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Evaluation of the Locally Initiated Research Partnership Program

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Acknowledgements

Abstract

The Locally Initiated Research Partnerships (LIRP) program, initiated in fiscal year 1995-1996, was jointly sponsored by the National Institute of Justice (NIJ) and the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS Office) to promote sound research and program evaluations as policing agencies continued to develop community policing. Over three funding cycles, the program sponsored 39 research projects that represented partnerships between police departments and universities or other research organizations. In addition, NIJ awarded a separate grant to the Institute for Law and Justice (ILJ) to conduct cross-site research on these local collaborations.

This final evaluation report is a comprehensive review of the LIRP program. Many of the LIRP projects made significant contributions to local community policing practice, and all the projects provided opportunities to learn more about the dynamics of forming and sustaining police–researcher partnerships. ILJ employed a theory-based evaluation approach based on an action research model that reflected the manner in which the local partnerships should operate based on the tenets of the program. Topics in the final evaluation report include an analysis of how research topics were selected at the local level, how research was actually conducted, success factors on initiating and sustaining partnership, role of research in police departments, and appropriate models of partnerships. Six case studies of selected partnerships are included in the report.

Overall, ILJ's conclusion is that federal funds spent on local police–researcher collaborations were funds well spent. The majority of the partnerships were successful in conducting a complete research project, including implementation of recommendations from the studies. Key factors that differentiated successful projects included (1) the partnerships developed effective working relationships, (2) researchers gained an understanding of the local police culture, (3) research products were tailored to the local audience, and (4) both researchers and police practitioners understood the role of local research.

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Executive Summary

Locally Initiated Research Partnership Program

The Locally Initiated Research Partnerships program, initiated in fiscal year 1995-1996, was jointly sponsored by the National Institute of Justice (NIJ) and the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS Office) to promote sound research and program evaluations as policing agencies continued to develop community policing.[1] Over three funding cycles, the program sponsored 39 research projects that represented partnerships between police departments and universities or other research organizations. The awards were made under what became known as the Locally Initiated Research Partnerships (LIRP) program. In addition, NIJ awarded a separate grant to the Institute for Law and Justice (ILJ) to conduct cross-site research on these local collaborations.

The LIRP program was designed to complement the basic tenet of community policing that organizations can achieve more by working together than by working independently. Just as police were developing partnerships with communities, this program offered the opportunity for parallel partnerships with researchers. NIJ's solicitations required police practitioners and researchers to share responsibilities for planning and conducting the research through the life of the grant project.

The LIRP projects were expected, indeed required, to select a topic of concern to the police department and amenable to research. The only limiting factor was that the topic fit under the broad umbrella of community policing—easily satisfied because virtually all the funded agencies were transitioning to community policing. Because the focus was on local issues, the research results were also expected to be useful locally, providing greater insight to inform local decision makers. As stated in NIJ's 1996 solicitation, the partnerships should be viewed as a

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[1]   See annual NIJ solicitations entitled *Policing Research and Evaluation: Fiscal Year 1995*, *Policing Research and Evaluation: Fiscal Year 1996*, and *Policing Research and Evaluation: Fiscal Year 1997*.

resource for "policy-relevant research and evaluation of law enforcement programs and strategies."

In fiscal year 1995-96, the program funded 24 projects across the country. The following year, 11 of those projects received second-round funding and 13 new projects received approval. For the third year of the program, two new projects were added. The small number of applicants in the third round was disappointing to the federal sponsors. It was generally believed that the program description was not highlighted sufficiently in the solicitation to attract new projects. Nevertheless, the 39 projects provided a broad spectrum of local partnerships. All regions of the country were represented, as were small, medium-sized, and large departments. The original grants ranged in size from approximately $23,723 (Colorado Springs, Colorado) to about $375,000 (Indianapolis), with an average grant amount of just under $120,000. The expected length of the projects averaged 17.5 months, ranging from six months (one grant) to 30 months (three grants) with a mode of 18 months (22 grants).

In total, 28 projects focused on the organizational development or implementation of community policing within the selected police agencies. Five projects developed computer mapping applications, including implementation of the CompStat process popularized by the New York City Police Department. Four projects selected domestic violence as the topic for research. The final group consists of two projects for developing research capabilities.

Evaluation Approach

ILJ conducted a theory-driven evaluation based on an action research model as shown in Exhibit 1 on the following page. The exhibit shows an action research cycle starting with the nomination of a research topic by the partnership members. After a topic is nominated, a reconnaissance occurs in which the partnership team conducts a fact-finding mission about the topic. Assuming the reconnaissance shows the nominated topic is viable, the next three steps in the model are traditional research approaches—design the research, conduct the research, and analyze results. One difference, however, is that the model shows a feedback loop among these three steps. That is, the partnership may find that it needs to revise the research design or the conduct of the research during the course of the effort. After the analysis has been completed, the next step in the model is to communicate the results. The communication step should be a joint undertaking between the police practitioners and researchers involved in the effort.

Exhibit 1: Action Research Model for LIRP Projects

Interests of Partners
Department Initiatives
Political Influences
Local Culture

Apply
Research
Results

Communicate
Findings

Nominate
Research
Topic

Reconnaissance
Data
Interviews
Lit. Review

Develop
Research
Steps

Conduct
Research
Steps

Analyze
Results

Review and Revise
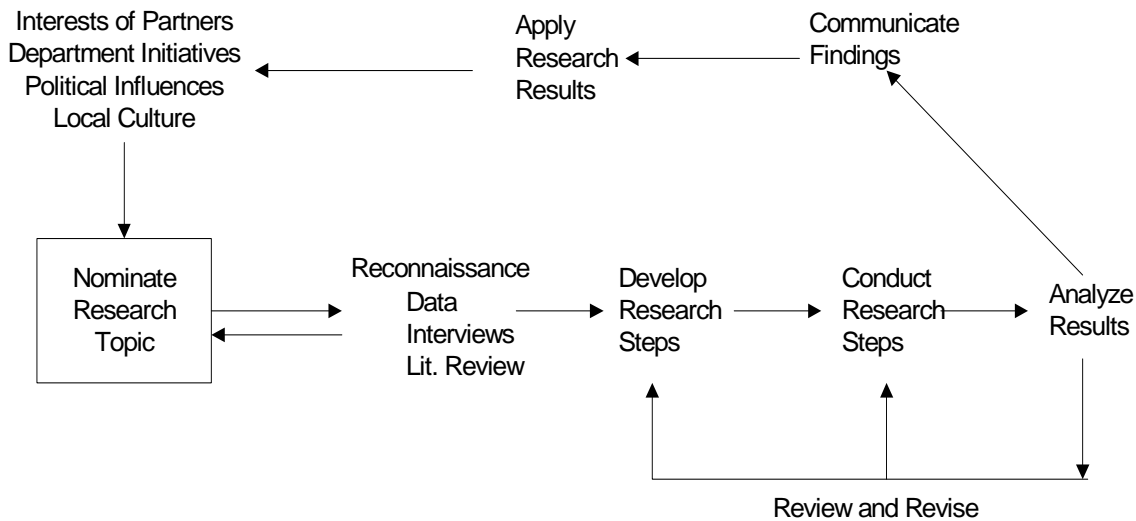
It should be mentioned that the LIRP program was not formulated with an action research model in mind. Rather, ILJ's early reviews of grant applications and initial interactions with local project personnel indicated that most were at least implicitly applying such a model in their research approaches.

ILJ's evaluation covered a variety of topics related to the action research model. These included a review of research tools applied by the partnerships, determination of factors that lead to successful partnerships, the role of research in police departments, techniques for continuing partnerships after federal funding, and others. Evaluation results are summarized in the remainder of this Executive Summary with details provided in the final evaluation report.

Overall Success of the LIRP Program

In total, of the 39 projects, ILJ's evaluation determined that 28 projects (71.8 percent) resulted in operational changes in the participating police departments as a consequence of the research. What this result means in terms of the action research model is that these 28 projects completed one full cycle of research—selecting a topic, conducting research, analyzing results, communicating findings, and applying the results. Further analysis showed that 15 of these 28 sites performed more than one research cycle. Multiple cycles occurred in two ways. One is that

the first cycle resulted in operational changes that in turn became the research topic for a subsequent cycle. In Albuquerque, for example, the research team evaluated changes that had been made during the department's implementation of community policing. Results from that study informed the new chief on changes, which in turn became the subject of the second research cycle. The second way in which multiple cycles occurred is that the research team was requested to take on more than a single research effort. In Buffalo, for example, the research team did one major research effort on implementation of community policing and about five others that were beneficial to the police department but required less effort.

For the other 11 projects, the primary reason for their lack of success as compared to the other projects was that the participating police departments did not apply the final results and key recommendations from the reports. Thus, in these projects, the partnership completed all of the steps in the action research model except for the final, and important, step of applying the research results.

The group of 28 projects resulting in operational changes had the following general characteristics in comparison with the other projects:

- They selected a problem of particular relevance to the managers of the participating police department.

- They had a better balance of taking the lead responsibility through the action research cycle in problem selection (usually the police department) reconnaissance step (usually the researchers), development of the research project (joint), analysis of results (researcher), presentation of results (joint), and implementation of changes (police department). In the final report (Chapter 7), we referred to this arrangement as a *flexible hierarchy*.

- The qualifications of both the participating researchers and practitioners were better than the other sites in terms of years of experience, prior research projects, leadership capabilities, etc.

- The researchers generally devoted more time in the participating departments and showed greater interest in the research projects.

- The police practitioners were in positions of responsibility that increased the possibility of implementing research results.

- The project team provided practical recommendations to the police departments in an easily understood format.

Another measure of success for the LIRP program is the number of project sites that continued their relationship after the termination of the research project. Our analysis of this

measure is that 14 sites were successful in continuing collaborations. In general, the continuation was in the form of having a research group for the police department to contact whenever a problem of mutual interest arose. In six of these sites, the collaboration had already been in place prior to the LIRP grant, which then served as a vehicle for continuing the collaboration. In the other eight sites, the LIRP grant was the first time that the researchers and police departments had collaborated.

A key factor in whether a collaboration continued was stability of personnel who participated in the LIRP project. In several sites, either the researcher accepted a position elsewhere or the key police practitioners moved to other responsibilities through transfers and promotions. In either situation, the camaraderie was lost that had been developed during the course of the research. This result underscores the significance of personal relationships that develop between researchers and practitioners. Of course, in the 11 projects that did not make changes as a result of the research, continuation of the partnership was problematic because the police practitioners usually saw no practical significance to the research.

ILJ examined a variety of topics during the course of its evaluation, as summarized in the remainder of this Executive Summary.

Selection of Research Topic

Police practitioners generally viewed research as serving three functions, which in turn influenced their selection of research topics:

- **Informational to identify courses of action.** Police practitioners are faced with problems that require them to take action, but they find they do not have enough information to identify appropriate courses of action.

- **Support for already identified courses of action.** Police practitioners are in a position of influencing or persuading others to a given course of action. They seek "objective research studies" to support the courses of action that have been identified or already implemented. They anticipate that the research results will support the predetermined courses of action.

- **Validation of an implemented course of action.** Police practitioners have implemented a change and need to evaluate whether it has had the intended effects. Research results may support the expansion of the course of action and may indicate improvements that can be made.

The 10 projects that included two or more police organizations tended to have more problems in identifying research topics than those with only one police organization. The end result was that they either operated in a one-to-one manner (as in the Arizona State University project) or selected topics that were of interest to some, but not all, of the participating agencies. The single exception was the LINC project, which identified domestic violence as a common topic across all agencies and addressed that topic to the satisfaction of all the agencies.

Virtually all the projects conducted a reconnaissance step, albeit in many cases it was accomplished in an informal manner. That is, it did not always result in a report that expanded on the initial topic that had been selected. However, it was shown to be an important step for many of the projects. At some sites, it resulted in the improvement of data systems prior to the launching of the research effort. Reconnaissance was found to be especially important when the researcher was new to the police agency.

Conduct of Research

Another evaluation topic focused on the types of research approaches used in the LIRP program. These can be summarized as follows:

- **Interviews:** face-to-face meetings with sworn personnel using a structured or semi-structured instrument (15 sites)

- **Observations:** ride-alongs with patrol officers, supervisors, and other field personnel (13 sites)

- **Focus groups:** group meetings with selected personnel for the purpose of obtaining opinions on a predetermined set of topics (eight sites)

- **Surveys:** internal and external questionnaires to elicit the opinions of respondents on selected topics (25 sites)

- **Basic analysis:** analysis with frequencies, cross-tabulations, means, standard deviations, and other basic statistical approaches (12 sites)

- **Advanced analysis:** use of advanced statistical techniques, such as multivariate structural models, item analysis, correlational analysis, and analysis of physiological measurements (six sites)

- **Spatial analysis:** analysis of spatial relationships (seven sites)

- **Experimental designs:** use of quasi-experimental designs (eight sites), such as before/after analysis of an experimental approach, sometimes including comparisons or, in one project, an experimental double-blind design (1 site)

A main disappointment in the program was that only a few projects did experimental designs. The reasons may be related to how community policing was implemented in the agencies and the stage of implementation at the time of the research projects.

Effective Working Relationships

The evaluation identified six specific factors for effective working relationships between police and researchers. While it may not be necessary to incorporate every factor into a partnership, the successful projects did implement a majority of them. The factors are summarized in the following list and discussed in detail as the subject of Chapter 7 of the final report.

- Develop effective working relationships.
    - Operate with a flexible hierarchy.
    - Ensure that key personnel remain in place.
    - Develop common goals and mutual expectations.
    - Build on the strengths and contacts of key personnel.
    - Clearly define everyone's roles and responsibilities.
    - Obtain the support of the police union.
    - Include an officer committee from the start.
    - Maintain open and frequent communication.
- Acquire an understanding of the local police culture.
- Make use of undergraduate and graduate students.
- Develop trust between partners.
- Tailor products to fit the local audience.
- Learn the benefits and limitations of local research.

Expanding the Idea of Research

Experiences in the LIRP program raise the question of exactly what is meant by "research" in a police department. Police departments typically think of research as *policy analysis* for police departments (see, for example, Klockars and Harver (1993)). Policy analysis usually includes the steps of contacting other police departments, interviewing commanders,

conducting a literature review, and the like. It results in the formulation of a proposed change in policies and procedures.

From the perspective of the LIRP program, however, research takes on a different definition and has a different context. With the experiences of the projects in mind, research projects should meet three criteria. First, the project should be on a problem or issue that the department currently faces; that is, it should have *currency*. It should not be a topic that someone merely has an interest in studying but instead should have some empirical value to the department. Second, there must be an *analytical* aspect to the research. The analytical aspect can be either quantitative or qualitative, depending on the problem at hand. If at all possible, an experimental design should be considered. Third, it must be possible to present the research results in *practical* operational terms. That means the department should be able to act on the conclusions and recommendations from the study.

Two comments by researchers in the LIRP program support this last criterion on usable results. Based on his experiences with police managers, one researcher observed, "When they look to research, they look for something they can do, and more importantly, something they can use within their existing situation and resources." An alternative way of stating this same idea, expressed by another researcher, was that the projects must deal with "policy manipulable variables."

Two other prerequisites are needed for long-term success. The first is that police departments must be able to establish *information systems* that are capable of supporting action research. In many of the projects, the available information systems were not satisfactory for research purposes. The sites studying domestic violence illustrate that problem, as reported in the final report. The databases for domestic violence had to be improved because they were not adequate to address the research issues that had been raised. The second prerequisite is that the *political environment* of the police department and the city must be conducive to research. Politics and research are sometimes in conflict. Researchers and, in fact, an entire research team can feel pressured to tilt their results to the prevalent political winds. That pressure needs to be resisted because objectivity is the key to both immediate and long-term success of the research efforts.

In summary, the LIRP program is a shift and expansion of research that links theory to practice. It demands that police practitioners pay greater attention to the broader perspective of their mandates and apply the tools of research to the practical issues they must address.

Models of Partnerships

The experiences of the LIRP program suggest three models of partnerships to perform research within police organizations:

- Local model
- Consortium model
- Shared position model

With some differences, these approaches echo those discussed in Klockars (1989) and Langworthy (1991) on organizational and funding arrangements for local partnerships.

In the local model, all researchers are local and they conduct research projects with only one police department in the area. The partnerships in Albuquerque, Baltimore, Buffalo, Council Grove, Hagerstown, and other sites are illustrative of this approach. The researchers may be with a university or a research firm under this model. With a local model, there is usually one key researcher who is called by members of the police department with research needs. In practice, the researcher may be called on a variety of issues and asked for opinions and advice on far-ranging topics. In this sense, the researcher acts as a "researcher on retainer" to the police department. A researcher in this model needs to be knowledgeable about the literature on many police subjects and willing to call other researchers when he or she does not have an immediate answer. The local researcher may be working with the police department on several projects at once. He or she may bring in other researchers, from near or far, to assist. In addition, undergraduate and graduate students may be assigned to perform selected tasks.

A variation of the local model is for the researcher to assist several police departments in the area rather than only one department. Examples from the LIRP program include Alfred University, Arizona State University, Salem State University, University of Virginia, and University of Southern Alabama. As in the local model, the researchers may be with a university or a research firm, and one researcher usually acts as the lead in making initial responses to the local police departments.

In two sites, Jersey City and Charlotte-Mecklenberg (IACP/JRSA), the principal researcher was employed by the police department. In the case of Jersey City, the grant paid for a research director as a full-time position within the police department for the duration of the grant. In Charlotte-Mecklenberg, the principal researcher remained on the faculty of the local university and split his time between the university and the police department. The shared position model allows a researcher to become a part of both worlds. He or she gains an in-depth understanding of the politics and operations of the police department while maintaining contact with the academic world.

Matchmaker Role

Regardless of the model under which research was conducted, the principal researchers in the LIRP program played "matchmaker" during the projects. By matchmaker, we mean that the principal researcher enlisted researchers and graduate students as needed to assist in the research project.

The LINC project offers a good example. The principal researcher called on the services of two other nationally recognized researchers to assist with the analysis of domestic violence incidents within the participating agencies. Interestingly, the two researchers were in different states than the principal researcher and the participating agencies. Their services were instrumental in the research project because they had backgrounds in researching domestic violence.

The other matchmaker role is the role that university researchers play in bringing undergraduate and graduate students to work on projects in police departments. Approximately 25 of the partnership projects enlisted students—usually graduate students—to assist in the research efforts. The Buffalo project is one of the foremost examples of this approach in the LIRP program. The principal researcher in that project was instrumental in bringing several graduate students into the Buffalo Police Department for different projects.

Sustaining Partnerships

One of the key problems faced by all the partnership projects centers on how to maintain the partnership after the grant project ends. By maintaining contact with the sites after their grants, the ILJ evaluation staff identified three approaches for sustaining partnerships:

- Informal contact
- Budget item
- Memorandum of understanding

What happened most commonly after the grants was that the researchers and practitioners maintained *informal contact* with each other and agreed to collaborate on projects as needed. University researchers continued to teach at their respective universities, and sworn personnel from the local police departments attended their classes. In fact, many partnerships had done research prior to the grant project, and the project was simply a continuation of their arrangements. After the grant, conditions reverted to what they had been.

Another approach exemplified by the Albuquerque site is for the police department to include research as a *budget item*. Even before the LIRP program, the Institute for Social Research, University of New Mexico, was submitted in the police department's budget each year to conduct a citizen survey of satisfaction with police services. Even though the line item was not always approved, the police department continued to include the survey in its proposed budget and, when approved, the survey was conducted and the results provided guidance to the police department. The LIRP program provided an opportunity for additional research at the police department. The impetus for the proposal was the relationship that had been established through the citizen surveys.

The budget item may be stated more generally in order to bring individual researchers on board. Thus, a budget may include an amount for "consultants" or "research" rather than naming a specific project, university or research company. This approach provides the flexibility to bring the right expertise on board for conducting research.

A *memorandum of understanding* (MOU) is a third approach for sustaining a partnership. An MOU achieves the following aims:

- States that the police department and research organization want to conduct research together

- Delineates the roles and responsibilities of each organization
- Identifies a few specific ongoing research activities (e.g., annual citizen report or patrol analysis)
- Lays the foundation for including research in future budget submissions

An MOU offers several advantages for keeping partnerships in operation. For example, it responds somewhat to the problem of personnel turnover within the police department or research organization. When someone leaves, the partnership may still continue because the parties have agreed through the MOU for the *organizations* to work together. While this approach is not a full answer to the problems of turnover, it is a step in the right direction. Another benefit is that the MOU may include ongoing research activities, providing a reason for the partners to get together on a regular basis for research purposes. If ongoing activities are not delineated, the partnership may eventually wither because partners pursue other endeavors and have no reason to see each other. As indicated, the MOU provides a basis for including research efforts in future budget submissions.

Within the LIRP program, the Colorado Springs site was the only one that obtained a signed memorandum of understanding. The University of Colorado at Colorado Springs first set up a Justice Studies Center, which was an interdisciplinary arrangement with faculty from several disciplines—sociology, psychology, political science, economics, and others. As stated in the prologue of the MOU, "The Justice Studies Center will promote the integration of the teaching, research and service activities of the University with programs of public safety, agency change and development, and social service in the community and region." The Colorado Springs Police Department was a co-signer of the MOU although the intent of the Center was to address issues in several criminal justice agencies. Mentioned as possibilities in the MOU are a follow-up study of victimization, experimental treatment methodologies for domestic violence, and an analysis of information systems at the police department.

Money Matters

Regardless of the approach taken to sustain a partnership, funds must be acquired to pay for the services of individual researchers or research organizations. In discussing how to obtain funds, the police practitioners in the LIRP program were unanimous in their recommendations. First, they stated that the chief of police had to be an advocate for including funds in a proposed

departmental budget. Without the chief's support, it would be virtually impossible to obtain local funding. Second, the main practitioners involved in the research have to push for the funds to be included. They can push by direct contact with the chief of police, by preparing position papers on the importance of research, and by publicizing research results that led to positive changes in the department.

Two other avenues of funding are available to reduce local costs. One is to use the consortium model discussed above, in which the research organization supports several local police departments instead of just one department. The obvious advantage is that the costs can be shared across the departments, and if an MOU is signed with the participating agencies, then the justification for inclusion in the budget is stronger.

Obtaining state and federal research grants is another avenue for reducing local costs. Applications to NIJ are clearly a way for research to continue at the local level. Such a grant usually requires the partnership to decide on a topic under an NIJ solicitation and jointly prepare a proposal. These grants are especially worthwhile because they can provide a foundation for research over a two- or three-year period.

National Significance

The purpose of the LIRP program was to promote research and evaluation at the local level as police departments continued to develop their community policing initiatives. In that regard, ILJ's evaluation provides beneficial information to other police departments on how to go about the difficult job of conducting research through partnerships and contributing to the development of local community policing efforts. For example, the evaluation found clear differences between partnerships that were successful in conducting research and making operational changes compared to less successful partnerships. These differences included selection of a problem of particular relevance, a flexible hierarchy that allowed for sharing responsibilities, qualifications of researchers and practitioners, time spent by researchers in the agencies, the positions of responsibility of practitioners, and the value of practical recommendations. These results can be generalized to other police-research partnerships, and indeed, to other types of partnerships.

The evaluation provided insight into the types of research tools typically applied in the research efforts designed for community policing. In this regard, the experiences of the LIRP partnerships were that traditional research methods—surveys, interviews, observations, and basic analysis—were typically selected. Quasi-experimental and experimental designs were less often selected in the program. This result is important for other agencies that are interested in community policing in identifying the research tools that might be applied to inform decisions.

Most importantly, the evaluation achieved a key objective of determining the factors that lead to effective working relationships between police practitioners and researchers. As detailed in the final evaluation report, these included acquiring an understanding of the local police culture, developing trust between partnerships, enlisting undergraduate and graduate students in the research efforts, tailoring products to fit the local audience, and learning the benefits and limitations of local research.

Evaluation results provided beneficial information of general application on three models of partnerships—local model, consortium model, and shared position model. As discussed in this chapter, each has advantages and disadvantages. Selection of the most appropriate model is, of course, a decision that is predicated on local circumstances. Further, the evaluation identified three approaches for sustaining partnerships—informal contact, budget item, and memorandum of understanding. These overlapping approaches are important for any police-researcher partnership to maximize the chances that the partnership will continue beyond an initial effort and without additional federal support.

Next Steps

The LIRP program has had a significant impact at both the national and local levels. It was the first program of its type in NIJ's history. Since that time, other partnership programs have been established and supported by NIJ and other federal agencies. At the local level, the LIRP program has demonstrated that research partnerships can be formed and can operate in an effective manner to produce good research methodologies and well-founded results.

It can be expected that these kinds of partnerships will continue in the future. Within universities that practice service learning, changes in curricula may occur with greater emphasis on basic analytical techniques and the practice of evaluation. Some faculty members in the LIRP

program stated that their experiences with local research had influenced teaching methods. For police departments, the LIRP program had several benefits. It brought in additional resources to address practical problems. It created an opportunity for practitioners to learn from researchers how to analyze data and execute research designs. At the same time, researchers learned from police practitioners about the role that research might play within the organizations. It can be anticipated that local partnerships will continue to occur on both a formal and informal basis.

Chapter 1

Background and Summary of Partnership Projects

Community policing has increased the need for police executives to use research to define problems, design solutions, and assess effects. To bolster police–researcher collaboration, NIJ and the COPS Office funded the Locally Initiated Research Partnership (LIRP) program, which sponsored 39 research projects that were partnerships between police departments and universities or other research organizations. The program emphasized local issues of interest to police instead of research topics selected by researchers. Projects focused on preparation for or implementation of community policing; computer mapping and CompStat; domestic violence; and development of research capacity. Many of the projects made significant contributions to local community policing practice. This evaluation finds that federal funds spent on local police–researcher collaborations were funds well spent.

The Locally Initiated Research Partnerships program, initiated in fiscal year 1995-1996, was jointly sponsored by the National Institute of Justice (NIJ) and the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS Office) to promote sound research and program evaluations as policing agencies continued to develop community policing.[1] Over three funding cycles, the program sponsored 39 research projects that represented partnerships between police departments and universities or other research organizations. The awards were made under what became known as the Locally Initiated Research Partnerships (LIRP) program. In addition, NIJ awarded a separate grant to the Institute for Law and Justice (ILJ) to conduct cross-site research on these local collaborations. This report presents ILJ's findings.

Many of the LIRP projects made significant contributions to local community policing practice, and all the projects provided opportunities to learn more about the dynamics of forming and sustaining police–researcher partnerships. ILJ has produced several interim products on preliminary findings from the cross-site research, including an article published in the *NIJ Journal*, a white paper on viewing partnership projects as action research models, a report on the

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[1] See annual NIJ solicitations entitled *Policing Research and Evaluation: Fiscal Year 1995*, *Policing Research and Evaluation: Fiscal Year 1996*, and *Policing Research and Evaluation: Fiscal Year 1997*.

NIJCOLL listserv managed by ILJ for this study, and several presentations and discussions at national conferences. Overall, we believe our findings support the argument that federal funds spent on local police–researcher collaborations are funds well spent. At the same time, NIJ, the COPS Office, local police agencies, and research organizations should be guided by the lessons learned from these projects as they plan future research initiatives.

ILJ's evaluation of the LIRP program provided an excellent opportunity to gain knowledge about how research should be conducted at the local level through partnerships. Chapter 3, Evaluation Methodology, includes a series of evaluation objectives that were addressed during the course of the evaluation effort. Suffice it to say at this point that the objectives are wide-ranging in an effort to develop as much knowledge as possible about collaborative efforts for research. The objectives include identification of factors that influence the nomination of research problems, identification of common research designs employed for local research, review of how research results are communicated to commanders and other audiences, the extent to which turnover occurred in the partnerships, the effects of turnover on research efforts, and identification of actions taken by participating departments as a result of the research projects.

Report Organization

The rest of this chapter provides additional information on the LIRP program, including its guiding principles, expectations for capacity building at the local level, local partnership re-quirements, and grant application process and results. The chapter also includes a complete list of the funded projects by type of local issues addressed; summarizes key project characteristics; and provides details on three projects that were representative of others in several significant ways. Chapter 2 is a literature review covering past partnership efforts in the criminal justice field, the conduct of police research at the local level, and the literature's impact on the design of the LIRP evaluation. Chapter 3 describes the research methodology for the cross-site study and presents the "action research" model on which the evaluation was based.

Chapter 4 provides case studies of six partnerships. The partnerships were selected to illustrate program characteristics that were important to the evaluation. Collectively, they reflect the variations in partnerships that existed during the course of the program's funding. Chapter 5

is devoted to the projects' methods of selecting research topics, and Chapter 6 discusses how research was conducted. The evaluation results in those chapters are presented on the basis of the theoretical action research model discussed in Chapter 3. Chapter 7 focuses on major indicators of successful partnerships that were identified through the cross-site study. Chapter 8 offers conclusions from the partnership program and thoughts on the future of partnerships between police organizations and research organizations.

Appendix 1 summarizes each partnership in the program and describes the general direction the projects took. The projects are divided into four categories: projects that assisted police departments in the development of community policing, projects that focused on computer mapping or CompStat to support community policing, projects that addressed domestic violence, and projects that were aimed at building research capacity. Appendix 2 lists references for this report.

Background on the Partnership Program

The transition to community policing has brought about many internal and external changes in policing. Progressive police managers have changed their policing philosophy with concomitant changes in organizational structure, daily operations, policies, training, promotions, and other matters. In many departments, problem solving has become a routine activity for addressing citizens' concerns. Moreover, police are reaching out to communities and forging partnerships as a foundation for combating local crime and quality-of-life problems.

Interest in research and evaluation is a natural outgrowth of these transitional changes. Both NIJ and the COPS Office envisioned the partnership research program as a way to continue developing the law enforcement profession through sound research and program evaluations. For example, in describing the program NIJ's 1997 solicitation stated, "Community policing has increased the need for police executives to use research to define problems, design solutions, and assess the effects."[2] Similar statements had been made in NIJ's prior year solicitations about the partnership program.

Criminal justice researchers had an influence in the formation and eventual development of the partnership program. Shortly before NIJ and the COPS Office launched the LIRP pro-

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[2]   NIJ solicitation *Policing Research and Evaluation: Fiscal Year 1997.*

gram, Moore (1995) specifically discussed the need for cross-site research with respect to community policing.[3] He named two problems in community policing research: (1) not enough experience had yet been accumulated, and (2) "police researchers are not well positioned enough now to maximize the learning that can come from the experience." The partnerships supported by NIJ and COPS addressed Moore's points by arranging collaborations between police departments and researchers. The cross-site research offered an opportunity to enhance the experiences of the partnership participants and to help inform other police departments and researchers.

The LIRP program was constructed with incentives for both police and researchers. Police personnel would be able to obtain assistance from outside researchers for planning and assessing community policing initiatives. Feedback throughout the project would provide police leadership with valuable results for mid-course corrections. Researchers would be able to apply their professional knowledge and skills to practical problems at the local level.

Partnership Principles

The LIRP program was designed to complement the basic tenet of community policing that organizations can achieve more by working together than by working independently. Just as police were developing partnerships with communities, this program offered the opportunity for parallel partnerships with researchers. NIJ's solicitations have required police personnel and researchers to share responsibilities for planning and conducting the research throughout the life of the project.

The partnership program as developed by NIJ and the COPS Office therefore differs in several respects from other projects those organizations have supported. The program emphasizes local problems and issues instead of research topics selected by the sponsoring agencies. For example, NIJ has funded research in the past on domestic violence, gangs, drug markets, gun violence, and other topics of national interest. While many of those projects included police agencies, the role of police was to let researchers in for interviews, data collection, or short-term operational interventions. Researchers told the agencies what they needed without soliciting whether the research topic was of any interest to department personnel or even appropriate to their operations. The research results most often appeared in final reports and articles in schol-

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[3]   Mark Moore, "Learning While Doing: Linking Knowledge to Policy in the Development of Community Policing and Violence Prevention in the United States," in R. Clarke *et al*., eds., *Integrating Crime Prevention*

arly journals. Police agencies were viewed as the *end users* of research rather than active participants throughout the course of the research.

Goals for Capacity Building through Partnerships

An underlying intent of the program was to forge relationships between police and researchers that could be sustained beyond the federal funding. Police personnel and researchers were to work together in all phases of the research—selection of topic, development of research design, execution of the research, analysis of the results, and preparation of final products. The expectation was not for a perfectly equal division of responsibilities, but rather for a sharing of responsibilities to accomplish the aims of the research. Police personnel might, for example, take the lead in topic selection with advice from researchers, while the reverse might be the case for developing the detailed research design.

The LIRP program design took advantage of lessons learned from previous efforts at "research capacity building" within police departments. Rather than focusing on improving the research capacity *within* a police department, this program aimed to build a research capacity by merging resources in a way that benefited all parties. The hope was that police personnel, by working with researchers throughout the project, would approach issues more systematically, take a critical look at the quality and utility of their information systems, and understand the implications of the research results in an operational setting. As for researchers, the partnership would allow them to apply the tools of their trade, influence local policies, and assess whether operational changes under community policing were producing the desired outcomes. A byproduct of this approach might be that individuals would improve their research capabilities, but the real aim of the program was to improve research capacity *organizationally* through the partnerships.

Partnership Requirements

The LIRP projects were expected, indeed required, to select a topic of concern to the police department and amenable to research. The only limiting factor was that the topic fit under the broad umbrella of community policing—easily satisfied because virtually all the funded agencies were transitioning to community policing. Because the focus was on local issues, the research results were also expected to be useful locally, providing greater insight to inform local

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Strategies: Motivation and Opportunities (Stockholm: National Council for Crime Prevention Sweden, 1995).

decision makers. As stated in NIJ's 1996 solicitation, the partnerships should be viewed as a resource for "policy-relevant research and evaluation of law enforcement programs and strategies."

NIJ's solicitations allowed for several approaches to forming the partnerships. They stated, for example, that a police agency or a consortium of departments could contract with a qualified researcher on a full-time or part-time basis or, as another approach, the agency or consortium could propose a linkage with several researchers at universities or organizations. A police agency, research institute, or university could be the grantee organization, but "the application must reflect a genuine police–research collaboration."[4]

Proposals had to include a task outline for the duration of the proposed project, with a time frame that allowed for the completion of a research study. NIJ emphasized the desire for complete documentation by asking grantees to "create a system to record the establishment, development, and achievements of the research collaboration."[5]

Grant Application Process and Results

Proposals for the LIRP program were submitted each year to NIJ under the police research solicitations and were assessed through a peer review process that had been in place for many years. A panel composed of police practitioners and researchers reviewed all proposals. The panel concentrated on (1) indications that the proposal reflected a true partnership, (2) the likelihood that the project could accomplish a research project in the proposed time frame, (3) the qualifications of the research staff, and (4) the likelihood that the partnership would continue after federal funding. Interestingly, the proposed partners need not have worked together in the past and, indeed, for several funded projects, it was the first time the researchers had been in the police agencies.

In fiscal year 1995-96, the program funded 24 projects across the country. The following year, 11 of those projects received second-round funding and 13 new projects received approval. For the third year of the program, two new projects were added. The small number of applicants in the third round was disappointing to the federal sponsors. It was generally believed that the program description was not highlighted sufficiently in the solicitation to attract new projects. Nevertheless, the 39 projects provided a broad spectrum of local partnerships. All regions of the

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[4]   *Policing Research and Evaluation: Fiscal Year 1996*, National Institute of Justice, P. 5.

country were represented, as were small, medium-sized, and large departments. The original grants ranged in size from approximately $23,723 (Colorado Springs, Colorado) to about $375,000 (Indianapolis), with an average grant amount of just under $120,000. The expected length of the projects averaged 17.5 months, ranging from six months (one grant) to 30 months (three grants) with a mode of 18 months (22 grants). In actuality, virtually all the grants requested and obtained no-cost extensions—a topic that will be addressed later in this report.

The size of jurisdiction for these projects ran from very small (Council Grove, Kansas, with a population of 2,000) to very large (New York City, with over 7 million residents). Thirty-two projects were between police departments and universities; six were between police departments and private, nonprofit organizations; and one partnership involved multiple police departments and two membership associations (IACP and JRSA). Seven partnerships included more than one police department.

Summary of Funded Projects

A review of the 39 projects (see Exhibit 1-1) reveals a variety of local relationships and topics. Twenty-eight projects focused on the organizational development or implementation of community policing within the selected police agencies. Five projects developed computer mapping applications, including implementation of the CompStat process popularized by the New York City Police Department (NYPD). Included in this group is a project with the NYPD to improve its mapping capability with assistance from geographers from Hunter College, City University of New York. Four projects selected domestic violence as the topic for research. The final group consists of two projects for developing research capacities. One was an effort by Florida State University to develop a research capacity to assist all law enforcement agencies in the state, and the other was a partnership between five police departments, the International Association of Chiefs of Police, and the Justice Research Statistics Association.

The focus obviously influences the research approach and evaluative techniques of an individual project. As a general rule, the projects involved in the implementation or evaluation of community policing employed such techniques as interviews, surveys of sworn and non-sworn employees, and surveys of citizens. The projects focusing on computer mapping tended to use

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[5] *Ibid*.

more technical approaches. However, they were still partnerships because police users were involved in defining what they wanted from the mapping systems, and in at least three projects the agencies had to change their reporting forms or information processing before the mapping systems could be implemented.

A similar feature characterized the four projects on domestic violence. In all four, the first phase was devoted to analyzing and then improving the agencies' information systems in order to improve data collection. In Seattle, Washington, a prior project had examined the department's databases and policies in depth and had recommended improvements. The improvements were made in the initial LIRP project and were expanded in a second phase of LIRP funding. As the Seattle partnership developed, the research became more analytical with the implementation and testing of a lethality scale for prioritizing cases.

Exhibit 1-1: NIJ's Locally Initiated Research Partnerships

Development of Community Policing

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Original Funding	Start and End Dates
Ada County Sheriff's Office (ID)	Boise State University	"A Partnership Proposal: The Ada County Sheriff's Office and Boise State University"	$ 91,065	1/97-6/98
Alachua County Sheriff's Office (FL)	University of Florida	"Alachua County Sheriff's Office Research Partnership with the University of Florida"	$36,123	1/97-12/97
Albuquerque Police Dept. (NM)	University of New Mexico	"Creating a Culture of Community Policing"	$ 151,396	1/97-8/98
Alfred Police Dept. and Wellsville Police Dept. (NY)	Alfred University	"Increasing the Effectiveness and Efficiency of Rural Police Departments"	$ 34,520	10/95-9/96
Arlington County Police Dept. (VA)	The Urban Institute	"Locally Initiated Research Partnership with Arlington County Police Department"	$ 133,911	4/97-9/99
Baltimore Police Dept. (MD)	The Johns Hopkins University	"Restructuring the Role of Police Sergeant by Identifying Character Traits Associated with Success"	$ 194,552	9/96-9/97
Bay City Police Dept. (MI)	Saginaw Valley State University	"The Fast Track Program Study: Tracking Non-violent Juvenile Crime Offenders"	$ 61,528	1/97-6/98

Exhibit 1-1: NIJ's Locally Initiated Research Partnerships (continued)

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Original Funding	Start and End Dates
Boston Police Dept. (MA)	Northeastern University and Harvard University	"Strategic Planning and Community Mobilization Project: Framework for Local Policing Research"	$ 127,474	4/96-9/97
Buffalo Police Dept. (NY)	State University of New York–Buffalo	"Policing Research and Evaluation"	$ 195,442	1/98-6/99
Chandler Police Dept., Glendale Police Dept., and Scottsdale Police Dept. (AZ)	Arizona State University	"Expanding Research Capacity to Support the Implementation of Community Policing"	$ 131,024	10/97-3/99
Charleston Police Dept. (WV)	Marshall University	"Impact of Charleston, West Virginia Community Oriented Policing"	$ 119,054	10/96-9/97
Colorado Springs Police Dept. and El Paso County Sheriff's Dept. (CO)	Colorado University	"Policing Evaluation through Academic Research: SPAN"	$ 23,723	1/96-6/96
Council Grove Police Dept. (KS)	Kansas State University	"Council Grove and KSU Law Enforcement Team Project"	$ 110,792	1/96-6/98
Daphne, Foley, Gulf Shores, Loxley, and Baldwin County (AL)	University of Southern Alabama	"A Partnership for Research in Community Policing Strategies"	$ 37,760	1/96-6/97
El Centro Police Dept. (CA)	San Diego State University	"Community Policing in El Centro"	$ 42,119	1/95-6/97
Hagerstown Police Dept. (MD)	Shippensburg University	"Evaluation of Community Policing Project"	$ 54,431	1/96-12/96
Jersey City Police Dept. (NJ)	Rutgers University	"Developing and Expanding Problem-solving Partnerships in Jersey City"	$ 148,581	1/96-12/96
Lansing Police Dept. (MI)	Michigan State University	"Forming a Research Partnership: Lansing PD and MSU"	$ 117,631	1/97-12/97
Lexington Police Dept. (KY)	Eastern Kentucky University	"A Research Partnership Between Lexington PD and EKU"	$ 33,564	10/97-4/99

Exhibit 1-1: NIJ's Locally Initiated Research Partnerships (continued)

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Original Funding	Start and End Dates
Los Angeles Police Dept. (CA)	University of CA at Los Angeles and University of Southern CA	"Implementing Community Policing in Los Angeles: A Partnership Between LAPD, UCLA and USC"	$ 228,180	10/95-2/97
Lowell, Salem, and Danvers Police Depts. (MA)	Salem State University	"Locally Initiated Research and Evaluation Project"	$ 100,000	11/95-4/97

Development of Community Policing

Multiple sites	Southern Illinois University	"Downstate Illinois Law Enforcement Applied Research Network"	$ 75,450	10/95-6/96
Oakland Police Dept. (CA)	University of California at Berkeley	"Collaboration Between the Oakland PD and UC Berkeley"	$ 188,622	1/96-6/97
Omaha Police Dept. (NE)	University of Nebraska at Omaha	"Generating and Using Research to Guide Change in a Local Law Enforcement Agency by Establishing a Research Partnership"	$ 132,564	10/95-3/97
Philadelphia Police Dept. (PA)	Temple University	"State of Community Policing in Philadelphia: A Collaborative Research Effort between the Philadelphia PD and Temple University"	$ 57,896	10/95-3/97
Racine Police Dept. (WI)	University of Wisconsin	"Meeting the Needs of Racine Citizens: Evaluation of Community Policing"	$ 117,231	2/97-1/99
St. Louis Police Dept. (MO)	St. Louis University	"A Joint Research Partnership for Community Oriented Policing"	$ 192,145	10/95-3/97
West Virginia State Police	The FOCUS Coalition	"Process and Outcomes Evaluation of Community Policing Initiatives in Jefferson County"	$ 93,549	10/95-4/97

Computer Mapping/CompStat Projects

Charlottesville Police Dept., Albemarle County Police Dept., and U.Va. Police(VA)	University of Virginia	"Community Policing: A Police/Academic Partnership for Evaluation and Research"	$ 128,739	9/96-9/98

Exhibit 1-1: NIJ's Locally Initiated Research Partnerships (continued)

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Original Funding	Start and End Dates
Forest Park Police Department (OH)	University of Cincinnati	"Establishing a Research Partnership"	$ 45,624	1/97-12/97
Indianapolis Police Dept. (IN)	Indiana University and Hudson Institute	"Criminology Against Crime: Criminologists and Crime Control for the Indianapolis Police Department"	$ 375,281	1/96-12/98
New York City Police Dept. (NY)	City University of New York	"Identify and Evaluate Methods for Measuring and Analyzing Crime Patterns and Trends with GIS"	$ 264,676	1/96-6/97
Prince George's County Police Dept. (MD)	University of Maryland	"Partnership Against Crime: University of Maryland with the PG County PD"	$ 78,418	1/97-12/97

Domestic Violence Projects

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Original Funding	Start and End Dates
Berkeley Police Dept. (CA)	East Bay Public Safety Corridor and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency	"Domestic Violence Intervention Project"	$ 100,000	10/96-9/97
Framingham Police Dept. (MA)	Social Science Research and Evaluation, Inc.	"Locally Initiated Research Partnership: The Framingham PD and SSRE, Inc."	$ 98,491	1/97-12/97
Rapid City PD (SD), Pocatello PD (ID), Eureka PD (CA), and Redding PD (CA)	LINC	"Demonstrating a Cost Effective Approach for Locally Initiated Police Research in Small and Medium Sized Cities"	$ 199,721	10/95-4/97
Seattle Police Dept. (WA)	University of Washington	"Targeting Cycles of Domestic Violence"	$ 108,972	11/95-5/97

Development of Research Capacities

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Original Funding	Start and End Dates
Florida Law Enforcement Research Coalition	Florida State University	"Forging a Florida Law Enforcement Research Coalition"	$ 144,204	10/95-3/97
Multiple sites	IACP and JRSA	"Police Researcher Partnerships: Building the Infrastructure for Effective Program Evaluation"	$ 99,542	9/95-8/96

* The Charlotte-Mecklenburg and New Orleans police departments began their projects as partners with IACP and JRSA. Later, they acquired separate continuation funding.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Early police research did not emphasize true partnership. Researchers selected topics and conducted research on, not with, police departments. Findings, and researchers themselves, were not always welcome in police departments after the research projects. Actual partnerships between researchers and police departments began to appear in the 1970s and 1980s. Still, not all local partnerships were successful, as practitioners often considered research to be academically oriented and inapplicable to the real-world criminal justice system. In successful partnership-based research, practitioners and researchers identify a problem of interest to the police department, determine strategies to address it, and conduct a joint research effort. Research results are provided to the police department, not just published in academic journals. The LIRP program (which fosters applied, not pure, research) supported the joint approach and has helped to change the research paradigm.

