP3. Disruption (check below for whether and how a problem person disrupted the proceedings)

- No
- Person rambled; demanded great attention
- Person confrontational or troublemaking
- Person rambling and confrontational
- Other disruption

QP4. Mediation of disruption (check to indicate how disruption was handled)

- Not applicable, no disruption
- Person was handled effectively
- People tried to go on with meeting by ignoring or by passing disruption

QP5. Meeting Management (indicate how well the meeting was run by checking the appropriate box.

- Meeting was very effective *coding rule: if QP2 is "none" then meeting cannot be "very effective"*
- Meeting was fairly effective overall, with some trouble spots
- Meeting was poorly run, floundered
- Meeting broke apart in conflict or dissension

QP6. Police Effectiveness (check to indicate police role in running meeting)

- Police played effective leadership role
- Police played ineffective leadership role
- Police did not take leadership role

QP7. Resident Effectiveness (check to indicate resident role in running meeting)

- Residents played effective leadership role
- Residents played ineffective leadership role
- Residents did not take leadership role.

QP8. Decision Form (check the option that best describes how often were decisions made by voting

- always

- most (more than half)
- some (less than half)
- none
- when not voting, group achieved clear consensus: e.g. worked until everyone agreed with outcome.
- when not voting, decision made more by leadership, based on asking for objections or telling group what would happen.
- not applicable: no decisions in this meeting

QP9. Structure (was the meeting guided by by-laws or rules governing how this group proceeds?)

- yes
- no
- not applicable (an event or one time meeting)

QP10. Importance (which groups expressed that these meetings or events are important?)

- P
- AR
- GR
- O.
- None

QP11. Progress (across the entire meeting or event, check which groups indicated that progress is being made or positive results are visible?)

- P
- AR
- GR
- O
- None

QP12 Frustration (across the entire meeting or event, which groups indicated that “we are getting no where” or “we are just spinning our wheels.”)

- P
- AR
- GR
- O
- None

General Coding - Announcements: Announcements are brief descriptions of upcoming events or of plans and developments of other groups. The intent is to inform the participants in the meeting of this activity that is taking place elsewhere. Discussion is not involved, unless there are brief questions of clarification. An announcement is not an issue for discussion and decision by the group at the meeting being observed.

1. Nature:

Who?

Date: Invitation: yes no Discussion: yes no

2. Nature:

Who?

Date: Invitation: yes no Discussion: yes no

3. Nature:

Who?

Date: Invitation: yes no Discussion: yes no

4. Nature:

Who?

Date: Invitation: yes no Discussion: yes no

5. Nature:

Who?

Date: Invitation: yes no Discussion: yes no

6. Nature:

Who?

Date: Invitation: yes no Discussion: yes no

7. Nature:

Who?

Date: Invitation: yes no Discussion: yes no

APPENDIX B:

Codesheet – Issue Coding

CODER/OBSERVER:

MEETING DATE:

MEETING TYPE:

I1 ISSUE #:

I2 Does the Issue appear to come from the agenda: Yes No

I3 Is the Issue. . . a Standing Report, Continuing Business, or New Business

I4 Issue Description:

I5 Goals/Problems Means/Sols Div of Labor

P8 Input/Issue Raising--- Who raised the issue?

AR GR Police Other-- Identify: _____ Unclear

Goals/Problems Means/Sols Div of Labor

P9 Discussion

	<input type="checkbox"/> AR	<input type="checkbox"/> AR	<input type="checkbox"/> AR
	<input type="checkbox"/> GR	<input type="checkbox"/> GR	<input type="checkbox"/> GR
	<input type="checkbox"/> Police	<input type="checkbox"/> P	<input type="checkbox"/> P
Identify Below>	<input type="checkbox"/> O	<input type="checkbox"/> O	<input type="checkbox"/> O
	<input type="checkbox"/> Unclear	<input type="checkbox"/> Unclear	<input type="checkbox"/> Unclear

P10 Balance	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
	P R O N D	P R O N D	P R O N D

P11 Decision Making

	<input type="checkbox"/> AR	<input type="checkbox"/> AR	<input type="checkbox"/> AR
	<input type="checkbox"/> GR	<input type="checkbox"/> GR	<input type="checkbox"/> GR
	<input type="checkbox"/> Police	<input type="checkbox"/> P	<input type="checkbox"/> P
Identify Below>	<input type="checkbox"/> O	<input type="checkbox"/> O	<input type="checkbox"/> O
	<input type="checkbox"/> Unclear	<input type="checkbox"/> Unclear	<input type="checkbox"/> Unclear

P12 Balance	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
	P R O N D	P R O N D	P R O N D

Steps for Resident Participation Comments:

P13 Assigned Responsibility Balance
(theoretically who is to do what?)

- P
- R
- O

Assigned Responsibility Comments:

P14 Actual Work Balance
(who actually did what?)

- P
- R
- O

Actual Work Comments:

P15 Issue Tone

- Issue was emotional
- Issue was not emotional
- Issue engendered conflict
- Issue engendered widespread agreement
- Issue provoked interest
- Issue did not provoke interest

Issue Tone Comments:

C9 Issue level Resources

	Prov.	Disc.
<input type="checkbox"/> Financial	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/> Material	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/> Facilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/> Personnel	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/> Expertise	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/> Info. Links	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/> Other	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Resources Comments:

IMP1

- Abuse
- Enhancement
- NA

IMP2

- Discussion
- Effort

IMP3

- Scan
- Analy
- Imp/doc
- Result/doc
- Result/rep
- Learn
- Other

IMP4

- Form/prog
- Form/Aus
- Reg/App
- None
- NA

IMP5

- No results
- neg. results
- pos. results

Steps to Improve Neighborhood Space Comments:

ID1

- decent.
- permanency
- align patrol
- NA
- patrol tactics
- other

Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods Comments:

- place

ENC1

- info. dissem.
- active recruit.
- design org.
- specific tactics
- training
- other
- NA

ENC2

- news media
- direct contact
- newsletter/handouts
- meeting

ENC3

- prob
- indiv. act.
- connect
- group act.

Steps to Encourage Resident Effort Comments:

APPENDIX C:

**Police Community Interaction Project
OBSERVATION CODEBOOK**

For the observation of meetings between residents and police

Note: concepts that need definition and definitions are indicated in italics; coding rules are indicated in bold italics

GENERAL CODING (for entire meeting or event)

EVENT IDENTIFIERS

Q1. Observer:

Enter the name of the person taking these notes about the meeting or event.

Q2. Umbrella District:

Enter the name of the residential area in which this meeting or event takes place
e.g. WESCO district

Q3. Location:

Enter the specific place (building or address) in which the meeting or event is being held.
e.g. Christamore House; _____ Church Fellowship Hall; _____ Precinct
Station; march on _____ Street

Q4. Type of Meeting or event:

Enter the specific kind of meeting or event,
e.g.: Neighborhood Association monthly meeting; Weed and Seed Steering
Committee; _____ Umbrella District monthly meeting; _____ alley clean up

Q5. Name/number of police district or precinct

Enter name or other identifier of police district in which meeting or event occurs.

Q6. Beat:

Enter name or number of police beat in which meeting or event occurs

Q7. Date of meeting or event:

Enter month using two digits, day in two digits, year in four digits
e.g. January 1, 2000 = 01012000

Q8. Time began:

Enter time meeting or event actually begins or is called to order in military or 24 hour
clock
e.g. 5 p.m.= 1700.

Q9. Time ends

Enter time meeting or event concludes in military or 24 hour clock.

GENERAL CODING - STEPS FOR COORDINATING ORGANIZATIONS

C1. Number Organizations

Indicate the number of separate *organizations* that have a *representative(s)* present at this meeting or event. (attach list of names). Note: do not code here organizations that may contribute resources or be discussed but that are not present.

An organization is any group with a specific name and regular meetings and other activities, and evident intention to endure for some period of time.

Code *government organizations* as follows:

- 1) Specific departments or agencies of same government count as separate organizations. E.g. City Planning Department; City Sanitation Department, Mayor's Office, City Police Department = 4 organizations.
- 2) Representatives of the **same** government legislature = one organization. E.g. any number of elected persons from same municipal legislature is 1 organization; any number of elected persons from same county legislature is 1 organization, etc.
- 3) judiciary = all members from the **same** court. E.g. any number of magistrates or judges from same town or county court, family court, federal district court are one organization, but judges or magistrates from separate courts represent two organizations.

Organizational representatives: an individual may belong to more than one organization. If there are individuals with multiple organization affiliations attending this meeting, observers should agree on a convention to code this individual are representing her most active affiliation and use that code at all times, unless in a specific meeting or discussion that individual indicates explicitly that on that day she is representing another organization.

C2. Number Representatives

Indicate the number of representatives from each organization (attach attendance list if possible)

Coding rule: See note for determining organizational representatives, above under C.1.

C3. Types of Organizations

Indicate number of each *type of organization* present in the box in front of each type, using the definitions below.

Types of organizations:

1. local police:

local municipal or county police departments or police of local authorities:

Examples, Indianapolis Police Department, Speedway Police Dept., Marion County Sheriff's Dept. Indianapolis Housing Police

2. **other law enforcement agencies:**
state, federal, or other agencies with law enforcement duties, e.g.,:
Indianapolis State Police, Federal Bureau of Investigation
3. **Other criminal justice agencies:**
all other criminal justice agencies of any level of government, e.g.,:
Marion County Prosecutor's Office, Marion County Probation Department, Juvenile Court officials.
4. **Non-criminal justice government (public) organizations:**
Include in this type all organizations that are public, government units, using the guidelines for government unit above, under C.1. Examples:
Mayor's Office, Marion County Health Department, Marion County Library, Wayne Township Administrator's Office, Sanitation Department, County Planning Department
5. **Private business,** commerce, real estate, economic development. E.g.:
Kroger Food Stores, _____ Real Estate Agency; _____ Chamber of Commerce.
coding rule: code CDCs as neighborhood organization type 10f. CDCs have economic development functions, but also provide services to residents, and the boards of CDCs are by law comprised of residents.
6. **Schools,** universities, other education and training organizations:
Any organization with schooling, education, job skills training, regardless of whether public, non-profit or for-profit
E.g. Indianapolis Public Schools, Martin University, Indiana University-Purdue University at Indianapolis.
7. **Faith Community:**
Any organization concerned with faith or religion. But classify as private social service any organization that has primary function of service provision, even if operating under a faith based umbrella. Eg., Westside Ministers, all churches, synagogues, mosques. But **not** United Methodist Society, which is privately incorporated national service agency.
8. **Private social service** and treatment agencies:
Any private organization providing services to clients.
E.g., Christamore House Community Center, Westside Health Clinic, Police Athletic League, Catholic Charities, Salvation Army, YMCA.
9. **All other** non-resident organizations
Any other organizations not in 1-8 or (and not in 10-11)
10. **Resident or neighborhood organizations**
 - a. **Block clubs** (associations open to residence of a street or block, or a subset of a neighborhood, e.g., Haugh/Warman Block Club)
 - b. **Tenants groups**, associations (e.g. open to tenants generally or of a specific rental facility. (Indianapolis public housing tenants assoc.)
 - c. **Homeowners groups**, associations (open to homeowners only, e.g. X Homeowners association)
 - d. **Neighborhood Associations** (any place based organization open to residence of the area, regardless of ownership, e.g., Stringtown, Hawthorne, Haughville Neighborhood Associations)
 - e. **Umbrella groups** (resident organizations that serve residence of or resident

organizations of more than one neighborhood. e.g., WESCO, Marion County Alliance of Neighborhood Associations)

f. **Community Development Corporations** (representatives of any CDC, e.g. Westside Development Corporation)

11. **Weed and Seed** (only for those employed by Weed and Seed)

C4. Number of regular organizations:

(a) Indicate the number of the attending organizations who *regularly attend* this meeting
regularly attending: based on coders knowledge of normal participation patterns in this meeting; organizations that have been at this meeting before.

(b) On organizational attendance list attachment put an R next to the name of regularly attending organizations.
coding rule: use normal procedure for listing organizations at the meeting; simply add R for regular attendees next to organization name.

C5. First time organizations:

(a) Indicate the number of the attending organizations who are represented for the first time.
(b.) On organizational attendance list attachment, put an F next to the name of first time organizations.

coding rule: use normal procedure for listing organizations at the meeting; simply add F for first timers next to organization name.

C6 Established Protocol:

Indicate if there appears to be an established protocol for raising and conducting business among these organizations. Do the organizational representatives appear to understand who can do what in this setting?

- Yes
- No
- Unclear
- Not applicable

C7 Organization lead

Does one organization appear in charge of running the meeting?

- Y (enter name of lead organization)
- N

C8: General Resources

Resources are the material, personal, or informational inputs that a coordination effort among or between organizations may contribute to a neighborhood project or to neighborhood improvement. Classify these resources as follows:

Coding rule: code here resources that apply to the entire meeting or event, rather than to specific issues.

Coding rule: Exception. Do not code here those resources contributed by the municipal (local) police department. Police resources are coded elsewhere in this codebook (MOB1, Other Support). Do code resources contributed by another police or law enforcement agency that might be coordinating efforts with the local department.

Coding Rule: Mere presence of an organization in a meeting should not be considered as a contribution of resources. Code resources only upon mention of specific contributions to a project or to neighborhood quality of life. Some organizations may be present in a coordination episode only to gather information for their own use or to decide not to participate further.

Types of resources

- 1) **Financial assistance:** actual cash contributed by grant, gift, or loan by an organization to a neighborhood project, neighborhood organization, or neighborhood residents. Funds have to change hands for financial assistance to be rendered. In kind contributions are coded below.

Examples: aldermen obtain city funds to support a neighborhood project, the U.S. Department of Justice provides Weed and Seed funding for a target area coordinator, local philanthropist provides money so that neighborhood trainers can buy training material and attend training meetings.

- 2) **Material goods, equipment, and supplies:** organizations contribute in-kind goods and supplies

Example: a local business woman convinces IBM to contribute computers to a neighborhood information center.

- 3) **Use of Facilities:** organizations donate buildings or space for neighborhood use.

Example: a local corporation donated a town house that it owned in the neighborhood as a neighborhood meeting place.

- 4) **Personnel:** members of organizations *are assigned* to work on a project over some period of time.

Example: The U.S. Department of Justice assigns a law enforcement specialist to help write an Weed and Seed proposal with a neighborhood committee

- 5) **Expertise:** organizations contribute expert or accredited knowledge to a neighborhood project

Examples: a university department agrees to conduct statistical analyses of a resident survey, a city planner meets with a neighborhood association housing committee on zoning and planning issues, the county solicitor appears to describe housing code enforcement procedure, a nationally known organizer

speaks to local groups about how to organize a program or how to train volunteers.

coding rule: Personnel and expertise may occur together, but not all personnel are experts and not all expertise requires assignment over time.

- 6) **Information Links:** a coordination effort provides a neighborhood with new access to information sources

Example: In the meeting with the police community resource officer, the neighborhood association learned how to contact several national neighborhood training organizations

- 7) **Other:** if a type of resource is not classifiable among the above six, circle seven and write in the resource.

On the code sheet, check all the types of resources that are discussed or provided through coordination of organizations.

- disc.** this resource is talked about
- prov.** this resource is actually provided in this meeting or event

GENERAL CODING - STEPS FOR RESIDENT PARTICIPATION

P1. types of residents present

Residents reside in the area where the meeting or event is being held.

Check the appropriate boxes to indicate the kinds of residents attending the meeting or event.

- AR. Active Residents hold officer positions in neighborhood organizations or are known to be active in this and other meetings and events)**
- GR. General Residents who are not active members of neighborhood organizations or regular attendees in meetings and events.)**

P2. Count of residents present.

For each type of resident (AR and GR) indicate the number present. Take the count 30 minutes after the meeting begins, to include latecomers.

P3. Resident turnout.

Check the box to indicate, based on past experience or interview, if this is a good turnout

for this type of meeting or event.

- yes
- no
- don't know

P4. Representativeness

Check the boxes for the resident groups known to reside in the area **who appear not to be represented** by the active or general residents present.

- Gender
- Race/ethnicity: White/African American/Hispanic/Other
- Age: Young/Adult/Elderly
- Class: Renter/homeowner

Participation- General Balance

Coding Rule: to be done as soon after the meeting is over as possible, describe the meeting in general, across all discussion or activity that took place

P5. Input Balance

Check the group or groups who raised the most issues

- P for police. Police employees (sworn or civilian)
- AR for Active Residents (as defined in P.1. above)
- GR for General Residents (as defined in P.1. above)
- O. Other (all other organizational representatives or individuals; institutional member categories 2-9 and 11 above in C.3., above)

Coding Rule: checking a group indicates that they were dominant. Checking two or more groups indicates that the checked groups contributed about equally, but more than those not checked.

P6. Discussion Balance

Check the group(s) who discussed issues the most.

Coding Rule: checking a group indicates that they were dominant. Checking two or more groups indicates that the checked groups contributed about equally, but more than those not checked.

- P for police. Police employees (sworn or civilian)
- AR for Active Residents (as defined in P.1. above)
- GR for General Residents (as defined in P.1. above)
- O. Other (all other organizational representatives or individuals; institutional member categories 2-9 and 11 above in C.3., above)

P7. Decision Balance

Check the group(s) who exerted the most decision power.

Coding Rule: checking a group indicates that they were dominant. Checking two or more groups indicates that the checked groups contributed about equally, but more than those not checked.

- P for police. Police employees (sworn or civilian)
- AR for Active Residents (as defined in P.1. above)
- GR for General Residents (as defined in P.1. above)

- ❑ O. Other (all other organizational representatives or individuals; institutional member categories 2-9 and 11 above in C.3., above)

GENERAL CODING - MEETING QUALITY OF PROCESS

Coding Rule: code during or after meeting as appropriate.

QP1. Minutes

Check the option to indicate if someone read or distributed minutes from previous meeting?

- ❑ yes
- ❑ no
- ❑ Not applicable (for one time meetings and events).

QP 2. Agenda

Check the appropriate box for the presence of agenda

- ❑ Printed: agenda is printed and circulated or projected or printed on board, etc.
- ❑ Announced: agenda is announced by leader but not circulated
- ❑ Neither: leader seems to operate from an agenda but it is not printed or announced
- ❑ None: no one seems to have a clear plan for order of business

coding rule: if None is checked, then QP5 below is fair or poor.

QP 3. Disruption

Check below for whether and how a problem person disrupted the proceedings.

- ❑ No
- ❑ Person rambled; demanded great attention
- ❑ Person confrontational or troublemaking
coding rule: Note, this does not mean simply that person expressed anger, frustration or disagreement; but rather that person stopped meeting, did not advance discussion, and sought to advance personal agenda, or made personal attacks.
- ❑ Person rambling and confrontational
- ❑ Other disruption

QP4. Mediation of disruption

Check to indicate how disruption was handled.

- ❑ Not applicable, no disruption
- ❑ Person was handled effectively
- ❑ People tried to go on with meeting by ignoring or by passing disruption

QP5. Meeting Management

Indicate how well the meeting was run by checking the appropriate box.

- ❑ Meeting was very effective
coding rule: if QP2 is “none” then meeting cannot be “very effective”

- Meeting was fairly effective overall, with some trouble spots
- Meeting was poorly run, floundered
- Meeting broke apart in conflict or dissension

QP6. Police Effectiveness

Check to indicate police role in running meeting

- Police played effective leadership role
- Police played ineffective leadership role
- Police did not take leadership role

QP7. Resident Effectiveness

Check to indicate resident role in running meeting

- Residents played effective leadership role
- Residents played ineffective leadership role
- Residents did not take leadership role.

QP8. Decision Form

Check the option that best describes how often were decisions made by voting

- always
- most (more than half)
- some (less than half)
- none
- when not voting, group achieved clear consensus: e.g. worked until everyone agreed with outcome.
- when not voting, decision made more by leadership, based on asking for objections or telling group what would happen.
- not applicable: no decisions in this meeting

QP9. Structure

Was the meeting guided by by-laws or rules governing how this group proceeds?

- yes
- no
- not applicable (an event or one time meeting)

QP10. Importance

Which groups expressed that these meetings or events are important?

- P
- AR
- GR
- O.
- None

QP11. Progress

Across the entire meeting or event, check which groups indicated that progress is being made or positive results are visible?

- P

- AR
- GR
- O
- None

QP12 Frustration

Across the entire meeting or event, which groups indicated that “we are getting no where” or “we are just spinning our wheels.”

- P
- AR
- GR
- O
- None

GENERAL CODING - ANNOUNCEMENTS

Announcements: Announcements are brief descriptions of upcoming events or of plans and developments of other groups. The intent is to inform the participants in the meeting of this activity that is taking place elsewhere. Discussion is not involved, unless there are brief questions of clarification. An announcement is not an issue for discussion and decision by the group at the meeting being observed.

Coding Rule: If an announcement leads to discussion of what the present groups should do, code it as an issue. (Announcements typically are made at the beginning of the meeting, but may occur elsewhere. But code all announcements, regardless of when they occur, on this form.)

Enter the information about announcements in the table in the general coding sheet, following the following definitions.

1. Announcement	2. Date	3. Ancr.	4. Invite?	5.Ques?
-----------------	---------	----------	------------	---------

1. Announcement: the nature of the announcement should be clearly but briefly stated In the box. It might not always be an “event”. E.g., “_____ NA holding alley cleanup at _____”. Try to answer who is doing what where. Use name of the groups who are doing something and their institutional membership (using C.3. codes above).
2. Enter date of the activity announced. Some announcements may not have date for the upcoming “event”, in which case enter NA
3. Who announces? Enter the institutional membership of the announcer, and the name of the announcer, if available.
4. Invitation? Enter Y/N for whether the announcement invites those in attendance to join in or participate.

5. Discussion? In this box, enter Y/N, to indicate whether any questions of clarification. Coding Rule: remember, if discussion goes beyond clarification, is prolonged, or involves decisions by this group, then the announcement should be coded as an issue.

ISSUE CODING

Issues are action items for the group attending the meeting or event. Issues are problems to be solved and the means of solving them or goals to be reached and the means of reaching them. Issues may be concerns for maintaining or improving the neighborhood or concerns about how the assembled group can maintain itself and work together effectively. In addition, issues may arise about who is to do what (division of labor) in either the group or the neighborhood.

Goals or problems, for which means are selected and division of labor decided, may lead to implementation. Implementation is a community action episode. Issue coding is a means of recording concerns of neighborhood groups and the police about conditions in the neighborhood, what should happen about them, who should work on them, and whether and how this work is done.

