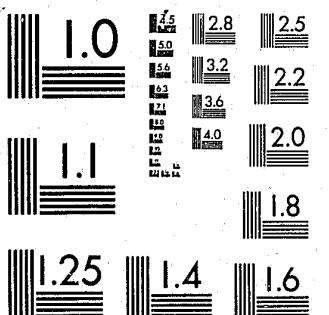


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CITIZEN/POLICE RELATIONS
IN POLICE POLICY SETTING

FINAL REPORT
October 31, 1980

Terry Eisenberg, Ph.D.
Sharon Lawrence, B.A.

Institute For Social Analysis
Los Gatos, California

NCJRS
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ACQUISITIONS

Disclaimer

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T.E./S.L.

Los Gatos, California
October, 1980

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The purposes of this exploratory research effort were two-fold: 1) to enhance and broaden our understanding of the police policy setting process, with particular emphasis on citizen participation in policy determination; and 2) to develop a model for continuous citizen participation and feedback in police policy development, including the specification of implementation and evaluation components.

The methodology employed in the study consisted of a comprehensive literature review, a mail survey of policy practices utilized in some 200 police agencies, and site visits in sixteen (16) cities throughout the United States, with particular emphasis on six (6) of these cities having promising policy development experiences.

Data were acquired from a variety of people including: police chiefs, supervisory and command personnel, line police officers, local government officials, judges and attorneys, business/interest groups, and local residents. Areas of police policy which were emphasized included: use of force, processing of citizen complaints, enforcement priorities, police promotion, handling domestic violence cases, stop and frisk, and gathering police intelligence information.

From the literature review, it was apparent that although the police policy setting process clearly has implications for the nature of police community relations in any particular city, very little evidence was found indicative of a relationship between formal "police-community relations programs" and citizen participation in the police policy setting process.

It was found that citizen participation in the police policy setting process does take place, but varies with the specific policy in question. Of critical significance was the finding that policy implementation and evaluation are equal in importance to policy development.

The mail survey results revealed that police department policy is most often developed by police personnel at the top and middle command levels, with less frequent involvement of other groups within the department, city, and community. Community groups and criminal justice professionals were found to be rarely involved directly in police policy development, although it was found that civil service commissions, state standards organizations, and union contracts or memorandums of understanding influence the setting and structuring of policy. Geographic and population differences were found to exist, but were not easily interpreted. Summarily, the mail survey indicated that broad-based participation in the police policy-setting process is very unusual. Results clearly indicated the criticality of the role and personality of the top police official; the importance of expertise, power, and/or legal mandate as prerequisites for participation in and influence on the police policy-setting process; and the questionable relevance of lay citizen participation in police policy development.

Results of the site visits demonstrated a clear hierarchy of involvement in police policy matters. Whether the opinions were expressed by police or non-police respondents in regards to different policies in different cities, the results remained consistent. That is, that the Chief of Police should be the key decision-maker; that police personnel should occupy an important "review/influence" role, including line personnel; that judges and attorneys,

and to a lesser extent local government officials should perform a "review/influence" role, but primarily in selected technical policy areas (e.g., stop and frisk); and finally that the role of local residents, and especially business/interest groups, in police policy development is primarily "not appropriate" with two exceptions (i.e., the processing of citizen complaints and the specification of enforcement priorities). Of additional interest and unexpectedly, the role of government officials was perceived ambiguously by government officials themselves as well as by non-government official respondents. Further, the role for local residents was often perceived to be greater among non-local resident respondents than local residents themselves.

The results of the three methodological approaches to the enhanced understanding of the police policy-making process and to the development of a model pertaining to continuous participation of citizens in that process were found to be strikingly consistent.

A number of general models of citizen participation in the police policymaking process are discussed including: administrative rulemaking, committee/task force, legislation, judicial rulemaking, litigation, mediation, and budgetary.

A twelve (12)-point model of citizen participation is presented and discussed in detail, including the ingredients necessary for implementation. Finally, twenty-two (22) dimensions of quality of police policy are developed and described in terms of process, product and implementation criteria.

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INTRODUCTION

A. Overview of the Police Policy Setting Process

Policies embody the philosophies of management and state the intentions of management in broad, general terms. They inform departmental personnel regarding how to think about performing their duties, thus they are attitude forming. Policies reflect what is important to an organization, serve as guides to employee judgment, and set limits on discretion. In contrast to policies, rules require strict conformance and govern behavior. With rules, judgments are already made and conformance is required, thus they are behavior forming. Rules tell personnel exactly what to do or not to do. Procedures are ways of proceeding or routines designed to achieve objectives (Local Government Police Management, 1977).

Police agencies define their role in the community through the development of policy. Policies, or overall guidelines, to the extent that they are visible and understood by the public, indicate to the community where the police organization stands on various issues. One of the consequences of the absence of visible or written police policy is that it effectively isolates the community from decisions about how it is to be policed. As stated by Wasserman, Gardner and Cohen (1973), "The opportunity to influence and change policies is essential both to a democratic form of government and a healthy police/community relationship. The absence of written policy precludes that opportunity." These authors further state that the quality of police service determines the nature of the police community relationship and that those police departments who have the best community relations are the ones that have involved citizens in the policymaking process. The

number and variety of issues requiring the articulation of police policy are almost limitless, including for example, the use of force, the processing of citizen complaints, the articulation of enforcement priorities, the promotion of personnel, the handling of domestic violence cases, stop and frisk, and the gathering of police intelligence information.

One of the major and most significant themes pervading the police policy setting literature is that in contrast to all other kinds of organizations, policy is set at the bottom of the hierarchy rather than at the top (Goldstein, 1977; Wilson, 1968; Davis, 1975). This policy setting feature has been most vividly depicted by Clark and Sykes (1974) in their description of the contrast between the police and military bureaucracies:

"Those who have systematically observed police operations first hand, however, cannot help but be impressed with their nonmilitary and non-bureaucratic nature. In actual practice, in the critical aspects of responsiveness to top command, identity with a chain of command culminating in the ranking officer, and adherence to notions of centralized communications, control, and supervision, police departments are profoundly nonmilitary. Put in alternative rhetoric, much of the potential militarizing and bureaucratizing effects of selective recruiting from the military, in-house training, standardized dress, formal organizational structure and procedures, and so forth is neutralized by the de-bureaucratizing effects of relatively isolated and atomized police operations in detached individual or two-man patrol or investigation teams, under weak or nonexistent supervision, operating within an organizational ethos of the individualization of each case and each officer's solution to it."

Another feature of police policy setting is that it is established neither scientifically nor as a result of a rational consideration of alternative plans (Wilson, 1968). This conclusion is consistent with Edwards and Sharkansky (1978) who, in discussing the public policy-

making process, take a very skeptical view of the capacity of public officials to make policy on the basis of a rational selection of the best available options. Manning's (1977) conclusion that police "policy is because it has previously been" is also consistent with the "relying on precedent" decision-rule which Edwards and Sharkansky (1978) suggest is used as a substitute for the rationality criterion for policy decisions. Further, efforts which focus on public attitudes reify the notion of public but obscure the fact that "publics" do not set policy, nor are the attitudes of an aggregated sample the relevant political audience to which the police respond (Manning, 1976).

A third feature of police policy setting is that although there is some disagreement pertaining to elitist vs. pluralist determinations of local government policy decisions, Manning's (1976) contention that the setting of public policy is determined by economic elites, and disproportionately reflects their political and social interests is well-supported. The police as an instrumentality of public policy, are thusly no exception (Ruckelman, 1974). They represent the means by which political authorities maintain the status quo and they act in the interests of the powerful and the authoritative. These economic elites then have a disproportionate influence on the development and implementation of those police policies which are of concern to them. These conclusions are again consistent with the writings of Magill and Clark (1975) pertaining to power and influence in the public policy setting process. Further, Edwards and Sharkansky's (1978) decision-rule of "giving special interests whatever they want" also supports police policymaking via economic elitism.

Goldstein (1977) raises the very important point that even with more rational policymaking, characterized in part by citizen participation, there may be minimal impact on police practices. More specifically he raises the question, "Is policymaking a naive and overly mechanistic approach to a problem that cannot be solved by further enactments, directions, and exhortations?" His response is that the structuring of discretion must be considered as only one element in a much broader program addressing the issues of police role clarification, police service resources and alternatives, accountability and control, and better leadership and training.

Although one would not argue with the need and ultimate value of such a broad scale systematic approach, there is some evidence which suggests that policy change alone does in fact alter police practices and behavior.

Sherman (1978) for example, indicated that there is evidence that with a change in firearms policy, a decline resulted in the number of citizens killed by police officers. He sites Los Angeles, Dallas, Birmingham, and Kansas City as examples. Fife (1978) a lieutenant with the New York City police, cited similar results in a study in his department where with a change in firearms policy, shootings per week by police officers were reduced from an average of 18 to 13; a 75% reduction in shootings of fleeing felons; and, strikingly, a reduction in the number of police officer deaths by shooting.

It would appear then, that changes in policy alone may have an important impact on police practices and behavior. Yet, Manning's (1977)

contention that the vast discretion vested in police officers represents perhaps the most important obstruction to policy implementation should not be taken lightly.

Our review of the literature in the police-community relations field indicates that there has been tremendous activity in police departments across the country in the last decade to implement various programs designed to "improve policy-community relations". The literature also reveals that most of these programs have been designed primarily to improve the police image in the community, that they have been initiated and maintained with federal or other outside funding, and tend not to be continued upon withdrawal of those funds, and that they have been poorly evaluated as to their actual impact on police-community relations. Some PCR programs have benefited members of the community and some have provided opportunities for citizen involvement in the planning and implementation of PCR programs.

Police-community relations in America has been characterized by continuing public criticism of the police on the one hand, and police efforts to counter that criticism, on the other. As community frustration and dissatisfaction with the police have grown, especially in the large urban areas, and public criticism of the police has intensified and become increasingly radical, the police have responded by making minor adjustments necessary to meet the immediate crisis and avoided comprehensive plans for change in response to community needs and demands.

Police-community relations programs have traditionally been developed by the police to resolve police-community conflict by changing the community

instead of the police. PCR programs have been designed to change community attitudes, opinions and perceptions through the provision of information and "opportunities for positive police-community contact" and through the projection of the appearance of substantive change by revision in superficial aspects of police operations, deployment modes, or supplemental services without any change in basic police practices and enforcement policy.

Given the basic intent of most PCR programs, it is not surprising then to find that they have not generally led to direct and meaningful involvement of citizens in police policymaking, and have not generally impacted police policy development or implementation.

As Washnis (1976) concludes, citizen involvement in crime prevention programs has generally not extended to police policy development. He found that police departments had changed in response to community crime prevention program requests in only three areas: manpower deployment, response time, and traffic; and that the changes in these areas were minor adjustments reflecting no change in major policy (i.e., assigning more personnel to a certain neighborhood or making reduction of response time to calls for service in a particular neighborhood a patrol priority). Washnis attributes the general ineffectiveness of community crime prevention committees or councils in impacting police policymaking to: the lack of resources of community groups; the lack of support from police leadership and rank and file for this kind of citizen involvement; and the lack of understanding of police personnel about the benefits of crime prevention programs.

B. Project Purposes and Objectives

The primary purposes of this exploratory study were twofold: 1) to improve our understanding of the police policy-making process, with particular emphasis on citizen participation in policy determination; and 2) to develop a model(s) for continuous citizen participation in police policy development, including the identification of those policy areas appropriate for such input, and the forum or mechanism to be employed.¹

Consistent with these two purposes, were the following four objectives: 1) to acquire a clearer understanding of the process and elements that go into the shaping of police policies; 2) to identify police policy areas where citizen input would be appropriate and practical; 3) to develop a model(s) that would allow for continuous citizen involvement and feedback in selected police policy areas, including implementation and evaluation considerations; and 4) to produce a report detailing the conclusions and recommendations pertaining to the preceding objectives.²

The following pages describe the methodology employed to achieve the project purposes and objectives as described above.

¹ Criminal Justice Research Solicitation: Citizen/Police Relations In Police Policy Setting. NILECJ/LEAA, Washington, DC, 1978, Page 1.

² Proposal: Citizen/Police Relations In Police Policy Setting. Institute For Research, Reston, VA, 1978, Page II-1.

METHODOLOGY

This section is divided into the following four major components:

- A) mail survey, B) phone survey, C) first-wave site visits, and D) second-wave site visits.

A. Mail Survey

The purpose of the mail survey was two-fold; one, to expand the boundaries of knowledge pertaining to the police policy making process; and two, to select a number of cities for preliminary and additional on-site inquiry.

The original project proposal suggested that research sites be selected from those cities with a population of 100,000 or more.³ Consistent with this suggestion, 156 cities with a population of 100,000 or more were mailed surveys.⁴

An additional 136 cities of less than 100,000 population were also selected. These cities were selected on the basis of the following three criteria: 1) Geographic Location: It appeared important to determine if there were important differences from region to region and from state to state in the nature of the police policy-setting process and the levels

³ Criminal Justice Research Solicitation: Citizen/Police Relations In Police Policy Setting. NILECJ/LEAA, Washington, DC, 1978.

⁴ Taken from listings in The Municipal Year Book 1978. International City Management Association, Washington, DC, 1978.

of participation in that process. Therefore, we included in the survey at least three cities from every state in the country.⁵ Surveying only those cities with populations of more than 100,000 would have excluded a number of states. Several New England and Rocky Mountain states, for example, have no cities with populations over 100,000. 2) City Population: It was apparent from an earlier review of the literature that some cities with populations of less than 100,000 had experimented with innovative approaches to police policy-making (Lawrence and Eisenberg, 1979). It appeared important then to determine if there were aspects of the police policymaking process which were more or less characteristic of smaller cities, as compared to those with populations of over 100,000. The possibility that the decision-making process in a smaller police department might be more easily defined and observed because of the smaller number of potential "players" in the process was worthy of further exploration. As an added research consideration, data related to decision making in a smaller police department might also be more accessible and manageable. Therefore, it was attempted to include in the survey at least one city from each state with a population in the 50,000 to 100,000 range. Cities in the 10,000-50,000 population range were also included if the number of cities in the over-100,000 or 50,000-100,000 categories was limited or nonexistent. 3) Indications in the Literature and Prior Knowledge of the Researchers: Some cities, regardless of geographic location or city population, were included in the survey because they had been cited in the literature as having exemplary projects

⁵ Hawaii was the single exception to this rule. We mailed surveys to Honolulu and Hilo only, since they were the only two Hawaiian cities listed in the yearbook's table of city profiles.

or processes related to police policy-setting and/or citizen participation. Other cities were included because they were known to the researchers, from personal experience, to have experimented with unique or innovative approaches to police policy-setting.

The survey instrument, a copy of which is included in Appendix A, was designed to facilitate ease of response and yield basic data about the police policy-setting process. Most of the items were constructed to require a simple checkmark, or yes or no response; open-ended questions were also included. The survey was pre-tested among a selected group of Bay Area police chiefs and various items were revised based upon their feedback. It was estimated, from the pre-test, that the survey would take no more than 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

The survey was mailed to 292 Sheriffs and Chiefs of Police in December of 1978 with a cover letter explaining the general goals of the research project, soliciting their cooperation, and setting a deadline for response.

Based upon the results of the mail survey, 48 cities were preliminarily selected for further study. To reduce these 48 eligible cities down to a more manageable number for in-depth, on-site study, a phone survey was conducted.

B. Phone Survey

A phone survey was conducted with the Chiefs of Police of each of the 48 cities. Appendix B contains the form used for these interviews. The major purposes of the phone survey were to verify information of interest reported on the mail survey form (e.g., alleged levels of community

involvement in police policy-making), to assess the Chief's willingness to cooperate further in the research, and to ascertain which policies, if any, have recently been or will be developed or revised.

The following six major criteria were employed for selecting cities for in-depth study: 1) geographic representation, 2) population representation, 3) willingness to participate in the research, 4) policy development/revision activity, 5) existence of written policy, and 6) evidence of past or present citizen participation in the police policy-making process.

The mail survey results, phone survey results, input from members of the Project Advisory Board, and indications from the literature review collectively resulted in the selection of the following sixteen (16) cities for preliminary study:

- Albuquerque, NM
- Gainesville, FL
- Aurora, CO
- Holyoke, MA
- Austin, TX
- Lakewood, CO
- Cambridge, MA
- Madison, WI
- Concord, NH
- St. Louis, MO
- Dayton, OH
- San Diego, CA
- Evanston, IL
- San Francisco, CA
- Fairfax County, VA
- Savannah, GA

C. First-Wave Site Visits

The basic purpose for visiting each of the sixteen (16) cities was to assess the nature and specifics of the citizen participation mechanism(s). Additionally, information was gathered on selected and pertinent city and police characteristics. Data collection forms used for these purposes may

be found in Appendix C.

Two days were spent in each of the sixteen (16) cities. People interviewed included the following: 1) Chief of Police, 2) police officers' association official, 3) city manager/mayor, 4) councilperson/similar, 5) representative of the news media, 6) police liaison person to the policy mechanism of interest, 7) citizen liaison person to the policy mechanism of interest, 8) local criminal justice professor, and 9) two records/data personnel from the city and from the police department. Each of these ten types of people were contacted and interviewed personally by project staff in each of the 16 first-wave sites.

Upon completion of each city, site visit reports were prepared. These reports addressed the following four broad categories: 1) city and police characteristics, including the rationale for including the city as a first-wave site; 2) historical antecedents pertaining to police-community relations, policymaking, and citizen participation; 3) current mechanism(s) of interest, including a listing of all people interviewed; and 4) implications for model construction, and selection as a second-wave site.

The first-wave site visits were initiated in May, and completed five months later in October of 1979.

D. Second-Wave Site Visits

Upon completion of all sixteen (16) first-wave site visits, the data were analyzed and six (6) cities were selected for further in-depth study.

Criteria employed for selecting the second-wave sites consisted of:

1) accessibility of the required data, and anticipated cooperation from the selected city and police department; 2) applicability and generalizability of the citizen participation mechanism(s) of interest to other cities/jurisdictions; and 3) geographic and population representativeness of the six second-wave sites.

On site visits of one week duration were conducted in each of the following cities:

- Aurora, CO
- Concord, NH
- Dayton, OH
- Madison, WI
- St. Louis, MO
- San Diego, CA

In addition to gathering additional information on the characteristics of the six cities and police departments, with particular emphasis on the policymaking mechanism(s) of interest, the following two forms of data were collected: 1) attitudes of seven different types of people on seven different types of police policy areas in regards to the perceived appropriateness of input in policy development; and 2) the tracking of selected police policy revision or development efforts having broad-based input into the process.

Attitude data pertaining to the perceived appropriateness of input in the police policy making process was acquired from the following seven groups of respondents in each of the six second-wave cities: 1) police chief, 2) supervisory and command personnel, 3) line police, 4) local government officials, 5) local residents, 6) business interest groups,

and 7) judges and attorneys. The following seven policy areas were employed: 1) use of force, 2) processing of citizen complaints, 3) enforcement priorities, 4) police promotion, 5) handling domestic violence cases, 6) stop and frisk, and 7) gathering police intelligence information.

Respondents were instructed to select one of the following involvement codes for each group and each policy: 1) not appropriate, 2) review, 3) influence, and 4) decide. There were therefore a total of 49 responses per respondent. A copy of this data collection instrument may be found in Appendix D.

The tracking of selected police policy revision or development efforts having broad-based input into the process was acquired by interviewing key personnel in each of the six cities using the form found in Appendix E.

The second-wave site visits were initiated in November of 1979, and completed six months later in May of 1980.

RESULTS

Project results are presented in the following three major sections: A) mail survey data, B) first-wave site visit data, and C) second-wave site visit data.

A. Mail Survey Data

As described earlier in the Methodology section, a mail survey was conducted of 292 police and sheriffs' departments throughout the United States. The results of this survey are presented below in regards to: 1) response to survey, 2) participation in police policy development, 3) influence in structuring police policy, 4) citizen advisory groups, 5) written policy, 6) citizen surveys, 7) research project cooperation, 8) level of participation by non-police management groups, 9) model police departments, and 10) survey summary.

1. Response To Survey

Complete responses were forwarded by 182, or 62%, of all cities which were mailed surveys. One or more municipal or county police departments in 47 states responded.

Chart 1 contains a listing of states, organized by region, and the number of cities in each state which responded. Responses were received from 100% of the cities surveyed in the following five states: Oregon, Nebraska, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Delaware. No responses were received from cities in the following four states: Hawaii, Indiana, Tennessee, and Wyoming.

Chart 2 indicates that cities responded in numbers proportional to

CHART 1
RESPONSE TO SURVEY
BY STATE

<u>WEST</u>	<u>MOUNTAIN</u>	
ALASKA (1)	ARIZONA (2)	
CALIFORNIA (32)	COLORADO (4)	
NEVADA (1)	IDAHO (2)	
OREGON (4)	MONTANA (2)	
WASHINGTON (3)	NEW MEXICO (2)	
	UTAH (2)	
<u>CENTRAL</u>	<u>SOUTH</u>	<u>EAST</u>
ILLINOIS (2)	ALABAMA (2)	CONNECTICUT (3)
IOWA (4)	ARKANSAS (1)	DELAWARE (3)
KANSAS (3)	FLORIDA (10)	DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA (1)
MICHIGAN (5)	GEORGIA (5)	MAINE (1)
MINNESOTA (4)	KENTUCKY (2)	MASSACHUSETTES (3)
MISSOURI (5)	LOUISIANA (5)	MARYLAND (3)
NEBRASKA (3)	MISSISSIPPI (3)	NEW HAMPSHIRE (1)
NORTH DAKOTA (2)	NORTH CAROLINA (4)	NEW JERSEY (3)
OKLAHOMA (3)	SOUTH CAROLINA (3)	NEW YORK (4)
OHIO (6)	VIRGINIA (10)	PENNSYLVANIA (2)
SOUTH DAKOTA (2)	WEST VIRGINIA (1)	ROHDE ISLAND (1)
TEXAS (12)		VERMONT (2)
WISCONSIN (3)		

() = Number of cities responding within the state.

CHART 2
RESPONSE TO SURVEY BY POPULATION AND GEOGRAPHY

POPULATION CATEGORIES	# of Cities Surveyed (% of Total)	# of Completed Responses (% of Responses)	Response Rate	Number of Cities Responding				
				West	Mountain	Central	South	East
1 Million +	6 (2)	1 (1)	17%	1	0	0	0	0
500,000 - 1 M.	19 (7)	14 (8)	74%	3	1	5	3	2
250,000-500,000	35 (12)	25 (14)	71%	5	2	10	6	2
100,000-250,000	96 (33)	57 (31)	59%	13	2	16	19	7
All Cities Over 100,000	156 (53)	97 (53)	62%	22	5	31	28	11
50,000-100,000	88 (30)	56 (31)	64%	13	7	18	12	6
25,000-50,000	38 (13)	25 (14)	66%	6	2	5	5	7
10,000-25,000	10 (3)	4 (2)	40%	0	0	0	1	3
TOTALS	292 (100)	182 (100)	62%					

GEOGRAPHIC REGIONS				Number of Cities Responding						
				1 M.+	500 K-1 M.	250 K-500 K	100 K-250 K	50 K-100 K	25 K-50 K	10 K-25 K
West	59 (20)	41 (23)	70%	1	3	5	13	13	6	0
Mountain	25 (9)	14 (8)	56%	0	1	2	2	7	2	0
Central	82 (28)	54 (30)	66%	0	5	10	16	18	5	0
South	70 (24)	46 (25)	66%	0	3	6	19	12	5	1
East	56 (19)	27 (15)	48%	0	2	2	7	6	7	3
TOTALS	292 (100%)	182 (100%)	62%							

M. = Million

K = Thousand



their representation in the total original sample. For example, the 156 cities with populations over 100,000 comprised 53% of the total survey sample of 292 cities; the 97 cities in this population category which responded to the survey also represent 53% of the total responses received. This close proportional relationship between cities surveyed and cities responding is consistent through each population category and in all geographic regions.

The final sample of survey responses is primarily composed of cities in the West, Central, and South regions (78% of total response) and in the population range from 50,000 to 250,000 (62% of all cities responding).

Within population categories, the highest rate of response to the survey was from departments in cities with a population from 500,000 to 1 million. Of the 19 cities surveyed in this category, 14 or 74% completed and returned the survey; cities with a population from 250,000 to 500,000 also had a high response rate (71%). The lowest rates of response were from cities in the highest and lowest population categories; 1 of 6 (17%) cities with a population over 1 million, and 4 of 10 (40%) cities with populations between 10,000 and 50,000 responded.

Within geographic regions, cities in the West region were most likely to respond to the survey. Some 70% of the cities in the West region responded, compared to an average 62% response rate for all regions, and a low response rate of 48% for cities in the East region.

2. Participation In Police Policy Development

The first survey item listed 24 groups in the four general categories of: police department personnel (seven groups), city officials (five groups),

criminal justice system professionals (five groups), and community groups (seven groups). The respondents were asked to indicate which of these groups as a general practice participate directly in the development of police policy. The responses to this question are detailed in Chart 3.

It is apparent that in the majority of police departments, participation in the development of policy is limited to top and middle management staff. All of the departments reported top management staff involvement, with some respondents qualifying their response by indicating that only the Chief of Police participates in this process. A majority of all departments reported involving mid-management and supervisory police personnel in policy development (i.e., 86% and 63%, respectively).

Outside of police personnel, the city attorney is the individual most likely to be involved in policy development, with 50 percent of all respondents indicating participation by that city official. City attorneys are more likely to be directly involved than detective and line police officers, police officer associations, civilian police employees, or any other group. Some 40% of the police departments indicated that the City Manager was directly involved in the policy development process. Of all categories, the groups least likely to be directly involved in police policy development are other city department heads (14%) followed closely by community groups (16%). Among the "other" participants added to the list of 24 groups by respondents were: police legal advisors; district attorneys; the director of a public safety agency; Police Boards, Commissions, and other city/county-wide advisory committees; the city labor relations director; the state bureau of investigation; the state legislature; news media; and community service agency

representatives. The most frequently cited of these participants was the public safety agency director, with five departments indicating their involvement. Groups written in as "other" participants were cited by only one or two police departments.