History of Police Partnerships

The history of research involvement in police departments is instructive in developing the evaluation framework described in the next chapter. A good starting point is the early efforts by sociologists Al Reiss and Jerome Skolnick in the 1960s as they rode with police officers to observe their activities. Reiss and Skolnick documented the results of their ride-alongs in seminal works (Reiss, 1971; Skolnick, 1966) on the duties and activities of patrol officers in the field. Observational approaches continue today based on the approaches employed by those sociologists.

While police executives voiced no objections to the ride-alongs at the time, the findings were not always welcome. Reiss and Skolnick observed both good and bad practices by patrol officers. On one hand, the researchers dispelled myths about extensive use of force by officers and showed the human side of police officers in helping victims and the community. On the other hand, they observed a few officers who broke the law, dispensed their own "street justice," and used more force than necessary. The result was that the researchers were not always welcomed back by the departments.

As part of ILJ's evaluation effort, the principal investigator met separately with Reiss and Skolnick to discuss how they went about their research and how research had changed over the years. Both researchers observed that they did not view their early efforts as partnerships with the police departments. Indeed, their findings were published in books rather than reported back to police managers.

Partnerships between researchers and police departments started to appear in the 1970s and 1980s. Perhaps the best known of these is the preventive patrol experiment conducted by the Kansas City Police Department and researchers at the Police Foundation in Washington, DC. Through a randomized design, the researchers concluded that preventive patrol did not necessarily prevent crime or reassure citizens about safety (Kelling *et al.*, 1974).

Another major study, also conducted by the Kansas City Police Department and the Police Foundation, studied the effects of police response time. In that study, the research team concluded that police response time was unrelated to the probability of making an arrest or locating a witness, and that neither dispatch nor travel time were strongly associated with citizen satisfaction (Pate, *et al.*, 1976). A partnership evaluation conducted by ILJ with three police departments (Toledo, Ohio; Garden Grove, California; and Greensboro, North Carolina) showed that citizen satisfaction with police was not reduced when police implemented differential police responses, such as taking reports over the telephone and delaying responses to non-emergency calls from citizens (McEwen *et al.*, 1986).

The Rand Corporation's study of the criminal investigation process in the mid-1970s is one of the earliest criminal justice studies to employ a collaborative approach with a police department. The Rand Corporation involved police officers in the data collection process in several cities. The study ascertained the variety of police investigative techniques (Greenwood and Petersilia, 1975: 1-4). Another early collaborative research effort is the Police Foundation's Fear Reduction Project. That project attempted to reduce fear of crime in Houston, Texas, and Newark, New Jersey, through a collaborative effort between the Police Foundation and the two local police departments. The Police Foundation provided the departments with various forms of technical assistance. In Newark, members of the Newark police force and researchers at the Rutgers Criminal Justice Graduate School collaborated together. The analysis in the two cities showed substantial reductions in citizens' fear of crime.

These research and evaluation efforts paved the way for changes in police operations across the country, including the development of problem-solving approaches, improvements in investigative procedures, techniques for reducing citizens' fear of crime, and alternative methods of handling citizen calls for service. As discussed by Blumstein and Petersilia (1994), these collaborative efforts challenged traditional police practices and gave police managers the latitude to experiment with alternative strategies. An argument can be made that the eventual impact of these studies is due in part to the fact that they were partnerships between police departments and researchers.

Several examples can be found in which police personnel and researchers combined their talents in problem-solving collaborative efforts. The impetus for such partnerships can be traced to the research by Goldstein (1979) and the efforts of the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF) with its SARA (Scanning, Assessment, Response, and Analysis) model for addressing local quality-of-life and other crime problems. For example, Goldstein entered into a cooperative problem-solving arrangement with the Madison (Wisconsin) Police Department to develop ways of reducing drunk driving and sex offending (Goldstein, 1990). In another problem-solving project, researchers from PERF and practitioners from the Baltimore County (Maryland) Police Department collaborated to create the COPE (Citizen Oriented Police Enforcement) program. In that community policing program, police officers and researchers worked together to identify and attack minor crime problems that affected Baltimore County communities.

In another project, PERF and the Newport News (Virginia) Police Department collaborated on a community policing strategy. The goal was to replace the traditional 911 reactive model, in which police respond immediately to both emergency and non-emergency calls from citizens. Finally, two researchers from the State University of New York at Albany and the Social Action Research Center collaborated with the Oakland (California) Police Department in a project aimed at reducing the number of violent police–citizen confrontations (Toch and Grant, 1991).

Those examples of early partnerships have several common themes, which might be expected to recur at the LIRP sites:

- The practitioners and researchers identified a problem of interest to the operations of the police department.

- The partnership worked together to determine the strategies to address the problem.

- The research design generally was planned as a joint effort, with execution and data collection being the responsibility of the police department.

- Research results were provided to the police department as feedback for consideration in improving their operations.

Those results were discerned by ILJ's evaluation staff through a review of the reports and other publications by the researchers and practitioners involved in the studies.

Not all local partnerships have been as successful as those just cited. At a 1975 conference on collaborations (attended by both police practitioners and researchers), some police executives complained bitterly about researchers. Chief Victor Cizanckas from Menlo Park, California, opened his remarks by saying, "If a mugger doesn't hit you, a credit checker doesn't spy on you, or a salesman doesn't take you, a social scientist will dupe you" (Cizanckas, 1975). He went on to complain about the tactics used by some researchers in studying police departments—tactics that bordered on deception by researchers to test police responses to situations. Another chief commented on his department's experiences with consultants in a research environment:

> It really was like two people getting married on the first date. Neither we nor the consultants understood the needs of the other. We made impossible demands on each other—we for quick answers to complex problems, they for clean, neat projects and profits. We could not define exactly what we wanted from the marriage (never having been married before); but the consultants knew exactly what *they* wanted.

The social scientists at the conference had their chance to discuss research, and at least one in attendance tended to agree with some of the criticism (Shimberg, 1975):

> Put bluntly, the [researcher] is often perceived by police as a "smart ass"—as someone who has had a lot of education—as someone who is long on theory, but who often lacks common sense—as someone who thinks of himself as superior to the police, but who has never had to prove himself the ways cops do every day.

> We are all familiar with the social scientists who have obtained permission to do research on police or in the police setting. They come to use up a lot of police time, disrupt things, collect their data, and then disappear. The police often get nothing in return—not even the courtesy of a report or a thank you.

In describing relationships between police practitioners and criminal justice researchers, Petersilia (1987) writes that "policymakers and practitioners tended to dismiss research as academically oriented and not applicable to the realities of the criminal justice system. Worse, they doubted the researchers' motives…. In return, researchers saw policymakers and practitioners as uncooperative, unwilling to be distracted by facts or empirical analyses, and closed to research recommendations" (p. 86). She continues by observing that federally supported research programs sometimes created "forced marriages" in which researchers called on agencies for their data or provided mandated evaluations that were linked to federal funding.

Researchers have also offered advice and ideas on how partnerships with police departments should operate in striving for success. Morton Bard, a psychologist in attendance at the 1975 conference, developed a series of articles about the need for partnerships and the manner in which they should proceed. He describes a collaborative effort with the Norwalk (Connecticut) Police Department to test third-party intervention approaches in dealing with interpersonal conflicts within families (Bard, 1975). His discussion about the development of the evaluation effort includes the following observations:

- The responsibility and accountability for every aspect of the project are shared equally by members of the police department and social scientists at the university.

- Representatives from the police department are involved in every stage of the process, including research design, data collection procedures, and data analysis.

- The police officers involved in the project regard themselves and are regarded as field research panelists.

- Final decisions with respect to the research objectives are shared by those field research panelists democratically elected to function in the capacity of panel representatives.

While Bard expresses satisfaction with the collaboration, he admits that it was not a complete and perfect one. For example, the police department did not participate in developing the initial design and the proposal. Further, he observes that "[w]hile the department participated fully and actively during data collection and data analysis, real sharing of responsibility and accountability did not occur. Yet to the extent that collaboration did occur, it was an unusual, and perhaps unprecedented, accomplishment" (Bard, 1975).

Finally, he offers the following statement (Bard, 1975), with much relevance to the LIRP program:

> Police practitioners, no less than the practitioners of other professions where individual discretion is necessarily paramount, collaborate in research with ease when their participation is toward an end that practitioners can identify as being consistent with the improvement of their functional capacity.

That a partnership can encounter problems should come as no surprise to anyone with experience as a researcher or police manager. In a more general framework about the conduct of research, Cottrell and Sheldon (1963) categorize the major problems as follows:

- Problems created by subculture differences in values, goals, ideologies, language, and technologies characterizing the different professions and disciplines

- Problems derived from the nature of the setting in which the researcher is placed and his or her position and status in that setting

- Problems of role ambiguity and incongruence in mutual expectations

In the LIRP program, the first problem may arise because of the different backgrounds that researchers and practitioners bring to the partnerships. The second problem can be studied because the relationships between the police agencies and the researchers (e.g., full-time vs. part-time, reporting structure, etc.) vary in the different projects, as do the settings and the status of participants. The third problem may manifest itself particularly in LIRP projects in which the police practitioners and researchers have not collaborated together in the past. The success of partnerships may depend, in part, on the manner in which researchers are introduced into the department, the nature of the communication mechanisms between researchers and police, and the status ascribed to the researchers.

Other Partnerships

Insights into the operations of partnerships also derive from the literature in other disciplines and in other criminal justice initiatives besides policing. The literature on educational research, which has used partnerships between educational researchers and school administrators, provides lessons about success factors in those partnerships. An evaluation completed in 1995 provides insights into factors that affect the success of a partnership. Congress enacted the Educational Partnerships Act in 1988 (Title VI, Subtitle A, Chapter 5 of the Omnibus Trade and

Competitiveness Act of 1988, Pub.L. No. 100-418). The act sponsored the creation of educational partnerships to demonstrate their contributions to educational reform. Under the legislation, evaluation was required to document the partnerships that received assistance, assess their impact on educational institutions, evaluate the extent to which they improved their communities' climate for support of education, and identify promising activities. The overarching evaluation question was whether partnerships could be a force to renew education and encourage community support. The partnerships included a variety of configurations of businesses, cultural institutions, health and human service agencies, institutions of higher learning, state education agencies, and elementary and secondary schools. The 36 partnerships in the program were designed to (1) facilitate the transition from school to work, (2) improve curriculum and instruction, particularly in mathematics and science, and (3) stimulate systemic reform.

The evaluation report by Tushnet *et al*. (1995) concludes that the primary factors for partnership success were the following:

- A problem-solving orientation of all partners
- Communication among partners that clarifies roles and responsibilities
- Shared vision
- Leadership
- Use of a variety of resources
- Institutionalization

With regard to problem solving, Tushnet *et al*. (1995) found that successful partnerships focused on solving a problem or addressing a shared concern with all partners agreeing that the problem existed and that working together was a viable approach to addressing it. The problem-solving orientation contrasted with partnerships that began "opportunistically, to gather federal funds or for purely public relations purposes." Successful partnerships began with clear understandings of the roles each partner was expected to play and of the ways in which individuals would relate within their own organizations and across organizations. Less successful partnerships, in contrast, devoted little time to communication. Development of a shared vision was related to the problem-solving orientation. The evaluation states that shared visions took two forms:

- The participating organizations began their involvement because they diagnosed a problem similarly, had an image of what "should be," and collaborated on the activities in the partnership.

- The partnership involved a division of labor among partners to accomplish a common goal. For example, one participating agency might be responsible for training staff, another for exposing students to the workplace, and another for developing curriculum.

The evaluators believed that in successful partnerships, leadership was distributed. Partnerships were particularly successful when partners shared a common vision and had worked together previously. In addition, successful partnerships called on a greater number of resources than did less successful ones. They would find individuals with the needed talent and experience, match them to required roles, and provide technical assistance, training, and planning time.

Finally, the evaluation offered the following conclusions on institutionalization (p. 9):

> The partnerships that made successful transitions to self-support were those that began planning for "independence" early. From the start, steering committee and advisory board agendas included discussions about transferring staff functions to participating organizations; establishing a freestanding, not-for-profit (501(c)3) organization; finding businesses that would continue to donate goods and services; and changing policies to support partnership activities. The early attention to institutionalization gave participants the opportunity to try different ways of covering staff and maintenance. If one failed, there was time to develop another. Indeed, no partnership that attended to institutionalization failed to continue.

Cousins and Simon (1996) present an evaluation of Canada's Education and Work in a Changing Society grant program. The evaluation took place after the program had been in effect for eight years, thereby permitting an assessment of the funded projects' impacts over time. Their evaluation looked at 64 partnership projects, of which most were partnerships between educational organizations, industry, and academia. With regard to how partnerships operate, their conclusions were as follows:

- By and large, projects were dominated by researchers, with practitioner partners being most active in data interpretation and dissemination activities. To that extent, practitioner participation in knowledge production activities was minimal.

- When project control was more balanced or evenly distributed among partners, mutual benefits were more likely to accrue.

- The challenges presented by cultural barriers between practitioners and researchers play a key role in determining the effectiveness of the partnership arrangement.

- Successful partnership formation requires not only sustained commitment from all partners but sufficient time for establishing and nurturing effective working relations.

- These conditions for partnership formation are most likely to be achieved if the research is initiated by established partnership arrangements, rather than by individual groups or partnerships formed to compete for grants.

- In successful partnerships, the rewards for researchers included, but were not limited to, gratification from seeing research data having a practical payoff, the development of a conceptual perspective, the extension of a research program, and development of skill and competency.

Other authors have written on the general topic of how to succeed with collaborations. Hargrove (1998) emphasizes developing a "collaborative person" who can then follow these seven "building blocks" for successful collaborations:

1. Reinvent yourself as a lateral leader.

2. Seek out competent people and strategic partners.

3. Build a shared, understood goal.

4. Designate clear roles and responsibilities, but not restrictive controls or boundaries.

5. Spend lots of time in dialogue grounded in real problems.

6. Create shared work spaces.

7. Load the project with "zest factors."

Collaborations between industries and universities have existed for many years. In 1995, three organizations (Industrial Research Institute, Government-University-Industry Research Roundtable, and Council on Competitiveness) held a workshop at Duke University with over 100 representatives to discuss the nature of such collaborations. The workshop had been prompted by a Coopers and Lybrand (1995) report that stated, "Forty-one percent of the Nation's fastest growing companies have partnership with colleges and universities—and boast productivity rates 59 percent higher than their peers without such relationships. However, of those companies that use college and university resources, about half say barriers limit their partnership's effective-

ness…." While differences clearly exist between industry–university collaborations and the LIRP program, the workshop's conclusions on the criteria or predictors of success for research partnerships is instructive. The workshop report names the following cultural and attitudinal factors as contributing to successful collaborations (Industrial Research Institute *et al*., 1995):

- A clear understanding, at the outset, of partners' roles and the rules of engagement

- Mutual perception of value in each partner's contribution to the relationship

- Mutual respect and appreciation of organizational differences, missions, motivations, and working environments

- A shared agenda and desire to work together

- The ability of all partners to interact with one another on an interdisciplinary basis and to see beyond the bounds of individual specialties

- Expectations of and efforts to foster win-win outcomes by all parties to partnership negotiations

- Minimization of the "not-invented-here" syndrome on the part of industry and of the traditional academic tendency to look with less regard upon applied or problem-solving research; in other words, an attitude of ownership and responsiveness on all sides

The report also highlights managerial issues for successful collaborations:

- A collaboration needs a champion who has a vested interest in the partnership's success and who can match up industry and university scientists.

- Senior management or executive-level personnel must demonstrate support for partnering by providing adequate financial, human, and capital resources. Industry must be willing to assign its best and brightest technicians to collaborative ventures.

- An infrastructure must be in place to execute, manage, evaluate, and reward collaborations.

- The industrial management structure should empower front-line researchers as decision makers for the projects.

- Frequent and clear communication is needed on expectations and progress at all levels of the partnership.

Another workshop on industry–university collaborations focused on overcoming barriers to collaborative research. That workshop identified two barriers that may also relate to the LIRP program (Government-University-Industry Research Roundtable, 1999):

- **Partners may lack understanding or trust.** In some cases, partners enter into agreements with an inadequate understanding of the management, internal politics, decision-making structures, and even fundamental interests of the other partner, resulting in slow decisions and insufficient resources.

- **Industry and universities often have different time horizons.** Industry and universities have different time horizons for good reasons. Although some senior management officials in industry are concerned that universities are becoming overly oriented toward the short term in their projects and collaborations, industry is generally operating on a shorter time horizon than academia.

Seaburn *et al.* (1996) studied models of collaboration for mental health professionals working with health care practitioners. They addressed the issue of how to create a culture of collaboration in which professionals, patients, and families can work together to offer more comprehensive care to the patient. They identified the following factors as the key ingredients for successful health and mental health collaborations:

- **Working relationships.** Good working relationships, including trust and mutual respect, are essential for an effective collaboration. The authors note that collaborations start with a period of self-disclosure, checking each other out, and building trust. The working relationships mature from that initial point.

- **Common purpose.** Collaborators must develop a common purpose for the delivery of health care to effectively manage or treat each person's concern. The common goal keeps the group together until the task is completed.

- **Effective communications.** Clear, concise, direct communication is essential for effective collaboration, especially at the early stages of the process.

- **Location of service.** Close proximity eases collaboration but is not an absolute necessity.

- **Business arrangement.** Financial arrangements for mental health collaborations generally are of three types: employer/employee, parallel, and colleague. Each has advantages and disadvantages.

Other related literature offers the following insights (Liebowitz and Goltz, 1993; Conoley, 1986; Glenn and Vance, 1994; Gable, 1994):

- Researchers need to understand the management style of the organization within which they are collaborating.

- Researchers and management need a clear understanding of each other's role in a study.

- Collaborative research requires close teamwork, extensive planning, specific consulting skills, flexibility, administrator support, and sufficient time for planning and implementation.

- Researchers may need to employ several research approaches to a partnership, including case studies, survey research, and quantitative analysis.

In the early 1970s, NIJ funded 12 State Planning Agencies (SPAs) and Regional Planning Units (RPUs) to develop model evaluation systems. These systems were designed to help states, regions, and municipalities evaluate criminal justice projects. In addition, an award was made to the Urban Institute in Washington, D.C., to assess the 12 attempts to develop and demonstrate model evaluation systems. The final report (Waller *et al.*, 1979) provides several insights regarding the successes and failures of the model evaluation systems. Three of its findings contributed to the evaluation design for the LIRP program:

- The more a user is committed to or dependent on evaluation results, the more utility the study is likely to have.

- Staff turnover in the evaluation unit will cause delays and disruptions in the evaluation efforts.

- The RPUs were unable to establish evaluation systems or capabilities within local criminal justice agencies.

The first finding supports NIJ's requirement that police personnel and researchers together identify problems of interest to the agency. The second finding is a subject that ILJ tracked carefully during the course of the evaluation. The third finding relates to whether the LIRP project teams continued after federal funding and, if so, what organizational arrangements were made.

Klockars (1989) and Langworthy (1991) have developed ideas on a variety of organizational and funding arrangements for local partnerships. Based on his experiences with the Harford County (Maryland) Sheriff's Department, Klockars (1989) proposes a *consultancy-internship model* in which a police department would provide funds for a university professor (the consultant) who supervises the activities of three advanced graduate students (the interns) to conduct research and evaluations. Langworthy (1991) believes that model may be too expensive for one department and instead offers an alternative *consortium model* along the same lines but serving a group of small and medium-sized police departments in the same geographic area. An advantage is lower cost for each participating department, but a disadvantage is the difficulty in

identifying research topics of interest to all departments. He also suggests a *matchmaker model* in which an established "agent" serves as a broker to find researchers with expertise and interest in a specific local problem. The agent would then identify and negotiate with researchers for the local effort. The matchmaker model does not exclude the other two approaches.

Influence of Community Policing

NIJ's solicitations gave broad guidelines on the research topics that would be acceptable under the LIRP program. As discussed in Chapter 1, NIJ anticipated that the grantees would select a topic of concern to the police department and amenable to research. The only limiting requirement was that the topic fit under the broad umbrella of community policing. As stated in NIJ's 1996 solicitation, the partnerships were to be viewed as a resource for policy-relevant research and evaluation of programs and strategies. Because the definition of community policing is broad and because many of the police agencies in the program were transitioning to community policing, NIJ's requirement was easily satisfied.

Thirteen LIRP projects focused on the organizational development or implementation of community policing, and 15 other projects evaluated community policing with techniques such as interviews, surveys, and data analysis. Those 28 sites can therefore serve as a test bed for looking at the roles that research plays during an organizational transformation to community policing.

At the start of the LIRP program in 1995, community policing was viewed as a broadening of police functions (Kelling and Moore, 1992; Kennedy, 1993) and as an examination of the activities that police departments should be performing. Two central elements emphasized in 1994 by the Community Policing Consortium (CPC) were community engagement and problem solving. The CPC included key policing and research organizations, such as the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), Police Executive Research Forum (PERF), National Sheriffs' Association (NSA), Police Foundation, and National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives (NOBLE). The COPS Office sponsored the CPC to advance community policing in local police departments through technical assistance and training.

The ideas put forth by the CPC and researchers influenced the topics selected by LIRP project teams and the resulting activities. For example, in the mid-1990s, several researchers put

forth different frameworks to describe community policing in other than broad philosophical terms (e.g., see Cardarelli and McDevitt. 1995; Kratcoski and Dukes, 1995; Seagrave, 1996; and Cordner, 1995, 1997).

Cordner (1995) identifies four dimensions of community policing—philosophical, strategic, tactical, and organizational—with associated elements. [6] (See Exhibit 2-1.)

Exhibit 2-1: Dimensions of Community Policing

Philosophical Dimension	Tactical Dimension
Citizen input	Positive interaction
Broader definition of functions	Partnerships with citizens
Emphasis on personal service	Problem solving
Strategic Dimension	Organizational Dimension
Reorientation of operations	Structure
Emphasis on prevention	Management
Geographic focus	Information

Source: Cordner (1997)

Philosophic Dimension. The philosophic dimension includes the central ideas and beliefs underlying community policing. Three of the most important elements of this dimension are (1) *citizen input* (e.g., community members should have open access to police organizations and the opportunity to influence how they are policed); (2) *broad police function* (e.g., order maintenance, social service, and general assistance responsibilities, not just a narrow crime fighting function); and (3) *personal service* (e.g., tailored policing based on local norms and values and individual needs).

Strategic Dimension. The strategic dimension includes the key operational concepts that translate community policing from philosophy to action. The key elements associated with this dimension are (1) *reoriented operations* (e.g., focusing on positive interactions, replacing ineffective and isolating practices with more effective and interactive practices, and increasing the efficiency of traditional functions to give officers more time for community-oriented activities);

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[6] These dimensions also appear in McEwen, *Use of Computer-Aided Dispatch Data in Support of Community Policing,* final report submitted to the National Institute of Justice, U.S. Department of Justice, 2002.

(2) *preventive emphasis* (e.g., achieving a more proactive and preventive orientation, encouraging better use of patrol officer time on pre-planned or directed patrol activities, and fostering a greater emphasis on social welfare, particularly with respect to juveniles); and (3) *geographic focus* (e.g., emphasizing a geographic basis of assignment and accountability by shifting the fundamental unit of patrol accountability from one of time to one of place).

Tactical Dimension. This dimension focuses on identifying the concrete programs, practices, and behaviors a police agency uses to translate its underlying community policing philosophies, ideas, and strategies into action. The key elements of this dimension are (1) *positive interaction* (e.g., officers should seek opportunities to engage in positive interactions with members of the community, looking at every call for service as a chance for positive interaction, quality service, and problem identification); (2) *partnerships* (e.g., police not only cooperate with citizens and community, but actively solicit input and participation); and (3) *problem solving* (e.g., whenever possible, police attention should be directed towards underlying problems and conditions; problem solving should be a standard operating method, not an occasional special project, and should involve community input and partnerships).

Organizational Dimension. This dimension recognizes that implementation of community policing is greatly influenced by the organizational environment. As Cordner describes it, the organizational elements are not part of community policing *per se*, but they are often crucial to successful implementation. These elements include (1) *structure* (e.g, decentralization, flattening, despecialization, teams, and civilianization); (2) *management* (e.g., styles of leadership, management, and supervision that give more emphasis to organizational culture and values than to written rules and formal discipline; statements of mission and values; continuous strategic planning focused on mission accomplishment and adherence to core values; and coaching, empowerment, and support for intelligent risk taking); and (3) *information* (e.g., access information that has not traditionally been available in police agencies, including performance appraisals tailored to COP, program evaluation, departmental assessment, information systems that support broader police functions than just enforcement and call handling, crime analysis, and geographic information systems).

While the LIRP projects did not necessarily follow these dimensions precisely, the dimensions are useful for categorizing many of the projects' activities program for the purpose of evaluation.

Connors and Webster (2001) present another approach for transitioning to community policing, which emphasizes the internal organizational changes that need to be made. Exhibit 2-2 shows their framework, which was developed through case studies of four police departments (Portland, Oregon; St. Petersburg, Florida; San Diego, California; and Tempe, Arizona). The first stage of the framework consists of four steps. Step A includes the development of a new vision statement and the creation of an urgency for change. Step B includes ways of making the vision known, both inside and outside the police organization. Slogans, newsletters, announcements, and orientation are among the communication techniques described. Step C calls for developing strategies to make the transition to community policing, such as workload analysis and the gathering of qualitative information from citizen surveys, focus groups, advisory committees, and public forums. In Step D, the police department develops the coalition needed to achieve the vision. The coalition includes both internal resources (command personnel, union, etc.) and external resources (community organizations, business groups, etc.).

Exhibit 2-2: Framework for an Organizational Transformation to Community Policing

<u>Stage One: Planning and Developing the New Approaches</u>
   Step A. Creating a Vision for Community Policing
   Step B. Communicating the Vision (internally and externally)
   Step C. Developing Strategies to Achieve the Vision
   Step D. Forming a Powerful Guiding Coalition

<u>Stage Two: Implementing and Anchoring the New Approaches</u>
   Step E. Empowering Others to Act on the Vision
   Step F. Planning for and Creating Small, Short-term Wins
   Step G. Institutionalizing the New Approaches

Source: Connors and Webster (2001)

The second stage of the framework consists of three steps for "implementing and anchoring the new approaches" with the overarching aim of maintaining the new vision over time. Step E aims at empowering the workforce and overcoming resistance to change. It is one of the most difficult tasks for transitioning police departments because it goes to the core of management versus line responsibilities. Step F advises that the transition should be a series of small changes, rather than a massive change at one time. The step appears to be especially relevant for police departments that emphasize problem solving as a basis for their new vision. Institution-

alizing community policing is the final step in the model. It aims at the need to address recruitment, promotions, job descriptions, and training for a complete transition to community policing.

The Connors and Webster research also informs this evaluation because many LIRP projects implicitly performed selected steps as a part of their research. There is clearly a consensus among the researchers that the transition to community policing takes time—sometimes years—and that the transition must be done in discrete steps. Because the LIRP projects sometimes lasted three years or more, it was natural for them to be involved in the transition to community policing as part of their research efforts.

Pure versus Applied Research

Research efforts can be categorized as either *pure* research or *applied* research. A research effort is considered pure research when the results have no apparent application to a practical problem, but instead add to our knowledge about the selected topic (Booth *et al.*, 1995). On the other hand, applied research seeks to provide results that have immediate relevance to policy or immediate decision making (Senese, 1997; Maxfield and Babbie, 1998). The focus is not on the contribution that the research results can make to the knowledge about a topic, but rather on providing a solution to the problem at hand.

Applied research therefore focuses on the creation of specific information about selected topics. The debate among criminologists is whether applied research is less "academic," and therefore less demanding and rigorous, than pure research. Some argue that criminologists should focus on pure research, while others argue for applied research or a mixture of the two. Senese (1997) reports that several academic programs (e.g., Michigan State University, State University of New York at Albany, and Sam Houston State University) have added more applied courses to their curricula. Further, both the American Jail Association and the American Correctional Association support the trend toward applied research.

Of course, applied research can also add to the body of knowledge about a topic. The difficulty is that applied research generally focuses on a specific local problem—a setting that may not be amenable to generalization. However, the cumulating of applied research results may be possible through meta-evaluation or other techniques.

Results described in Klockars and Harver (1993) about the research that police do and the role research plays in police agencies were instructive for the LIRP program. Under an NIJ grant to obtain viewpoints on research, they visited 12 police agencies and conducted a mail survey with 491 completed questionnaires from police agencies. Interestingly, the motivation for conducting the survey was their belief that "contemporary research 'on' police is research 'with' police."

Rather than providing a definition of research to which respondents could react, their questionnaire attempted to elicit what research meant to the agencies. Research topics marked by a majority of respondents included use-of-force policies, revisions to policy manuals, agency budget compilations, law and civil liability, transferability of successful programs from other police agencies, and ongoing needs assessments. A particularly insightful comment for the LIRP program concerns the influences that affect the initiation of research in police agencies (Klockars and Harver, 1993):

> Finally, although ongoing needs assessment and the introduction of successful programs from other agencies are high on the list of factors initiating research, much of the list and four out of six of the most frequently mentioned motives for police research are categories of 'problems." This suggests that the majority of police research is done in response to the identification of some practical problem and constitutes (and this may be so even when it is innovative or imitative of a successful program in some other agency) an attempt to correct, avoid, or minimize some problem. In short police research, as it is practiced in U.S. police agencies, is applied research.

Eighty-six percent of the responding agencies agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, "In the research unit in this agency, 'research' usually consists of identifying problems, proposing solutions, and evaluating outcomes." Further, 69 percent agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, "Most of the work done by the research and planning unit is designed to improve the quality of administration in this agency," while 56 percent agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, "Most of the work done by the research and planning unit is designed to evaluate the effectiveness of 'street level' operations."

The authors' concluding remarks on the survey are as follows:

- There is little resistance to research in police agencies.

- The vast majority of top police administrators, including agency heads, are generally supportive of research.

- Research and planning units play a major role in agency change, probably second in importance only to that of the chief.

- Most researchers believe they play a significant role in most administrative decisions.

The LIRP program clearly falls under the category of applied research. As stated in the 1996 NIJ solicitation, the aim of the program is to support projects that will evaluate community policing programs and to support other research and evaluation projects that "contribute directly to improving public safety and policing." The announcement adds that local projects should "continue to increase the Nation's store of practical knowledge about policing."

The tone of the announcement therefore appeals to law enforcement agencies that have problems or topics they would like addressed and to researchers who have an interest in applying their skills to practical situations. In that sense, the grantees are self-selected. The solicitation would not likely gain the interest of researchers with a theoretical bent, and a review of the initial grant applications substantiates that claim. Most researchers named in the applications had backgrounds in research efforts at local police departments or in management studies of police departments. Even researchers without such backgrounds tended to have experience in applied research from other fields (such as sociology or business).

Problem Selection

The discussion of pure versus applied research raises the question of what is acceptable as a research topic or research problem under the LIRP program. The program differed from previous efforts in that local grantees had greater leeway in problem selection. In past programs, NIJ had selected a topic, such as gang violence, and invited applications for research projects on that topic. As a result, the funded projects tended to be driven by university and research organizations with seasoned researchers as the principal investigators. For the most part, the funded projects were well-conceived experimental designs with a good chance of advancing knowledge of a particular topic. Key characteristics of that approach are as follows:

- The selected research problem had national importance.

- Researchers from universities and research organizations tended to be the recipients of the grants.

- Police departments and other criminal justice agencies may have served as test sites for interventions related to the research problem, but usually they were not involved in the problem selection, research design, data analysis, and final report.

- The final reports from the projects generally were intended for a research audience to extend knowledge about the selected problem.

The LIRP program changed the research paradigm in several respects. Police practitioners and researchers jointly decided on the research problem. Because the COPS Office provided the funds, the research problem had to be related in some manner to community policing. NIJ's solicitations were silent in two important areas. First, the solicitations gave no guidance on the research designs that might be employed in the projects. Second, no guidelines were provided on the format of the final reports from the projects.

There is reason to believe that NIJ expected the projects to deploy sound research techniques, such as quasi-experimental designs, and to provide final reports that would contribute to the general knowledge of a particular subject matter. However, most of the community policing efforts studied were not amenable to formal research designs because (1) they were organizational, rather than operational, changes, and (2) they were introduced citywide rather than in one area (precluding control groups or areas).

Chapter 3

Evaluation Methodology

The action research model served as the basis for this evaluation of the program. Action research calls for an engaged researcher, collaboration, knowledge diffusion, and change targeted at various levels. In calling for a separate project to conduct cross-site research, NIJ acknowledged that the partnerships themselves were a topic for research. The primary approaches used during the evaluation of the LIRP program were site visits and reports, cluster conferences, association meetings, analysis of final reports, and reviews of the program's listserv discussion contents.

Action Research Model as a Basis for Evaluation

The basis for ILJ's evaluation of the LIRP program was influenced significantly by the literature on theory-driven evaluation as advocated by Chen and Rossi (1981, 1983, 1987), Rossi and Freeman (1990), and Shadish, Cook, and Leviton (1995). Those researchers on evaluation approaches focus on the application of theory-driven evaluations of field programs in which an intervention is made and the objective is to evaluate the intervention's impact. The LIRP program has parallels in that the "intervention" is the establishment of a partnership to conduct research and the overarching evaluative objective is to determine how well those partnerships operated, what the outcomes were, and what others can learn from their experiences.

To identify a theory-driven approach, the evaluation team turned to the extensive literature on *action research* that has evolved over the last 50 years. The literature became a rich source for developing a model describing how local research can be conducted. Two definitions found in the literature on action research are especially relevant to the establishment of a foundation for the LIRP evaluation. Elden and Chisholm (1993) state the following:

> Action research is a cyclical process that involves diagnosing a problem situation, planning action steps, and implementing and evaluating outcomes. Evaluation leads to diagnosing the situation anew based on learnings from the previous activities cycle. A distinctive feature of action research is that it is carried out in collaboration with those who experience the problem or their representatives. Action research aims at producing new knowledge that contributes both to practical solutions to immediate problems and to general knowledge.

Bargal, Gold, and Lewin (1992) give this definition:

> [Action research] is characterized by (1) a cyclic process of planning, ac-
> tion, and evaluation; (2) a continuous feedback of the research results to
> all parties involved, including clients; (3) cooperation between research-
> ers, practitioners, and clients from the start and throughout the entire proc-
> ess; (4) application of the principles that govern social life and group deci-
> sion making; (5) taking into account differences in value systems and
> power structures of all parties involved in the research; and (6) using ac-
> tion research to concurrently to solve a problem and to generate new
> knowledge.

Both these definitions reflect the general idea of a cyclical approach to research, the in-

volvement of those who are experiencing the problem, and an aim of solving a problem. In

graphical form, an action research model can be characterized as in Exhibit 3-1.

Exhibit 3-1: Action Research Model for a LIRP
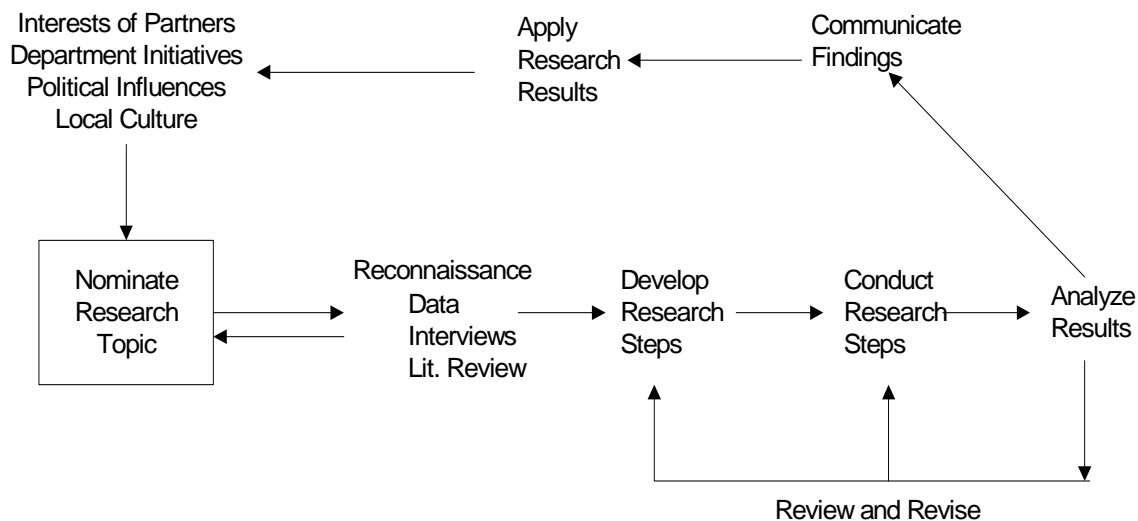
The exhibit shows an action research cycle starting with the nomination of a research

topic by the partnership members. Note that the model indicates that the nomination itself is in-

fluenced by the interests of the partners (both professional and personal), the police department's

initiatives (such as community policing), political influences at the time (such as recent media

coverage of department activities), and local culture. When a research topic is nominated, a re-

connaissance occurs in which the partnership team—consisting of researchers and police practi-

tioners—conducts a fact-finding mission about the topic. Several outcomes can result from the reconnaissance. It may be determined, for example, that the research topic either is really not a problem or will require the expenditure of more funds than are available. It may instead be determined that insufficient data are available to conduct the necessary research. For example, the data needed for an adequate study of domestic violence may not be available simply because the police department does not capture the necessary detailed information about these incidents and associated arrests. While the department may be able to provide statistics on the total volume of domestic violence incidents, detailed information on victims, offenders, and situations may not be available. The reconnaissance step should also include a review of the available literature to determine whether other researchers or police departments have addressed the same topic. Results of the review should be useful in formulating the research project.

Assuming that the reconnaissance shows that the nominated topic is viable, the next three steps in the model are traditional research approaches. The partners develop a research design, conduct the research, and analyze results. One difference, however, is that the model shows a feedback loop among these three steps. That is, the partnership may find that it needs to revise the research design or the conduct of the research during the course of the effort. Instead of waiting for a complete analysis at the end of the research effort, the model suggests mid-course corrections in the effort.

After the analysis has been completed, the next step in the model is to communicate the results of the effort. The aim is to inform key members of the police department about the research methods and results. Usually, the results include corrective actions that the police department might wish to take to improve either policy or procedure. The communication step should be a joint undertaking between the researchers and the police practitioners involved in the effort. Researchers may describe the theoretical underpinnings and design of the research, while police practitioners may provide operational recommendations based on the results. It is then up to the department to apply the research findings as indicated in Exhibit 3-1 to make operational improvements.