It is important to record the interaction variables on an issue by issue basis because different issues may involve different participants, different processes of interaction, and different results. Therefore, it is important to examine the nature of interaction within each issue, rather than average responses across issues. Many issues may be trivial and short-lived. Others may be critical to the future of the neighborhood and to relations between community groups and the police. To understand what happens in a neighborhood over time about neighborhood issues and how this affects the neighborhood, it is important to be able to look at interactions about specific issues as they develop, in addition to examining averages or general tendencies.

Coding rule: An issue observation sheet should be filled out for each specific issue in a meeting or event. Some observed meetings and events may contain only one issue, but most will involve several.

All issue sheets for a specific meeting or event should be collected together and attached to the general observation code sheet for that same period of observation. Number issues consecutively in the order in which they occur.

So that data from issue coding and general meeting coding can be associated at all times, even if the sheets are separated, at the top of each issue sheet, place

- observers name,
- meeting date,
- and meeting type.

ISSUE CODES

I1. Issue id.

Number the issue to be coded in chronological order of occurrence at the meeting/event.

I2. Scheduled Issue/Activity?

Does the issue appear to come from the agenda for the meeting? Or does it appear to be a planned part of the event?

- Yes
- No

I.3. Issue status:

Check the appropriate box to indicate whether this issue is a standing report, an action episode in progress or a new issue.

- Standing Report:** This item is a *standing report or regular committee report*; it comes up regularly in this meeting, but is not an action issue.
- Continuing business:** this *issue has come up before; this is a follow-up* from discussion or action at previous meeting or action taken elsewhere.
Coding Rule: after meeting, identify prior meeting date and issue number for continuing business.
- New Business:** this issue *appears to be new*.

I.4: Issue description

State briefly but as completely as possible the issue that is raised. Helpful that the description include who raised it and why.

I.5. Issue type

Classify the issue by checking the appropriate box(es). An issue may contain one or more of the following. Check all that apply.

- G/P (goal or problem):** A participant in the meeting raises a concern that something is a problem or that something should be done.
- M/S (means/solution):** A participant in the meeting raises a suggestion about the means of solving the problem or reaching a goal.
- DOL (division of labor):** A participant in the meeting raises a concern about who should work on the solution or the means.

ISSUE CODING - STEPS FOR RESIDENT PARTICIPATION

Coding rule: for issue specific participation, P8 through P12 are coded for each issue checked in I5. I.e., input, discussion, and decision are coded for G/P, M/S, and DOL separately, as appropriate

P.8. Issue Raising

Check the appropriate box for the group membership of the person who introduces the issue. Use the same group categories as P5, P6, and P7, above.

- AR (active resident)
- GR (general resident)
- P (police employees)
- (Other participants: identify name)
- Unclear (issue raiser not known to coder)

Coding rule: if it is not clear whether a resident is active or not, code GR.

P.9. Discussion

Discussion is any and all responses to the issue raised (I4 and I5, above). Discussion may be very brief or non-existent. It may be lengthy and include clarification, criticism, exploration, and elaboration. People may provide support for an issue or argue against it.

Check the appropriate box or boxes for who discusses the issue raised.

Coding rule: the person raising the issue in P8. is not coded

- AR
- GR
- P
- O
- NA: no discussion except by person in P8
- Unclear (participants unclear to coder)

P.10 Balance of Discussion

Check one or more boxes to indicate the dominant groups in discussion. If two boxes are checked, that indicates that the checked groups participated in discussion equally but were more dominant than the unchecked group. If all three groups are checked, that means that they all participated equally.

Coding Rule: you may only check here a group that participated in raising the issue or discussion of it. E.g. if NA is checked in P9, the group in P8 is dominant.

- Police
- Residents (active and general)
- Other Participants (such as other agency officials)
- Not discernable (e.g. coder unclear about identify of active participants)

P.11. Decision Making

A decision varies by type of issue.

A decision about goals/problems is defined as

either (1) a conclusion by the participants that ranks or prioritizes goals or problems or (2) evidence that the participants have accepted a single problem as valid or a goal as desirable.

A decision about means/solutions is the acceptance or agreement that about what should be done.

A decision about division of labor is a decision about who should implement the means/solution.

Coding Rules:

- a. *If an individual (P8) raises a goal or suggests a problem (G/P in I5) and the discussion immediately moves to proposed solutions of that problem, assume that the group have made an implicit decision to accept the goal/problem. Code P.11 goal/problem decision (but not P10, discussion) and code P8 and P9 means/solutions issue raising and discussion, as appropriate.*
- b. *If a decision about means/solutions is also reached, code P11 means/solution decision as well.*
- c. *If an individual raises a goal/problem (I5) and others concur, or raise similar goals/problems, code both goals/problems discussion and goals/problems decision. The fact that there is agreement on a problem or goal or like problems or goals indicates that the participants are recognizing and affirming the existence of a problem, and thus have made a decision that it is a problem.*
- d. *If means/solutions are proposed, code Means/Solutions Raised or Discussed, but not decision. Code Means/Solution Decision only if one means or solution is decided upon.*
- e. *If a single solution is raised (I5) and this proposal is accepted with no discussion, code Means/Solution Decision. In this case the P8 code for issue raiser would be only participant in the issue.*
- f. *If after a discussion of a problem, the response is that someone will look into it or study it, code this as both a I5 Means/Solution and as I5 DOL. The means of dealing with the problem is that someone will study it, so we have a means decision and a division of labor decision*

Check the appropriate boxes to indicate who participates in the decision.

- AR
- GR
- P
- O
- NA: no decision made
- Unclear: coder cannot identify participants in decision

P.12. Decision Balance

Check the appropriate boxes to indicate who dominated in decision making. Follow the same rule about decision balance as discussion balance (P10).

- Police
- Residents (active and general)
- Other Participants (such as other agency officials)
- Not discernable (e.g. coder unclear about identify of active participants)

P.13. Assigned Responsibility Balance

Coding rule: if P12 Division of Labor decision is checked, P13 must be coded.

*Assigned responsibility is a measure of the specified or agreed upon division of labor between the police, residents, and other participants. **It does not measure their actual participation.** It is an indication of who is supposed to do something. It is therefore the content of the division of labor decision coded in P12, DOL. The persons who made the decision about responsibility may not be the same as those who are assigned to do the work.*

Coding rule: Checking one box indicates that group is supposed to do most of the work. Checking two boxes indicates those two groups have equal responsibilities, but more than the third group, etc.

Choose one or more the following options

- The *police* have agreed to *or were appointed* to perform *activities* to implement or carry out plans, decisions, or solve issues.
- Residents* have agreed to *or were appointed* to perform *activities* to implement or carry out plans, decisions, or solve issues.
- Other groups have *agreed or were appointed* to perform *activities* to implement or carry out plans, decisions, or solve issues.

P.14. Actual Work Balance

Actual work is a measure of the actual effort that is put into one's role or daily activities or duty. Just because we know someone is assigned a role, we do not know if they are carrying out duties. Actual work balance describes who followed through on their assigned responsibilities.

Check one or more of the boxes to indicate who actually did the work on the means or solution, using the same balance coding as above.

- Police did the work assigned
- Residents did the work assigned
- Other groups did the work assigned

coding rule: use comments box to note work that is incomplete or done poorly

P.15. Issue Tone

Check all characteristics that apply to the discussion and decision making about this issue:

- ❑ Issue was emotional
- ❑ Issue was not emotional
- ❑ Issue engendered conflict
- ❑ Issue engendered widespread agreement
- ❑ Issue provoked interest
- ❑ Issue did not provoke interest.

ISSUE CODING - STEPS FOR COORDINATING ORGANIZATIONS

C9. Issue level Resources

Check the resources discussed or provided for this specific issue using the same resource definitions as C8 (general resources).

ISSUE CODING - STEPS TO IMPROVE NEIGHBORHOOD SPACE

Steps to improve neighborhood space are actions that directly or indirectly exert control on how neighborhood space is used or who gets to use it.

Use of neighborhood space can be guided by two potential values: The *abuse of space* (originally called “exchange value”) and the *enhancement of space* (originally called “use value”). Space abuse is the use of space and its infrastructure as a commodity to be exchanged. Space enhancement is the capacity of space and its facilities to provide comfort in living, to ease one’s daily round, to make neighborhood resources accessible, and to improve the quality of life.

Space abuse can be characterized as treating space as a commodity for private gain, while space enhancement can be characterized as treating space as an indivisible public good.

Our political and economic system promotes and legitimizes the pursuit of exchange value, but places controls on its pursuit (such as making certain exchange tactics illegal). Placing controls on exchange value constrains the ways in which people can treat space in order to extract a gain for themselves. In other words, it limits illegal, exploitive, abusive, or unfair practices. These controls limit the nature and extent of the exchange cost that an actor can externalize (have the public or other people pay for).

For example, people may not appropriate public space for private gain, except under controlled circumstances (such as permits or licenses for vending in a public park). Similarly, drug dealers may not control a public phone to make deals. Additionally, people may not use their own private space for exchange, without following some rules. A landlord may not ignore housing codes in renting space. A bank must follow federal rules about community reinvestment. These are all examples of space abuses.

Some neighborhood improvements do not target abuses, but try directly to enhance the use value of space. For example, police, neighbors, or the parks department may engage in steps to improve the attractiveness and accessibility of a park by cleaning up debris,

installing better lighting, and providing better facilities. Hence some neighborhood improvements are direct enhancements of physical space rather than controls on abuse.

IMP1. Nature of Improvement.

There are two basic kinds of neighborhood improvements to space. Indicate if an issue raised (I5) contains an improvement element by checking the appropriate box.

- ❑ **Abuse:** the issue raised is concerned with people who inappropriately or illegally try to extract exchange value from neighborhood space or is concerned directly with placing controls on this behavior.
- ❑ **Enhancement:** the issue raised is concerned only with enhancements or improvements in neighborhood space (but not with controlling abuses).
- ❑ **NA:** the issue raised does not deal with either abuses or enhancements to neighborhood space (e.g. not an improvement-oriented issue).

Coding rule: if you check exv or usv, continue coding IMP. If you check NA, do not code additional IMP items.

IMP2. Type of Improvement Activity

Type of activity indicates if the neighborhood improvement issue that is observed or reported is a *discussion* of the abuse problem or the abuse control, or is the report of or observation of actual attempts to make enhancements to the use of neighborhood space.

Coding rule: if P14, Actual Work Balance has been coded for this issue, then IMP2 is an effort: someone is doing or has done something about improving space.

- ❑ **Discussion:** the police/citizen interaction simply involves talking about concerns for improving neighborhood space. Aside from discussion there is no current attempt to implement any activity or solution.
 - Example: At the monthly meeting beat officers, neighborhood residents, and business owners discussed the need to remove garbage and debris which was littering a vacant lot.
- ❑ **Effort:** the police/citizen interaction involves an activity that demonstrates a concerted effort to address the improvement of space issue.
 - Example: Once a month CPO officers supplied residents with brooms, buckets, rakes, and trash bags to assist them in clearing the vacant lot.

Coding Rule: If an interaction describes both a current or previous effort and discussions about what to do next, check both discussion and effort.

IMP3. Characteristics of the Improvement Process

Check any of the following characteristics have been applied to the improving space issue.

- ❑ **Scanning strategies:** any process used or proposed to identify, document, and or record an array of improvement issues, and rank or prioritize them on the basis of some criteria such as frequency or seriousness. Common examples would include hot spot analysis, crime mapping, resident surveys or surveys of neighborhood physical conditions or social disorders. Scanning may be quite informal and unscientific, such as brainstorming at a meeting to nominate problems for attention; or may be very systematic and scientific, such as random walks and probability surveys. But in any case, **scanning is more than an individual nominating a specific problem.** It is some process that selects problems against others.
- ❑ **Analysis strategies:** once a specific problem has been selected for improvement (regardless of how the problem was identified), a process that seeks to determine the nature, extent, and proximate causes of a problem and selects a solution based on the analysis of the problem.
- ❑ **Implementation documentation:** a process of recording or documenting the actual implementation of an improvement response, regardless of how the problem was identified or the solution selected. It is evidence that the chosen solution actually occurred, and whether it deviated in anyway from what was intended. This process can be informal, as in keeping a log or journal or even oral reports of what occurred, or it may be very systematic.
- ❑ **Results documentation:** a process of recording or documenting the results of an improvement effort. Do people record whether the problem ceased or improved? Again, this may be relatively brief and informal (e.g., police officer asks once of a problem was corrected) or systematic and precise (residents or police report observations of reported hot spot at random intervals for six months after the improvement effort).
- ❑ **Results reporting:** Regardless of the level or type of documentation of results, feedback to persons who raised the issue or implemented the improvement about the results of that control effort.
- ❑ **Learning from prior control efforts:** evidence that residents and the police seek to learn from one improvement implementation to another. Evidence of attempts to improve the whole approach to application of improving neighborhood space. For example, do they try to improve scanning, analysis, documenting and reporting processes? Do they ask which approaches have been most effective with similar problems in the past? Do they take specific steps to be more effective, or produce more positive results in the future?
- ❑ **Other:** the improvement of space discussion or effort observed or reported on here has none of the above 6 characteristics.

IMP4. Level of Formalization.

Level of formalization indicates certain *characteristics of the formality* or institutionalization of an improvement response. Check any one or more of the following that apply:

- Formal program:** the improvement discussed or exerted is given a specific name (i.e. National Take Back the Night March; Stingtown Annual Neighborhood Cleanup)
- Formal Auspice:** the improvement occurs underneath the banner or sponsorship of a broader project or organization with a formal name (e.g. WESCO Weed and Seed drug crackdown)
- Regularized Application:** the specific improvement occurs at regular, planned intervals, such as annually, monthly, weekly: it is intended as an on-going, recurring activity or event. It is not a one time or ad hoc response.
- None of the above** three characteristics, but some means of improvement was selected or exerted.
- Not applicable.** An improvement of space problem was raised (e.g. IMP1 is ABUSE or ENHANCEMENT), but no means of control was determined. (E.g., IMP2, above, is Discussion only and P11 (Decision) is G/P, not decision about M/S or DOL; therefore the IMP response cannot be described as formal or not.

IMP5. Results

Check below to indicate nature of results

- No results reported (e.g., IMP3 does not include Results Reporting).
- Negative results reported
- Positive results reported

ISSUE CODING – STEPS TO IDENTIFY WITH NEIGHBORHOODS

Steps to Identify with Neighborhoods is the extent to which the police department or police district have policies or use strategies that foster recognition of the unique character of one neighborhood, or portion of a neighborhood (see note below on *scope of identification*), as distinct from others. It refers to steps taken to gain knowledge and familiarity with a neighborhood, or a portion of a neighborhood and the people who work and live within it.

Identification interactions are not taken in response to a particular crime or specific problem, but they may be adopted in the belief that greater knowledge of a place and its residents may contribute to more efficient identification of or control of problems and crimes.

Note on *scope of identification*. Identification actions will generally refer to gaining greater familiarity with a neighborhood as a whole. However, police and residents may interact to increase identification in smaller portions of a recognized neighborhood as a means of increasing neighborhood identity. For example, identification of place actions may occur on a block basis, or within a large housing complex, rather than encompass an entire neighborhood. The police may also meet regularly with a neighborhood, homeowners, tenants, or business association that represents a significant portion of the people in a neighborhood, but not the entire populace. Finally, in some cities collections of contiguous neighborhoods may be combined in the course of identification of place interactions. For example, in Indianapolis, groups of contiguous neighborhoods are combined into umbrella areas. The umbrella or similar district may be the basis of identification interactions in some places.

The steps to identify with neighborhoods variable is a component of what the literature refers to as neighborhood autonomy. However, autonomy itself implies self-governance, or decision-making. In these interaction measures, decision making by residents is measured under participation, above. Identification with neighborhoods, in contrast, is a prerequisite for autonomy but does not by itself indicate whether neighborhood groups or neighborhood residents participate in decisions about the neighborhood. However, without identification interactions by the city government, residents might not be able to participate in decisions. Therefore, many urban social action episodes are attempts to get the city to identify a unique area.

Identification with neighborhood interactions are those which indicate that some decision makers (whoever they may be) treat specific areas as identifiable, separate areas to which decisions and services should be tailored.

ID1. Type of Identification

coding rule: Please note the comments box should be used to describe negative as well as positive aspects of ID interactions. Through these comments we might be able to

develop more complex id codes later, or at least determine whether the ID action should be scored as + or -.

Check all boxes that apply to indicate the nature of identification interactions. Important: in the identification comments box briefly state both the nature of the ID interaction and whether the comments or behavior suggest positive or negative values for that type of identification.

- ❑ ***Decentralization*** of police physical facilities: *Decent. indicates that an issue contains some concern about the establishment or maintenance or operation of a facility with a specific address within the area.*

Example: a police-community multi-service center staffed by police and civilian personnel was created where residents could go to report crimes, hold meetings, or obtain information.

Decent. issue content would include discussion of the need for such facilities, complaints about the staffing or hours of such a facility, positive comments about the operations of such a facility, etc.

- ❑ ***Permanency of personnel assignment:*** *Permanency indicates that the police department establishes or maintains integrity of beat assignments by providing the same officers with permanent places of responsibility.*

Example: A police department changes dispatching policy in order to keep the same officers responding to the same neighborhood patrol areas.

Permanency issue content would include discussion of the need for permanency, residents expressing desires for particular officers to be assigned or kept, changes in assignment of personnel; discussions of problems because of changes in assignment or lack of permanency etc.

- ❑ ***Aligning patrol with place boundaries:*** *Align patrol indicates that the department reconfigures policing areas to be coterminous with residential place boundaries.*

Example: the police department consulted with the neighborhood associations to redesign beat boundaries to conform to neighborhood boundaries.

Align patrol codes will probably be rare. However, coders should be cognizant of discussions that indicate lack of patrol alignment, as well as any discussions of the advantages or pay-off for such alignment.

- ❑ ***Place specific information gathering and analysis:*** *Info. indicates that the police gather and utilize information that is aggregated or disaggregated to an identified place in crime analysis, calls for service analysis, citizen satisfaction surveys, and in other data gathering and information management. Such information may serve as a basis for problem prioritization, problem solving or other resource allocations.*

Example: Officers are asked to rank the crime problems facing the residents of a neighborhood. Or police ask residents to rank problems facing the neighborhood.

Info. issue content could include observation that police have gathered such data, or are gathering it in this event or meeting, or that police are using place specific data in making decisions about what to do in that area.

coding rule: the most common form of place info. is the regular presentation of crime data by area. When this is done in the presence of residents, also code MOB.1. Info dissem., below. Note in comments box if police and or residents ever analyze such data for patterns or ask other questions about crime or arrest data (also code CNS3 if they do).

- ❑ **Patrol Tactics.** Patrol indicates that the police may employ certain patrol tactics that are designed to bring officers into closer contact with residents than motor patrol. Examples would be foot patrol, bike patrol, park and walk, etc.

Patrol issue content would involve any discussions of how beat officers should be deployed to encourage interaction with residents, or resident voicing concern of lack of officer contact, or resident praise for such tactics, etc.

- ❑ **Other identification actions** (other than the above five). ID Other indicates that the police department uses other policies or strategies to increase officer recognition of a place and its residents and to increase resident knowledge of officers and police policy, such as attendance by officers or other police personnel of neighborhood organization meetings as part of their regular duties.
Example: the police community officers assigned to the South End of Albany attended the monthly Steering Committee meetings for the South End Block Captains Program, a coalition of neighborhood groups concerned with community improvements and implementation of the Albany Weed and Seed program.

ID Other interactions may be more common than other identification types, with the possible exception of place specific info. Most of these ID Other interactions will involve officers in meetings, but be attuned to other forms of identification not described above. Issue content that would include ID Other issue content would include complaints in meetings that officers do not attend regularly or officer comments that organizations do not want them to attend. It would also include events such as awards for officers or special social events that involve both officers and residents.

- ❑ **Not Applicable:** no discernable identification interactions in this event or meeting.

ISSUE CODING - STEPS TO ENCOURAGE RESIDENT EFFORT

Police steps to encourage resident effort is the extent to which **the police** contribute to the **transformation** of residents' private resources, such as their time, knowledge, funds, and property to collective efforts at improving their neighborhood. This would include efforts made to **channel** residents into existing groups and organizations and efforts to

assist residents to create new associations and programs. The hallmark of encouragement is the effort to increase the contribution of voluntary labor among neighbors, or the **promotion of active roles** in the collective life of the community.

Police may engage in encouragement by actions such as:

- *Instilling a set of beliefs* that create a state of mind in which participation in collective action appears meaningful to residents (indicating that there are problems in a neighborhood, that these are shared by other people in the area, and that collective action would lead to improvements)
- *Identifying people* who are sympathetic to a plan of action
- *Recruiting persons* to attend a meeting or engage in an action
- *Providing rewards* for participation in a collective effort
- *Improving skills or knowledge* to residents to promote effective participation
- *Providing material resources* for a collective effort
- *Removing barriers* to participation to make collective action more feasible
- *Assisting* the creation of a *structure* for participation
- *Identifying particular tactics or actions* that residents could take for accomplishing objectives.

Connection to participation: Encouragement actions are actions by the police. They are efforts to motivate or build the capacity of an individual or group to contribute to collective endeavors. **It is not the results of those activities.** Participation is the contribution made by the residents in interaction with the police.

For example: “In Chicago, North Side and South Side Training Directors reported that problem solving civilian groups were currently functioning independently on some beats.” This statement describes the activity of residents who are engaged in problem solving. It does not describe encouragement by the police. The police encouragement effort (the provision of training in problem solving) was a prior occurrence.

In contrast: “Trainers continued to schedule additional joint community police training problem solving sessions with the intention of reaching more beat residents” provides direct evidence of police development of skills and the expansion of an activity to additional residents. These are both encouragement efforts.

Encouragement by others: Groups or individuals other than the police may engage in encouragement. In most vibrant neighborhoods, many active groups and associations will be concerned with getting fellow neighbors involved in the life of the community. This is crucial activity in the life of a neighborhood but is not being measured here. In a neighborhood where mobilization had already taken place, the police may not engage in encouragement. In such a neighborhood, however, there may be a high degree of participation by mobilized neighbors with the police. If, however, the police assist a group in encouragement, the police actions will be scored under the encouragement dimension.

For example: “the police supply spotlights and officers to illuminate a march against drugs dealing by residents.” While there is no evidence of the police identifying potential marchers or bringing them together, the police encouragement effort here is supplying equipment and personnel to support the marchers.

ENC1. Type of Encouragement

coding rule: in the encouragement comments box indicate briefly the nature of the ENC effort, including comments or observations that police failed to encourage or have actively discouraged mobilization.

coding rule: coders should not judge whether the police effort is intended to encourage or will succeed in encouraging residents. Intentions can be followed up by interviews. Results can be separately tracked. Code behaviors, not results or intentions, as listed below.

Check as many of the ENC.1. boxes as apply.

□ Info Dissem.