It is interesting to note that with one or two exceptions (e.g., city attorney) as one moves from left to right across Chart 3, participation in police policy development diminishes from a high of 100% to a low of approximately 15 percent.

Analysis of the responses by geographic region reveals that police line supervisors are involved in policy development by a majority of departments (63%) in all regions except the East (37%). Western, Mountain and Central states reported the highest rates of involvement of line supervisors at approximately 70%.

Police departments in the Central region are most likely to involve detective and line police officers in policy development; 61% of these departments reported their direct involvement as a general practice. The only other region where a majority of departments reported general involvement of line officers and detectives in this process was the Mountain region (57%).

West police departments reported the highest rate of participation in policy development by police officer association representatives (66%); almost double the rate of the average department (35%) and five times the rate of the lowest region (i.e., South at 13%).

Civilian police employees are more likely to be involved in policy

CHART 3

PARTICIPATION IN POLICE POLICY DEVELOPMENT

	POLICE PERSONNEL						CITY OFFICIALS					CJS PERSONNEL	COMMUNITY GROUPS
	TOP	MID	SUP	DET. & LINE	POA	CIV	MGR	MAYOR	DEPT. HEADS	ATTNY	COUNCIL		
TOTALS N=182	182 (100%)	156 (86%)	114 (63%)	84 (46%)	63 (35%)	61 (34%)	72 (40%)	46 (25%)	26 (14%)	90 (50%)	41 (23%)	50 (27%)	29 (16%)
GEOGRAPHIC REGION													
WEST N=41	41 (100%)	40 (98)	29 (71)	19 (46)	27 (66)	21 (51)	20 (49)	8 (20)	8 (20)	19 (46)	12 (29)	13 (32)	9 (22)
MOUNTAIN N=14	14 (100%)	12 (86)	10 (71)	8 (57)	5 (36)	6 (43)	9 (64)	5 (36)	2 (14)	9 (64)	4 (29)	5 (36)	2 (14)
CENTRAL N=54	54 (100%)	50 (93)	38 (70)	33 (61)	18 (33)	15 (28)	19 (35)	18 (33)	9 (17)	32 (59)	14 (26)	16 (30)	9 (17)
SOUTH N=46	46 (100%)	36 (78)	27 (59)	18 (39)	6 (13)	14 (30)	15 (33)	8 (17)	4 (9)	21 (46)	5 (11)	12 (26)	6 (13)
EAST N=27	27 (100%)	18 (67)	10 (37)	6 (22)	7 (26)	5 (19)	9 (33)	7 (26)	3 (11)	9 (33)	6 (22)	4 (15)	3 (11)
POPULATION													
250,000 + N=40	40 (100%)	33 (83)	19 (46)	14 (35)	13 (33)	10 (25)	11 (28)	12 (30)	4 (10)	17 (43)	10 (25)	10 (25)	5 (13)
100,000 - 250,000 N=57	57 (100%)	48 (84)	34 (60)	23 (40)	17 (30)	23 (40)	20 (35)	17 (30)	10 (18)	29 (51)	15 (26)	16 (28)	10 (18)
50,000 - 100,000 N=56	56 (100%)	53 (95)	43 (77)	32 (57)	26 (46)	19 (34)	30 (54)	10 (18)	7 (13)	27 (48)	8 (14)	15 (27)	10 (18)
10,000 - 50,000 N=29	29 (100%)	22 (76)	18 (62)	15 (52)	7 (24)	9 (31)	11 (38)	7 (24)	5 (17)	17 (59)	8 (28)	9 (31)	4 (14)

development in the West and Mountain states. A majority of West departments reported this practice (51%), compared to an average of 34% in all regions.

City managers are involved in the police policy development process by 64% of the departments in the Mountain region. This compares to an average rate of involvement of 40% for all regions.

Mountain departments are also more likely than those in other regions to involve the city attorney in the police policy process; 64% report involvement of the city attorney as a general practice. The Central region is the only other area in which a majority (59%) of those responding reported this practice. However, the West and South regions also reported substantial involvement of the city attorney (i.e., 46%).

City officials other than the city manager and city attorney (e.g., city department heads, mayor and council people) are not likely to be involved in police policy development by departments in any region.

Criminal justice professionals and community groups are usually not involved in the police policy development process in most police departments regardless of location. West departments were most likely to report direct community involvement; 22% compared to an average 16% of all regions. Mountain departments reported the highest rate of involvement of criminal justice professionals at 36%.

Analysis of responses to this item by city population suggests that police departments in cities with populations under 100,000 are most likely to involve police personnel at all levels in the policy development process. An average 70% of departments in cities under 100,000 reported involving

first line supervisors in the process, compared to an average 53% of those in cities over 100,000.

Some 55% of departments in cities with populations less than 100,000 reported the direct involvement of line police officers in policy development. This is in contrast to the average of 38% of departments in cities over 100,000 which involve line officers in this process.

Although a majority of departments in all population categories do not involve police officer association representatives in policy development, those in mid-sized cities between 50,000 and 100,000 are slightly more likely to do so, with 46% indicating their direct involvement as a general practice. Less than 1/3 of departments in all other population categories involve the police association.

Cities with less than 100,000 population reported city manager involvement in police policy development process at a rate of approximately 46%. In contrast, cities over 100,000 reported a rate of approximately 32%.

The city attorney is involved by about half of the departments in all cities with a high of 59% in smaller cities under 50,000, and a low of 43% in larger cities over 250,000.

City councils and other city officials are not likely to participate in police policy development in departments in any population category.

There were no important differences among population categories in the level of involvement of criminal justice professionals and community groups in the police policy development process. They were not likely to be

involved in any city of any size. Approximately 1/4 of the police departments in all cities reported participation by criminal justice professionals and even less by community groups (i.e., 16%).

Generally, with regards to participation in the police policy development process, the survey results suggest that the broadest participation by those outside police management staff occurs slightly more in police departments located in cities with a population of 50,000-100,000 and cities in the West and Mountain regions of the country. East and South region police departments and those in cities with populations over 250,000 consistently reported the lowest rate of participation in the policy development process by every group outside of police top management. In most police departments, regardless of the region or size of city in which they are located, direct participation, on the average, rarely extends beyond police department personnel, city attorney, and the city manager.

3. Influence In Structuring Police Policy

The second survey item asked the respondents to identify those groups or conditions which have the authority to set or structure one or more policies of their law enforcement agency. The alternatives listed included: Civil Service Commission (CSC), Police Commission (PC), Union Contract or Memorandum of Understanding (MOU), State Law Enforcement Standards Organization (POST), and Crime Commission (CC). Space was provided for writing in any alternatives not listed (other). The results of this item are displayed in Chart 4.

Overall, it appears that Civil Service Commissions, State Standards

CHART 4

SET OR STRUCTURE POLICY

	CSC	PC	MOU	POST	CC	OTHER
TOTALS N=182	105 (58%)	28 (15%)	84 (46%)	103 (57%)	6 (3%)	48 (26%)
GEOGRAPHIC REGION						
WEST N=41	21 (51)	3 (7)	28 (68)	29 (71)	0	9 (22)
MOUNTAIN N=14	8 (57)	2 (14)	4 (29)	9 (64)	0	2 (14)
CENTRAL N=54	34 (63)	13 (24)	26 (48)	28 (52)	4 (7)	15 (28)
SOUTH N=46	25 (54)	1 (2)	10 (22)	27 (59)	0	14 (30)
EAST N=27	17 (63)	9 (33)	16 (59)	10 (37)	2 (7)	8 (30)
POPULATION						
250,000 + N=40	26 (65)	5 (13)	21 (53)	15 (38)	1 (3)	12 (30)
100,000 - 250,000 N=57	35 (61)	6 (11)	29 (51)	36 (63)	1 (2)	14 (25)
50,000 - 100,000 N=56	30 (54)	8 (14)	26 (46)	36 (64)	3 (5)	16 (29)
10,000 - 50,000 N=29	14 (48)	9 (31)	8 (28)	16 (55)	1 (4)	6 (21)

Organizations, and Union Contracts or Memorandums of Understanding have substantial impact on the setting or structuring of law enforcement policy. Some 58% of the police departments indicated that their policy is determined to some extent by Civil Service Commissions. State Standards Organizations can set or structure policy in 57% of the departments responding. Nearly half (46%) of the departments said that Union Contracts or Memorandums of Understanding could influence the setting or structuring of department policy.

Many respondents qualified their response to this item by noting that, although they may have checked one or more of the alternatives listed, this did not necessarily mean that the group's authority to influence police policy was exercised or that the department involved that group in setting or structuring policy.

More departments in the West region than any other geographic area reported the influence of Memorandums of Understanding (68%). This is in contrast to a low of 22% in the South region. State Standards Organizations apparently play a much larger role in the West region (71%) than in the East region (37%).

Civil Service Commissions exert more influence over police policy in the larger cities and their influence apparently diminishes as city size decreases. This same phenomenon applies to memorandums of understanding, which are cited by 53% of cities in the largest population category and only by 28% of those with populations under 50,000.

State Standards Organizations are reportedly less influential in the larger population centers (38%).

The influence of Police Commissions is apparently limited to smaller cities. Nearly a third (31%) of cities with populations under 50,000 report that Police Commissions have the authority to set or structure police policy. This authority is cited by an average of only 15% of respondents from all cities.

The "other" influences in setting or structuring police policy which were written in by respondents included: the police chief or public safety director; city councils; mayors; city managers; prosecuting attorneys; local courts; city personnel departments; LEAA; state legislatures; city attorneys; and a city commission, police advisory committee, or general orders committee. These write-ins were previously discussed and accommodated in the first survey question.

4. Citizen Advisory Group

The response to survey item number three, detailed in Chart 5, indicates that most police departments (82%) do not have active citizen advisory groups in their jurisdictions which participate in the development of police policy.

Due to the small numbers, it is difficult to attach any significance to percentage differences which are slightly apparent on the basis of geographic region and population.

5. Written Policy

The responses to survey items five through eight shown in Chart 6 indicate that all police departments surveyed put at least some policy in writing (85%), and that the majority of all departments, regardless of size and location, put all policy in writing as it is formulated. Some 15% indicated

CHART 5

CITIZEN ADVISORY GROUPS

	YES	NO
TOTALS N=182	30 (17%)	150 (82%)
GEOGRAPHIC REGION		
WEST (N=41)	9 (22%)	32 (78%)
MOUNTAIN (N=14)	4 (29%)	10 (71%)
CENTRAL (N=54)	8 (15%)	44 (82%)
SOUTH (N=46)	5 (11%)	41 (89%)
EAST (N=27)	4 (15%)	23 (85%)
POPULATION		
250,000 + (N=40)	10 (25%)	29 (73%)
100,000-250,000 (N=57)	9 (16%)	47 (83%)
50,000-100,000 (N=56)	5 (9%)	51 (91%)
10,000-50,000 (N=29)	6 (21%)	23 (79%)

CHART 6

POLICY IN WRITING AND POLICY DEVELOPMENT/REVISION

	POLICY IN WRITING			POLICY DEVELOPMENT/REVISION		
	YES	NO	DEPENDS	PAST	PRESENT	FUTURE
TOTALS N=182	154 (85%)	0	27 (15%)	163 (90%)	159 (87%)	162 (89%)
GEOGRAPHIC REGION						
WEST N=41	39 (95)	0	2 (5)	39 (95)	39 (95)	41 (100)
MOUNTAIN N=14	10 (71)	0	4 (29)	13 (93)	11 (79)	12 (86)
CENTRAL N=54	49 (91)	0	5 (9)	51 (94)	45 (83)	43 (80)
SOUTH N=46	39 (85)	0	6 (13)	40 (87)	40 (87)	40 (87)
EAST N=27	17 (63)	0	10 (37)	20 (74)	24 (89)	26 (96)
POPULATION						
250,000 + N=40	36 (90)	0	4 (10)	38 (95)	34 (85)	37 (93)
100,000 - 250,000 N=57	46 (81)	0	11 (19)	48 (84)	51 (90)	51 (90)
50,000 - 100,000 N=56	48 (86)	0	7 (13)	51 (91)	52 (93)	48 (86)
10,000 - 50,000 N=29	24 (83)	0	5 (17)	26 (90)	24 (83)	26 (90)

that it "depends" on the policy. Further, it is clear that most departments are involved in a constant process of policy revision and development.

A greater percentage of departments in the West and Central regions (95% and 91%) stated without qualification that they put policy in writing. This compares to an average of 85% of departments in all regions. East police departments appear more likely to qualify their response to this item, with 37% of those respondents indicating that the nature of the policy determines whether or not it will be put in writing. Mountain departments were similar.

Comparing the responses by population, there appears to be little difference among the various categories regarding written policy.

Most departments have recently revised or developed new policy, are currently involved in that process, and anticipate further such activity in the next six months. Neither geographic or population differences are evident.

6. Citizen Surveys

Respondents were asked in item number nine if their agency had conducted any citizen surveys in the past twelve months. Some 60% of the departments indicated that they had not. As described in Chart 7, 11 of the 182 departments, or 6%, planned to conduct a citizen survey within the next 12 months.

East region departments had conducted citizen surveys the most frequently (44%); Mountain region departments the least frequently (21%).

No department in the Central or Eastern regions planned to conduct

CHART 7

CITIZEN SURVEYS

CITIZEN SURVEY			
	PLANNED	NO	YES
TOTALS N=182	11 (6%)	109 (60%)	63 (35%)
GEOGRAPHIC REGION			
WEST N=41	5 (12)	25 (61)	14 (34)
MOUNTAIN N=14	1 (7)	10 (71)	3 (21)
CENTRAL N=54	0	37 (69)	16 (30)
SOUTH N=46	5 (11)	23 (50)	18 (39)
EAST N=27	0	14 (52)	12 (44)
POPULATION			
250,000 + N=40	3 (8)	20 (50)	18 (45)
100,000 - 250,000 N=57	6 (11)	34 (60)	18 (32)
50,000 - 100,000 N=56	2 (4)	37 (66)	16 (29)
10,000 - 50,000 N=29	0	18 (62)	11 (38)

citizen surveys in the next twelve months. West and South departments comprised 10 of the 11 cities planning surveys, with all five of the West cities located in the state of California.

Of the 11 cities planning to conduct citizen surveys in the next twelve months, six are located in cities with populations of 100,000-250,000; no city with population under 50,000 planned a survey.

Those citizen surveys which had been conducted or were planned were primarily concerned with determining levels of citizen satisfaction, attitudes toward police services, and defining areas of need as perceived by citizens. Some surveys cited were city-wide in scope and covered all city services. Victimization rates and crime prevention information have also been topics of citizen surveys conducted by police departments.

7. Research Project Cooperation

As revealed in Chart 8, 21% of all departments responding did not wish to be considered for selection as one of the research sites for this project on policy-setting. Most departments (66%) expressed interest in participating in the research project. Of the 11% expressing a qualified interest, most cited concerns about manpower and time, and requested additional information about demands on the time of department personnel if they were to participate.

West police departments were more likely to indicate an interest in participating in the survey; 76% indicated yes and 10% maybe. East police departments were least interested, with 30% saying they would not participate.

CHART 8
RESEARCH PROJECT COOPERATION

	YES	NO	MAYBE
TOTALS N=182	120 (66%)	39 (21%)	20 (11%)
GEOGRAPHIC REGION			
WEST N=41	31 (76)	5 (12)	4 (10)
MOUNTAIN N=14	10 (72)	2 (14)	2 (14)
CENTRAL N=54	31 (57)	13 (24)	10 (19)
SOUTH N=46	31 (67)	11 (24)	3 (7)
EAST N=27	17 (63)	8 (30)	1 (4)
POPULATION			
250,000 + N=40	21 (53)	12 (30)	5 (13)
100,000 - 250,000 N=57	31 (54)	17 (30)	8 (14)
50,000 - 100,000 N=56	43 (76)	7 (13)	6 (11)
10,000 - 50,000 N=29	25 (86)	3 (10)	1 (4)

There appeared to be a direct relationship between city size and the department's willingness to participate in the research project. Generally, the smaller the city, the more likely they were to respond positively to this item. Approximately 82% of departments in cities with populations under 100,000 said they would be willing to cooperate, compared to 54% of those in cities over 100,000.

8. Level Of Participation By Non-Police Management Groups

The survey data were further analyzed in an attempt to determine if departments in a given geographic region or population category which had the highest rate of participation in the policy development process by one group would also be more likely to involve other groups in that process. We are interested in knowing, for example, if the geographic region or population category with the highest percentage of active advisory groups would also show the highest rate of participation in policy development by line police officers, community, and other groups.

The participant groups isolated for this analysis included: police supervisors, line police officers, city managers, mayors, city department heads, city attorneys, city councils, criminal justice professionals, community groups, and advisory groups. The survey results for these ten groups are combined in Chart 9.

There was no geographic region or population category which demonstrated the highest rate of involvement for all ten groups. No population category contained a majority of the highest responses. However, cities in the 50,000-100,000 category had the highest rate of involvement for four groups: line supervisors, line officers, city managers, and community groups. This

CHART 9

	POLICE PARTICIPATION			CITY PARTICIPATION				OTHER		ADVISORY GROUP
	SUP	LINE	MGR	MAYOR	DEPT HEADS	ATTNY	COUN.	CJS	COMM	YES
TOTALS N=182	114 (63%)	84 (46%)	72 (40%)	46 (25%)	26 (14%)	90 (50%)	41 (23%)	50 (27%)	29 (16%)	30 (17%)
GEOGRAPHIC REGION										
WEST N=41	29 (71)	19 (46)	20 (49)	8 (20)	8 (20)	19 (46)	12 (29)	13 (32)	9 (22)	9 (22)
MOUNTAIN N=14	10 (71)	8 (57)	9 (64)	5 (36)	2 (14)	9 (64)	4 (29)	5 (36)	2 (14)	4 (29)
CENTRAL N=54	38 (70)	33 (61)	19 (35)	18 (33)	9 (17)	32 (59)	14 (26)	16 (30)	9 (17)	8 (15)
SOUTH N=46	27 (59)	18 (39)	15 (33)	8 (17)	4 (9)	21 (46)	5 (11)	12 (26)	6 (13)	5 (11)
EAST N=27	10 (37)	6 (22)	9 (33)	7 (26)	3 (11)	9 (33)	6 (22)	4 (15)	3 (11)	4 (15)
POPULATION										
250,000 + N=40	19 (46)	14 (35)	11 (28)	12 (30)	4 (10)	17 (43)	10 (25)	10 (25)	5 (13)	10 (25)
100,000 - 250,000 N=57	34 (60)	23 (40)	20 (35)	17 (30)	10 (18)	29 (51)	15 (26)	16 (28)	10 (18)	9 (16)
50,000 - 100,000 N=56	43 (77)	32 (57)	30 (54)	10 (18)	7 (13)	27 (48)	8 (14)	15 (27)	10 (18)	5 (9)
10,000 - 50,000 N=29	18 (62)	15 (52)	11 (38)	7 (24)	5 (17)	17 (59)	8 (28)	9 (31)	4 (14)	6 (21)

was the highest overall level of involvement for any population category. The highest rates of participation for all six other groups were spread out among the other population categories.

The region with the highest rate of involvement for police supervisors, the Mountain states, was also the region with the highest overall level of involvement for many other groups. Departments in the Mountain region had the highest rate of response for seven of the 10 groups: supervisors, city managers, mayors, city attorneys, city councils, community groups, and advisory groups. The highest rates for the other 3 groups were found in the West and Central region departments. The South and East region departments had the lowest rates of collective involvement among the ten groups.

In general, regardless of city size and location, the highest rate of direct participation in the development of police policy by any one group outside of police management did not necessarily lead to the highest rate of involvement of any other groups in that process.

Indeed, the opposite relationship sometimes appeared to occur. For example, the Central region departments and those in cities with populations between 50,000 and 100,000, which were most likely to involve line police officers in policy development were also among the least likely to have active citizen advisory groups.

If the analysis is broadened to include the region and population categories with the highest and second highest rates of involvement for any given group, some general trends do emerge.

Of the five geographic regions, the Mountain departments have the

highest or second highest rate of participation by all groups except city department heads and community groups. Compared to other population categories, the smallest cities (populations of 10,000 to 50,000) have the highest or second highest levels of participation in police policy development by all ten groups.

9. Model Police Departments

Given the apparent randomness of the relationship between city size and location, and maximum participation in police policy development, the survey data were searched to identify those specific departments which reported the most participative policy development process. Departments had to meet four specific criteria in order to qualify as "model" departments. They must have indicated that line police officers, criminal justice professionals, and community groups participate directly in policy development; and that a citizen advisory group is actively involved in police policy development.

Chart 10 displays the results of this data search. Eleven cities, representing 6% of the total survey response, were identified which claimed to meet all four criteria. If the criteria for participation by criminal justice professionals was eliminated, three additional cities met all the remaining criteria. If the criteria for both criminal justice professional and advisory group participation were eliminated, eight additional cities emerge.

The "model" departments, meeting all four criteria, were found in every region except the East and were distributed fairly evenly in every population category. Five West region departments met all the criteria for

CHART 10
CITIES WITH A PARTICIPATIVE POLICY-MAKING PROCESS

GEOGRAPHIC REGION	Number of Cities and Percent					Total
	West	Mountain	Central	South	East	
All Criteria	5 (12%)	1 (7%)	3 (6%)	2 (4%)	0	11 (6%)
All Criteria except CJS Participation	0	0	2 (4%)	0	1 (4%)	3 (2%)
All Criteria except CJS Participation & Advisory Group	2 (5%)	1 (7%)	3 (6%)	2 (4%)	0	8 (4%)
POPULATION	Number of Cities and Percent					Total
	250,000-1 M.	100,000-250,000	50,000-100,000	10,000-50,000		
All Criteria	3 (8%)	4 (7%)	2 (4%)	2 (7%)		11 (6%)
All Criteria except CJS Participation	0	3 (5%)	0	0		3 (2%)
All Criteria except CJS Participation & Advisory Group	1 (3%)	1 (2%)	6(11%)	0		8 (4%)

maximum participation; four of these five departments are located in California.

All eleven departments meeting all four criteria for maximum participation also put all policy in writing, revise and develop police policy as an on-going process, and expressed willingness to participate in the research project as one of the survey sites. Ten of the eleven departments have either conducted citizen surveys in the past twelve months or plan such a survey in the next twelve months.

10. Survey Summary

Police department policy is most often developed by police personnel at the top and middle command levels with less frequent involvement of other groups within the department, city, and community.

Most police departments do not, as a general practice, directly involve police personnel outside the management group in the policy development process. However, a substantial number of departments do involve police supervisors, detectives and line personnel, police officer association representatives, the city manager, and the city attorney.

Geographic and population differences are evident but not easily interpreted. Generally, the West, Mountain, and Central region departments evidence more broad scale participation in the policy setting process than do those departments in the South and East regions.

The city attorney, and to a lesser extent the city manager, are the only city officials who appear to be directly involved in police policy development.

Community groups and criminal justice professionals are rarely involved directly in police policy development. With the exception of city department heads, community groups are the least frequently involved in the police policy-setting process of all groups studied in this survey.

In setting or structuring law enforcement policy, police officials are often influenced by Civil Service Commissions, State Standards Organizations, and Union Contracts or Memorandums of Understanding. Union Contracts and Memorandums of Understanding were most influential in West and East region departments, and those in the larger cities. While a majority of departments in all regions acknowledged the influence of Civil Service Commissions in setting or structuring police policy, the extent of influence increased with city size.

Citizen advisory committees do not play an active role in the development of police policy. The very small minority of police departments which do work with citizen committees in policy development are most likely to be found in the West and Mountain states and in the largest (over 250,000) and smallest (under 50,000) cities.

All of the responding police departments put most policies in writing and the vast majority of agencies are involved in constant revision and development of policy as an on-going process.

Most of the departments responding had not conducted citizen surveys in the past twelve months, and few of the respondents plan such a survey in the next twelve months. Citizen surveys were conducted or planned in order to assess citizen satisfaction, determine attitudes toward police services, define community needs for police services as perceived by

citizens, and to obtain victimization and provide crime prevention information.

Most of the departments responding were willing to cooperate further in this research project as possible sites for in-depth study. In some departments, this spirit of cooperation was tempered by considerations of requirements on the time of department personnel. West region police departments and those in cities of less than 100,000 people were most likely to be willing to cooperate. East region departments were least likely to want to get further involved in the project.

Cities with the highest rate of direct participation in police policy development by one group, outside of police management, do not necessarily have the highest rate of involvement for other groups in any region or population category. Departments with the highest rates of participation by police supervisors are likely to be more generally participative, but the other groups involved were not consistent when region and population categories were combined. Departments in cities with populations under 50,000 are more likely to have higher rates of participation for all groups as compared to other population categories.

Only eleven of the 182 departments who completed the survey claimed to directly involve line police officers, community groups, and criminal justice professionals in the policy development process, and to work with citizen advisory groups in policy development. Departments with this high level of participation were found in all geographic regions except the East, and in every population category. Four, or 36%, of these eleven departments are located in California. No other state represented in this sample

evidenced near as many cities with such broad involvement in police policymaking.

The survey clearly indicated that, in general, line police officers and especially citizen groups do not participate in the development of police policy. Thus, neither that group which must implement police policy in day-to-day interactions with citizens, nor that group "for whose good" police services are rendered, have direct input in determining the policies which shape the nature of police services and the manner in which they are delivered. Police departments with a truly participative policy development process are rare. They appear with apparent randomness in various geographic regions and population categories throughout the United States.

B. First-Wave Site Visit Data

From each of the selected sixteen (16) first-wave sites, data were collected on five (5) city characteristics, seven (7) police characteristics, and nine (9) citizen participation characteristics.