Other aspects of action research provide additional grounds for evaluation. The action researcher never proceeds in a disengaged manner; specific purposes and value choices always influence actions (Elden and Chisholm, 1993). Moreover, action researchers are value-specific because all their efforts are focused on benefiting the whole community. Research without bene-

ficial action is considered value-neutral and is avoided by action researchers (Elden and Chisholm, 1993: 126-7).

Action research has a contextual focus because the problem and its solution are given paramount priority. By examining and addressing real-world problems, the action researcher disengages from applying abstract theories to practical problems; instead, the action researcher's problem-solving approach informs and builds theory. Proficiency at reading and interpreting change-based data is another key dimension in action research. The action researcher must be skilled in collecting data over an extended period and in making sense of that data.

Additional dimensions embedded in action research are collaboration, knowledge diffusion, and change targeted at varying levels. Action research demands equal *collaboration* between researchers and practitioners in their problem-solving efforts. The action researcher *disperses knowledge* by attacking problems that affect specific organizations. Knowledge about problem solving is thereby circulated into the organization the action researcher is aiding. Knowledge diffusion also occurs when other organizations learn about the problem-solving strategies used by action researchers. Finally, action researchers target changes at different levels, from relatively small systems (such as factories) to larger organizations that involve whole communities or countries.

The idea of action research is not new to the criminal justice field. Clarke (1997) links his ideas on situational crime prevention to action research as follows:

> The standard methodology for a situational project, Situational [Crime] Prevention's second component, is a version of the action research model in which researchers and practitioners work together to analyze and define the problem, to identify and try out possible solutions, to evaluate the results and, if necessary, to repeat the results until success is achieved.

Dr. Clarke has applied these ideas in, for example, his effort with the Port Authority Bus Terminal, which faced serious crime problems in the late 1980s and 1990s (Bichler and Clarke, 1997).

Other recent research efforts that can be construed as action research include the development of crime mapping in Chicago (partnership between Chicago Police Department, Chicago Alliance for Neighborhood Safety, Northwestern University, and the University of Illinois at

Chicago (Maltz, 1995), research on gangs in Boston (Kennedy, Braga, and Piehl, 1998), and the Huddersfield Repeat Victimization effort (Pease, Holt, and Chenery, 1997).

Further support for the action research model as a theory behind the LIRP program comes from Schein (1992), who studied organizational culture and leadership. Exhibit 3-2 shows his typology of organizational research approaches, emphasizing the levels of organizational and researcher involvement.

Exhibit 3-2: Categories of Research on Organizations

Level of Organizational Involvement	Level of Researcher Involvement	
	Low to Medium Quantitative	High Qualitative
Minimal	Demographics; measurement of "distal" variables	Ethnography; participant observation; content analysis of stories, myths, rituals, symbols, other artifacts
Partial	Experimentation; questionnaires, ratings, objective tests, scales	Projective tests; assessment centers; interviews
Maximal	Action research; total quality tools such as statistical quality control	Action research; organization development; clinical research

Schein views action research as a viable approach if the levels of organizational and research involvement are high. Given that the LIRP program strived to create close working relationships between police practitioners and researchers, his categorization is applicable.

Interestingly, Schein is especially concerned about the outcomes in which the level of organizational involvement is partial. He states (p. 30):

> It is in the middle row, where [researchers] are experimenting or giving various tests, that researchers are most at risk of getting invalid data and unwittingly harming the organization they are studying because they are typically working their own agenda and not paying enough attention to the consequences of their research interventions. In other words, if the subjects are to be involved at all, they must be involved in a way that is helpful *to them*.

Applied Research versus Action Research

Most authors on action research distinguish between applied research and action research. For example, Whyte, Greenwood, and Lazes (1991) define "participatory action research" (PAR) as research in organization members participate actively with researchers throughout the research process—from the initial design to the final presentation of results and discussion of their action implications. They add:

> PAR is *applied* research, but it also contrasts sharply with the most common type of applied research, in which researchers serve as professional experts, designing the project, gathering the data, interpreting the findings, and recommending action to the client organization. Like the conventional model of pure research, this also is an elitist model of research relationships. In PAR, some of the members of the organization we study are actively engaged in the quest for information and ideas to guide their future actions.

The distinction is important in evaluating the LIRP program with action research as the theoretical model. In its solicitation, NIJ clearly intended that research results would help police departments advance their community policing efforts. The language in the 1996 solicitation stated that community policing had increased the need for police executive to use research to "define problems, design solutions, and assess the result." Implicit in this statement is that police agencies would act on the research results.

The idea that action and participation must be tied to the research effort is the distinguishing feature of action research. That idea is emphasized in the following comment from Greenwood and Levin (1998, p. 6):

> Action research refers to the conjunction of three elements: research, action, and participation. Unless all three elements are present, the process cannot be called action research. Put another way, action research is a form of research that generates knowledge claims for the express purpose of taking action to promote social change and social analysis. But the social change we refer to is not just any kind of change. Action research aims to increase the ability of the involved community or organization members to control their own destinies more effectively and to keep improving their capacity to do so.

Greenwood and Levin also separate themselves from applied researchers when they state, "Valid social knowledge is derived from practical reasoning engaged in through action" (p. 6).

Action researchers do not, however, reject the quantitative and qualitative techniques that historically have been the tools of researchers. Surveys, statistical analyses, interviews, focus groups, and quasi-experimental designs are all acceptable techniques under action research provided that both the practitioners and the researchers have agreed on the reasons for employing them.

Criticisms of Action Research

Several criticisms have been levied at action research as an alternative research paradigm. In the educational field, Atkinson and Delamont (1985) have severely criticized its atheoretical posture and denial of the need for systematic methods. Popkewitz (1984) is concerned about overdependence on the democratic versions of problem solving in schools (p. 146):

> The belief that school staffs can identify and plan to alter their own assumptions and power arrangements through a focus on process seems to belie experience. Schools are complex social contexts. There is little time for critical reflection. Their social and political values are often anti-intellectual, anti-democratic, and anti-educational…. To consider change as process without form is to lose sight of the substance that underlies reform and to conserve what is to be changed.

The LIRP program assumes that time for critical reflection will be available because of the grant funding. That is, compensating both the police agencies and researcher provides an incentive to pay attention to the project.

Another criticism of action research is that the researcher will become part of the problem, rather than part of the solution. The researcher becomes so involved in the workings of the police department that objectivity is lost and results are biased. The same criticism can be levied against both pure and applied research. In any setting, researchers bring a set of values to the problem at hand. In action research, multiple sets of values are in play because of the mixed participation, and it is certainly true that the research is influenced by those values.

Regarding the criticism on the lack of systematic methods, a sense of "ready, fire, aim" is indeed inherent in action research. Action research is a cyclical process that continually makes modifications to reach an eventual, satisfactory solution to a problem. If implemented correctly, it makes rapid adjustments when a solution is unsatisfactory. Moore (1995) has stated that the strategy is better suited toward addressing real-world problems because it "biases [organizations]

toward action and gives them an edge in adapting to a changing environment" (p. 312) and be-
cause it provides researchers with better experience to help them modify and refine their "aim"
(p. 312).

Finally, a critique within NIJ with regard to the LIRP program generally is how the re-
sults can contribute to research knowledge. Over the years, NIJ has sponsored research projects
that have resulted in advancing the knowledge about a subject through carefully planned and
executed research designs. The LIRP program represented a departure in that it gave greater
leeway to the local practitioners and researchers in selection of the research topic, data collection
methods, data analysis, and presentation of results. The expectation may have been that the
grantees would continue to perform research in traditional fashion. As time went on, however, it
became clear that the local research was getting done in other ways.

Evaluation Objectives

In calling for a separate project to conduct cross-site research, NIJ acknowledged that the
partnerships themselves were a topic for research. The LIRP program provided an excellent op-
portunity to study how local research is conducted at the local level through a collaborative ap-
proach between practitioners and researchers.

As for using action research as the basis for the evaluation, NIJ did not initially formulate
the LIRP program with that model in mind. The LIRP solicitations did not require the model,
and the grants did not have a special condition requiring it. Using it as a basis for the evaluation
was the decision of ILJ based on initial contacts with the grantees and on observations of how
the project activities were proceeding.

Interest in action research developed over time both at NIJ and among many grantees.
NIJ embraced the approach as the foundation for partnership efforts in such fields as corrections
programs and programs for combating crime in housing projects. Moreover, some of the LIRP
grantees were impressed enough with the ideas of action research to formally introduce them
later in their projects.

Accepting the action research model in Exhibit 3-1 as the theoretical basis for the evalua-
tion, one set of evaluation questions is as follows:

- What factors influenced the nomination of problems addressed by the partnerships?

- To what extent was reconnaissance performed after nomination of a topic? How did the results influence topic selection?

- What research designs or steps were employed by the partnerships?

- How did the partnerships conduct the research and analyze the results?

- Was the research design revised during the project? If so, what changes were made, and why were they made?

- How were the results communicated to police management and others?

Two general questions relate to the participation, research, and action dimensions of action research:

- To what extent did the police practitioners and researchers participate in (1) problem selection, (2) reconnaissance, (3) research design, (4) analysis, and (5) dissemination of results?

- What actions did the police agency take as a result of the research project?

ILJ's initial review of the grant applications also influenced the evaluation activities. The applications and initial site visits brought out several common approaches and themes across the sites. The themes addressed NIJ's interest in how partnerships operate at the local level and what factors lead to successful research partnerships. Therefore, additional questions addressed during the evaluation were as follows:

- What differences exist in how research is conducted when the partnerships have a history of partnership versus those that are newly formed?

- How did the partnerships define a "research project"?

- Did the partners, in fact, have equal roles in the research?

- How can partnerships be sustained after grant funding ends?

- Do the products of research under a LIRP program differ from those ordinarily produced by NIJ-sponsored research projects?

- How did researchers deal with the political environment of police departments?

- Did turnover occur in the partnerships? If so, what was the impact?

- What can be learned at the national level from the local research results?

In virtually all the preceding questions, the status of community policing in the department has to be taken into account. In other words, if the police department was planning its community policing transition, or if it was already implementing community policing, to what extent did its current stage influence the selection of problems and other steps in the LIRP project?

Evaluation Activities

The primary approaches used during the evaluation of the LIRP program were as follows:

- Site visits and reports
- Cluster conferences
- Association meetings
- Reviews of final reports
- NIJCOLL listserv

The approaches are discussed in the following sections.

Site Visits and Reports

Throughout the project, ILJ visited selected partnership sites as part of the evaluation effort. Approximately half the sites were visited between April 1997 and April 1998. At each site, ILJ interviewed a number of project staff, from both the research and the police side. Also, whenever possible, the chief or other high command staff were interviewed (whether or not they were directly involved in the project). To guide the interviews and facilitate comparisons across the sites, a protocol was developed, including specific questions to ask of the participants. The types of questions pursued included the following:

- What is the history or genesis of the partnership?
- Who are the key people currently involved in the project, and to whom do they report? Is their involvement active or passive? Who is not involved?
- How did the researchers go about getting to know the police department, its culture, and its way of operating? (For some researchers, this project was their first experience working with police departments).
- Have there been key changes in police or researcher personnel who have worked on the project?
- What has been the role, if any, of graduate students in the research?

- Do the parties have the same view on the overall objectives of this partnership? If so, what is the view? If not, what are the different views?

- What have been the problems or obstacles in the partnership (personalities, lack of data, other time commitments, etc.), and how were they overcome?

- Does it appear that the partnership will continue after the grant funds terminate?

- What advice would participants give to others who are interested in establishing a partnership?

ILJ compiled other information to prepare detailed reports on each project. Depending on the site, this information included basic information on the police department (e.g., organizational structure, staffing, community policing objectives and approach), copies of preliminary research reports, and examples of the data being collected.

The reports prepared on each site visit list all the people who were interviewed, identify the other materials collected from the site, describe the formation of the partnership and the project undertaken, and note the participants' views of how things were going. Additionally, the reports offer the observer's views of the project and the collaborative effort. Some excerpts are included below to demonstrate the type of information provided in the site visit reports:

> What is noteworthy here, and I think it is worth emphasizing in any publication, is that effective communications on this project started at its formative stage and have continued through all subsequent phases. All key players in the city have been active participants in the process. Thus, the project has not become "compartmentalized" or owned in a bureaucratic grants unit. The leaders are the researchers and the actual service providers.[7]

> As these individuals spoke with us during the site visit, it was clear that the different needs of the department and the researchers needed attention. The use of the committees went a long way to achieve the goals of both groups.[8]

> The police department provided input to the general areas of the design of the survey and assisted in the interpretation. For the most part the researchers conducted all of the technical aspects of the research in this project, but met frequently with the police department to obtain input. The

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[7] Steven Gaffigan, *Locally Initiated Research Partnership Site Visit Report: Seattle,* August 1997.
[8] Timothy Bynum, *Locally Initiated Research Partnership Site Visit Report: Philadelphia,* September 1997.

police department was involved in providing their expertise in the interpretation and implications of the findings.[9]

Observations from the site visit reports are used more extensively in later sections of this report.

Cluster Conferences

Two cluster conferences were held during the cross-site study period. One was in January 1997, the other in February 1998. The conferences had two main purposes: (1) to provide an opportunity for grantees to discuss their projects and exchange information on research approaches and results, and (2) to enable the evaluation team to meet with grantees as a group to discuss the evaluation efforts and upcoming activities.

Panels and roundtable discussions on a number of topics were held at both conferences. One panel, on partnership and data confidentiality, focused on the goals and costs of collaborative research projects. An example of a goal would be to enhance the utility and relevance of the research findings. A cost might be that group processes would tend to be slow, or that partnership might result in the blurring of legal and professional obligations. In a panel on getting partnerships started, each speaker identified steps that helped get their partnerships off the ground. The presenters also made more general recommendations based on those experiences. Another panel examined performance measures for community policing impacts. Several of those measures reflected the types of projects that were being undertaken at the various sites.

Each participant was asked to fill out a conference assessment form. Respondents were asked to rate on a five-point scale the conference as a whole, the usefulness of the information provided, how well the information was presented, and the experience and preparation of the presenters. The first cluster conference received very good ratings (mean ratings were greater than four for all categories). Comments were also encouraged and were very informative. Despite the high marks, some respondents felt that the panels were too academic and that there were too few police representatives on the panels. The practitioners in attendance said they wanted to know that, in the end, the research would have value for them and their departments.

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[9]   Timothy Bynum, *Locally Initiated Research Partnership Site Visit Report: St. Louis,* September 1997.

The second cluster conference was held a year later and again received positive reviews. Importantly, more practitioners were present on the panels. For example, a member of the Seattle Police Department spoke on the domestic violence panel alongside the lead researcher for that project. A member of the Boston Police Department spoke on a panel looking at replicating CompStat. Almost every panel contained at least one police practitioner among its speakers.

The conferences also provided an opportunity for the ILJ evaluation team to present the action research model (Exhibit 3-1) for discussion. There was agreement from the grantees that the model accurately reflected the manner in which research was conducted at their sites. With this encouragement, ILJ continued to use the model as the basis for the evaluation.

Discussions at Association Meetings

During the years of the evaluation, ILJ staff attended several association meetings for police and researchers. In particular, staff attended annual meetings of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), American Society of Criminology (ASC), and Academy of Criminal Justice Scientists (ACJS). At the ASC and ACJS meetings, researchers from several LIRP partnerships presented their research findings. ILJ research staff benefited from these sessions by having an opportunity to listen to the results and talk directly with local researchers about their efforts. It should be noted, however, that no presentations on the LIRP program appear to have been made at the annual IACP meetings.

Reviews of Final Reports

Research reports completed by the partnerships were forwarded to NIJ, which then sent copies to ILJ for review. In general, the reports provided information on the problem that was the topic of the research, methods used, outcomes, and recommendations for solving the problem. As is discussed later, the research reports from LIRP differ considerably from most research reports provided by NIJ.

The partnerships also used other means to convey the results of their research at the local level. For example, many partnerships made PowerPoint presentations summarizing the results and providing the recommendations that came from the research. Others created summaries of the research in graphs and charts. Partnerships that focused on mapping presented the final maps and explanations as their research product.

NIJCOLL Listserv

Another support activity by ILJ was the establishment of a listserv (or electronic conference) for participants, both police personnel and researchers. The purpose of the listserv was to encourage communication between projects on common topics of interest. The listserv also turned out to be a useful source of information for the evaluation, as it reflected the participation of police and research personnel in the various research topics. While researchers tended to use the listserv more than practitioners, it was encouraging to see police participation to at least a moderate degree. Moreover, police participation grew over time as more department personnel gained Internet access at work.

The listserv, known as NIJCOLL, provided clear, concise communication between the research and police organizations. It also served to cross-fertilize different policing subject areas with ideas and approaches that could improve policing practices. At the same time, it added to both the research knowledge available and the general use of insights from the research. Through the use of the archive website on the Internet, conference participants were also able to organize electronic conference material, instantly sorting the communications by theme, date, or author.

NIJCOLL was begun in full recognition of the advantages a listserv could bring to the program. The following were among those advantages:

- A participant could connect with the listserv at any time.
- A participant could scan a list of topics and select a topic of interest.
- Prior postings on that topic could be viewed by the participant.
- A participant could respond to a topic by providing information to another participant or by leaving a question for others to address.

NIJCOLL was widely used by the program participants. At one point, approximately 150 project personnel were in communication with each other on such issues as these:

- Survey instruments for assessment
- Approaches to domestic violence
- Community/police combined efforts against disorder, auto theft, or illegal drug sales in public housing
- Curfew laws

- Citizen patrols

- Citizen police academies

- Computer mapping

- NIBRS analysis

- Police training

- Technology needs

An example of how program participants used NIJCOLL is that police managers from the LAPD/UCLA partnership group wanted to know more about the response of officers and the community to problem solving and community-based initiatives. Through NIJCOLL, the LAPD managers and their research partners were able to obtain a collection of survey instruments that could be adapted to LAPD's specific needs. These included, for example, a patrol officer questionnaire from Wycoff and Oettmeier (1993) and a citizen survey from Skogan (1993). Survey design was also explored in electronic discussions on assessing gang problems, evaluating officers' performance, and examining the characteristics of area households.

Wide-ranging discussions occurred on particular community–police efforts to solve problems, such as high incidence of car theft. For example, the Seattle Police Department requested:

> …help in exploring ways to increase the identification of offenders…[including] any effective technologies for lifting latent prints from interior car surfaces or ANY responses that PDs have used to increase the identification of offenders in these crimes.

The team working with the Rapid City (South Dakota) Police Department responded thus:

> Obviously, running fingerprints of "low priority" crimes may bottleneck the national AFIS system. As such, we have come across an interesting software program which allows a police department to create its own internal AFIS system. Evidently you input the digitized prints from only your local community, particularly "known suspects," and then run your own print search against local offenders. Since running prints collected from your own city doesn't require a full-search of the regional AFIS system, prints can be checked readily…. We are planning on contacting this software program vendor and obtaining more information about creating our own internal AFIS system. We have block grant funding coming that

will qualify for the software purchase. As far as lining up forensic interns, we have made contact with one University who will provide us some forensic interns next year.

Experiences with juvenile curfews were also explored on the listserv. Buffalo, New York City, and Council Grove, Kansas, all reported generally positive experiences in the implementation of youth curfews in response to a question from the Charleston (West Virginia) Police Department, which had formed a task force to study the need for a juvenile curfew in that city.

In early 1997, the Buffalo (New York) Police Department (BPD) prepared for a technological needs assessment and posed questions to the NIJCOLL listserv:

> In particular, it would be helpful to know how or if end users were integrated into new technology. For instance, the BPD will need to make decisions about the sophistication and capabilities of computers in cars. The BPD has to decide whether to get dumb terminals for license plate checks or ruggedized Pentiums which could potentially be used for graphics, crime mapping, photos, etc. We will hopefully be including our end users in this decision, but it would be helpful to know what other agencies have done.

Responses from the other participants mentioned integration experiences in the Chicago Police Department and described the Rapid City (South Dakota) Police Department's use of laptops in patrol cars, both to run license plate and warrant checks and for uploading data to police records.

Summary

The action research model from Exhibit 3-1 served as the theory behind the LIRP program and the basis for ILJ's evaluation approach. It provided a well-grounded foundation for framing evaluation questions and evaluation activities. Use of an action research approach also allowed ILJ to take advantage of the extensive literature on that topic from the criminal justice field and other fields.[10]

Other evaluation activities included site visits to the grantees, reviews of final reports, cluster conferences, association meetings (with panels from partnerships), and tracking grantee issues and activities using the NIJCOLL listserv.

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[10] See Thomas H. Cohen and Tom McEwen, *Action Research and Criminal Justice: Working Towards a New Paradigm in Criminal Justice Research.* 1998.

Chapter 4

Case Studies

The six projects in this chapter were selected because they represent the breadth of research problems and research methodologies encountered in the LIRP program. The sites were not necessarily the most successful sites in the program; rather, they reflect the kinds of problems and research that were encountered at other sites. These case studies are based on ILJ's site visits during the evaluation, interviews with key personnel in each project, talks given at the conferences sponsored by ILJ, and the final reports from the projects. Each case study describes the project team, the problem selected for research, the research approach, and the results of the research. The sites all had their own successes and challenges, but a common problem across the six sites, and indeed throughout virtually all the other sites, involved data collection.

This chapter presents case studies of six selected sites from the LIRP program:

- Baltimore (Maryland) Police Department and Johns Hopkins University

- Buffalo (New York) Police Department and the State University of New York–Buffalo School of Management

- Jersey City (New Jersey) Police Department and Rutgers University

- Rapid City (South Dakota), Pocatello (Idaho), Eureka (California), and Redding (California) Police Departments with LINC

- Racine (Wisconsin) Police Department with the University of Wisconsin

- Albuquerque (New Mexico) Police Department with the University of New Mexico

The projects were selected because they represent the breadth of research problems and research methodologies encountered in the LIRP program. They include a double-blind experimental design approach in Baltimore, several efforts in Buffalo to assist a police department in its transition to community policing, a before/after research design in Jersey City in a difficult political and cultural environment, multijurisdictional research spearheaded by LINC, application of survey methodologies in Racine to measure citizens' attitudes toward community policing, and a major ethnographic study in Albuquerque to understand its policing approaches. The

case studies provide insights into the role that the local partnership plays in a department and the roles of the individual researchers.

Selection of these six sites does not necessarily mean they are the exemplary sites in the program. Across the board, they reflect the kinds of problems and research that were encountered at other sites. Each is representative of a group of sites. Furthermore, the case studies highlight the kinds of problems that can be encountered during research in police departments— changes in police chiefs, introduction of competing activities, resistance to research by police personnel, and others.

These case studies are based on ILJ's on-site visits during the evaluation, interviews with key personnel in each project, talks given at the conferences sponsored by ILJ, and the final reports from the projects. The summaries that follow highlight key aspects of the projects; for more details, interested readers can examine the sites' lengthy final reports and other materials. The final section of this chapter summarizes the lessons learned from the case studies.

Baltimore Police Department and Johns Hopkins University

Project Team

The research effort required a multidisciplinary team composed of a principal investigator from Johns Hopkins University, three sworn members of the Baltimore (Maryland) Police Department, the director of research from the Mayor's Office of Criminal Justice (with a background as an applied sociologist), and two professors from Notre Dame College in Baltimore (one from the Department of Philosophy and the other from the Psychology Department). The principal investigator had an excellent record of research in the police field, coupled with experience in numerous management studies of police departments. All three members of the police department had at least 10 years on the force; together, they had backgrounds in operations, personnel, training, and investigations. The two professors had several research publications to their credit, including projects with police departments. They had also conducted training sessions with police departments. The project team had not, however, worked together on a research project.

Problem Selected

The research topic selected for this project centered on first-line supervision in the Baltimore Police Department. The overarching aim was to identify the characteristics of exemplary sergeants (first-line supervisors) in order to improve promotions, training, and personnel evaluation.

At the time of the grant application, the research topic had not been determined. NIJ's solicitation stated that a primary deciding factor for award selection was the strength and commitment of the partnership and that the research topic could be selected as the first step in the project. Members of the project team held a series of meetings in which they discussed several potential topics. The police department's representatives believed that the work group needing the most improvement was first-line supervisors. Reasons given at the time of the meetings were lack of training, weak promotional process, poorly defined roles, lack of support from management, and low expectations by management. Subsequent discussions on how to research these perceived weaknesses frequently came around to the issue of what distinguishes "exemplary" sergeants from less effective peers. Team members believed that such information would be useful for selecting candidates in the future and improving first-line supervision.

The project team eventually settled on three research questions:

- What characteristics of exemplary sergeants distinguish them from their less effective peers?
- Are the characteristics easily measured? How can they be measured?
- Is there extant police personnel data that would correlate with measurable characteristics?

Before proceeding with a research design, the project team conducted an extensive literature review to identify characteristics that might be applicable to exemplary sergeants in the police department. Interestingly, the review combined the strengths of the team members by examining literature on police leadership, police supervision, psychological characteristics, and moral reasoning. The review clearly reflected the reasoning and interests of the partnership members, which in turn influenced the research design.

Conduct of the Research

The project team conducted three research steps:

1. **Develop list of identifiable characteristics for exemplary first-line supervisors.** Nine focus groups of police officers from 11 jurisdictions in Maryland and the District of Columbia were conducted. The focus groups identified 42 characteristics clustered into 10 categories: character and integrity, knowledge of the job, management skills, communications skills, interpersonal skills, ability to develop entry-level officers, problem-solving and critical thinking skills, effectiveness as a disciplinarian, effectiveness as a role model, and ability to be proactive.

2. **Identify exemplary sergeants.** Nominations for exemplary sergeants were obtained from 787 sworn personnel (from patrol officers to colonels) in the Baltimore Police Department and from 25 members of the Citizens Planning and Housing Association (CPHA), a nonprofit organization that works to expand the skills and knowledge required to develop community leadership. Nomination forms asked respondents to name sergeants they had known (as far back as 1985) and to list them in order of how well they met the criteria in Step 1. Respondents were also asked to rank the characteristics by importance. To be considered exemplary, a nominee had to receive at least three first-place votes and two second-place votes. Forty-seven first-line supervisors met that criterion. They were matched with 47 controls using the criteria of gender, rank, race, age, years of service, and active versus retired status. All 94 potential participants were contacted about the study, but only 55 agreed to participate. Of those, 26 had been identified as exemplary and 29 as controls.

3. **Collect data and perform analysis to measure characteristics.** Test instruments were administered to sergeants in both the exemplary and control groups. These included a genogram (for family background, structure, and stability), motivation questionnaire, moral reasoning questionnaire, leadership practices inventory, and 16 Personality Factor (16PF) questionnaire. In addition, personal interviews were conducted on all participants, using a double-blind strategy to determine whether exemplary sergeants could be distinguished from less effective peers on the basis of data communicated through an interview. Neither the participants nor the interviewers had been told which group the participants were in. Finally, police personnel records were examined to determine differences between the two groups.

Research Results

The partnership's final report identified several variables in which there was a slight variation between exemplary sergeants (called "nominees") and the control group:

1. On reasons for remaining a police officer, nominees focused slightly more on job security.

2. On reasons for taking the sergeant's exam, nominees were slightly less likely to mention salary as a motivating factor.

3. In the year before promotion to sergeant, controls typically scored higher on promotion tests than did nominees; however, in the last two years as sergeant, nominees typically scored higher.

4. Lieutenants selected nominees more often than controls as being desirable to have in one's command in a crisis.

5. Nominees scored above average in "sensitivity" on the 16PF Scale and slightly lower on the "toughmindedness" than controls, and they tended to score as being more open to change.

6. Nominees had a slightly higher rate of re-enlistment in their military service.

7. Nominees cited "being in the middle" between management and line officers as the most difficult part of the job.

8. Nominees rated themselves higher on "communications skills" than did controls.

9. Ratings by supervisors and subordinates were closer to the self-ratings of nominees than those of the controls.

10. Nominees reported having fewer positive factors in their early years compared to controls.

Variables with statistically significant differences between the two groups were identified as follows:

1. Nominees scored significantly higher on all three moral reasoning variables than did controls.

2. Nominees selected friends, relatives, and authority figures in their lives as moral exemplars, whereas controls selected well-known religious or historical figures.

3. Nominees were promoted to sergeant faster than controls and promoted to lieutenant more slowly than controls.

4. Nominees used fewer non-line-of-duty sick days, and they used them in characteristically different ways.

In their discussion of the results, the research team noted several limitations to the study. For example, they had anticipated samples of nominees and controls at about 50, when in fact the sample sizes were less than 30. They therefore concluded that the study must be considered as exploratory rather than conclusive in nature. They also anticipated a comparison of clearly defined groups, namely, exemplary versus average to poor. In fact, due to the nominating process, the groups were exemplary versus average and above average.

The research team identified two topics for future study: (1) reasons for the differences in moral reasoning, and (2) reasons for the differences in the patterns and amounts of sick leave use.

Discussion

This partnership is an example of how the skills and backgrounds of police personnel and researchers can be brought together to focus on a problem. Throughout the study, the members of the partnership contributed to the formulation of the research questions, design of the research, identification of data sources, analysis, and interpretation of results.

A particularly interesting aspect was the application of the double-blind experiment to differentiate between the two groups of sergeants. This project was the only one in the LIRP program to employ such an experiment.

The study also reflects the typical difficulties that can be encountered in research. As indicated above, sample sizes were not as large as anticipated because of the difficulties in getting supervisors to participate in the study. ILJ's interviews with key personnel indicated that the continued involvement of the 55 participants became difficult over time and extended the project's duration. Moreover, problems were encountered in obtaining data from personnel files, which were not consistent over time and extended back over 20 years.

In spite of these research difficulties, the partnership conducted an excellent study that benefited the Baltimore Police Department. Portions of it were applied in subsequent promotional examinations and training of first-line supervisors. As the researchers cautioned in their report, more research in the area is needed and the results could not be extended beyond the participating police department.

ILJ's evaluation concluded that there was good coordination among team members during the conduct of the research. One indication of that is the way in which the double-blind experiment was executed. While the entire team participated in the development of the 42 characteristics, the two professors were excluded entirely from the nomination process that identified exemplary supervisors. They were also excluded from the selection of the control group, knowing only that they had been matched on selected criteria, and the study participants did not know whether they were in the nominated or control group.

A second indication of the way the research was conducted is this statement by one of the professors:

> This is the first project I've worked on where the police department has carried the ball as much as the researchers have. Often the researchers feel

like they're dragging people along, and sometimes the police think they're being pulled along in ways they don't want to be. But in this project, the police and the university have been on the same page the whole way.

Several other aspects of the partnership contributed to the successful completion of the research. There was no turnover among key personnel during the project. The partnership had the full cooperation of the Baltimore Police Department, which provided time for supervisors to participate and offered information from personnel and other files. The research took advantage of the backgrounds and skills of the two professors from Notre Dame College.

Buffalo Police Department and the State University of New York–Buffalo School of Management

Project Team

Two researchers from the university and three sworn personnel from the Buffalo (New York) Police Department (BPD) formed the core of this partnership. One researcher devoted the majority of her time to the project, while the other devoted less than half time. All three members from the police department had extensive operational experience but little prior contact with research projects. The key researcher had no prior experience working with police departments and experienced a considerable learning curve during the first few months of the project.

The commissioner of the department was a primary force in the decision to apply under the LIRP program. At the time of application, he had been with the department only a few months. Previously, as chief of another department, he had been active in research projects, and he wanted BPD to participate in research as well. When he joined the BPD, it was understood that he would help the department transition to community policing, and he had the city administration's support in that regard. He met with a professor from the university's School of Management to discuss the possibility of assistance on the kinds of organizational and programmatic changes that would be required for the transition. That meeting laid the foundation for the grant proposal submitted to NIJ under the LIRP program.

Before its move toward community policing, the BPD followed the "professional" model of policing, which emphasized investigations and rapid response to calls for service. The single exception was a group of about 25 officers hired through a grant from the COPS Office for community policing. They mainly operated independently from the rest of the department. The

BPD was also known as a department with a strong union that had to be considered before any changes could be made. In short, the new commissioner faced the difficult task of changing the culture in a police department that had operated under a very different style of policing. He viewed the LIRP project as one means of effecting change in the organization.

Problem Selected

Unlike the Baltimore project, this partnership undertook a series of research efforts rather than one selected problem. As stated in its grant application, the partnership was committed to a "few general guidelines for the purpose of developing strategies for community policing." The main guideline was that the research would be guided by a steering committee composed of BPD personnel. The mandate of the steering committee was to design strategies that would move the BPD toward community policing. The researchers defined their role as "service providers" to help the steering committee develop those strategies.

NIJ's continuing interest in partnerships and the action research model had a distinct influence on how this partnership went about its work. As the group's final report stated:

> Under the action research model, and particularly in the case of the UB-SOM-BPD Partnership, researchers not only become familiar with the context, culture and constraints of the organization but also, in some respects, become part of the organization. These action research principles were fundamental to the success of the partnership project.

The partnership was also guided by Greenwood and Levin (1998), who emphasize that with an action research approach, "the professional researcher and the stakeholders define the problems to be examined, co-generate relevant knowledge about them…take actions, and interpret the results of the actions based on what they have learned." Thus, an action research model served as the basis for conducting research in this LIRP project. Partnership activities during the course of the project included the following:

- Development of new mission statement.
- Development of a vision statement in support of the mission.
- Establishment of feedback systems for continuous strategic planning, implementation, and assessment.
- Evaluation of community policing projects under a Universal Hiring Program grant awarded by the COPS Office.

- Development of training programs to support community policing.

- Assistance with the implementation of new information systems, along with appropriate training.

- Establishment of an internship program in which local college students—both undergraduate and graduate—participated in several studies. Students in the internship program did the following:
  - Assessed the technological needs of the detective bureau.
  - Reviewed the hiring process for the police department with the aim of increasing the educational requirements to join the department.
  - Produced "hot spot" maps of crime.
  - Developed the BPD's website.
  - Created tailored databases for detective squads.
  - Researched applicable laws on elder abuse and exploitation with the aim of improving investigations and prosecution.

Conduct of the Research

The researchers employed a variety of approaches to the wide-ranging types of problems assigned by the steering committee. For example, the creation of a vision statement included interviews with approximately 50 middle managers (e.g., patrol lieutenants and captains). The researchers' report on the interviews showed good support for the primary principles of community policing. In total, the vision statement was in process for over a year. The result was a one-page document, "Vision for the Buffalo Police Department," which incorporated the concerns and goals of the BPD's leadership.

Another partnership activity was the development of training programs to support community policing. The training was tied to a COPS Office grant that focused on middle managers and was later expanded to include community members throughout the city. In total, approximately 125 people were trained. The project team assisted with training in leadership, problem solving, and computer use. The team also conducted an evaluation of the training, which served as feedback to the training team for improving the training effort.

Other project activities involved the use of university students as interns throughout the BPD. Hilbert College in Buffalo had started the intern program several years earlier and joined forces with the State University of New York–Buffalo School of Management during the project. As an example, five interns with backgrounds in management information systems worked with the BPD computer unit to implement an e-mail system and train end users. During another se-

mester, three students worked with the BPD training academy on an effort to raise educational requirements for potential officer candidates.

During the LIRP project, the BPD received a COPS Office Universal Hiring Program grant that provided funds for hiring 27 police officers. Those officers became the core of a community policing program that linked the department with community groups, particularly block group organizations. As a project, the LIRP team administered a questionnaire to the community policing officers to judge their job satisfaction. Key results were these: (1) the community policing officers were more satisfied with the work they were doing than they had been as patrol officers, (2) working with block clubs was a primary responsibility and was key to resolving neighborhood safety problems, and (3) having the job as a separate function from patrol might be the best way to do it.

Research Results

In its final report, the team listed several benefits of the project, including the following:

- Several projects were accomplished with an agenda driven by the steering committee.

- The steering committee served as a vehicle for feedback from patrol and the detective bureau.

- Middle managers became involved in projects to improve the department.

- Information systems were developed with the assistance of student interns.

- Evaluations were jointly designed and implemented by practitioners and researchers, with the assistance of student interns.

Discussion

The primary outcome of this project was that the BPD moved forward with its transition to community policing. In doing so, it had to overcome several challenges. As she explained during the evaluation, the primary researcher from the university had no prior experience with police departments and did not receive a positive welcome when she came on board. In addition, she was viewed by many commanders as aligned with the new commissioner.

During the first six months of the project, she conducted "conversations for understanding" with virtually all supervisors (sergeants and above) in the department. Doing so provided a means to learn about the operation of the BPD and an opportunity to explore how the department

could benefit from the research project. Results from the interviews were both positive and negative. On the positive side, she found that many supervisors wanted the department to move toward community policing. They supported many of the basic tenets of community policing, especially getting citizens involved in problem solving in their neighborhoods. On the negative side, they expressed concerns about how the BPD was organized. They also highlighted physical problems (inadequate space, bad physical conditions, lack of computers, etc.) that made it difficult to conduct day-to-day policing, and even more difficult to embark on a new style of policing.

As a result of the interviews, the project team decided that conducting a "research experiment" would not be possible. Interviews with the new commissioner echoed that sentiment; he felt that implementation of community policing would be a major undertaking, leaving no time for other endeavors. The BPD was in the early stages of its transition to community policing, and it had operational problems that would prohibit implementation of a research design. Another early decision was to take advantage of the university's internship program. The similar program at Hilbert College influenced that decision, and the two colleges eventually coordinated their efforts in supporting the police department.

The use of interns proved especially effective in this LIRP project. It was, in fact, a "win-win" situation because interns gained experience with a police department and the BPD benefited from their efforts. For example, one intern set up a "hot spots" mapping routine for the BPD. Another intern developed a design for a management information system for the detectives' unit. That intern wrote, "From a systems analyst standpoint, I was able to gain valuable experience in developing my analytical skills by learning the processes and workings of each unit and coming up with a comprehensive report to detail the activities and data flows."

Use of a steering committee also influenced the types of activities performed under this project. An advantage was that the committee consisted of key department commanders who were responsible for the operational transition to community policing. According to the committee's written "purposes and functions," members viewed themselves as "responsible for research, analysis, and assessment to clarify opportunities for and difficulties with effective operational deployment of community-oriented policing in the BPD." The university research team "advises the committee and supports it with information and technical services." Interviews by

ILJ staff with committee and research team members indicated that their partnership was especially effective in identifying the next steps for the BPD's transition to community policing. The steering committee was less involved in how the research team went about its activities, but more involved in the interpretation of results.

Most of the project's activities were for the purpose of assisting the police department in its transition to community policing. The research efforts were therefore geared toward laying the foundation for community policing (e.g., development of a vision statement) and assisting in specific operational changes (e.g., development of crime maps for internal and external use).

Jersey City Police Department and Rutgers University

Project Team

The Planning and Research Bureau within the Jersey City (New Jersey) Police Department had responsibility for the partnership project. At the start of the project, a captain headed the bureau, which had a staff of one lieutenant, one sergeant, two patrol officers, and several non-sworn support personnel. The captain reported to the police director, who headed the police department and was appointed by the mayor.

A unique feature of the partnership was that the grant paid for a new full-time position of research director within the bureau. The person hired was a former police officer and held a doctorate in criminal justice. He therefore had excellent qualifications for the position. Two doctoral students assisted him when the project started. During the project, a full-time secretarial position was established within the bureau, and another researcher was added by the city for special projects.

One of the doctoral students had been working at the police department before the LIRP project and was, in fact, responsible for initiating the grant application that eventually led to the partnership award. She assembled a team of personnel from Rutgers University to provide their expertise to selected projects, especially the evaluation of the Journal Square Special Improvement District (SID). Dr. Marcus Felson, who had conducted several evaluations of similar business districts in New York, was an early advisor, as was Dr. Ronald Clarke, then dean of the Rutgers School of Criminal Justice. Dr. Martha Smith, then director of the Center for Crime

Prevention studies at Rutgers, assumed the lead role in the Journal Square evaluation until she returned to England.

The Planning and Research Bureau had collaborated with Rutgers University in previous research efforts. In particular, under a grant from NIJ, they had jointly performed the Drug Market Analysis Project (DMAP) and public housing crime mapping projects. However, the key university researchers on those projects had since left for other academic positions. As a result, the researchers that formed the core of the LIRP project were new to the department. They were viewed as outsiders and temporary employees with none of the history or personal connections that the previous researchers had enjoyed.

Problem Selected

The original grant award identified the evaluation of the Journal Square SID efforts as the focus for the project. The evaluation included the Journal Square Restoration Corporation (JSRC), which managed the SID project, as a partner. Under a grant extension, the focus of the research expanded to the city's innovative community policing initiative, the development of domestic violence crisis intervention teams under a COPS grant, and a series of local programs funded under a local block grant funded by the Bureau of Justice Assistance. In total, the project team was involved in several efforts:

- Journal Square SID evaluation
- Neighborhood Task Force Anti-Gang Initiative
- Jersey City's anti-gang intervention
- Domestic violence crisis intervention teams
- CompStat data project
- Problem-solving efforts on street prostitution
- Problem-solving partnership grant for auto theft and theft from autos

For the purpose of this case study, only two of those efforts—the Journal Square SID evaluation and the domestic violence crisis intervention teams—will be highlighted.

Journal Square had once been a vibrant commercial and entertainment area, but it had declined in recent years as a result of changes in residential patterns and public transportation. The Journal Square SID was created in 1994, encompassing 23 street segments centered on a major

intersection of two traffic arteries. Area businesses pooled resources through a self-imposed levy to supplement public services, directing those services through the JSRC. The JSRC focused on physical cleanup of the area and on establishing greater control over the social space of Journal Square. The police department provided training and direction to the first group of security and hospitality personnel hired by the JSRC for the SID, and they provided support, as needed, to the SID.

The domestic violence crisis intervention teams were developed under a COPS-funded domestic violence grant. As proposed, the teams addressed two common complaints that police officers had in dealing with domestic violence cases: the lengthy processing time and the marked tendency of victims to withdraw from the criminal justice process and return to the abusive relationship. The grant project also addressed complaints about police service made by advocates, particularly the lack of support for victims and the lack of follow-up assistance by the justice system. The proposal called for the creation of two domestic violence crisis intervention teams (CITs) to be a supplemental resource for patrol officers who responded to domestic violence calls. The program was limited to the north and east districts because of the amount of resources that could be provided under the grant. It was also decided that patrol sergeants, not patrol officers, would have the authority to call for a CIT response. CITs were composed of one officer and one civilian (not a department employee). They would usually be called after the scene had been stabilized through arrest or removal of the offender. CITs assisted the victim with counseling, paperwork to obtain an emergency restraining order, and transportation to the shelter or to safer quarters elsewhere in the county.