Check info dissem. if the police do any of the following:

- (a) police provide information describing neighborhood problems,
- (b) police say things or hand out information that stresses that many people in an area have a common stake in an area, or share view, values, problems,
- (c) police say or hand out information suggesting that people take action to make a difference in the neighborhood.

Example: Police in Spokane helped the East-side Neighborhood Association create a newsletter that would be disseminated to the neighborhood to give tips on crime prevention, crime statistics, and the activities of the neighborhood association

Coding rule: if ENC.1. Info dissem. is checked, also code ENC2 and ENC3 below.

□ Active recruit.

Police take active steps to recruit any willing individuals in the neighborhood to work on a neighborhood project or solve a neighborhood problem. These steps should include providing the individual with an opportunity to make a commitment by giving his or her name or agreeing to do something. (Not merely informing people about a meeting or activity). These steps could include taking names of volunteers, passing a sign up sheet, asking specific persons to do something.

Example: The police attended neighborhood beat meetings regularly and at each meeting asked for volunteers for projects that were to be carried out in the next month.

Coding Rule: Active Recruit would also lead to a DOL code, above

❑ **Design org.**

Police design or help to design or establish a new neighborhood organization concerned with collective problem solving, group advocacy, volunteer outreach, or resident involvement in neighborhood affairs. (Not a client-serving organization, such as a new AA group, or new drug treatment agency). Design org. should be more than a vague idea by the police.

Example: Officer Holmes suggests to the tenants that they would have more success if they established an association.

❑ **Specific Tactics**

The police suggest to specific groups or individuals (e.g., to persons already identified as willing and available) particular actions or tactics they might take directly to deal with a neighborhood problem. These would be suggestions that get people active in actually tackling an issue or problem; they would be focused on a particular objective. These would not be ideas to “organize” or “discuss.”

Example: the officer suggested that the association form a civilian patrol of the streets surrounding the school during the late afternoon.

Coding Rule: Specific tactics would also lead to a DOL code, above.

❑ **Training.**

Police provide training or help to develop skills for residents to work together, to remain active, and interested in the movement..

Example: The police department provided training to the neighborhood residents on how to operate a neighborhood patrol.

❑ **Other Support**

The police contribute to an encouragement effort organized by others by providing material resources, transportation, equipment, or other support that either enable a mobilization to proceed or increase the level of participation.

Examples: The police supplied searchlights to illuminate the march against drug dealing, and provided marchers with transportation to and from the march. Or, Neighborhood residents set up a lemonade stand in the midst of a drug market to disrupt business. Patrol officers passed by the stand frequently to determine that the residents were safe.

coding rule: use other for any forms of police ENC that are not described in the other five categories. Mere police presence should not be taken as ENC1. Other. However, indicate in comments box if residents seek police presence as a means of encouraging more resident participation, or if police indicate that they believe that their presence alone encourages resident participation.

- Not applicable.** If none of the above occur, check NA.

ENC2. Dissemination Form.

coding rule: if ENC.1. Info Dissem is checked, code ENC.2.

Check all boxes that apply to indicate the communication channels or forms that were used or are planned for the ENC1 info dissem described above. ENC2 answers the question how was the encouragement message disseminated.

- News media**

Police utilize local news media (public or commercial broadcasting, radio, TV, local paper) to promote ideas about encouraging more resident participation.

Example: The Chief of Police convinces the local paper to run a series on crime prevention efforts in the neighborhood.

- Newsletter/Handouts/Flyers**

Police utilize a neighborhood newsletter or other targeted mailing, posting or handout to reach specific households in an area.

Example: the neighborhood station officers circulate a newsletter about crime in the area to all residential addresses in the neighborhood.

- Direct Contact**

Police speak directly to individuals (but not a collected group) in a neighborhood on a wide scale basis

Example: The 14th precinct beat officers used their “down time” to talk to as many neighborhood residents as possible about their new community policing emphasis and promote the idea of increasing “neighborliness.” Or, police conduct a mail survey or residents in a neighborhood about problems.

- Meeting**

The police encouragement message is presented at a meeting with a group of residents.

Example: In a local Weed and Seed meeting, the Assistant Chief emphasized the importance of resident action.

ENC.3. Content of Info. Dissem.

Coding rule: if ENC.1. info dissem is checked, code ENC.3. ENC.3. answers the question: what did the police say in the encouragement message.

Check all boxes that apply to the content of the message

- **Prob.** Police disseminate information about issues or problems in an area.
Example: police publish neighborhood crime statistics in a newsletter on a monthly basis.
- **Connect.** Police stress the connections among people in an area. They emphasize belonging to a neighborhood or group.
Example: Police in a meeting emphasize that all the people in a place are “in this together.”
- **Indiv. Act.** Police urge individuals to take action by themselves but without collaborating with others.
Example: the police urge citizens to mark their property and to call the police about any suspicious activity.
- **Group Act.** Police say that people in this neighborhood could pool time and resources to make a difference by acting as a group.
Example: The beat officers always end the beat meetings by listing the upcoming activities or planning sessions that still need volunteers and the important contribution that residents can make.

APPENDIX D: CASE STUDY PROTOCOL

Definitions and Instructions for Case Study Protocol

Place:

One of the reasons your case study has been chosen is because it focuses on community policing in a specific area of a larger city. We ask that you complete the enclosed protocol in order to describe the ways in which the police interacted with organizations and residents in the (*insert neighborhood*) of (*insert city*).

This area was selected for examination because:

- 1) It was recognized as a specific neighborhood; or
- 2) It was a collection of contiguous neighborhoods or residential areas which the police and/or residents considered together; or
- 3) It was a large residential space (such as a major housing complex) which participants recognized as a community.

If after examining the protocol, you feel that you have better knowledge of a different area in the city, or that someone else may have more complete information about this area, please call us immediately so that we can discuss how to proceed.

We are aware that (*insert neighborhood*) is comprised of even smaller, geographically distinct areas that are equally important for understanding the delivery of police services (e.g. neighborhoods, blocks, or places). These sub-dimensions may be defined by the police (district/precinct or beats) or by natural or historic boundaries (neighborhoods, blocks, places).

We are very interested in hearing your experiences and opinions in dealing with this spatial complexity in community policing programs, and we have tried to build into our questions opportunity for you to describe variation that may have occurred.

To help focus your attention on the spatial complexities of police service delivery, we have developed the following definitions of the sub-dimensions within which (*insert neighborhood*) is located and the sub-dimensions within (*insert neighborhood*). The definitions will be helpful in responding to questions about how selective or diffuse police interactions were within and surrounding (*insert neighborhood*).

DIFFERENT AREAS OF POLICE SERVICE DELIVERY AND RESIDENT INVOLVEMENT

Police Defined Areas	Natural, Historic, or City-defined Areas
<p>1) <u>City wide efforts or Central command</u>: This term is used when reference is made to high-level command decisions or interactions that occur at the most centralized level (e.g. decisions by the chief and the chief’s close staff). This term is also used when reference is made to police services or policies that apply to all areas of police deployment in the city.</p>	<p>1) <u>City-wide effort</u>: This term can also be used to discuss policies by the city government that are applied to all geographic areas of the city.</p>
<p>2) <u>Districts or District-level</u>: A district refers to a precinct or similar division of the police department and its collection of beats. Districts generally contain more than one neighborhood and a variety of police beats. If the police are decentralized physically, the district will have a district headquarters from which operations are run. Districts should have a corresponding name. The name often refers to the district location in the city (N, S, E, W) or a historical area or landmark. Residents of districts can be organized at the district level. This type of cross-neighborhood resident organization may be called an umbrella, community board, or district committee. The residents of district level organizations/boards may be representatives of smaller geographical areas within the district or they may be “at large” representatives.</p>	<p>2) <u>Districts/Umbrellas/Coalition-level</u>: Throughout the country, it is frequently the case that residents of collections of contiguous neighborhoods may come together, or be collected together, to develop common responses to shared problems or to various government agencies and policies. For example, in NYC, community boards represent groups of neighborhoods within boroughs on a variety of land-use decisions. Weed and Seed and a variety of other federal grant programs may create similar coalitions of neighborhoods. These coalitions are smaller than the city but larger than a single neighborhood (although they may be named or identified by the most prominent neighborhood in the coalition). Their boundaries may or may not be contiguous with police districts.</p>
<p>3) <u>Beats or Beat-level</u>: Beats refer to the blocks/streets and open space boundaries that comprise a very localized area of police patrol or services. Generally, the geographic area of police beats is smaller than neighborhoods, but that is not always the case; there can be some very large beats. Districts will contain a number of beats. It is less likely that each beat will</p>	<p>3) <u>Neighborhoods or Neighborhood-level</u>: Neighborhoods are a collection of blocks/streets and open spaces. Neighborhoods have specific names known by residents and police. The specific street boundaries are often labeled, and signs and shop names often signify one’s presence in a neighborhood. Neighborhoods are not always aligned with police districts or</p>

<p>have a mini-station or storefront, although beat officers may try to spend time at a specific location within a beat. Sometimes officers organize meetings, called “beat meetings”, that focus on problems within the beat area. Beat boundaries may or may not be contiguous with neighborhood boundaries.</p>	<p>some may be larger than districts and others smaller than beats. If neighborhoods and police areas are aligned, reference to the area becomes coterminous with the police designation of that area. The police district or central command may decide to place a “mini-station” or “storefront” command structure within all neighborhoods or select neighborhoods. Residents will also organize at the neighborhood-level. Such organizations include neighborhood associations, neighborhood organizations, neighborhood watch, homeowner associations, tenant associations, and community development corporations.</p>
<p>4) <u>Blocks and Places</u>: Police sometimes focus their deployment to the special needs of specific blocks or places. Crime analysis is often used to identify hot-spots or problems at a block-level or place-level. Police will occasionally work with organized groups at this level (e.g. block associations and tenant associations)</p>	<p>4) <u>Blocks or Place-levels</u>: Blocks refer to sections of neighborhoods defined by immediate street intersections. Neighborhoods and beats are comprised of a number of blocks. The police often come to know blocks in their beat or in a neighborhood by differentiating them by dangerousness, or the amount of service calls. Other blocks are known because they are purely residential, marked by businesses, or offer social outlets for residents. Residents can also be organized at a block-level. These organizations are often called block clubs, block associations, and block watches.</p> <p><u>Places</u>: Places are the smallest unit of analysis where police services can be described as occurring. Places are particular addresses or open space locations within blocks. Places can be specific public housing buildings, apartments, residences, businesses, street corners, parks, etc. Police often respond to problems in places and help organize the residents of places. Police use hot-spot enforcement and zero-tolerance in specific locations that are often identified with mapping programs. Police often assign officers to work with public housing residents or be stationed there. Residents</p>

	can also organize at a place-level (e.g. tenant associations) for a particular boundary.
--	--

For (*insert neighborhood*) it appears that police-community interaction occurred at many levels. In other cities, community policing has often focused on narrowly defined areas. The questions target your attention to (*insert neighborhood*), but in some cases we attempt to focus your attention to the police interactions that occurred in the smaller geographic areas of (*insert neighborhood*), and when and why that occurred.

Time:

Another purpose for having you answer these questions about community policing in your case study is that we hope to do a comparative analysis. We want to make comparisons between the community policing efforts in your city, with those in other cities examined by other reviewers. One component of doing a proper comparison is ensuring that all the reviewers are examining their case study according to a similar time frame reference.

The timeframe we want you to focus on is the timeframe in which you were gathering data to compile the following report:

(*Insert Report*)

According to this report, you were gathering data during this time frame:

- Initial data collection was in (*insert month and year*)
- Evaluation ended in (*insert month and year*)

The majority of the questions will ask you to report on the community policing activities that were occurring within (*insert neighborhood*) during the timeframe listed above.

Exceptions:

- Some of the questions ask you to comment on what was occurring *before* this timeframe or *what was already in place* when you started your data collection. If you know this information we would like you to answer these questions. (This would usually be the historical information that is used to set the context for the case study.)
- Some of the questions will ask you to comment on what has occurred *after* the timeframe listed above. If you know this information we would like you to answer these questions.

Other Time Issues:

- 1) *Initiation of an activity*: Some of the questions ask you to comment on *when* an activity or interaction was initiated in an area. The questionnaire provides the following answer choices:

(before, beginning, middle, end)

- *before* = any point in time before the initiation of your data collection, or before the date listed above.
- *beginning* = approximately during the *first seven months* of your data collection.
- *middle* = approximately *between the first and last six months* of data collection.
- *end* = approximately during the *last six months* of data collection.

Circle the choice that will best answer the question. If something else has occurred that is not captured by these time reference breakdowns, there is room to explain what occurred underneath the question.

- 2) *The process of an interaction or activity overtime*: For some community policing activities and interactions, understanding their fluctuation overtime is important. To measure this fluctuation, we have asked you to graph the fluctuation of some interaction processes throughout the course of your evaluation period.

- *Graphing fluctuations in interaction processes*: Interaction processes can fluctuate from none, to low, medium, and/or high at different points in time. The actual process you will be graphing will vary from question to question. Thus, the meaning of high, medium, or low varies according to the question at hand. The wording of each question describes what interaction process you are coding and what low or high is measuring.

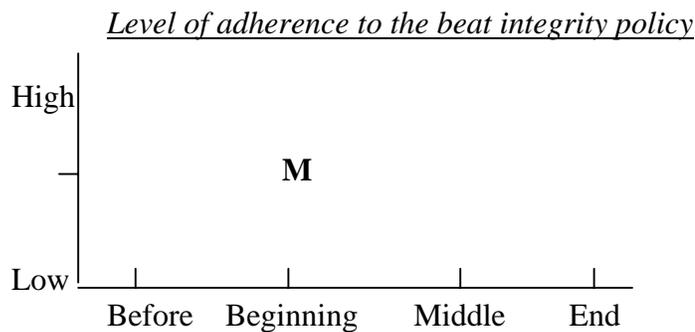
In general, *high means* that the level (or amount) of police attention, adherence, effort, or frequency to some interaction process was strong, high, or intense. *Low means* that the level (or amount) of police attention, adherence, effort, or frequency to some interaction process was weak, low, or frail. Medium means that the level (or amount) of police attention, adherence, effort, or frequency to some interaction process was mediocre, average, or fell somewhere between high and low.

Note that there will be times when we ask you to measure the level of attention or effort of *other organizations* to some interaction process. Such organizations primarily include resident organizations and sometimes other participants (e.g. businesses, government departments, social services).

- *How to graph fluctuations in interaction processes:*

- 1) First you need to *determine when* the interaction process *started* or when you feel comfortable assessing the level of an interaction process (before, beginning, middle, or end). Thus, if an interaction did not start till the middle of your evaluation period, you do not need to make any notation in the graph area above the before and beginning columns. You start graphing the fluctuation at the point where the interaction starts.
- 2) *Assess the level* of the interaction process at that initial starting point (see example below).
 - Assessing the level on a hard copy: This is done by making a mark with a L, M, or H sign above the starting point that corresponds to the appropriate level (low, medium, or high). (Note: the interaction may not have continued beyond this point in time, thus marking the level on one column is all the graphing that is needed.)
 - Assessing the level in a word processor: This is done by making a mark with a L, M, or H sign above the starting point that corresponds to the appropriate level (high, medium, or low). (Note: the interaction may not have continued beyond this point in time, thus marking the level on one column is all the graphing that is needed.)

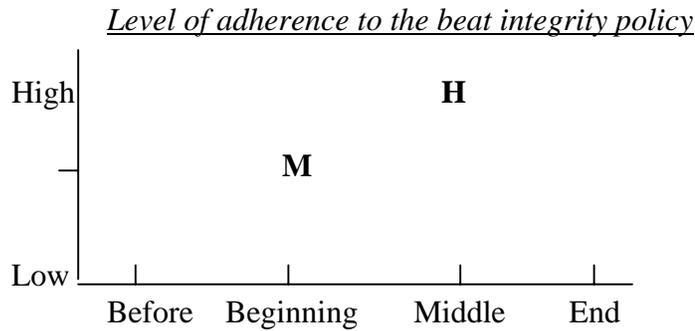
(what graph would look like if the beat integrity policy started at the beginning of your study timeframe and the level of adherence was medium)



- 3) *Assess if the interaction process continued to the next point in time.*
 - As the notes in step 2 state, if the interaction stops after this point in time, there is no other information to graph. *Unless*, the interaction skips a period in time and starts up again at a later period.
 - If the interaction continues to the next point in time or skips a period in time, go to step four.
 - It should be noted that if an interaction stops or is dropped at a particular point in time that this is not and will not be interpreted as “bad”. An intervention may stop because an activity has been completed or priorities change.

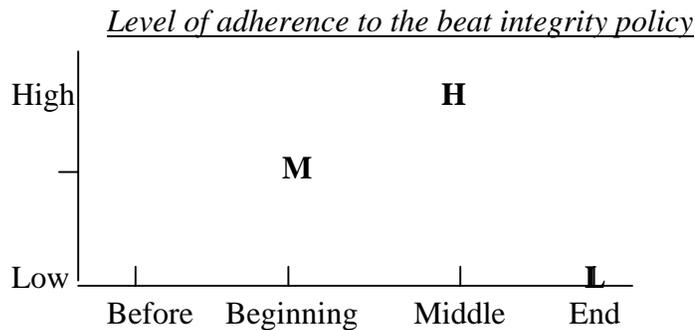
- 4) *Assess the level of the interaction process at the next point in time.*
 - Follow the same procedures as step 2.

(what the graph would look like if the beat integrity policy that started at the beginning of your study timeframe continued to the middle of the study timeframe and the level of adherence increased to high)



- 5) *Repeat steps 3 & 4 till the interaction stopped or the period of evaluation ended.*

(what the graph would look like if the beat integrity policy started at the beginning of the study period and continued throughout the length of your study timeframe, and the level of adherence changed from medium, to high, to low)



Final Important Notes:

- 1) Before answering any of the protocol questions, it is advised that you *read through the whole instrument first*. This will give you a sense of everything that will be covered. We ask you to do this because you may want to elaborate on a question early in the instrument, but find out later that the instrument contains a question regarding your elaboration.
- 2) If you feel that you need to elaborate on any of your answers, please do so. Just type or write that information in the spaces provided or make more space (e.g. add another sheet of paper, or type it in the word processor document). You should especially contribute any information on important aspects to particular interactions that the instrument is not capturing (e.g. unique dynamics, the intensity or spreading of a practice overtime). Also, the option choices are not exhaustive, so please feel free to create new categories or activities, when you are unsure how to classify an activity or interaction, or we are missing something.
- 3) For all of the questions, if you *don't know* if an interaction or activity occurred, we would like you to reference that. Thus, for questions where you don't know if an interaction occurred or you're unsure, write or type DON'T KNOW. A don't know category is not given in the questionnaire, you must write or type that in. We would like you to differentiate that situation from situations when you have first hand knowledge or you're positive that an interaction did not occur. In the situation where you know that an interaction or activity did not occur, choose the "no" option, or leave the question blank when a "no" option is not given.
- 4) If you feel that you need more information to answer a question or comprehensive recall is difficult, please feel free to refer to field notes, reports, or make a phone call. We ask that you do not correspond with the other evaluator filling out the protocol, for reasons stated in the cover letter.
- 5) Answers in **bold** and comments initiated by *** and italics* were added to the protocol. These were gleaned from the report. Please correct our answers or comments if they are wrong and elaborate if possible.

STEPS TO IDENTIFY WITH NEIGHBORHOOD

First, we would like to ask a few questions about broad strategies that police departments sometimes use, or become involved in, that identify one area of the city as distinct in problems or distinct from other areas.

[Decentralization]

DURING THE STUDY TIMEFRAME, WERE POLICE FACILITIES PRESENT WITHIN (INSERT NEIGHBORHOOD)?

(YES, NO)

IF YES,

- 1) CIRCLE THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF FACILITIES PRESENT (PRECINCT STATION, MINISTATION, DROP-IN CENTER),
- 2) CIRCLE THE NUMBER OF EACH KIND OF FACILITY, AND
- 3) CIRCLE THE RESIDENT POPULATION THE FACILITY REPRESENTED OR HELPED (ALL RESIDENTS IN PRECINCT, RESIDENTS IN SELECT NEIGHBORHOOD/S, RESIDENTS IN SELECT BLOCKS, OTHER).

1) Kind of facility

2) Number

3) Resident population

- precinct station:

(all residents, select neighborhood/s, select block/s, other)

- ministation:

(all residents, select neighborhood/s, select block/s, other)

- store front/drop-in center:

(all residents, select neighborhood/s, select block/s, other)

- other:

(all residents, select neighborhood/s, select block/s, other)

*** Not sure if there were mini-stations or any other type of facilities*

If yes, when did this/these facilities become operational in (*insert neighborhood*) in relation to your study timeframe?

- precinct station:

(before, beginning, middle, end)

- ministation:

(before, beginning, middle, end)

- store front/drop-in center:

(before, beginning, middle, end)

- other:

Was this decentralization policy unique to (*insert neighborhood*) or was such a policy or similar decentralized configurations in place elsewhere in (*insert city*)?

(unique to neighborhood, occurred elsewhere in city)

Since the conclusion of your study have there been any changes to this decentralization policy in (*insert neighborhood*) (or lack of policy)?

[Permanency of Personnel Assignment]

In some police departments, there is a policy to assign officers permanently to specific areas of patrol – often called “beat integrity.” Was such a policy in place when you were studying the policing in (*insert neighborhood*)?

(yes, no)

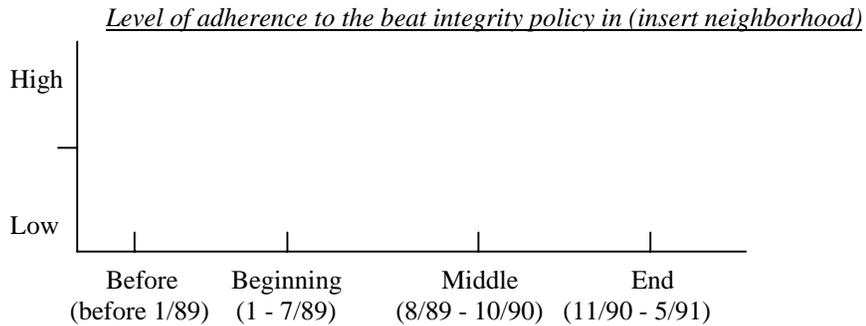
If yes, when was this policy instituted in relation to your study timeframe?

(before, beginning, middle, end)

Did only selected areas of (*insert neighborhood*) receive assigned officers or was it uniform across (*insert neighborhood*)?

(select areas, uniform across neighborhood)

Given the fluctuations in problems and demands for service, how well would you say this policy was maintained? In other words, graph the level of adherence to the beat integrity policy in (*insert neighborhood*)?