The five (5) city characteristics were comprised of the following variables:

- Population - The most recent population of the city.
- Percent Minority - The percentage of minority population as part of the total population.
- Form of Local Government - The form of local government in the city.
- Major College/University - The existence of a major college or university in the city.
- Square Mile Area - The geographic size of the city measured in square miles.

The seven (7) police characteristics were comprised of the following variables:

- Sworn Personnel - The number of sworn police personnel in the city.
- Percent Civilian - The percentage of civilian personnel as part of total police personnel.
- Percent Minority - The percentage of sworn minority police personnel to total sworn personnel.
- Percent Minority Difference - The percentage difference between the percentages of minority sworn police personnel and minority population.

- Budget Format - The type of budget used in the police department.
- Police Officers Association - The type of police officers association in the city.
- Police Chief's Style - The style/philosophy of the Chief of Police in regards to police-community relations and citizen participation in the police policy making process.

The nine (9) citizen participation characteristics were comprised of the following variables:

- History of Pressure for CRB - The history of pressure for a Civilian Review Board governing police practice in the city.
- Current Mechanism(s) - The formal name of the citizen participation mechanism and its present status.
- Type of Mechanism(s) - The type of citizen participation mechanism in the city.
- Sponsor of Mechanism(s) - The form of sponsorship of the citizen participation mechanism in the city.
- Initiating Event(s) - The event(s) or incident(s) which initiated the citizen participation mechanism.
- Membership of Formal Mechanism(s) - The number and types of individuals comprising the citizen participation mechanism.
- Role of Formal Mechanism(s) - The impact that the citizen participation mechanism has on police policy formulation.

- Initiator of Formal Mechanism(s) - The source of initiation of mechanism involvement in police policy formulation.
- Policy Areas Addressed - The police policy areas addressed by the citizen participation mechanism.

1. Summary of City, Police, and Citizen Participation Characteristics

Table 1 depicts the five (5) city characteristic variables for each of the sixteen (16) first-wave sites. Populations ranged from under 50,000 to over 500,000 people; percent minority population ranged from 0.2 percent to 61 percent; there were 5/16 mayor/council and 11/16 council/manager forms of local government; 10/16 cities had major colleges or universities; and the city geographic areas ranged from 7 to 400 square miles.

Table 2 illustrates the seven (7) police characteristic variables for each of the sixteen (16) first-wave sites. The number of sworn police personnel ranged from 63 to 2100; percent civilian personnel ranged from 15 percent to 35 percent; percent sworn minority ranged from 2 percent to 27 percent; percentage difference between minority sworn personnel and minority population ranged from +1.8 percent to -44.0 percent; there were 6/16 line item and 10/16 program budget formats; there were 5/16 social and 11/16 activist police officer associations; and 9/16 police chiefs demonstrated by virtue of their prior law enforcement assignments and police community relations activities a predisposition to seek citizen participation in the police policy-making process.

Table 3 depicts the nine (9) citizen participation characteristic variables for each of the sixteen (16) first-wave sites. History of

TABLE 1

SELECTED CITY CHARACTERISTICS

CITY	POPULATION	PERCENT MINORITY	FORM OF LOCAL GOV'T.	MAJOR COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY	SQ. MILE AREA
Concord	Under 50,000	0.2	Council/Manager	No	65
Holyoke	50,000-100,000	22.	Mayor/Council	No	21
Gainesville	"	23.	Council/Manager	Yes	31
Evanston	"	26.	Council/Manager	Yes	8
Cambridge	100,000-250,000	26.	Council/Manager	Yes	7
Lakewood	"	6.	Council/Manager	No	34
Aurora	"	5.	Council/Manager	No	59
Savannah	"	43	Council/Manager	No	58
Madison	"	5.	Mayor/Council	Yes	53
Dayton	"	40.	Council/Manager	No	51
Albuquerque	250,000-500,000	42.	Mayor/Council	Yes	95
Austin	"	28.	Council/Manager	Yes	115
St. Louis	Over 500,000	50.	Mayor/Council	Yes	61
Fairfax County	"	8.	Council/Manager	Yes	399
San Francisco	"	61.	Mayor/Council	Yes	42
San Diego	"	20.	Council/Manager	Yes	400

TABLE 2
SELECTED POLICE CHARACTERISTICS

CITY	SWORN PERSONNEL	PERCENT CIVILIAN	PERCENT MINORITY	PERCENT MINORITY DIFFERENCE	BUDGET FORMAT	POA	POLICE CHIEF'S STYLE
Concord	63	19	2	+ 1.8	Program	Social	Yes
Holyoke	99	15	3	-19.	Line Item	Activist	No
Gainesville	152	33	17	- 6.	Line Item	Social	Yes
Evanston	154	33	20	- 6.	Modified Program	Activist	Yes
Cambridge	288	26	12	-14.	Line Item	Activist	No
Lakewood	192	33	3	- 3.	Modified Program	Social	No
Aurora	213	35	3	- 2.	Modified Program	Activist	No
Savannah	250	25	26	-17.	Line Item	Social	Yes
Madison	295	21	3	- 2.	Program	Activist	Yes
Dayton	499	25	10	-30.	Program	Activist	Yes*
Albuquerque	485	34	27	-15.	Modified Program	Activist	No
Austin	540	27	18	-10.	Program	Activist	Yes
St. Louis	2100	28	16	-34.	Line Item	Activist	No
Fairfax County	710	28	4	- 4.	Line Item	Social	No
San Francisco	1542	N/A	17	-44.	Modified Program	Activist	Yes*
San Diego	1252	22	17	- 3.	Modified Program	Activist	Yes

TABLE 3
SELECTED CITIZEN PARTICIPATION CHARACTERISTICS

CITY	HISTORY OF PRESSURE FOR CRB	CURRENT MECHANISM(S)	TYPE OF MECHANISM(S)	SPONSOR OF MECHANISM(S)	INITIATING EVENT(S)	MEMBERSHIP OF FORMAL MECHANISM(S)	ROLE OF FORMAL MECHANISM(S)	INITIATOR OF FORMAL MECHANISM(S)	POLICY AREAS ADDRESSED*
Concord	No	Police Liaison Committee/(Chief)	Adv. Group/(Chief's Personal Style)	Chamber of Commerce/1976	Community Discontent	Professional/Business/Elite	Influence	Police	T.A./A.P.
Holyoke	Yes	Citizens for Social Change	Committee	Community Groups/1978	Community Discontent	Lay Residents	Review	Police	S.O./T.A./A.P.
Gainesville	No	Chief of Police	Chief's Personal Style	City Council/1976	Administrative Decision	Unspecified	Unspecified	Unspecified	Unspecified
Evanston	Yes	Police Services Committee	Advisory Group	City Council/1975	Community Discontent	Lay Residents	Influence	Adv. Group/Council Sub-Committee	S.O./T.A./A.P.
Cambridge	Yes	None Current	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Lakewood	No	None Current	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Aurora	No	Citizen Budget Advisory Committee	Advisory Group	City Council/1959	Legislation (City Charter)	Lay Residents	Influence	City Council	A.P.
Savannah	No	Chief of Police	Chief's Personal Style	City Council/1975	Community Discontent	Unspecified	Unspecified	Unspecified	Unspecified

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TABLE 3 (continued)

SELECTED CITIZEN PARTICIPATION CHARACTERISTICS

CITY	HISTORY OF PRESSURE FOR CRB	CURRENT MECHANISM(S)	TYPE OF MECHANISM(S)	SPONSOR OF MECHANISM(S)	INITIATING EVENT(S)	MEMBERSHIP OF FORMAL MECHANISM(S)	ROLE OF FORMAL MECHANISM(S)	INITIATOR OF FORMAL MECHANISM(S)	POLICY AREAS ADDRESSED*
Madison (2)	No	Citizen/Police Relations Committee/(Chief) Police Advisory Committee	Adv. Group/(Chief's Personal Style) Advisory Group	Chief of Police/1973 City Council/1976	Administrative Decision Community Discontent	Lay Residents Professional/Business/Elite	Influence Review	Police City Council	S.O./T.A./A.P. S.O./T.A.
Dayton	Yes	Policy Bureau Task Forces	Task Forces	Police Dept./1972	Administrative Decision	Lay Residents & C.J. Experts	Decide	Police	S.O./T.A./A.P. ♀
Albuquerque	Yes	Police Advisory Board	Advisory Group	City Council/1978	Community Discontent	Lay Residents	Review	Mayor	A.P.
Austin	Yes	Chief of Police	Chief's Personal Style	City Council/1976	Community Discontent	Unspecified	Unspecified	Unspecified	Unspecified
St. Louis (2)	No	Police Commission Public Affairs District Committees	Police Commission Committees	Governor/1861 Police Dept./1964	State Legislation Community Discontent	Professional/Business/Elite Lay Residents	Decide Review	Police Commission Police	S.O./T.A./A.P. T.A.

TABLE 3 (continued)

SELECTED CITIZEN PARTICIPATION CHARACTERISTICS

CITY	HISTORY OF PRESSURE FOR CRB	CURRENT MECHANISM(S)	TYPE OF MECHANISM(S)	SPONSOR OF MECHANISM(S)	INITIATING EVENT(S)	MEMBERSHIP OF FORMAL MECHANISM(S)	ROLE OF FORMAL MECHANISM(S)	INITIATOR OF FORMAL MECHANISM(S)	POLICY AREAS ADDRESSED*
Fairfax County	No	Citizen Advisory Groups	Committees	Police Dept./ 1979	Community Discontent	New and Emerging Mechanism (1979)			
San Francisco	Yes	Police Commission	Police Commission	Mayor/ 1930's	Legis-lation (City Charter)	Professional/ Business/ Elite & C.J. Experts	Decide	Mayor/ & Police Commission	S.O./ T.A./A.P.
San Diego	Yes	Committee on Police Practices/ (Chief)	Task Force (Chief's Personal Style)	City Council/ 1978	Community Discontent	Professional/ Business/ Elite	Decide	City Council	S.O./ T.A./A.P. 50

* S.O. = Standards of Operation (Policy which structures street practices and one-on-one individual law enforcement style and approach such as hot pursuit, use of force, field interrogation, and citizen complaint process.)

T.A. = Selection of Targets for Action (Policy which structures overall enforcement approach and interaction with categories of citizens such as handling of juveniles, enforcement priorities, deployment mode and handling family dispute calls.)

A.P. = Administrative Processes (Policy which structures organizational approach and only indirectly related to street practices such as recruitment, selection, promotion of police officers, manpower levels, equipment, and assignment/transfer criteria.)

pressure for a civilian review board was apparent in 8/16 sites; 14/16 of the mechanisms are currently active; types of mechanisms ranged from committees/advisory groups (7/16), to Chief's personal style (6/16), to task forces (1/16), to police commissions (2/16); sponsors of the mechanisms included elected officials (10/16), community groups (2/16), and police department (4/16); initiating events ranged from community discontent (10/16), to police department administrative decision (3/16), to legislation (3/16); membership of formal mechanisms, of which there were twelve, included lay residents (7/12) and professional/business/elite (5/12); the role of the formal mechanism ranged from review only (4/12), to influence (4/12), to decide (4/12); initiation of the formal mechanism included the police (5/12) and elected officials (7/12); and policy areas addressed included standards of operation (8/12), selection of targets for action (10/12), and administrative processes (10/12).

2. Relationships Between City and Citizen Participation Characteristics

Of the sixteen (16) first-wave sites, four (4) appeared to have substantial and durable citizen participation in the police policy making process beyond that which appeared evident in the remaining twelve (12) sites. For this reason, comparisons were made between the "Big Four" (i.e., Concord, Madison, Dayton, and San Diego) and the remaining twelve (12) sites. Table 4 illustrates comparative data on the five (5) city characteristics between the "Big Four" sites and the remaining twelve (12) sites. As can be seen in Table 4, the only important difference appears to be with regard to the percent minority city characteristic; the "Big Four" cities have a lower median percentage of minority population (i.e., 12.5%) than the remaining sites (i.e., 26%).

TABLE 4

COMPARISON OF CITY CHARACTERISTICS
BETWEEN "BIG FOUR" AND REMAINING SITES

	POPULATION		PERCENT MINORITY		PERCENT FORM OF LOCAL GOV'T.		MAJOR COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY	SQ. MILE AREA	
	RANGE	MEDIAN	RANGE	MEDIAN	COUNCIL/ MANAGER	MAJOR/ COUNCIL		RANGE	MEDIAN
"BIG FOUR" SITES	Under 50,000 To Over 500,000	100,000 To 250,000	0.2 To 40.0	12.5	75	25	50.0	51 To 400	59.0
REMAINING SITES (N=12)	50,000 To Over 500,000	100,000 To 250,000	5.0 To 61.0	26.0	67	33	67.0	7 To 399	50.0
TOTAL SITES (N=16)	Under 50,000 To Over 500,000	100,000 To 250,000	0.2 To 61.00	24.5	69	31	62.5	7 To 400	55.5

3. Relationships Between Police and Citizen Participation Characteristics

As indicated in the preceding section, of the sixteen (16) first-wave sites, four (4) appeared to have substantial and durable citizen participation in the police policy making process beyond that which appeared evident in the remaining twelve (12) sites. For this reason, comparisons were again made between the "Big Four" (i.e., Concord, Madison, Dayton, and San Diego), and the remaining twelve (12) sites. Table 5 illustrates comparative data on the seven (7) police characteristics between the "Big Four" sites and the remaining twelve (12) sites. As can be seen in Table 5, three important differences appear. Firstly, the "Big Four" cities have a lower median percentage of sworn minority police personnel to total sworn personnel (i.e., 6.5%) than the remaining sites (i.e., 16.5%), and also a smaller median percentage minority difference between sworn police personnel and population (i.e., -2.5% vs. -12.0%). Secondly, the remaining sites employed a substantially larger percent of line item budgets than do the "Big Four" cities (i.e., 50% vs. 0%). Thirdly, among the "Big Four" cities, the Police Chief's styles appear to be more sympathetic with the concept of citizen input into police policy making than in the remaining sites (i.e., 100% vs. 42%).

4. Relationships Between City and Police Characteristics, and Citizen Participation Characteristics

Table 6 depicts comparative data on the nine (9) citizen participation characteristics between the "Big Four" sites and the remaining twelve (12) sites. As can be seen in Table 6, a number of important differences appear. With regard to the type of mechanism, the Chief's personal style is particularly important among the "Big Four" sites (i.e., 75%), whereas with the

TABLE 5
COMPARISON OF POLICE CHARACTERISTICS
BETWEEN "BIG FOUR" AND REMAINING SITES

	SWORN PERSONNEL		PERCENT CIVILIAN		PERCENT MINORITY		PERCENT MINORITY DIFFERENCE		BUDGET FORMAT	POLICE OFFICERS ASSOCIATION		POLICE CHIEF'S STYLE	
	RANGE	MEDIAN	RANGE	MEDIAN	RANGE	MEDIAN	RANGE	MEDIAN		PERCENT LINE ITEM	PERCENT SOCIAL	PERCENT ACTIVIST	
"BIG FOUR" SITES	63 To 1252	397	19 To 25	21.5	2 To 17	6.5	+ 1.8 To -30.0	- 2.5	0	25	75	100	54
REMAINING SITES (N=12)	99 To 2100	269	15 To 35	28.0	3 To 27	16.5	- 2.0 To -44.0	-12.0	50.0	33	67	42	
TOTAL SITES (N=16)	63 To 2100	292	15 To 35	27.0	2 To 27	14.0	+ 1.8 To -44.0	- 8.0	37.5	31	69	56	

TABLE 6

COMPARISON OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION CHARACTERISTICS
BETWEEN "BIG FOUR" AND REMAINING SITES

	HISTORY OF PRESSURE FOR CRB	CURRENT MECHANISM(S)	TYPE OF MECHANISM(S)			
			PERCENT YES	PERCENT ACTIVE	PERCENT COMMITTEES/ ADVISORY GROUPS	PERCENT TASK FORCES
"BIG FOUR" SITES			50 (2/4)	100 (4/4)	0 (0/4)	25 (1/4)
REMAINING SITES (N=12)			50 (6/12)	83 (10/12)	58 (7/12)	0 (0/12)
TOTAL SITES (N=16)			50 (8/16)	87,5 (14/16)	44 (7/16)	6 (1/16)
					12,5 (2/16)	37,5 (6/16)

TABLE 6 (continued)

	SPONSOR OF MECHANISM(S)			INITIATING EVENT(S)		
	PERCENT ELECTED OFFICIALS	PERCENT POLICE DEPT./ CHIEF	PERCENT COMMUNITY GROUPS	PERCENT COMMUNITY DISCONTENT	PERCENT ADMIN. DECISION	PERCENT LEGISLATION LOCAL/STATE
"BIG FOUR" SITES	25 (1/4)	50 (2/4)	25 (1/4)	75 (3/4)	25 (1/4)	0 (0/4)
REMAINING SITES (N=12)	75 (9/12)	17 (2/12)	8 (1/12)	58 (7/12)	17 (2/12)	25 (3/12)
TOTAL SITES (N=16)	62.5 (10/16)	25 (4/16)	12.5 (2/16)	62.5 (10/16)	18.75 (3/16)	18.75 (3/16)

TABLE 6 (continued)

	MEMBERSHIP OF FORMAL MECHANISM(S)		ROLE OF FORMAL MECHANISM(S)		
	PERCENT LAY RESIDENTS	PERCENT PROFESSIONAL/ BUSINESS/ ELITE	PERCENT REVIEW	PERCENT INFLUENCE	PERCENT DECIDE
"BIG FOUR" SITES	25 (1/4)	75 (3/4)	0 (0/4)	50 (2/4)	50 (2/4)
REMAINING SITES (N=12)	75 (6/8)	25 (2/8)	50 (4/8)	25 (2/8)	25 (2/8)
TOTAL SITES (N=16)	58 (7/12)	42 (5/12)	33.3 (4/12)	33.3 (4/12)	33.3 (4/12)

TABLE 6 (continued)

	INITIATOR OF FORMAL MECHANISM(S)		POLICY AREAS ADDRESSED		
	PERCENT POLICE	PERCENT ELECTED OFFICIALS	PERCENT STANDARDS OF OPERATION	PERCENT SELECTION OF TARGETS FOR ACTION	PERCENT ADMIN. PROCESSES
"BIG FOUR" SITES	50 (2/4)	50 (2/4)	100 (4/4)	100 (4/4)	100 (4/4)
REMAINING SITES (N=12)	37.5 (3/8)	62.5 (5/8)	50 (4/8)	75 (6/8)	75 (6/8)
TOTAL SITES (N=16)	42 (5/12)	58 (7/12)	67 (8/12)	83 (10/12)	83 (10/12)

remaining sites, the committee or advisory group mechanism is the more popular (i.e., 58%). Consistent with this finding is the fact that the mechanism sponsor is more likely to be the police department or Chief of Police among the "Big Four" sites (i.e., 50%), but more often elected officials within the remaining sites (i.e., 75%). Interestingly, the membership of the formal mechanisms are more often professional/business/elite among the "Big Four" sites (i.e., 75%), but more often lay residents among the remaining sites (i.e., 75%). The "Big Four" sites evidence a more significant role for their citizen participation mechanisms than do the remaining sites (i.e., 100% influence/decide vs. 50%). Finally, among the "Big Four" sites a wider range of policy areas is addressed than among the remaining sites.

Examination of the data for all sixteen (16) sites is also revealing. In one-half of the sites, there has historically been pressure for a Civilian Review Board. Most of the site mechanisms are also currently active. Committees/Advisory Groups, and the Chief's Personal Style are the most popular mechanisms, and most often these mechanisms have been sponsored and initiated by elected officials. Community discontent is the most frequent initiating event of a citizen participation mechanism, and both lay residents and professional/business/elite groups similarly constitute the mechanism memberships. Finally, in one-third of the sites police policy matters are decided by the mechanism in place.

C. Second-Wave Site Visit Data

Six (6) sites were selected from among the initial sixteen (16) cities for in-depth study. These six (6) sites included the "Big Four" sites and

two (2) additional sites which appeared to have durable citizen participation mechanisms (i.e., St. Louis and Aurora).

1. Responses To Police Policy Setting Survey

Completed police policy setting surveys were obtained from a total of 435 respondents. Table 7 depicts the number of completed surveys obtained from each of the seven respondent groups in each of the six cities. The total number of respondents was fairly evenly split between police and non-police (i.e., 203 and 232). Clearly, the most difficult group to access was the business/interest group which constituted only 5 percent of the total number of respondents.

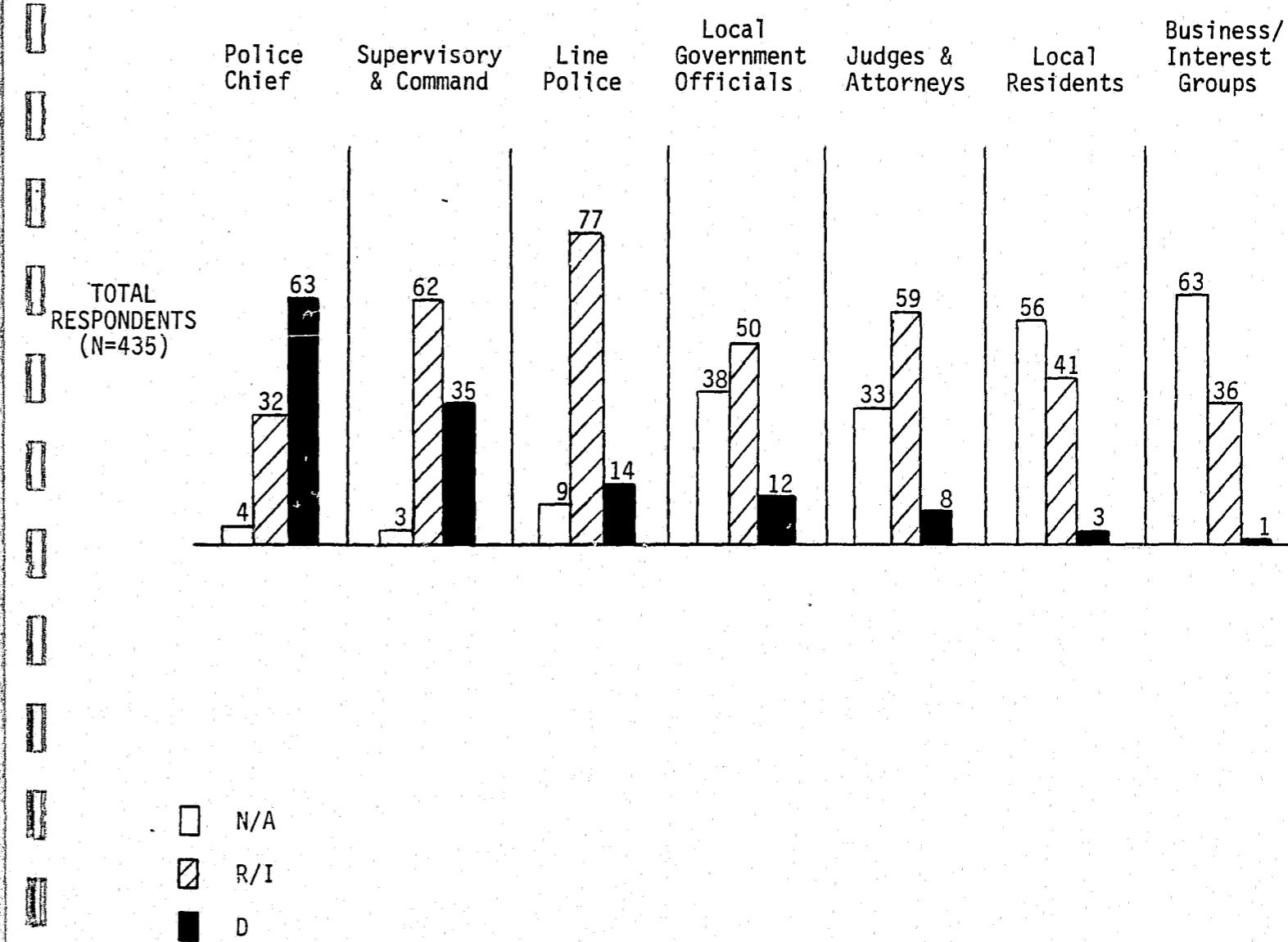
2. Combined Policy and City Analysis

Graph 1 illustrates the percentages of "not appropriate", "review/influence", and "decide" responses for each of the seven respondent groups in all six cities for all seven policies. This analysis represents 3,045 responses for each of the seven groups (i.e., 435 respondents x 7 policies). From these data, a clear pattern emerges; as one moves from the Chief of Police to business/interest groups, the percentage of "not appropriate" responses increase, and conversely, the percentage of "decide" responses decrease. These data indicate that the respondents believe that the Chief of Police and other police personnel should play a more significant role in the development of police policy (i.e., "decide") than should local residents and business/interest groups. Government officials and judges/attorneys fall in the middle range with regard to the respondent's preferred levels of involvement in police policymaking. For example, the Chief of

TABLE 7
POLICE POLICY SETTING SURVEY RESPONDENTS

	CONCORD	MADISON	DAYTON	SAN DIEGO	ST. LOUIS	AURORA	TOTAL
Police Chief	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
Supervisory & Command	18	13	13	20	9	8	81
Line Police	17	13	24	23	16	23	116
Local Gov't. Officials	7	8	5	4	11	1	36
Local Residents	20	19	20	23	24	14	120
Business/ Interest Groups	9	4	0	1	7	2	23
Judges & Attorneys	9	7	12	11	10	4	53
Total	81	65	75	83	78	53	435

GRAPH 1
COMBINED RESPONSES TO ALL SEVEN POLICIES
IN ALL SIX CITIES



Police stands out as being the preferred key decision-maker with regard to policy (i.e., 63% "decide"), whereas the business/interest group are the least preferred (i.e., 1% "decide"). Interestingly, respondents indicated that all of the seven groups should play a "review/influence" role in the development of police policy (i.e., range of 32% to 77%; median of 50%).