Conduct of the Research

For the evaluation of the Journal Square SID, four types of information were gathered:

- Photographic and videotaped records of physical conditions at the SID, supplemented by on-scene observations by students

- A survey of a large sample of merchants, business owners, and professionals within the SID

- Analysis of calls for police service gathered for comparable periods before and after the cleanup efforts

- Analysis of JSRC logs and other records of activities and incidents handled by JSRC security and hospitality personnel over a 13-month period

For the CITs, three members of the project team served as a volunteer core of observers for almost the entire field portion of the project. Their role was limited in this manner because a faculty member from Michigan State University had been selected as an external evaluator for the grant. Their notes and observations were written up and added to the formal grant evaluation. Their input was very valuable to the final evaluation report because it reflected the observers' experiences of how the CITs operated in the field.

Research Results

Results of the Journal Square SID evaluation were very favorable:

- More than half the street segments were better lighted as a result of JSRC's efforts.

- More than half the street segments had greater commercial occupancy and fewer abandoned stores.

- From a randomly selected pool of 59 merchants and business employees, more than half stated that Journal Square's appearance was cleaner, better, and safer.

- Of 30 possible problems, including crime, traffic problems, and physical or social incivilities, 23 were rated as "no problem" by the majority of the 59 respondents.

- Only inadequate parking and the shortage of public toilets were rated as showing "no improvement" over previous conditions.

- The vast majority of respondents reported no burglary or assault crimes against their businesses or employees over a one-year period.

- Over three-quarters of the respondents rated the performance of the JSRC security guards as good or excellent, and 86 percent reported seeing the maintenance personnel cleaning the area often.

- Calls for police service in the Journal Square fell following the SID intervention; in some months, the decline exceeded the reduction in calls citywide. Additional call analysis revealed no indications that increased JSRC presence merely displaced disorderly activity to nearby areas.

The before/after analysis, with some comparisons to citywide activities, therefore supported the interventions that had been made in the Journal Square SID.

With regard to the CITs, the three observers from the LIRP project contributed several positive results. Their observations appeared in the final evaluation report, adding another dimension. In addition, the observers suggested procedural changes that helped the effort. For example, police department policy required that two units respond to calls in the city's public

housing projects because of the potential for confrontation and violence. The CIT units were single-officer cars with the additional burden of a civilian team member to protect. Problems could arise because the primary units might take an arrestee from the scene, leaving the single officer alone without backup. The observers suggested that the CITs change their protocols to allow for both teams to respond to calls in the projects.

As stated in the partnership's final report, expansion of the program citywide was considered but rejected on methodological grounds after consultation with the evaluator: "While the project was appreciated by those officers who received relief from TRO paperwork, the results were insufficient to justify a permanent successor unit."

Discussion

This partnership overcame several problems during the course of the research. Generally, the problems centered on difficulties in hiring, the political environment of the city, and data issues.

Hiring problems. Jersey City operates under New Jersey Civil Service rules for hiring and promotion, and it has a residency requirement for persons applying for employment. Those requirements affected the hiring of students from Rutgers University who lived outside the city. The head of the Planning and Research Bureau had to justify their hiring on the basis of the special skills they brought or on the basis of grant-specific commitments to the funding agencies.

Political environment. During the LIRP project, the mayor came into office on the crest of a tax revolt and received national attention for his efforts in confronting the city's problems. His tenure therefore represented an opportunity to do things differently. He won reelection in the spring of 1997, overcoming the police unions' support for his opponent. The legacy of the political environment was that innovation and reform in departmental operations were strongly resisted. Being within the Planning and Research Bureau, the LIRP project was viewed as a promoter of changes within the department. However, it gained respectability because of the personnel involved in the project and because the grants were viewed as financial "rainmakers" that provided overtime to police personnel.

Data issues. At the time of the LIRP project, the lieutenant assigned to the Planning and Research Bureau devoted virtually all his efforts to the establishment of a new records manage-

ment system for the department. The police department's mainframe computer was overburdened and slow, and the existing databases were virtually inaccessible. Significant problems were found in the coded addresses on crime events and in the coding of addresses to obtain coordinates and geographic areas. When the police director asked for a local variant of New York's CompStat process, the bureau elected to create a second, parallel database with desktop computers purchased through grant funds. The resulting database was adequate and accurate for the task at hand, but not detailed enough for extensive research needs.

Several lessons can be learned through this case study about how research gets conducted when the above circumstances exist. One lesson is that much of the effort is researcher-driven, rather than practitioner-driven. The evaluation of the Journal Square SID is closest of all the LIRP projects to a traditional planned research approach. The principal researcher at Rutgers University constructed the evaluation on her own without input from the police department. Members of JSRC also were not involved in the evaluation design and were initially hesitant to participate. Their concerns were alleviated by Dr. Felson and other researchers at a key meeting at Rutgers University. The evaluation design was executed primarily through graduate students paid through grant funds. Thus the researcher team drove both the design and execution of the evaluation.

To overcome data issues, the LIRP project frequently turned to samples of data that were available from existing systems or could be collected independently. Results from the Journal Square SID evaluation were based in part on a sample of calls for police service. The use of a sampling technique was entirely appropriate given the difficulties of obtaining data from the department's mainframe system and concerns about the quality of those data.

ILJ''s evaluation also showed that the LIRP project sought out innovators within the police department to assist in the research projects. While the department had a reputation for opposing changes, there was a grass-roots effort to upgrade the department's operations and resources. For the CIT project, a lieutenant who headed the police academy was recruited as a department "champion" for the project. She had the credentials of a respected supervisor within the department and knowledge on the problem of domestic violence. Moreover, she had personally trained many of the police officers in the department and was instrumental in the selection process for the teams.

Another lesson learned from this site is the advantage of taking on small projects instead of large ones. The project team had some successes because it carved out what it could do in a particular area. The CompStat data project is an example. Basically, the research director for the project arranged to have copies of paper crime reports sent to him from the Records Department. Eventually, a database consisting of 10 fields was created, allowing mapping of events by property stolen, weapons used, and other features.

Of course, even small projects can go awry. For the anti-gang initiatives, it was expected that officers in the field would submit information on their activities to the research team for evaluation purposes. Those submissions never came, as the operational personnel seemed to view the grant as an overtime opportunity only, not a research commitment. The project team also tried to construct a pre- and post-grant assessment of the anti-gang initiatives by using entries in the district's gang intelligence books. However, after more than a year of operations, no new entries had been made. The result was that no meaningful analysis could be performed on the department's anti-gang efforts.

It is also clear from the circumstances of this site that a long-term partnership will be difficult to establish. Indeed, since the federal funding ended, all members of the research staff, including the research director, have taken other jobs. On the police side, the captain who headed the Research and Planning Bureau no longer has that position. Funds for the research director's position were tied to grant fund availability, and the city never established the position as permanent.

Rapid City, Pocatello, Eureka, and Redding Police Departments with LINC

Project Team

Initially, the LIRP project included the police departments in Eureka, California (population 28,000); Redding, California (population 69,000); Pocatello, Idaho (population 49,000); and Rapid City, South Dakota (population 56,000). All had been recipients of COPS funds for hiring additional officers for community policing. The police departments in these cities also shared other characteristics: the chiefs who had been promoted up through the ranks; many officers with families who had long lived in the area; and a lack of broad support for community policing.

Through continuation funding, other law enforcement agencies joined the partnership, including the sheriffs' departments in the surrounding counties (Humboldt County, Shasta County, Bannock County, and Pennington County), the Hoopa Department of Public Safety (serving their tribe's reservation), and the Yurok and Karok tribes.

Three organizations combined as the research partners in this project. LINC served as the lead research organization, with support from faculty at the University of Cincinnati and a researcher with the Joint Centers for Justice Studies, Inc. The two supporting organizations conducted specific studies during the course of the partnership.

A challenge for the partnership was to overcome the distance, with four police departments located in three states, the LINC researcher in Alexandria, Virginia, and the supporting researchers in Cincinnati, Ohio, and Shepherdstown, West Virginia.

Problem Selected

At the time of the initial grant application, the four police departments and the research team had not decided on a research topic. The initial NIJ solicitation for the LIRP program stated that a research topic could be selected as an initial task. Applicants in this first round of funding were reviewed on the basis of the potential strength of the partnership rather than on the topic selected.

The topics selected during the course of the partnership were as follows:

- Geographic mapping of domestic violence incidents and other incidents of violence against women

- Statistical analysis of data collected by police responding to domestic violence incidents, including victim and offender characteristics and subsequent arrests

- Individual and group surveys to find out about incidents of violence against women and girls; the characteristics of the incidents; whether or not the incidents were reported; and community recommendations about approaches for reducing violence and serving victims

- Participant observation by individual researchers and by teams of a police officer and a deputy sheriff from each county, who visited partner departments in another region of the county

The first three topics are standard selections for research topics. The mapping of domestic violence incidents is intended to show the spatial relationships of incidents, determining, for

example, whether one area of the city is more likely to experience domestic violence than another. The statistical analysis was intended to determine the characteristics of victims and offenders and discern whether they differed in any respects to the national picture. The individual and group surveys (through focus groups) aimed to discover underlying causes of domestic violence and the extent of underreporting of such incidents.

The final research topic differed from standard approaches in that it attempted to have personnel from one agency visit other partner agencies to observe their practices in selected matters. The purpose was to determine whether such an approach was feasible and whether it actually led to a good exchange of information among agencies.

Conduct of the Research

The research team employed several techniques during the course of the project, of which the following were key:

- **On-site activities.** The lead researcher from LINC spent many days at each site. Activities included interviews with partner supervisory staff at all ranks, ride-alongs with officers carrying out community policing activities, and use of structured interviews.

- **Officer exchange.** Each participating chief and sheriff agreed to send an officer to another participating department to learn about an approach that the sending department was interested in replicating. Some partners sent two or three officers to other departments, and observations were frequently made on several ongoing activities at the host agency.

- **Briefings by host chiefs and sheriffs.** These briefings provided an opportunity for the heads of agencies to talk with middle managers and others from the participating agencies. In general, they compared the contexts in which they were policing, including the relationship between management and officers.

- **Briefings by officers.** In these briefings, officers discussed a specific activity or project that their department had implemented. The briefings provided a forum to discuss the details of the implementations.

- **Formal meetings with department units.** Visitors from participating agencies met with special units, such as gang units, to discuss their activities.

- **Trips to cooperating agencies and program sites.** Visits were made to shelters for domestic violence victims and their children, transitional housing for domestic violence victims, schools cooperating in providing tutoring and mentoring programs, group homes for at-risk youth, and other sites.

- **Analysis of existing data.** The research team analyzed data on domestic violence incidents in selected cities.

An objective of many of these activities was to provide an opportunity for personnel from different agencies to learn from each other. As a result, informal networks and relationships evolved during the course of the evaluation. Over time, topics other than those specifically related to the LIRP project were discussed.

An interesting aspect of the research was the role played by the supporting researchers from the University of Cincinnati and the Joint Centers for Justice Studies, Inc. As the lead researcher from LINC met with the partnering police departments, she made determinations on the research skills needed at the local level. She then called on an appropriate researcher from the supporting organizations to perform specific analysis for the agencies. That approach had the advantage of bringing in a researcher with the appropriate skills for the task. It also made maximum use of the limited grant funds.

Research Results

The analytical results from the research activities can be summarized as follows:

- The mapping of domestic violence incidents showed that virtually no neighborhood was free of violence against women.

- Moreover, neighborhoods where Indian women were residing had particularly high rates of violence, as did a commercial corridor with housing for transients intermixed with bars.

- The statistical analysis of domestic violence incidents indicated that the characteristics of victims in the partner cities differed from characteristics of victims based on national statistics. For example, women in the partner cities were older than women in other cities and had a higher probability of arrests than men.

- The individual and group surveys indicated that, as is common around the country, unreported incidents of violence exceeded the number of reported incidents.

- Over 40 reasons were put forth on why victims did not report incidents.

- Indian women were found to experience more violence over their life than white women.

The officer exchange between agencies proved successful. Ideas, policies, and procedures were brought back and implemented, with some tailoring, in the base agencies..

Discussion

The first interesting feature of this site is that it involved numerous participating agencies and three research organizations. Having multiple sites in a partnership presents difficulties, which had to be overcome for a successful project effort.

For maximum benefit, the participants must agree on common research topics. The researchers believed correctly that the application of standard research methods could serve the same research needs simultaneously in similar departments. Going into their first meeting with the chiefs of police, the researchers had two objectives in mind—to have the chiefs select an analysis-based research project of common interest and to establish channels of communications among all partners for carrying out the research. The researchers came armed with statistics based on analysis of census data about changes in demographic compositions and Uniform Crime Reporting data, which they believed would serve as fertile grounds for a collaborative research project. The chiefs had a broader agenda in mind. While they listened to the preliminary research results and the researchers' suggested projects, it became clear that the chiefs were dealing with chronic quality-of-life problems. Common ground was found through a discussion on the problem of rape in their cities because the UCR data indicated that rates of rape there were above the national average. The chiefs responded with the possibility that women in their cities were more likely to report rape due to outreach and education. They also believed there was a growing climate of encouragement for women to report violence. While the UCR analysis focused on rape, the chiefs turned to the topic of domestic violence (not covered by UCR data collection). Based on that discussion, the chiefs agreed that research in domestic violence was needed and would demonstrate their seriousness in meeting the demands of their constituents.

That discussion is a good example of a cooperative effort between partners in identifying a research topic. It reflected the LIRP program's intent to provide opportunities for practitioners to suggest research topics, rather than having them suggested by the research organization. Interestingly, some topics were dismissed for potential research because the police chiefs had varying opinions about the extent of the problems and about their departmental strategies.

This partnership project could not have been carried out without the extensive efforts of the LINC researcher. She made frequent trips to all the participating sites, spending weeks on

the road at a time. As the number of partners expanded, these trips took an increasing amount of time on her part. The trips were effective in moving the project forward.

The partnership encountered problems, however, in regard to the level of participation. For example, one police department (not discussed in this report) dropped out of the partnership after a change in police chiefs. The original chief had joined the collaboration and was enthusiastic about the research to be conducted and the other collaborative approaches. Shortly thereafter, a new tribal council was elected and appointed a new police chief. The new chief had a different view about working collaboratively with the local partners and elected to withdraw from the partnership.

Two other partners had minimal participation in the project because of three unforeseen events. First, after agreeing to participate, the departments' budgets and staff were cut. While the project was set up to minimize the burden on departments, it still required the assignment of staff to carry out specific activities during set periods of time. Second, there was a lack of buy-in by mid-level supervisors in the two departments. When assigned officers were ready to participate, their supervisors cancelled the orders. Third, the project intended to take full advantage of Internet communication for project planning and information sharing. The plan was for each department to locate one person with Internet access and assign that person responsibility for disseminating e-mails to participating staff. That process did not happen in two departments; as a result, their communication with other partners was limited.

In addition, data problems were encountered in the analysis of domestic violence incidents. Three cities were involved in this analytical exercise. Two were able to provide files of records over the Internet to the researchers. In the third city, the police department did not have an analyst on board to work with the researchers and was instead dependent on a city analyst to provide the necessary data, which were never received.

The process for delivering research services should be highlighted with this partnership. As previously discussed, the primary researcher at LINC called on other researchers in the supporting organizations when needed to conduct specific analyses. In essence, the LINC researcher served as a "broker," finding the right person to do a specific job. If necessary, she could have gone to other universities or research organizations to obtain the skills needed for a project.

Racine Police Department and the University of Wisconsin

Project Team

Collaboration between the Racine (Wisconsin) Police Department and the University of Wisconsin–Parkside started in 1993 when the police department initiated its community policing efforts. During 1993, two community-based field offices in two high-crime areas of the city—the 18th Street Mall and the West 6th Street and North Memorial Drive areas—were established. In addition, the police department increased foot patrols in the two target areas, arranged for officers to be assigned to the areas for two years (rather than the existing 30-day rotation period), and hired minority officers to become part of the community policing unit. In 1994, community policing started in the Martin Luther King (MLK) community, another area that had experienced high crime rates. The collaboration was established for the specific purpose of measuring and understanding the success of community policing in the city.

The grant from the LIRP program provided a basis for continued evaluation of the changes brought by community policing. The project team was relatively small, consisting primarily of an assistant chief from the police department, a professor from the university, and an assistant city attorney, who was also a graduate student at the university. Students from the university helped conduct the surveys that were the basis of the evaluation effort.

Problem Selected

The objective of the grant project was to survey citizens and officers on their attitudes toward community policing. The police department had supported surveys prior to the partnership program. During the summer of 1993, surveys of residents in the 18th Street Mall and the 6th and Memorial areas were conducted. In the summer of 1994, follow-up surveys of these same residents were conducted, along with a survey of residents in the MLK area, which had started to receive community policing services. During the summer of 1995, the police department sponsored a follow-up survey of citizens in the MLK area to measure changes in attitudes over the 12-month period.

The grant project therefore had the objectives of continuing those surveys to measure changes over time. In addition, the project team intended to survey police officers, conduct focus groups, and analyze crime statistics from the target communities.

Conduct of the Research

Exhibit 4-1 summarizes the surveys, interviews, and focus groups conducted in Racine between 1993 and 1998. In 1993, a 20 percent random sample of all households in the two neighborhoods (81 from the 18th Street Mall area and 119 from the 6th and Memorial area) was taken, and students, receiving independent study credit, surveyed each household in the sample. This sample of households was surveyed again in 1994 and 1997. Also in 1994, a 20 percent random sample (57 households) was taken in the MLK neighborhood. Those households were surveyed again in 1998. In addition, a 20 percent random sample of households from a neighborhood bordering the MLK area was taken to serve as a control group.

Exhibit 4-1: Racine Community Policing Surveys

Survey Group	Survey Date	Sampling Procedure
18th Street Mall area	Summer 1993	20 % sample of households
	Summer 1994	Same households
	Summer 1997	Same households
6th and Memorial area	Summer 1993	20 % sample of households
	Summer 1994	Same households
	Summer 1997	Same households
Martin Luther King area	Summer 1994	20 % sample of households
	Summer 1998	Same households
Control area	Summer 1998	20 % sample of households
Focus groups	November 1997	14 business, political, education, service leaders
Neighborhood leaders (interviews)	December 1997	3 neighborhood leaders
Police officers	February 1997	All 209 sworn
	September 1998	84 sworn (40%)

All 209 police officers were asked to participate in the February 1997 officer survey. Respondents were asked to complete the survey at roll calls and to place the completed questionnaires in one of two boxes located in either the patrol or detective roll call room. The second survey, in September 1998, followed the same procedure. However, only 40 percent of the original participants completed the second survey because of concerns that had arisen about the wording of items and the anonymity of the surveys. Anonymity was a problem because the researchers planned a matched sampling technique in which each officer's survey from February 1997 would be matched with his or her survey in September 1998. The researchers were able to match 69 officers in this manner.

In addition to the surveys, the project team collected data on Part I crimes from 1993 to 1997 for the areas in which the community policing initiative had taken place. Crime changes in these areas were compared to a control area selected by the researchers.

Research Results

The project team developed several reports between 1994 and 1998. Some reports covered the baseline results, while others made one-year and four-year comparisons of changes in the perceptions of residents. The array of results is too voluminous to present for the purposes of this report. However, a sense of the results can be gathered from the following highlights, which come from the partnership's final report comparing the changes over four years:

- People's sense of community varied little over the four years of the study. People know each other, and for the most part, will help their neighbors, but most continue to lack a sense of solidarity with others in their area.

- In 1997, fewer people indicate that they have seen a decline in their neighborhood, suggesting that conditions have stabilized since the advent of community policing.

- Concern with youth hanging out in the streets has declined over the four-year study, while concern with unsupervised children and gang presence has remained stable.

- Police are still seen as respectful, helpful, and fair, for the most part. In addition, there has been an increase in the number of residents who see police at community meetings.

- On the other hand, residents are split over whether police are good problem solvers and over their ability to keep order and prevent crime in Racine.

- Most police–citizen encounters continue to be violation-based, and respondents are uniformly negative in evaluating their last interaction with a police officer.

- Three out of four citizens who attend community meetings are aware that police are also in attendance.

Analytical results from the surveys of police personnel included the following:

- Comparisons of the two surveys showed a continual neutral attitude toward community policing.

- Sergeants and higher-ranking officers had more favorable attitudes toward community policing than detectives and patrol officers. While attitudes toward community policing did not change for higher ranking officers, they declined slightly for patrol officers, and improved slightly among detectives.

- With regard to support for substations, detectives showed the least support, patrol officers showed greater support, and higher-ranking officers had the greatest support.

The focus groups and interviews with neighborhood leaders showed differing degrees of awareness about community policing. Overall, most of the feedback regarding the program was very positive. Respondents liked how community policing is about better interaction with police, and they commented on increased communications with police other than when someone gets arrested.

Finally, the analysis of Part I crime changes in the three areas showed a mixed picture:

- Crime in the 18th Street Mall area showed a decrease of 1.3 percent between 1993 and 1997. The 6th and Memorial area showed a 17.1 percent decrease, while the MLK area experienced a decline of 41.3 percent.

- Part I crimes in the control area, which did not have a community policing program, decreased 40 percent between 1993 and 1997.

- Excluding the community policing areas, the rest of Racine had virtually no change in Part I crimes between 1993 and 1997.

Discussion

This LIRP project is an example of a sound methodological approach to the design, administration, and analysis of citizen surveys. As described above, the sampling approach for the three areas was a "panel approach," in which the same sample of households was surveyed two or three times over the course of five years. While there were some dropouts between surveys due to movement of residents and refusals to participate, this approach is nonetheless a strong design.

The project team did not have as much success with its surveys of police personnel. Some police personnel objected to survey questions that suggested community policing positions were "plum, cushy" assignments. Many officers also expressed concern over confidentiality. The researchers wanted to match the questionnaires from the first survey to the second through badge number, name, or other individual identifier. While they could provide safeguards against the release of individual surveys, they were unable to allay fears that the surveys would be misused.

Survey results were distributed in several different ways. For example, newsletters with results were sent to local politicians and made available in community buildings. They were provided to community policing officers in the areas that were the subjects of the survey. The lead researcher commented during the evaluation that the newsletters were intentionally kept short and that they were written for a general audience.

Interestingly, all reports on survey results were coauthored by the researchers and police personnel involved in the project. Police personnel were also involved in the interpretation of results.

In addition to the reports for local use, the research team prepared more technical reports intended for research audiences. For example, they presented their survey results on police personnel at an annual Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences conference. That paper included a review of the literature and more detailed statistical analysis than the local reports. The following is an example of findings from the paper:

> A zero-order correlation among the covariates, age, years of service and education and the predicted dependent variable, attitude toward community policing, indicates that both age ($r=-.75$) and years of service ($r=-.99$) are strongly negatively related to positive attitudes toward community policing. Since age and years of service are strongly correlated ($r=.90$), it is difficult to predict which of these variables is most important to predicting attitudes regarding community policing. As Weisel and Eck (1994) indicate, years of service are partially a surrogate variable for age. Education was positively related to positive attitudes toward community policing ($r=.36$).

Clearly, the research team recognized the need for two types of reports. A statistically technical report is appropriate for the researchers' colleagues but would not be appreciated by most police practitioners, who prefer a "plain English" summary of the survey's main results. The tradeoff amounts to statistical power versus clarity of results to a wider audience.

All reports developed by the project team contained suggestions and recommendations for the next steps in community policing. Some recommendations resulted from the analysis of the surveys, while others came directly from survey comments, focus groups, and interviews. The focus groups recommended expanded hours for the community policing outposts, greater decentralization of headquarters units, and permanent assignment of officers to specific areas. In

short, the reports provided direction for the police department to consider in its transition to community policing.

Albuquerque Police Department with the University of New Mexico

Project Team

The Albuquerque (New Mexico) Police Department had been contracting with the Institute for Social Research (ISR) at the University of New Mexico since 1990 to conduct annual citywide surveys on the attitudes and opinion of citizens toward the police. As a consequence, the two organizations were well known to each other when the LIRP solicitation came out. They decided to apply to conduct an in-depth study on the department's transition to community policing.

The principal researcher from ISR was a sociologist who had not worked with police departments prior to the LIRP project. Throughout the research effort, other members of ISR and graduate students from the university assisted him.

During the course of the research, a deputy chief at the police department served as the main contact. The research team had considerable interaction with the deputy chief, with the chiefs of police in place during the project, and with many middle managers in the department.

Problem Selected

The research effort took place in two phases. The first ran from January 1997 to May 1998, the second from May 1998 to July 1999. Between 1996 and early 1998, the Albuquerque Police Department implemented its first version of community policing. The purpose of the initial LIRP project was to study the "state of policing in Albuquerque" as it evolved over the transitional period. The research documented the implementation efforts and sought to understand the intended and unintended effects. It also documented departmental subcultures that shaped the style of policing in the city.

In May 1998, the mayor appointed a new chief of police. He initiated a version of New York's CompStat meetings as a way of holding middle managers accountable for policing in the city and pushing them toward more effective community policing. The LIRP project team

worked with the new chief to identify conflicts between the CompStat process and the existing form of community policing. The team then made recommendations on how those conflicts could be resolved.

Conduct of the Research

During the first phase of the project, ethnographic techniques were the primary approach. These techniques included over 3,000 hours of participant observation and informal interviewing during police operations, 152 formal interviews, and 14 focus groups. In total, the effort gathered the views of police officers, civilian employees, civilian and sworn supervisors, chiefs of police, personnel in other city agencies, and neighborhood leaders. Results from the ISR's annual citizen surveys were also incorporated into the research design.

As the CompStat process was initiated, the focus of the project changed and the research team became involved in observing the CompStat meetings and interviewing department personnel on CompStat's effects.

Research Results

The first phase of the partnership project documented the changes implemented as part of the community policing transition. As noted in the final report, the changes included these:

- Undertaking of new collaborative efforts with other city agencies and local community organizations
- Devotion of significant organizational focus and resources to these elements of community policing:
  - Problem solving
  - Community partnerships
  - Beat integrity
  - Crime prevention initiatives
- Decentralization through area commands and mini-stations

As key finding in the first-phase final report was "the limited impact these changes had on the fundamental organizational culture of policing in Albuquerque." The project team concluded that the change had not penetrated very deeply into the organizational culture. The team found that an *archetypal police culture* existed as a foundation underlying six other subcultures:

- **Traditional subculture.** This embodies the remnants of the traditional model of policing and is the one most often represented in society and the media.

- **Paramilitary subculture.** Officers in this subculture are attracted by the prestige of specialized training, more flexible work rules and schedules, special uniforms, or the image of aggressive policing. Their belief is that the ultimate mission of police officers is to fight crime.

- **Opportunistic subculture.** This comprises officers with little commitment to policing itself, who instead apply their roles as police officers to engage in narcissistic or narrowly careerist behaviors. They often try to align themselves with other cultures to gain popularity, but they are not eagerly embraced.

- **Administrative subculture.** This subculture holds official power in the department. It incorporates practices and orientations defined by administrative status and the legal, political, and economic pressures of city government, though individual administrators may belong to any of the other subcultures.

- **Civilian subculture.** This comprises many civilian personnel, who are committed to the police mission but whose expertise is not fully accepted by sworn personnel.

- **Community policing subculture.** This includes department personnel who have gained extensive knowledge of community policing or some of its components and who serve as formal or informal experts within the department.

The project team's conclusion was that these subcultures coexist uneasily within the Albuquerque police department, none providing overall coherence and direction. In the team's view, the implementation of community policing in an already divided department resulted in a "hit and miss" acceptance of the new philosophy. The community policing implementation had little impact on the day-to-day activities of police officers.

In its final report on this phase, the project team included the following results from the 1997 ISR survey of citizens:

- 55 percent of respondents ranked crime as the biggest problem facing Albuquerque, with gangs, spray painting, and littering having the highest scores on underlying problems.

- 69 percent agreed that the Albuquerque Police Department "treats persons in custody for serious crimes firmly but fairly." Approximately 53 percent of the sample agreed that police treat racial minorities the same as they treat other people.

- The police department received overall ratings of "fair" to "good" for its crime prevention efforts and "good" for its ability to keep order on the streets.

- When asked specifically about their neighborhood associations, 60 percent of respondents said there was one where they live and 46 percent said there was a neighborhood crime watch where they live.

In late 1998 and early 1999, the newly appointed chief introduced the CompStat management approach for evaluating supervisors' work. The LIRP project team evaluated the implementation of CompStat. The first major conclusion was that resistance and miscommunication marked the initial reception of CompStat. Many officers and supervisors latched onto the term "CompStat" as proof that community policing was merely a passing "flavor of the month." It was believed that CompStat had replaced community policing.

At that point, the project team provided feedback regarding CompStat directly to the department. The team held a series of meetings with administrators, resulting in an effort to define the role of CompStat in aiding, rather than opposing, community policing activities. For example, the chief directed supervisors to take advantage of neighborhood association meetings, business associations, and problem-solving activities to fight crime. In essence, he was telling the department to combine the ideas of community policing and CompStat to reduce crime. Department managers emphasized the tenets of community policing, along with the reduction of crime statistics, to the personnel under them.

The research team concluded that despite those efforts, most department members were shifting their perspective very slowly. As they describe it, for a period ComStat existed *alongside* community policing, with no real integration of the two. The chief noted that problem and the work of the project team in a statement at a July 1999 management meeting:

> We need to work community policing into all our goals and objectives as a Department. This is not easy, and it's something [the LIRP project team] will be helping us with. I've not done a really good job communicating my vision of what community policing means for the Albuquerque Police Department, but that's going to change…. It's really far-reaching stuff, not just short-term. It has to do with our future, for my time here and for whoever comes after me. [The project team] has identified for us the whole question of conflicts between CompStat and community policing. I know some of you see a conflict, but I see CompStat helping us do community policing. We have lots of work to do on that, to tie problem-oriented policing into the whole CompStat process.

As the LIRP project was coming to an end, the project team was helping the department merge the ideas of community policing with the CompStat process. CompStat meetings were recast to allow them to dovetail more fully with the department's community policing priorities. A new format was introduced to allow more consideration on emerging and long-term trends that

should be the focus of policing. Area commanders were encouraged to address those trends through innovative investigations and problem-oriented policing.

Discussion

The conduct of this project and the research methodologies employed are very different from others in this chapter. The methodologies reflect the background and experiences of the principal researcher. The team's development of the archetypal police culture with the underlying six subcultures was a direct result of the extensive observations done by the research team—over 3,000 hours of observation. The observations were not, however, a casual exercise. Notes from the ride-alongs and other activities were entered into a qualitative analysis program and analyzed for themes.

For the most part, graduate students performed the observations in the field. This approach had the same advantages that were seen in Buffalo. The graduate students gained experienced in observation techniques and the operations of the police department. The exercise was not without its problems, however. In some cases, students became actively involved in incidents rather than serving as observers. Nevertheless, the overall experiences for graduate students were positive. The cost of employing graduate students was, of course, less than using full-time employees. Thus, the graduate students were economical in a generally tight grant project.

The sociologist who was the principal researcher was also active as both a supervisor of all activities and an observer in the field. Because he had not worked previously with police, the field experience was invaluable. It afforded him an opportunity to learn firsthand about police operations and to get to know many of the officers and supervisory personnel in the department.

By the time the new chief came on board, the principal researcher was well accepted in the department and known for his objectivity. With the rest of the project team, he was instrumental in helping the department recognize the philosophical and operational conflicts that had evolved concerning community policing. Those findings and subsequent recommendations helped the police department change its approach.

Conclusions

The case studies provide several evaluation conclusions, both collectively and as individual sites. The conclusions are presented here and will be discussed in greater detail in subsequent chapters.

Buffalo, Albuquerque, and Racine are examples of sites that were transitioning to community policing during the course of the LIRP program. In Buffalo, the mayor brought the new commissioner on board specifically to change the department to a community policing philosophy. In the framework provided by Connors and Webster (2001), the commissioner was at the start, with Step A (Creating a vision) and Step B (Communicating the vision). Those circumstances shaped the project team's selection of research topics and methods. Indeed, the research team devoted several months to interviews with department personnel in developing mission and vision statements, and those statements served as the basis for subsequent research activities. In Albuquerque, the department had been transitioning to community policing when the partnership project started, but it changed direction when the new chief introduced monthly CompStat meetings. Thus, while the department had initially moved forward with some changes (reflected in Step E (Empowering others to act) and Step F (Creating small wins) of the Connors and Webster (2001) framework), it moved back to earlier planning steps with the CompStat process. The project team was instrumental in resolving conflicts between the two approaches. In Racine, the department had started community policing efforts in certain parts of the city. That approach provided an opportunity for the LIRP project to conduct surveys on changes in attitudes of citizens in those areas and to establish a control area for comparisons.

Thus, the status of community policing in the departments influenced the research that was conducted. The commissioner in Buffalo needed assistance in the early development of his community policing efforts, so he requested research in laying the foundation of his plans. In the other two cities, community policing was already underway, and the need for research was to address the question of how well it was working.

In the Baltimore project and the LINC sites, the research topics were selected jointly by the police practitioners and the research teams. Their experiences illustrate the importance of *conversations* and *listening* as part of the research experience. In both sites, meetings were held between the two groups (practitioners and researchers) in which several topics were discussed.

The experiences of the LINC researchers are especially enlightening. They went into the meetings with statistics on crimes from the participating sites, thinking that topic identification would be based on their presentations. Although the chiefs from the agencies listened intently to the presentations, they had their own ideas on what constituted problems within their cities. Each side listened to what the other had to say. The result was that domestic violence, which is not one of the UCR major crimes, became the topic of choice. A similar experience occurred in Baltimore, where key department and research partners met to discuss problems. The eventual topic—supervision—was determined on the basis of those meetings.

A common problem across the six sites, and indeed throughout virtually all the other sites, centers on data collection. The problem was most acute in Jersey City, where the police department was setting up a major records management system. That circumstance made data collection and analysis especially arduous. The research director personally arranged to receive written crime reports from the Records Division because the data were simply unavailable. Even that approach proved problematic because information was missing from the reports. The project team in Baltimore encountered problems in collecting data when, to establish a full record of each participant, it tried to access personnel files that went back more than 20 years. LINC's research had data problems because of the differences in records systems across the participating sites.

Buffalo and Jersey City provide further lessons on conducting research in difficult political and cultural environments. The common feature of the two cities is that the mayors wanted the police departments to move forward with community policing. Indeed, in both cities, the mayors were elected on platforms that advocated community policing. Because of differences in the political persuasions of police and city personnel, some members of the police department tended to oppose community policing. In Jersey City, one solution was to undertake smaller projects, such as the CITs, that would move the department toward a different type of policing. A key step in that type of political environment was the selection of an internal project director as the champion of the effort. That choice resulted in a better selection of personnel for the project and, because of her reputation, a greater acceptance of the effort. The identification of "champions" is thus a partial solution to difficulties created by political environments.

A positive feature in three sites—Buffalo, Jersey City, and Albuquerque—was the students, usually graduate students, who participated in the projects. In Buffalo, they were given significant projects, such as an assessment of the technological needs of the detective bureau and a review of the city's hiring process. In other instances, they provided support for entering data into databases to assist the precincts. In Jersey City, the evaluation of the Journal Square SID project could not have been accomplished without the efforts of the students. They helped develop the evaluation design and assisted in the numerous survey efforts. In Albuquerque, students performed the great majority of the 3,000 hours of direct observation.

There are, of course, disadvantages to using students in a research project. Students must be selected carefully for the right set of skills. Students may be motivated only to fulfill course requirements and lose interest at the end of a semester. To overcome those problems, the principal investigators in all three sites played a significant role in the selection and supervision of the students. In short, they found that the benefits of students far outweigh the negatives.

The LIRP project with LINC and the several participating departments provides a number of lessons on research efforts that involve multiple sites. At the start of the project, the team decided on a common problem—domestic violence—to be addressed. An advantage of having several sites is that they could make comparisons among themselves on the degree of the problem and exchange ideas on solutions. A unique feature of the project was the exchange of personnel among the sites. That approach maintained interest in the research effort and afforded an opportunity for sites to learn from each other. Another important feature of the project was the use of researchers from other organizations to assist when needed. The outside researchers were associated with the University of Cincinnati and the Joint Centers for Justice Studies, Inc., and other researchers could have participated if needed. As described in the case study, the principal researcher from LINC thus served as a "broker" for involving the other researchers on selected efforts. The broker model is one of several approaches for a partnership project that will be discussed later in this report.

The survey methodology in the Racine project was sound. The site was selected for discussion because many of the other partnership projects also conducted surveys either externally with cities or internally with police personnel. Well-conducted surveys yield beneficial results, while ill-designed and -executed surveys do not. Equally important in the Racine project were

efforts to prepare reports on survey results for general distribution. The team wrote short reports in plain English and made sure the reports reached politicians, citizens, and key police personnel.

These sites provide lessons in action research, too. The five sites other than Jersey City followed an action research approach; some sites did so explicitly. The Racine project is a good example because it had a relatively small team that worked together closely throughout the project. Products from the project were coauthored and clearly indicated that all members of the team had participated in their development. Interviews with the team members made it clear that they had jointly developed the survey, determined how it would be conducted, analyzed the results, and prepared the reports. In Baltimore, police practitioners took the greater role in selecting the problem and interpreting the results, while the researchers took a greater role in the research design and execution. In Jersey City, by contrast, the researchers selected the research topics and developed the evaluation design for the Journal Square SID independently of the police department.

The sites in this chapter were selected as illustrative of other sites. The conclusions that have just been presented will be revisited in subsequent chapters, drawing on other sites as needed. The remainder of this report evaluates the way research is actually conducted at the sites and examines the experiences of both researchers and police practitioners in those efforts.

Chapter 5

Selection of Research Topics

The LIRP program required police practitioners and researchers to select research topics jointly. Nomination and eventual selection of research topics was influenced primarily by the stage of community policing development within the agency and the interests of the partners. Police practitioners and researchers had different motivations in problem selection. Police practitioners looked for research that would (1) provide information to help them identify courses of action, (2) support courses of action they had already identified, or (3) validate a course of action that had already been implemented. Researchers primarily wanted to apply their knowledge and skills to practical problems within a police agency. Also discussed is the role of reconnaissance, which aims to identify available personnel and resources before pursuing research. For example, if reconnaissance determines that needed data are not available, an effort has to be made to improve the data system before further research can be conducted.

Identification of research topics was the first step in the LIRP projects. This chapter examines both the nomination of research topics and the reconnaissance steps as reflected in the action research model presented in Chapter 3.

Nomination of Research Topics

A requirement of the LIRP program was that the police practitioners and researchers jointly select research topics. In its evaluation, ILJ found no violations of that requirement. In every project, the project team held one or more meetings to discuss potential research topics and then eventually selected topics that would be of value to the police department.

The nomination and eventual selection of research topics was influenced by two overarching factors depending on the project: the stage of community policing development within the participating agency and the interests of the partners.

Influences on Nominations of Research Topics

Exhibit 1-1 in Chapter 1 shows a breakdown of the 39 projects into 28 projects on development of community policing, five on computer mapping or CompStat efforts, four on domestic violence research, and two on developing research capacities. The first three groups are dis-

cussed below. The fourth category, developing research capacities, is not discussed because the grants did not result in research projects. The Florida Law Enforcement Research Coalition–Florida State University team conducted a statewide survey and identified and prioritized research projects but did not conduct research on any of them. In the IACP/JRSA project, the aim was not to conduct projects but rather to link local sites with state planning agencies to get organized for conducting research.

Development of Community Policing

As Exhibit 5-1 shows, in 13 of the 28 agencies in this group had already implemented some type of community policing before the start of their LIRP project. For example, the Albuquerque Police Department started its transition to community policing in 1996 and had several changes in place by January 1997 when the partnership project started. Similarly, the Philadelphia Police Department had a variety of community policing initiatives under way at the start of its partnership project; in fact, an initial task was to inventory those activities. That effort led to a decision to evaluate what was in place, and subsequent continuation funding allowed the research team to evaluate the implementation of a COPS AHEAD grant for 150 new police officers.

Because NIJ's solicitation required that the research efforts be for the purpose of advancing community policing, it was only natural for the research teams in these 13 projects to look toward evaluating the department's implementation. In virtually every one of their grant applications, the evaluation of community policing was selected as the focus.

When the LIRP projects started, five other policing agencies either were in the early planning stages for transitioning to community policing or were gathering information to decide whether to introduce community policing. The Alfred and Wellsville project enlisted its research team to determine whether to change to a community policing philosophy.[11] A final decision had not been made by the end of the project period. In the other projects, the research teams were a resource for the planning and implementation of community policing. In Buffalo, the new commissioner of police had been brought on board with specific instructions from the mayor to implement community policing. He viewed the LIRP project as a resource for doing so. One of the team's first efforts was to develop mission and vision statements for community policing in the

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[11] Results from the research effort showed support from citizens and police officers for community policing but identified several obstacles that would have to be overcome for a successful transition.

department. That effort was significant, spending several months conducting interviews, focus groups, and surveys to lay the groundwork for the statements. The project team subsequently helped develop strategies for community policing and create a coalition of middle managers to implement the strategies. As the Buffalo Police Department transitioned to community policing, the project team assisted in implementing and evaluating those changes.