Was this beat integrity policy unique to (*insert neighborhood*) or was such a policy in place elsewhere in (*insert city*)?

(unique to neighborhood, occurred elsewhere in city)

If no such policy existed,

Was such a policy discussed and rejected?

(yes, no)

Was such a policy not considered at that time?

(yes, no)

Was such a policy implemented in (*insert neighborhood*) after your study?

[Alignment of Boundaries]

Another policy that some departments have adopted in order to identify with places is to align police beats with the physical boundaries of neighborhoods. Was such a policy in place when you were studying (*insert neighborhood*)?

(yes, no)

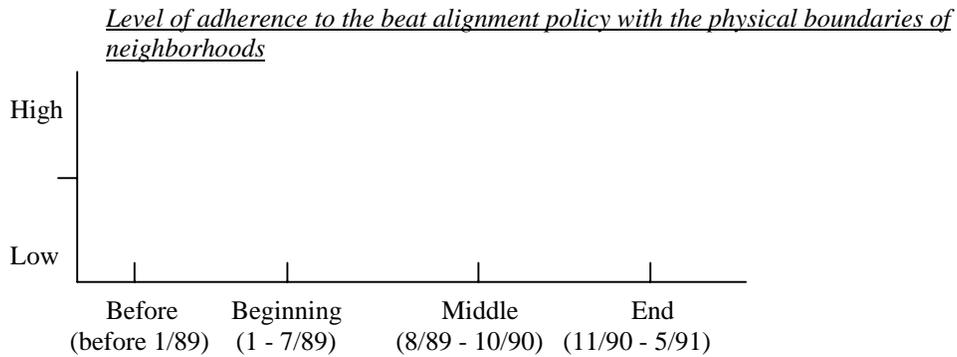
If yes, when was the policy instituted in relation to your study timeframe?

(before, beginning, middle, end)

Were neighborhood groups or city-planning departments involved in boundary determination before policy implementation? (e.g. did the police consult with these groups?, or did these groups apply pressure for such a policy?)

- neighborhood groups: (yes, no)
- city-planning department: (yes, no)
- other:

Graph the level of adherence to the beat alignment policy with the physical boundaries of neighborhoods.



Was this neighborhood alignment policy unique to (*insert neighborhood*) or were different policies or configurations in effect throughout (*insert city*)?

(unique to neighborhood, occurred elsewhere in city)

Was such a policy implemented after your study?

[Place Specific Information]

We are also interested in whether and how the precinct collected and analyzed information about specific neighborhoods or places within (*insert neighborhood*). In this regard,

During the study timeframe did the police analyze crime in (*insert neighborhood*)?

(yes, no)

If yes, was the crime analysis of (*insert neighborhood*) part of a larger crime analysis unit or project operating outside of the area, or was there a unique crime analysis unit responsible for (*insert neighborhood*) ?

(part of a larger unit or operation, unique unit responsible for neighborhood)

If yes, when was this unit instituted in relation to your study timeframe?

(before, beginning, middle, end)

Did crime analysis include analysis of crime disaggregated to specific areas?

(yes, no)

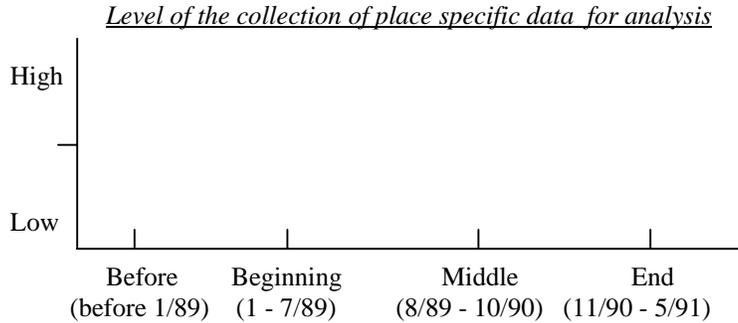
If yes, what level of specificity were data usually examined (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

- neighborhoods: (yes, no)
- beats: (yes, no)
- blocks: (yes, no)
- places: (yes, no)
- other:

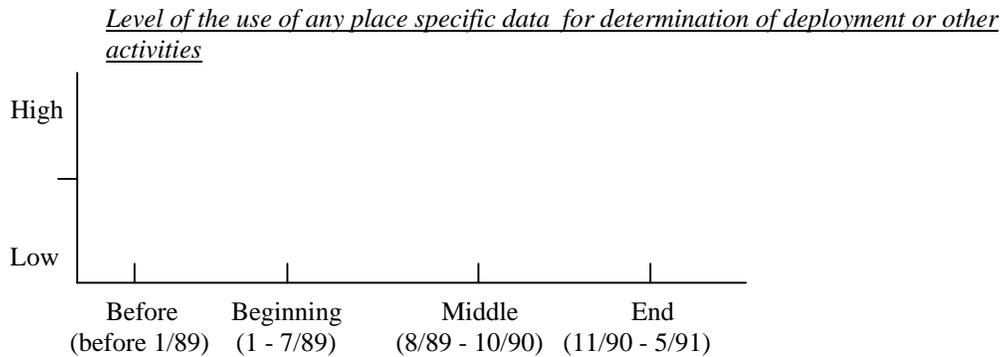
Did the precinct examine any other kinds of data on a similar geographic basis, such as (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)

- Calls for service? (yes, no)
- Complaints? (yes, no)
- Citizen satisfaction? (yes, no)
- Area issues, problems or priorities? (yes, no)

Graph the level of the collection of place specific data on (*insert neighborhood*) for analysis. (Note: HIGH = collection includes more than crime analysis, it includes other data, LOW = collection only includes crime analysis)



Graph the level of the use of place specific data on (*insert neighborhood*) for determination of deployment or other activities. (Note: HIGH = use includes more than crime analysis, it includes other data for determination of deployment or other activities, LOW = use only includes crime analysis data)



Since the conclusion of your study have there been any changes to this policy in (*insert neighborhood*) (or lack of policy)?

[Other Identification Actions]

In some departments there are other broad strategies that are used to increase police knowledge of a place and its residents and vice versa, to increase resident knowledge of officers and the department. During the timeframe of study did the police in (*insert neighborhood*) use:

Foot patrol? (yes, no)

- Where did it occur? : - used evenly throughout the neighborhood (yes, no)
- business district only (yes, no)
- residential areas only (yes, no)
- select areas or beats (yes, no)
- other:

- When did foot patrol in (*insert neighborhood*) start? (before, beginning, middle, end)

Bicycle patrol? (yes, no)

- Where did it occur? : - used evenly throughout the neighborhood (yes, no)
 - business district only (yes, no)
 - residential areas only (yes, no)
 - select areas or beats (yes, no)
 - other:

- When did bike patrol in (*insert neighborhood*) start? (before, beginning, middle, end)

Regularly scheduled police/resident meetings? (yes, no)

- What was the jurisdiction of these meetings in (*insert neighborhood*) (Choose all the apply)?
 - some meetings were for all of (*insert neighborhood*)(yes, no)
 - some meetings were for select police beats (yes, no)
 - some meetings were for select blocks (yes, no)
 - some meetings were for select business areas (yes, no)
 - other:

- When did police meetings with (*insert neighborhood*) residents start? (before, beginning, middle, end)

Was foot patrol, bike patrol, or regularly scheduled police-resident meetings in (*insert neighborhood*) unique to the neighborhood or were similar strategies used by the police elsewhere in (*insert city*)?

- foot patrol (unique to the neighborhood, similar elsewhere in the city)
- bike patrol (unique to the neighborhood, similar elsewhere in the city)
- regularly scheduled police/resident meetings (unique to the neighborhood, similar elsewhere in the city)

Other similar strategies for identification of place? (specify each)

- | <u>Strategy</u> | <u>When each started</u> |
|-----------------|----------------------------------|
| 1) | (before, beginning, middle, end) |
| 2) | (before, beginning, middle, end) |
| 3) | (before, beginning, middle, end) |
| 4) | (before, beginning, middle, end) |

Were any such policies implemented in (*insert neighborhood*) after your study? Which ones?

STEPS TO IMPROVE NEIGHBORHOODS

As community policing has unfolded across the country, some departments have increased their attention to controlling the physical space in which residents live and work, but departments have varied a great deal in how they approach such issues. Police actions that exert control on the use of neighborhood space or facilitate the application of such controls by others express a choice of values about how urban space should be used or who should get to use it. Controls can be exerted to preserve or increase collective interests in space or to reduce violations of the collective interest. Abusive profit making, the externalization of cost in the use of space, or the commodification of space for personal gain, contributes to neighborhood declines and is characterized by the abuser's concern with the "exchange value" of space. Controls on such abuse place limits on treating space for its exchange value. Such controls also improve the useability of this space by others. For instance, ridding a park of drug dealing improves the use value of the park for residents while controlling the dealers' use of the park as a tool in exchange. In contrast, control actions that work directly to improve the quality of space for daily living without targeting exchange abuses, we have called "use value" controls. For example, a park cleanup day enhances the use value of the park without creating controls on abuses. Use value controls may increase the exchange value of space (e.g. property values go up after beautification), but this is not a control on exchange abuses.

[Nature of Control/ Type of Control]

During the timeframe of your study was there a policy or a plan in (insert neighborhood) that concentrated on making the area cleaner, more attractive, more orderly, or more livable (e.g. policies or plans designed to control exchange value abuses and/or improve use values)? For example, were there programs for reducing levels of fear among neighbors in residential areas or customers in business districts of (insert neighborhood)? Or police strategies for reducing signs of physical disorder (e.g. abandoned cars or littered parks) or plans for reducing personal disorder (e.g., areas of panhandling, hanging out, visible drug dealing)? (The concern is with addressing these issues as they affect particular areas of (insert neighborhood) rather than with enforcement against violators on a situational basis)

(yes, no)

Circle all of the *control of space issues* in the precinct that the police in (insert neighborhood) addressed during the study timeframe (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY):

- Drugs
- Gangs
- Personal Crime
- Property Crime
- Target Hardening
- General Crime Conditions
- Physical Decay/beautification
- Social Disorder
- Economic Development
- Parking and Traffic
- Public Services

Other: (Please describe any other issues that are different or issues where you are unsure what category it fits into)

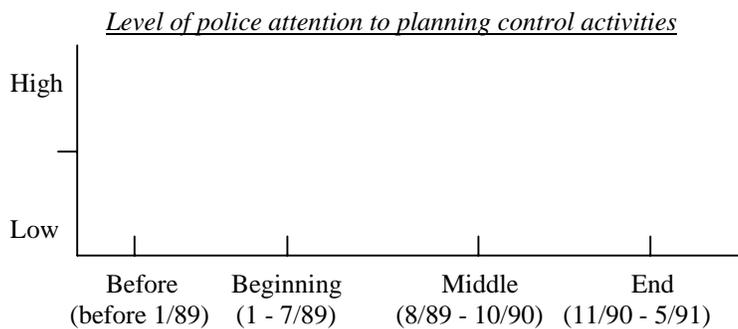
What areas in (*insert neighborhood*) did the police *plan* to provide targeted control actions toward (CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY)?

- some control action were planned for application throughout the neighborhood (yes, no)
- some control actions were planned for select beats: (yes, no)
- some control actions were planned for select blocks: (yes, no)
- some control actions were planned for select places: (yes, no)
- some control actions were planned for select business areas: (yes, no)
- other:

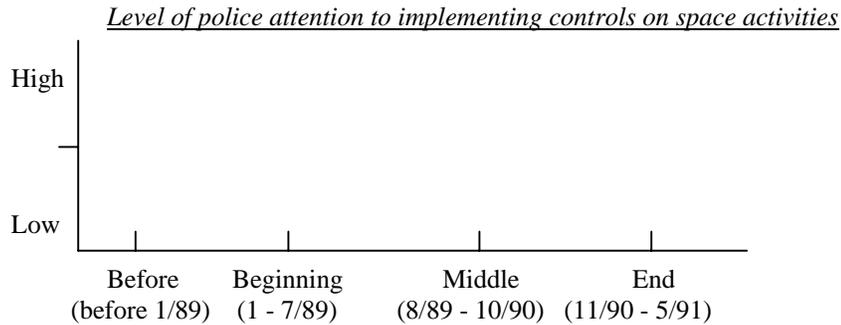
If you selected that “some control actions were planned for application throughout the neighborhood”, in actual implementation, were such broad efforts only implemented or applied to distinct areas within (*insert neighborhood*)?

(yes, no)

During the study timeframe, graph the level of police attention to planning control activities in (*insert neighborhood*).



During the study timeframe, graph the level of police attention to implementing controls on space activities in *(insert neighborhood)*.



[Level of Response]

Some police departments talk about differences between reactive and problem solving approaches to these control issues. Did the police responsible for *(insert neighborhood)* make such a distinction?

(yes, no)

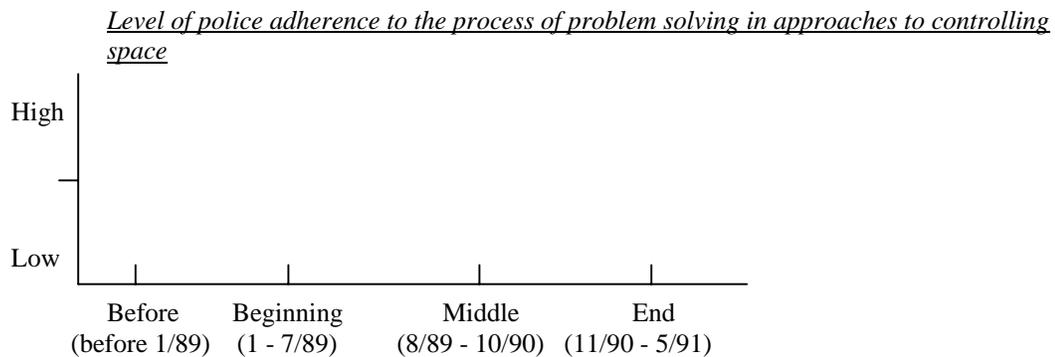
If yes, were officers working in *(insert neighborhood)* trained in problem solving?

(yes, no)

If yes, did problem solving in *(insert neighborhood)* involve residents?

(yes, no)

During the study timeframe, graph police adherence to the process of problem solving in approaches to controlling space in *(insert neighborhood)*.



Since your study has ended are there any important changes to control of space strategies, targets, or programs in *(insert neighborhood)*?

STEPS TO ENCOURAGE RESIDENT EFFORTS

WE NOW WOULD LIKE TO ASK SOME QUESTIONS ABOUT HOW THE POLICE IN (INSERT NEIGHBORHOOD) WORKED WITH RESIDENTS IN THE AREA. THE FIRST SET OF QUESTIONS DEALS WITH WHAT THE POLICE DID TO GET RESIDENTS INVOLVED IN THE NEIGHBORHOOD. THE SECOND SET DEALS WITH HOW THE PRECINCT WORKED WITH RESIDENTS WHO WERE ACTIVE TO SOME DEGREE IN (INSERT NEIGHBORHOOD).

Mobilization

[Type of Mobilization, Dissemination, and Content]

During the study timeframe did the understanding of police role or function include or encourage the following kind/s of mobilizing message/s it wanted to impart to residents in (*insert neighborhood*), for example:

A - Were police encouraged to share certain kinds of information with residents in (*insert neighborhood*) about crime or other issues and problems in the area?

(yes, no)

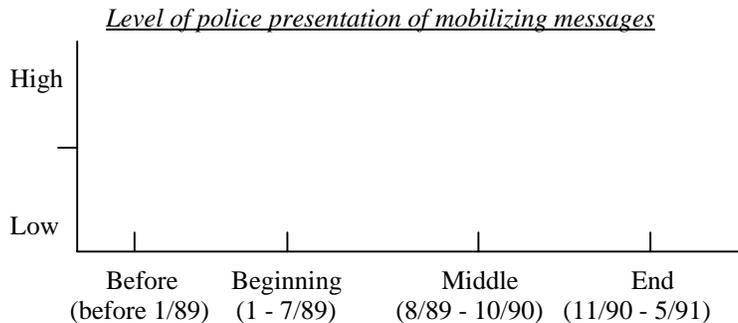
B - Did the South precinct try to present a message to residents in (*insert neighborhood*) about getting to know other residents, or recognizing that residents in the area have common interests and needs? (e.g. did message seek to promote solidarity?)

(yes, no)

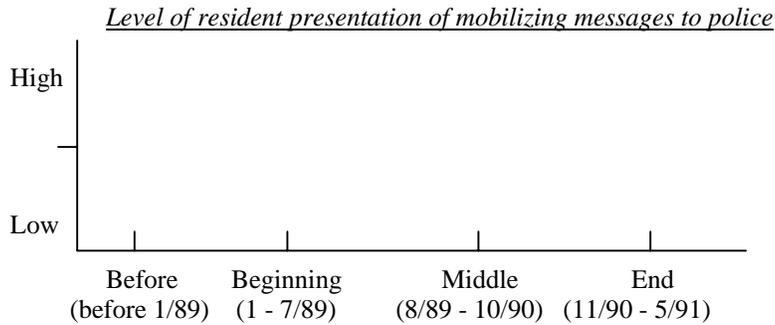
C - Did the police present messages about (*insert neighborhood*) residents doing things to improve the neighborhood, either by taking steps individually or as a group? (e.g. did message promote action?)

(yes, no)

If yes to (A, B, or C), graph the level of police presentation of such mobilizing messages to residents in (*insert neighborhood*)?



It should be noted that similar mobilizing messages (A, B, or C) may be presented by residents, resident organizations, or resident leaders to the police. Thus, residents may advise the police that they should be sharing information with the community about crime or other issues, that the police should be getting to know other residents and their common interests, or that the police should be doing things to improve the neighborhoods with neighborhood groups or individually. *Graph* the level of *resident* presentation of such mobilizing messages to the police responsible for (*insert neighborhood*)?



Since the conclusion of your study have the police changed in anyway regarding the presentation of mobilizing messages, themes, or information to the residents of (*insert neighborhood*)?

(yes, no)

ANSWER THE NEXT SET OF QUESTIONS ONLY IF YOU ANSWERED YES TO MOBILIZATION QUESTIONS A, B, OR C ABOVE. (IF NO, GO TO TYPE OF MOBILIZATION, RECRUITING, BELOW):

Who in the department was responsible for disseminating this information to (*insert neighborhood*) residents (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

- command staff: (yes, no)
- all front-line officers: (yes, no)
- select neighborhood/community specialist officers: (yes, no)
- other:

[Mode of Dissemination]

What channels were used to deliver these messages? CIRCLE AS MANY AS APPLY from the following lists.

Mass media

- TV: (yes, no)
- radio: (yes, no)
- newspapers: (yes, no)
- other:

Targeted written communications

- newsletters: (yes, no)
- other mailings: (yes, no)
- flyers and posters: (yes, no)
- other:

Face-to-face contacts

- on an individual basis (yes, no)
- at meetings and gatherings (yes, no)

Were mobilizing messages primarily (choose all that apply):

- dispersed across all areas in the neighborhood? (yes, no)
- concentrated on specific areas in (*insert neighborhood*)? (yes, no)
- other:

Were mobilizing messages in (*insert neighborhood*) primarily targeting (choose all that apply) (Note: these may occur at different times, that is o.k.):

- all residents? (yes, no)
- residents active in police-community meetings or organized groups of residents? (yes, no)
- other:

*Since the conclusion of your study, have the channels that police in (*insert neighborhood*) use to spread messages, themes, and information changed? How so?*

----- end of dissemination-----

[Mobilization, Recruiting]

During the study timeframe, did police take active steps to *directly recruit* willing individuals in (*insert neighborhood*) to work on a neighborhood project or solve a neighborhood problem? (*This does not mean merely informing people about a meeting or activity. These steps could include the police taking names of volunteers, passing a sign up sheet, asking specific persons to do something.*)

(yes, no)

If police *directly* were recruiting residents in (*insert neighborhood*), how did this recruitment occur (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

- informal contacts on the street: (yes, no)
- during community meetings (yes, no)
- during beat meetings: (yes, no)
- during neighborhood association meetings: (yes, no)
- during block association meetings: (yes, no)
- other:

Police could also *indirectly recruit* willing individuals in the neighborhood to work on a neighborhood project or solve a neighborhood problem by using other organizations or individuals to do recruitment. Did police engage in any of the following *indirect* recruitment activities in (*insert neighborhood*) (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

- inform resident-representing organizations that they should or need to be recruiting individuals for involvement. (yes, no)
- distribute literature to resident-representing organizations on how to do recruitment (yes, no)
- ask various neighborhood leaders to do recruitment (yes, no)
- other:

Did police recruitment efforts, by any method, succeed in obtaining representation of the (*insert neighborhood*) population?

(yes, no)

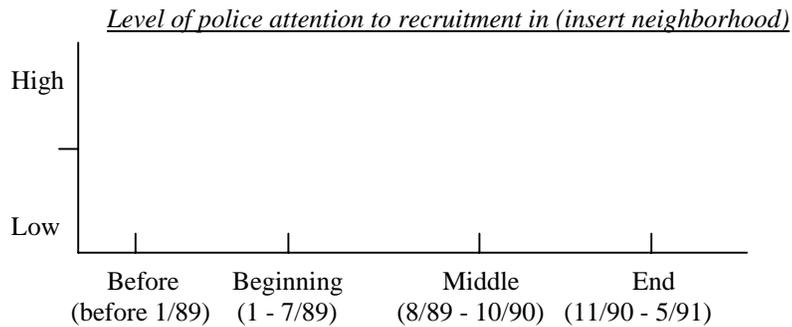
If no, which resident groups were left out:

- Gender: (males, females)
- Race: (representative of area population, not-representative of area population)

- if “not-representative” please explain:

- Age: (young, adult, elderly)
- Class: (homeowners, renters)
- Other:

How did police attention to recruitment in (*insert neighborhood*) fluctuate over the study period? Graph the level of police attention to recruitment in (*insert neighborhood*) over the study period.



Were there any recruitment policy change in (*insert neighborhood*) after your study?

[Mobilization, Design Organization]

During the study timeframe, did the police ever try to help a group of residents form a new organization in (*insert neighborhood*)?

(Yes, no)

What types of organizations in (*insert neighborhood*) did the police help in the formation of (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

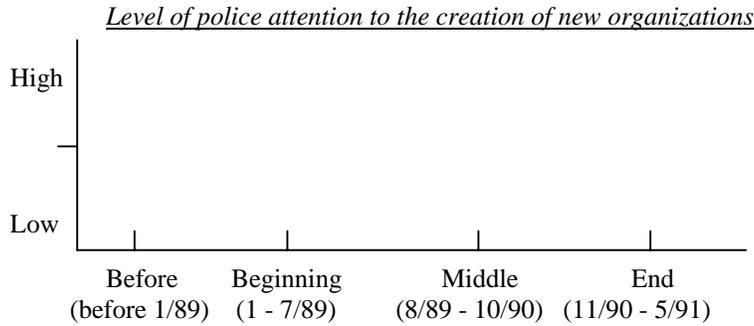
- beat meetings (yes, no)
- neighborhood associations: (yes, no)
- block associations: (yes, no)
- tenant associations: (yes, no)
- business associations: (yes, no)
- other:

Were the organizations that the police helped to create representative of the (*insert neighborhood*) population? For each category circle all the population characteristics that these newly created organizations *did represent*.