3. Policy Analysis

The preceding "combined policy and city analysis" indicated that the initial seven respondent groups could logically be reduced to four groups (i.e., Chief of Police, police personnel, local government officials and judges/attorneys, and local residents/business interest groups).

For each of the seven police policy areas (i.e., use of force, citizen complaints, enforcement priorities, promotion, domestic violence, stop and frisk, and intelligence information), results are presented for each of the four combined respondent groups and the total sample of 435 respondents for all six cities.

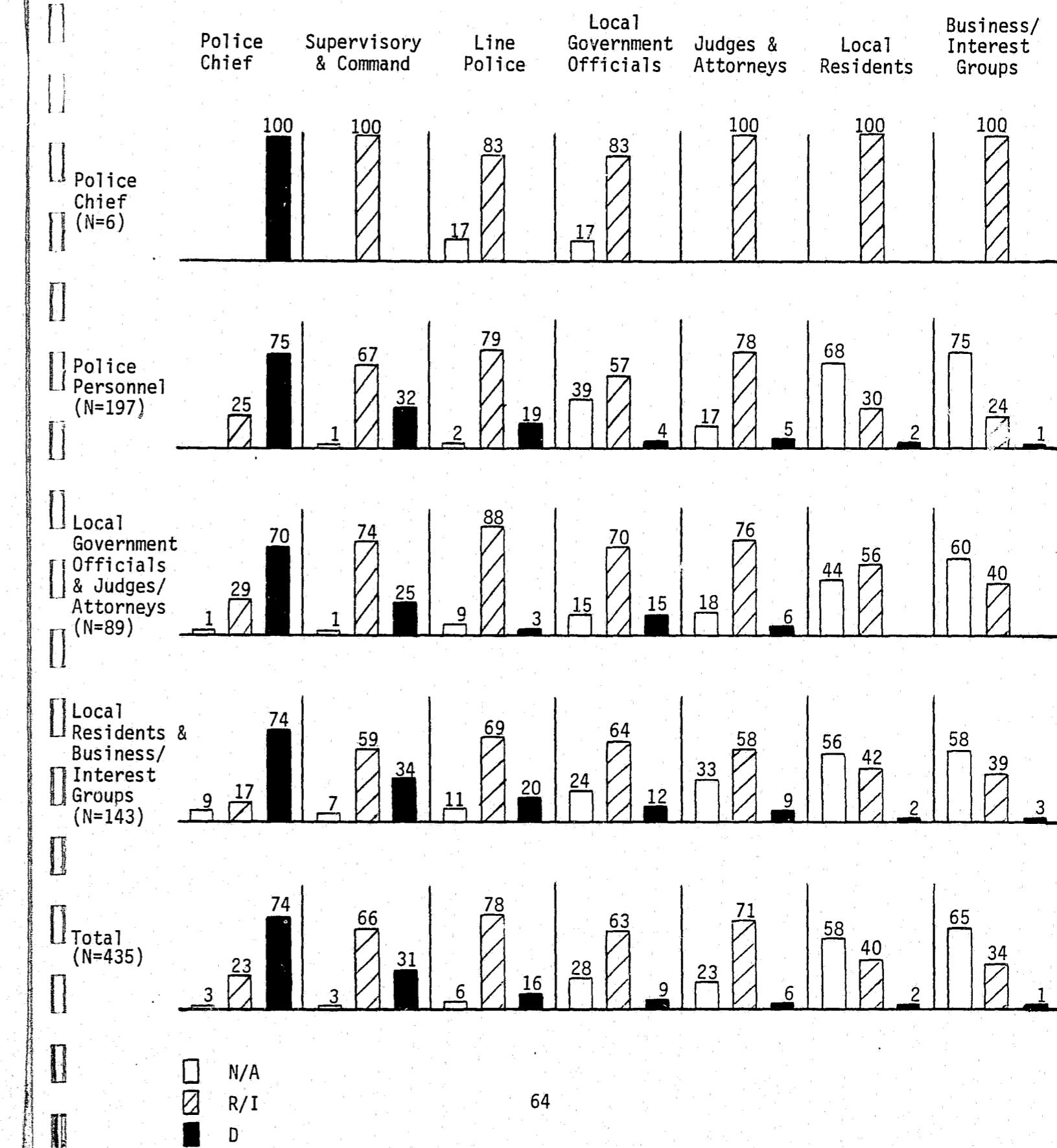
a) Use of Force. Graph 2 illustrates responses with regard to the use of force police policy area.

The Chiefs of Police indicated that they should have the authority to "decide" use of force policy. However, they indicated clear receptivity to a "review/influence" role for all of the remaining six groups.

Police personnel indicated that the Chief should "decide" by a 3 to 1 margin. They also showed support for a "review/influence" role by supervisory/command, line police, local

GRAPH 2

USE OF FORCE



CONTINUED

1 OF 3

government officials, and judges/attorneys. This combined group of police personnel also felt that the role of local residents and business/interest groups was "not appropriate".

Local government officials and judges/attorneys strongly favored a "decide" role for the Chief of Police. They also showed a preference for a "review/influence" role for all other groups, although that role for local residents and business/interest groups was clearly lower. For example, near majorities felt that the role of these two groups in use of force policy was "not appropriate" (i.e., 44% and 60%).

Local residents and business/interest groups, as did the preceding groups, indicated that the Chief of Police should play a "decide" role by a margin of 3 to 1. They showed strong support for a "review/influence" role for supervisory/command, line police, local government officials, and judges/attorneys. However, as with the preceding group of local government officials and judges/attorneys, they felt that a role for local residents and business/interest groups in use of force policy was "not appropriate" (i.e., 56% and 58%).

For the total 435 respondents, a clear pattern was apparent with regard to the policy area of use of force; the Chief of Police should play the key role as decision-maker (i.e., 74% "decide") with lesser "decide" roles for police personnel. Local government officials and judges/attorneys should play a significant "review/influence" role (i.e., 63% and 71%), but local resi-

dents and business/interest groups were most often perceived as having a "not appropriate" role (i.e., 58% and 65%).

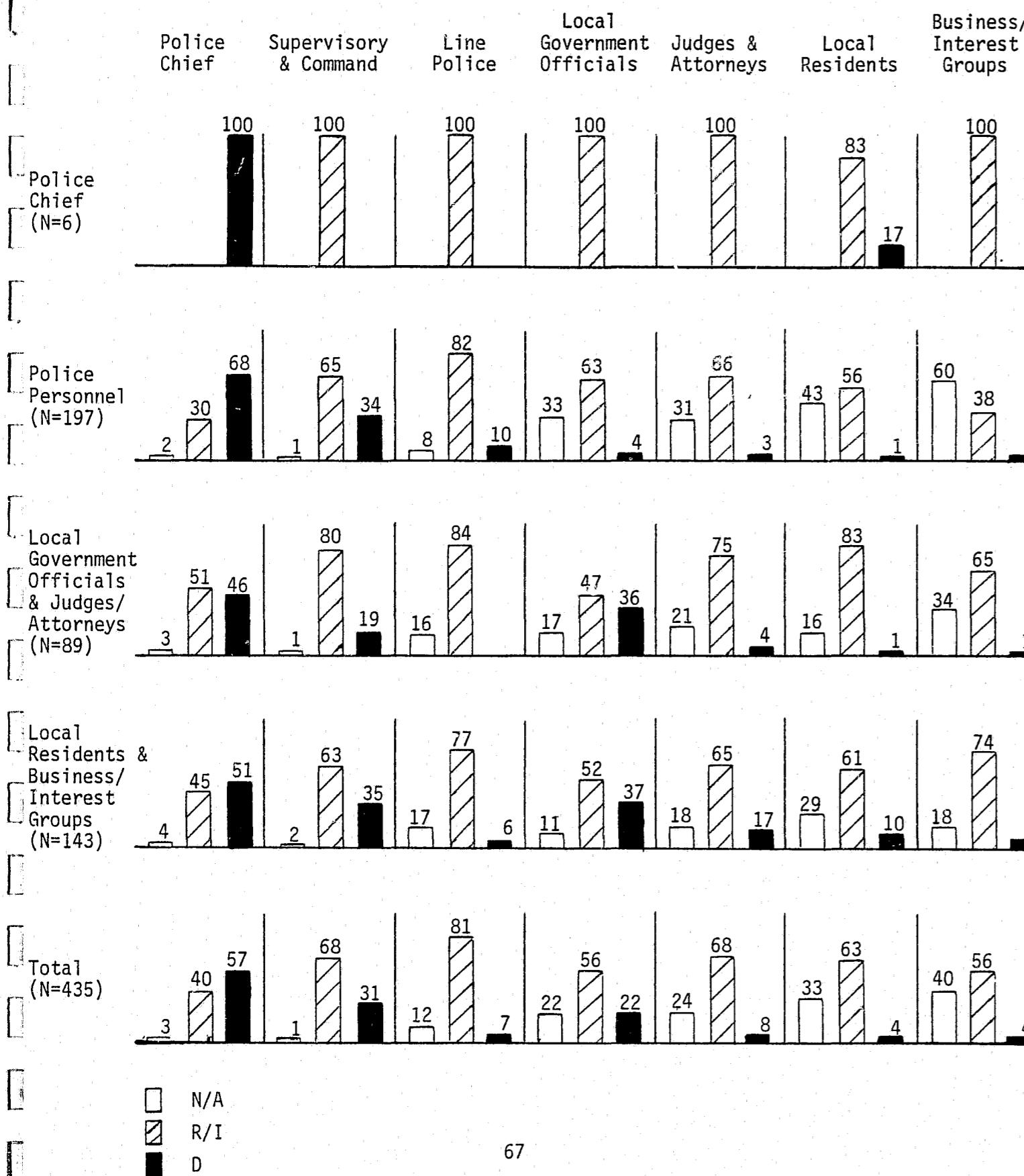
b) Citizen Complaints. Graph 3 depicts responses with regard to the processing of citizen complaints against police officers policy area.

The Chiefs of Police, once again, indicated that they should have the authority to "decide" citizen complaint policy. However, they consistently indicated that all other groups should have a "review/influence" role.

Police personnel felt that the Chief of Police should, once again, be the key decision-maker in this policy area (i.e., 68%), but that they themselves should also play an important input role, especially supervisory/command personnel (i.e., 34% "decide"). Although they indicated a "review/influence" role for the remaining four groups, it was apparent that many felt that involvement in the citizen complaints policy area was "not inappropriate" (i.e., range of 31% to 60%). This was particularly apparent for the business/interest group (i.e., 60%).

Local government officials and judges/attorneys favored the Chief of Police and local government officials to play a "decide" role (i.e., 46% and 36%). They felt that all groups should play a "review/influence" role, including local residents and business/interest groups. Interestingly, they demonstrated no majority opinion regarding the role of local government officials in regards

GRAPH 3
CITIZEN COMPLAINTS



to citizen complaint policy.

Local residents and business/interest groups indicated that the Chief of Police, supervisory and command personnel, and local government officials were preferred for the "decide" role. The role that these two groups preferred for themselves was quite significant (e.g., 10% and 8% "decide"), and clearly more so than in the use of force policy area (e.g., 56% and 58% "not appropriate").

For the total 435 respondents, the pattern of responses was not as clear as in the use of force policy area. Although the Chief of Police was again preferred as the key decision-maker, the percentage of "not appropriate" responses was generally lower across all seven groups, and at least a "review/influence" role was apparent in all groups.

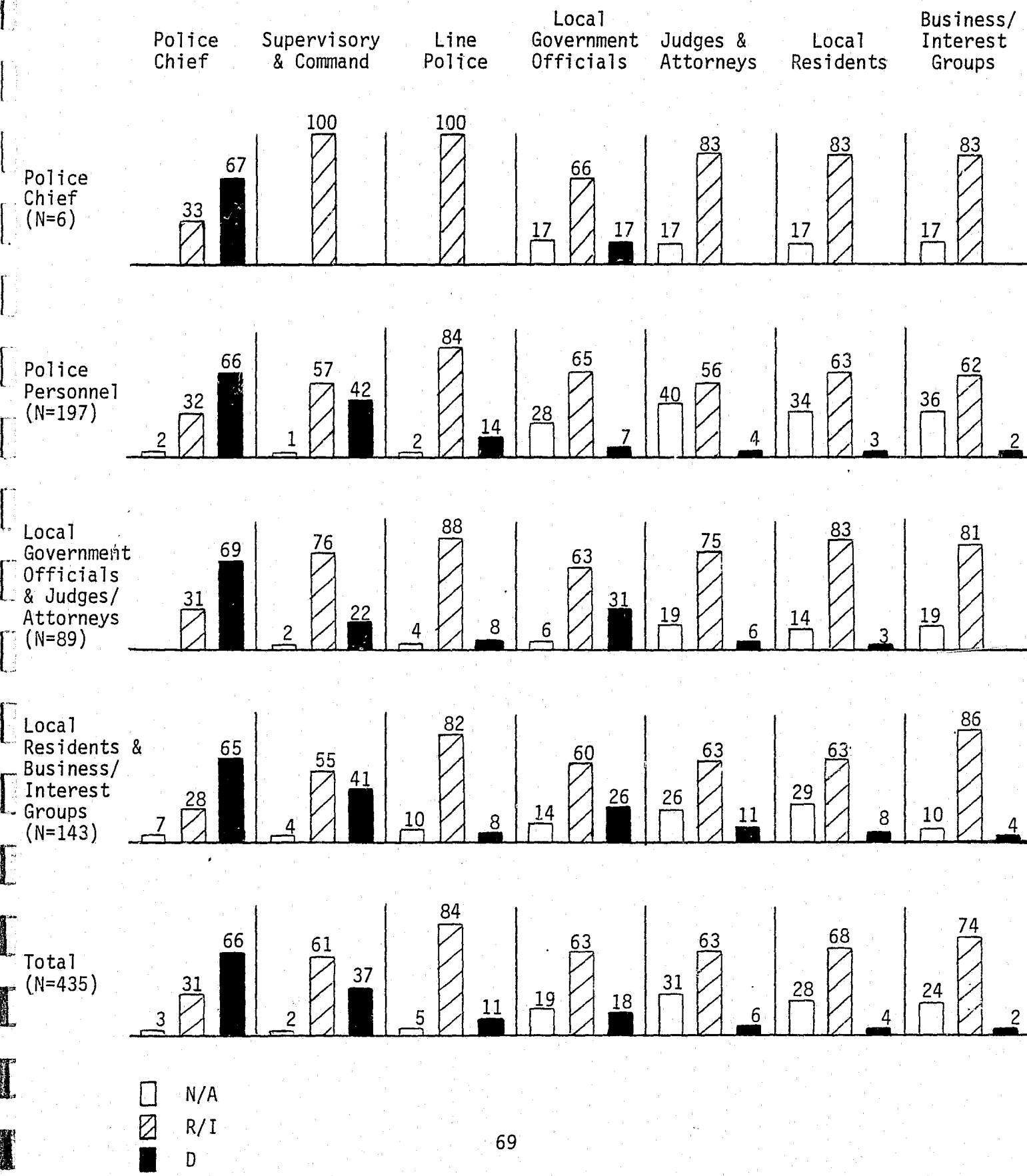
c) Enforcement Priorities. Graph 4 illustrates responses with regard to enforcement priorities (i.e., which crime problems get attention).

Once again, the Chiefs of Police indicated that they should be the key decision-maker. A "review/influence" role however, was clearly preferred for all other groups, especially for police personnel.

Police personnel clearly felt that the Chief of Police and supervisory/command personnel should "decide" on enforcement priorities, with a predominant "review/influence" role for line

GRAPH 4

ENFORCEMENT PRIORITIES



police personnel. Apparent in the responses of this group was a high level of "not appropriate" roles for all four remaining groups (i.e., range of 28% to 40%).

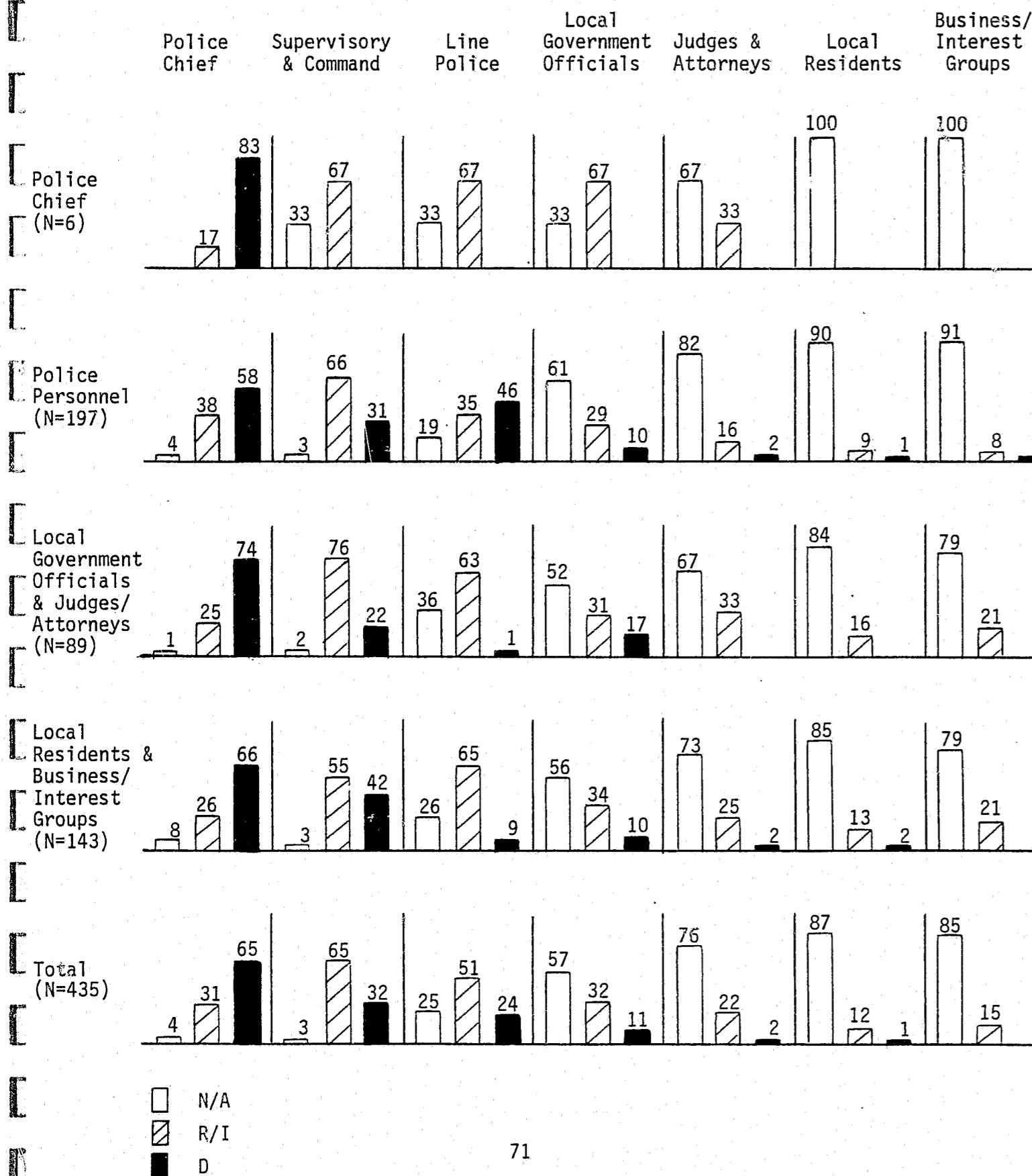
Local government officials and judges/attorneys clearly designated the Chief of Police, and to lesser extents, supervisory/command personnel and local government officials as the key decision-makers in this policy area. Once again, all groups were seen as having a "review/influence" role. As with the citizen complaints policy area, about one-third felt that they should play a "decide" role in the articulation of enforcement priorities.

Local residents and business/interest groups placed the Chief of Police and supervisory/command personnel in the key decision-maker role (i.e., 65% and 41%). They also considered local government officials to play an important role (i.e., 26% "decide").

For the total 435 respondents, the Chief of Police, and to a lesser extent, supervisory/command personnel were seen as the key decision-makers. Once again, as with the citizen complaint policy area, a "review/influence" role was seen as appropriate for all groups.

d) Promotions. Graph 5 depicts responses with regard to the policy area of promotion of police personnel (except Chief). Responses to this policy area were noticeably different from those to the preceding three areas in terms of the high frequency of "not appropriate" responses.

GRAPH 5
PROMOTIONS



Chiefs of Police again indicated that they should be the key decision-maker with regard to the promotion of police personnel (i.e., 83% "decide"). Although they felt that police personnel, and local government officials should play a "review/influence" role, they also felt that judges/attorneys, and to an even greater extent, local residents, and business/interest groups should not play any role at all.

Police personnel felt that promotional policy should be decided by the Chief of Police and police personnel. Involvement by non-police people was prominently perceived as "not appropriate", although involvement by local government officials in a "review/influence" capacity was considered more appropriate than for the remaining three groups (i.e., judges/attorneys, local residents, and business/interest groups).

Local government officials and judges/attorneys viewed the Chief of Police and, to a lesser extent, supervisory/command personnel as the key decision-makers. All other groups' input was basically perceived as "not appropriate", although an important "review/influence" role was ascribed to line police (i.e., 63%).

Local residents and business/interest groups felt similarly to the preceding combined group of local government officials and judges/attorneys; that is, the Chief of Police and supervisory/command personnel as the key decision-makers, and other groups' input as being "not appropriate".

For the total 435 respondents, the Chief of Police and police

personnel were perceived as the most appropriate for deciding the policy area of promotion. The roles of local government officials, and especially judges/attorneys, local resident, and business/interest groups was seen as "not appropriate".

e) Domestic Violence. Graph 6 illustrates responses to the policy area of handling domestic violence cases.

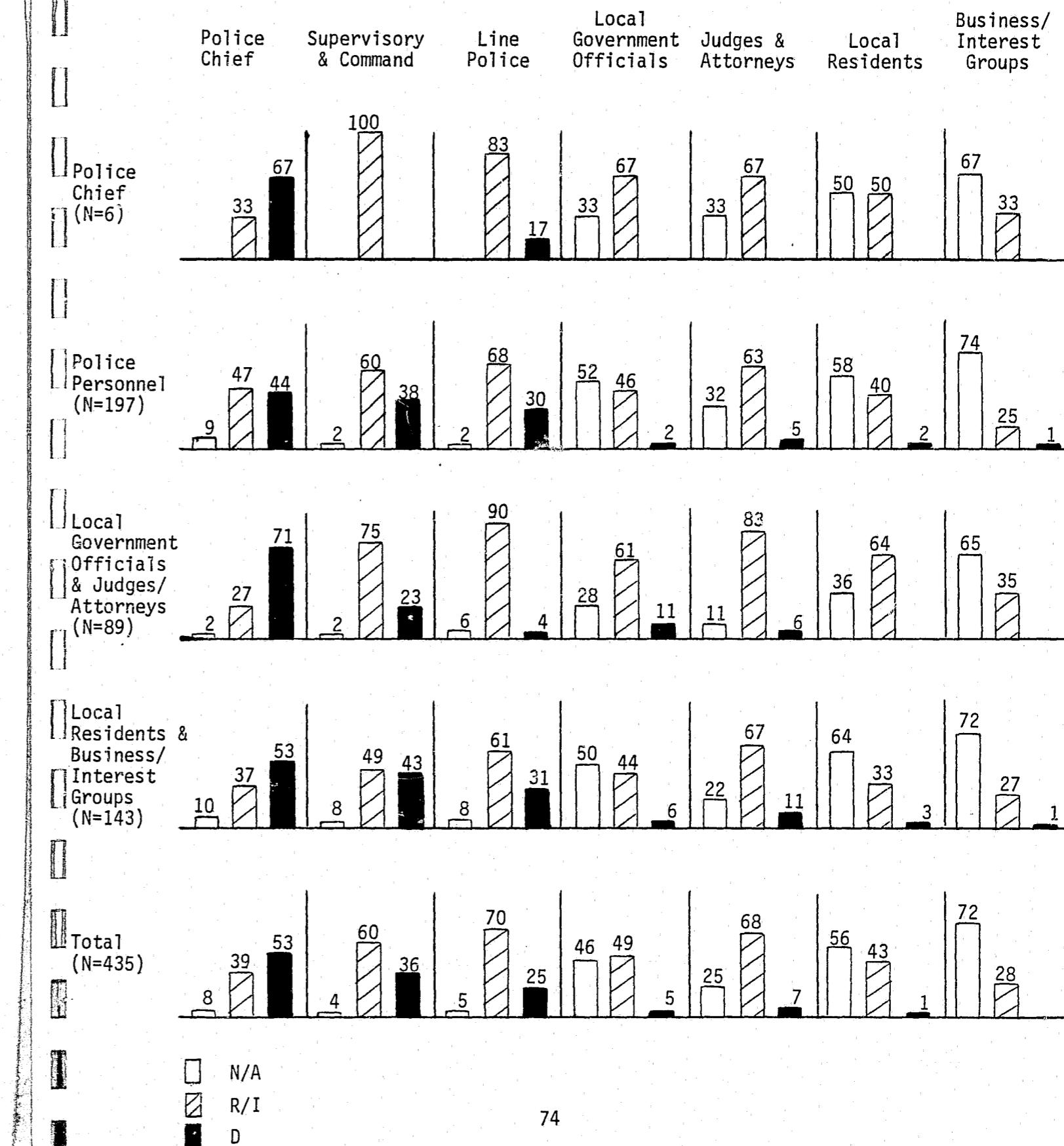
Chiefs of Police again felt that they should be the key decision-maker, although they indicated a significant "review/influence" role for police personnel. A "review/influence" role was also attributed to the remaining four groups, although "not appropriate" involvement was prevalent.