Exhibit 5-1: Topic Selection for Projects on Development of Community Policing

Police Department	Researcher	Project Title	Project Scope	Project Type
Ada County Sheriff's Office (ID)	Boise State University	"A Partnership Proposal: The Ada County Sheriff's Office and Boise State University"	Agency	Evaluation
Albuquerque Police Dept. (NM)	University of New Mexico	"Creating a Culture of Community Policing"	Agency	Evaluation
Chandler Police Dept., Glendale Police Dept., and Scottsdale Police Dept. (AZ)	Arizona State University	"Expanding Research Capacity to Support the Implementation of Community Policing"	Agency	Evaluation
Charleston Police Dept. (WV)	Marshall University	"Impact of Charleston, West Virginia, Community Oriented Policing"	Agency	Evaluation
Colorado Springs Police Dept. and El Paso County Sheriff's Dept. (CO)	Colorado University	"Policing Evaluation through Academic Research: SPAN"	Agency	Evaluation
Council Grove Police Dept. (KS)	Kansas State University	"Council Grove and KSU Law Enforcement Team Project"	Agency	Evaluation
Daphne, Foley, Gulf Shores, Loxley, and Baldwin County (AL)	University of Southern Alabama	"A Partnership for Research in Community Policing Strategies"	Agency	Evaluation
Hagerstown Police Dept. (MD)	Shippensburg University	"Evaluation of Community Policing Project"	Agency	Evaluation
Lansing Police Dept. (MI)	Michigan State University	"Forming a Research Partnership: Lansing Police Dept. and MSU"	Agency	Evaluation
Los Angeles Police Dept. (CA)	University of CA at Los Angeles and University of Southern CA	"Implementing Community Policing in Los Angeles: A Partnership Between LAPD, UCLA, and USC"	Agency	Evaluation
Omaha Police Dept. (NE)	University of Nebraska at Omaha	"Generating and Using Research to Guide Change in a Local Law Enforcement Agency by Establishing a Research Partnership"	Agency	Evaluation

Exhibit 5-1: Topic Selection for Projects on Development of Community Policing (continued)

Police Department	Researcher	Project Title	Project Scope	Project Type
Philadelphia Police Dept. (PA)	Temple University	"State of Community Policing in Philadelphia: A Collaborative Research Effort between the Philadelphia Police Dept. and Temple University"	Agency	Evaluation
West Virginia State Police	The FOCUS Coalition	"Process and Outcomes Evaluation of Community Policing Initiatives in Jefferson County"	Agency	Evaluation
Alfred Police Dept. and Wellsville Police Dept. (NY)	Alfred University	"Increasing the Effectiveness and Efficiency of Rural Police Departments"	Agency	Planning
Boston Police Dept. (MA)	Northeastern University and Harvard University	"Strategic Planning and Community Mobilization Project: Framework for Local Policing Research"	Agency	Planning
Buffalo Police Dept. (NY)	State University of New York–Buffalo	"Policing Research and Evaluation"	Agency	Planning
El Centro Police Dept. (CA)	San Diego State University	"Community Policing in El Centro"	Agency	Planning
Lowell Police Dept., Salem Police Dept., and Danvers Police Dept. (MA)	Salem State University	"Locally Initiated Research and Evaluation Project"	Agency	Planning
Racine Police Dept. (WI)	University of Wisconsin	"Meeting the Needs of Racine Citizens: Evaluation of Community Policing"	Project	Evaluation
Arlington County Police Dept. (VA)	The Urban Institute	"Locally Initiated Research Partnership with Arlington County Police Department"	Project	Planning
Alachua County Sheriff's Office (FL)	University of Florida	"Alachua County Sheriff's Office Research Partnership with the University of Florida"	Project	Evaluation
Bay City Police Dept. (MI)	Saginaw Valley State University	"The Fast Track Program Study: Tracking Nonviolent Juvenile Crime Offenders"	Project	Evaluation

Exhibit 5-1: Topic Selection for Projects on Development of Community Policing (continued)

Police Department	Researcher	Project Title	Project Scope	Project Type
Jersey City Police Dept. (NJ)	Rutgers University	"Developing and Expanding Problem-solving Partnerships in Jersey City"	Project	Evaluation
Lexington Police Dept. (KY)	Eastern Kentucky University	"A Research Partnership Between Lexington Police Dept. and EKU"	Project	Evaluation
Multiple sites	Southern Illinois University	"Downstate Illinois Law Enforcement Applied Research Network"	Project	Evaluation
Oakland Police Dept. (CA)	University of California at Berkeley	"Collaboration Between the Oakland Police Dept. and UC Berkeley"	Project	Evaluation
Baltimore Police Dept. (MD)	The Johns Hopkins University	"Restructuring the Role of Police Sergeant by Identifying Character Traits Associated with Success"	Supervisors	Planning
St. Louis Police Dept. (MO)	St. Louis University	"A Joint Research Partnership for Community Oriented Policing"	Supervisors	Planning

In Boston, too, the project team assisted with a strategic planning effort that served as the foundation for community policing in that city.[12] As in Buffalo, the project team later conducted an evaluation of community policing activities that were implemented citywide as a result of the strategic plan. In the final two projects in which the agencies were in the planning stages, the LIRP project teams laid the foundation for community policing in the participating agencies. At the end of the grant period, that transition was in process.

Eight other projects focused on evaluations of selected projects in the participating agencies. Generally, those projects addressed community policing activities that were not citywide but instead were restricted to particular parts of the city or were pilot projects. In Jersey City, for example, the initial project for the research team was the evaluation of the Journal Square SID's

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[12] In fact, the Boston Police Department moved into Stage Two of its community policing efforts over the course of the LIRP program. In the second part of its project, the research team surveyed citizens and police personnel to determine the extent of satisfaction with community policing in the city.

efforts to reduce crime. The researchers on the project team selected that project and developed the evaluation design independently of the police department. The project team also evaluated several other initiatives within the police department. A similar pattern emerged with most of the other projects in this group. That is, the project team conducted an initial research effort for the participating police department, and that effort led to other assignments throughout the life of the grant project.

The remaining two projects from this group of 28 both focused on the changes needed at the supervisory level for successful implementation of community policing. In Baltimore, the decision to select that topic was decided after a series of meetings of the research team. In St. Louis, police managers identified the supervisory level as needing improvement to implement community policing.

Computer Mapping and CompStat

The following five projects selected computer mapping or CompStat as their research topics under the partnership grants:[13]

- Charlottesville Police Department, Albemarle County Police Department, and University of Virginia Police Department with the University of Virginia

- Forest Park Police Department with the University of Cincinnati

- Prince George's County Police Department with the University of Maryland

- Indianapolis Police Department with Indiana University and the Hudson Institute

- New York City Police Department with the City University of New York

The common feature of these projects is that they selected the development or improvement of the agencies' computer mapping techniques as the research topic. In the first three projects, the participating agencies did not have a computer mapping capability at the start of the project. The project in Virginia was for the specific purpose of establishing a common database of crimes for the agencies and producing crime maps for strategic and tactical decisions. In Forest Park, the turnover of several key personnel at the police department created a void that changed the direction of the entire project. Only after several months, at the initiative of the key

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[13]   The Albuquerque Police Department project could also be included in this section because the second part of its project dealt with the implementation of CompStat. It has not been included here because the majority of the research effort was in the first part of the study, which was the ethnographic study of community policing.

researcher, was the project reestablished with the aim of developing a database and mapping capability. In Prince George's County, researchers from the University of Maryland stated in the grant application that the first effort of the project would be the development of a mapping capability to assist field personnel. After that capability was established, the resulting databases and maps were beneficial in several other evaluation endeavors undertaken by the research team.

Both Indianapolis and New York City were interested in computer mapping because of the agencies' use of CompStat. (The New York Police Department developed the CompStat process, which has been replicated in many other cities.) The aim of the LIRP project in New York was to improve the mapping capability for the police department and develop other spatial analytic tools for crime analysis in the precincts. The partnership in New York was primarily between researchers at Hunter College and NYPD crime analysts.

Domestic Violence

These four projects selected domestic violence as their research topic:

- Berkeley Police Department with East Bay Public Safety Corridor and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency

- Framingham (Massachusetts) Police Department and Social Science Research and Evaluation, Inc.

- Seattle Police Department with the University of Washington

- Rapid City, Pocatello, Eureka, and Redding Police Departments with LINC

In the first three projects, the decision to select domestic violence as the research topic was made at the time of the grant application. All three agencies had prior involvement with the researchers. In the case of Seattle, for example, the project was a direct extension of ongoing domestic violence research by the project team.

LINC's experiences with its initial group of police departments is particularly instructive in regard to selecting a research topic. The principal investigator for LINC developed the initial proposal through a series of telephone calls and correspondence with the eventual participating agencies (Rapid City, Pocatello, Eureka, and Redding). Time did not permit trips to those agencies or the convening of a meeting of key participants. In fact, the cluster conference held for the LIRP program immediately after grant awards was the first opportunity for the partners in that project to meet. After the conference, the entire project team met to identify potential research

topics. The LINC researchers anticipated that selection would be based on the demographics of the participating cities and the levels of crime as reflected by UCR statistics. In their initial meeting, they presented statistics from the censuses of the cities and UCR statistics. After considerable discussion, the focus changed as the chiefs indicated that the topic of domestic violence (not covered adequately by UCR data collection) was a primary and apparently growing problem in their jurisdictions. The LINC researchers listened to what the police practitioners had to say about the statistical analysis and about their own perceptions of problems in the cities. Because a common problem was identified, a spirit of partnership evolved from the meeting.

Motivations Behind Problem Selection

The LIRP program provides an opportunity to examine the motivations behind problem selection by police practitioners and researchers. With 39 projects to examine, ILJ was able to identify several trends in problem selection. One distinction is that police practitioners and researchers have different motivations when it comes to problem selection. Those differences have to do with their respective positions in the department and the relationship between the research team and police managers.

Based on the experiences evaluated in the LIRP program, police practitioners viewed the research as serving three functions, which in turn influenced their selection of research topics:

- **Informational needs to identify courses of action.** Police practitioners are faced with problems that require them to act, but they find they do not have enough information to identify appropriate courses of action.

- **Support for already identified courses of action.** Police practitioners are in a position of influencing or persuading others to a given course of action. They seek "objective research studies" to support the courses of action that have been identified or already implemented. They anticipate that the research results will support the predetermined courses of action.

- **Validation of an implemented course of action.** Police practitioners have implemented a change and need to evaluate whether it has had the intended effects. Research results may support the expansion of the course of action and may indicate improvements that can be made.

Three of the four domestic violence projects (Berkeley, Seattle, and the LINC projects) fall into the first category—obtaining information to identify actions that might be taken. The police chiefs in the LINC project believed domestic violence was a growing problem in their cities, but they did not have enough information on the full extent and nature of the problem to

determine appropriate courses of action. The efforts in Boston to establish strategic plans throughout the city for community policing also fall into that category. Similarly, the two projects looking at supervisors (Baltimore and St. Louis) sought to determine factors that would improve the role of supervisors in community policing. The second category (support for already identified courses of actions) includes partnerships where the decision had been made to transition to community policing, and the research team was a resource to support the transition. The partnership in Buffalo falls into that category. The new commissioner had a mandate to change to community policing when he was hired but encountered resistance at all levels of the department. Activities of the research team (such as the development of mission and vision statements) focused on the introduction of community policing while at the same time building support among middle managers for the changes.

Virtually all the projects that were evaluations of community policing can be classified under the third category of providing validation for a selected course of action. In those projects, community policing activities had been implemented and the research teams were tasked with conducting an evaluation of the changes. The projects served two purposes. First, because the external and internal survey results from the evaluations were usually positive, they supported the direction of the departments and helped to persuade doubters about the worthiness of the changes. Second, the evaluations invariably made recommendations on how to improve what was already in place. Recommendations had organizational, operational, and strategic implications.

In general, there is a fourth function of research—the identification of reasons *not* to take action. Police practitioners may want to delay action in a particular matter because they are not personally persuaded on the correctness of a proposed change. They want to "study the problem" before deciding on an action. In such projects, the research is intended not to lead to action, but to preclude it. ILJ found no projects in the LIRP program that would fall into that category. The framework of the projects, as reflected in an action research model, virtually eliminated the possibility of projects falling into that category.

Researchers had different motivations than their counterparts in the police departments. A primary motivation for researchers was to apply their knowledge and skills to practical problems within a police agency. That motivation is most obvious in the computer mapping projects

in which the researchers' backgrounds on information technology and spatial analysis were crucial. Research topic selection was based on those skill sets, and the decision was made at the time of grant application. Similarly, the researchers in the domestic violence projects had backgrounds in that topic and, except for the LINC project, stated in their grant applications that domestic violence would be the research topic. In 25 of the 28 projects on development of community policing, the researchers had both educational and practical experience in the subject matter.

In those developmental projects, an important role of the researchers was to refine and clarify the research topic. Experiences in the LIRP program suggest that police practitioners seldom expressed research topics in sufficiently clear terms to permit the researchers to design an appropriate investigation. For example, the research team might be asked to "evaluate community policing" without being told exactly what "community policing" is within the organization. Such an overgeneralization of the topic could lead to project activities that miss what the practitioners really want. In such instances, the motivation of the researchers is to frame a research question by specifying the primary community policing activities going in the department, defining objectives for those activities, and designing an evaluation with performance measures tailored to those objectives.

Another role that researchers played in topic selection was sensitizing police practitioners to more effective means of reaching established goals. For example, the second phase of Albuquerque's project initially centered on CompStat as an accountability tool. The research team brought to the attention of the police chief and other managers that CompStat needed to complement what had already been done with community policing in the department. That is, the police managers assumed that the already established community policing activities operated at a satisfactory level of effectiveness and that CompStat could be imposed over those existing activities.

Researchers in the LIRP program were also motivated to identify new research topics to police departments as the projects proceeded. In Buffalo, for example, the research team identified needs throughout the department, and those needs led to small research projects. They included establishing databases in precincts, developing a mapping capability for the department, and identifying information technology needs for investigators.

Identification of Problems in Multi-Site Projects

Ten of the 39 projects included two or more police organizations. Those projects tended to have more problems in identifying research topics than projects that included only one police organization. With projects having only two police organizations, the tendency was for a "dominant partner" to have the greatest influence on problem selection and, in fact, the greatest influence throughout the remainder of the research effort. The usual reason was that the dominant partner was the larger of the two agencies and took a more active role in the project.

The partnership project between Arizona State University and three local police departments (Chandler, Glendale, and Scottsdale) shows that even when the cities are close together, problems can occur in operating as a team. The group was unable to function as a full partnership because of problems in attending meetings on a regular basis. Each of the three participating agencies assigned a liaison to the project, and the university assigned three faculty members. One university researcher was paired with an agency liaison and assigned to serve as the lead researcher for that agency's research project. The project never intended to identify a common research topic but instead to review progress and issues related to conducting research in the three agencies, and to review findings and make recommendations back to each department's command structure. The project team encountered difficulties in scheduling team meetings and was unable to have fully attended meetings. As a result, the project changed to a one-on-one approach with individual researchers working with personnel in their assigned agency. Their final report summarizes the situation and solution as follows:

> Team meetings (consisting of all agency liaisons and university researchers) became too time-consuming and difficult to schedule in a timely manner, and resulted in delaying implementation of individual research projects. Rather than continuing to delay the implementation of the specific research projects, the partnership process was modified to move from team meetings to the one-on-one, or university-researcher-to-individual-agency, approach.

In essence, the project became three partnerships rather than one. Each individual partnership operated as its partnership project with no real connection to the others. The project team in Chandler evaluated Operation Restoration, which was an attempt to reduce crime and disorder in the city's redevelopment district. In Scottsdale, the partnership project evaluated the department's efforts to implement a CompStat process to help direct its community policing. In

Glendale, the partnership project evaluated efforts to integrate investigations and community policing.

As another example, the project headed by Florida State University was an ambitious effort to identify problems and needs for law enforcement agencies throughout the state. Obviously, a consensus on research topics was not expected, as the local conditions varied across agencies. The project team prioritized the research topics and then attempted to address the top priorities through concerted research efforts. Obviously, the long-term implication of that approach is that some agencies would be satisfied some of the time, but satisfaction of all agencies would be unlikely. Moreover, a close partnership effort could never be achieved because of the number of police agencies; the extent of their needs would far outweigh what the project team could offer. Unfortunately, the key researchers on this project left their university positions prior to the fulfillment of their plan. After they left, no one stepped in to take over the project.

The Southern Illinois University project, which involved about 18 agencies, faced similar difficulties in sustaining a collaborative effort. In that project, representatives from the agencies met as a group to determine research projects and to hear the results. Because of the small size of the grant, it was impossible for the researchers to devote extensive time at the individual agencies.

The single, but important, exception to those experiences is the LINC project, which succeeded in identifying a common problem (domestic violence), sustained a cooperative effort throughout the project, and in fact expanded its partnership to other agencies in subsequent funding cycles. The project differed from the other multi-site efforts in three significant ways. First, the police practitioners agreed on a common topic early in the project. Second, LINC's principal investigator spent a considerable amount of time at each sites. Third, the participating police departments developed relationships that resulted in visits by representatives of the other agencies to discuss policing problems generally and the LIRP project specifically.

Role of Reconnaissance

The role of reconnaissance in an action research approach is to find out more about a problem before proceeding with changes. Reconnaissance may include interviews with key personnel, review of available data on the problem, and a literature review. In addition, reconnais-

sance aims to identify available personnel and resources for addressing the problem at hand. In that regard, it is important as well to identify constraints on addressing a problem, which can include both resources and funds.

The reconnaissance step was especially important when the researchers involved in the projects were new to the field of policing. In the Buffalo project, for example, the key researcher conducted numerous interviews over the first six months of the project to get the "lay of the land" before proceeding with research projects. At the same time, she read research reports and other literature on community policing, and she examined the department's data that would support research efforts. A similar experience occurred in Albuquerque, where the key researcher, a sociologist, spent a considerable amount of time riding with officers and interviewing personnel to understand the changes that had been implemented for community policing in the department.

In virtually all the other developmental projects for community policing, the researchers had backgrounds in community policing, and many had prior research experiences with the department. Especially with the evaluation projects in this category, reconnaissance was done for the purpose of gathering more specific information on the changes that had been or would be implemented, with significantly less time in literature reviews and riding with officers. Connections needed to be reestablished, and the researchers had to develop evaluation designs that would address the specific community policing activities.

The need for reconnaissance is clearly illustrated by experiences in the Framingham project. That project started by distributing cellular telephones to victims of domestic violence who had obtained restraining orders and were judged to be at high risk for further violence. The rationale was that the phones would speed contact with the police when a threat was detected. Women had to meet the following criteria to receive a cellular telephone:

- Live in Framingham and be 21 years old or older
- Have a traditional telephone but not a cellular phone
- Have a history of abuse by the offender and expect to be abused again
- Expect to be contacted by the offender
- Have or plan to get a restraining order
- State that they did not want to live with the offender in the foreseeable future, for a period of at least six months

- Have an interest in traveling away from their residence

After several months, they had only seven women who met the criteria. Disappointment with the experiment led to abandonment of the project, as described in the project team's final report:

> The initial results were completely unexpected. First, there were not as many adult female victims of domestic partner abuse as expected. Domestic violence incidents often involved other types of relationships among family members. Second, almost none of the adult female victims of violence from their domestic partners met all the criteria for selection into the study. Some women wanted to get back together with the offender either immediately or sooner than our six-month criterion. Others did not expect to be abused again, and some did not want a cellular phone…. The bottom line was that we could not conduct the planned study due to an insufficient number of subjects.

That result led the project team to a more productive study, in which they interviewed victims of domestic violence.

In hindsight, the project team should have gathered more information about the target population before implementing the experiment. Had that reconnaissance step been taken, the experiment might never have been attempted and the interviews of victims would have commenced much earlier.

The other three domestic violence projects also suffered from a lack of detailed data on domestic violence. In the LINC project, for example, the research team determined early that the databases at the participating police departments did not contain enough detailed information to answer the questions that the chiefs had raised. That result led to improvements in data collection and the decision to interview victims as the basis for the research project.

A similar experience occurred in Seattle, where the project team found that the records management system in the police department was too cumbersome and did not contain sufficient information about domestic violence. The team decided to create its own domestic violence database for the purposes of the research and to assist the investigative unit.

In summary, the evaluation shows that reconnaissance is an important step in any partnership project. The project team must determine that data systems exist and contain reliable information that can address the identified problem. When the data do not exist, an effort has to be made to improve the data system before further research can be conducted. The experience in

Framingham shows that preliminary work needs to be done before launching into an experimental design. Reconnaissance is especially important when a researcher is new to the police agency, as it provides an opportunity to understand the culture of the department and identify resources and constraints that can be brought to bear on a problem.

Chapter 6

The Conduct of Research

The project teams employed numerous research techniques, both quantitative and qualitative, ranging from simple to fairly sophisticated. Many used surveys successfully but found them more time-consuming than expected. Focus groups were found to be a useful way of both gathering and disseminating information. Interviews conducted by LIRP project teams served such purposes as gathering data for understanding issues and obtaining information to use in devising questionnaires. Notable, however, was the paucity of quasi-experiments as a research tool, though the nature of community policing makes that lack understandable. A problem encountered in several projects was that the "dosage" of community policing had not been measured before the impact was measured. Local research reports differ from those normally submitted to NIJ because of differences in purposes and audiences. Researchers found they needed to develop two types of reports—reports for local consumption and reports for the academic community.

This chapter presents ILJ's findings on the research techniques selected by project teams across the sites. Several research techniques were found in the program, and virtually all projects called on more than one technique during the course of their research. Qualitative techniques included interviews, observations, and focus groups. Quantitative techniques included survey analysis, basic analysis (frequencies, means, etc.) on data sets such as crime and calls for service, advanced analysis (multivariate structural models, item analysis, correlational analysis, etc.), and spatial analysis. Several sites conducted formal experimental designs, such as before/after experimental/comparison designs.

Exhibit 6-1 shows the primary research methods for each project. In developing the exhibit, ILJ's evaluation team applied the following definitions:

- **Interviews**: Face-to-face meetings with sworn personnel using a structured or semi-structured instrument.

- **Observations**: Ride-alongs with patrol officers, supervisors, and other field personnel.

- **Focus groups**: Group meetings with selected personnel for the purpose of obtaining opinions on a predetermined set of topics.

- **Surveys**: Questionnaires to elicit the opinions of respondents on selected topics. In the LIRP program, respondents included citizens, patrol officers, supervisors, middle management, and upper management of police departments.

- **Basic analysis**: Analysis with frequencies, cross-tabulations, means, standard deviations, and other basic statistical approaches. Basic analysis in the LIRP program was performed on a variety of sources, including crime and calls for service. Analyses of surveys are *not* included in this category.

- **Advanced analysis**: Use of advanced statistical techniques, such as multivariate structural models, item analysis, correlational analysis, and analysis of physiological measurements.

- **Spatial analysis**: Analysis of spatial relationships, including spatial overlay and contiguity analysis, surface analysis, linear analysis, and raster analysis.

- **Experimental designs**: Use of quasi-experimental designs, such as before/after analysis of an experimental approach, sometimes including comparisons, or in one project, an experimental double-blind design.

The results of Exhibit 6-1 may appear surprising because only a few sites conducted formal experimental designs. However, the LIRP program was predicated on selecting problems under the umbrella of community policing, and the majority of departments were in the process of transitioning to community policing. For many of them, that transition was a philosophical and organizational change that did not lend itself easily to experimental designs. It is not possible, for example, to reorganize one part of field operations completely to community policing while leaving the other part untouched. Similarly, a change in policing philosophy has to be done throughout the agency rather than in parts. A further complication was that baseline surveys were not possible in many sites because the transition to community policing had already started when the LIRP grants were awarded. As a consequence, the internal and external surveys that were conducted focused on attitudes at the time of the surveys rather than changes over time. In a few sites, the agency introduced community policing only in certain neighborhoods in the city. Those project teams were able to introduce experimental designs that treated those neighborhoods as experimental areas and selected comparison neighborhoods with similar characteristics.

As has been noted, four sites focused on domestic violence as their primary research topic, and five sites selected crime mapping or CompStat for research. The domestic violence sites were more analytical in their approaches than those developing community policing. To gain a better understanding of the problem, project teams in those sites used analysis of existing

data, interviews of victims, and focus groups of victims. The sites working on computer mapping were even more analytical due to the nature of the subject, and in New York, leading-edge approaches (e.g., neural networks) were included in the research effort.

Exhibit 6-1: NIJ's Locally Initiated Research Partnerships

Development of Community Policing

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Primary Research Methods
Ada County Sheriff's Office (ID)	Boise State University	"A Partnership Proposal: The Ada County Sheriff's Office and Boise State University"	Surveys Basic analysis (patrol procedures) Observations (ride-alongs)
Alachua County Sheriff's Office (FL)	University of Florida	"Alachua County Sheriff's Office Research Partnership with the University of Florida"	Surveys
Albuquerque Police Dept. (NM)	University of New Mexico	"Creating a Culture of Community Policing"	Observations (ride-alongs) Interviews
Alfred Police Dept. and Wellsville Police Dept. (NY)	Alfred University	"Increasing the Effectiveness and Efficiency of Rural Police Departments"	Surveys
Arlington County Police Dept. (VA)	The Urban Institute	"Locally Initiated Research Partnership with Arlington County Police Department"	Focus groups Basic analysis for problem solving
Baltimore Police Dept. (MD)	The Johns Hopkins University	"Restructuring the Role of Police Sergeant by Identifying Character Traits Associated with Success"	Double-blind experiment Surveys Focus groups
Bay City Police Dept. (MI)	Saginaw Valley State University	"The Fast Track Program Study: Tracking Non-violent Juvenile Crime Offenders"	Before/after experimental/comparison design
Boston Police Dept. (MA)	Northeastern University and Harvard University	"Strategic Planning and Community Mobilization Project: Framework for Local Policing Research"	Surveys
Buffalo Police Dept. (NY)	State University of New York–Buffalo	"Policing Research and Evaluation"	Surveys Interviews Observations (ride-alongs) Focus groups Spatial analysis (mapping)
Chandler, Glendale, and Scottsdale Police Departments (AZ)	Arizona State University	"Expanding Research Capacity to Support the Implementation of Community Policing"	Interviews

Exhibit 6-1: NIJ's Locally Initiated Research Partnerships (continued)

Development of Community Policing

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Primary Research Methods
Charleston Police Dept. (WV)	Marshall University	"Impact of Charleston, West Virginia, Community Oriented Policing"	Surveys
Colorado Springs Police Dept. and El Paso County Sheriff's Dept. (CO)	Colorado University	"Policing Evaluation through Academic Research: SPAN"	Surveys Advanced analysis (multivariate structural equation model)
Council Grove Police Dept. (KS)	Kansas State University	"Council Grove and KSU Law Enforcement Team Project"	Surveys Interviews Observations (ride-alongs)
Daphne, Foley, Gulf Shores, Loxley, and Baldwin County (AL)	University of Southern Alabama	"A Partnership for Research in Community Policing Strategies"	Surveys Observations (ride-alongs)
El Centro Police Dept. (CA)	San Diego State University	"Community Policing in El Centro"	Surveys Interviews Observations (ride-alongs)
Hagerstown Police Dept. (MD)	Shippensburg University	"Evaluation of Community Policing Project"	Surveys Basic analysis (crime and calls for service) Before/after experimental/comparison design
Jersey City Police Dept. (NJ)	Rutgers University	"Developing and Expanding Problem-solving Partnerships in Jersey City"	Surveys Basic analysis (calls for service and security logs) Before/after experimental/comparison design
Lansing Police Dept. (MI)	Michigan State University	"Forming a Research Partnership: Lansing PD and MSU"	Basic analysis (patrol plan) Surveys Focus groups
Lexington Police Dept. (KY)	Eastern Kentucky University	"A Research Partnership Between Lexington Police Dept. and EKU"	Advanced analysis (item analysis) Surveys Interviews
Los Angeles Police Dept. (CA)	University of CA at Los Angeles and University of Southern CA	"Implementing Community Policing in Los Angeles: A Partnership Between LAPD, UCLA and USC"	Surveys Interviews Observations (ride-alongs)
Lowell, Salem, and Danvers Police Depts. (MA)	Salem State University	"Locally Initiated Research and Evaluation Project"	Surveys Interviews Observations (ride-alongs)

Exhibit 6-1: NIJ's Locally Initiated Research Partnerships (continued)

Development of Community Policing

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Primary Research Methods
Multiple sites	Southern Illinois University	"Downstate Illinois Law Enforcement Applied Research Network"	Surveys Interviews
Oakland Police Dept. (CA)	University of California at Berkeley	"Collaboration Between the Oakland Police Dept. and UC Berkeley"	Before/after experimental/comparison design Advanced analysis (physiological measurements) Observations (festival policing)
Omaha Police Dept. (NE)	University of Nebraska at Omaha	"Generating and Using Research to Guide Change in a Local Law Enforcement Agency by Establishing a Research Partnership"	Surveys Interviews Basic analysis (calls for service and crime)
Philadelphia Police Dept. (PA)	Temple University	"State of Community Policing in Philadelphia: A Collaborative Research Effort between the Philadelphia Police Dept. and Temple University"	Surveys Interviews Observations (ride-alongs, walk-alongs)
Racine Police Dept. (WI)	University of Wisconsin	"Meeting the Needs of Racine Citizens: Evaluation of Community Policing"	Surveys Interviews Before/after experimental/comparison design
St. Louis Police Dept. (MO)	St. Louis University	"A Joint Research Partnership for Community Oriented Policing"	Surveys Focus groups Observations (ride-alongs)
West Virginia State Police	The FOCUS Coalition	"Process and Outcomes Evaluation of Community Policing Initiatives in Jefferson County"	Interviews

Computer Mapping/CompStat Projects

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Primary Research Methods
Charlottesville PD, Albemarle County PD, and U.Va. Campus Police (VA)	University of Virginia	"Community Policing: A Police/Academic Partnership for Evaluation and Research"	Spatial analysis (mapping) Basic analysis (suspect identification and case matching) Advanced analysis (correlational studies for suspect identification and case matching)
Forest Park Police Department (OH)	University of Cincinnati	"Establishing a Research Partnership"	Spatial analysis (mapping)
Indianapolis Police Dept. (IN)	Indiana University and Hudson Institute	"Criminology Against Crime: Criminologists and Crime Control for the Indianapolis Police Dept."	Spatial analysis (mapping) Basic analysis (calls and crime) Before/after experimental/comparison design

Exhibit 6-1: NIJ's Locally Initiated Research Partnerships (continued)

Computer Mapping/CompStat Projects

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Primary Research Methods
New York City Police Dept. (NY)	City University of New York	"Identify and Evaluate Methods for Measuring and Analyzing Crime Patterns and Trends with GIS"	Spatial analysis (mapping, crime displacement, neural network analysis, "hot spot" techniques)
Prince George's County Police Dept. (MD)	University of Maryland	"Partnership Against Crime: University of Maryland with the PG County PD"	Spatial analysis (mapping) Before/after experimental/comparison design

Domestic Violence Projects

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Primary Research Methods
Berkeley Police Dept. (CA)	East Bay Public Safety Corridor and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency	"Domestic Violence Intervention Project"	Basic analysis (domestic violence incidents) Advanced analysis (logistic regression on incidents) Observations (ride-alongs)
Framingham Police Dept. (MA)	Social Science Research and Evaluation, Inc.	"Locally Initiated Research Partnership: The Framingham PD and SSRE, Inc."	Before/after experimental/comparison design Surveys Interviews
Rapid City PD (SD), Pocatello PD (ID), Eureka PD (CA), and Redding PD (CA)	LINC	"Demonstrating a Cost-Effective Approach for Locally Initiated Police Research in Small and Medium-Sized Cities"	Spatial analysis (mapping) Interviews Focus groups Basic analysis (domestic violence incidents) Observations
Seattle Police Dept. (WA)	University of Washington	"Targeting Cycles of Domestic Violence"	Basic analysis (domestic violence) Advanced analysis (logistic regression) Focus groups

Development of Research Capacities

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Primary Research Methods
Florida Law Enforcement Research Coalition	Florida State University	"Forging a Florida Law Enforcement Research Coalition"	Focus groups Surveys
Multiple Sites	IACP and JRSA	"Police Researcher Partnerships: Building the Infrastructure for Effective Program Evaluation"	Surveys Basic analysis (crime)

Research Methods

Exhibit 6-2 summarizes the research methods shown in Exhibit 6-1.

Exhibit 6-2: Summary of Research Methods in Partnership Program

Research Method	Projects
Surveys*	25
Interviews	15
Observations	13
Basic statistical analysis	12
Focus groups	8
Quasi-experimental design	8
Spatial analysis	7
Advanced statistical analysis	6
Double-blind experiment	1

* Some projects conducted more than one type of survey: 12 surveys of citizens, 16 internal surveys (officers, supervisors, etc.), three surveys of businesses, and two surveys of other police agencies (by Florida State University and Lexington, Kentucky).

Survey Research

As shown in Exhibit 6-2, 25 LIRP projects conducted a total of 33 surveys of some type. Sixteen surveys were internal surveys of officers, supervisors, and top management; 12 were citizen surveys (almost always on satisfaction and knowledge about community policing); three were surveys of business; and two were surveys of police agencies (Florida State University with its survey of police agencies in the state, and Lexington with its national survey of police agencies on citizens' academies). As reflected by these figures, surveys were a cornerstone of the research efforts in the LIRP projects.

The following sections provide insight into the construction, conduct, analysis, and presentation of surveys as gleaned during the evaluation. Virtually all the projects struggled with at least one aspect of their survey efforts. Difficulties were encountered along the way with construction of questions, sampling frame, administration of surveys, and interpretation of results. One difficulty was coming up with the correct wording for survey questions. Another difficulty involved administering citizen surveys, especially when more than one wave was conducted. Internal surveys of sworn personnel proved to be easier because of the greater control over when and where respondents completed the surveys.

Reasons for Conducting Surveys

Conducting surveys as an evaluation technique is supported by the community policing literature (e.g., Cardarelli and McDevitt, 1995; Maxfield and Babbie, 1998). Because a basic tenet of community policing is cooperation with citizens for public safety, authors recommend taking the pulse of the public. Police departments have addressed this measurement issue by conducting mail, telephone, or face-to-face surveys of citizens. Most often, surveys are taken annually. The results help inform the police department as to what works and what does not.

Conducting a survey, however, is easier said than done. Survey questions must be developed, a sampling frame must be identified, the survey must be administered, analysis must be conducted, and results must be disseminated internally to command personnel and externally to government officials and the public. One benefit of developing a survey is that it offers an opportunity for the police agency to think about its community policing activities and objectives. In that sense, the survey is itself an intervention is an agency's operations. The survey should reflect the activities that the agency considers most important to the fulfillment of community policing. Choosing topics and phrasing questions sends a message to respondents beyond providing answers; the topics and questions themselves indicate what is important to the agency.

When the agency sees the partnership as truly dedicated to solving problems, a survey may take on added significance to respondents. There should be recognition that the aim is to gather data as a basis for action, and the responsibility of the project team is to analyze the results with the agency's next set of actions in mind. That approach contrasts with surveys designed simply to take a snapshot of the organization for the purpose of completing research on a particular topic; that is, the purpose is to contribute to research rather than lay a foundation for agency action.

LIRP projects conducted internal and external surveys for different reasons. Internal surveys were a means of understanding the needs of the organization and the satisfaction of employees with activities implemented under community policing. Such surveys typically asked about job satisfaction, support for community policing, inclusiveness in decision making, and the department's leadership. In almost all cases, they were conducted anonymously to make employees more comfortable in providing true opinions. The partnership projects usually conducted surveys of citizens and merchants as part of an evaluation of community policing. Typi-

cal questions addressed awareness and knowledge of community policing and satisfaction with police services under community policing.

Other reasons for conducting surveys can be found in selected projects. The project in Florida conducted its statewide survey to identify research needs and then prioritized those needs. In the project with Alfred and Wellsville, New York, the survey was taken to determine whether community policing should be implemented at all within the agencies. While support was found, several obstacles were identified that would hinder implementation.

Developing Survey Topics

Since community policing is a relatively new intervention in policing, validated surveys are generally unavailable to the field. Researchers tend to develop their own survey instruments based on their knowledge of community policing and the particular activities in the surveyed agency. In that regard, the LIRP program was no exception. During the course of the evaluation, several inquiries were made on NIJCOLL, the project's listserv, for copies of survey instruments that could serve as a basis for evaluation. Those inquiries led to the exchange of survey instruments among partnerships. While none of the surveys were validated instruments, the exchange at least allowed the project teams to review a range of survey instruments, different ways of asking questions, and different scaling techniques.

The experiences in Los Angeles illustrate the value of including practitioners in the development of surveys. The research team held a series of meetings with captains from six divisions to brainstorm topics that could be included in a survey instrument on employee perceptions of several dimensions of police work. As the team's final report observes (p. 22), that approach was especially beneficial:

> Captains contributed items that they felt were important in managing their divisions and our earlier qualitative fieldwork enabled us to help refine the list of issues. The issues formed the basis for writing items for a questionnaire that was pilot tested with a cross-section of officers and civilian employees at the Police Academy, revised, and pilot tested again. Each year the questionnaire has been modified slightly to delete the few questions that failed to produce useful information and to add a few new questions on additional issues.

The final result was a 95-item questionnaire, scored on a five-point Likert scale, that is organized around four issues:

- Police work and the working environment (32 items)

- Supervisors and managers (20 items)

- Hiring, evaluation, and disciplinary systems (18 items)

- Community policing and the department's relationship to the community (25 items)

The experience in Racine shows the importance of carefully wording questions in a survey. The project team included one question that was objectionable to some respondents. The question asked for agreement on a five-point Likert scale with the statement, "A community policing assignment is a soft cushy job." The researchers reported that the statement created problems in getting officers to complete the survey instruments.

The project team in Hagerstown had a different experience in conducting its survey. After the team's analysis found few significant differences before and after the introduction of community policing, the team began to question the validity of its own questions. The team concluded that it would have been more beneficial to ask direct, rather than indirect, questions pertaining to quality of life—crime, transportation, schools, shopping, andtrash pickup. Indirect questions included "How satisfied are you with the quality of police response?", "Is the neighborhood dangerous enough that during the last twelve months you have considered moving?", and "Is your neighborhood safety changing?" Direct questions might ask, "Have you seen a community policing officer in the last month?", "Have you been contacted by a community policing officer?", and "What duties do community policing officers do compared to patrol officers?" In short, the belief is that the "no significant difference" findings may have resulted from the types of questions asked, rather than lack of success in community policing activities.

Surveys of Citizens and Businesses

Of the 16 surveys on citizens and business, six were conducted by mail, six by face-to-face interviews, and three by telephone. The experiences of the different types of approaches to survey administration are summarized in this section.

Mail Survey

All six sites that conducted mail surveys started with a randomized sample of addresses in their cities. After that, the manner in which the surveys were conducted and the response rates

varied considerably across the sites. The Lowell project was one of the most extensive in terms of the effort required for a mail survey. The sampling frame was from a random sample of addresses provided by a national company. Because of the demographic composition of the city, the team prepared the survey in eight languages, including Spanish, Portuguese, and Russian. The survey obtained an 18.5 percent response rate (740 returns out of 4,000 mailings). A higher response rate was obtained in Charleston (Marshall University), primarily because of a second mailing. To measure the impact of community policing on Charleston's residents, target neighborhoods were identified by the police department based on their exposure to community policing. Survey questionnaires were sent to a random sample of 570 city residents in those neighborhoods. In the first two months after the survey was mailed, the response rate was only 10 percent. A follow-up questionnaire was sent to the non-respondents, and neighborhood associations made follow-up calls. That procedure increased the final response rate to 40 percent.

In the Alfred University project, the project team surveyed the three participating jurisdictions—Wellsville, Village of Alfred, and Town of Alfred. Each required a different sampling procedure. In Wellsville, the team decided to randomly select 10 percent of the residents to survey. It was determined that the names and addresses of all residents were in the water billing file maintained by the town.[14] In the Village of Alfred, all residents were surveyed because of the small population of the village. For the Town of Alfred, the project team selected a sample from the county's real property listing employed for tax purposes. After overcoming some resistance from elected officials, they were able to take a random sample of households. The team encountered a response problem because it placed a colored mark on the return envelopes, indicating whether the response was from Wellsville, the Village of Alfred, or the Town of Alfred. The principal investigator received calls from several residents who were concerned that the mark would allow him to determine exactly who the respondent was. In spite of the difficulty, the survey achieved an overall response rate of 49.8 percent (455 responses out of 914 mailings).

Face-to-Face Surveys

Six projects conducted face-to-face surveys of citizens or businesses to obtain their opinions on community policing efforts by the participating agencies. One of the main reasons

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[14]   The project's final report states that a problem was encountered when the village clerk attempted to help select the sample by pointing out residents she felt should not be included in the survey. The project team pointed out the necessity of taking a random sample and was able to select a probability sample.

that the project teams at those sites selected interviews was that the geographic areas in which the community policing was taking place were relatively small. In Jersey City, for example, merchants in the Special Improvement District (SID) were interviewed because the SID was the area in which changes had been implemented. Graduate students were able to conduct 59 interviews from a stratified sample of more than 200 businesses in the area. In Charleston, the purpose of the survey was to measure the impact of the police department's community policing initiative on residents in public housing developments supported by the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. The target populations for the study were the 1,022 units (1,777 residents) spread over 10 public housing developments. Members of neighborhood organizations in the areas were enrolled to conduct the interviews. A random sample of 605 units was selected, and the association members were able to complete 514 surveys (84.9 percent).

Face-to-face surveys have several advantages over mail surveys. Usually, a higher response rate is attainable and interviewers are able to obtain fuller comments from citizens about their attitudes and opinions. The primary disadvantage is that the interviews are more costly than mail surveys and usually must be restricted to smaller areas.

The projects in Racine and Hagerstown conducted two waves of surveys as a pre- and post-test of community policing efforts. Their experiences point out the difficulties in maintaining methodological consistency over two periods.   In Hagerstown, community policing officers assigned to the four affected areas conducted the interviews. However, paid volunteers conducted the interviews for the post-test surveys. As Hagerstown team's final report observes, "The rationale for using paid volunteers was twofold, constraints on the community policing officers' time now that the project was fully implemented, and second, that responses of residents and merchants might be less inhibited if solicited by an uninvolved third party" (p. 16). The volunteers included citizens from the community as well as students from the local community college and neighboring university. The methodological change from officers to citizens in conducting the survey probably had an effect on the final results.