- Gender: (males, females)
- Race: (representative of area population, not-representative of area population)
- if “not-representative” please explain:

- Age: (young, adult, elderly)
- Class: (homeowners, renters)
- Other:

Did police efforts at creating new organizations in (*insert neighborhood*) fluctuate throughout the study timeframe? Graph the level of police attention to the creation of new organizations in (*insert neighborhood*)



Any change in police helping form organizations in (*insert neighborhood*) after your study?

[Mobilization, Tactics]

*When the police in (*insert neighborhood*) were meeting with residents, there may have been discussions about particular **actions or tactics** that **residents might use** to deal with a problem. Community organization literature suggests that tactical and action suggestion can impact mobilization; it gives residents something to do.*

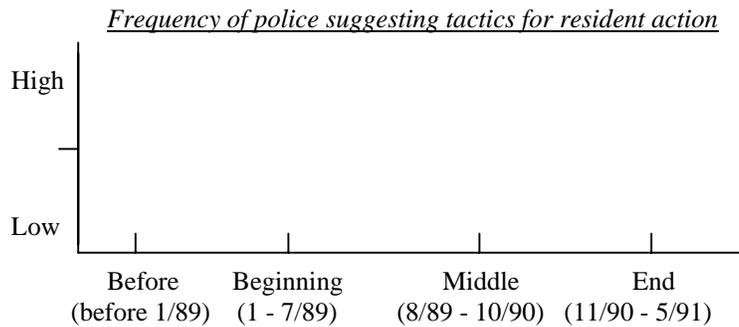
During the study timeframe, did the understanding of police role or function include or encourage what kinds of actions the police should suggest to residents in (*insert neighborhood*)?

(yes, no)

If police made tactical and action suggestions, where did these suggestions take place in (*insert neighborhood*) (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

- during informal contacts on the street: (yes, no)
- during informal contacts at the police station: (yes, no)
- during phone conversations: (yes, no)
- during community meetings: (yes, no)
- during beat meetings: (yes, no)
- during neighborhood association meetings: (yes, no)
- during block association meetings: (yes, no)
- special workshops or seminars: (yes, no)
- other:

How did the frequency of police suggesting tactics for resident action in (*insert neighborhood*) change overtime?



Any change in police suggesting tactics in (*insert neighborhood*) after your study?

[Mobilization, Training]

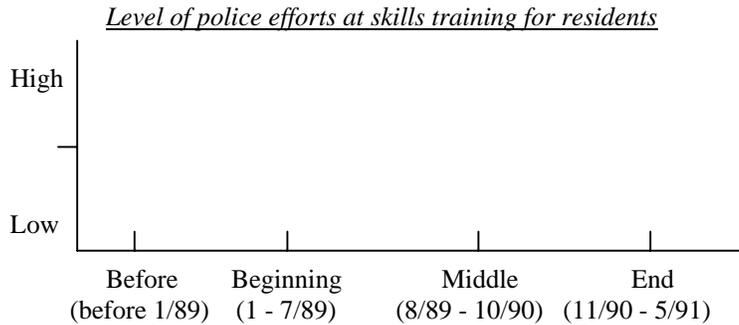
During the study timeframe, did the precinct ever try to help residents in (*insert neighborhood*) gain skills in how to work with the police or in how to work on their own to make community improvements?

(yes,no)

If yes, where did this skills training in (*insert neighborhood*) occur (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

- during informal contacts on the street: (yes, no)
- during informal contacts at the police station or over the phone: (yes, no)
- during community meetings: (yes, no)
- during beat meetings: (yes, no)
- during neighborhood association meetings: (yes, no)
- during block association meetings: (yes, no)
- special workshops and seminars: (yes, no)
- other:

Did police efforts at skills training for residents in (*insert neighborhood*) experience change across the study timeframe?



Any change in police imparting these skills in (*insert neighborhood*) after your study?

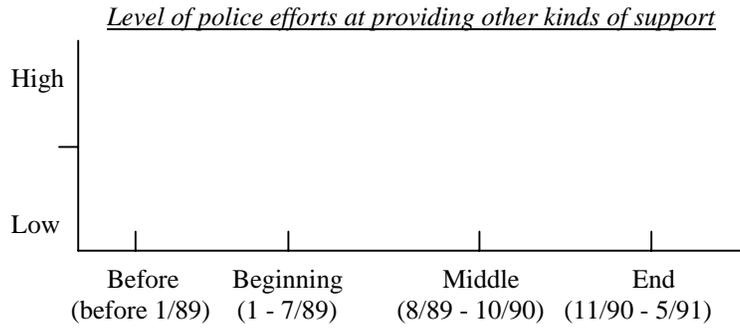
[Mobilization, Support]

Beyond training and regular meetings with residents, during the study timeframe, did the understanding of police role or function include or encourage other kinds of support to resident groups or resident projects in (*insert neighborhood*) (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)? For example:

- Providing equipment: (yes, no)
- Transportation: (yes, no)
- Financial assistance: (yes, no)
- Protection for resident patrols, marches, or other on-the-street projects: (yes, no)
- Other supportive action/s:

What resident groups or projects received this support?

Did police efforts at providing other kinds of support in (*insert neighborhood*) experience change throughout the study timeframe?



Any changes in other kinds of support to resident groups or resident projects in (*insert neighborhood*) by the police after the study timeframe?

STEPS FOR RESIDENT PARTICIPATION

Now we would like to ask some questions about the ways in which residents participate with police in decisions and actions that affect (insert neighborhood).

[Participation in identifying problems or issues, type of resident participant, and balance]

During the study timeframe, what would you say were the main avenues in *(insert neighborhood)* for residents to identify issues and problems in their area as they saw them? Were any of the following avenues utilized (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

- Drop in at precinct station: (yes, no)
- Drop in at mini/sub-stations: (yes, no)
- Through non-emergency calls: (yes, no)
- Informal contacts with officers: (yes, no)
- door-to-door/phone survey (yes, no)
- At meetings: (yes, no)
 - Which types of meetings?
 - community (yes, no)
 - beat meetings: (yes, no)
 - neighborhood association: (yes, no)
 - block association: (yes, no)
 - other:

Did these different area/s of input avenues in *(insert neighborhood)* change throughout the study timeframe? How?

For each of the following *meeting types* between police and residents in *(insert neighborhood)*, who felt they had the *right or legitimacy to determine the prioritization of issues and problems* that would be addressed?

(other participant = any organization or individual that is not a local police department representative, a resident, a resident-organization representative, or an identified leader of residents. Organizations or representatives of city, state, or federal governments; social service organizations; and businesses are good examples of other participants)

- at community meetings:

(police, residents, both equally, other participant)

- at neighborhood association meetings:

(police, residents, both equally, other participant)

- at block association meetings:

(police, residents, both equally, other participant)

During the study timeframe, did identification of issues and problems in *(insert neighborhood)* also occur in *non-official meetings or informal contacts between police and resident leaders*? In other words, did

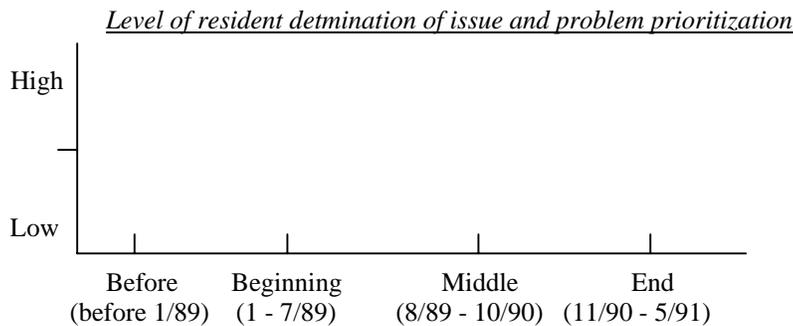
police and resident leaders in (*insert neighborhood*) get together *out of the public-eye and informally* to determine issues and problems?

(yes, no)

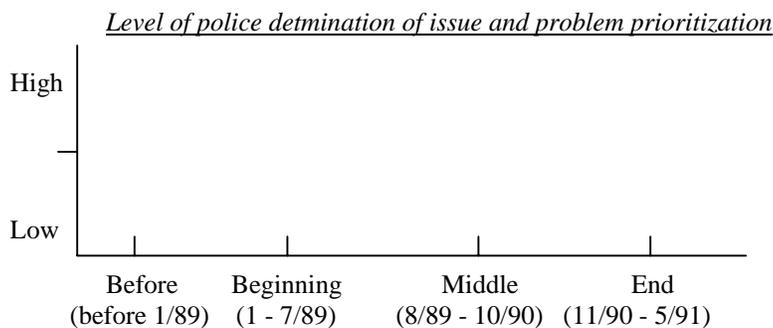
Circle or describe, which format dominated the identification of issues and problems?

- meetings between police and residents
- non-official meetings or informal contacts between police and resident leaders
- both equally
- other:

Graph the level or amount of actual *resident determination* of issue and problem priorities in (*insert neighborhood*).



Graph the level or amount of actual *police determination* of issue and problem priorities in (*insert neighborhood*). (Note: Police determination may vary independently of resident determination.)



In seeking information about issues and priorities, did the police respond differently to *officials-leaders* of resident groups in (*insert neighborhood*) as opposed to the *general residents* in (*insert neighborhood*)?

(*General residents = citizens that police may approach on the street or in their home, and residents who may volunteer for activities or attend meetings, but do not hold officer positions or chair subcommittees in organizations that are involved with the police. Resident officials-leaders*

= residents involved with the police who hold officer positions or chair subcommittees in resident-organizations, and individuals who are identified as resident leaders.)

(yes, no)

If yes, in what ways (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

- general residents could not attend certain meetings, but resident officials-leaders could: (yes, no)
- at some meetings, general residents could not contribute to discussions,
but resident officials-leaders could: (yes, no)
- at some meetings general residents could not vote, but resident officials-leaders could: (yes, no)
- other:

After completion of your study, have the ways in which police or residents identify issues and problems in (*insert neighborhood*) changed? How so?

[Resident Participation in Identifying Solutions, Type of Decision, and Balance]

*During the study timeframe, after issues or problems were identified, what avenues did residents in (insert neighborhood) have for making suggestions about **action steps**, or **solutions** about how a high priority problem should be addressed? Were any of the following avenues utilized (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?*

- Drop in at precinct station: (yes, no)
- Drop in at mini/sub-stations: (yes, no)
- Through non-emergency calls: (yes, no)
- Informal contacts with officers: (yes, no)
- door-to-door/phone survey (yes, no)
- At meetings: (yes, no)
 - Which types of meetings?
 - community meetings (yes, no)
 - beat meetings: (yes, no)
 - neighborhood association: (yes, no)
 - block association: (yes, no)
 - other:

For each of the following *meeting types* between police and residents in (*insert neighborhood*), who felt they had the *right or legitimacy to determine what action steps, or solutions should be taken* to address identified issues and problems?

- at community meetings:
(police, residents, both equally, other participant)
- at neighborhood association meetings:
(police, residents, both equally, other participant)
- at block association meetings:
(police, residents, both equally, other participant)

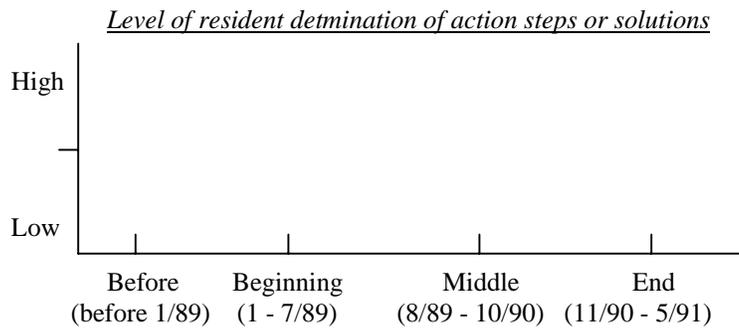
During the study timeframe, did determination of action steps or solutions to issues and problems in (*insert neighborhood*) also occur *in non-official meetings or informal contacts between police and resident leaders*? In other words, did police and resident leaders get together *out of the public-eye and informally* to determine action steps or solutions to issues and problems in the area?

(yes, no)

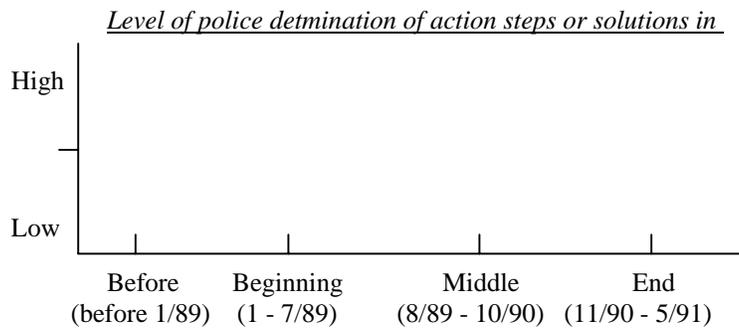
Which format dominated the determination of action steps or solutions to issues and problems in (*insert neighborhood*)?

- meetings between police and residents
- non-official meetings or informal contacts between police and resident leaders
- both equally
- other:

Graph the level or amount of actual *resident determination* of action steps, or solutions in (*insert neighborhood*).



Graph the level or amount of actual *police determination* of action steps, or solutions in (*insert neighborhood*).



Circle all of the *issues* that residents were able to have some level of determining action steps or solutions in interaction with the police in (*insert neighborhood*) (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY):

- Drugs
- Gangs
- Personal Crime
- Property Crime
- Target Hardening
- General Crime Conditions
- Physical Decay
- Social Disorder
- Economic Development
- Parking and Traffic

- Police Issues
- Public Services
- Public Officials
- Citizen Involvement

Other: (Please describe any other issues that are different or issues where you are unsure what category it fits into)

[Participation in Implementation, Resident Division of Labor]

In terms of decisions about these action steps:

Who primarily determined what the *residents were supposed to do* in (*insert neighborhood*) (e.g. the role they will play in programs, activities, and initiatives)?

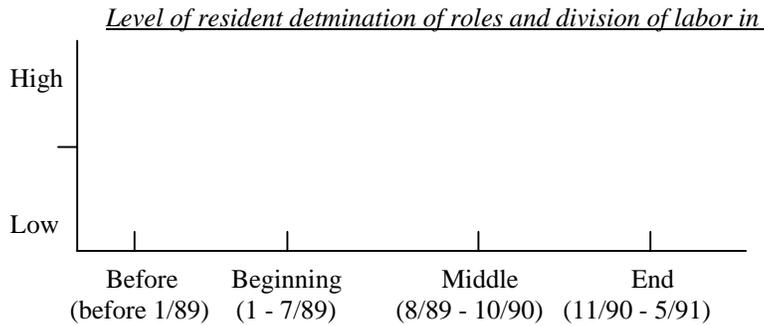
(police, residents, both equally, other participant)

[Participation in Implementation, Police Division of Labor]

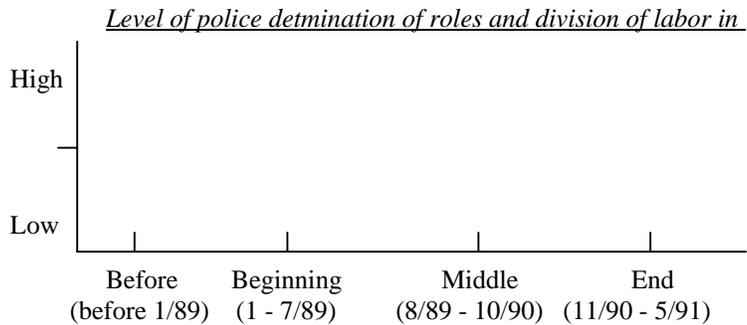
Who primarily determined what the *police were supposed to do* in (*insert neighborhood*) (e.g. the role they will play in programs, activities, and initiatives)?

(police, residents, both equally, other participant)

Graph the level of resident determination of roles and division of labor in (*insert neighborhood*).



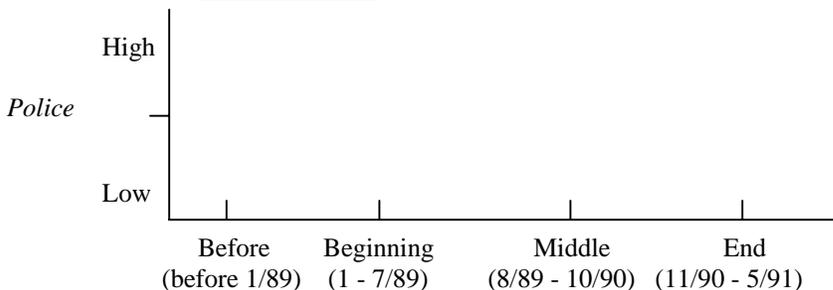
Graph the level of police determination of roles and division of labor in (*insert neighborhood*).



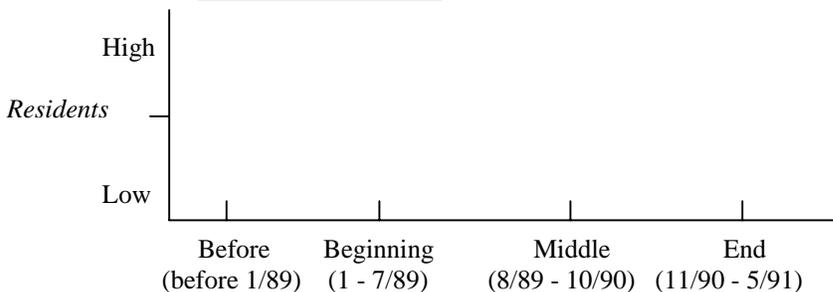
[Balance of Participation in Activities]

This section is concerned with *who actually did what* in (*insert neighborhood*) during the study timeframe (as opposed to the proposed division of labor). Assess the amount of effort put forth by police, residents, and others in carrying-out the day-to-day activities and plans of working projects formulated by police-resident collaboration in (*insert neighborhood*) (e.g. Were the police doing most of the work? The residents? Other groups/individuals?)

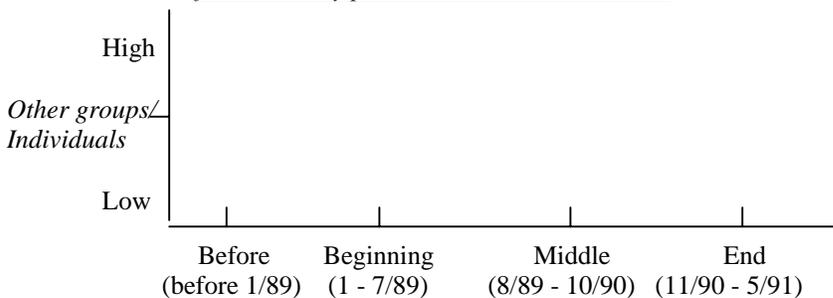
Level of police effort in the day-to-day activities and plans formulated by police-resident collaboration in



Level of resident effort in the day-to-day activities and plans formulated by police-resident collaboration



Level of other groups/individuals effort/s in the day-to-day activities and plans formulated by police-resident collaboration



Has this balance changed in (*insert neighborhood*) after your study? How so?

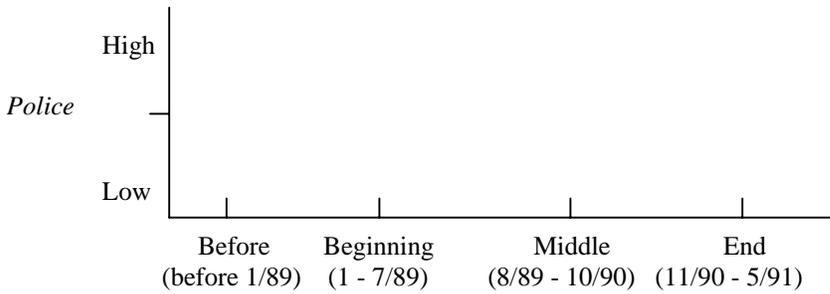
[Area of Influence: Administrative]

We are also interested in how the residents and police interact over more organizational and procedural issues (as opposed to the questions above about actually addressing issues in the neighborhood.)

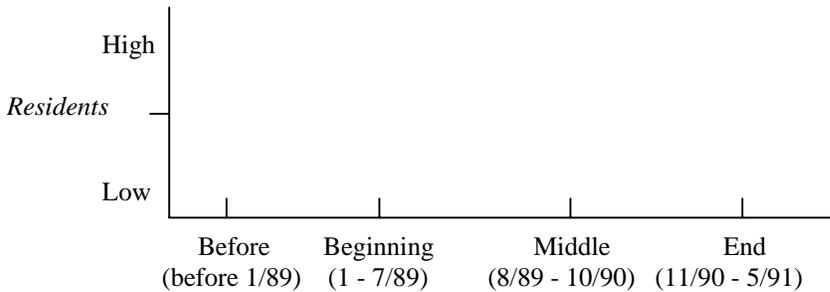
For the following functions: Assess the amount of effort that police and residents put forth in (*insert neighborhood*).