Police personnel felt that the Chief of Police and police personnel should all contribute in significant ways to this policy area; a finding very similar to the preceding promotions policy. Involvement by the remaining four groups was basically seen as "not appropriate", although an important "review/influence" role was ascribed to judges and attorneys (i.e., 63%), as it was for the use of force policy area (i.e., 78%), and the citizen complaints policy area (i.e., 66%).

Local government officials and judges/attorneys perceived the Chief of Police, and to a much lesser extent, supervisory and command personnel as the key decision-makers. They also felt that line police and judges/attorneys should play a key "review/influence" role. Local government officials, local residents, and especially business/interest groups' input was most often considered "not

GRAPH 6

DOMESTIC VIOLENCE



appropriate".

Local residents and business/interest groups were very similar in their opinions to police personnel; that is, that police personnel should play a key role in policy pertaining to the handling of domestic violence cases, that local government officials and judges/attorneys should play key "review/influence" roles, and that their own involvement is most often "not appropriate".

For the total 435 respondents, the Chief of Police and police personnel were seen as the key decision-makers. Non-police involvement was generally seen as "not appropriate", although a significant "review/influence" role was ascribed to judges and attorneys.

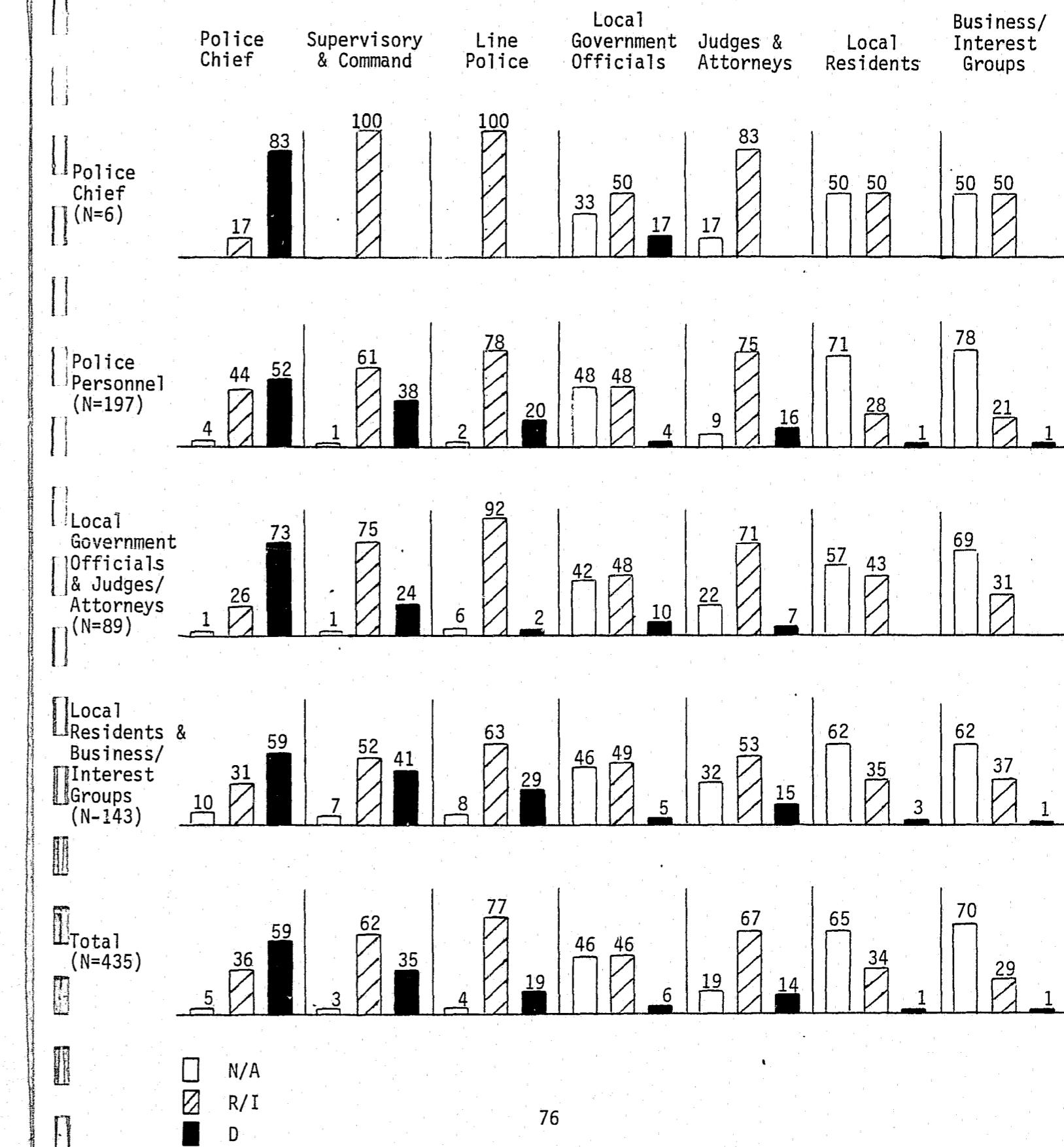
f) Stop and Frisk. Graph 7 depicts responses to the policy area of stop and frisk (i.e., field interrogation).

Chiefs of Police again felt that they should be the key decision-maker, although they felt that all other groups should play a "review/influence" role, particularly police personnel and judges/attorneys.

Police personnel felt that the Chief of Police, and to a lesser extent, police personnel should play the key roles in this policy area. They did however, ascribe an important "review/influence" role to judges/attorneys as they have in previous policy areas (e.g., use of force, citizen complaints, and domestic violence). The "not appropriate" role was clear for both local resident and business/interest groups.

GRAPH 7

STOP AND FRISK



Local government officials and judges/attorneys clearly saw the Chief of Police as the key decision-maker (i.e., 73%). They felt that police personnel and judges/attorneys should play an important "review/influence" role. Involvement by local government officials, local residents, and business/interest groups was basically perceived as "not appropriate".

Local residents and business/interest groups were very similar in their responses to the preceding groups; the Chief of Police and police personnel should be the key decision-makers, with judges/attorneys playing an important but subordinate role. Once again, their own role was seen as predominately "not appropriate", as has similarly been the case for all previously discussed policy areas, with the exception of citizen complaints and enforcement priorities.

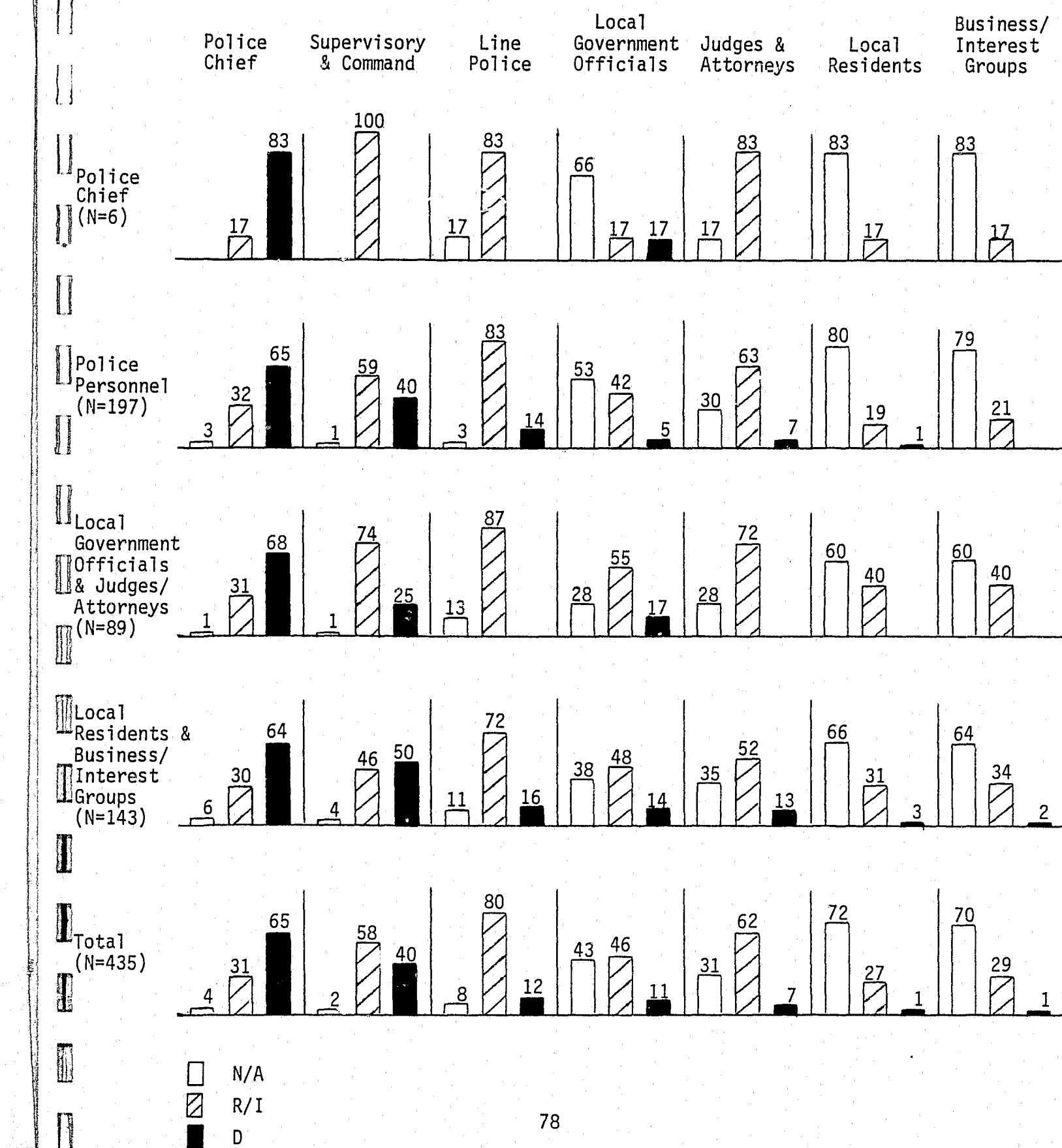
For the total 435 respondents, the Chief of Police and police personnel were seen as the key decision-makers with regard to policy governing stop and frisk/field interrogation. As has similarly been the case with other policy areas, non-police involvement was generally seen as "not appropriate", with the exception of judges/attorneys who are viewed as playing an important "review/influence" role.

g) Intelligence Information. Graph 8 illustrates responses to the policy area of gathering police intelligence information (i.e., crowd surveillance).

As has previously been the case, Chiefs of Police felt that they should be the key decision-maker, although they felt that

GRAPH 8

INTELLIGENCE INFORMATION



police personnel and judges/attorneys should play a significant "review/influence" role. The three remaining groups were clearly seen as "not appropriate" for involvement in this policy area (i.e., local government officials, local residents, and business/interest groups).

Responses by police personnel were similar, although they ascribed stronger "decide" roles for themselves than did the Chief of Police. Their pattern of responses in regards to the remaining four groups was comparable to the Chief of Police; an important "review/influence" role for judges/attorneys, and a predominating "not appropriate" role for local government officials, local residents, and business/interest groups.

Local government officials and judges/attorneys felt that the Chief of Police, and to much lesser extents, supervisory/command personnel and local government officials should be the key decision-makers. An important "review/influence" role was specified for line police and judges/attorneys. Involvement by local residents and business/interest groups was generally seen as "not appropriate".

Local residents and business/interest groups demonstrated a very similar pattern of responses to the combined group of local government officials and judges/attorneys, with the only exception being the "decide" involvement spread across a greater number of groups (i.e., seven groups vs. three groups).

For the total 435 respondents, the Chief of Police and supervisory/command personnel were viewed as the key decision-

makers. Both line personnel and judges/attorneys were seen as playing an important "review/influence" role. The remaining groups, particularly local residents and business/interest groups, were perceived as having a "not appropriate" role in the gathering police intelligence information policy area.

4. Respondent Analysis

For all of the seven police policy areas, results are presented for each of the four combined respondent groups, and the total sample of 435 respondents for all six cities.

a) Chiefs of Police. Table 8 provides a summary of "predominant responses" for the Chiefs of Police. A clear pattern is apparent among this group. Collectively, they view themselves as the key decision-makers with a range of 67% to 100% "decide" responses among the seven policy areas. The role for police personnel as viewed by the Chief of Police is clearly in a strong "review/influence" capacity. For local government officials and judges/attorneys, Chiefs of Police also see an important "review/influence" role, but less so than for police personnel. Interestingly, the Chiefs indicated that local government officials should not be involved in the intelligence gathering policy area (i.e., 66% "not appropriate"), and that judges/attorneys should not be involved in the police promotion policy area (i.e., 67% "not appropriate").

Important "review/influence" roles were ascribed to local residents and business/interest groups in the use of force, citizen complaints, and enforcement priorities policy areas. However, in the domestic

TABLE 8
CHIEFS OF POLICE
PREDOMINANT RESPONSES
(N=6)

	Police Chief	Supervisory & Command	Line Police	Local Gov't. Officials	Judges & Attorneys	Local Residents	Business/Interest Groups
Use of Force	100 D	100 R/I	83 R/I	83 R/I	100 R/I	100 R/I	100 R/I
Citizen Complaints	100 D	100 R/I	100 R/I	100 R/I	100 R/I	83 R/I	100 R/I
Enforcement Priorities	67 D	100 R/I	100 R/I	66 R/I	83 R/I	83 R/I	83 R/I
Promotions	83 D	67 R/I	67 R/I	67 R/I	67 N/A	100 N/A	100 N/A
Domestic Violence	67 D	100 R/I	83 R/I	67 R/I	67 R/I	50 N/A	67 N/A
Stop & Frisk	83 D	100 R/I	100 R/I	50 R/I	83 R/I	50 N/A	50 N/A
Intelligence Information	83 D	100 R/I	83 R/I	66 N/A	83 R/I	83 N/A	83 N/A

violence, stop and frisk, intelligence gathering, and especially police promotion policy areas, the role was perceived as "not appropriate" by the Chiefs of Police.

b) Police Personnel. Table 9 depicts a summary of "predominant responses" for police personnel. Clearly, this group places the Chief of Police in the "decide" role, though not as convincingly as the Chiefs themselves do. They look at themselves almost exclusively in a "review/influence" capacity, with one interesting exception; the predominant response for line police personnel is

"decide" (i.e., 46%) in the promotions policy area. Generally, police personnel view the role of local government officials to be "review/influence" in the use of force, citizen complaints, and enforcement priorities policy areas, but "not appropriate" for the promotions, domestic violence, stop and frisk, and intelligence information policy areas. They ascribe a "review/influence" role to judges/attorneys in all policy areas, with the exception of promotions (i.e., 82% "not appropriate"). Finally, police personnel see the involvement of local residents and business/interest groups to be "not appropriate", with the exception of enforcement priorities (i.e., 63% and 62% "review/influence"). Interestingly, the predominant response among police personnel for the role of local residents in the citizen complaints policy area is "review/influence" (i.e., 56%). When compared to the responses of the Chiefs of Police, police personnel exhibited an overall higher percentage of "not appropriate" responses in regards to the involvement of the four groups of non-police personnel.

TABLE 9
POLICE PERSONNEL
PREDOMINANT RESPONSES
(N=197)

	Police Chief	Supervisory & Command	Line Police	Local Gov't. Officials	Judges & Attorneys	Local Residents	Business/Interest Groups
Use of Force	75 D	67 R/I	79 R/I	57 R/I	78 R/I	68 N/A	75 N/A
Citizen Complaints	68 D	65 R/I	82 R/I	63 R/I	66 R/I	56 R/I	60 N/A
Enforcement Priorities	66 D	57 R/I	84 R/I	65 R/I	56 R/I	63 R/I	62 R/I
Promotions	58 D	66 R/I	46 D	61 N/A	82 N/A	90 N/A	91 N/A
Domestic Violence	47 R/I	60 R/I	68 R/I	52 N/A	63 R/I	58 N/A	74 N/A
Stop & Frisk	52 D	61 R/I	78 R/I	48 N/A	75 R/I	71 N/A	78 N/A
Intelligence Information	65 D	59 R/I	83 R/I	53 N/A	63 R/I	80 N/A	79 N/A

c) Local Government Officials and Judges/Attorneys, Table 10

illustrates a summary of "predominant responses" for local government officials and judges/attorneys. With regard to the involvement of Chiefs of Police and police personnel, a similar pattern of responses appeared to those already discussed; that is, the Chief of Police as the key decision-maker and a consistent and important "review/influence" role for police personnel. Interestingly, this group felt that the Chief of Police should play a "review/influence" role in the citizen complaints policy area rather than a "decide" role (i.e., 51%). The group endorsed a clear "review/influence" role for itself, with the exception of the promotions policy area, involvement in which was considered "not appropriate" (i.e., 52% and 67%). This finding is consistent with that previously reported for the Police Chiefs and police personnel. Local government officials and judges/attorneys tended to view the involvement of local residents and especially business/interest groups as "not appropriate". However, exceptions occurred with the two policy areas of citizen complaints and enforcement priorities, where clear "review/influence" roles were ascribed. Generally, the overall pattern of responses for this combined group was not materially different from the two previously discussed (i.e., Chiefs of Police and police personnel).

d) Local Residents and Business/Interest Groups, Table 11

provides a summary of "predominant responses" for local residents and business/interest groups. Interestingly, the pattern of responses closely duplicates those previously presented. The Chief

TABLE 10

LOCAL GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS
AND JUDGES/ATTORNEYS
PREDOMINANT RESPONSES
(N=89)

	Police Chief	Supervisory & Command	Line Police	Local Gov't. Officials	Judges & Attorneys	Local Residents	Business/Interest Groups
Use of Force	70 D	74 R/I	88 R/I	70 R/I	76 R/I	56 R/I	60 N/A
Citizen Complaints	51 R/I	80 R/I	84 R/I	47 R/I	75 R/I	83 R/I	65 R/I
Enforcement Priorities	69 D	76 R/I	88 R/I	63 R/I	75 R/I	83 R/I	81 R/I
Promotions	74 D	76 R/I	63 R/I	52 N/A	67 N/A	84 N/A	79 N/A
Domestic Violence	71 D	75 R/I	90 R/I	61 R/I	83 R/I	64 R/I	65 N/A
Stop & Frisk	73 D	75 R/I	92 R/I	48 R/I	71 R/I	57 N/A	69 N/A
Intelligence Information	68 D	74 R/I	87 R/I	55 R/I	72 R/I	60 N/A	60 N/A

TABLE 11

LOCAL RESIDENTS AND BUSINESS/INTEREST GROUPS
PREDOMINANT RESPONSES
(N=143)

	Police Chief	Supervisory & Command	Line Police	Local Gov't. Officials	Judges & Attorneys	Local Residents	Business/Interest Groups
Use of Force	74 D	59 R/I	69 R/I	64 R/I	58 R/I	56 N/A	58 N/A
Citizen Complaints	51 D	63 R/I	77 R/I	52 R/I	65 R/I	61 R/I	74 R/I
Enforcement Priorities	65 D	55 R/I	82 R/I	60 R/I	63 R/I	63 R/I	86 R/I
Promotions	66 D	55 R/I	65 R/I	56 N/A	73 N/A	85 N/A	79 N/A
Domestic Violence	53 D	49 R/I	61 R/I	50 N/A	67 R/I	64 N/A	72 N/A
Stop & Frisk	59 D	52 R/I	63 R/I	49 R/I	53 R/I	62 N/A	62 N/A
Intelligence Information	64 D	50 D	72 R/I	48 R/I	52 R/I	66 N/A	64 N/A

of Police is perceived as the key decision-maker in all policy areas; police personnel are ascribed a consistent and important "review/influence" role; local government officials and especially judges/attorneys are seen as playing "review/influence" roles, but clearly a "not appropriate" role in the promotions policy area; and lastly, the group perceives its own involvement as "not appropriate" in five of the seven policy areas, the exceptions being citizen complaints (i.e., 61% and 74% "review/influence") and enforcement priorities (i.e., 63% and 86% "review/influence").

e) Total Respondents. Table 12 illustrates a summary of "predominant responses" for all groups, and basically represents another approach to the data previously presented in Graph 1. Once again, the pattern of responses is clear. The Chief of Police is viewed as the key decision-maker in all seven policy areas (i.e., 53% to 74% "decide"; median of 65%). Consistently, both supervisory/command and line police personnel are ascribed a "review/influence" role in every policy area. With the sole exception of the promotions policy area, local government officials and judges/attorneys are perceived to have a "review/influence" role, although that role is clearly more apparent for judges/attorneys. Finally, in five of the seven policy areas, the role for local residents and business/interest groups is seen as "not appropriate", especially with regard to the business/interest groups. These two groups are seen however, as playing a "review/influence" role in the two policy areas of citizen complaints and enforcement priorities.

TABLE 12

TOTAL RESPONDENTS

PREDOMINANT RESPONSES
(N=435)

	Police Chief	Supervisory & Command	Line Police	Local Gov't. Officials	Judges & Attorneys	Local Residents	Business/Interest Groups
Use of Force	74 D	66 R/I	78 R/I	63 R/I	71 R/I	58 N/A	65 N/A
Citizen Complaints	57 D	68 R/I	81 R/I	56 R/I	68 R/I	63 R/I	56 R/I
Enforcement Priorities	66 D	61 R/I	84 R/I	63 R/I	63 R/I	68 R/I	74 R/I
Promotions	65 D	65 R/I	51 R/I	57 N/A	76 N/A	87 N/A	85 N/A
Domestic Violence	53 D	60 R/I	70 R/I	49 R/I	68 R/I	56 N/A	72 N/A
Stop & Frisk	59 D	62 R/I	77 R/I	48 R/I	67 R/I	65 N/A	70 N/A
Intelligence Information	65 D	58 R/I	80 R/I	46 R/I	62 R/I	72 N/A	70 N/A

5. City Analysis

For each of the six cities (i.e., Dayton, Madison, Concord, San Diego, St. Louis, and Aurora), results are presented for each of the four combined respondent groups and the total sample of respondents in each city for all seven policies.

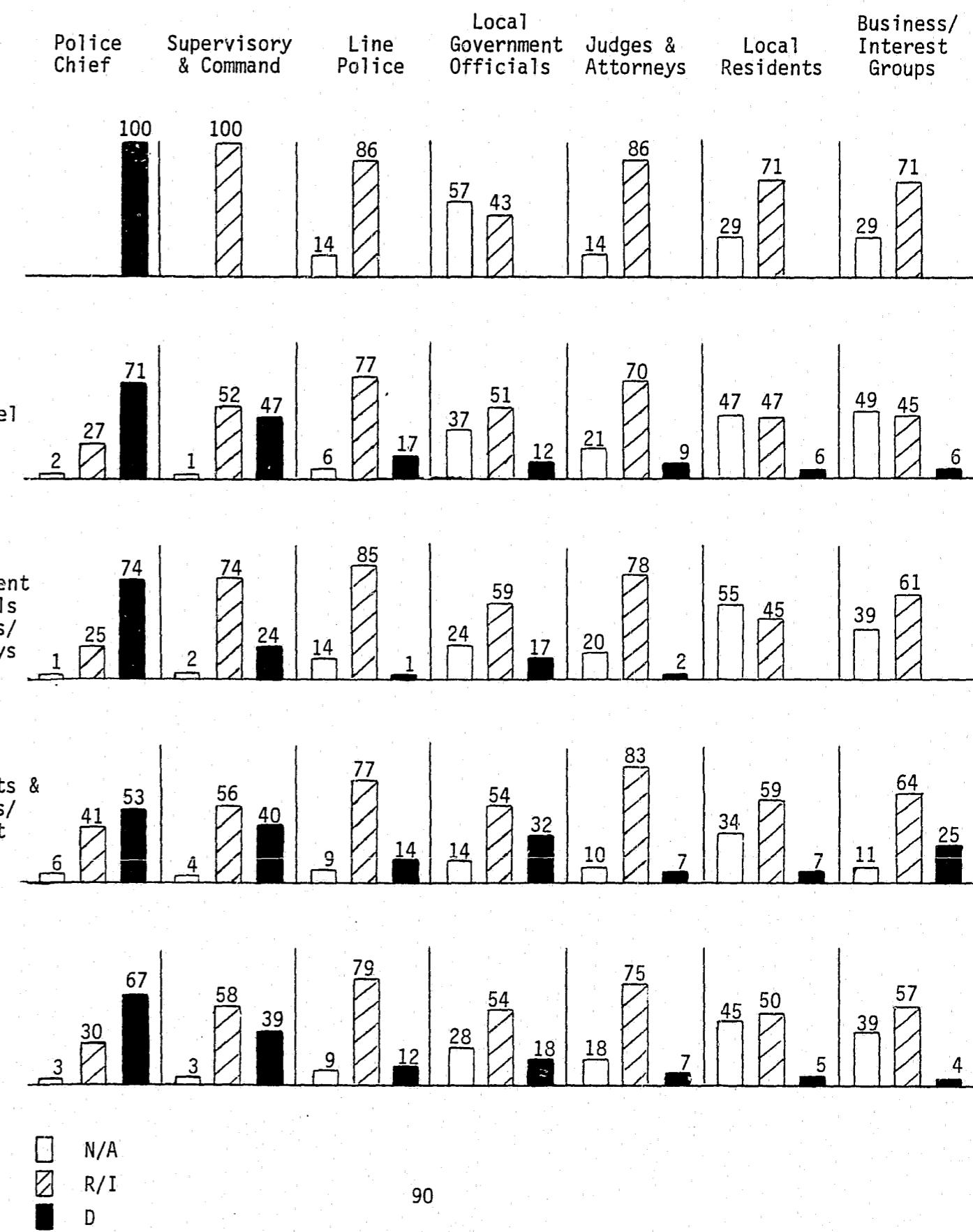
a) Dayton. Graph 9 illustrates responses with regard to the City of Dayton.

The Chief of Police indicated that he should be the decision-maker with regard to all seven policies. Significant "review/influence" roles were ascribed to all other groups, although a "not appropriate" role was apparent for local government officials (i.e., 57%).