The aim in Hagerstown was to re-interview the same households in the post-survey. As explained by one of the principal investigators at a cluster conference, problems were encountered with that approach:

Of the 74 cases that comprise the pre-test, 251 (55.1 percent) included the same individual residing at the same address on the post-test. The status of the remaining 213 cases is as follows. Fourteen (3 percent) involve the same person but living at a different address on the post-test. Twenty-nine cases (6.1 percent) involve the same address as the pre-test but a different person residing at the address on the post-test. We were unable to contact 170 individuals (35.9 percent) for re-interviewing in the post-test. The highest rate of re-contact on the posttest occurred in the comparison area, Salem Avenue (67.1 percent). A close second (64.3 percent) were businesses in the downtown area. Lowest rate of re-contact occurred in Nolan Avenue (39.0 percent) and persons residing in the downtown area (42.4 percent).

The principal investigators summarized the situation by saying that (1) neighborhoods were transitional, especially downtown, and especially in housing developments, (2) citizens seemed to make themselves more available to officers than to volunteers, and (3) officers had more flexibility in when they could visit residences.

The project team in Racine also conducted pre-test and post-test surveys in the three areas of the city that received community policing activities (see Chapter 4, Exhibit 4-1). Its experiences were similar to those in Hagerstown in terms of ability to re-contact citizens, although the level of re-contact was higher in Racine. In fact, the principal investigator commented to the evaluation team that the respondents were "tired of seeing them" over the three- to five-year period of the surveys and that it can be difficult to maintain the integrity of random design and not offend people by continually interviewing them. The principal researcher did, however, believe that the face-to-face interviews were important for getting more reliable responses and for obtaining comments on why residents responded as they did. As she explained, soliciting information "on the porch" provided a more relaxed atmosphere for citizens to express their feelings about police.

Telephone Surveys

The three projects that conducted telephone surveys did them in different ways for different purposes. In Charleston, interviewers were hired to contact 250 business owners for their opinions on the impact of the city's community policing initiative on the business community. The businesses were randomly selected. A response rate of 60 percent (149 businesses) was obtained. In Council Grove, the project team hired undergraduate students to contact a random sample of households for opinions on perceptions of crime and civil problems. A total of 308

surveys were completed, representing 12 percent of the county's households. Interestingly, the project team then sent out a mail survey to all seasonal lake households that had not been included in the telephone surveys. Of the 276 mailed surveys, 29 (15 percent) were returned. The low response rate apparently was due to the fact that many part-time residents indicated they did not know enough about law enforcement in the area to respond. The combination of mail surveys and telephone surveys made a total of 337 surveys available for analysis.

The project team in Colorado Springs conducted the most extensive, and most expensive, telephone survey. The survey aimed at measuring both victimization and citizen attitudes in the county. Results were to be compared to a similar survey conducted 20 years earlier. The survey effort encompassed several steps. Survey Sampling (SSI) of Fairfield, Connecticut, was contracted to provide a sample of listed telephone numbers in the county. The sampling was stratified to ensure coverage across the entire county. The interviews were conducted by Voter/Consumer Research (V/CR) of Houston, Texas, which completed 1,200 telephone interviews.[15] A telephone protocol was developed for selecting respondents within a household and ensuring that younger respondents were represented in the sample. Interviewers asked for the youngest person over the age of 18 years in the household. A total of 13,160 calls were made to households in order to reach the total sample of 1,200 completed surveys. Selected results of the survey are provided in the project summary in Appendix 1.

Surveys of Police Department Personnel

Fifteen of the 28 projects on the development of community policing conducted surveys of police personnel. Most were for the explicit purpose of obtaining opinions about community policing initiatives that had been put in place. No pattern emerged on what ranks or positions were included in the surveys. Some surveyed only officers, while others surveyed everyone in the department.

The administration of the surveys generally followed the same approach across sites. A survey instrument was developed with assistance from police personnel, either individually or in focus groups. The survey was handed out at roll calls or other appropriate times for immediate completion (the exception was three sites that mailed their surveys to residences with return en-

velopes). Surveys were collected and sent to the researchers for data entry and analysis. Reports showing tabulated data were developed and distributed to key personnel in the department. Because of the manner in which the surveys were administered, response rates were usually high, ranging from 60 to over 90 percent of potential respondents.

The following description from a final report is typical of the manner in which surveys were administered in most projects:

> The first wave of data collected was set for a Wednesday, February 19. This date was selected because it was midwinter when most personnel are not on vacation or away at schools, and when there is a reduced call for police activity due to the inclement weather. Additionally, Wednesday—being the middle of the week—is the day most personnel are least likely to be on vacation or have assigned days off, and calls for service will be lower than on the weekend. A week prior to the dissemination of the questionnaire, all personnel were notified by a memo attached to each officer's paycheck that the study was being conducted. The hope was that advance notice would produce greater receptivity to the study. The chief's cover letter and the roll call supervisor instructed the respondents to place the questionnaire in one of two boxes, either in the patrol roll call room on the first floor of the police department or the detective roll call room on the second floor.

The response rate for the above survey effort was 80 percent.

Surveys of sworn personnel were always conducted anonymously. In fact, the project teams usually were advised to ensure confidentiality and not to include variables on the survey instrument that might identify the respondent. Typical of the advice on that matter is the following from the Los Angeles final report:

> We had originally hoped to be able to identify respondents with a unique ID code (known only to the researchers that would be destroyed at the conclusion of the study) so that we could track individual officers' perceptions over time. But we learned that officers' mistrust of management would seriously jeopardize their cooperation. In fact, we were advised to limit the number of demographic characteristics because officers told us they would not complete a questionnaire from which they thought they could be identified.

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15 644 interviews were completed on the first attempt, 304 on the second attempt, 164 on the third attempt, 43 on the fourth attempt, and 45 with scheduled callbacks. These figures reflect the effort that must be made to reach respondents by telephone.

Confidentiality concerns were especially prevalent in the medium-sized and small police departments participating in the LIRP program.

Evaluation Summary on Survey Efforts

Surveys were a cornerstone of the project teams' research efforts. Collectively, the teams conducted 33 surveys during the course of the program. Both external surveys (usually of citizens and businesses) and internal surveys (of patrol officers, supervisors, civilians, etc.) were conducted. Citizen surveys were almost always for the purpose of gauging the public's reaction to community policing efforts and providing guidance on what the police department should be doing. In short, they measured the department's progress in community policing. The surveys were either citywide (mail or telephone) or restricted to portions of the city where community policing activities had been implemented. The internal surveys served the same purpose: getting the reactions and opinions of sworn and non-sworn employees to the organizational and procedural changes brought about by community policing. Like the external surveys, they informed the managers of the police department on actions that could be taken to advance community policing in the organization.

A lesson learned from the LIRP program is that agency personnel need to be involved in the survey effort from the onset. The most successful survey efforts took advantage of focus groups of agency personnel to assist in the development of topics. In the Los Angeles project, for example, several focus groups were held with captains to brainstorm ideas for their surveys. Focus groups enable the project teams and agency personnel to take time in thinking about their community policing activities and what the objectives should be. For internal surveys, they are an opportunity to discuss organizational changes that have occurred and what the impact of those changes should be. Another advantage, especially for project teams that had not worked together in the past, is that the members acquire the argot of the department. As a result, phrasing of questions in the surveys improves.

The LIRP projects that conducted mail and telephone surveys effectively took advantage of available databases and listings that allowed them to take random samples of potential respondents. The actual approach depended on the particular site. One site selected a national company provided addresses for the jurisdictions, while another site went to the water department to get a complete list. As is true with most survey efforts, the response rates for mail surveys were

lower than for telephone surveys. The response rates for mail surveys varied from 19 to almost 50 percent, while telephone surveys usually attained rates higher than 50 percent.

For the projects that had both pre-test and post-test surveys, a persistent problem arose in trying to contact the same panel of respondents. Hagerstown's and Racine's experiences in re-interviewing residents in target areas were highlighted to illustrate the difficulties. In Hagerstown, 74 cases out of 251 (55.1 percent) included the same individual residing at the same address on the post-test. On the other hand, the researchers at the two sites believe they were able to elicit good qualitative information from citizens through the personal approach.

Internal surveys posed fewer problems for the LIRP projects because of easier access to respondents and better control over the process. Response rates of 60 to over 90 percent were achieved with the internal surveys. A consistent finding across sites that was anonymity had to be guaranteed in order to get the higher response rates and more reliable opinions from respondents. Another technique common at the sites to improve response rates was to include a letter of support from the chief of police or police union about the importance of the survey.

Focus Groups and Interviews

Focus Groups

Eight projects conducted focus groups during the course of their research efforts.[16] In each case, the project teams planned along standard lines for focus groups:

- Group sizes were usually eight to 12 individuals.
- Groups were homogenous (e.g., all patrol officers).
- Sessions were recorded or notes were taken.

The project teams employed focus groups for three different reasons. One already mentioned was to develop topics for internal or external surveys. Holding focus groups forced the participants to think about their community policing activities and what the objectives should be. Indeed, several participants told ILJ's evaluation staff that the focus group and the survey effort provided a forum for discussing the direction that their departments should take in community

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[16] Other projects may have held focus groups on an informal basis. These eight have been selected for discussion because they specifically noted the results of focus groups in their final reports or in interviews with the evaluation staff.

policing. Further, the project team became familiar with the department's argot, leading to better wording of survey questions.

A second application of focus groups was to convey the results of survey efforts, especially citizen surveys. In one site, for example, the audiences included community leaders, politicians, employees of the health department, employees of the building department, neighborhood watch leaders, and educational leaders. The aim was to discuss the impact of the findings on their particular organizations (hence the need for homogenous groups). Another advantage of conducting focus groups on survey results is that the audience may be able to provide insight into the results. We have only anecdotal indications that this took place at some sites.

Finally, focus groups were conducted to obtain the opinions of different groups within a police department, especially patrol officers and supervisory personnel. In Arlington County, focus groups were the researcher's choice for evaluating a reorganization of the department that had been in place for one year. She describes her approach as follows:

> I interviewed 33 groups of Arlington staff members from Operations and Management Support Services. The groups consisted of all Operations Captains, most of the Operations Lieutenants, and a sample of Sergeants. Officers and Sergeants were randomly selected, getting at least one group from each district and from each shift. Each group was promised individual anonymity and ranks were interviews separately (only people of the same rank were included in each group). Individuals and groups of employees from the Systems Management Division were interviewed at a later time. Eight questions were asked concerning the change to geo districting. The findings from Operations were reported back to the chief of police and the findings from the Systems Management Division were reported back to the deputy chief who was in charge of that section.

The findings from the interviews were favorable to the changes that had been implemented.

In the LINC project, the project team held focus groups with victims of domestic violence. This series of focus groups accomplished two objectives. First, it gave greater insight into the reasons that victims do not report these offenses, and second, it provided the victims' opinions about police. Results were immediately conveyed to the police department, which took action to improve its response to such incidents.

In Lansing, the project team held one session with nine patrol officers and another with 10 sergeants. The groups discussed the state of the department's community policing efforts at the time of the sessions. Based on ILJ's interviews with researchers who conducted the sessions, participants were surprisingly candid with their positive and negative views of the department. A sampling of conclusions from Lansing's report on the patrol officer focus group is illustrative:

- "It is hard for officers to think vertically (in terms of 'team') when the problems they face every day are horizontal (problems common to the entire precinct by time of day, rather than geographic area)."

- "A few [officers] report that their teams are essentially inactive (partially due to the low frequency of problems within the area) and that their only contact takes place at monthly team meetings."

- "Officers from the South Precinct have noticed that one positive effect of the decentralization has been improved communication between patrol officers and detectives…. This [communication] has fostered a new sense of partnership in addressing problems and has given officers a greater sense of satisfaction because they now know the resolution to many of the investigations they initiate."

- "It is neither realistic nor possible to eliminate most problems. The best teams can do is move a problem outside of their team area and there is no incentive to do any more than this."

In a formal sense, focus groups are supposed to achieve a consensus on the topics they discuss; that is, votes are taken and topics re-discussed until everyone agrees on what the conclusions should be. ILJ's interviews with researchers and reviews of written documentation show that this aim is rarely, if ever, achieved. Indeed, the term "focus group" has taken on new meaning in the literature as more of an "opinion group." This view is reflected by the reports from Lansing, Arlington County, and other sites. The advantage may be that more topics can be covered in a single session because the group does not become bogged down in trying to reach a consensus on each topic.

Interviews

Interviews were an integral part of 16 projects in the LIRP program.[17] As with focus groups, the primary reason for conducting interviews is to obtain opinions from the interviewees, particularly their opinions about community policing activities. Although interviews take sig-

nificantly longer than focus groups, interviewees may have a greater willingness to share their opinions especially when, as in most cases, anonymity is maintained.

As an illustration, the project team in Buffalo devoted a considerable amount of time over six months to talking with sworn personnel in the field about what they thought the goals of the department should be. The interviews were in preparation for the eventual vision and mission statements that were issued by the commissioner of police and that served as the basis for changes in the department. The researcher who conducted most of the interviews states the following on the interviews' utility:

> Once the interviews were completed, the team produced reports on the primary themes culled from the interviews and presented them to the steering committee. A review of the results showed that it was a misconception that there was widespread resistance to change and innovation or to the principles of community policing. The middle managers actually had ideas about problems and needed changes in the department that were similar to those of upper management: the need for more proactive policing methods, for working together with the community, for focusing on quality-of-life calls, and for increasing training.

Other LIRP projects conducted interviews as a key approach in their research efforts. Because an ethnographic approach was the research basis in Albuquerque, interviews of all ranks were conducted and subjected to qualitative analysis along with extensive field observations. In Baltimore's project, interviews were the basis for determining the criteria for "exemplary" supervisors and later for identifying supervisors that fit the criteria.

Evaluation Summary on Focus Groups and Interviews

Focus groups and interviews were particularly effective approaches for the LIRP projects. As previously discussed, focus groups served three purposes. One was to develop topics for internal or external surveys that were to be conducted. Another purpose was to convey the results of survey efforts to selected audiences, including police officers, citizens, and politicians. These focus groups provided a forum to discuss how the results might affect members of the audience and to gain insight into survey results when the focus group consisted of representative respon-

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[17] As with focus groups, more (if not all) projects probably conducted interviews as part of their research effort. These 16 projects have been so designated because the interviews were a key part of the research effort or were discussed in their final reports.

dents. The third purpose of focus groups was to obtain information and opinions of selected groups, such as victims of crimes, police officers, middle management, and others.

The LIRP teams consistently followed guidelines in the literature about how to conduct focus groups. Group sizes were relatively small (from eight to 12 individuals), groups were homogeneous, and sessions were recorded or notes were taken. What differed from the literature is that most focus groups were not held to achieve a consensus but rather to elicit a variety of opinions from the members of the group. Generally speaking, everyone's opinion was recorded. It was then up to the skills of the project team to decide what was most important and relevant to include in a report. Our intent here is not to be overly critical of the way in which these focus groups were conducted. Indeed, it appears to be common practice now to convene "focus groups" for the purpose of opinion taking, and it is for this reason that we earlier stated that these sessions could more appropriately be termed "opinion groups."

Interviews in the LIRP program served several beneficial purposes. Interviews were an effective way for members of the project team, especially new researchers, to get to know people in the agency. Because most interviews were confidential, they provided an opportunity for practitioners to freely express their views on organizational and procedural changes in the agency, especially as they relate to community policing. As previously discussed, in Buffalo, members of the project team interviewed a large number of middle managers and found there was support for the basic tenets of community policing—a result that had not been expected. Researchers who had not previously worked with police departments found that interviews helped them understand the problems that police departments face in serving the public.

A particular advantage of face-to-face interviews is that the interviewer is able to see the respondents and their surroundings. If the research requires observations of these surroundings, it is worthwhile to conduct the interviews in person. Another advantage is that for particularly long interviews, those lasting more than an hour, it is easier to keep the respondent's attention in a face-to-face interview. A good interviewer is able to put the respondent at ease and obtain open and frank responses.

In discussing focus groups and interviews with project teams, the evaluation team was able to gather several words of caution regarding those approaches. One is that the representativeness of the group must be taken into account. The least reliable focus groups and interviews

are those whose audience has been selected by convenience. It is difficult, for example, to obtain a random sample of victims of domestic violence. Some victims do not want to talk about their problems, and others prefer not to discuss problems in a police department. When interviewing police managers, researchers would be well advised to select managers randomly rather than being directed to select certain managers.

Another word of caution relates to the validity of the information provided by respondents during focus groups and interviews. It is always important to verify what is presented. In addition, the skills of the project team come into play in weighing the importance of the results from focus groups and interviews. Because several opinions may be recorded from a focus group, the team has to decide which ones should have prominence in a presentation and report to top managers. In the LIRP program, differences occasionally arose among team members on whether a given result from a focus group or interview should really be addressed in a report. In such cases, it is important to search for more information from other sources.

Analytical Research Methods

Basic Analysis

As reflected in Exhibit 6-2, 12 projects did basic statistical analysis (e.g., frequencies, cross-tabulations, means, and standard deviations) on crime, calls for service, and other data. In this discussion, we are excluding analysis of surveys (discussed elsewhere). Instead, the focus is on analysis of datasets that were usually available within the police department and contributed to the research done by the project team.

As an example, the project team in Hagerstown calculated the annual percentage changes for 33 types of offenses in each of five target areas to compare against surveys that had been conducted in those areas. In Arlington, basic analysis became part of a SARA (Scanning, Analysis, Response, and Assessment) model introduced in one of the districts by the project team. The team had developed a simple system called SAMPSTAT (System for Arlington-style Management of Problem Solving, Tracking, and Training), which took advantage of the table features of Microsoft Word to record information on each SARA step. In that project, a "problem" had to meet two criteria: it had to occur at a specific location that could be tracked with call-for-service data, and it had to have a potential outcome that could be measured to determine whether the problem had been ameliorated. An example of the analysis is as follows:

> The first problem identified as meeting the requirements for analysis was located near the recycling bins on the corner of 4800 Columbia Pike. Calls for service included complaints that were related either to quality of life (e.g., litter, loitering, etc.) or to alcohol (e.g., drunk in public). In the six months prior to implementing SARA techniques, 43 alcohol-related calls and 101 quality-of-life related calls were identified in the call-for-service database. Six months after SARA implementation, alcohol-related calls dropped to 14 and quality-of-life calls dropped to 92.

In the Jersey City project, an analysis of calls for service concluded that calls in the target area had been substantially reduced after the changes had occurred. The project team went a step further with a displacement analysis, concluding that:

> Additional call analysis revealed no indications that increased JSRC presence merely displaced disorderly activity to nearby areas. Calls for service in the surrounding "buffer area" showed reductions comparable to those inside the SID (though like the SID, there were small variations within individual categories). In both the SID and the surrounding buffer area, all increases in call or crime activity represented small numbers of actual events, and may represent the normal fluctuation of activity from month to month.

In Jersey City, as in other sites, the problem with basic analysis was not so much the analysis effort as it was obstacles in acquiring datasets. At the time of the research, the department was in the process of improving its records management system—an effort that had occupied a lieutenant on the department for several years. Problems to be solved included difficulties in geocoding address data, proprietary datasets that could not be accessed, and a slow process for getting data into the systems. At one point, the research director on the project arranged to receive paper copies of reports directly from the records room to enter into his own database.

In the domestic violence projects, the difficulty was the quality of data rather than access. Although the participating police departments could provide basic information on the reported incidence of domestic violence, their recording systems did not provide any richness of data for more detailed analysis. The team in the LINC project made a special effort to collect and analyze data on domestic violence incidents. Similarly, in Seattle, the team set up its own data system because the department's system did not contain enough data and was not easily accessible.

Advanced Analysis

By our count, six project teams went beyond basic analysis with more advanced analytical techniques, such as structural equation models, item analysis, correlational studies, and logistic regressions. The technique depended on the problem at hand and the skills of the researcher on the project team. Indeed, in the division of labor between practitioners and researchers, the analytical effort is almost always the responsibility of the researchers.

A few of these are worth noting in regard to the techniques applied and the results obtained. In the Seattle project, logistic regression was a key statistical approach for identifying possible risk factors for domestic violence recidivism. Results from that project's final report including the following:

> To identify possible risk factors for recidivism, a logistic regression model was fit. When victim age was controlled for, suspect age no longer appeared to be significantly related to the probability of repeat incidents. A couple in which the victim was pregnant was at an increased risk of subsequent incidents. Specifically, controlling for the time period of the day, the odds of subsequent domestic violence for a couple in which the victim was pregnant are 3.74 times the odds for a couple in which the victim was not pregnant during the first reported incident (95% confidence interval: 1.12 to 12.46). Also, a couple whose first incident occurred during the morning was at an increased risk of subsequent incidents. Controlling for pregnancy status of the victim, the odds of subsequent domestic violence for a couple whose first incident occurred between 4 a.m. and noon are 1.60 times the odds for a couple whose first incident occurred between 8 p.m. and 4 a.m. (95% confidence interval: 1.06 to 2.40). Similarly, the odds of subsequent domestic violence for a couple whose first incident occurred between 8 p.m. and 4 a.m. (95% confidence interval: 0.96 to 1.94). Note that this increase in the odds of a subsequent incident is not significant for this comparison as the confidence interval contains 1.

While obviously more difficult to understand than basic analysis, the results are richer in their operational implications. Results of this type have to be converted to "plain English" for the consumption of police practitioners—a topic discussed later in this chapter.

In Lexington, the chief of police asked the project team to examine the written test given to applicants who want to be police officers. The test under consideration was a commercially available test widely administered by police agencies across the country. It contained six subscales: ability to learn and apply information, ability to remember details, verbal ability, ability to accurately complete forms, spatial ability, and ability to use judgment and logic. The test

sample consisted of 419 tests completed by applicants applying for the position of police officer. In analyzing the tests, the project team calculated several statistical measures, including a discrimination index (correlation between each item and the overall performance on the test), Cronbach's Alpha to determine the test's internal consistency, and factor analysis to validate subscales. The team's conclusions as reported to the chief of police were as follows:

> It appears, based on this analysis, that the written test in question substantially falls short of expectations. First, adverse impact is not avoided. Second, an item-analysis of the test reveals that the test is improperly constructed in that extremely easy items are over representative on the test thus reducing the ability of the test to discriminate highly qualified from less qualified candidates. While the selection of easy items results in a high degree of internal consistency, as represented by Cronbach's Alpha, it fails to assist police departments in identifying a pool of strong candidates. Unfortunately, personnel specialists frequently use Cronbach's Alpha as a guide in selecting written examinations. As can be seen from this study, internal consistency is not equivalent to validity. Third, the test under consideration had six sub-scales. A factor analysis of the test items revealed that none of the factors corresponded with any of the sub-scales indicating that although the sub-scale items may have had face validity, they certainly did not access coherent underlying constructs.

The final report by the research team made a key recommendation, noting that "the high correlation between test scores and educational level of the candidates suggested to the authors that an education requirement might be a more effective way of selecting a pool of qualified applicants."

This section on analytical techniques addresses the five projects that concentrated on developing computer mapping applications and three other projects that had computer mapping as part of their research efforts. The spatial analytical techniques from these projects ranged widely, from basic pin maps showing locations of crimes and other incidents to cutting edge spatial techniques such as displacement analyses and neural network analyses as applied to changes in crime and calls for service. In departments that did not previously have computer mapping, even the most basic maps were welcome. The project in Forest Park, Ohio, is typical in that regard. The project team there developed a geographic information system that ultimately included data from offense reports, calls for service, auto accidents, arrests, and field interrogations. The team made the maps available to interested parties on a timely basis and developed a

guidebook for anyone who wanted to develop his or her own map. In its final report, the team describes four basic applications of mapping for the department:

- Maps to depict offenses or calls for service for officers to identify and describe problems

- Maps for illustrating criminal events for court presentations (officers found these maps useful for explaining a series of events to prosecutors)

- Maps for dispatchers to quickly identify the beat corresponding to a call for service

- Maps for community members at neighborhood meetings, allowing them to become aware of problems affecting their community

In New York City, which pioneered the CompStat process with maps as a central tool, the project team's primary objective was to advance the police department's mapping capabilities. As a basis for research, the project team sponsored a conference in which 12 outside participants and the co-principal investigators presented papers on how researchers and practitioners apply geographic information systems (GIS) to crime patterns. Titles of some of the papers show the technical nature of the research:

- "Requirements for a Tactical Crime Analysis Geographic Information System" by Phil Canter

- "Exploratory Data Analysis of Crime Patterns: Preliminary Findings from the Bronx" by Sanjoy Chakravorty and William Pelfrey

- "The Utility of Standard Deviation Ellipses for Evaluating Hot Spots" by Bob Langworthy

- "Exploring How to Measure Crime Displacement and Diffusion" by Lorraine Green Mazerolle

- "Chaos Theory, Artificial Neural Networks and GIS-Based Data: Chaotic Cellular Forecasting and Application to the Prediction of Drug Related Calls for Service" by Andreas Olligschlaeger

- "Filters, Fears, and Photos: Speculations and Explorations in the Geography of Crime" by Keith Harries

- "Crime and Public Housing: Two-Way Diffusion Effects in Surrounding Neighborhoods" by Jeff Fagan and Garth Davies

These papers later appeared in a book edited by the co-principal investigators (Goldsmith *et al.*, 1999). The book and other publications by the authors are cited frequently in the literature on spatial analysis of crime and calls for service.

Evaluation Summary on Analytical Research

The experiences in the LIRP program show the importance of having good data systems to support research projects. Some sites, such as Arlington County and Ada County, were able to access the records needed for basic analysis with no significant problems. In other sites, such as Jersey City and the sites studying domestic violence, the records management systems were unable to provide data on a consistent basis for the desired research. The project teams at those sites had to develop alternative ways for get the data they needed or perform special data cleaning to get the records in shape for analysis.

The advanced analytical efforts in the various LIRP projects fell naturally on the shoulders of the researchers, rather than the police practitioners. Researchers had the backgrounds and experience needed to employ the advanced techniques. Indeed, a benefit that practitioners saw in the LIRP program was that they could have researchers on board with these skills. As one of the practitioners in the Seattle project stated to us, "Even though several people in Research and Grants and DV unit have master's degrees, we don't have the statistical biostat stuff and experience in computer knowledge to actually validate and verify these factors are real. That's one of the important things the researcher's doing for us."

Of course, one of the difficulties encountered in using the advanced analytical techniques is translating the results into presentations and action items. The challenge to researchers is to present the results in terms understandable to practitioners in order to guide future actions, rather than discussing the results in overly technical jargon. Doing so is easier when members of the project team have more direct influence on the actions that might be taken. The situation in Seattle fit that description because the research effort was designed to assist the investigators in the unit under study.

Experimental Designs

Quasi-Experimental Designs

Eight projects conducted quasi-experiments. In three projects (Jersey City, Prince George's County, and Indianapolis), the design was simply a before/after design, meaning that measurements were taken before and after an intervention to determine the degree of change. For example, Jersey City experienced a decrease in certain types of calls for service after the interventions in the SID area. This design is not considered especially strong because comparable

areas of the city may have had reduced calls as well. No determination along those lines can be made without comparison areas.

In the other five projects, comparison areas or groups were identified for the purpose of comparing changes there against the experimental areas or groups. Formally stated, these were before/after experimental/comparison designs, meaning that measurements were taken prior to the start of an intervention and again at some point after the intervention and that the measurements were for both an experimental and comparison area or group. Schematically, this design is usually shown as follows:

	Pre-Measurement	Intervention	Post-Measurement
Experimental Area/Group	O_1	X	O_2
Comparison Area/Group	O_3		O_4

In this schematic, X represents the intervention (such as community policing in an area), O_1 and O_2 are measurements for the experimental area/group before and after the intervention, and O_3 and O_4 are measurements for the comparison area/group before and after the intervention. The expectation is that the experimental area/group will show improvement while the comparison area/group will show less improvement or perhaps degradation. This design was possible in a natural way because the police departments introduced their interventions only in portions of the city rather than citywide.[18] Racine and Hagerstown both identified areas comparable to the ones in which community policing activities were introduced. The project teams then conducted before and after surveys of citizens in the areas receiving community policing and the comparison areas. However, neither research team was especially satisfied with its selection of comparison areas. In Hagerstown, for example, the comparison area was close to the experimental area. While reported crimes decreased in the experimental area after the introduction of community policing activities and increased in the comparison area, the researchers commented, "Given the proximity of the two locations to each other, the decrease in reported offenses in Jonathan [ex-

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[18] Two variations from this statement should be noted. In Oakland's evaluation of its firearms reduction program, comparisons were made between targeted areas and the "rest of the city." That is, the rest of the city served as

perimental area] coupled with the increase in Salem [comparison area] may indicate a displacement effect."

As previously reported, the project team was unable to complete its experimental design because an insufficient number of women qualified for issuance of cellular phones. The experiment had to be dropped six months after its start. The project team in Bay City, Michigan, was more fortunate. The Fast Track Program there operated on the hypothesis that delinquent youths who were placed in a relatively brief community service program, jointly operated by the police and local community service agencies, would be less likely to reoffend compared to youths who received more traditional handling by the prosecutor or juvenile court. To evaluate the program, a group of 188 participants in the Fast Track Program was compared to a similar group of 142 youths whose cases received more traditional handling, such as probation, deferred prosecution, or dismissal. The results were favorable to the Fast Track Program as indicated, for example, by the fact that 12.2 percent of the participants reoffended, compared to 24.1 percent in the comparison group.

The principal investigators in Bay City note, however, that the results are tentative because of statistically significant differences in sex (higher proportion of females in the experimental group) and age (younger in the experimental group) between the two groups. Their experience highlights the difficulty of conducting quasi-experimental designs in the field. As stated in their final report:

> The lack of a centralized electronic database containing integrated records of juvenile arrests and the corresponding prosecutorial or juvenile court action resulting from each arrest precluded the random assignment of cases to the experimental group, or, for that matter, the random selection of the members of the Fast Track or the comparison groups. The alternative strategy was to designate all of the participants in the first three years of the Fast Track Program as the experimental group, and select a comparison group of approximately equal size from a group of offenders whose cases were processed by the prosecutor or the local juvenile court in the period immediately prior to the establishment of the Fast Track Program.

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the comparison area even though it was not technically comparable. In Bay City and Framingham, the terminology should be changed because the intervention was for individuals rather than areas of the city.

In spite of those difficulties, the project team conducted a thorough examination on several key variables with virtually all indicators showing success for the program. The caveats reflect the need for a second cycle of evaluation as suggested by an action research model.

Double-Blind Experiment

One of the strongest designs in the LIRP program came from the project in Baltimore on identifying character traits associated with "exemplary" sergeants. The team conducted a double-blind experiment that compared the traits of exemplary sergeants against a group of comparable sergeants. Basically, after the exemplary sergeants had been identified, one part of the team selected another group of sergeants who were comparable on several key characteristics (gender, rank, race, age, years of service, and active/retired status). The result was a group of 26 exemplary sergeants and 29 controls. Other project team members, who were not involved in the selection of either the exemplary or control sergeants, then administered a series of tests to all 55 sergeants. Because the sergeants did not know how they were classified and the testers did not know the group designations, the result was a double-blind experiment. Appendix 1 provides more details of the experiment. Such experiments are rare in the criminal justice field. The advantage is that, if successful, stronger research results are achieved.

Evaluation Summary on Experimental Designs

For the most part, the quasi-experimental designs in the LIRP program resulted naturally from the circumstances at each site. At some sites, an intervention took place in a designated part of the jurisdiction and the project team was able to identify an area of comparison, collect data on, for example, crimes and calls for service, and analyze changes in both areas before and after the intervention. In a couple of instances, the comparison area was the "rest of the jurisdiction," which is a problematic selection because of dissimilarities.

Other sites evaluated community policing activities introduced in an area by selecting a comparison area and conducting household surveys before and after the interventions. As discussed earlier, the problems encountered in these designs were the natural difficulties resulting from changes over time, such as residents moving from the areas.

The double-blind experiment in Baltimore clearly was the most sophisticated experiment in the program. The fact that the experiment was conducted at all is a tribute to the efforts of the

research team. Even in Baltimore, however, problems were encountered. The number of participating sergeants in the experiment fell significantly short of expectations because of the difficulties in locating retired sergeants and in persuading sergeants to be included in the experiment. Another difficulty involved obtaining information on sergeants (such as results of testing when the sergeant joined the force). Even with those difficulties, however, the project team was able to obtain data on most of the desired variables. The result was a strong research design with strong, defendable results.

We have commented previously that the number of experiments conducted in the LIRP program was surprisingly small. Part of the reason is the nature of community policing. Organizational changes do not lend themselves to experimental designs. Moreover, many changes at the sites were citywide, thereby obviating the possibility of comparison areas. Finally, several LIRP grants started after the agency had already implemented community policing activities, so meant it was not possible to gather baseline data for later comparisons.

Reporting Methods

Reporting the results of research is, of course, one of the most important functions of a project team. This section describes the manner in which results were presented to police personnel and others and relates those audiences' reactions to the results.

One of the lessons learned from the LIRP program is that research reports for local consumption are very different products from those for national consumption (such as reports submitted to NIJ). National research reports generally have a standard format that starts with a statement of the problem and a literature review and continues by presenting the project's methodology, research results, and implications for future research. Such reports are intended to cover every aspect of the research effort and are directed at others who specialize in a given research area. Local research from the LIRP program has a much different table of contents. Local reports are more likely to emphasize the results of the research and provide much less, if any, attention to literature review and methodology. That is not to say that a review was not taken or that the methodology was faulty, but rather than the audience of local reports is more interested in the results.

Moreover, local reports may not even be "reports" in the sense of comprehensive, written documents. With survey results, for example, the final report may be a set of graphs and charts, or a group of tables, or even just transparencies. The aim is to convey what the research showed in an efficient and effective manner.

Several reasons can be given for these differences between national and local reports. One is that police managers as an audience have limited time to read reports. Their schedules generally do not permit the luxury of spending time on the details of the research. Instead, their interest is on the results of the research and the implications for actions. Further, local research generally has several audiences. As previously discussed, the project team in Racine conveyed the results of its research to several audiences through focus groups of community leaders, politicians, health and building department employees, neighborhood watch participants, and education leaders. The team tailored each presentation to the audience with the aim of indicating how the results might affect what that audience does.

Another reporting procedure used by many of the LIRP projects was to have all local reports co-authored by the researchers and police practitioners. That approach added credibility in the minds of the police practitioner audience because it reflected the involvement of police personnel. One site went a step further, creating summaries of survey results for general consumption. As the key researcher explained,

> One of the things that seems to be working within my partnership is that we are sending out a series of newsletters that are available in community buildings, that are sent to local politicians and are made available to all the community policing officers in the area. They are simply written, they are short, and they report the results and findings so that people can understand them.

Most researchers in the LIRP program realized that they had to produce reports of value to the local audiences. At the same time, they had professional interests in writing articles about their research for presentation at professional conferences, such as the annual American Society of Criminology meetings, or in peer-reviewed publications. As one researcher noted, "As a researcher, it's my responsibility to publish in the literature, to report my findings to the scientific community. But I cannot expect the police department to understand and to fully appreciate a report that's written for a colleague."

The tradeoff appears to be simplicity versus power. For example, researchers sacrifice statistical power by reporting univariate results when advanced statistical analysis, such as multivariate regression, may have greater explanatory power. The key to the presentation is to provide the right kind of information and enough information for more informed action decisions. One technique in this regard is for reports to be co-authored by researchers and practitioners. That approach adds more weight to the findings and has a better chance of getting the attention of key decision makers.

Because the research team is a partnership, there are opportunities throughout the projects to discuss how the findings are shaping up and what the likely results will be. As one researcher on domestic violence stated:

> In going over some of the results, in terms of the partnership, we don't just go and do the research and a year later come back and talk about the results. All through this we have regular meetings to discuss what's going on with the project. We would meet with the police and talk about what we were starting to see and give preliminary results in a formal session with them. From that, they have then recommended we talk to people on the domestic violence planning council for the whole city, so there are a variety of ways we provided our results.

The timing of research affects the results. For example, it may not be worthwhile to conduct an internal survey of officers too early in the transition to community policing. As one chief of police told us, "Results of the internal surveys are directly proportional to where you are in the process of implementation in your organization. If I had done a survey in the first year of community policing, it would have been 90 percent against community policing." One could, of course, argue that the survey should be repeated a year later to show progress. On the other hand, the chief believed there were political risks in that early results might jeopardize the chances of implementing community policing.

Some researchers in the LIRP program questioned whether surveys provided any beneficial information at all to police departments. They cited the difficulties in administering surveys appropriately and the fact that many results are "obvious." However, although difficult, many surveys returned consistent results across multiple sites, such as the pivotal role of sergeants in community policing and the dislike of community policing by detectives. In addition, many po-

lice personnel, including chiefs, provided ILJ's evaluation staff with statements about the utility of conducting both internal and external surveys. A few comments are illustrative:

- "Biggest problem is how hard you have to swallow when the survey results come in. Really a wake-up call for you to sit down and look at what's happening in your community, and to look at what people think of the programs you've put in place and the job you're attempting to do. We had some good numbers in there but we had some numbers that were troubling. And a number that quite frankly I was a little taken back by."

- "If we don't pay attention to these surveys, the idea of community input is vague at best."

- "The information you get as an administrator can make a vital difference in the way your police department is perceived."

- "If you open yourself up and your organization to what can be viewed as criticism, it can be beneficial and can give you the information you truly need to make intelligent decisions."

- "The business world has been doing this for a long time. They take the data, they swallow hard, and then they strategize to affect that issue."

- "Survey results were used by me as the basis for this year's strategic plan, as the basis for a continuing education program for middle managers, and to show that morale in this area is not as bad as believed."

The sites that conducted pre- and post-surveys of citizens sometimes found "no significant effects" in their results. Such a finding can be considered a negative result because of the belief on the part of police administrators that their community policing efforts should have resulted in significant positive changes in the opinions of citizens. At one of these sites, members of the project team clearly were surprised by the lack of measurable change. In fact, in their final report, they criticize their own methodology:

> Taken at face value, findings from the evaluation suggest that the impact of community policing on reported offenses and on the opinions, attitudes and behavior of [city] residents and merchants has been marginal at best. However, such a conclusion might be premature and perhaps unwarranted. Simply because the study did not uncover a noticeable effect is not proof positive that the impact of the program on residents and merchants was negligible. There are number of plausible explanations and alternatives that need to be addressed. They deal with the methodology of the study, the data employed, and the form that community policing took.

The authors then say that (1) the surveys might not have asked the right questions, (2) paid civilians administered the pre-survey, while officers administered the post-survey, (3) there was a lower response rate on the post-survey, and (4) only a few officers were involved in the department's community policing program. The first three explanations have to do with the survey instrument and how the survey was administered, and the last explanation says there may not have been enough "dosage" of community policing to produce a measurable effect.

Conclusions

The LIRP program provides several lessons on how research should be conducted at the local level with a project team approach. This section summarizes what has been learned and how future partnerships might operate.

Dosage Problems

One of the problems encountered in several of the local projects was the "dosage" of community policing that was to be evaluated. In most instances, the problem was that the research teams had not measured the community policing activities in terms of, for example, resources and time. Instead, they jumped to the measurement of impact under the assumption that the dosage had been sufficient to achieve measurable results. When "no significant findings" occurred in the impact evaluation, the research teams usually concluded that the dosage was insufficient to achieve significant effects.

As was explained in one of the final reports,

> A very plausible reason for the absence of any convincing effect of the program on attitudes might be in the way it was implemented and carried out. That is, the program utilized only a few officers, assignments involved primarily late afternoon and evening shifts and commitment to the program by others in the department may not have been as enthusiastic as it was among the officers assigned to it.

If the research teams had conducted a *process evaluation* before measuring impact, they might have realized that trying to measure impact would be an exercise in futility. A process evaluation looks at the way in which a program is implemented and determines whether the program is worthy of further study. Most evaluation researchers recommend a process evaluation before proceeding to impact.

Even in projects where impacts were positive as measured by internal and external surveys, there is insufficient information on the dosage levels. While some projects measured the inputs to the process, they generally made no statements about the adequacy of the input in relationship to the positive results achieved.

Surveys

With regard to surveys, it is safe to conclude that the majority of projects in the program underestimated the amount of time and resources needed to conduct surveys. For the most part, before participating in the LIRP program, police departments had been the subjects of surveys conducted by outside researchers. The departments simply had to provide the respondents and help conduct the survey. They were not usually involved in the development of the survey instrument, analysis of the survey, or reporting of results. By contrast, in the LIRP program, the project teams of practitioners and researchers were responsible for all aspects of the survey.

Selection of topics was the first step in the survey effort. The sites that were most successful in this regard were those that conducted focus groups to identify the topics. The project teams then had to determine whether the survey would be conducted by mail, by telephone, or in person. In the LIRP program, that decision was related to the available budget, the objectives of the survey, and the time available. With regard to response rates, results from the program show the usual pattern of increasing response rates from mail surveys to telephone surveys to face-to-face surveys.

Focus Groups

The LIRP program verifies what is generally known about the advantages and disadvantages of focus groups. They are an effective way of gathering information and opinions in a relatively short period. As reported by researchers who directed focus groups, they tended to be dynamic and spontaneous. Rather than just responding to the moderator, group members interact, engaging one another in conversation about the topics and issues. Most moderators had an agenda for the groups but allowed discussion to be loosely organized. They found it important to guide the discussion toward the topics of major interest in the research, while at the same time delving into the assumptions and feelings that underlie the attitudes and opinions expressed. Perhaps the major disadvantage of focus group research is the limitation on the number of participants who can be included. Even when several focus group discussions are held, findings

may still be based on a small sample, making it difficult to generalize the results. In addition, focus groups require a great deal of skill and expertise on the moderator's part. A moderator needs to be trained in the art of asking questions and guiding the discussion. Perhaps for that reason, the focus groups in the LIRP program tended to have more than one member of the project team in attendance.

A particular challenge was deciding which results to include in reports on focus groups. A review of available reports shows that they usually contained two levels of results. One level focused on the most crucial findings—those for which near-consensus had been reached. Those results could be either positive or negative. A second level included findings that were expressed by some participants but might not be universally true. At both levels, the reports usually included support information that amplified and extended the overall findings.

A particularly good application of focus groups in the LIRP program was to explain the results of surveys to selected groups. At the local level, such focus groups were important, especially when the audience consisted of decision makers or of respondents to the surveys. In either case, the projects employing that approach found that their survey results received greater attention than if the teams had merely sent a report.