A- organizing and running any open-community meetings in (*insert neighborhood*) at which the police would be present:

Level of police effort in organizing and running any open community-meetings in (*insert neighborhood*) at which the police would be present

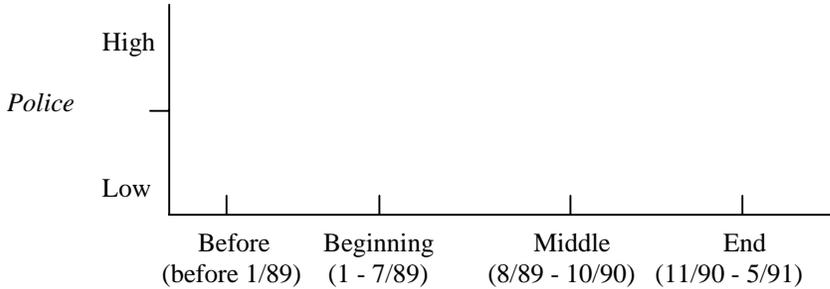


Level of resident effort in organizing and running any open community-meetings in (*insert neighborhood*) at which the police would be present

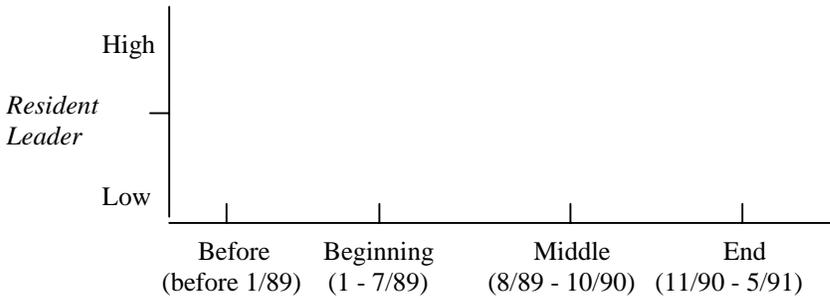


B- initiating informal contacts or non-publicized meetings to discuss the process of getting police and residents together in *(insert neighborhood)*:

Level of police effort in initiating informal contacts or non-publicized meetings with resident leaders in *(insert neighborhood)*



Level of resident leader effort in initiating informal contacts or non-publicized meetings with police management or officers in *(insert neighborhood)*



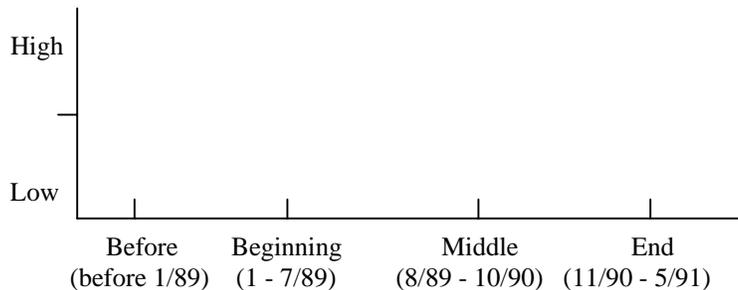
During meetings that contained both police and residents in *(insert neighborhood)*, who generally took the lead in resolving conflicts or disputes?

(the police, residents, both contributed)

- other:

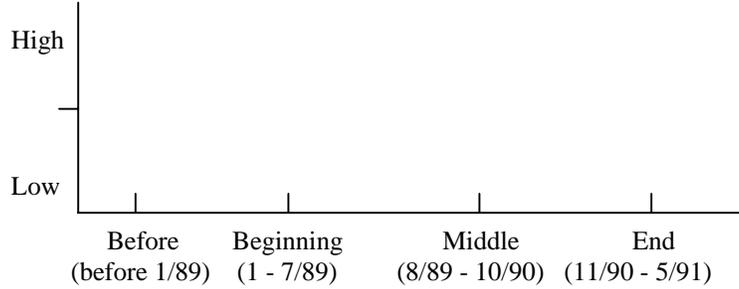
Rate the effectiveness with which open-community meetings with police in *(insert neighborhood)* were run overtime. *High* means the meeting was very effectively run. *Low* means that the meeting “floundered – was unfocused or rambling”

Effectiveness of open-community meetings in *(insert neighborhood)*



Rate the degree to which residents left meetings (any meetings) in (*insert neighborhood*) with a high and/or low commitment to future action. High commitment means residents appeared they would be organizing and strategizing outside of meetings with police. Low commitment means that it appeared residents would do little organizing and strategizing outside of meetings with the police.

Degree of resident commitment to future action after meeting with the police



STEPS FOR COORDINATING ORGANIZATIONS

Working with other organizations is a common way in which the police interact with other groups to improve neighborhoods. Police may work together with other organizations for the delivery of services in the neighborhood, to plan and implement projects in the neighborhood, and/or to simply discuss issues and problems in the neighborhood, or exchange information.

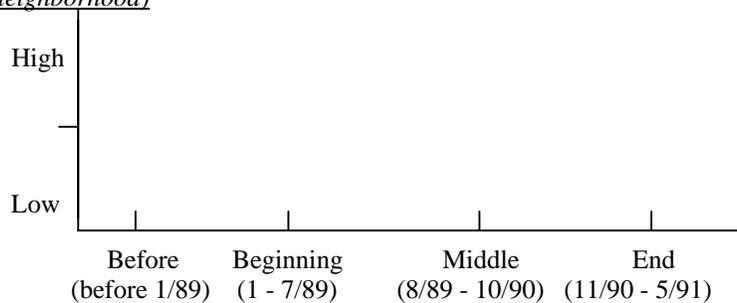
We would like to ask some questions about your understanding of coordination of police in (insert neighborhood) with other organizations to deal with issues in (insert neighborhood). We have already spoken a good deal about police coordination with resident groups in (insert neighborhood). To understand police coordination more generally, we ask you to answer the following questions.

- 1) Did the police in (insert neighborhood) coordinate with *Other Law Enforcement Agencies* (e.g. sheriff dept., state police, highway patrol, DEA, FBI)?

(yes, no)

Graph the frequency with which the police in (insert neighborhood) met face-to-face, or by phone to work together and coordinate with other law enforcement agencies: (high frequency = about daily; mid frequency = weekly to at least monthly; low frequency = less than monthly)

Frequency of police contact with other law enforcement agencies to coordinate and work together in (insert neighborhood)



Circle the kind of contact the police in (insert neighborhood) had with other law enforcement agencies:

- contact with front-line officers
- contact with management
- contact with both

Were residents involved in the contacts and coordination efforts between the police and other law enforcement agencies in (insert neighborhood)?

(yes, no)

What was coordinated/shared with the other law enforcement agencies (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

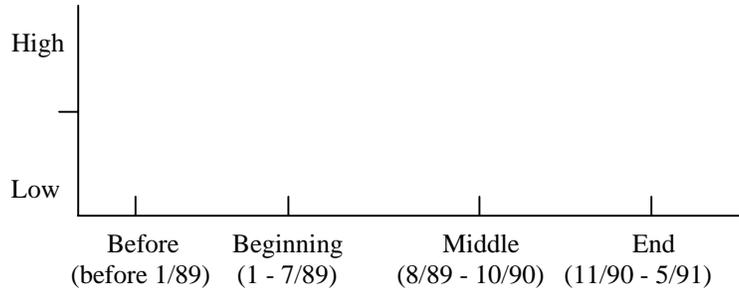
- joint programs (yes, no)
- decisions (yes, no)
- information (yes, no)
- activities (yes, no)
- resources (yes, no)

2) Did the police in (*insert neighborhood*) coordinate with *Other Criminal Justice Agencies* (DA, defense attorneys, judges, probation, parole, corrections)?

(yes, no)

Graph the frequency with which the police in (*insert neighborhood*) met face-to-face, or by phone to work together and coordinate with other criminal justice agencies: (high frequency = about daily; mid frequency = weekly to at least monthly; low frequency = less than monthly)

Frequency of police contact with other criminal justice agencies to coordinate and work together in (*insert neighborhood*)



Circle the kind of contact the police in (*insert neighborhood*) had with other criminal justice agencies:

- front-line officers
- management
- both

Were residents involved in the contacts and coordination efforts between the police and other criminal justice agencies in (*insert neighborhood*)?

(yes, no)

What was coordinated/shared with other criminal justice agencies (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

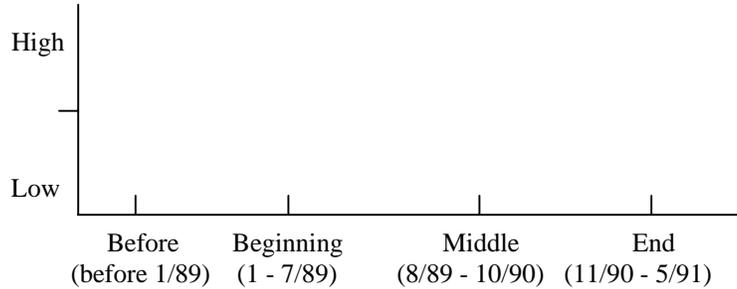
- joint programs (yes, no)
- decisions (yes, no)
- information (yes, no)
- activities (yes, no)
- resources (yes, no)

3) Did the police in (*insert neighborhood*) coordinate with *Government Departments and Services*?

(yes, no)

Graph the frequency with which the police in (*insert neighborhood*) met face-to-face, or by phone to work together and coordinate with government departments and services: (high frequency = about daily; mid frequency = weekly to at least monthly; low frequency = less than monthly)

Frequency of police contact with government departments and services to coordinate and work together in (*insert neighborhood*)



Circle the kind of contact the police in (*insert neighborhood*) had with government departments and services:

- front-line officers
- management
- both

Were residents involved in the contacts and coordination efforts between the police and government departments and services in (*insert neighborhood*)?

(yes, no)

What was coordinated/shared with government departments and services (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

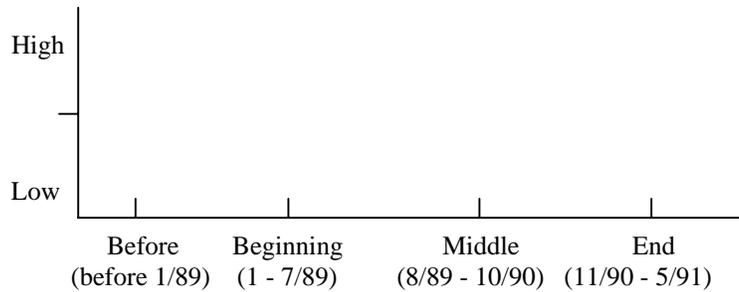
- joint programs (yes, no)
- decisions (yes, no)
- information (yes, no)
- activities (yes, no)
- resources (yes, no)

4) Did the police in (*insert neighborhood*) coordinate with *Private Business, Chamber of Commerce, Business Improvement Precincts (BIDS), etc.*?

(yes, no)

Graph the frequency with which the police in (*insert neighborhood*) met face-to-face, or by phone to work together and coordinate with private business, chamber of commerce, BIDS: (high frequency = about daily; mid frequency = weekly to at least monthly; low frequency = less than monthly)

Frequency of police contact with private business, chamber of commerce, BIDS to coordinate and work together in (*insert neighborhood*)



Circle the kind of contact the police in (*insert neighborhood*) had with private business, chamber of commerce, BIDS:

- contact with employees
- contact with upper management or owners
- contact with both

Were residents involved in the contacts and coordination efforts between the police and private business, chamber of commerce, BIDS in (*insert neighborhood*)?

(yes, no)

What was coordinated/shared with private business, chamber of commerce, BIDS (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

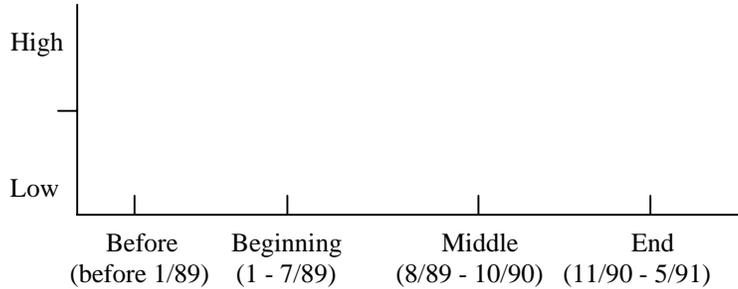
- joint programs (yes, no)
- decisions (yes, no)
- information (yes, no)
- activities (yes, no)
- resources (yes, no)

5) Did the police in (*insert neighborhood*) coordinate with *Schools and/or Training Organizations*?

(yes, no)

Graph the frequency with which the police in (*insert neighborhood*) met face-to-face, or by phone to work together and coordinate with schools and/or training organizations: (high frequency = about daily; mid frequency = weekly to at least monthly; low frequency = less than monthly)

Frequency of police contact with schools, training organizations to coordinate and work together in (*insert neighborhood*)



Circle the kind of contact the police in (*insert neighborhood*) had with schools and/or training organizations:

- contact with teachers
- contact with school managers or boards of education
- contact with both

Were residents involved in the contacts and coordination efforts between the police and schools and/or training organizations in (*insert neighborhood*)?

(yes, no)

What was coordinated/shared with schools and/or training organizations (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

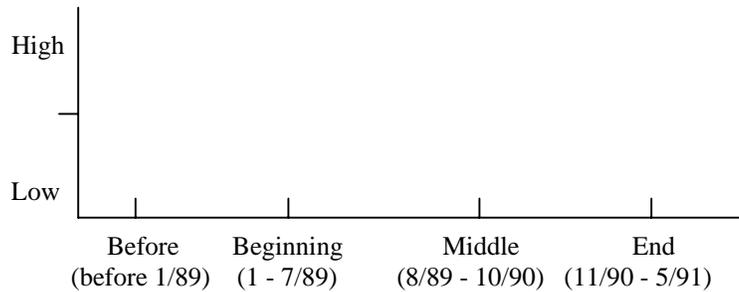
- joint programs (yes, no)
- decisions (yes, no)
- information (yes, no)
- activities (yes, no)
- resources (yes, no)

6) Did the police in (*insert neighborhood*) coordinate with *Churches and/or Faith Community*?

(yes, no)

Graph the frequency with which the police in (*insert neighborhood*) met face-to-face, or by phone to work together and coordinate with churches and/or faith community: (high frequency = about daily; mid frequency = weekly to at least monthly; low frequency = less than monthly)

Frequency of police contact with churches, faith community to coordinate and work together in (*insert neighborhood*)



Circle the kind of contact the police in (*insert neighborhood*) had with churches and/or faith community:

- contact with pastors, ministers, congregational committee
- contact with trustees, denominational executives
- contact with both

Were residents involved in the contacts and coordination efforts between the police and churches and/or faith community in (*insert neighborhood*)?

(yes, no)

What was coordinated/shared with churches and/or faith community (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

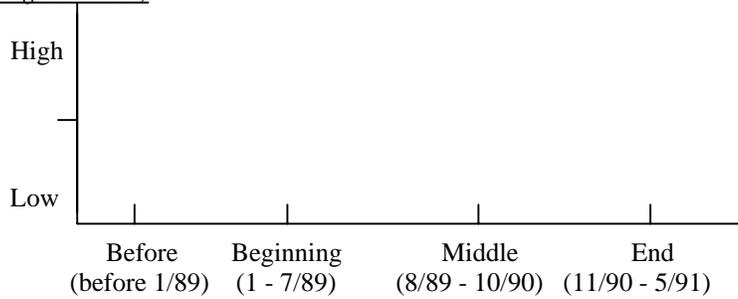
- joint programs (yes, no)
- decisions (yes, no)
- information (yes, no)
- activities (yes, no)
- resources (yes, no)

7) Did the police in (*insert neighborhood*) coordinate with *Social Service, Health, and/or Treatment agencies*?

(yes, no)

Graph the frequency with which the police in (*insert neighborhood*) met face-to-face, or by phone to work together and coordinate with social service, health, and/or treatment agencies: (high frequency = about daily; mid frequency = weekly to at least monthly; low frequency = less than monthly)

Frequency of police contact with social service, health, treatment to coordinate and work together in (insert neighborhood)



Circle the kind of contact the police in (insert neighborhood) had with social service, health, and/or treatment agencies:

- contact with front-line staff
- contact with management and policy makers
- contact with both

Were residents involved in the contacts and coordination efforts between the police and social service, health, and/or treatment agencies in (insert neighborhood)?

(yes, no)

What was coordinated/shared with social service, health, and/or treatment agencies (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

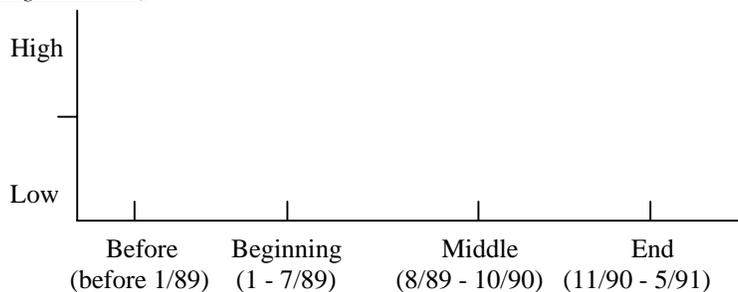
- joint programs (yes, no)
- decisions (yes, no)
- information (yes, no)
- activities (yes, no)
- resources (yes, no)

8) Did the police in (insert neighborhood) coordinate with *Research Organizations and Other organizations* (this excludes resident organizations, they are discussed under participation)?

(yes, no)

Graph the frequency with which the police in (insert neighborhood) met face-to-face, or by phone to work together and coordinate with research organizations and other organizations: (high frequency = about daily; mid frequency = weekly to at least monthly; low frequency = less than monthly)

Frequency of police contact with research organizations and other to coordinate and work together in (insert neighborhood)



Circle the kind of contact the police in (*insert neighborhood*) had with research organizations and other organizations:

- contact with research staff or other front-line staff
- contact with research directors or other managers
- contact with both

Were residents involved in the contacts and coordination efforts between the police and research organizations and other organizations in (*insert neighborhood*)?

(yes, no)

What was coordinated/shared with research organizations and other organizations (CHOOSE ALL THAT APPLY)?

- joint programs (yes, no)
- decisions (yes, no)
- information (yes, no)
- activities (yes, no)
- resources (yes, no)

Coordination Continued:

Since your study, have there been any major changes in the organizations that police link with or how they link with organizations to coordinate services and programs for (*insert neighborhood*) (e.g. any changes in formalization, frequency, issues, or resources)?

(yes, no)

If yes, please explain the changes:

[Intensity, Scanning, and Referral]

Finally, we have a few questions about how beat or neighborhood officers may learn about and use organizations on a situational basis.

*During the study timeframe, did the police department include in training any information or suggestions about how to find and learn about organizations that might be useful to neighbors or to the officers working in (*insert neighborhood*)? E.g., any useful directories, web pages, or particular officials to consult about unknown organizations?*

(yes, no)

Was there any policy or training for officers working in (*insert neighborhood*) on making referrals to other agencies?

(yes, no)

If yes, what agencies were stressed?

Was their referral choices or results reviewed in some way? How did officers in (*insert neighborhood*) get to know what referrals work?

Was there a policy about dispatch making referrals for (*insert neighborhood*) residents rather than sending an officer?

(yes, no)

APPENDIX E:
BLOCK CLUB SURVEY

PCIP

The Police-Community Interaction Project

Indianapolis Block Club Survey

The Police Community Interaction Project is a joint project of the University at Albany, School of Criminal Justice, Hindelang Criminal Justice Research Center, the Hudson Institute's Crime Policy Center, and the Indiana University-Bloomington Department of Criminal Justice.

The PCIP Director is David E. Duffee, Professor of Criminal Justice, School of Criminal Justice, University at Albany, 135 Western Avenue, Albany, NY 12222. His telephone number is 518/442-5224.

The PCIP Co-Directors are Edmund F. McGarrell, Director, Hudson Institute, Crime Control Policy Center, 5395 Emerson Way, Indianapolis, IN 46226. and Steven M. Chermak, Associate Professor of Criminal Justice, Department of Criminal Justice, 302 Sycamore Hall, Indiana University-Bloomington, Bloomington, IN 47408. Edmund McGarrell's telephone number is 317/549-4116. Prof. Chermak's telephone number is 812/855-5161.

PCIP is supported by Grant No. 97-IJ-CX-0052 awarded by the National Institute of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice. Dr. Robert Langworthy is the project monitor for the National Institute of Justice.

Please return the completed survey in the enclosed, stamped envelope.

By returning your completed survey you are indicating your consent to participate in this research project.

PCIP Block Club Survey General Instructions.

The Block Club survey asks block club leaders about the issues that they face, about whether, how, and about what they interact with the police department, and some general questions about the nature of your area and residents in your area. **If you are not a participant in an Indianapolis block club and believe you have received this survey in error, we apologize and request that you simply return the unmarked survey in the enclosed stamped envelope. Please include your name so that we can prevent future mailings from being sent.**

Your answers are strictly confidential. In the survey we ask only that you identify the name of your neighborhood and some basic characteristics of your organization. In the analysis and reporting of the data, no names of persons or organizations will be used. Neighborhoods will not be identified by name. It is important that we know the area of the city in which your block club is located so that we can examine how differences in neighborhood characteristics may affect what block clubs do and how they interact with the police.

We will provide you with a copy of the report based on this survey. If you want a copy of the report, please fill out and mail the stamped post card separately to Edmund McGarrell at the Hudson Institute.

There are no right or wrong answers to these questions. Different block clubs in different parts of the city will face different issues and do different things. Therefore, the best answer is the one that you feel is most accurate for your block club.

Different sections of this survey ask you to respond in different formats, depending on the nature of the questions. Please read the directions for each question before answering.

We thank you for your cooperation.

We would like to ask several introductory questions that will assist us in better understanding the nature of your block club.

1. How many members belong to your block club? _____
2. How often does your block club hold general meetings open to all residents in the area? _____
3. How many people typically attend these general meetings? _____
4. How often does your block club hold board (steering committee, executive committee, etc.) meetings? _____
5. How many people typically attend these board (steering committee, executive committee, etc.) meetings? _____
6. Would you classify your organizational boundary as the:
(please circle one)

street face
entire block
neighborhood
district / multiple neighborhood
city-wide?

7. Block clubs represent a variety of resident concerns and issues. The table below lists several issues that your block club may or may not deal with on a regular basis. Thinking about the activities your block club engages in, please rate these issues according to their importance to your organization in column A. Block clubs also rely on a variety of tactics to address these types of issues. For each issue, please indicate the type(s) of tactics that your block club has used in column B.

ISSUE	A				B			
	IMPORTANCE (Circle one) 1= Very Important 2= Somewhat Important 3= Not Too Important 4= Not At All Important				If you answered 1 or 2 in A TACTICS Our block club does the following (Circle all that apply)... 1= Provide services for individual residents who have problems 2= Mobilize residents to address issues on their own 3= Coordinate with the police to address issues 4= Advocate the needs of residents to state/local officials, business/developers, other agencies			
Traffic (e.g. people speeding or running stop signs)	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Quality and Availability of Public Services	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Reducing Personal crime (e.g. people being threatened or attacked)	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Reducing Property crime (e.g. vehicles broken into or stolen; vandalism or graffiti)	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Reducing Social Disorder (e.g. public drinking, prostitution, loud music)	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Reducing Physical Decay (e.g. abandoned buildings, trash and debris)	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Local Economic Development	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Negligent or absent landlords	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Reputation of the area	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Police respect for citizens	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Police listening to resident's concerns	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Need for more police assigned to area	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

8. All block clubs have to prioritize a variety of goals and objectives to some degree. Considering all of your objectives and goals, which ones are most critical to your organization's idea of "success"?

9. In what ways have the interactions your block club has had with the police either assisted or hindered your attempts to achieve these objectives and goals? In other words, in what ways are the goals and concerns of the police consistent with, or at odds with, the goals and concerns of your block club?

Now we'd like to ask several questions about the area served by your block club.