Police personnel felt that the Chief of Police and to a lesser extent, supervisory/command personnel should be the key decision-makers (i.e., 71% and 47% "decide"). Important "review/influence" roles were given to line police and judges/attorneys. Opinions were fairly evenly split between "not appropriate" and "review/influence" roles for local government officials, and especially local residents and business/interest groups.

Local government officials and judges/attorneys also viewed the Chief of Police as the key decision-maker (i.e., 74% "decide"). Strong "review/influence" roles were given to police personnel, and the combined group of local government officials and judges/attorneys themselves. Although this combined group considered

GRAPH 9
DAYTON



local residents and business/interest groups to have a "review/influence" role, a strong "not appropriate" role was also apparent (i.e., 55% and 39%).

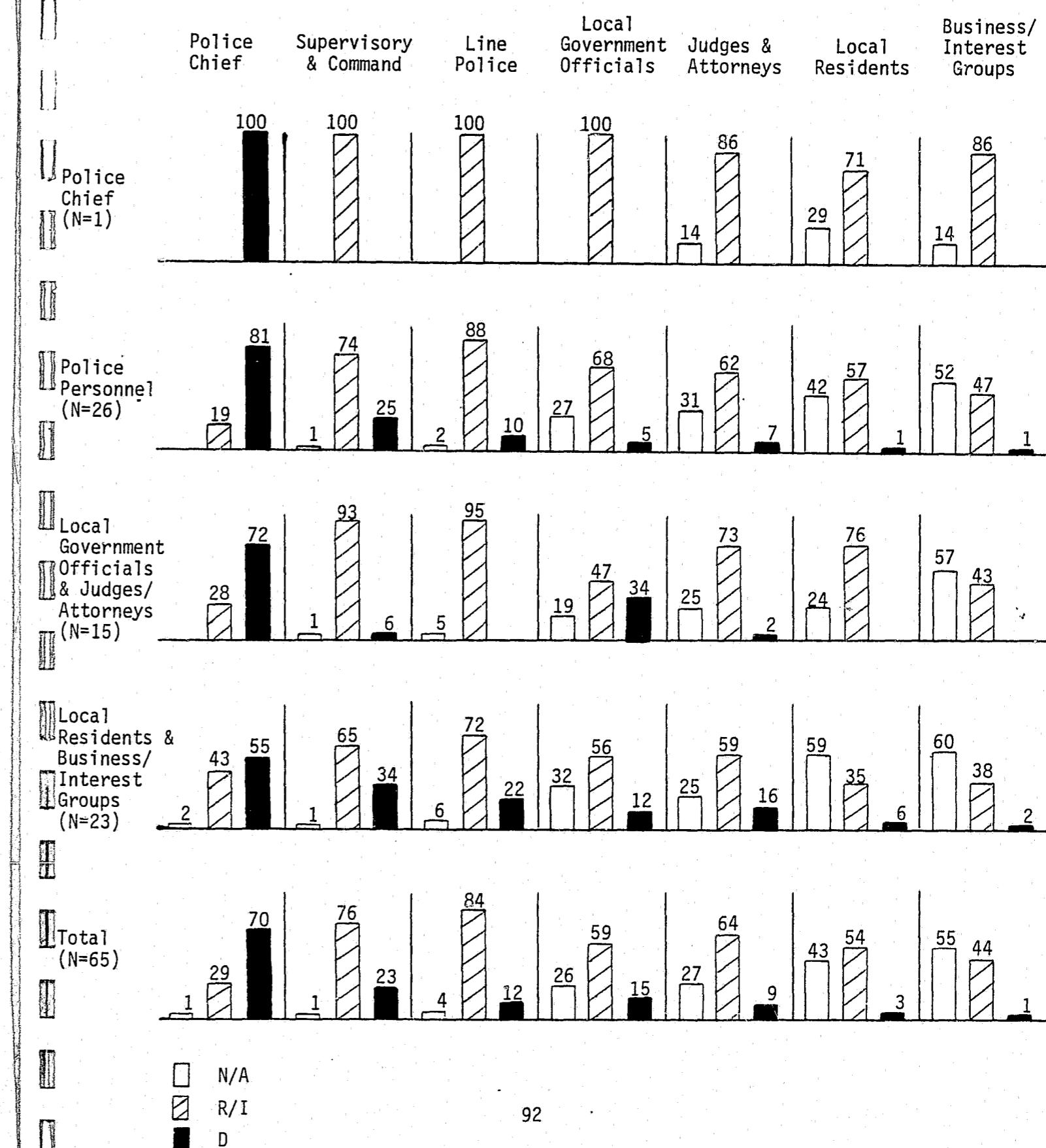
Local residents and business/interest groups demonstrated more diffuse opinions regarding police policy involvement. Although they viewed the Chief of Police as the key decision-maker (i.e., 53% "decide"), important "decide" roles were also attributed to police personnel, local government officials, and business/interest groups. Local residents most frequently viewed themselves as occupying a "not appropriate" role (i.e., 34%).

For the total 75 respondents, the Chief of Police was placed in the key decision-maker role by a margin of 2 to 1 (i.e., 67% "decide"), followed by supervisory/command personnel (i.e., 39% "decide"). Important "review/influence" roles were ascribed to line police and judges/attorneys. Respondents were undecided about the role that local government officials should play in the City of Dayton (i.e., 28% "not appropriate", 54% "review/influence", and 18% "decide"). The role for local residents and business/interest groups was split between "not appropriate" and "review/influence".

b) Madison. Graph 10 depicts responses with regard to the City of Madison.

The Chief of Police indicated that he should be the key decision-maker in all policy areas. All groups were given important "review/influence" roles, although local residents were given the lowest role (i.e., 71% "review/influence").

GRAPH 10
MADISON



Police personnel considered the Chief of Police to be the key decision-maker (i.e., 81% "decide"). Very strong "review/influence" roles were given by this group to themselves (i.e., 74% and 88%). Local government officials and judges/attorneys were viewed similarly with regard to a 2 to 1 preference for a "review/influence" role. Opinions were fairly evenly split between "not appropriate" and "review/influence" for local residents and business/interest groups.

Local government officials and judges/attorneys also placed the Chief of Police in the key decision-maker role (i.e., 72% "decide"). Very strong "review/influence" roles were assigned to police personnel. Interestingly, this group was clearly undecided about the involvement of local government officials (i.e., 19% "not appropriate", 47% "review/influence", and 34% "decide"). An important "review/influence" role was ascribed to judges/attorneys and local residents. Business/interest groups however, were seen as primarily having a "not appropriate" role (i.e., 57%).

Local residents and business/interest groups, as in the City of Dayton, demonstrated more diffuse opinions regarding police policy involvement. Although the Chief of Police was considered to be the key decision-maker (i.e., 55% "decide"), important "decide" roles were also attributed to police personnel, and to lesser extents, local government officials and judges/attorneys. Both local residents and business/interest groups viewed themselves as primarily having a "not appropriate" role (i.e., 59% and 60%), even more so than that attributed to them by the other five groups!

For the total 65 respondents, the Chief of Police, as in the City of Dayton, stood out as the key decision-maker (i.e., 70% "decide"). Police personnel clearly occupied a "review/influence" role (i.e., 76% and 84%). Somewhat similar to Dayton, the roles for both local government officials and judges/attorneys were spread among the three involvement levels, although favoring a "review/influence" role. Opinions were fairly evenly divided for local residents and business/interest groups between "not appropriate" and "review/influence".

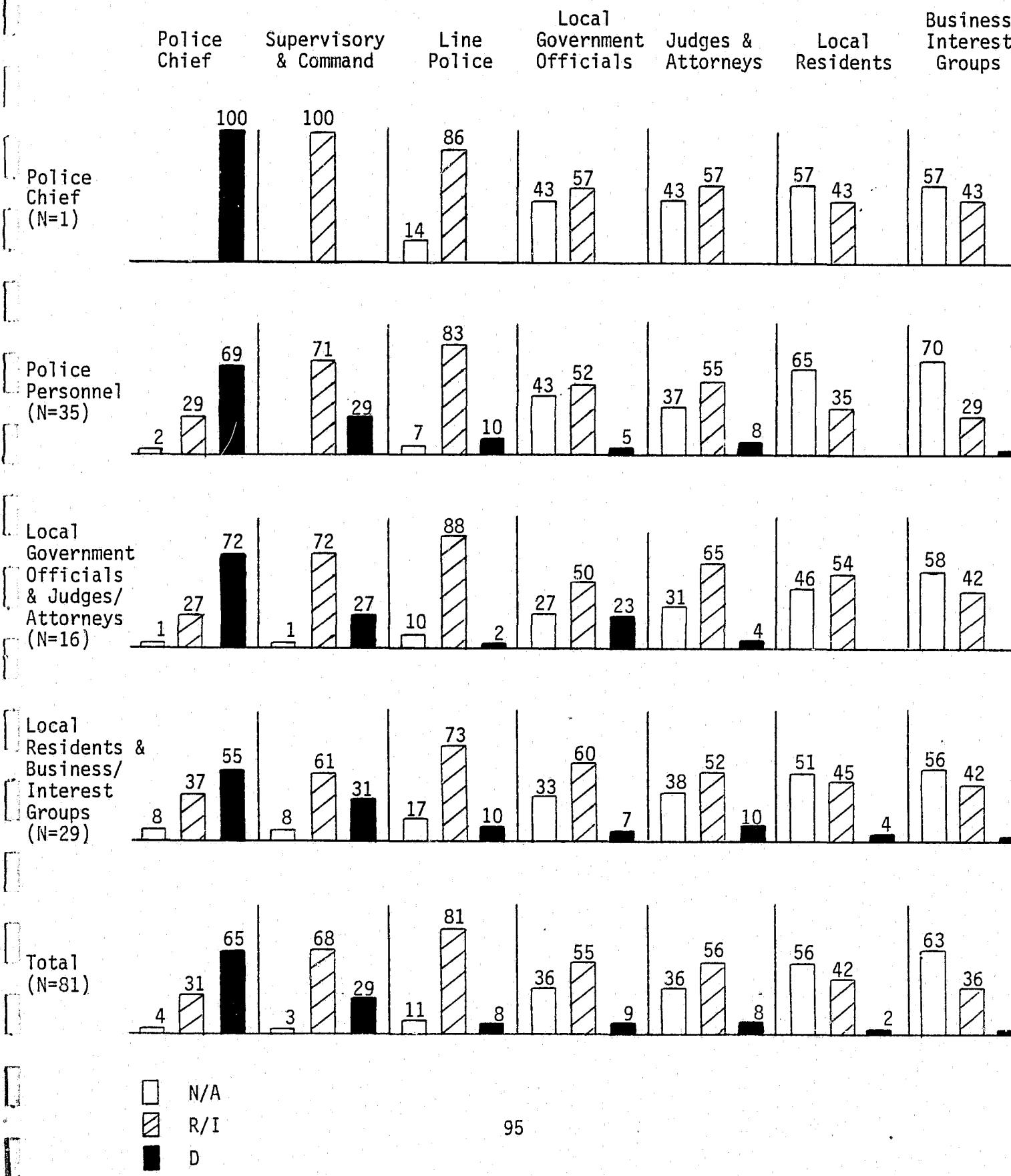
c) Concord. Graph 11 indicates responses with regard to the City of Concord.

The Chief of Police, as in previous cities, indicated that he should be the key decision-maker in all policy areas. A "review/influence" role was clearly attributed to police personnel. For both local government officials and judges/attorneys, a "review/influence" role was ascribed, whereas for local residents, and business/interest groups the more popular role was considered to be "not appropriate".

Police personnel viewed the Chief of Police as the key decision-maker (i.e., 69% "decide"), but also looked at themselves in a less significant "decide" role (i.e., 29% and 10%). Both local government officials and judges/attorneys were primarily placed in a "review/influence" role, whereas local residents and business/interest groups were clearly placed in a "not appropriate" role (i.e., 65% and 70%).

GRAPH 11

CONCORD



Local government officials and judges/attorneys also saw the Chief of Police as the key decision-maker (i.e., 72% "decide"), and ascribed a strong "review/influence" role to police personnel. The role of local government officials was again mixed as in previous cities (i.e., 27% "not appropriate", 50% "review/influence", and 23% "decide"). Judges/attorneys were seen as playing an important "review/influence" role. Local residents and business/interest groups evidenced the greatest percentages of "not appropriate" responses (i.e., 46% and 58%), but a clear "review/influence" role was apparent.

Local residents and business/interest groups continued to be more diffuse in their opinions regarding the roles of various groups in the police policymaking process, as has been apparent in other cities. "Review/influence" roles were ascribed to police personnel, local government officials, judges/attorneys, local residents, and business/interest groups in decreasing percentages. Local residents and business/interest groups primarily saw themselves in a "not appropriate" role (i.e., 51% and 56%).

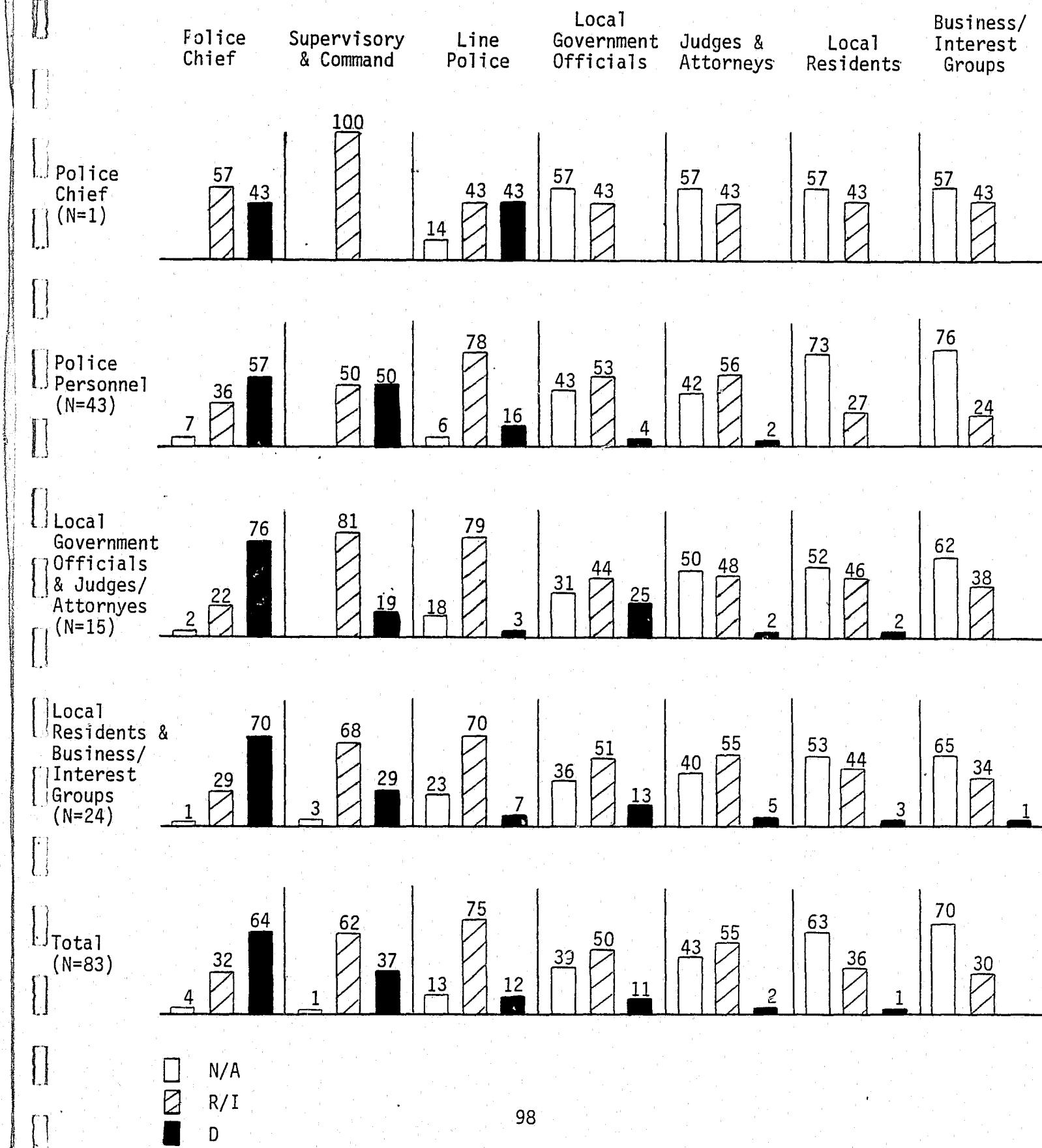
For the total 81 respondents, the pattern of responses was similar to the cities of Dayton and Madison. The Chief of Police was seen in the key decision-making role (i.e., 65% "decide"). Police personnel were ascribed important "review/influence" roles. Local government officials and judges/attorneys received mixed opinions, but favoring a "review/influence" role in contrast to "not appropriate". Local residents and business/interest groups were primarily seen in a "not appropriate" role.

GRAPH 12
SAN DIEGO

d) San Diego. Graph 12 illustrates responses with regard to the City of San Diego.

In contrast to the preceding three cities of Dayton, Madison, and Concord, the pattern of responses for the Chief of Police was decidedly different with regard to his own involvement and that of line police. The Chief of Police viewed his role as primarily "review/influence" (i.e., 57%) in contrast to the 100% "decide" apparent in the other three cities. Additionally, although the role for supervisory/command was seen as 100% "review/influence" as in the other three cities, the role for line police was evenly split between "review/influence" and "decide" (i.e., 43%). This is in contrast to the clear "review/influence" role apparent in the other three cities for line personnel (i.e., 86% to 100%). The most prevalent response for the Chief of Police in regards to the remaining four groups was consistently "not appropriate" (i.e., 57%).

Police personnel viewed the Chief of Police as the key decision-maker (i.e., 57% "decide"), but not as strongly as in previous cities (i.e., 69% to 81%). Additionally, police personnel viewed supervisory/command personnel as having a very important "decide" role (i.e., 50%). The role of line police was primarily considered to be "review/influence". Local government officials and judges/attorneys were viewed similarly as having either a "not appropriate" role or a "review/influence" role which was slightly more preferred. The role ascribed to both



local residents and business/interest groups was clearly "not appropriate" (i.e., 73% and 76%).

Local government officials and judges/attorneys viewed the Chief of Police as the key decision-maker (i.e., 76% "decide"), and police personnel as having a pronounced "review/influence" role. The role of local government officials was again viewed as mixed, not unlike previous cities (i.e., 31% "not appropriate", 44% "review/influence", and 25% "decide"). Opinions regarding the role of judges/attorneys, local residents, and business/interest groups was fairly evenly balanced between "not appropriate" and "review/influence".

Local residents and business/interest groups viewed the Chief of Police as the key decision-maker (i.e., 70% "decide"), and considerably more strongly than in the previous three cities (i.e., 53% to 55% "decide"). Police personnel were ascribed important "review/influence" roles. Local government officials and judges/attorneys were also seen primarily in a "review/influence" role, but clearly less than for police personnel. Local residents and especially business/interest groups saw themselves primarily in a "not appropriate" role.

For the total 83 respondents, the overall pattern of responses was fairly similar to previously described cities, with the exception of higher "not appropriate" responses for local residents and business/interest groups. The Chief of Police was seen as the key decision-maker (i.e., 64% "decide"), with strong "review/influence"

roles for police personnel. Once again, the role for local government officials was mixed (i.e., 39% "not appropriate", 50% "review/influence", and 11% "decide"). A similar pattern occurred for judges/attorneys. A "not appropriate" role was apparent for local residents and business/interest groups (i.e., 63% and 70%).

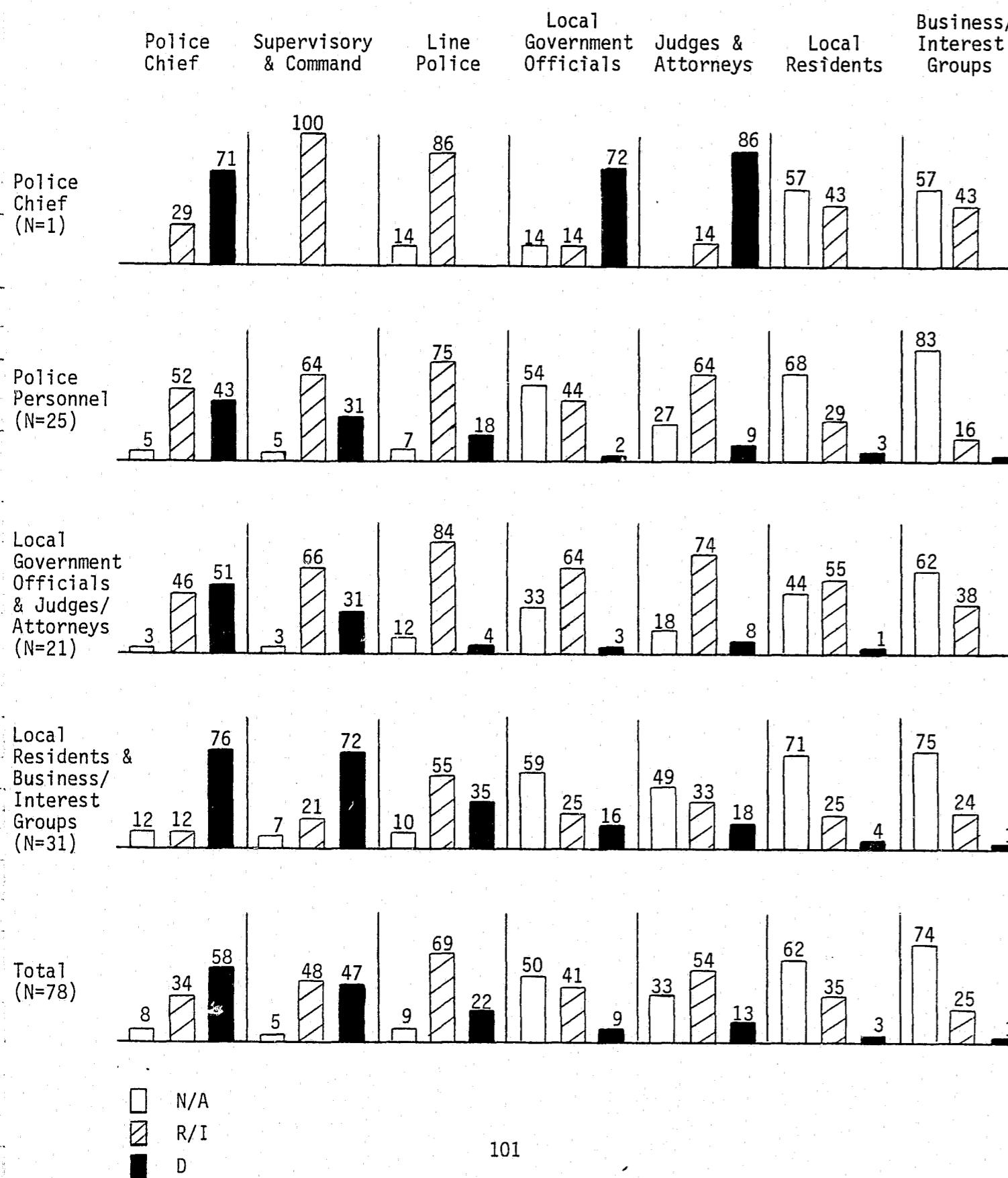
e) St. Louis. Graph 13 depicts responses with regard to the City of St. Louis.

Another unusual pattern of responses occurred in contrast to the preceding four cities, but in regards to two other groups. While the pattern of responses by the Chief of Police was typical of three of the four preceding cities (i.e., the Chief of Police as the key decision-maker, with a substantial "review/influence" role for police personnel), the role for local government officials and judges/attorneys was substantially different; a high "decide" role was ascribed (i.e., 72% and 86%). This is in contrast to the "not appropriate" or "review/influence" role assigned to these two groups by the Chief of Police in all four preceding cities. "Not appropriate" roles were generally ascribed to local residents and business/interest groups (i.e., 57%).

Police personnel responses were also unusual. For the first time, the Chief of Police was not viewed by this combined group to be the key decision-maker (i.e., only 43% "decide" vs. a range of 57% to 81% "decide" in the four preceding cities). Police personnel themselves were seen as occupying an important "review/influence" role. Attitudes were split between "not appropriate" and "review/

GRAPH 13

ST. LOUIS



"influence" for local government officials, while judges/attorneys were seen as generally having an important "review/influence" role (i.e., 64%). Both local residents and business/interest groups were clearly seen as "not appropriate".

Local government officials and judges/attorneys viewed the Chief of Police as the key decision-maker, but not by a large margin (i.e., 51% "decide"). This is again in contrast to the four preceding cities where the range of "decide" responses varied from 72% to 76%. Very important "review/influence" roles were ascribed to police personnel, local government officials, judges/attorneys, and to a lesser extent, local residents. Business/interest groups were seen primarily in a "not appropriate" role (i.e., 62%).

Local residents and business/interest groups viewed the Chief of Police as the key decision-maker (i.e., 76% "decide"), but also considered supervisory/command personnel and to a lesser extent, line personnel as having a pronounced "decide" role (i.e., 72% and 35%). This is substantially higher than in all four preceding cities. Local government officials, judges/attorneys, and especially local residents and business/interest groups themselves were ascribed "not appropriate" roles.

For the total 78 respondents, although the Chief of Police was seen as the key decision-maker (i.e., 58% "decide"), police personnel were viewed as having important "review/influence" and to a lesser extent, "decide" roles. Judges/attorneys were primarily

ascribed a "review/influence" role (i.e., 54%), and local government officials, local residents, and business/interest groups were seen increasingly in "not appropriate" roles (i.e., 50%, 62%, and 74%). Clearly, responses in the City of St. Louis were unusual in contrast to the four previously discussed. This uniqueness may be explained by the existence of a very influential Police Commission, membership of which is determined by the Governor of Missouri.