Interviews

In a general sense, interviews as a research tool in the LIRP projects served several purposes. One was to gather data for understanding issues or responses to organizational changes. Interviewers might seek to gather information that could be of possible joint or mutual relevance, such as the feelings and concerns about a change. In some instances, the interviews were conducted to gain information for devising a questionnaire.

Good interviewing technique is an art acquired through experience. Less-skilled interviewers may make errors. One error is a miscommunication in which either the interviewer fails to make clear to the respondent what is being asked, or the respondent fails to make clear his or her responses. A second type of error is simply a mistake in memory, whereby by the respondent misremembers what occurred or did not occur. A final type of error occurs when the respondent adds or omits information in order to make a good impression on the interviewer or to prevent the interviewer from finding out something.

During the course of the evaluation, ILJ received anecdotal information that all those errors occurred to some extent during the course of the research projects. There was, however, no indication that they adversely affected research outcomes. The project teams appeared to be careful in triangulating their results so that errors in interviews were identified.

Experiments

Perhaps one of the greatest disappointments in the LIRP program was the lack of quasi-experimental designs as a research tool. Reasons for the lack of experiments have already been given and generally are related to the circumstances surrounding community policing interventions. As time went on, however, it might have been expected that more experimental designs would start to appear. That should happen as the members of the project teams learn from each other and become most accustomed to conducting research in the agencies. During the evaluation period, we saw no evidence of increased interest in experimental design at the local level.

Chapter 7

Initiating and Sustaining Partnerships

This evaluation worked to identify factors important to the success or failure of the partnerships. Sites behaved differently according to whether the researchers and police practitioners had research relationships before the LIRP project began. New partnerships generally took longer to get under way because the two groups had to develop good working relationships and build mutual trust and respect. They tended to start with "safe" projects, such as a survey on community policing or research on topics in which the police personnel and researchers already had considerable background. In established partnerships, the police personnel and researchers embarked on more sensitive or "riskier" projects. For example, the researchers might be asked to participate in high-level meetings on organizational problems or on how to proceed with community policing in the jurisdiction. Across the sites, the six key factors in success were to develop effective working relationships, acquire an understanding of local police culture, make use of undergraduate and graduate students, develop trust, tailor products to fit the local audience, and learn the benefits and limitations of local research.

One of the evaluation's objectives was to identify factors that were important to the success or failure of partnerships. Toward that aim, ILJ staff conducted numerous interviews with researchers and practitioners involved at the project sites. We also reviewed relevant literature both inside and outside the criminal justice field regarding discussed factors of importance to partnerships. This chapter presents our findings on the key factors identified as important in the LIRP program.

The chapter is divided into two parts. The first part discusses the initial project relationships, focusing on whether the partnerships were new or whether the partners had worked together before. While a precise dichotomy was not found, we were able to place the projects generally in one category or the other and make observations about the influence of this breakdown to the research efforts. The second part of the chapter discusses six major factors for successful partnerships. Examples are included in the discussion.

Initial Project Relationships

All the projects fell into one of two categories at the outset of their project periods. Either the researchers and police had a previous relationship or they did not. There was variation

within each category, but this was found to be the most useful way to group the sites. Exhibit 7-1 summarizes the relationships between the key researchers and police practitioners at the start of the project.

Previous Relationships

In many of the project sites, a relationship already existed between the researchers and the law enforcement agency. These prior relationships can be further classified as more formal or less formal, or institutional or personal. However, in many of the sites, the line between these categories was fuzzy.

Exhibit 7-1: NIJ's Locally Initiated Research Partnerships

Development of Community Policing

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Prior Relationship
Ada County Sheriff's Office (ID)	Boise State University	"A Partnership Proposal: The Ada County Sheriff's Office and Boise State University"	No prior research projects.
Alachua County Sheriff's Office (FL)	University of Florida	"Alachua County Sheriff's Office Research Partnership with the University of Florida"	No prior research projects.
Albuquerque Police Dept. (NM)	University of New Mexico	"Creating a Culture of Community Policing"	Police dept. and university had research relationship since 1990 but principal researcher on this project was new.
Alfred Police Dept. and Wellsville Police Dept. (NY)	Alfred University	"Increasing the Effectiveness and Efficiency of Rural Police Departments"	No prior research projects. However, the principal researcher had been a part-time officer with Wellsville Police Dept.
Arlington County Police Dept. (VA)	The Urban Institute	"Locally Initiated Research Partnership with Arlington County Police Department"	No prior research projects.
Baltimore Police Dept. (MD)	The Johns Hopkins University	"Restructuring the Role of Police Sergeant by Identifying Character Traits Associated with Success"	Department personnel had taken courses at university but no prior research projects.
Bay City Police Dept. (MI)	Saginaw Valley State University	"The Fast Track Program Study: Tracking Non-violent Juvenile Crime Offenders"	No prior research projects. However, university faculty had conducted training seminars at the dept.
Boston Police Dept. (MA)	Northeastern University and Harvard University	"Strategic Planning and Community Mobilization Project: Framework for Local Policing Research"	Department had worked previously with the College of Criminal Justice at Northeastern and the Program in Criminal Justice Policy Management at the Kennedy School, Harvard.
Buffalo Police Dept. (NY)	State University of New York–Buffalo	"Policing Research and Evaluation"	No prior research projects. However, some police personnel had attended leadership training at the university.
Chandler Police Dept., Glendale Police Dept., and Scottsdale Police Dept. (AZ)	Arizona State University	"Expanding Research Capacity to Support the Implementation of Community Policing"	No prior research projects. Key researcher was relatively new to the area.

Exhibit 7-1: NIJ's Locally Initiated Research Partnerships (continued)

Development of Community Policing

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Prior Relationship
Charleston Police Dept. (WV)	Marshall University	"Impact of Charleston, West Virginia, Community Oriented Policing"	No prior research projects. However, university researchers were known to the police dept. through city's Public Safety Council.
Colorado Springs Police Dept. and El Paso County Sheriff's Dept. (CO)	Colorado University	"Policing Evaluation through Academic Research: SPAN"	Key researcher had done occasional research on ad hoc basis at the police dept. for over 20 years. Had not established an ongoing relationship.
Council Grove Police Dept. (KS)	Kansas State University	"Council Grove and KSU Law Enforcement Team Project"	No prior research projects.
Daphne, Foley, Gulf Shores, Loxley, and Baldwin County (AL)	University of Southern Alabama	"A Partnership for Research in Community Policing Strategies"	Department personnel had taken courses at university but no prior research projects.
El Centro Police Dept. (CA)	San Diego State University	"Community Policing in El Centro"	No prior research projects. Chief of police had master's degree from university and was adjunct professor.
Hagerstown Police Dept. (MD)	Shippensburg University	"Evaluation of Community Policing Project"	Department personnel had taken courses at university but no prior research projects.
Jersey City Police Dept. (NJ)	Rutgers University	"Developing and Expanding Problem-solving Partnerships in Jersey City"	Department personnel had done several NIJ research projects with Rutgers University.
Lansing Police Dept. (MI)	Michigan State University	"Forming a Research Partnership: Lansing PD and MSU"	Department personnel had taken courses at university. Department had served as site for research projects.
Lexington Police Dept. (KY)	Eastern Kentucky University	"A Research Partnership Between Lexington PD and EKU"	Chief of police and other police personnel had taken courses at university. University researchers had conducted prior studies at the dept.
Los Angeles Police Dept. (CA)	University of CA at Los Angeles and University of Southern CA	"Implementing Community Policing in Los Angeles: A Partnership Between LAPD, UCLA and USC"	No prior research projects. However, university researchers had tracked changes over an 18-month period in the organization prior to project.
Lowell, Salem, and Danvers Police Depts. (MA)	Salem State University	"Locally Initiated Research and Evaluation Project"	Department personnel had taken courses and been on faculty at university but no prior research projects.

Exhibit 7-1: NIJ's Locally Initiated Research Partnerships (continued)

Development of Community Policing

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Prior Relationship
Multiple sites	Southern Illinois University	"Downstate Illinois Law Enforcement Applied Research Network"	Department personnel had taken courses at university but no prior research projects.
Oakland Police Dept. (CA)	University of California at Berkeley	"Collaboration Between Oakland PD and UC Berkeley"	Key researcher had done research projects at the police dept. over 20 years.
Omaha Police Dept. (NE)	University of Nebraska at Omaha	"Generating and Using Research to Guide Change in a Local Law Enforcement Agency by Establishing a Research Partnership"	University faculty had been involved in the Drug Use Forecasting project since 1980s, in conducting surveys, and serving as advisors on committees.
Philadelphia Police Dept. (PA)	Temple University	"State of Community Policing in Philadelphia: A Collaborative Research Effort between the Philadelphia PD and Temple University"	Department personnel had taken courses at the university. The key researcher from the university had a long-standing research relationship with the department.
Racine Police Dept. (WI)	University of Wisconsin	"Meeting the Needs of Racine Citizens: Evaluation of Community Policing"	The LIRP project was a continuation of research activities between the police dept. and university.
St. Louis Police Dept. (MO)	St. Louis University	"A Joint Research Partnership for Community Oriented Policing"	Dept. personnel had taken courses at the university. The key researcher had done other projects at the dept.
West Virginia State Police	The FOCUS Coalition	"Process and Outcomes Evaluation of Community Policing Initiatives in Jefferson County"	No prior research projects. However, FOCUS Coalition had worked with all three participating agencies.

Computer Mapping/CompStat Projects

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	Prior Relationship
Charlottesville PD, Albemarle County PD, and U.Va. Campus Police (VA)	University of Virginia	"Community Policing: A Police/Academic Partnership for Evaluation and Research"	No prior research projects.
Forest Park Police Department (OH)	University of Cincinnati	"Establishing a Research Partnership"	Chief of police and other police personnel had taken courses at university. University researchers had conducted prior studies at the dept.
Indianapolis Police Dept. (IN)	Indiana University and Hudson Institute	"Criminology Against Crime: Criminologists and Crime Control for the Indianapolis Police Department"	Key researcher was deputy chief criminologist at police dept. However, the dept. had never done projects with Hudson Institute.

Exhibit 7-1: NIJ's Locally Initiated Research Partnerships (continued)

Computer Mapping / CompStat Projects

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	PriorRelationship
New York City Police Dept. (NY)	City University of New York	"Identify and Evaluate Methods for Measuring and Analyzing Crime Patterns and Trends with GIS"	No prior research projects. Hunter College was a member of a police dept. committee set up to advise on GIS technology.
Prince George's County Police Dept. (MD)	University of Maryland	"Partnership Against Crime: University of Maryland with the PG County PD"	Police department and university had started small research projects about one year before this partnership.

Domestic Violence Projects

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	PriorRelationship
Berkeley Police Dept. (CA)	East Bay Public Safety Corridor and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency	"Domestic Violence Intervention Project"	No prior research projects. However, Berkeley was a member of the East Bay Public Safety Corridor Partnership, which includes 23 law enforcement agencies.
Framingham Police Dept. (MA)	Social Science Research and Evaluation, Inc.	"Locally Initiated Research Partnership: The Framingham PD and SSRE, Inc."	SSRE was known to the police dept. as an evaluator of alcohol and drug abuse program, but they had not done research together directly.
Rapid City (SD), Pocatello (ID), Eureka (CA), and Redding (CA) Police Depts.	LINC	"Demonstrating a Cost-Effective Approach for Locally Initiated Police Research in Small and Medium-Sized Cities"	No prior research projects.
Seattle Police Dept. (WA)	University of Washington	"Targeting Cycles of Domestic Violence"	This was first formal collaboration. Researchers and dept. had worked together informally in the past.

Development of Research Capacities

Police Dept.	Researcher	Project Title	PriorRelationship
Florida Law Enforcement Research Coalition	Florida State University	"Forging a Florida Law Enforcement Research Coalition"	University researchers had done research with some police departments in the state.
Multiple sites	IACP and JRSA	"Police Researcher Partnerships: Building the Infrastructure for Effective Program Evaluation"	No prior research projects. However, both the IACP and JRSA were well known to the participating police departments.

* The Charlotte-Mecklenburg and New Orleans police departments began their projects as partners with IACP and JRSA. Later, they acquired separate continuation funding.

For about half the sites that had a previous relationship, the relationship was based on personal contacts not related to research work for the department. For example, in Hagerstown, the site visit observer reported that the police department approached two researchers from Shippensburg University on the recommendation of a sergeant working in the Research and Planning Division who was matriculated at Shippensburg. Several other members of the police department had also been students at that school's criminal justice program in the past. The Boston partnership is similar. Many police officers on that city's force were graduates of the Northeastern University criminal justice program; some, including a key project staff member on the police side, were adjunct faculty at Northeastern.

Salem State University and the lead researcher were also well known to the three departments (Lowell, Salem, and Danvers, Massachusetts) involved in that project. Police personnel from all three agencies had been students and faculty at Salem State. The three sites also had previous working relationships, as the police personnel had worked together on other projects, and many of them were members of the training team that functioned under the auspices of the New England Crime Prevention Institute. The University of Cincinnati was well known to the Forest Park Police Department, and the nature of the relationship is described in that project's final report to NIJ:[19]

> The Forest Park Police Department and the Division of Criminal Justice at the University of Cincinnati had traditionally enjoyed an exchange relationship. For over a decade university students had served internships with the police division, several members of the police division had taken degrees at the university, and there had been numerous instances of cooperation on research and community service projects. What had been missing from this relationship was the element of collaboration. The two organizations had a tradition of cooperation characterized primarily by "quid pro quo" arrangements.

The Omaha project also had a hybrid history. The initiator of the project at the University of Nebraska at Omaha was known to many at the police department as a teacher. However, there was also a connection between the university and the Omaha Police Department (OPD) at a research level. The project's final report states,[20]

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[19] Lawrence Travis and Kenneth Hughes, *Establishing a Research Partnership: The Forest Park Police Department and the University of Cincinnati.* Report submitted to the National Institute of Justice, 1999.

[20] The College of Public Affairs and Community Service, University of Nebraska at Omaha, *Generating and Using Research to Guide Change in a Local Law Enforcement Agency by Establishing a Research Partnership*

Prior to the time that the partnership grant was developed, contact between OPD and UNO researchers was increasing and OPD had experience in providing a setting where local and national researchers conducted research…. [However,] most research activity had been conducted on an ad hoc basis with OPD providing access and data for research projects initiated for UNO researchers…. Although findings from these research efforts had been disseminated in academic journals and impacted the body of academic literature on crime and criminal justice policy, they had little direct utility for the Omaha Police Department.

Many other sites had similar prior relationships between the researchers and the police. The Albuquerque partnership had a relationship going back to 1990, when University of New Mexico researchers began conducting annual citizen surveys for the Albuquerque Police Department (APD), looking at citizen satisfaction, fear of crime, and victimization. However, the principal researcher from the university had no prior research experience with police departments, and the LIRP project was therefore his first project with the APD.

Social Science Research and Evaluation, Inc. (SSRE), had worked with the Framingham Police Department for five years before this grant as the evaluator for the Framingham Coalition for the Prevention of Alcohol and Drug Abuse. In St. Louis, the lead researcher from St. Louis University had enjoyed a 15-year relationship with the police department as the principal investigator for its call-for-service "audit" and had participated in a number of training activities. The site visit report from Jersey City notes that the partnership between the Jersey City Police Department and Rutgers University's Center for Crime Prevention Studies had developed steadily through work on four research grants awarded since 1990.

The prior relationship in Philadelphia was also a mix of personal and professional. The lead researcher knew several commanders in the police department on a personal basis and had consulted on occasion with the department. However, the police department had never contracted with Temple University for research services.

New Partnerships

An existing relationship was not a requirement for this project, and there were sites where the police department and research group had never worked together before and had no personal contacts upon which to build a working relationship.

Between the Omaha Police Department and the University of Nebraska at Omaha. Report submitted to the Na-

Buffalo is an example of a project that represented the first partnership between the police department and the State University of New York–Buffalo. Previous attempts by SUNY Buffalo staff to work with the department had never gotten off the ground. After the arrival of a new police commissioner, the university finally received an interested response to its overtures, and the two groups developed a proposal for the LIRP program.

The Council Grove, Kansas, project started after a city administrator saw the NIJ announcement of the LIRP program funding opportunity and contacted Kansas State University to see if he could interest someone in a project. The lead researcher and the chief of police had never even met before. The same situation was true for the partnership between LINC and its initial four sites. The primary LINC researcher met the key police representatives from those four sites at the first LIRP cluster conference. Their proposal had been developed through an exchange of e-mails, letters, and telephone conversations. As it turns out, that partnership was very successful and expanded to several surrounding police agencies.

Contrasts Between New and Existing Partnerships

As might be expected, there were clear differences in how the research proceeded at a site depending on whether a prior relationship existed between the police personnel and researchers. For example, new partnerships generally took longer to develop because the two groups had to develop mutually acceptable working relationships. They had to spend time together in both formal meetings and informal gatherings to develop mutual trust and respect.

With new partnerships, there was a tendency to start with a "safe" project, such as a group of interviews or a survey about community policing. These projects were generally of minor importance to the police department and did not have a great impact on policies and procedures. In other cases involving new partnerships, what made a topic "safe" was that it was one in which the police personnel and researchers already had considerable background. For example, a researcher who brought knowledge of and experience with organizational development might suggest a research topic in that area rather than, for example, a topic having to do with domestic violence. In a few projects, such as the LINC partnership, the key researcher sometimes operated as a *matchmaker* to meet the needs of a police department. When the key researcher did not feel comfortable with a research topic, she would seek out other researchers across the country

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tional Institute of Justice, 1998.

with that expertise and bring them on board to conduct specific research. That procedure worked well during the duration of her project.

In established partnerships, the police personnel and researchers embarked on more sensitive or "riskier" projects. For example, the researchers might be asked to participate in high-level meetings on organizational problems or on how to proceed with community policing in the jurisdiction. Such assignments generally did not occur unless the police personnel had previously worked with the researchers and felt confident about their participation in these meetings. In new partnerships, as time passed, researchers were asked to take on more important assignments. In fact, an indicator of success for a researcher was to be asked to do other work for an agency.

Finally, all research projects tended to fall behind schedule. In new partnerships, research tended to take longer than it did in existing partnerships. One reason was that in existing partnerships, the researchers usually knew more about the department's organization, who to see to get information, and the location of valuable research data.

Sustaining a Successful Partnership

Police executives and researchers who are interested in establishing partnerships, whether new or an extension of a previous relationship, will likely have a number of questions before they make a commitment. Generally, police practitioners want to know more about the researchers, their proposed methods, the extent to which the project will disrupt established schedules and routines, and how the research results will benefit the department. Researchers want to know how they should approach police whom they see as prospective partners, the departmental approvals needed to launch the project, and the key personnel and data sources available to assist them.

Handling these initial matters well can pave the way for a smoother working relationship as the research project moves forward. Beyond that, another major objective of the LIRP program was to build a foundation for continued police–researcher collaboration. The question then becomes how to sustain the partnership as a routine means of conducting research. ILJ's evaluation staff addressed these questions through the broader question: What constitutes a successful police–researcher partnership? Six major factors (see Exhibit 7-2) were found to be crucial.

Exhibit 7-2: Major Factors for Successful Partnerships

Major Factors	Contributors
• Develop effective working relationships.	• Operate with a flexible hierarchy. • Ensure that key personnel remain in place. • Develop common goals and mutual expectations. • Build on the strengths and contacts of key personnel. • Clearly define roles and responsibilities. • Obtain the support of the police union. • Include an officer committee from the start. • Maintain open and frequent communication.
• Acquire an understanding of local police culture.	
• Make use of undergraduate and graduate students.	
• Develop trust.	• "Pay your dues" (researchers). • Overcome police suspicions of researcher motivations. • Earn a reputation for objectivity (researchers).
• Tailor products to fit the local audience.	
• Learn the benefits and limitations of local research.	• Consider the quality of local data systems. • Develop a research agenda that is manageable in size and scope.

Develop Effective Working Relationships

The evaluation identified six specific factors for effective working relationships between police and researchers. While it might not be necessary to incorporate every factor into a partnership, the successful projects did implement a majority of them.

Operate with a Flexible Hierarchy

A tenet of the LIRP program was that all members of the project team should be involved in each step of the research process—problem selection, reconnaissance, research plan, analysis, and others. In practice, different parts of the team are likely to dominate different stages of the project. Police practitioners generally play the leading role in problem selection, researchers generally take the lead in developing the research plan and doing the analysis, and practitioners move forward with making recommendations based on the research. The result is a *flexible hierarchy* in which the dominating partner changes depending on the research stage. Each research stage presents a hierarchy, either implicit or explicit. If the partnership is to be successful, the hierarchy must be flexible. Over time, the hierarchy should become fluid, continually changing with the needs of the research.

Ensure That Key Personnel Remain in Place

The majority of the projects experienced changes in key personnel during their operation. Such changes generally resulted in project delays and, in a few instances, in a change of the project's emphasis. Turnover occurred among both police personnel and researchers. Key personnel in police agencies were promoted or transferred, or they resigned or retired, during the course of several projects. In those instances, new personnel had to be assigned to the research, with the result of at least a disruption in the project's schedule. On the other side, some researchers left for a position with another research firm or moved to another university. In three projects, for example, key researchers did not receive tenure at their universities and left the next semester to join other universities. Again, the effect was to disrupt the project's schedule, at the least.

The loss of personnel can have several other effects on the research. When police personnel leave a research project, it may be more difficult to get the cooperation of other police personnel in the research and to take advantage of research results. The key police personnel were frequently advocates for the research topic that was the focus of the partnership and were in a position to promote changes based on the results.

For example, a police commander who really wanted to see the police department transition to community policing might use the results of a survey to promote operational changes. His or her replacement might not have the same level of commitment to change. The survey results in that case might not be widely disseminated or used as a springboard for action. On the

other hand, the loss of a researcher can sometimes be more difficult to recover from if the researcher brought special skills to the effort. For example, a departing researcher with expertise in survey designs would have to be replaced with someone with similar skills.

More importantly, many partnerships are built on personal relationships between a police practitioner and a researcher. For example, the practitioner may have taken a course from a university professor and developed a working relationship. When that bond is broken, it is difficult to replace.

Perhaps the most extreme example of personnel change in a program occurred in the Forest Park Police Department–University of Cincinnati effort, which almost witnessed the demise of the partnership due to personnel turnover. By September 1998, three of the four original members of the project team were no longer involved in the project. The new command staff of the police department was not (and had not been) actively involved in the partnership. The police department, which at the time had no permanent chief, was in a state of turmoil. The final report states:

> The partnership did not create an interorganizational relationship that transcended the personnel involved. Further, the work of the partnership was confined to the interests of those persons, rather than to topics of fundamental importance to either organization. Thus, with the turnover in personnel, the partnership itself was jeopardized.

Interestingly, a captain in the Forest Park Police Department who was the key police practitioner in the partnership left the department to become director of a Regional Community Policing Institute, which was another initiative funded by the COPS Office. The partnership languished after he left. A few months later, the chief of police retired. At that time, the city asked the captain to return as chief, which he did; and only then did the research get back on schedule.

The LIRP program contains many other examples of personnel turnover that occurred during the course of the partnerships. At one site, the key researcher retired from the university after 20 years. He had been conducting research intermittently with the police department during that time and had known the chief during his entire career. The chief of police in another site left the department to accept a position with a federal agency. The chief had been a strong proponent of the partnership effort, and his departure changed the emphasis and direction of the research. In another project, the two key researchers from a university accepted positions with research

companies and moved to another state. The research was never successfully continued after their departure. Finally, a researcher who left because of tenure denial was replaced by a newly hired professor from out of state who did not have the same personal relationships with police in the area.

Develop Common Goals and Mutual Expectations

The evaluation found it was important for researchers to include the police in the creation of a research agenda. Police departments planning extensive change are more likely to value and actively participate in partnership research that directly supports the change process. The evaluators found that the departments that were most enthusiastic about their LIRP projects were those that received useful feedback on significant changes in departmental organization and function. In Omaha, the partnership was proclaimed a success on the basis of one part of the larger project, an evaluation of the new Total Quality Management (TQM) implemented by the department. Some other portions of the Omaha project did not work out with the same degree of mutual satisfaction. The most noticeable difference was that in the case of the TQM study, the researchers and police personnel had developed a common goal and shared the same expectations.

The key point is that the partnership needs to be a joint effort with a common goal. Researchers and police personnel must agree on that goal and then work together to achieve it, rather than following the traditional model in which researchers propose goals and objectives and work on them independently.

Build on the Strengths and Contacts of Key Personnel

Prior relationships, whether formal or informal, between the police department and the research organization proved advantageous. Such relationships could be on either an organizational or a personal level—between a chief and a professor, for example.

In some of the partnerships, the prior relationship was critical to the eventual success of the project. In more than 15 partnership sites, a prior relationship existed between the police department and the research organization—either through key personnel having worked together or through prior research efforts between the organizations. Those preexisting relationships helped get a number of the partnerships off the ground in a timely fashion and kept them going through challenging times.

There were, of course, sites where partnerships were successfully created without the existence of a prior relationship. Buffalo is one such example. Not only had the researchers not worked with the BPD before, but the police department had traditionally resisted any work with the university. While that made the early months of the project challenging for the researchers as they sought acceptance in the department, in the end, good rapport was established. The same can be said for the partnership between LINC and its partner agencies. In addition to the usual obstacles faced in forming a new partnership, the key researcher lived in the Washington, D.C., area, while the agencies were in the west. In spite of the geographic distance, the partnership proved successful in its research on domestic violence.

Clearly Define Roles and Responsibilities

Roles and duties in the partnership should be assigned to *positions* within both the police department and the research organization, rather than to individual incumbents. A degree of staff turnover was seen in almost every site, and in some cases the level of turnover was severe. Turnover became problematic when the obligations to the partnership were not formalized within the organization but were instead tied to one person with no provision for the continuation of the project in that person's absence. Organizing a formal structure that identifies which positions are to participate in the partnership allows for greater continuity of the partnership when personnel changes occur. Some of the sites where this type of partnership structure was in place included Philadelphia, Jersey City, Charlottesville, and Colorado Springs.

Obtain the Support of the Police Union

At some of the sites, the support of the police union was vital to the continuation of the project. For example, at least one commander found himself in a difficult position when his allegiances were divided between department leaders, who wanted organizational change, and the union. As the site visit report explains, "As a result of this project, this commander sees the value of research and supports many of the changes in the department; however, his role as a union member pressures him to resist both research and change."[21] The disconnect between the goals of the department and the wishes of the union forced the researcher at that site to tread cautiously for the first few months of the project. Through a series of smaller activities, however, the researcher was able to gain the trust and support of the union without alienating the

command staff. Once the support of both was achieved, the project was able to begin assisting the department in its move toward community policing.

A survey conducted at another site also shed light on the importance of good relations with the local police union. An officer completing the survey observed that "getting over the natural suspicions that police have about change and purposes for change [is difficult]. The need to maintain a positive relationship with the union is very important" if this is going to be accomplished.[22]

Include an Officer Committee from the Start

The analysis of experiences across the LIRP sites showed that a variety of officers need to be included in the planning stage of a research project. If the sole contribution of the police department to the research agenda is made through the chief or other high-ranking officials, it may not truly reflect the views of the beat officers. Furthermore, if the rank and file cannot see the relevance of the study to their jobs, they may hamper the research effort through a lack of enthusiasm or assistance.

The Salem State University group recognized this fact early on, stating in an interim report in 1996 that "in order for the project to be successful, the research team requires meaningful collaboration at the management level as well as at the operational level."[23] The researchers in Framingham, observed that the inclusion of the Domestic Violence Unit investigators in designing the survey increased the investigators' willingness to take on the extra work involved in administering it.

A number of the sites formed committees made up of police personnel to oversee and guide the project activities. For example, in Buffalo a steering committee of police officers was created, and it was this group that decided in what direction the project would go. The researchers took their cues from the committee. The project's final report states, "The researchers defined their own role as service providers to assist the steering committee to develop those strate-

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[21]   Timothy Bynum, *Locally Initiated Research Partnership Site Visit Report: Buffalo, New York,* July 1997.
[22]   Edward LeClair, *Semi-Annual Progress Report for 1/1/96 through 6/30/96.* Report submitted to the National Institute of Justice, 1996.
[23]   *Ibid.*

gies. As one member of the steering committee said, 'The committee was what we made of it, and the university regularly reminded us that we steered the project.'"[24]

For Philadelphia, a very important component of its two LIRP projects was the use of administrative and officer committees to advise the research team. During the planning grant, the committees met monthly and worked on all aspects of the project. They assisted with the content and language of the surveys and questionnaires as well as with interpreting the findings. Throughout the project period, committee members voiced their opinions openly in working sessions, enabling the researchers to hear each group's point of view. The committee members also discussed the projects with their fellow officers, explaining the scope and purpose of the studies.

In Jefferson County, West Virginia, police officers helped the researchers from FOCUS draft the research agenda, and citizens were consulted in setting priorities. FOCUS is a community-based coalition that works through task forces, and the criminal justice task force existed before the partnership. The task force was a ready-made committee of law enforcement personnel, concerned citizens, and criminal justice professionals.

Maintain Open and Frequent Communication

It might seem obvious, but open and frequent communication was key to the development of effective working relationships, and it is something some sites struggled with. Other sites rose to the challenge, however, and developed interesting and innovative ways of keeping the lines of communication open and in frequent use.

Some sites established offices within the police departments for the research staff, a practice that encouraged informal communication between the partners. In St. Louis, space inside the department was made available for the researchers, and police were more comfortable communicating with them there.

Even in sites where office space was not available to the researchers, informal interaction was often vital, and in many cases the researchers established personal contacts through which much communication took place. Other sites, like Philadelphia, used more formal means (the administrative and officer committees discussed earlier). The committees relayed relevant in-

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[24] Raymond Hunt, Pamela Beal, *et al.*, *Developing a Research Partnership Between a University and a Police Department: The UBSOM-BPD Partnership Project.* Report submitted to the National Institute of Justice, 1999.

formation back to officers involved in community policing. In Los Angeles, the researchers held regular feedback meetings with the command staff and the area captains.

At other sites, where geography and logistics made it difficult for the researchers to work from the department or meet with police staff regularly. Some of those sites managed to stay in good communication through phone calls and e-mail, with less frequent face-to-face meetings.

Still other sites used conferences to share ideas and feedback. JRSA and IACP held a conference for their partner sites. Salem State hosted a regional conference not only for its three partner agencies, but also for other local police departments that were interested in the program and its findings.

An important point brought out in one of the site visit reports is that open communication should not be limited to the police staff assigned to the project. In at least one site, although the main police contacts communicated regularly with the research staff, the officers most directly affected by the research were never in contact with the researchers. That is a marked contrast to the Philadelphia example, where the committees gave the line officers a voice in the research process and a reliable means of communicating with the researchers.

Acquire an Understanding of Local Police Culture

A second major factor for successful partnerships was the researchers' ability and willingness to understand the local police culture. Not only was this crucial to developing a strong working relationship, but it also assisted the researchers in assessing the departments' research needs and in formulating realistic recommendations from the research findings. Aspects of police culture that researchers should pay attention to include the police officers' attitudes toward their jobs, the history of relationships among department personnel, the jurisdiction's political environment, and the perception of community policing philosophy and implementation among law enforcement personnel.

Developing an understanding of the local police culture is especially important when the researcher has not worked with the police department in the past or has never been involved in police research at all. Virtually all researchers involved in the LIRP projects had educational backgrounds from criminal justice programs. In fact, most had doctoral degrees in administration of justice, sociology, or related fields. Their education included courses on research design

and statistical analysis. However, many had not worked directly with police organizations and found that that lack of familiarity with local police culture presented a barrier to their effectiveness. For example, one researcher whose partnership was with a large police department stated that he had problems in understanding the political environment both within the department and from city hall. The comment was especially insightful because the researcher had conducted major research with private industry. The contrast he drew was that the police department was much more open in providing access to people and data for research than was private industry, but more difficult to understand in the political sphere.

An immense amount of effort is required to truly understand the local police culture. Researchers must understand that the culture has developed over a long period of time. The culture can be influenced by policing practices that have developed over the years, by specific incidents that have caused changes in the department, by personal relationships among commanders who have worked together for many years, and by citizens' expectations of policing.

Make Use of Undergraduate and Graduate Students

A number of the partnerships suggest that their projects were excellent forums for student work. On one level, students can aid in the overall success of the project by providing knowledgeable research staff at a significantly reduced cost. Certainly, in many of the sites graduate students held key positions and performed a variety of tasks.

In Buffalo, the university's intern program was a significant partner in the project. Interns completed a number of specific, smaller projects under the auspices of the LIRP program. For example, one graduate student conducted an organizational review of the investigative operations of the department and made recommendations for changes. Another developed a computer crime mapping capability for the department. Others worked in district stations, developing small databases for local use. The projects were well received by the police department, since they could not have been accomplished internally.

The use of graduate assistants on projects like these is beneficial to all involved, as is evidenced by comments made by the graduate assistants as well as the police. For example, one graduate assistant wrote:[25]

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[25]   *Ibid.*

My overall assessment of the internship is that it was a rewarding and development-rich environment where I was able to learn the intricate operations of the detective division and how an MIS department works within a law enforcement agency…. This internship met my expectations of gaining valuable experience in a real world setting unattainable through class study. I was able to interact with actual people working on a real project which would be used later to implement a large scale project.

The final report from Buffalo states, "Interns are now well received throughout the BPD. As one manager said, 'We couldn't have afforded to send our people to get trained in what they walked through the door with.'"[26]

In Jersey City, students from Rutgers University were used extensively at the beginning of the project. They conducted a survey of businesses and also reported their observations of physical conditions in the area. Charlottesville made use of graduate students from the University of Virginia. In Council Grove, the final opinion was that "community research projects provide unexcelled applied research opportunities for undergraduate and graduate students in addition to a source of income."[27] In that project, an undergraduate assisted with data collection and took an independent study course on rural policing. A graduate student worked as a research assistant on the project and was able to use the study data to write her master's thesis.

However, certain caveats should be kept in mind when making use of graduate students in what research participants hope will be long-term partnerships. The group from Charlottesville uncovered some of the drawbacks when it surveyed law enforcement officers on their views of the collaborative enterprise:[28]

Working with students is somewhat of a drawback. They go into the project short term; students (understandably) want the system to look good and to get a good grade. This doesn't mean that they don't do a good or excellent job, just that their goals are different. The main problem with having students participate directly seems to be that there is a problem with "keeping the feel" of the project. The continuity. There are enormous differences in being a student and being an employee of a software company with a deadline to meet. With stu-

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[26] *Ibid.*

[27] Karen Baird-Olson, *Doing What We've Always Done: A Case Study of Rural Policing.* Report Submitted to the National Institute of Justice, 1999.

[28] Janet Warren and Don Brown, *Regional Crime Analysis: Design, Implementation, and Integrative Strategies.* Report submitted to the National Institute of Justice, 1999.

dents who visit the police departments, there is the need to continually re-train them about the history of the project.

This is not to say that students should not be used on research partnerships, just that it is necessary to look more closely at the nature of their roles from the police perspective. It is not difficult to understand how the rapid turnover of students could be distracting to the police department but go virtually unnoticed by university researchers who are used to a regular change in their graduate assistants. The roles students play in long-term partnership projects should therefore be tailored to take this into account.

Develop Trust

Building trust is especially important when the partners have not previously worked together, but it is nevertheless an important factor for all partnerships. In many cases, it was necessary for a special effort to be made to introduce the research staff to the department and to introduce the police to the world of research. In examining issues of trust across the LIRP program sites, the study found it was incumbent upon researchers to (1) pay their dues, (2) help police overcome suspicions about researcher motivations, and (3) earn a reputation for objectivity.

"Pay Your Dues"

A number of researchers found it advantageous to "pay their dues" to achieve acceptance from the police. Several techniques were used, including accompanying police officers on ride-alongs, interviewing key staff department-wide rather than confining interviews to a single unit, and accommodating departmental requests for help on issues and problems that fell outside the scope of the research project. For example, the lead researcher in Buffalo spent the first six months interviewing sergeants and commanders. She felt that approach enabled her to win the confidence of the police managers, laying a foundation for later research. As discussed earlier, the department had no history of working with the university before planning the LIRP program grant application.

Other approaches that were used to foster the new relationships included trust-building exercises, conferences, and workshops. As noted earlier, some sites were able to make provisions for the researchers to work out of space in the department. While obviously not feasible in all places, that approach gave officers and researchers a better chance to get to know each other

on a less formal level. In all cases and whatever the tactic, participants felt that spending time up front to get used to each other was beneficial in the long term.

After the researchers gained acceptance, they sometimes became de facto extensions of the department's research and planning divisions. In Boston, for example, the researchers from Northeastern University were absorbed into the police department's internal research unit. The Boston Police Department had a small research and development unit and quickly came to appreciate the additional help. Similar acceptance was achieved in Indianapolis, but it took a considerable length of time. As one of the key researchers at that location stated,

> The police department is now very open to researchers. It's a remarkable place. When I started there in 1995, I was by myself. There are now four of us from Indiana University working there all the time and a fifth individual has submitted a fairly large proposal to NIJ…. I have graduate students sitting in meetings with senior commanders…. I even have a parking spot under the building.

The experiences in Los Angeles are a final example of how acceptance can be achieved over a period of time. In interviews with ILJ's evaluation staff, the principal researcher there made several comments on why he believes that a long-term relationship has now been established with the Los Angeles Police Department. He indicated, for example, that he strove to achieve contact in the middle levels of the department where turnover was less likely. In addition, he spends a considerable amount of time at the department visiting different units and interviewing as many people as possible. He has also "done everything possible to keep our research out of press." The intent is to serve the police department and improve decision making, not to make headlines in the paper. One of the key values that he sees for the university is this: "To us [university researchers] the LAPD provides an opportunity to help us move our university a little bit more into the real world." For the LAPD, it is an opportunity to get quick feedback from a trusted third party on a regular basis, especially from the surveys that were being conducted.

Overcome Suspicions of Researcher Motivations

Policing literature is full of examples of police officers being skeptical of researchers and their motivations for studying their departments. Often they are concerned about exploitation by the researcher, believe that the research being conducted will be of no use to them, or they may suspect that they will never see the results of the research. Several police practitioners had bad

experiences in working with researchers in the past. However, in those projects the researcher had initiated the project by asking permission for the police department to serve as the research site. The police department did not control the research. In several instances, the researcher conducted interviews, gathered data, and then went back to the research organization or university to write up the results. The final report might never be seen by anyone at the police department and might, in fact, be critical of the police operations in the area of the research. As police practitioners noted, it only takes one research effort of that sort to turn police against involvement with researchers.

In Charlotte, the researcher, who was on the faculty of the University of North Carolina, was hired by the police department to head the Research, Planning, and Analysis Bureau. Initially there was tension, as the officers varied in how they viewed the efforts of the bureau. Many of them were initially skeptical simply because it was headed by an "outsider." It also seems likely that the Sommerville Police Department dropped out of the Salem State University group early on in part because of a lack of trust between members of the department and the researchers.

One finding from the cross-site analysis was that suspicion was often lower when the law enforcement agency had initiated the partnership. Although there were a number of sites where the researcher approached the department about the project, that was typically in cases where a prior relationship existed. Less likely to work well were projects initiated by other local officials. Police agencies can be expected to balk at an official suggestion that they join a partnership unless they conclude independently that it would be beneficial.

One way a number of sites helped police overcome their suspicions of research was to include the police in the research work beyond the level of simple information sharing. A number of LIRP projects did not require large numbers of people to complete the research work, but in some cases, the lead researchers had to arrange for additional help. In some sites, the police officers themselves assisted in the administration of surveys and in other data collection and analysis activities. The Charlottesville group found that law enforcement personnel were eager to be more directly involved in the research process. They wanted to work with the researchers to find solutions and options, rather than wait for the researchers to present them with findings. Being

actively involved in research work could go far in helping police officers overcome their traditional suspicion of social science research.

Earn a Reputation for Objectivity

Formation of partnerships with the state Statistical Analysis Center (SAC) was one worthwhile approach used by some projects to speed up the process of earning a good reputation. Generally, SACs have a reputation for competence and objectivity with the law enforcement community in their states. JRSA and IACP required SAC involvement for all but one of the sites they oversaw, based on the rationale that SACs lend credibility to the working relationships through their proven track records and experience with local law enforcement agencies. Partnerships with state SACs were developed in Charleston; New Orleans; Baltimore County; Grand Rapids; and Wichita.

In a truly collaborative effort, police practitioners and researchers develop respect for each other and for the research. Both sides will want the research to be objective and lead to conclusions of value to the department. In the Baltimore project, practitioners and researchers worked closely together to develop an experimental design aimed at identifying exemplary sergeants for community policing. It was a difficult undertaking that required careful development along the way. The research was conducted in an objective manner, and the results were very beneficial to the police department.

However, objectivity does not always result in positive results or in results that the police department wants to hear. In some of the citizen surveys conducted at the partnership sites, the results showed shortcomings in the police department's community policing efforts. It is especially important in such cases that the research has been conducted in an objective manner so that no one can question the integrity of the final results. If that objectivity is achieved, then the bad news can be employed successfully to make changes in the department's approach to community policing and the next survey will, one hopes, show improvements.

Tailor Products to Fit the Local Audience

The Boston group raised this point during a site visit, when a project participant observed that "there are, of course, language and other differences between police practitioners and researchers that surface and require attention. In fact, I would recommend that you consider ad-

dressing this issue in the project report to NIJ."[29] The researchers from the University of Virginia noted that in their experience, officers not only wanted to be able to work with the researchers to find solutions to research problems, they also wanted to see more of the project outputs. It was observed that the average officer was generally unaware of all the products that had been produced by the researchers.

In addition to making sure that project reports were readily available to local clients, it was particularly important for the researchers to learn to speak the right language, especially when preparing local reports. Many participants agreed that results need to be presented in formats that are useful to the agency. In general, police agencies were not concerned with literature reviews or discussions of the research methodology. They wanted the results in a concise, readable format, free of researcher jargon. Consequently, we found that the types of products researchers should produce for their partners should include summaries, tables, or even slide shows of results.