10. Which of the following best describes the race or ethnicity of the majority of people your block club serves?

(Please circle one)

1. African Americans
2. Whites
3. Latinos
4. Other _____

11. Which of the following best describes the economic condition of your block?

(Please circle one)

1. Extremely poor
2. Moderately poor
3. Mixture of working class and poor
4. Mixture of working class and middle income
5. Middle income
6. Above middle income

12. Would you describe your block as:

(Please circle one)

1. Extremely violent
2. Somewhat violent
3. Little violence
4. Not violent

13. Would you say that crime on your block is:

(Please circle one)

1. A big problem
2. Somewhat of a problem
3. Not a problem

14. Sometimes block clubs find it difficult to get residents involved in local activities that effect the area. **How difficult has it been to get any of the following groups involved in the activities of your block club?**

GROUP	DIFFICULTY GETTING INVOLVED (circle one) 1= a lot 2= a little 3= none at all NA= Not Applicable			
How much difficulty do you have in attracting YOUTH ?	1	2	3	NA
How much difficulty do you have in attracting MIDDLE-AGED residents?	1	2	3	NA
How much difficulty do you have in attracting ELDERLY/RETIRED residents?	1	2	3	NA
How much difficulty do you have in attracting WHITE residents?	1	2	3	NA
How much difficulty do you have in attracting AFRICAN AMERICAN residents?	1	2	3	NA
How much difficulty do you have in attracting LATINO residents?	1	2	3	NA
How much difficulty do you have in attracting residents of some OTHER RACE/ETHNICITY? (please specify)	1	2	3	NA
How much difficulty do you have in attracting HOME-OWNERS ?	1	2	3	NA
How much difficulty do you have in attracting RENTERS ?	1	2	3	NA
How much difficulty do you have in attracting MALE residents?	1	2	3	NA
How much difficulty do you have in attracting FEMALE residents?	1	2	3	NA

15. In your opinion, why has it been difficult to attract the participation of the group(s) that you circled above?

16. The table below asks questions related to activities and interactions the police may or may not engage in while in the area covered by your block club. Thinking about the activities of the police and the interactions the police have with residents, please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

STATEMENT	AGREEMENT							
	(circle one) 1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Neither Agree nor Disagree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree DK= Don't Know NA= Not Applicable							
We have had permanently assigned beat officers for more than a year.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	
Our permanently assigned beat officers are often called to perform duties outside of the neighborhood.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	
The police inform residents about crime in the area.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	
The police keep track of reported crimes, calls for service, or arrests in an attempt to identify the unique characteristics of the area.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	
Once a specific problem is found, police attempt to determine the nature, extent, and causes of a problem and select a solution based on the analysis of the problem.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	
The police provide feedback on how their solutions or efforts to address problems are proceeding or the results that occurred.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	
Residents participate in identifying and ranking problems.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	
Once a problem has been identified, the police and residents work together to decide what steps will be taken to address the problem.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	
When solving problems facing the area, the police often coordinate with other city or county agencies.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	
The police often determine what role residents will play in programs, activities, initiatives, and joint partnerships with the police.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	
The residents often determine what role the police will play in programs, activities, initiatives, and joint partnerships with residents.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	
The residents follow through with decisions made with the police.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	
The police follow through with decisions made with residents and block clubs.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	
Within the past year the police have helped residents establish new resident organizations or block clubs.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	
The police encourage area residents to get to know one another.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	
The police encourage area residents to work together to solve problems.	1	2	3	4	5	DK	NA	

17. The table below asks questions related to the ways in which your block club, and the residents living in the area served by your block club, interact with the police. We are specifically interested in only those activities and issues that the police were directly involved with. First, in column A please indicate how often area residents have interacted with the police. Second, in column B we are interested in finding out who typically initiates each of these activities.

ACTIVITY/ISSUE	A					B			
	The police have been involved with my block club in this event... 1= More than once a month 2= About once a month 3= A few times a year 4= Not at all 5= Activity does not exist					If you answered 1, 2 or 3 in A These activities were usually initiated by... 1= the police 2= residents 3= my block club 4= police and residents both equally			
Community Meetings	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Neighborhood social events	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Crime prevention training or education	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Anti-crime/drug rallies	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Neighborhood citizen patrols	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Crime or drug reporting hotline/program	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Informal conversations w/ residents concerning neighborhood problems	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
Discussions about police misconduct	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4

18. Thinking about the times your block club has worked with the police during the past year, please indicate how accessible each of the following groups of officials have been to the people living on your block.

POLICE GROUP	ACCESSIBILITY

	DK= Don't Know				
Regular Patrol Officers	1	2	3	4	DK
Community or Neighborhood Officers	1	2	3	4	DK
Police Middle Management (i.e. Sargent or Lieutenant)	1	2	3	4	DK
Upper Management (i.e. District Captain, Deputy Chief, Chief)	1	2	3	4	DK

19. Sometimes the relationship between the police and residents can change. Thinking about the area served by your block club, within the past year has the relationship between the police and residents...

- a) Improved Dramatically
- b) Improved Somewhat
- c) Stayed About the Same
- d) Deteriorated Somewhat
- e) Deteriorated Dramatically

Please describe why you think the relationship between the police and residents has either improved, stayed the same, or deteriorated within the past year.

20. **If you indicated that the relationship either improved or deteriorated**, what impact has this change had on the area?

21. Sometimes on particular blocks residents will take steps to combat crime, reduce disorder, improve the quality of neighborhood life, or improve the quality of municipal services. The table below lists several activities that **individual residents** may engage in **on their own** and **independent** of other residents in the area. We are specifically interested in the likelihood (column A) and frequency (column B) of these activities on your block.

A

B

ACTIVITY On their own, individual residents may...	How likely is it that an individual resident on your block would engage in this activity? 1= Very Likely 2= Somewhat Likely 3= Not Too Likely 4= Not At All Likely 5= Not a problem on this block	Within the past year, how often have you witnessed or heard of a resident engaging in this type of activity? 1= More than once a month 2= About once a month 3= A few times a year 4= Never 5= Not a problem on this block.
Request that the owner of a car turn down his/her stereo while the car is parked out front of the resident's home	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Volunteer to watch a neighbor's child while they work, attend school, or go shopping.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Contact the city to complain about a broken streetlight located near the resident's home.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Paint over graffiti on a building located near the resident's home.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Contact the parents of students they witnessed skipping school.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Contact your organization to report or address a neighborhood problem.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

22. Sometimes residents may work together in an attempt to solve problems that affect the area. The table below lists activities that **several residents** may engage in **together as a group**. We are specifically interested in the likelihood (column A) and the frequency (column B) of these activities on your block.

A

B

<p style="text-align: center;">ACTIVITY</p> <p>A group of residents may...</p>	<p>How likely is it that a group of residents would get together and engage in this activity?</p> <p>1= Very Likely 2= Somewhat Likely 3= Not Too Likely 4= Not at all Likely 5= Not a problem on this block</p>					<p>Within the past year, how often have you witnessed or heard of a group of residents coming together to participate in this type of activity?</p> <p>1= More than once a month 2= About once a month 3= A few times a year 4= Never 5= Not a problem on this block</p>				
Organize a clean-up day to remove trash, weeds, and debris from a vacant lot.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Meet with local housing officials to discuss negligent or absent landlords.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Complain to district police administrators about the lack of permanently assigned officers to the area.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Complete an application to recognize a resident for their positive contributions to the block.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Organize meetings with school officials to discuss the needs of youth.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

23. Thinking about the residents living in the area served by your block club, please indicate in the table below how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements.

STATEMENT	AGREEMENT 1= Strongly Agree 2= Somewhat Agree 3= Neither Agree nor Disagree 4= Somewhat Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree				
People on this block are willing to help their neighbors.	1	2	3	4	5
This is a close-knit block.	1	2	3	4	5
People on this block have a lot of friends or family living on the same block.	1	2	3	4	5
People on this block can be trusted.	1	2	3	4	5
People on this block generally get along together.	1	2	3	4	5
People on this block share the same values.	1	2	3	4	5
People living on this block plan to live here a long time.	1	2	3	4	5
People living on this block are likely to recommend this block to a friend or relative.	1	2	3	4	5
When faced with problems on the block, individual residents are confident in their ability to solve these problems on their own.	1	2	3	4	5
When faced with problems on the block, residents are confident in their ability to work together with other residents to solve these problems.	1	2	3	4	5
Together as a group, residents on this block have the knowledge, skills, and abilities to solve area problems.	1	2	3	4	5
Together as a group, residents on this block have the necessary connections and relationships to solve area problems.	1	2	3	4	5

Finally, in conclusion we have several questions about your participation in this block club. Please remember that we will not identify you , your organization, or your neighborhood in the analysis. However, the following information is important since issues and police interactions will vary depending on the length of experience and the area of the city.

24. How long have you been a resident on this block? _____

25. What is your official position within this block club? _____

26. How long have you held this position? _____

27. How long have you been an active participant in the activities of this block club? _____

28. How long has your block club been established? _____

29. To what neighborhood does your block club belong? _____

Thank you for your participation! Please return the completed survey in the enclosed, stamped envelope.

APPENDIX F:
TELEPHONE SURVEY

NEIGHBORHOOD ASSOCIATIONS AND UMBRELLA ORGANIZATION

>namechg1<

We will refer to your organization's name several times throughout this interview. Is there an abbreviated name you use to refer to ORGANIZATION NAME?

<1> yes

<5> no [go to item org1]

>namechg2<

IF NEEDED:

What name do you use?

>org1<

We would like to ask several questions that will assist us in better understanding the nature of ORGANIZATION NAME.

>org2<

To begin, we are interested in ORGANIZATION NAME's overall structure. Please tell me if it has each of the following.

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

By "external funding", we mean things such as grants or contracts.

Does ORGANIZATION NAME currently have:

External funding?

Regular local fundraising?

Client fees?

Membership fees?

Office space?

Part-time paid staff?

Full-time paid staff?

Volunteer staff?

RESPONSE CODES: 1=yes

5=no

8=DON'T KNOW

9=REFUSED

>org3<

How many members belong to ORGANIZATION NAME?

<1-499>

<500> 500 members or more

VOLUNTEERED

<997> everybody in the neighborhood

<998> DON'T KNOW

<999> REFUSED

>org4<

How often does ORGANIZATION NAME hold general meetings open to all residents?

<1> ENTER TEXT [go to item org5]

<5> never

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

[go to item org6]

>org5<

About how many people typically attend these general meetings?

<1-249>

<250> 250 people or more

<998> DON'T KNOW

<999> REFUSED

>org6<

How often does ORGANIZATION NAME hold board meetings?

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Please include executive sessions as board meetings.

<1> ENTER TEXT [go to item org7]

<5> never

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

[go to item org8]

>org7<

About how many people typically attend these board meetings?

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Please include executive sessions as board meetings.

<1-99>

<100> 100 people or more

<998> DON'T KNOW

<999> REFUSED

>org8<

Would you classify your organizational boundary as:

<1> a street face

<2> an entire block

<3> a neighborhood

<4> a district or group of neighborhoods, or

<5> city-wide

VOLUNTEERED

<7> other (ENTER TEXT)

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>issue<

Now I am going to read a list of issues that ORGANIZATION NAME may or may not deal with on a regular basis. Please tell me how important each issue is to the work of ORGANIZATION NAME.

>issue1<

First, how important of an issue to ORGANIZATION NAME are traffic problems?

Would you say:

<1> very important [go to item iss1a]

<2> somewhat important [go to item iss1a]

<3> not too important, or

<4> not at all important

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

[go to item issue2]

>iss1a<

To address traffic problems does ORGANIZATION NAME:

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Does ORGANIZATION NAME use this tactic to address traffic problems?

Provide services for residents?
Mobilize residents to address the issue
on their own?
Coordinate with the police?
Advocate the needs of residents to government
officials, businesses, or other agencies?

RESPONSE CODES: 1=YES
5=NO
8=DON'T KNOW
9=REFUSED

>issue2<

How important of an issue to ORGANIZATION NAME are the quality and availability of public services?

Would you say:

<1> very important [go to item iss2a]
<2> somewhat important [go to item iss2a]
<3> not too important, or
<4> not at all important

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED
[go to item issue3]

>iss2a<

To address public services does ORGANIZATION NAME:

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Does ORGANIZATION NAME use this tactic to address quality and availability of public services?

Provide services for residents?
Mobilize residents to address the issue
on their own?
Coordinate with the police?
Advocate the needs of residents to government
officials, businesses, or other agencies?

RESPONSE CODES: 1=YES
5=NO
8=DON'T KNOW
9=REFUSED

>issue3<

How important is reducing personal crime, such as people being threatened or attacked?

(Would you say:)

<1> very important [go to item iss3a]
<2> somewhat important [go to item iss3a]
<3> not too important, or
<4> not at all important

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED
[go to item issue4]

>iss3a<

To address personal crime does ORGANIZATION NAME:

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Does ORGANIZATION NAME use this tactic to address personal crime?

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Personal crime can include people being threatened or attacked.

Provide services (for residents)?

Mobilize residents (to address the issue
on their own)?

Coordinate with the police?

Advocate the needs of residents (to government
officials, businesses, or other agencies)?

RESPONSE CODES: 1=YES

5=NO

8=DON'T KNOW

9=REFUSED

>issue4<

How important is reducing property crime, such as vehicles broken into or stolen, or vandalism and graffiti?

(Would you say:)

<1> very important [go to item iss4a]
<2> somewhat important [go to item iss4a]
<3> not too important, or
<4> not at all important

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED
[go to item issue5]

>iss4a<

To address property crime does ORGANIZATION NAME:

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Does ORGANIZATION NAME use this tactic to address property crime?

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Property crime can include vehicles broken into or stolen, or vandalism and graffiti.

Provide services (for residents)?

Mobilize residents (to address the issue on their own)?

Coordinate with the police?

Advocate the needs of residents (to government officials, businesses, or other agencies)?

RESPONSE CODES: 1=YES

5=NO

8=DON'T KNOW

9=REFUSED

>issue5<

How important is reducing social disorder, including public drinking, prostitution or loud music?

(Would you say:)

<1> very important [go to item iss5a]

<2> somewhat important [go to item iss5a]

<3> not too important, or

<4> not at all important

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

[go to item issue6]

>iss5a<

To address social disorder does ORGANIZATION NAME:

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Does ORGANIZATION NAME use this tactic to address social disorder?

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Social disorder can include public drinking, prostitution or loud music.

Provide services (for residents)?

Mobilize residents (to address the issue

on their own)?
Coordinate with the police?
Advocate the needs of residents (to government officials, businesses, or other agencies)?

RESPONSE CODES: 1=YES
5=NO
8=DON'T KNOW
9=REFUSED

>issue6<

How important is reducing physical decay, such as abandoned buildings or trash and debris?

(Would you say:)

<1> very important [go to item iss6a]
<2> somewhat important [go to item iss6a]
<3> not too important, or
<4> not at all important

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED
[go to item issue7]

>iss6a<

To address physical decay does ORGANIZATION NAME:

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Does ORGANIZATION NAME use this tactic to address physical decay?

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Physical decay can include abandoned buildings or trash and debris.

Provide services (for residents)?
Mobilize residents (to address the issue on their own)?
Coordinate with the police?
Advocate the needs of residents (to government officials, businesses, or other agencies)?

RESPONSE CODES: 1=YES
5=NO
8=DON'T KNOW
9=REFUSED

>issue7<

How important is police respect for citizens?

(Would you say:)

<1> very important [go to item iss7a]
<2> somewhat important [go to item iss7a]
<3> not too important, or
<4> not at all important

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED
[go to item issue8]

>iss7a<

To address police respect does ORGANIZATION NAME:

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Does ORGANIZATION NAME use this tactic to address police respect for citizens?

Provide services (for residents)?

Mobilize residents (to address the issue
on their own)?

Coordinate with the police?

Advocate the needs of residents (to government
officials, businesses, or other agencies)?

RESPONSE CODES: 1=YES

5=NO

8=DON'T KNOW

9=REFUSED

>issue8<

How important is having police listening to resident concerns?

(Would you say:)

<1> very important [go to item iss8a]
<2> somewhat important [go to item iss8a]
<3> not too important, or
<4> not at all important

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED
[go to item issue9]

>iss8a<

To address police listening to resident concerns does ORGANIZATION NAME:

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Does ORGANIZATION NAME use this tactic to address police listening to resident concerns?

Provide services (for residents)?
Mobilize residents (to address the issue
on their own)?
Coordinate with the police?
Advocate the needs of residents (to government
officials, businesses, or other agencies)?

RESPONSE CODES: 1=YES
5=NO
8=DON'T KNOW
9=REFUSED

>issue9<

**How important is having more police assigned to [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “the area”
[NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “your neighborhood”?**

(Would you say:)

<1> very important [go to item iss9a]
<2> somewhat important [go to item iss9a]
<3> not too important, or
<4> not at all important

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED
[go to item issue10]

>iss9a<

**To address police coverage in [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “the area” [NEIGHBORHOOD
SAMPLE] “your neighborhood” does ORGANIZATION NAME:**

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Does ORGANIZATION NAME use this tactic to address police coverage in [UMBRELLA SAMPLE]
“the area” [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “your neighborhood”?

Provide services (for residents)?
Mobilize residents (to address the issue
on their own)?
Coordinate with the police?
Advocate the needs of residents (to government
officials, businesses, or other agencies)?

RESPONSE CODES: 1=YES
5=NO
8=DON'T KNOW
9=REFUSED

>issue10<

How important is local economic development?

(Would you say:)

- <1> very important [go to item iss10a]
- <2> somewhat important [go to item iss10a]
- <3> not too important, or
- <4> not at all important

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

[go to item issue11]

>iss10a<

To address local economic development does ORGANIZATION NAME:

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Does ORGANIZATION NAME use this tactic to address local economic development?

Provide services (for residents)?

Mobilize residents (to address the issue
on their own)?

Coordinate with the police?

Advocate the needs of residents (to government
officials, businesses, or other agencies)?

RESPONSE CODES: 1=YES

5=NO

8=DON'T KNOW

9=REFUSED

>issue11<

How important is negligent or absent landlords?

(Would you say:)

- <1> very important [go to item iss11a]
- <2> somewhat important [go to item iss11a]
- <3> not too important, or
- <4> not at all important

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

[go to item issue12]

>iss11a<

To address negligent or absent landlords does ORGANIZATION NAME:

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Does ORGANIZATION NAME use this tactic to address negligent or absent landlords?

Provide services (for residents)?

Mobilize residents (to address the issue
on their own)?

Coordinate with the police?

Advocate the needs of residents (to government
officials, businesses or other agencies)?

RESPONSE CODES: 1=YES

5=NO

8=DON'T KNOW

9=REFUSED

>issue12<

How important is the reputation of the area?

(Would you say:)

<1> very important [go to item iss12a]

<2> somewhat important [go to item iss12a]

<3> not too important, or

<4> not at all important

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

[go to item goal1]

>iss12a<

To address the reputation of the area does ORGANIZATION NAME:

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

Does ORGANIZATION NAME use this tactic to address the reputation of the area?

Provide services (for residents)?

Mobilize residents (to address the issue
on their own)?

Coordinate with the police?

Advocate the needs of residents (to government
officials, businesses, or other agencies)?

RESPONSE CODES: 1=YES

5=NO

8=DON'T KNOW

9=REFUSED

>goal1<

Next, all organizations have to prioritize a variety of goals and objectives to some degree. Which goals and objectives are most critical to ORGANIZATION NAME's idea of success?

<1> ENTER TEXT [go to item goal2]

<5> none

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

[go to item group]

>goal2<

In what ways have the interactions ORGANIZATION NAME has had with police either assisted or hindered your attempt to achieve these goals and objectives?

<1> ENTER TEXT

<5> no interactions

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>group<

Sometimes organizations find it difficult to get residents involved in local activities that affect the [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] "neighborhood" [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] "area". Please tell me if ORGANIZATION NAME has had difficulty getting any of the following groups involved in activities.

<1> PROCEED

>group1<

How much difficulty does ORGANIZATION NAME have in attracting youth?

Would you say:

<1> a lot

<3> a little, or

<5> none at all

VOLUNTEERED

<7> not applicable/none in neighborhood

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>group2<

How much difficulty does ORGANIZATION NAME have in attracting middle-aged residents?

Would you say:

<1> a lot
<3> a little, or
<5> none at all

VOLUNTEERED

<7> not applicable/none in neighborhood

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED

>group3<

Attracting elderly or retired residents?

(Would you say:)

<1> a lot
<3> a little, or
<5> none at all

VOLUNTEERED

<7> not applicable/none in neighborhood

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED

>group4<

Attracting White residents?

(Would you say:)

<1> a lot
<3> a little, or
<5> none at all

VOLUNTEERED

<7> not applicable/none in neighborhood

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED

>group5<

Attracting African American residents?

(Would you say:)

<1> a lot
<3> a little, or

<5> none at all

VOLUNTEERED

<7> not applicable/none in neighborhood

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>group6<

Attracting Latino residents?

(Would you say:)

<1> a lot

<3> a little, or

<5> none at all

VOLUNTEERED

<7> not applicable/none in neighborhood

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>group7<

Attracting residents of other races or ethnicities?

(Would you say:)

<1> a lot

<3> a little, or

<5> none at all

VOLUNTEERED

<7> not applicable/none in neighborhood

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>group8<

Attracting home-owners?

(Would you say:)

<1> a lot

<3> a little, or

<5> none at all

VOLUNTEERED

<7> not applicable/none in neighborhood

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>group9<

Attracting residents who rent apartments or houses?

(Would you say:)

<1> a lot

<3> a little, or

<5> none at all

VOLUNTEERED

<7> not applicable/none in neighborhood

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>group10<

Attracting males?

(Would you say:)

<1> a lot

<3> a little, or

<5> none at all

VOLUNTEERED

<7> not applicable/none in neighborhood

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>group11<

Attracting females?

(Would you say:)

<1> a lot

<3> a little, or

<5> none at all

VOLUNTEERED

<7> not applicable/none in neighborhood

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>group12<

In your opinion, why has it been difficult to attract the participation of the groups that you just mentioned?

<1> ENTER TEXT

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>politic<

Now I am going to read you a list of statements related to the political environment and the ways in which ORGANIZATION NAME may or may not interact with this environment. Please tell me how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.

>politic1<

The welfare and quality of life of the residents in your area is important to the mayor's policy agenda.

Do you:

<1> strongly agree

<2> somewhat agree

<3> somewhat disagree

<4> strongly disagree, or

<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>politic2<

Local government actively includes [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “the residents in your area” [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “your neighborhood” in development projects.

Do you:

<1> strongly agree

<2> somewhat agree

<3> somewhat disagree

<4> strongly disagree, or

<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>politic3<

[UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “The residents living within ORGANIZATION NAME's boundary” [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “The residents living in the neighborhood” actively pursue involvement in the local policy agenda.