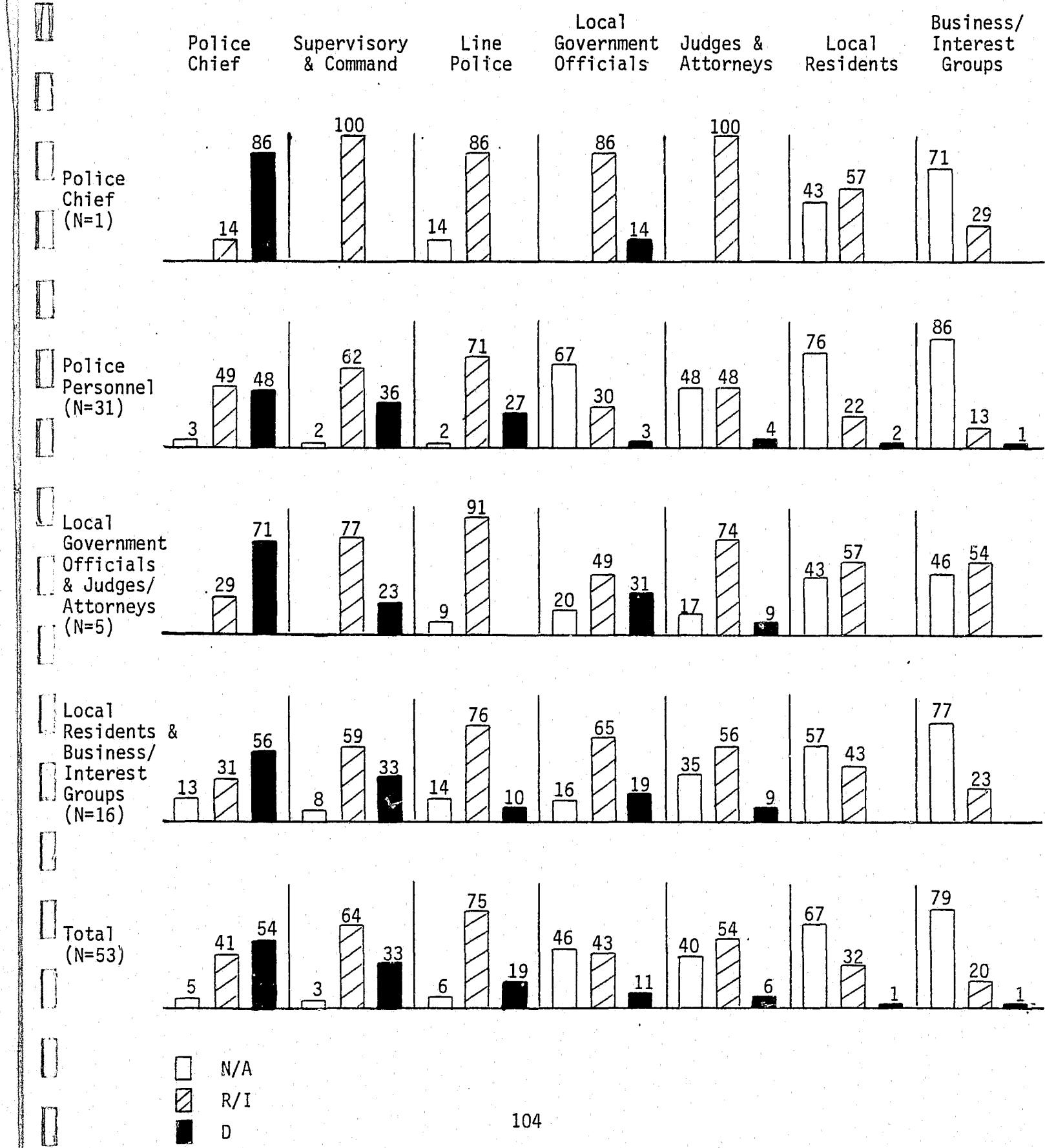
f) Aurora. Graph 14 indicates responses with regard to the City of Aurora.

The Chief of Police viewed himself as the key decision-maker in all policy areas. Important "review/influence" roles were ascribed to police personnel, local government officials, judges/attorneys, and to a much lesser extent, local residents. Business/interest groups were clearly seen in a "not appropriate" role.

Similarly to St. Louis, police personnel viewed the Chief of Police as the key decision-maker, but clearly not in a pronounced manner (i.e., 48% "decide"). They also ascribed a visible "decide" role for themselves (i.e., 36% and 27%). Local government officials, local residents, and business/interest groups were seen in increasingly more prominent "not appropriate" roles (i.e., 67%, 76%, and 86%). Judges/attorneys were seen as equally divided between "not appropriate" and "review/influence" roles.

Local government officials and judges/attorneys ascribed the key decision-making role to the Chief of Police (i.e., 71% "decide").

GRAPH 14
AURORA



They also viewed police personnel and judges/attorneys in important "review/influence" roles. As has been the case in other cities, the role for local government officials was mixed (i.e., 20% "not appropriate", 49% "review/influence", and 31% "decide"). Local residents and business/interest groups were similarly described as having rather weak "review/influence" roles (i.e., 57% and 54%).

Local residents and business/interest groups viewed the Chief of Police as the key decision-maker (i.e., 56% "decide"). Police personnel, local government officials, and to a lesser extent, judges/attorneys were ascribed "review/influence" roles. Local residents and especially business/interest groups themselves were seen in a "not appropriate" role (i.e., 57% and 77%).

For the total 53 respondents, the Chief of Police was seen as the key decision-maker (i.e., 54% "decide"), with police personnel occupying important "review/influence" roles. Both local government officials and judges/attorneys were seen in either "not appropriate" or "review/influence" roles. Local residents and especially business/interest groups were viewed in "not appropriate" roles (i.e., 67% and 79%).

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Prior to the detailed description of a recommended model pertaining to citizen participation in the police policymaking process presented in the next and final section of this report, a number of conclusions and implications for model development and implementation are discussed below. This discussion is provided so as to facilitate understanding and adoption of the proposed model.

To achieve the two broad purposes of this exploratory research effort; that is, the enhanced understanding of the police policymaking process, and the development of a model pertaining to continuous participation of citizens in that process, the following three basic approaches were employed: A) literature review, B) mail survey, and C) site visits.

A. Literature Review

Although the police policy setting process clearly has implications for the nature of police community relations in any particular city, there is very little evidence indicative of a relationship between "police-community relations programs" and citizen participation in the police policy setting process. Our review of both the traditional and contemporary literature indicated that there is little, if any, visible and direct influence by lay citizens on the development and/or implementation of police policy in efforts which have been characterized as "police-community relations programs". Police-community relations programs and citizen participation in the police policy setting process both share the objective of improved police-community relationships. However, it is clear that PCR programs, although frequently

of noteworthy value, have basically failed to address the very fundamental issue of police goals, roles, and enactments; the subject of police policymaking. Any models developed and proposed then, should keep the above distinctions in mind.

It is clear that citizen participation in the police policy setting process does take place. Writings found in both the public and police policy setting literature strongly assert that political and economic elites do in fact influence (police) policy; they too are "citizens". Further, if the police themselves are also to be considered citizens, the impact of their philosophies and predispositions on policymaking is unquestioned. The confusion lies in our historical and contemporary failure to define "community", the relative invisibility of those citizens and institutions who influence police policy, and the lack of agreement on the type and degree of citizen participation. It is the poor, the uninfluential, the politically impotent whose input is rarely, if ever, solicited by the police and who therefore have relatively little say in the development of police policy. However, the numerous and often compelling arguments against lay citizen participation in the police policy setting process must be appreciated on the one hand, but not exaggerated on the other in reference to model development.

The potential utility of citizen participation in the police policy setting process varies with the specific policy in question. Just as there is a need to be specific about the type and degree of citizen participation in the police policy setting process, it is also necessary to be specific about the types of policies involved. As revealed in the literature review, there is a great variety of police policy. Different people have interests

in different policies and it is reasonable to expect that the potential value of citizen participation is, in part, determined by the interaction between citizen types and policy issues. For example, policy on the use of force would be relatively unimportant to members of a downtown businessmen's association, but very important to members of minority communities; policy governing stop and frisk would be important to prosecutorial and judicial figures, but of much less interest to local government officials; policy pertaining to the allocation of police resources would be of importance to almost any group of people, whereas policy on handling the mentally ill would be of limited interest. Proposed models then, must be specific about both policy area and citizen involvement in that various police policies would be more or less appropriate for citizen involvement.

The absence of explicit policy specified by police departments is enhanced by a similar absence of goals. Statements of policy are necessary for a variety of reasons not the least of which are their impact on police role and effort definitions. Goals are infrequently specified, yet policy is reflected in these goals; hence, frequently by omission, policy exists but is subject to individual interpretation and enactment. One of the means for identifying goals is through an analysis of budgets which are program and/or performance based. The allocation of resources is a rather explicit statement of the priorities of police programs and their perceived importance. Proposed models then, must take into consideration explicitly stated police department goals.

Policy implementation is equal in importance to policy development. The police policy setting process cannot be viewed solely from the stand-

point of development. No matter how elegant a model may be, its merit rests with the extent to which police practice is consistent with intention. In light of the dynamics of the police policy determination process (e.g., the setting of policy at the bottom of the organization, the influence of the police subculture, the power of police officer associations), the model(s) must be ever cognizant of implementation issues as well as developmental issues. With rare exception, the literature review revealed little attention to policy implementation and evaluation.

Programs specifically addressed to citizen participation in police policy setting have taken place and models pertaining to the process presently exist. Our review of the literature indicated the existence of some programs and models pertaining to the police policymaking process. The findings suggest that the thrust of the model development effort should include an overview of various models which have experienced some utilization as well as the development of one model which incorporates the more successful features of these other models.

These six conclusions from our literature review have important implications for enhancing our understanding of the police policymaking process, and in developing a workable citizen participation model.

B. Mail Survey

As the reader will recall, a mail survey on practices pertaining to the police policy setting process was forwarded to approximately 300 police agencies throughout the United States. Conclusions pertaining to the survey results and their implications for model development are discussed below.

Police department policy is most often developed by police personnel at the top and middle command levels with less frequent involvement of other groups within the department, city, and community. Most police departments do not, as a general practice, directly involve police personnel outside the management group in the policy development process. However, a substantial number of departments do involve police supervisors, line personnel, police officer association representatives, the city manager, and the city attorney. The city attorney, and to a lesser extent the city manager, are the only city officials who appear to be directly involved in police policy development.

Community groups and criminal justice professionals are rarely involved directly in police policy development. With the exception of city department heads, community groups are the least frequently involved in the police policy setting process of all groups studied in the survey. Citizen advisory committees do not play an active role in the development of police policy. Only eleven of the 182 departments who completed the survey claimed to directly involve line police officers, community groups, criminal justice professionals, and to work with citizen advisory groups in policy development.

In setting or structuring law enforcement policy, police officials are often influenced by civil service commissions, state standards organizations, and union contracts or memorandums of understanding. Union contracts and memorandums of understanding were most influential in West and East region departments, and those in the larger cities. While a majority of departments in all regions acknowledged the influence of civil service commissions

in setting or structuring police policy, the extent of influence increased with city size.

Geographic and population differences were evident but not easily interpreted. Generally, the West, Mountain, and Central region departments evidence more broad scale participation in the policy setting process than did those departments in the South and East regions.

The survey clearly indicated that, in general, line police officers and especially citizen groups do not participate in the development of police policy. Thus, neither that group which must implement police policy in day-to-day interactions with citizens, nor that group "for whose good" police services are rendered, have direct input in determining the policies which shape the nature of police services and the manner in which they are delivered. Police departments with a truly participative policy development process are rare, and they appear with apparent randomness in various geographic regions and population categories throughout the United States.

Summarily, it can be said that broad-based participation in the police policy-setting process is very unusual. The locus of decision-making is largely in the hands of the Chief of Police or similar top police official. This official will frequently take counsel from "experts" (e.g., police command personnel, city attorney), will corroborate or confirm a policy stance with higher governmental authority (e.g., city manager, police commission), and will include in policy decisions legal directives (e.g., union contracts, civil service rules).

Implications for model development, based upon these mail survey results

are primarily three-fold: 1) the criticality of the role and personality of the top police official; 2) the importance of expertise, power, and/or legal mandate as prerequisites for participation in and influence on the police policy setting process, and 3) the very questionable relevance of lay citizen participation in police policy development.

C. Site Visits

A number of conclusions can be drawn from the data and experience acquired from the sixteen (16) first-wave sites.

First of all, in the large majority of cases (i.e., sites), some form of community discontent or crisis and/or prior pressure for a Civilian Review Board constituted the key event initiating the development of the citizen participation mechanism of interest. Other factors were sometimes present (e.g., new legislation/ordinance, budgeting). True voluntariness, or proactive policy development was extremely rare, consistent with the reactionary character of police personnel and organizations.

Secondly, sponsors of the mechanisms developed were most often elected officials, and secondarily Chiefs of Police themselves. The most popular mechanisms were committees or advisory groups comprised of lay residents and/or people with some special expertise. These committees or groups were always supplementary and advisory to the established local governmental body.

Thirdly, it is at least interesting to note, that among those four of the sixteen (16) cities referred to as the "Big Four"; that is, those cities having particularly compelling forms of citizen participation in police policymaking, program budgets, in contrast to line item budgets, were

considerably more apparent. This is consistent with our earlier discussion in this section concerning the relationship between the articulation of police goals and the rational, thoughtful development of police policies.

With regard to the data and experience acquired from the six (6) second-wave sites, important implications for model development also evidenced themselves.

The most revealing conclusion from the attitude data was that a clear hierarchy of involvement in police policy matters became apparent. Whether the opinions were expressed by police or non-police respondents in regards to different policies in different cities, the results remained consistent. That is, that the Chief of Police should be the key decision-maker; that police personnel should occupy an important "review/influence" role, including line personnel; that judges and attorneys, and to a lesser extent local government officials should perform a "review/influence" role, but primarily in selected technical policy areas (e.g., stop and frisk); and finally that the role of local residents, and especially business/interest groups, in police policy development is primarily "not appropriate" with two exceptions (i.e., the processing of citizen complaints and the specification of enforcement priorities).

Of additional interest and unexpectedly, the role of government officials was perceived ambiguously by government officials themselves as well as non-government official respondents, and the role for local residents was often perceived to be greater among non-local resident respondents than local residents themselves (i.e., "review/influence" rather than "not appropriate").

With regard to the participation of lay residents in the police policy-setting process, our results are consistent with the following arguments offered by Goldstein (1977) in regards to overestimating the potential for citizen involvement:

"In their enthusiasm to compensate for the insulation of the past, advocates of greater citizen involvement are apt to misjudge both the feasibility of achieving greater citizen involvement and the contribution that can be realized. They tend to define expectations unrealistically and to overlook predictable problems. It is extremely difficult to organize and sustain groups at the grass-roots level that are truly representative of a cross section of the community. Limited experience with the use of advisory groups indicates that it is often difficult to achieve a consensus, that interest soon fades, and that persons representing special interests, such as the business community, become the strongest voices through the default of others. My own observations of informal efforts to encourage greater citizen involvement at the neighborhood level in large cities leave me with the impression that, absent vigorous representation of the people affected, persons attracted to membership on such a body are inclined to encourage and support some of the very police practices to which the advocates of decentralized decision-making are most strongly opposed."

The results of our three methodological approaches to the enhanced understanding of the police policymaking process and to the development of a model pertaining to continuous participation of citizens in that process are strikingly, and fortunately, consistent.

We now turn to the last section of this report which describes a proposed model, and the corresponding strategies and techniques necessary for its implementation and evaluation.

MODELS

This last section of the final report is devoted to the following two primary components: A) discussion of a number of general models pertaining to citizen participation in the police policy setting process, and B) description of a 12-point model practically designed to enhance citizen participation, including the specification of implementation and evaluation elements.

A. General Models

A number of general models for police policymaking have come to our attention in the course of conducting this exploratory research effort. All of these models share the common purpose of structuring the police policy development process and narrowing the boundaries of discretion exercised by police at both the administrative and operational levels. The models differ in their definitions of precisely who should be allowed to participate in the police policymaking process, and what forums are to be employed.

1. Rulemaking

Rulemaking is the development and publication of clear, written policies which guide, govern, and limit discretion through their instructive/educative features, without denying or replacing discretion. It is a process which may, but does not necessarily, involve any kind of participation by private parties (Caplan, 1974).

Advocates of rulemaking contend that it serves the multiple purposes of strengthening the control of the police administrator over police

operations; providing legal protection for the line police officer; and improving police-community relations through standardization of police practice and the consistent and proper use of discretion (Caplan, 1974; Wasserman, Gardner and Cohen, 1973; Wilson and Alprin, 1974; Mc Evoy, 1976; Morrow, Gray and Fitch, 1973).

Traditionally, police agencies have avoided the development of written policy related to street practices and the hard choices the police officer must make daily. A department's voluminous policy manuals or rules and regulations will, however, include detailed written guidelines regarding the use and care of equipment, off-duty behavior, scheduling of court appearances, dress and hair regulations, towing of vehicles, and other non-enforcement issues.

In recent years, a number of police departments across the nation have taken the initiative in the development of detailed written policy to guide police street practices. Some have directly involved community representatives and line police officers in the process of policy development. Lay citizen involvement has been highly controversial in some jurisdictions, where police associations have perceived this process as "thinly disguised citizen complaint review boards" (Mc Gowan, 1972). Police associations have not been the only opposition to citizen participation in written policy development. Some experts from the legal and academic fields would limit participation in the rulemaking process to police command staff, attorneys, and academic "experts". This elitism is apparent in the following statement by a prominent and respected individual in the law enforcement field, who was a former police legal advisor, and an early advocate of

rulemaking by law enforcement agencies:

"At this point in time, when the whole concept of rulemaking is in its infancy, there is no reason to inhibit its development by imposing citizen participation as a pre-requisite to the promulgation of rules." (Caplan, 1974)

Rulemaking efforts can be further categorized into sub-models, distinguished by their definition of who participates in the development of written policy outside of the department's command staff. Other participants may include the following: police personnel, legal advisors, criminal justice professionals, non-criminal justice professionals (e.g., medical and/or psychiatric personnel), and lay citizens.

Rulemaking is a police policymaking model which potentially incorporates the participation of all of the above groups or combinations thereof. It is recognized that not all areas of police policy are appropriate for citizen involvement. The use of confidential informants and the common practices regarding "allowable" offenses (e.g., certain leeway in the enforcement of actual speed limits or curfew violations) are cited as examples of such areas of policy. The criteria commonly proposed for identifying appropriate participants in the rulemaking process, outside of police command staff, the legal advisor, and other criminal justice professionals, is the extent to which a particular group will be directly and generally affected by the policy under consideration. By this criteria, line police officers would rarely be excluded from the policymaking process, and lay and professional community members would have input in those areas of importance to them.

2. Committee/Task Force

The committee or task force approach to police policymaking involves the assignment of primary responsibility for the development of policy in a particular area to a group of individuals. Any product or recommendation of such a group is typically subject to final review and approval of the top police administrator prior to implementation.

The committee or task force model applies the principles of representativeness and group problem-solving to the police policymaking process. Inherent in this approach is a belief that police policy should result in practical decrees for the beat police officer and responsive practices for the community. The committee/task force approach enables the maximum utilization of available resources in the department and the community to achieve these ends.

The committee or task force may be composed exclusively of police personnel, or may include representative members of the lay and non-police professional community.

When combined with the rulemaking model, the committee/task force model provides a mechanism for broad, representative involvement of police and the public in the development of written statements of police policy. The committee/task force approach may also be used to produce policy recommendations or policy agreements which result in revision or development of police policy.

3. Legislation, Judicial Rulemaking, and Litigation

Although different from one another, legislation, judicial rulemaking, and litigation represent another model of policy development. With legislation, policy governing police practices is enacted by law-makers at the federal, state, and/or municipal levels. Examples include the passing of local ordinances limiting policy intelligence-gathering and state laws pertaining to the handling of parties involved in domestic violence incidents. With judicial rulemaking, police policy is determined by the judiciary where judges clarify criminal procedure pertaining to interrogation and the taking of statements, for example. Finally, litigation is a process in which police policy is structured and determined by the judiciary through court orders, injunctions, and damage awards resulting from civil and criminal suits against the police, initiated by or on behalf of private citizens. In some police departments, police policy is changed under direct order of the court or threatened court action. Other departments change policy with the intent of avoiding court action in recognition of their own vulnerability to lawsuits over police practices found unacceptable in other jurisdictions. Thus, litigation has, for example, been responsible for major changes in police recruitment, selection, and training policies.

A proactive variation to litigation which has successfully been employed on a number of occasions by the Community Relations Service of the Justice Department has been mediation wherein a professional negotiator is brought in to mediate conflict between opposing factions over issues of police policy.

4. Budgetary

This last policy structuring model, which has perhaps received the least attention of those previously discussed, is one in which police policy is influenced by the allocation of financial resources. Unlikely to occur in the absence of a program budget format, this model of policy development may take on greater prominence in light of tighter fiscal management directives and initiatives for increased "productivity" which are so fashionable today.

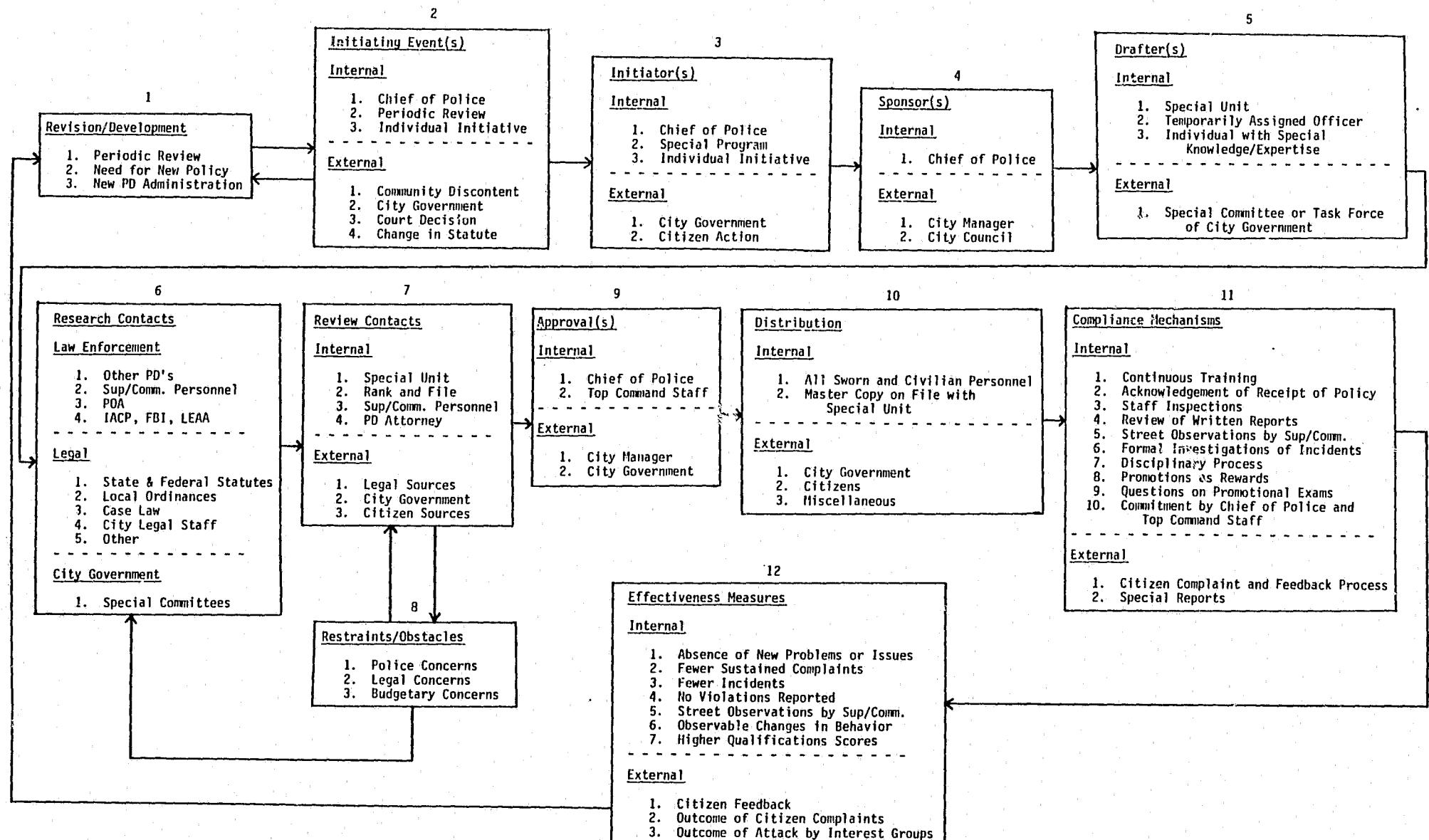
B. 12-Point Model

Described below is a 12-point model designed to enhance citizen participation in the police policymaking process. Following the description of the model, are two additional sub-sections specifying implementation and evaluation elements.

1. Model Description

Figure 1 illustrates the proposed 12-point model. Before describing each of the twelve components however, a number of assumptions underlying the application of the model and the police policymaking process itself require discussion. First of all, it is important to appreciate the fact that although citizen participation in the police policymaking process is unusual, it does take place, and there is therefore some precedent for this type of involvement by citizens. In this regard, the proposed model does not represent any radical departure from tradition, and embodies the incrementalism principle so necessary for individual and organizational change.

FIGURE 1
PROPOSED 12-POINT MODEL



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Additionally, the proposed model makes use of the experiences gained from the application of other processes as points of departure. Secondly, the model is proposed to reside within the police institution itself. This is recommended for a number of reasons including the fact that the Chief of Police is typically seen as the key decision-maker in regards to policy, that the police institution has both the obligation and the resources to fulfill the policy development function, and that continuity and historical perspective are most likely to be realized within the law enforcement agency rather than in some other setting or context (e.g., city council). Thirdly, the model proposed recognizes the importance of differences among police policy areas in terms of orchestrating participation, but denies the significance of population or geographic differences. In this sense, it is believed that the proposed model can easily be adapted to varying policy areas, and in cities of different size, geography, and character. Fourthly, the model excludes the use of lay citizens, but advocates the use of a wide variety of people depending upon the specific policy issue in question. In this regard, "experts" whose involvement is recommended, is broadly defined and in the area of handling mentally ill people, for example, would include the mentally ill themselves. Finally, adoption and application of the proposed model requires endorsement of the following values by the Chief of Police or similar top law enforcement official:

- that discretion does in fact exist in police work;
- that policies should be consistent with responsive community service, and embrace democratic principles; and
- that the quality of police service is enhanced by broad-based involvement in the policy development and implementation process.

As previously indicated, the proposed model is comprised of twelve key components. The model although specific and detailed, is sufficiently broad to accommodate any police policy area. Throughout the twelve components, the model is divided into divisions occurring either within (i.e., internally) or outside (i.e., externally) the police department, and identifies the major events, activities, or individuals within each of the two divisions.

Revision/Development (1). In most instances, a police department can be expected to already have written information dealing with at least some aspects of various policies. However, revisions of existing policy should be expected that are either planned or unplanned. A planned revision would take the form of a periodic review of all police policies at some predetermined time interval and would be influenced by a number of variables unique to each department (e.g., satisfaction with current policy, citizen feedback, manpower and budget constraints).

Unplanned revisions would most likely occur when the need arose requiring that the previous policy be expanded or modified in whole or in part. An unplanned revision might also occur when a new police department administration took over and sought to revise some of the policies existing under the previous administration.

Regardless of the circumstances bringing a policy revision or development effort into play, our proposed model starts out at this point although it may be produced by components 2 and/or 12.

Initiating Events (2). The initiating event(s) for both a revision of previous policy or the creation of a new policy may occur either internally (i.e., within the police department) or externally (i.e., outside the police department). With use of force policy, for example, the initiating event is more likely to be external rather than internal. However, it should be noted that internally occurring and externally occurring initiating events are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

The most common internal initiating event involves some action by the Chief of Police to formulate or revise policy.

Frequently, initiation by the Chief of Police is due to that individual being newly hired to the position. The second type of internal initiating event is a periodic review of existing policy after some predetermined time interval or when the need arises. The third type of internal initiating event involves individual initiative or action taken by some member of the department or someone associated with the department.

External initiating events primarily involve either crisis/community discontent with existing policy or action taken by the city government, although these two types of events may occur concurrently. Community discontent can arise after a series of minor incidents or after a single crisis or major incident. Community discontent may take the form of either the formation of citizen groups (e.g., minority coalition) or the petitioning of city officials for the creation of special committees or public

hearings. Action by the city's governing body is a second type of external initiating event and can take the form of either public hearings on the issue or the formation of a special committee, including citizen groups, to investigate the matter further. The third type of external initiating event is unique to certain types of police policy, such as hiring practices, and involves court decisions, which may or may not evolve from civil actions or litigation. The fourth type of external initiating event occurs under a change in statute at the federal, state, or local level, and represents a legislative initiative to modify police conduct and/or priorities.

Initiators (3). As was the case with the initiating events, the initiator of the policy revision or development effort may be an individual or individuals either within or outside the police department.

The most common internal initiator is the Chief of Police who takes some action to formulate or revise policy. The second type of internal initiator is a member of some special program within the department that is charged with the policy development/revision responsibility. For example, a special program could take the form of either a Police Policy Bureau or a Police Intern. Lastly, the internal initiator may take the form of individual initiative taken by some member(s) of the department with special knowledge or expertise on the subject matter such as initiative by a Training Academy Instructor on use of force policy.

External initiators can be either members of some branch of city government or citizens within the community. Initiation by city government takes place via some special branch of government, such as a Police and Fire Commission, whereas initiation by citizens takes place via either community leaders or public hearings. In some instances, it could be expected that initiation by city government and citizen action would occur simultaneously.

Sponsors (4). The sponsors of the policy revision or development effort may be an individual or individual(s) either within or outside the police department, although not necessarily acting independently.

The most typical internal sponsor would be the Chief of Police. External sponsors may be the City Manager acting in conjunction with the Chief or the City Council acting via a specially formed committee.

Sponsors represent the key authority figures in the proposed model and have the ultimate responsibility to insure continuity in the entire policy process. In this sense, the model is based upon established authority having the resources necessary for the conduct and completion of the effort; a severe limitation in other forms of policy development programming.

Drafters (5). The drafters of policy may be an individual or individuals either within or outside the police department and may be formulating their drafts either independently or in

conjunction with one another.

The most common internal drafter of policy is a special unit within the police department whose role is either specifically or closely related to development of the particular policy. The special units drafting policy may include a Policy Bureau, a Planning and Research Unit, a Policy Development Committee, an Inspection and Control Unit, or a Research and Development Unit. A second type of commonly used internal drafter may be a temporarily assigned officer who is given the task of drafting the policy either individually or in conjunction with a special unit. The third type of internal drafter may be some member of the police department with special knowledge or expertise on the particular subject matter at issue such as a Training Academy Instructor developing use of force policy.

External drafters of policy may involve special committees or task forces created by the city government specifically for the purpose of drafting a particular police policy. The special committee may draft a version of the policy either independently or in conjunction with a draft prepared within the department.

The actual work of the policy revision/development effort then, is conducted by the drafters who receive their directive from the sponsors.

Research Contacts (6). The research contacts for the development or revision of policy can be classified into law enforcement

sources, legal sources, city government sources, and miscellaneous sources. It seems reasonable to assume that a more comprehensive policy can be formulated through the utilization of both a larger number and a broader range of available resources.

The most commonly used law enforcement research contacts utilized in policy development are currently existing policy statements of other police departments. However, a department may employ more easily accessible law enforcement research contacts such as its own supervisor/command personnel or its local Police Officers Association. Lastly, law enforcement research contacts may also include the IACP, the FBI, the LEAA, and other law enforcement resource entities.

Legal research contacts include a thorough survey of relevant state and federal statutes, local ordinances, and case law. However, due to the special skills needed to research legal materials, it seems advisable that the drafters solicit the aid of the city's legal staff as an additional research contact. Other relevant sources of legal information, depending upon the particular policy area of concern, would include civil service/merit system rules, state standards pertaining to law enforcement, and labor contracts/memorandums of understanding.

City government research contacts utilized in developing policy may include a special fact-finding committee organized by the city council. However, it seems feasible for drafters to also solicit the aid of various relevant citizen groups as research contacts.

Review Contacts (7). The review contacts utilized in the development of policy may include sources both within and outside the police department which can be used concurrently.

The most frequently used internal review contact for policy is a pre-existing special unit within the police department. These special units may include a Police Department Management Team, a Department Committee on Rules, or an Inspection and Control Unit. Other frequently used internal review contacts may include the solicitation of input from supervisor/command personnel and rank and file at either roll-call briefings or at open meetings where discussion of the proposed policy takes place. The final source for internal review contacts may include a police department attorney or legal advisor.

External review contacts include legal sources such as the city attorney or Police Officers Association attorney, city government sources such as the city council or city's insurance company, and citizen sources such as a Community Police Relations Committee.

Restraints/Obstacles (8). The restraints/obstacles to policy can be classified into the three categories of police concerns, legal concerns, and budgetary concerns. In the policy area of use of force, for example, police concerns include the fear that the policy will limit the officers' options/discretion, will place the officer's life in danger, will be too stringent, and will create a potential for "head hunting". The legal concerns include the extent of the city's liability, whether the policy as drafted exceeds existing law, and objections to drafting policy by non-lawyers. Budgetary concerns

frequently come into play in any policy revision or development effort, although they are frequently employed as a rationale for avoiding the initiation of change.

Approvals (9). The source of approval for formulated policy may include individuals inside the department, outside the department, or some combination of both.

The most common internal source of approval would be the Chief of Police, although top command staff should also be utilized. External sources of approval include the city manager or some specialized branch of the city government such as a Public Service and Safety Committee.

"Actors" evident in this ninth element of the proposed 12-point model, are similar to those described in the "Sponsors" component.

Distribution (10). Once policy has been formulated, it should be distributed to sources both within and outside the police department. In order to maximize citizen involvement in police policy setting, it is advisable to distribute the formulated policy to as broad a range of recipients as possible.

As a minimum for distribution of policy internally, the policy should be distributed to all sworn and civilian personnel. In addition, departments with a special unit involved in policy development should have a master copy of each particular policy on file within that unit.

External sources for distribution of formulated policy may include city government sources, citizen sources, and miscellaneous sources. City government sources include the mayor or city manager, city council, city attorney, city clerk, and special committees. Distribution to citizen sources include special committees with an interest in the specific policy or any interested citizen upon request. The miscellaneous sources for distribution include Civil Service Boards, Labor Relations Boards, Equal Opportunity Commission, and the city's library.

Compliance Mechanisms (11). Mechanisms for compliance to formulated policy can occur both within or outside the police department. However, internal compliance mechanisms are not only more numerous, but can also be expected to be more easily implemented and more effective.

The most commonly employed compliance mechanism for adherence to formulated policy involves continuing training of line officers and supervisor/command personnel. This procedure can take various forms such as line-up or roll-call training as well as a part of regularly scheduled briefings. Compliance mechanisms also include: signed acknowledgement of receipt of the policy, staff inspections, review of written reports, street observations by supervisor/command personnel, formal investigations of incidents, and the standard departmental disciplinary process. Less traditional compliance mechanisms include: the use of promotions as a reward for compliance with policy and the inclusion of questions dealing

with formulated policy as part of promotional procedures. A final and critical compliance mechanism is a firm commitment by the Chief of Police, command staff, and supervisory personnel to the strict adherence to policy. The following comments by Mc Namara (1978) are particularly pertinent:

"I don't think that the exact wording of a firearms order, all the commas and semi-colons, matters as much as the tone and attitude that are established within the department. It's the philosophy you set in your public statements that really makes the difference."

The standard citizen complaint and feedback process is the primary and basic external compliance mechanism. However, the citizen complaint and feedback processes can be expected to trigger a number of the internal compliance mechanisms (e.g., formal investigations and disciplinary processes). Additionally, special reports provided to local government at their request constitute another external compliance mechanism.

Effectiveness Measures (12). Effectiveness measures to assess formulated policy can occur either within or outside the police department and can be used simultaneously in most instances.

The most obvious internal effectiveness measure is the absence of new problems or issues regarding the particular policy. Similar internal effectiveness measures include: fewer sustained complaints, fewer incidents, or no reported violations of the policy. A somewhat different form of internal effectiveness

measures include: street observations by supervisor/command personnel, observable changes in officers' behavior, and increased scores on qualifications exams.

External effectiveness measures may include citizen feedback, or the outcome of citizen complaints regarding the particular policy. A more extreme form of an external effectiveness measure can occur when policy survives an attack by special interest groups.

With these twelve model components described, we now turn to a discussion of the implementation and evaluation elements.

2. Implementation Elements

The ingredients necessary for implementation of the proposed 12-point model are minimal when viewed from the perspective of traditional "cost" criteria. Hard, up-front dollars, for example, are unnecessary. Enabling legislation at the local level is unnecessary. Finally, complex approvals and logistical arrangements or agreements are unnecessary. The following value-laden ingredients however, are necessary on the part of the Chief of Police or similar top law enforcement official:

- that the police policy-setting process is a critical administrative responsibility;
- that the quality of police service is enhanced by broad-based involvement in the policy-setting process; and
- that specific staff resources should therefore be assigned and dedicated to the development and implementation of police policy.

Endorsement of these values, reflected in the assignment of no more than two full-time sworn personnel to the policy process, represents all that is necessary to implement the proposed 12-point model.

3. Evaluation Elements

Described below are twenty-two (22) criteria of quality of police policy. These criteria are subdivided into the following three categories: a) process criteria, b) product criteria, and c) implementation criteria.

a. Process Criteria. These criteria of police policy quality pertain to characteristics of the policy development process, and are recommended for use in the evaluation design.

- Developed by credible personnel with input from pertinent police, community, and local government people, with a focus on the providers and the recipients of the service.
- Policy area thoroughly researched, and consistent with legal requirements and considerations.
- Absence of conflict with or duplication of other police or city policies.
- Policy areas reviewed regularly, and updated periodically.
- Covers all areas/issues pertinent to police operations and practices.

b. Product Criteria. These criteria of police policy quality pertain to characteristics of the policy itself.

- Discriminates between discretionary actions and mandatory actions.
- Informs policy personnel as to how they will be judged/evaluated in regards to adherence or departure from policy standards.
- Written so that its contents can be clearly understood; that is, specific, internally consistent, and not too wordy.
- Incorporates the policy rationale; that is, the "why" behind the policy.
- Has built-in flexibility to allow for discretion, but also contains absolute limits.
- Clarifies mutual expectations so that police personnel know what is expected of them and citizens know what to expect from police personnel.
- Differentiates between policy and procedure, but incorporates both in the same document.
- Encourages values of community service, responsiveness, and a humanistic approach to people by the police.

REFERENCES

- Satisfies competing interests and needs of citizens and police personnel.
- Provides specific guidelines and direction to police personnel for policy application.
- c. Implementation Criteria. These criteria of police policy quality pertain to characteristics of policy compliance.
 - Acceptance by those providing the policy service (i.e., police personnel) and those receiving it (i.e., citizens).
 - Resolves the problem it was intended to address, without creating more severe problems.
 - Communicated to police personnel and citizens in published and accessible forms.
 - Workable and affordable.
 - Enforceable, both proactively (i.e., detection of violations) and reactively (i.e., enforcement).
 - Consistent and fair application at all levels within the organization, and throughout the community.
 - Mechanisms for implementation are present and operational for insuring enforcement/compliance (e.g., training, discipline, field officer guide, reports analysis, feedback, inspections).

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POLICE POLICY-MAKING SURVEY

1. As a general practice, which of the following groups, if any, participate directly in the development of policy in your law enforcement agency? (Check any that apply.)

<input type="checkbox"/> Police Top Management Staff	<input type="checkbox"/> Local Business Owners
<input type="checkbox"/> Police Mid Management Staff	<input type="checkbox"/> Teachers
<input type="checkbox"/> Police 1st Line Supervisors	<input type="checkbox"/> Church/Synagogue Officials
<input type="checkbox"/> Detectives/Investigators	<input type="checkbox"/> Attorneys
<input type="checkbox"/> Line Police Officers	<input type="checkbox"/> Ethnic Minorities
<input type="checkbox"/> Police Officers Association	<input type="checkbox"/> Youth
<input type="checkbox"/> Civilian Police Personnel	<input type="checkbox"/> Neighborhood Associations
<input type="checkbox"/> City Manager (or similar)	<input type="checkbox"/> Criminal Justice Educators
<input type="checkbox"/> Mayor	<input type="checkbox"/> Judges
<input type="checkbox"/> Other City Agency Heads	<input type="checkbox"/> Other Police Agencies
<input type="checkbox"/> City Attorney	<input type="checkbox"/> Police Chief Associations
<input type="checkbox"/> City Council Members	<input type="checkbox"/> Probation/Parole Officers
<input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please Specify) _____	
<input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please Specify) _____	
<input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please Specify) _____	

2. Which of the following groups or conditions in your jurisdiction have the authority to set or structure one or more policies of your law enforcement agency? (Check all that apply.)

<input type="checkbox"/> Civil Service Commission (or similar body).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Police Commission (or similar body).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Union Contract or Memorandum of Understanding.	
<input type="checkbox"/> State Law Enforcement Standards Organization.	
<input type="checkbox"/> Crime Commission (or similar body).	
<input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please Specify) _____	
<input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please Specify) _____	
<input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please Specify) _____	

3. Are there any citizen advisory groups in your jurisdiction which actively participate in the development of policy in your law enforcement agency? . . . YES NO

4. If yes to the above question, please name the citizen advisory group(s), the area represented (neighborhood, city or county), and, if known, the approximate year the group was formed.

Citizen Advisory Group	Area Represented	Year Formed

APPENDIX A

Police Policy-Making Mail Survey and Cover Letter

December 1, 1978

5. Once law enforcement policy in your agency has been formulated, do you put the policy in writing? YES NO DEPENDS ON THE POLICY
6. Have any policies of your law enforcement agency been revised or developed within the past 6 months? YES NO
7. Is your law enforcement agency currently involved in the revision of existing policy or development of new policy? YES NO
8. Do you anticipate the revision of existing department policy or the development of new policy within the next 6 months? YES NO
9. Has your agency conducted any citizen surveys within the past 12 months?
YES . . . Purpose? _____
NO _____
NO, but we plan such a survey within the next 12 months. Purpose? _____
10. Would your agency be willing to cooperate with us in this research project as one of the fifteen sites? YES NO
11. Name of person completing this survey _____
Rank/Title of person completing survey _____
Phone Number () _____ Agency _____
12. Would you like a copy of the results of this survey? YES NO

Under a grant from the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, we are conducting research regarding the policy-making process employed in police organizations. The focus of our research will be on the way policy issues are defined by a department, the process by which department policy related to these issues is developed, and the way policy decisions are made.

Our interests are not with civilian review boards or similar reactive negative forms of influence, but rest with the positive proactive mechanisms of broad scale involvement in the police policy determination process. Our objectives are to acquire a profile on police policy-making and to develop models pertinent to this process.

"Policy" as it is used here, refers to a philosophy of management and states the intent of management in broad, general terms. One of its purposes is to guide the judgment of police personnel. Examples of policy issues include: release of criminal justice records information, field interrogation, hot pursuit, handling the mentally ill, use of force, etc.

We will be working closely with fifteen jurisdictions throughout the United States who agree to cooperate with us on this important project. To assist us in selecting these fifteen sites, we are conducting this short preliminary survey regarding the police policy-making process.

We ask you to complete the enclosed survey and return it to us in the stamped, pre-addressed envelope. If at all possible, we would prefer that you personally complete the survey or at least review and concur with its contents.

The survey should not take more than 10 minutes of your time to complete. We would be most appreciative if you could return the completed survey by December 22, 1978. Should you want a copy of the results, please indicate in question 12, the last question on the survey form.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Terry Eisenberg, Ph.D.
Project Director

Sharon Lawrence
Project Associate

TE/SL/mab
Enclosures (2)

APPENDIX B

Phone Survey Form

TELEPHONE SURVEY

DATE: _____
RESPONSE: _____POPULATION: _____
REGION: _____
CATEGORY: _____DEPARTMENT: _____
CHIEF: _____
TELEPHONE: _____

	COMMUNITY	ADVISORY GROUP
INVOLVED? YES - CURRENT YES - PAST NO		
WHEN? (MOST RECENT)		
SPECIFIC POLICIES		
WHICH CITIZENS (GROUPS) INVOLVED?		
WHAT DID THEY DO?		
PROCESS FOR INVOLVEMENT IN WRITING? (COPY)		
WRITTEN POLICY GENERAL AREAS SPECIFIC EXAMPLES		
WHAT DETERMINES WHEN/ WHAT IN WRITING?		
SPECIFIC POLICIES RECENT/ CURRENT-REVISED/DEVELOPED		

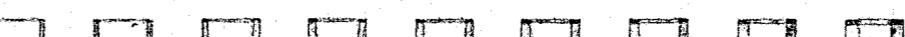
B-1

COOPERATE:ENTHUSIASTICHESITANT

1 2 3 NO

CHIEF OPENNESS:VERY OPEN

1 2

VERY GUARDED

3 4 5

APPENDIX C
First-Wave Data Collection Forms

A
CITY CHARACTERISTICS (Census)

CITY _____
AREA (Sq. Miles) _____

1. Population

2. Population Distribution:

Sex: Male : Female

Age: 18 & under:

19 & over:

Race: Cauc. Blk. Sp. Sur. Asian

Other:

Income (family):

3. Economic Base (Employed Heads of Household)

- Industry
- Business/Commercial
- Government (Local, State, Fed.)
- Services
- Other
- Unemployed _____ Retired _____
- 4. Form of City Government.
_____Council/Manager _____ Strong Mayor/Council _____ Other _____

5. City Council Membership

- Number of Seats: _____
- Composition/Structure/Process: _____

B

POLICE DEPARTMENT CHARACTERISTICS

1. Personnel

- Total Sworn & Civilian _____

- Total Sworn _____

Sworn Personnel Characteristics

- Sex: _____ Male _____ Female

- Race: _____ Cauc. _____ Blk. _____ Sp.Sur. _____ Asian

Other:

- Age (Average): _____

- Education: _____

2. System

- Policy/Procedures Manual _____ (Copy of sample obtained)

1 2 3 4

specific,
detailed
covering all
aspects of
operation

5 general statement of philosophy

- T.O. _____ (copy obtained) • Mission/Goals Statement: _____ (copy obtained)

- P.D. Budget: _____ line item _____ zerobased _____ MBO _____ PPBS

- Deployment Mode of P.D.: beat sys. _____ geog. ass. _____ lim. t.p. _____ full serv t.p.

- POA Characteristics:

1 2 3 4 5
union/
militant
non/existent

- Citizen Complaints

Number filed - last 12 mos.

Nature of Complaints:

- Civil Suits

Number filed - last 12 mos.

Nature of Charges:

C-2

NAME _____	ADDRESS _____
TITLE/JOB _____	PHONE _____

Chief of Police Only

1. _____ up through the ranks - this department
_____ outside appointment
2. _____ years in current position
3. Any unique/special assignments or experiences related to:
 - police/community relations -
 - police officer association activities -
 - policy-making activities -
4. Personal Style/Attitude:

1	2	3	4
political, charismatic, etc.			5 traditional, straight- arrow, etc.
5. Chief reports directly to: C.M. _____ Mayor _____ Pol. Comm. _____ Other
6. Willing to have a panel of "experts" review samples of written policy for purposes of rating?
7. _____ Name of P & R contact in P.D.

All Respondents

1. History of Police/Community Relations
 - a. Any outstanding incidents in past (prior to the last year) involving or affecting police/community relations? (Brief description)
 - b. Have there been any significant changes in police/community relations in the past (prior to last year)? Reasons?
2. Tradition of Citizen Involvement in Police Affairs
 - a. Has there been a tradition in this city?
 - b. What mechanisms were used in past?
 - c. What issues/problems addressed? When?
 - d. Which citizens involved?
 - e. What was done/action taken/changes made?
3. Role/Influence of Mayor/Council in Police Policy-Making
 - a. Does city council (or mayor) get involved in police policy-making? Current? Past?
 - b. If involved, when do they get involved? Why? How do they get involved (what mechanisms, process, authority)?
 - c. What issues/policies/procedures have been addressed by mayor/council? Action taken? (Get specific examples)
 - d. What changes in police policy/procedures have resulted from city council/mayor involvement?

4. Role/Influence of POA in Police Policy-Making
 - a. Does POA get involved in police policy-making? Current? Past?
 - b. If involved - when/how - (what mechanisms, process, authority)?
 - c. What issues/policies/procedures have been developed/changed with POA involvement? Action taken? Changes made? (Get specific examples)
5. Policy Development Process (General)
 - a. Is there a written policy describing the process of policy development/revision in this agency? (If yes, get copy)
 - b. How does police policy get developed/changed in this agency?
6. Current Citizen Involvement Process
 - a. Do lay citizens currently have input into police policy-making process?
 - b. Why are they being involved? Any specific incidents which led to current citizen involvement? (Describe)
 - c. What are mechanisms for lay citizen input?
 - d. What type of police policy issues have citizens been involved in? How were they involved? What did they do? When?
 - e. What changes in police policy/procedures have resulted from lay citizen involvement?
 - f. Which citizens were involved?
7. How do you assess the overall quality of police policy, generally? (How do you know the difference between a good policy and a bad policy?)
8. Would you be willing to cooperate in a short survey on police and citizen input into police policy-making if this city is one of the 6-8 selected for more in-depth research?

CONTINUED

2 OF 3

POLICE POLICY SETTING SURVEY

Instructions:

Using the codes described below, please indicate for each of the seven police policies what is, in your opinion, the nature of involvement that each group of people should have in the development of each policy. Write in the code letter for each group and each policy; a total of 49 codes. USE THE "DECIDE" CODE BELOW AT LEAST ONCE FOR EACH POLICY.

Involvement Codes:

- N/A/1 - Not Appropriate: It would not be appropriate for representatives of this group to be involved in any way in developing this police policy because this is strictly a police matter, best left to the police.
- N/A/2 - Not Appropriate: It would not be appropriate for representatives of this group to be involved in any way in developing this police policy because they would not be likely to know enough about this subject.
- R - Review: It would be appropriate for representatives of this group to review the policy prior to implementation and to make recommendations, if any.
- I - Influence: It would be appropriate for representatives of this group to participate jointly in the development and design of the policy with their input to be built into or reflected in the final policy.
- D - Decide: It would be appropriate for representatives of this group to decide or determine the final policy. (USE THIS CODE AT LEAST ONCE FOR EACH POLICY)

APPENDIX D

Police Policy Setting Attitude Survey

POLICE POLICIES

GROUPS	Use of Force	Processing of Citizen Complaints Against Police Officers	Enforcement Priorities; Which Crime Problems Get Attention	Promotion of Police Personnel (except Chief)	Handling Domestic Violence Cases	Stop & Frisk (Field Interrogation)	Gathering Police Intelligence Information (Crowd Surveillance)
Police Chief							
Police Supervisory and Command Personnel							
Line Police Personnel							
Suitable Local Gov't. Officials							
Local Residents							
Business Interest Groups							
Judges and Attorneys							
Other (Specify):							

Please indicate your: Age _____ Sex _____ Race _____

POLICY DEVELOPMENT PROCESS
TRACKING FORMAT

Policy: _____

New (dated _____)

Revision of existing policy (dated _____)

Persons Interviewed

Initiating Event(s)

Identifier(s) (Initiator(s))

Sponsor(s) (Authority)

Nurturer(s) (Drafter(s))

Research Contacts

Review Contacts

Restraints/Obstacles

Approval

Distribution

Mechanisms for Compliance

Measures of Implementation Effectiveness



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END