CLARIFY IF NEEDED:

We are asking about involvement in the mayor's local policy agenda.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>politic4<

**[UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “The residents living within ORGANIZATION NAME's boundary”
[NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “Residents in your neighborhood” actively participate in local elections?**

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>politic5<

**[UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “The neighborhoods within your organization's boundary have”
[NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “Your neighborhood has” less input and decision-making power with the local government compared to other neighborhoods in Indianapolis.**

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>politic6<

The services provided to [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “the neighborhoods within your organization's boundary” [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “your neighborhood” are of lower quality than those services provided to other neighborhoods.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>police<

We are interested in the activities and interactions the police may or may not engage in [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “the neighborhoods covered by ORGANIZATION NAME” [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “your neighborhood”.

Thinking about the activities of the police and the interactions the police have with residents, please tell me how much you agree or disagree with the following statements. If you don't know how to answer a question just let me know.

[UMBRELLA SAMPLE][go to item police3]

>police1<

Your neighborhood has had permanently assigned beat officers for more than a year.

Do you:

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

>police2<

Your neighborhood's permanently assigned beat officers are often called to peRefusedorm duties outside of the neighborhood.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree

- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

- <8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)
- <9> REFUSED

>police3<

The police inform residents about crime in the [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “neighborhood” [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “area”.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree
- <8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)
- <9> REFUSED

>police4<

Police keep track of reported crimes, calls for service, or arrests in an attempt to identify the unique characteristics of the [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “neighborhood” [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “area”.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

- <8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)
- <9> REFUSED

>police5<

Based on your experiences over the past year, once a specific problem is found in your [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “neighborhood” [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “area”, police attempt to determine the nature, extent, and causes of a problem and select a solution based on the analysis of the problem.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree

<4> strongly disagree, or
<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)
<9> REFUSED

>police6<

The police provide feedback on how their solutions or efforts to address problems are proceeding or the results that occurred.

(Do you:)

<1> strongly agree
<2> somewhat agree
<3> somewhat disagree
<4> strongly disagree, or
<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)
<9> REFUSED

>police7<

Residents participate in identifying and ranking problems.

(Do you:)

<1> strongly agree
<2> somewhat agree
<3> somewhat disagree
<4> strongly disagree, or
<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)
<9> REFUSED

>police8<

Once a problem has been identified the police and residents work together to decide what steps will be taken to address the problem.

(Do you:)

<1> strongly agree
<2> somewhat agree
<3> somewhat disagree
<4> strongly disagree, or
<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

>police9<

Based on your experiences in the past year, when solving problems facing [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “the area” [NEIGHBOOD SAMPLE] “the neighborhood”, the police often coordinate with other city or county agencies.

(Do you:)

<1> strongly agree

<2> somewhat agree

<3> somewhat disagree

<4> strongly disagree, or

<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

>police10<

The police often determine what role residents will play in programs, activities, initiatives, and joint partnerships with the police.

(Do you:)

<1> strongly agree

<2> somewhat agree

<3> somewhat disagree

<4> strongly disagree, or

<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

>police11<

The residents often determine what role the police will play in programs, activities, initiatives, and joint partnerships with residents.

(Do you:)

<1> strongly agree

<2> somewhat agree

<3> somewhat disagree

<4> strongly disagree, or

<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

>police12<

In the past year, the police have helped residents establish new resident organizations or block clubs.

(Do you:)

<1> strongly agree

<2> somewhat agree

<3> somewhat disagree

<4> strongly disagree, or

<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

>police13<

The police encourage area residents to get to know one another.

(Do you:)

<1> strongly agree

<2> somewhat agree

<3> somewhat disagree

<4> strongly disagree, or

<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

>police14<

The police encourage area leaders and residents to work together to solve problems.

(Do you:)

<1> strongly agree

<2> somewhat agree

<3> somewhat disagree

<4> strongly disagree, or

<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

>police15<

The residents follow through with decisions made with the police.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

- <8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)
- <9> REFUSED

>police16<

The police follow through with decisions made with the residents.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

- <8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)
- <9> REFUSED

[NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE][go to item reside]

>serve<

Sometimes there are unique differences between neighborhoods that are near each other. Other times neighborhoods are very similar in terms of the characteristics of the residents, the problems they face, and the types of interaction they have with the police. Thinking about the neighborhoods served by ORGANIZATION NAME, please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.

>serve1<

Across the neighborhoods served by ORGANIZATION NAME, the amount of informal interaction residents have with one another is similar.

Do you:

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>serve2<

The extent to which residents work together to address or solve common problems is similar across the neighborhoods served by ORGANIZATION NAME.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>serve3<

The problems facing residents are similar across the neighborhoods served by ORGANIZATION NAME.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>serve4<

The seriousness of the problems facing residents across the neighborhoods is similar.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>serve5<

The types of interaction residents have with the police is similar.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>serve6<

The quality of police service provided to residents is similar.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>serve7<

The extent to which residents and the police collaborate to solve problems is similar.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>serve8<

Relations between the police and community are similar across the neighborhoods.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

[go to item active]

>reside<

Now I am going to read you a list of statements about the ways in which the residents living in the neighborhood interact with one another. Thinking about the residents living in the neighborhood served by ORGANIZATION NAME, please tell me how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.

>reside1<

People in the neighborhood are willing to help their neighbors.

Do you:

<1> strongly agree

<2> somewhat agree

<3> somewhat disagree

<4> strongly disagree, or

<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>reside2<

This is a close-knit neighborhood.

(Do you:)

<1> strongly agree

<2> somewhat agree

<3> somewhat disagree

<4> strongly disagree, or

<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>reside3<

People in the neighborhood have a lot of friends or family living in the same neighborhood.

(Do you:)

<1> strongly agree

<2> somewhat agree

<3> somewhat disagree

<4> strongly disagree, or

<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED

>reside4<

People in this neighborhood can be trusted.

(Do you:)

<1> strongly agree
<2> somewhat agree
<3> somewhat disagree
<4> strongly disagree, or
<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED

>reside5<

People in this neighborhood generally get along together.

(Do you:)

<1> strongly agree
<2> somewhat agree
<3> somewhat disagree
<4> strongly disagree, or
<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED

>reside6<

People in this neighborhood share the same values.

(Do you:)

<1> strongly agree
<2> somewhat agree
<3> somewhat disagree
<4> strongly disagree, or
<5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED

>reside7<

People living in this neighborhood plan to live here a long time.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>reside8<

People in this neighborhood are likely to recommend this neighborhood to a friend or relative.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>reside9<

When faced with problems in the neighborhood, individual residents are confident in their ability to solve these problems on their own.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>reside10<

When faced with problems in the neighborhood, residents are confident in their ability to work together with other residents to solve problems.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>reside11<

Together as a group, residents in the neighborhood have the knowledge, skills and abilities to solve area problems.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>reside12<

Together as a group, residents in the neighborhood have the necessary connections and relationships to solve area problems.

(Do you:)

- <1> strongly agree
- <2> somewhat agree
- <3> somewhat disagree
- <4> strongly disagree, or
- <5> neither agree nor disagree

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>active<

Next, I am going to ask about police involvement with community activities and issues.

>active1<

How often have the police been involved in community meetings in the past year?

Would you say:

- <1> more than once a month

- <2> about once a month
- <3> a few times a year, or
- <4> not at all [go to item active1a]

VOLUNTEERED

- <7> no community meetings

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

[go to item active2]

>active1a<

Is that because:

- <1> the police were not involved, or
- <5> there were no community meetings

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>active2<

How often have the police been involved in neighborhood social events in the past year?

Would you say:

- <1> more than once a month
- <2> about once a month
- <3> a few times a year, or
- <4> not at all [go to item active2a]

VOLUNTEERED

- <7> no neighborhood social events

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

[go to item active3]

>active2a<

Is that because:

- <1> the police were not involved, or
- <5> there were no neighborhood social events

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>active3<

How often have they been involved in crime prevention training or education?

(Would you say:)

- <1> more than once a month
- <2> about once a month
- <3> a few times a year, or
- <4> not at all [go to item active3a]

VOLUNTEERED

<7> no prevention training/education

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

[go to item active4]

>active3a<

Is that because:

- <1> the police were not involved, or
- <5> there was no crime prevention training
or education

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>active4<

Anti-crime or drug rallies?

(Would you say:)

- <1> more than once a month
- <2> about once a month
- <3> a few times a year, or
- <4> not at all [go to item active4a]

VOLUNTEERED

<7> no anti-crime/drug rallies

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

[go to item active5]

>active4a<

Is that because:

- <1> the police were not involved, or
- <5> there were no anti-crime or drug rallies

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED

>active5<

Neighborhood citizen patrol?

(Would you say:)

<1> more than once a month
<2> about once a month
<3> a few times a year, or
<4> not at all [go to item active5a]

VOLUNTEERED

<7> no citizen patrol

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

[go to item active6]

>active5a<

Is that because:

<1> the police were not involved, or
<5> there was no neighborhood citizen patrol

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>active6<

Crime or drug reporting hotlines or programs?

(Would you say:)

<1> more than once a month
<2> about once a month
<3> a few times a year, or
<4> not at all [go to item active6a]

VOLUNTEERED

<7> no hotlines/programs

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

[go to item active7]

>active6a<

Is that because:

<1> the police were not involved, or
<5> there were no crime or drug reporting
hotlines or programs

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>active7<

Informal conversations with residents concerning neighborhood problems?

(Would you say:)

<1> more than once a month

<2> about once a month

<3> a few times a year, or

<4> not at all

VOLUNTEERED

<7> no informal conversations

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

>active8<

Discussions with residents about police misconduct?

(Would you say:)

<1> more than once a month

<2> about once a month

<3> a few times a year, or

<4> not at all

VOLUNTEERED

<7> no discussion about police misconduct

<8> DON'T KNOW (DON'T PROBE)

<9> REFUSED

>initiat<

Next, please think about who initiated each of the activities we just talked about: the police, the residents, or both.

>TEST_INITIAT1<

[if active1 greater <3>][go to item TEST_INITIAT2]

>initiat1<

Who typically initiates community meetings involving the police?

Would you say:

- <1> the police
- <2> the residents
- <3> a resident organization, or
- <4> the police and residents about equally

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>TEST_INITIAT2<
[if active2 greater <3>][go to item TEST_INITIAT3]

>initiat2<

Who typically initiates neighborhood social events involving the police?

Would you say:

- <1> the police
- <2> the residents
- <3> a resident organization, or
- <4> the police and residents about equally

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>TEST_INITIAT3<
[if active3 greater <3>][go to item TEST_INITIAT4]

>initiat3<

Who typically initiates crime prevention training or education?

(Would you say:)

- <1> the police
- <2> the residents
- <3> a resident organization, or
- <4> the police and residents about equally

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>TEST_INITIAT4<
[if active4 greater <3>][go to item TEST_INITIAT5]

>initiat4<

Who typically initiates anti-crime or drug rallies?

(Would you say:)

- <1> the police
- <2> the residents
- <3> a resident organization, or
- <4> the police and residents about equally

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>TEST_INITIAT5<
[if active5 greater <3>][go to item TEST_INITIAT6]

>initiat5<

Who typically initiates neighborhood citizen patrol?

(Would you say:)

- <1> the police
- <2> the residents
- <3> a resident organization, or
- <4> the police and residents about equally

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>TEST_INITIAT6<
[if active6 greater <3>][go to item TEST_INITIAT7]

>initiat6<

Who typically initiates crime or drug reporting hotlines or programs?

(Would you say:)

- <1> the police
- <2> the residents
- <3> a resident organization, or
- <4> police and residents about equally

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>TEST_INITIAT7<
[if active7 greater <3>][go to item TEST_INITIAT8]

>initiat7<

Who typically initiates informal conversations concerning neighborhood problems?

(Would you say:)

- <1> the police
- <2> the residents
- <3> a resident organization, or
- <4> police and residents about equally

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>TEST_INITIAT8<

[if active8 greater <3>][go to item access]

>initiat8<

Who typically initiates discussions about police misconduct?

(Would you say:)

- <1> the police
- <2> the residents
- <3> a resident organization, or
- <4> police and residents about equally

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>access<

Next, thinking about the times ORGANIZATION NAME has worked with the police during the past year, please indicate how accessible each of the following has been.

>access1<

During the past year, how accessible have regular patrol officers been to people in the [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] "neighborhood" [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] "area"?

Would you say:

- <1> very accessible
- <2> somewhat accessible
- <3> not too accessible, or
- <4> not at all accessible

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>access2<

During the past year, how accessible have community or neighborhood officers been to people in the [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “neighborhood” [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “area”?

Would you say:

- <1> very accessible
- <2> somewhat accessible
- <3> not too accessible, or
- <4> not at all accessible

VOLUNTEERED

<7> no community or neighborhood officers

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>access3<

How accessible have the police middle management, such as sergeants or lieutenants, been?

(Would you say:)

- <1> very
- <2> somewhat
- <3> not too, or
- <4> not at all accessible

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>access4<

How accessible have upper management, such as a district captain, deputy chief, or chief, been?

(Would you say:)

- <1> very
- <2> somewhat
- <3> not too, or
- <4> not at all accessible

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>relate1<

Next, sometimes the relationship between the police and neighborhood residents can change.

Thinking about the area served by ORGANIZATION NAME, within the past year has the relationship between the police and residents:

<1> improved dramatically
<2> improved somewhat
<3> deteriorated somewhat
<4> deteriorated dramatically, or
<5> stayed about the same

<8> DON'T KNOW [go to item TEST_STEP]
<9> REFUSED [go to item TEST_STEP]

>relate2<

Please describe why you think the relationship between the police and residents has FILL WITH PREVIOUS RESPONSE?

<1> ENTER TEXT [go to item TEST_RELATE3]
<5> no response

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED
[go to item TEST_STEP]

>TEST_RELATE3<
[if relate1 equals <5>][go to item TEST_STEP]

>relate3<

What impact has this change had on the [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “neighborhood” [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “area”?

<1> ENTER TEXT
<5> none

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED

>TEST_STEP<
[UMBRELLA SAMPLE][go to item TDEMO] [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] [go to item action]

>action<

Sometimes within neighborhoods residents will take steps to combat crime, reduce disorder, improve the quality of neighborhood life, or improve the quality of municipal services. Residents can act on their own or they may choose to organize and work together in a group.

Please tell me how likely it is that residents of your neighborhood would engage in each of the following activities.

>action1<

First, how likely is it that a resident of your neighborhood would request that the driver of a car turn down his or her stereo while the car is parked out front of the resident's home?

Would you say:

- <1> very likely
- <2> somewhat likely
- <3> not too likely, or
- <4> not at all likely [go to item action2]

VOLUNTEERED

<7> loud music not a problem [go to item action2]

<8> DON'T KNOW [go to item action2]

<9> REFUSED [go to item action2]

>action1a<

In the past year, how often have you witnessed or heard of a resident making such a request?

Would you say:

- <1> more than once a month
- <2> about once a month
- <3> a few times a year, or
- <4> not at all

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>action2<

How likely is it that a resident of your neighborhood would volunteer to watch a neighbor's child while the neighbor went to work, attended school, or went shopping?

Would you say:

- <1> very likely
- <2> somewhat likely
- <3> not too likely, or
- <4> not at all likely [go to item action3]

<8> DON'T KNOW [go to item action3]

<9> REFUSED [go to item action3]

>action2a<

In the past year, how often have you witnessed or heard of a resident volunteering to do these activities?

Would you say:

- <1> more than once a month
- <2> about once a month

<3> a few times a year, or
<4> not at all

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED

>action3<

How likely is it that a resident of your neighborhood would contact the city to complain about a broken streetlight located near the resident's home?

(Would you say:)

<1> very likely
<2> somewhat likely
<3> not too likely, or
<4> not at all likely [go to item action4]

VOLUNTEERED

<7> broken streetlights not a problem [go to item action4]

<8> DON'T KNOW [go to item action4]
<9> REFUSED [go to item action4]

>action3a<

How often have you witnessed or heard of a resident making such a complaint?

(Would you say:)

<1> more than once a month
<2> about once a month
<3> a few times a year, or
<4> not at all

<8> DON'T KNOW
<9> REFUSED

>action4<

How likely is it that a resident of your neighborhood would paint over graffiti on a building located near the resident's home?

(Would you say:)

<1> very likely
<2> somewhat likely
<3> not too likely, or
<4> not at all likely [go to item action5]

VOLUNTEERED

<7> graffiti not a problem [go to item action5]

<8> DON'T KNOW [go to item action5]

<9> REFUSED [go to item action5]

>action4a<

How often have you witnessed or heard of a resident doing such an activity?

(Would you say:)

<1> more than once a month

<2> about once a month

<3> a few times a year, or

<4> not at all

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>action5<

How likely is it that a resident of your neighborhood would contact the parents of students they witnessed skipping school?

(Would you say:)

<1> very likely

<2> somewhat likely

<3> not too likely, or

<4> not at all likely [go to item action6]

VOLUNTEERED

<7> skipping school not a problem [go to item action6]

<8> DON'T KNOW [go to item action6]

<9> REFUSED [go to item action6]

>action5a<

How often have you witnessed or heard of a resident contacting the parents for this?

(Would you say:)

<1> more than once a month

<2> about once a month

<3> a few times a year, or

<4> not at all

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>action6<

How likely is it that a resident of your neighborhood would contact ORGANIZATION NAME to report or address a neighborhood problem?

(Would you say:)

<1> very likely

<2> somewhat likely

<3> not too likely, or

<4> not at all likely [go to item action7]

<8> DON'T KNOW [go to item action7]

<9> REFUSED [go to item action7]

>action6a<

How often have you witnessed or heard of a resident making such a report?

(Would you say:)

<1> more than once a month

<2> about once a month

<3> a few times a year, or

<4> not at all

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>action7<

How likely is it that a group of residents from your neighborhood would get together and organize a clean-up day to remove trash, weeds, and debris from a vacant lot?

(Would you say:)

<1> very likely

<2> somewhat likely

<3> not too likely, or

<4> not at all likely [go to item action8]

VOLUNTEERED

<7> no vacant lots [go to item action8]

<8> DON'T KNOW [go to item action8]

<9> REFUSED [go to item action8]

>action7a<

How often have you witnessed or heard of a group of residents doing such activities?

(Would you say:)

- <1> more than once a month
- <2> about once a month
- <3> a few times a year, or
- <4> not at all

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>action8<

How likely is it that a group of residents from your neighborhood would get together and meet with local housing officials to discuss negligent or absent landlords?

(Would you say:)

- <1> very likely
- <2> somewhat likely
- <3> not too likely, or
- <4> not at all likely [go to item action9]

VOLUNTEERED

<7> negligent or absent landlords not a problem [go to item action9]

- <8> DON'T KNOW [go to item action9]
- <9> REFUSED [go to item action9]

>action8a<

How often have you witnessed or heard of a group of residents doing such an activity?

(Would you say:)

- <1> more than once a month
- <2> about once a month
- <3> a few times a year, or
- <4> not at all

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>action9<

How likely is it that a group of residents from your neighborhood would get together and complain to district police administrators about the lack of permanently assigned officers to the area?

(Would you say:)

- <1> very likely
- <2> somewhat likely

<3> not too likely, or
<4> not at all likely [go to item action10]

VOLUNTEERED

<7> no lack of officers [go to item action10]

<8> DON'T KNOW [go to item action10]

<9> REFUSED [go to item action10]

>action9a<

How often have you witnessed or heard of a group of residents doing such an activity?

(Would you say:)

<1> more than once a month

<2> about once a month

<3> a few times a year, or

<4> not at all

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>action10<

How likely is it that a group of residents from your neighborhood would get together and complete an application nominating a resident for positive contributions to the neighborhood?

(Would you say:)

<1> very likely

<2> somewhat likely

<3> not too likely, or

<4> not at all likely [go to item action11]

<8> DON'T KNOW [go to item action11]

<9> REFUSED [go to item action11]

>actio10a<

How often have you witnessed or heard of a group of residents doing such an activity?

(Would you say:)

<1> more than once a month

<2> about once a month

<3> a few times a year, or

<4> not at all

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>action11<

How likely is it that a group of residents from your neighborhood would get together and organize meetings with school officials to discuss the needs of youth?

(Would you say:)

<1> very likely

<2> somewhat likely

<3> not too likely, or

<4> not at all likely [go to item demo]

<8> DON'T KNOW [go to item demo]

<9> REFUSED [go to item demo]

>actio11a<

How often have you witnessed or heard of a group of residents doing such an activity?

(Would you say:)

<1> more than once a month

<2> about once a month

<3> a few times a year, or

<4> not at all

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>demo<

Now we have a few questions about the area served by ORGANIZATION NAME.

>demo1<

Which of the following best describes the race or ethnicity of the majority of people ORGANIZATION NAME serves:

<1> African Americans

<2> Whites

<3> Latinos, or

<4> something else (ENTER TEXT)

VOLUNTEERED

<7> no majority race/ethnicity

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>demo2<

Which of the following best describes the economic condition of your [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “neighborhood” [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “community”:

- <1> extremely poor
- <2> moderately poor
- <3> mixture of working class and poor
- <4> mixture of working class and middle income
- <5> middle income, or
- <6> above middle income

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>demo3<

Overall, would you describe your [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “neighborhood” [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “community” as:

- <1> extremely violent
- <2> somewhat violent
- <3> a little violent, or
- <4> not violent

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>demo4<

Would you say that crime in your [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “neighborhood” [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “community” is:

- <1> a big problem
- <3> somewhat of a problem, or
- <5> not a problem

- <8> DON'T KNOW
- <9> REFUSED

>demo5<

How long has ORGANIZATION NAME been established?

- <0> less than a year
- <1-50>
- <51> 51 or more years

- <98> DON'T KNOW
- <99> REFUSED

>demo6<

Finally, we have some questions about your participation in ORGANIZATION NAME for our analysis. Your name, organization, and neighborhood will be kept confidential.

>demo7<

How long have you been a resident of this [NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE] “neighborhood” [UMBRELLA SAMPLE] “community”?

<0> less than a year

<1-50>

<51> 51 or more years

<98> DON'T KNOW

<99> REFUSED

>demo8<

How long have you been an active participant in the activities of ORGANIZATION NAME?

<0> less than a year

<1-50>

<51> 51 or more years

<98> DON'T KNOW

<99> REFUSED

>demo9<

What is your official position within ORGANIZATION NAME?

<1> ENTER TEXT

<8> DON'T KNOW

<9> REFUSED

>demo10<

How long have you held this position?

<0> less than a year

<1-50>

<51> 51 or more years

<98> DON'T KNOW

<99> REFUSED