The point is that the products useful at the local level are not the same as products useful at the national level. Most research efforts sponsored by NIJ result in a final report that includes an extensive literature review, details on the research design, results of the research supported by sophisticated statistical tests, national implications of the research, and recommendations for more research. Such products are not especially useful at the local level. Local products from the LIRP project are generally not in the form of extensive research reports. Instead, they tend to be short products emphasizing the results of the research and the implications for the department. Moreover, the format may be a set of tables, a group of overheads or PowerPoint presentations, a recommended organizational chart, or a revised general order. Local products from the projects are also specific to the police agency and may include names of key personnel, local police jargon, and references to departmental forms. Such products make sense for local use but have little value for national consumption.

This situation presents a dilemma for the sponsoring national agencies and local researchers. For the sponsoring agency, it raises the question of how to draw national conclusions from the research. Given that 41 projects were supported, there should be some expectation that global results could be made about particular research topics. The answer in this case is to con-

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[29] Steven Gaffigan, *Locally Initiated Research Partnership Site Visit Report: Boston,* August 1997.

duct a meta-evaluation of the projects to reach for general conclusions. For local researchers, the dilemma arises from their desire to have their results published in a refereed journal. When that is their wish, they must prepare local products of use to police practitioners, and then they must separately prepare a manuscript for submission to a journal.

Learn the Benefits and Limitations of Local Research

The cross-site study found many benefits to local research. In addition to helping law enforcement agencies review and alter their policies and operations, local partnerships also helped agencies develop internal evaluation protocols. Other sites recognized the ways in which partnerships like these can bring integrity and legitimacy to new program evaluations. The opinions of objective outside reviewers are sometimes valued above the views of those who are part of the department. A number of sites alluded to that fact in their proposals and reports. For instance, the chief of police Framingham made it clear that that was one of the reasons he was so enthusiastic about the research partnership.

However, two major limitations to local research were discovered by the partnership sites: (1) the quality of the data that local information systems were able to generate, and (2) the size and scope of the research agenda.

Consider the Quality of Local Data Systems

An important lesson learned from the cross-site research was that partners need to enter such projects prepared to make technological adjustments. Ultimately, good data are necessary to useful analysis, but good data are not always easily had. A number of sites were partway into their projects only to discover that the partners had incompatible information systems, slowing or even halting the data analysis process. It is important that researchers recognize that their local police department might not have the most sophisticated information technology, particularly outside the major cities.

The Omaha project experienced difficulties due to the often limiting information technology (IT) capabilities of the police department. At one point, the "project [was] put on hold until OPD completed the re-engineering of its computer records keeping systems."[30] Buffalo also found the research process challenged because the department's IT systems had just begun to

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[30] The College of Public Affairs and Community Service, University of Nebraska–Omaha, 1998.

catch up to demands. Colorado Springs ran into trouble when it was discovered that the data systems of the department and the researchers were not compatible. The incompatibility slowed down the data analysis and threw off the schedules of many staff as well as the overall timeline for the project. SSRE struggled with a system in Framingham that was not set up for analytical purposes.

Develop a Research Agenda That Is Manageable in Size and Scope

Another lesson learned from the cross-site research was that partnerships need to be sure not to "bite off more than they can chew." Many participants realized it was important that the research agenda be manageable in size and scope and realistic with respect to the skills and abilities of those involved in the effort. For example, many of the problems in the Omaha project were a direct result of the project staff taking on too many research plans at one time without fully considering the reasonableness and usefulness of each. In the end, the researchers concluded that the partnership met with mixed success primarily because the research plan was "too ambitious given the limited experience of the police organization with applied research."[31]

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[31] *Ibid.*

Chapter 8

Conclusions

The LIRP program offered an excellent opportunity to determine the role of research in police departments, especially departments that were transitioning to community policing. This chapter begins with a summary of key evaluation results from previous chapters. The summary is followed by discussions on a series of topics identified during the course of the evaluation—the role of research, expanding the idea of research in police departments, views of police practitioners and researchers, university support for local research, the tempo of research, national significance, models of partnerships, and sustaining partnerships.

Overall Success of the LIRP Program

Judging the success of the LIRP program must be done in a multi-dimensional environment rather than categorically saying that a given project should be labeled as either 'successful' or 'not successful.' For example, we can say that the LIRP program was successful from the viewpoint that all the projects completed at least one research study during the course of their grants. However, the range of projects was quite large. At the most basic end, the Florida State University project conducted a statewide survey to identify research projects and then attempted to develop a research capacity throughout the state. For a variety of circumstances, the grant project personnel did not follow up with conducting research on any of the identified topics, although they encouraged local research organizations to do the research. At the other extreme, several projects had substantial influence on changes in procedures and operations of participating police departments, including Albuquerque, Boston, Lexington, Racine, Lowell, Charlottesville, and Indianapolis.

In total, of the 39 projects, ILJ determined that 28 projects (71.8 percent) resulted in operational changes in the participating police departments as a consequence of the research. What this result means in terms of the action research model is that these 28 projects completed one full cycle of research—selecting a topic, conducting research, analyzing results, communicating findings, and applying the results. Further analysis showed that 15 of these 28 sites performed more than one research cycle. Multiple cycles occurred in two ways. One is that the first cycle

resulted in operational changes that in turn became the research topic for a subsequent cycle. In Albuquerque, for example, the research team evaluated changes that had been made during the department's implementation of community policing. Results from that study informed the new chief on changes, which in turn became the subject of the second research cycle. The second way in which multiple cycles occurred is that the research team was requested to take on more than a single research effort. In Buffalo, for example, the research team did one major research effort on implementation of community policing and about five others that were beneficial to the police department but required less effort.

For the other 11 projects, the primary reason for their lack of success as compared to the other projects was that the participating police departments did not apply the final results and key recommendations from the reports. Thus, in these projects, the partnership completed all of the steps in the action research model except for the final, and important, step of applying the research results.

The group of 28 projects resulting in operational changes had the following general characteristics in comparison with the other projects:

- They selected a problem of particular relevance to the managers of the participating police department.

- They had a better balance of taking the lead responsibility through the action research cycle in problem selection (usually the police department) reconnaissance step (usually the researchers), development of the research project (joint), analysis of results (researcher), presentation of results (joint), and implementation of changes (police department). In Chapter 7, we referred to this arrangement as a *flexible hierarchy*.

- The qualifications of both the participating researchers and practitioners were better than the other sites in terms of years of experience, prior research projects, leadership capabilities, etc.

- The researchers generally devoted more time in the participating departments and showed greater interest in the research projects.

- The police practitioners were in positions of responsibility that increased the possibility of implementing research results.

- The project team provided practical recommendations to the police departments in an easily understood format.

Another measure of success for the LIRP program is the number of project sites that continued their relationship after the termination of the research project. Our analysis of this measure is that 14 sites were successful in continuing collaborations. In general, the continuation was in the form of having a research group for the police department to contact whenever a problem of mutual interest arose. In six of these sites, the collaboration had already been in place prior to the LIRP grant, which then served as a vehicle for continuing the collaboration. In the other eight sites, the LIRP grant was the first time that the researchers and police departments had collaborated.

A key factor in whether a collaboration continued was stability of personnel who participated in the LIRP project. In several sites, either the researcher accepted a position elsewhere or the key police practitioners moved to other responsibilities through transfers and promotions. In either situation, the camaraderie was lost that had been developed during the course of the research. This result underscores the significance of personal relationships that develop between researchers and practitioners. Of course, in the 11 projects that did not make changes as a result of the research, continuation of the partnership was problematic because the police practitioners usually saw no practical significance to the research.

Selection of Research Topic

In Chapter 4, the identification of factors that influenced the nomination of research topics was listed as an evaluation objective. In Chapter 5, which is devoted to topic selection, we stated that police practitioners viewed research as serving three functions, which in turn influenced their selection of research topics:

- **Informational to identify courses of action.** Police practitioners are faced with problems that require them to take action, but they find they do not have enough information to identify appropriate courses of action.

- **Support for already identified courses of action.** Police practitioners are in a position of influencing or persuading others to a given course of action. They seek "objective research studies" to support the courses of action that have been identified or already implemented. They anticipate that the research results will support the predetermined courses of action.

- **Validation of an implemented course of action.** Police practitioners have implemented a change and need to evaluate whether it has had the intended effects.

Research results may support the expansion of the course of action and may indicate improvements that can be made.

The 10 projects that included two or more police organizations tended to have more problems in identifying research topics than those with only one police organization. The end result was that they either operated in a one-to-one manner (as in the Arizona State University project) or selected topics that were of interest to some, but not all, of the participating agencies. The single exception was the LINC project, which identified domestic violence as a common topic across all agencies and addressed that topic to the satisfaction of all the agencies.

As another evaluation topic in Chapter 4, we included the role of reconnaissance and how that step influenced topic selection. The purpose of reconnaissance is to find out more about a problem before proceeding with planning a research project. Virtually all the projects conducted a reconnaissance step, albeit in many cases it was accomplished in an informal manner. That is, it did not always result in a report that expanded on the initial topic that had been selected. However, it was shown to be an important step for many of the projects. At some sites, it resulted in the improvement of data systems prior to the launching of the research effort. Reconnaissance was found to be especially important when the researcher was new to the police agency.

Conduct of Research

Another evaluation topic focused on the types of research approaches used in the LIRP program. As described in Chapter 6, the local project teams employed a variety of research methods. These can be summarized as follows:

- **Interviews:** face-to-face meetings with sworn personnel using a structured or semi-structured instrument (15 sites)

- **Observations:** ride-alongs with patrol officers, supervisors, and other field personnel (13 sites)

- **Focus groups:** group meetings with selected personnel for the purpose of obtaining opinions on a predetermined set of topics (eight sites)

- **Surveys:** internal and external questionnaires to elicit the opinions of respondents on selected topics (25 sites)

- **Basic analysis:** analysis with frequencies, cross-tabulations, means, standard deviations, and other basic statistical approaches (12 sites)

- **Advanced analysis:** use of advanced statistical techniques, such as multivariate structural models, item analysis, correlational analysis, and analysis of physiological measurements (six sites)

- **Spatial analysis:** analysis of spatial relationships (seven sites)

- **Experimental designs:** use of quasi-experimental designs (eight sites), such as before/after analysis of an experimental approach, sometimes including comparisons or, in one project, an experimental double-blind design (1 site)

Surveys were a cornerstone of the research efforts, with 33 surveys being conducted during the course of the program. Citizen surveys were almost always for the purpose of gauging the public's reaction to community policing efforts and providing guidance for what the police department should be doing. The internal surveys served a similar purpose, getting the reactions and opinions of sworn and non-sworn employees to the organizational and procedural changes brought about by community policing. Like the external surveys, they informed the managers of the police department on actions that could be taken to advance community policing in the organization. A lesson learned from the LIRP program is that agency personnel need to be involved in the survey effort from the outset. The most successful survey efforts took advantage of focus groups of agency personnel to assist in the development of topics.

Focus groups and interviews were particularly effective approaches for the projects. Focus groups served three purposes:

- To develop topics for internal and external surveys

- To serve as a forum to convey the results of surveys

- To obtain information and opinions of selected groups (crime victims, police officers, etc.)

The experiences in the program show the importance of having good data systems to support research projects. Some sites, such as Arlington County and Ada County, were able to access the records needed for basic analysis with no significant problems. The accessed databases were a crucial ingredient of the research. In other sites, such as Jersey City and the sites studying domestic violence, the records management systems were unable to provide the desired data on a consistent basis. An additional difficulty, especially when advanced analytical techniques were used, was the translation of the results into presentations and action items. The

challenge for researchers is to present the results in terms understandable to practitioners in order to guide future actions, rather than to discuss the results in overly technical jargon.

A main disappointment in the program was that only a few projects did experimental designs. The reasons may be related to how community policing was implemented in the agencies and the stage of implementation at the time of the research projects.

The results from research generally were presented in a less formal manner than found in the usual reports from NIJ-funded projects. The reason is that the audience usually was interested not in methodology or literature reviews but instead in the key findings and how those findings affected operations. Researchers in the program developed one kind of product for local consumption and another kind for research conferences and peer-reviewed journals.

Factors Leading to Successful Partnerships

In Chapter 7, six factors were identified as the main keys for developing and sustaining successful partnerships:

- Develop effective working relationships.
    - Operate with a flexible hierarchy.
    - Ensure that key personnel remain in place.
    - Develop common goals and mutual expectations.
    - Build on the strengths and contacts of key personnel.
    - Clearly define everyone's roles and responsibilities.
    - Obtain the support of the police union.
    - Include an officer committee from the start.
    - Maintain open and frequent communication.
- Acquire an understanding of the local police culture.
- Make use of undergraduate and graduate students.
- Develop trust between partners.
- Tailor products to fit the local audience.
- Learn the benefits and limitations of local research.

Role of Research

Development of Community Policing

For the departments that were transitioning to community policing, the role that research played in the grant projects depended on the department's stage of community policing development. The framework developed by Connors and Webster (2001) can serve as a guide to how research can assist in the implementation of community policing. Their first stage was for planning and developing new approaches based on community policing. It includes steps for creating a vision, communicating the vision, developing strategies to achieve the vision, and forming a guiding coalition. Their second stage focuses on implementing the new approaches with steps for empowering others to act, creating small, short-term wins, and institutionalizing the new approaches.

The Connors and Webster (2001) model provides police departments with guidelines on a step-by-step approach for community policing. Although not every department took that approach, the model is nevertheless beneficial in the following discussion because it helps to show the relationship between research and developmental steps.

Some of the police departments in the LIRP program were in first stage of development at the time of the research project. For those projects, the research teams did research that led to the creating of vision and mission statements (e.g., Buffalo) or development of strategies to achieve the vision (e.g., Boston). The most frequent tools of research for those departments were interviews, focus groups, internal surveys, and basic analysis. With several projects, the results were a driving force for the foundation of community policing. The LIRP projects were not, however, involved in every step of the developmental process. Communicating the vision and forming coalitions were steps that the departments needed to take independently of the project teams, although experience indicates that team members might be asked for their opinions.

Other departments in the LIRP program were beyond the first stage and had implemented community policing activities in several ways—establishment of a community policing unit, selection of a small area for community policing activities, and implementation of department-wide changes. For those departments, the role of the research team usually was to conduct an evaluation of the implemented changes. In many instances, the operational changes took place before the project started and, as a consequence, the research team did not have input into the

planning and implementation process. That timing limited the experimental design that could be accomplished by the research team. In the worst cases, department-wide changes with no baseline data resulted in evaluation designs that merely measured the pulse of citizens and police personnel after implementation. Comparisons with prior periods and with comparison groups or areas were either not possible or limited in scope. The evaluations were nevertheless beneficial because they usually included process assessments on the organizational changes. In those situations, the research team did a combination of interviews, focus groups, observations, surveys (internal and external), and basic analysis for the evaluations.

The projects in Philadelphia and Albuquerque are examples of that type of situation. At the start of the Albuquerque project, the department had already implemented several operational changes. The research team did ethnographic research to explain how policing was done in the city and the probable impact of the operational changes. While that approach was very beneficial, it was nevertheless a snapshot of policing at the time of the study. In the second phase of the research project, the team was able to have more valid research results because of what they had gleaned in their initial efforts.

For departments that implemented community policing activities in small areas of a city, the project teams were able to have stronger evaluation designs. For example, in Jersey City, Racine, and Hagerstown, it was possible to have pre/post experimental/comparison designs along with the other evaluation tools (interviews, focus groups, etc.). While several of the projects encountered problems in the execution of their designs, the results nevertheless aided the police departments in determining the next steps for community policing. The results also gave some insight into the problem of community policing "dosage" as related to expected outcomes—a topic that is discussed later in this chapter.

One of the most disappointing aspects of the LIRP program was that more experimental designs were not carried out. As discussed earlier in this report, the primary reasons for the lack of experiments are the fact that community policing does not lend itself easily to experiments and the timing of the projects in relation to changes at the departments. Nevertheless, it might be expected that more experiments would be carried out as the partnerships matured over time. It appears that once the partnerships started on their research activities, the time and effort for doing experimental designs was not forthcoming.

Other projects in the LIRP program were indirectly related to the implementation of community policing. Baltimore and St. Louis looked at the role of supervisors in community policing; Lansing did a study of the revised patrol plan under community policing; and Lexington looked at problems of recruitment and promotions. Special mention should be made of the Baltimore project, which employed a double-blind experimental design to ascertain the attributes of exemplary supervisors. Because this is strong design, greater confidence accrues from the results.

When we talked with police practitioners about the actions taken as a result of the research, we received a mixture of responses. As a general conclusion, the more that police personnel were involved in the research and the closer the research problem was to the operational changes, the more attention was paid to the results. At departments in an early stage of community policing, management tended to pay close attention to the results of the interviews and focus groups. The results played important roles in shaping community policing activities and supporting organizational changes. Internal surveys almost always received attention within the respective police departments for the obvious reason that they reflected the opinions, attitudes, and, in some cases, morale of employees. A commander in Los Angeles stated that the survey results from personnel under his command served as the basis for his annual strategic plan, as the basis for a continuing education program for middle managers, and as evidence that morale in his area was not as bad as believed. The commander had been a member of one of the focus groups that suggested topics for the survey.

Surveys of citizens were more a mixed bag in terms of subsequent actions taken. In Lowell, the chief of police played an active role in the development of a survey of citizens and was keenly interested in the results, which influenced several decisions that he made on hiring practices and organizational structure. By contrast, in other projects, especially in larger cities, results from surveys tended to be a piece of the puzzle for determining next steps. For the most part, chiefs in those cities were more removed from the research activities and, while made aware of the results, had less stake in the research and tended to receive information on recommended courses of action from other sources.

Computer Mapping/CompStat

The computer mapping projects ranged from establishment of basic mapping capabilities (Forest Park, University of Virginia, and Prince George's County) to leading-edge research on spatial analysis (New York). To an extent, the activities in the former sites were mechanical in nature—installation of mapping software, development of geo-base file for coding, and preparation of basic maps. In the first two sites, the research team basically consisted of one or two researchers from the universities and a small group of crime analysts and other practitioners from the police departments. The effort in Prince George's County was more extensive in that it covered several districts in the county. The research aspects of these projects were on the application of the mapping. For example, in Prince George's County, maps were generated as part of the evaluations of operational changes in the department. The project in New York differed from the others because of its orientation to advance the state of spatial analysis of crime and other data. It made excellent progress in advancing the state of the art in spatial analysis.

The CompStat projects (Indianapolis and New York City) depended on computer mapping as a significant part of the process. By way of background, CompStat is a way to manage police resources by holding commanders accountable. To achieve that aim, it requires up-to-date information processing. In both cities, computer-generated maps of crime and calls for service are the main vehicles by which commanders are quizzed about problems in their areas and their plans for alleviating them. Maps are of further assistance in providing the means for following up on the actions taken by commanders. They become the basis for before/after comparisons at subsequent CompStat meetings.

The Indianapolis project is the LIRP program's best example of research for a CompStat program. The research effort there basically was on the implementation of a CompStat process and changes to that process over time. Three major accomplishments were achieved in Indianapolis. First, the analytical capabilities of the department were significantly improved through a strong mapping capability with short turnaround. Second, the CompStat focus changed from a geographic orientation to a topical orientation (e.g., studying robberies throughout the city). Third, greater effort was made to link initiatives to crime changes. In this last category, the research team was instrumental in setting up basic causal models to show the linkages.

In terms of research approach, these projects differed from the developmental projects in several ways. The research teams did not have to reach out to large numbers of police personnel and citizens as part of their efforts. Interviews, surveys, and observations were not the order of the day. Instead, the research was more technical and confined to the establishment of a technology (computer mapping) to assist the departments. In Indianapolis, the research was more widespread but still only involved relatively few commanders. In addition, the aim of these projects was not to demonstrate satisfaction with operational changes or to make operational recommendations, but rather to provide the tools that would give more recent and more relevant information.

Domestic Violence

The four projects in this category aimed to develop better information on domestic violence incidents and tools for addressing this serious problem. Interestingly, a common feature of the projects is that the participating police departments did not have the necessary databases to adequately address the problems of domestic violence. The initial experiment in Framingham had to be cancelled because insufficient numbers of subjects were eligible for the cell phones. It can be argued that this situation could have been avoided if sufficient information had existed about victims of domestic violence in the city. As it was, the research project filled that void to a great extent by subsequent interviews with victims.

The research teams in these projects tended to consist of one to three key researchers and a limited number of police personnel. They depended heavily on basic analysis of available information along with interviews and focus groups of victims. None of the projects needed to administer internal or external surveys.

As a group, these projects may have had the greatest impact on police operations in their respective departments. The impact is due partly to the nature of the research and partly to the high visibility of domestic violence problems. The projects in Berkeley and Seattle resulted in tools that could be applied by investigators to prioritize their workloads. At the same time, the research gave greater insight into domestic violence problems than the departments previously had. With the LINC project, the focus groups of domestic violence victims led to immediate changes in several of the participating police departments.

Development of Research Capacities

The Florida State University and the IACP/JRSA projects both aimed at developing research capacities. With Florida State University, the researchers wanted to establish research priorities throughout the state and then develop mechanisms for delivering research through a network of universities and research organizations. With the IACP/JRSA project, the aim was to link selected police departments with their respective state planning agencies as a means of building capacity for research.

The Florida State University project was only partially successful in its endeavor. By conducting a statewide survey, it was able to identify research needs and to prioritize them in terms of numbers of police departments with specific needs. However, it was able to address only a limited number of police departments and problem areas. The research was accomplished by linking each of those departments with a local researcher to address a problem. When the two key researchers from Florida State University left the university, it appears that no one at the university was successful in continuing the effort.

There are several lessons to be learned from that project. The most obvious is the difficulty of trying to establish a research capacity for an entire state. Even with the support of the NIJ grant funding, it was a formidable undertaking. In addition, survey results show that no single problem dominated the majority of police departments. The considerable diversity in the state obviates against consensus on problems and, as a result, it cannot be expected that universal problems would emerge.

The IACP/JRSA had considerably more success with its project. By holding a series of meetings, the project personnel from the two agencies were able to link police department personnel with staff of state planning agencies having research expertise. The success of the project is reflected by the fact that one of the sites (Charleston with Marshall University) received its own partnership grant in subsequent rounds of funding.

Expanding the Idea of Research

Experiences in the LIRP program raise the question of exactly what is meant by "research" in a police department. Certainly the research conducted in these projects differs from what was described in the Klockars and Harver (1993) study (see Chapter 2). In that study, a

survey asked respondents to identify the extent to which they were involved in each of 26 distinct topic areas. The three highest-rated areas were policy manual revisions, agency budget compilations, and use of force policies—topics rated over community oriented policing and domestic violence reduction. These findings are supported anecdotally by one of the researchers (based on his experiences in more than 50 police management studies) who commented, "there were Planning and Research units, which neither planned nor did research."

In the LIRP program, NIJ's requirement that the local teams select the research topics and that they fall under the community policing umbrella meant that the topics were more likely to be of importance to the participating agencies. As a consequence, greater cooperation in conducting the research occurred and the results were more likely to influence decisions within the agencies. Moreover, the practitioners certainly had a greater say (under the idea of a flexible hierarchy) on problems that the research addressed, which meant they had a greater stake in the project.

The type of research identified in the Klockars and Harver (1993) study can be considered as falling under the category of *policy analysis* for police departments. Policy analysis usually includes the steps of contacting other police departments, interviewing commanders, conducting a literature review, and the like. It results in the formulation of a proposed change in procedures or operations with the intent of improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the department.

From the perspective of the LIRP program, however, research takes on a different definition and has a different context. With the experiences of the projects in mind, research projects should meet three criteria. First, the project should be on a problem or issue that the department currently faces; that is, it should have *currency*. It should not be a topic that someone merely has an interest in studying but instead should have some empirical value to the department. Second, there must be an *analytical* aspect to the research. The analytical aspect can be either quantitative or qualitative, depending on the problem at hand. If at all possible, an experimental design should be considered. Third, it must be possible to present the research results in *practical* operational terms. That means the department should be able to act on the conclusions and recommendations from the study.

Two comments by researchers in the LIRP program support this last criterion on usable results. Based on his experiences with police managers, one researcher observed, "When they look to research, they look for something they can do, and more importantly, something they can use within their existing situation and resources." An alternative way of stating this same idea, expressed by another researcher, was that the projects must deal with "policy manipulable variables."

Certainly the evaluations conducted under the LIRP program satisfy the three criteria of currency, analytical aspect, and practical operation terms. The evaluation in Jersey City of the changes in the Special Improvement District addressed the problem of whether the types of implemented changes could impact crime and calls for service. The analysis included the results of surveys, on-site observations, and before/after comparisons of crime and calls for service. Results had an immediate impact on the operations of the police department in the area. The CompStat project in Indianapolis addressed the problem of how to address crime problems in the city more effectively. The analytical aspect focused on the production of computer maps to determine when and where the problems were occurring, supported by sessions with commanders on selecting tactics to address the crimes. As other examples, the police departments in the LINC partnership (Rapid City, South Dakota; Pocatello, Idaho; and Eureka and Redding, California) changed their reporting procedures for domestic violence as a direct result of the partnership's analysis of such incidents. The implementation of community policing was influenced in Philadelphia, Charleston, Hagerstown, Racine, and several other sites as a result of the LIRP projects. These types of applied research were exactly what the LIRP program was envisioned to support.

These criteria, however, are necessary but not sufficient for the proper conduct of research as judged by the experiences under the LIRP program. Two other prerequisites are needed for long-term success. The first is that police departments must be able to establish *information systems* that are capable of supporting action research. In many of the projects, the available information systems were not satisfactory for research purposes. The sites studying domestic violence illustrate that problem, as reported in other chapters. The databases for domestic violence had to be improved because they were not adequate to address the research issues that had been raised. The second prerequisite is that the *political environment* of the police department and the city must be conducive to research. Politics and research are sometimes in

conflict. Researchers and, in fact, an entire research team can feel pressured to tilt their results to the prevalent political winds. That pressure needs to be resisted because objectivity is the key to both immediate and long-term success of the research efforts.

In summary, the LIRP program is a shift and expansion of research that links theory to practice. It demands that police practitioners pay greater attention to the broader perspective of their mandates and apply the tools of research to the practical issues they must address.

Action Research Model

In Chapter 3, we presented an action research model (see Exhibit 3-1) that guided our evaluation design for the LIRP program. It served adequately in that role, providing an organized framework from which we could make comparisons regarding how research was conducted at the local level. The first step in the model was the selection of a research topic. In the model we said that nominations for research topics were influenced by four factors: interests of partners, department initiatives, political influences, and local culture. Those factors turned out to match what we observed at most sites. With regard to reconnaissance, we found that this step was sometimes a formal undertaking, sometimes an informal process, and sometimes not conducted at all. When reconnaissance was neglected, the consequence was that significant changes were necessary later in the research—a situation of two steps forward and one backward. Our conclusion is that in future local research efforts, the reconnaissance step needs to be taken more seriously.

The next steps in the model are developing the research steps, conducting the research, and analyzing results. These steps represent standard research approaches, except that within the context of an action research model, feedback can occur to effect revisions to the research steps, as needed. Therefore, if early in the process an intervention is failing to operate as planned or failing to produce the anticipated results, changes are made then rather than at the scheduled end of the experimental period. We found that within the LIRP projects, changes were made along these lines as interventions became operationalized. For the most part, however, the changes were relatively minor, focusing on implementation of an intervention rather than significantly altering the intervention itself. Allowing for changes in this manner is a departure from other research and evaluation designs, in which no changes are allowed until the conclusion of a test period. That approach has the advantage of potentially stronger (but usually negative) results.

Its disadvantage is that many of the personnel involved in the project know that changes should be made but continue forward anyway.

The interests and backgrounds of the researchers influenced their selection of research tools. Clearly, if a researcher had not been trained in advanced statistical analysis or spatial analysis, those tools are not going to be called on for the research. Likewise, if a researcher has an extensive background in a particular methodology, such as ethnographic observations, then that approach is most likely to be applied during the research. In addition, if a researcher simply does not think a particular methodology is of any value, such as conducting citizen surveys, then that approach is not likely to be in the research. These comments are, of course, not universally true across all the researchers in the projects. Some researchers, in fact, served in a matchmaking role (see later section, Models of Partnerships), in which they called on other researchers to join the team for special purposes.

The step in the action research model for communicating results was especially interesting in the LIRP program. As discussed earlier, an evaluation finding was that different products are needed for local consumption than are found in most NIJ-sponsored research. In some instances, the final "report" was a series of overheads showing the results of the research and indicating the resulting recommendations. The reason for this approach is probably that the audiences were the decision makers of the police department or city. Their interests lie in how the results affect the organization, not how the results contrast with other research studies, how the methodology was carried out, or how well a statistical model fit the data. The tradeoff, as previously reported, is sometimes an oversimplification of results with a loss of the richness of results.

The literature on action research models includes discussions on how these models have a *spiraling effect* over time. That means the process is a cycle that repeats itself with incremental improvements. We can interpret the spiraling effect in two ways for the LIRP program. One interpretation is that a given research topic, such as domestic violence, can be continuously studied over time, with incremental interventions followed by evaluation. A second interpretation is that a research team completes a cycle of research and moves on to another topic—a situation that can occur in a police environment because of the variety of problems that must be addressed.

In summary, we found that the action research model was beneficial as a theoretical model for the evaluation. We further believe that researchers and police practitioners who are interested in establishing research partnerships should consider it.

Partnership Approach to Research

The partnership approach to research exemplified in the LIRP program lies in contrast to two other popular notions on how to conduct research—"Researcher Initiated" and "In-house Capacity Building." Researcher Initiated is the traditional approach, in which an outside researcher makes contact with one or more police departments to conduct a specific project. In-house Capacity Building aims to develop research capabilities within a police department. If successful, the police department then does not have to depend on or pay for outside resources to assist in research. As Exhibit 8-1 shows, each approach has advantages and disadvantages to the conduct of research.

The key advantage of the Researcher Initiated approach is that it may bring specific expertise to a problem. In many instances, the researcher approaches a police department because he or she has a research background on a specific topic, such as gangs and crime, and has a research project in mind. Researchers rarely approach a police department with a project that is outside their main realm of expertise. Therefore, the advantage of this approach is that the researcher is very likely to bring good skills to the project. Further, the researcher may already have grant funding and simply be looking for a site for the project, and the department may gain by enhancing its reputation as an open department and a favorable research site.

There are, however, several disadvantages to the Researcher Initiated approach. Because topic selection is by the researcher, the topic may be of no particular interest to the department (e.g., gang enforcement may not be a priority in the department). Additional problems can occur if the researcher does not understand the culture of the police department and makes recommendations that do not fit the department's operations. Further, there have been instances in the past where the outside researcher misinterpreted data and provided erroneous research conclusions. As discussed in other chapters, some researchers in the past have failed to provide their research reports to the police departments for review.

The In-house Capacity Building approach aims at training selected sworn personnel in research methods. Two main barriers present themselves, however. First, most police practitio-

ners do not have the educational backgrounds to conduct surveys, plan experimental designs, and perform statistical analysis. Second, turnover due to promotions, transfers, retirements, and resignations disrupts research efforts and may remove practitioners from the projects. Thus, even if personnel became good researchers through education and training, they are not likely to stay in positions where their talents can be applied.

The partnership approach presents several advantages, as Exhibit 8-1 reflects. Most of these have been discussed in previous chapters—combination of skills to address a problem, inclusion of key personnel throughout the research, and advocacy roles of practitioners. However, partnerships present disadvantages, too. Personnel turnover is a critical problem on both the practitioner's side and researcher's side. Further, the partners may not be able to work together effectively because of personality or professional differences. Finally, funds must be found to continue partnerships. These funds may be acquired from the local budget or from state and federal grants. Regardless of the source, constant pushing for research funds is a necessity.

Exhibit 8-1: Approaches to Research

Research Approach	Advantages	Disadvantages
Partnership	1. Includes practitioners in all stages of the research. 2. Combined skills improve likelihood of successful research. 3. Results are likely to be advocated by practitioners and then implemented. 4. Research capacity builds over time provided team is kept together. 5. Use of students may lessen costs and provide needed capabilities.	1. Turnover hampers research effort. 2. Partners may be unable to work together effectively. 3. Supporting funds must be acquired through local budgets or grants.
Researcher Initiated	1. Brings specific expertise to a problem. 2. May have sufficient funding because of grant support. 3. Can enhance department's reputation as a favorable research site.	1. Practitioners rarely select research topic. 2. Researcher may not understand department culture. 3. Researcher may misinterpret data. 4. Researcher dictates experimental design. 5. Results may not be provided back to department. 6. Police are viewed as research subjects only. 7. Research topic may not be of particular interest to the police department.
In-house Capacity Building	1. Police department selects research topics. 2. Results are likely to be advocated by practitioners and then implemented.	1. Police rarely have sufficient research backgrounds. 2. Capacity for research is difficult to develop. 3. Turnover removes research capacity. 4. Research may require expertise not available in the department. 5. Research team may not have the clout to get results put forward and implemented.

Views of Police Practitioners and Researchers

One result that is clear from the evaluation is that the police practitioners gained a much better understanding of how to conduct research and how to apply research results. Prior to the program, many had not been involved in research projects except where the department served as the subject of research. Generally speaking, their ideas had not been solicited regarding the selection of the research topics, data collection, analysis, and results. Many commanders we interviewed spoke openly about what they had learned from the partnerships. One commander stated to the ILJ evaluation staff, "We've traditionally been a closed department—solving our problems on our own. The doors of the local universities were open, but our eyes were closed." Another made an even stronger statement:

> I've been in law enforcement for 30 years and it [research] has been a long time coming. We haven't done enough of it. I feel that in law enforcement, we've been playing catch up—a lot of catch up.

Undertaking research brings certain risks to police practitioners and researchers. Interviews with researchers identified three types of risk. Practitioners take *risks with resources* whenever they reallocate personnel from one function to another. For agencies with scarce resources, change in personnel allocation must be taken seriously. Thus, the decision to participate in an experimental design or make an operational change, such as establishing a community policing unit, is not taken lightly. Changes cannot be considered unless there is the possibility they will lead to improvements. (On the other hand, decisions not to make resource changes may prove even more costly). Police practitioners must think about *opportunity risks*, which include everything that is given up in exchange for the perceived benefits of a change. Opportunity risks are especially difficult to gauge because the tradeoffs may have to be debated from subjective assessments rather than hard facts. An agency too cautious in this regard may avoid risk but face even more dire consequences. Thirdly, *political risks* get to the individual level, where failure can lead to adverse career consequences. Practitioners who associate themselves with research may find criticism from others who simply want to get on with the job of policing without thinking about changes or improvements.

Many researchers in the LIRP program gained from their experiences in the LIRP program. Some were successful in working with police partners, while others found the transition

from academia to the police world to be difficult. The experiences in the LIRP program were not easy for researchers who thought they could apply the rigors of scientific validity in a real world environment. They found that police operate in an ever-changing, reactive mode that needs immediate feedback in many circumstances. In addition, the LIRP program was not for researchers who were more interested in criminal justice theory than applied research. Indeed, for the most part researchers in the former category did not seek funding under this program.

Some of the comments and experiences of the researchers are appropriate to mention in these conclusions. A recurring theme was that the police departments they partnered with were open to research and open to their questions and inquiries. One researcher, who had considerable experience in consulting for businesses, contrasted his experiences by saying, "In this project, we've had freer access to information and people than anything I've ever experienced in business organizations." Indeed, a general trend in police research is that departments are more receptive to research. A second theme is that many researchers felt they were not equipped to handle the "politics" in the police departments and their cities. As one researcher put it, "I was unprepared for the complexity of the political environment in the police department." Fortunately, most felt that they were "fast learners" and had learned to deal with problem.

From the LIRP program, a few guidelines can be given anecdotally on handling "political problems":

- Researchers should not be perceived as having aligned themselves with any particular division or group in a police department.

- Researchers generally should avoid meeting with the press and issuing press releases on the results of research.

- Research results should be presented as objectively as possible without leaning one direction or the other.

- Researchers should consult with others in their university or organization on research designs, analysis, and presentation of results. (The cluster conferences in the LIRP program filled this need to an extent).

- Once the research results have been determined, researchers should not change them to fit a particular audience.

Of course, one of the real challenges for researchers and indeed the local project teams was the delivery of bad news about particular activities, especially when those activities have been perceived to be of value. For example, there may be a belief that any change toward com-

munity policing was a good one that would be accepted both internally and externally. Survey results from the project teams sometimes challenged the perceived success of these initiatives. One of the lessons that police managers have to learn about research, as judged from the experiences in the LIRP program, is that the results may not always be favorable to their interests. For police managers and the research teams, the problem is how to continue to have support even though bad news must occasionally be delivered.

Researchers played three important roles in the LIRP projects:

- Developing appropriate causal models about community policing and other interventions
- Developing research strategies to measure the linkages associated with causal models
- Analyzing and presenting research in a usable format

Because the LIRP program was predicated on community policing, the development of causal models was especially important. As described in prior chapters, several sites conducted focus groups to assist in the development of topics for citizen surveys. Members of the focus groups would be challenged to explain what they expected from the community policing activities. Those explanations constituted a causal model between activities and expected results.

The next step where researchers helped was in devising research strategies that matched the causal models. Topics and questions in the surveys were developed so that the responses measured what should happen under the causal models. Finally, researchers usually took the lead in the analysis of research and presentations of the results. In general, their backgrounds were better suited for this role. At the same time, many reports were coauthored with police partners; that approach was the desired one under the concepts of the LIRP program.

The LIRP program points out the risks that researchers take, too. Their risks are more personal than organizational. Their reputation for research is at risk both within the police department and among their peers. The difficulty that researchers face in a partnership effort is that not everything is under their control. They prefer authoritative control over the questions, the methodology, and the analysis, but in a partnership that is not possible.

Of course, for both researchers and practitioners, the rewards of the research can be considerable. There is personal satisfaction from seeing a research project through from start to fin-

ish. Their expertise has been recognized, their ideas have been considered—perhaps even accepted—and their influence has led to solutions to a problem. Financial rewards may or may not be a motivating factor. Members of the partnerships frequently said their rewards were in the creative process itself—the process of developing solutions to difficult problems.

University Support for Local Research

One aspect of the LIRP program that was difficult to assess was whether universities encouraged faculty members to get involved in local research and supported them in such work. The wavering answer from the LIRP program is, "It depends." On the negative side, there were at least three instances in which tenure was denied to university scholars who were involved in local LIRP projects. From what can be ascertained in these cases, the involvement was not the direct source of the tenure problem but may have contributed because of two generally accepted tenure requirements. One requirement is that faculty members need to publish in peer-reviewed journals to secure tenured positions. As was discussed in previous chapters, publication of articles is not an aim of the local research projects. In fact, for local use, research articles may not be appropriate. The solution is for researchers to develop separate articles for publication over and above the products developed for the police departments. The downside is the additional burden the articles place on the researchers. A second problem is that *applied* research is sometimes not viewed in a university setting as having the import of *theoretical* research. Tenure may depend on the development or extension of a theoretical construct rather than its application in the field. In these circumstances, university faculty may not be encouraged to participate in local partnership programs.

The flip side of these negative-sounding arguments is that some universities are changing their philosophy to the view of assisting their local communities. Johnson and Bell (1995) are advocates for increased involvement of universities with their surrounding communities. Lynton (1995) describes the ideas behind a metropolitan university as follows:

> A metropolitan university's regional orientation and strong commitment to serve the intellectual needs of its surrounding communities and constituencies, the resulting diversity of the student body, the focus on the education of practitioners, and the emphasis on outreach through applied research and technical assistance add up to an institutional model very different from that of the traditional research university. It is a model based

on the recognition that the American university in the post-industrial, knowledge-based society must take seriously and translate into tangible reality all three elements of the traditional triad of institutional responsibilities that are stated, but not respected, in every mission statement of every academic institution: research, teaching, and service. Society needs all three in equal measure, and all three must interact and reinforce each other. Metropolitan universities accept this challenge, and are, therefore, of great importance to the societal well-being of this country.

These ideas fit well with a similar movement called "service learning." Service learning is a teaching and learning technique that integrates community work with classroom education, so students get a chance to test and apply what they learn in the classroom. It extends into a wide variety of service opportunities in both governmental and private settings. Certainly, the inclusion of undergraduate and graduate students in LIRP projects is a good example of service learning.

The newly created College of Public Service at Saint Louis University provide an example of how these ideas are translated into university action. In the summer of 1999, Dr. James Gilsinan became the first dean of the college. Dr. Gilsinan was the key researcher in the LIRP project that partnered the university with the St. Louis Police Department. The College of Public Service has six departments (public policy studies, communication sciences and disorders, counseling and family therapy, educational leadership, educational studies, and research methodology), each of which is supplemented by a research center. The result is an opportunity for the interdisciplinary application of skills to practical problems. In an interview about the college, he explained why it was formed and how it was applied to the city's police department:

> It's at the confluence of three major trends in higher education: service learning, the university-community partnership movement and the movement to combine programs in education with other human services discipline.... An example is our partnership with the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department, where we work with the police department, over time, to review management activities, look at various strategies of crime control and see if they are working or not. Police officers have talked with faculty. Learning is a two-way street. Faculty don't know everything—they know a lot, but people who are practitioners also know a lot. So it is the combined interaction of the two groups that can result in very creative partnerships for innovation and problem solving. Our faculty aren't just helping people; they're learning from them as well.

It will take time to know whether the ideas of metropolitan universities and service learning are permanent changes. For the moment, they appear to be gaining momentum and can certainly be of benefit to the concepts of research partnerships for police departments.

Tempo of Research

Time is an important factor in the conduct of research. One would ideally like research to be conducted quickly while adhering to scientific rigor. Unfortunately, those two aspects are frequently in conflict. The LIRP projects represented a range of experiences in the time requirements for projects and the need to conduct careful studies.

Three examples from the LIRP program can be called on to illustrate the tradeoffs between time and rigor. The first example is from the experiences of the sites that conducted focus groups. Steps in the focus groups generally include locating participants, arranging for their participation, developing topics to discuss, conducting the focus groups, and writing up the results. While exact information was difficult to obtain, a reasonable estimate is about six weeks' duration for a focus group effort. During the LINC project, the project team held focus groups with domestic violence victims to obtain their viewpoints on police service and to delve into the reasons for not reporting incidents to the police. Their report was immediately made available to police department managers, who then instituted changes based on the results of the focus groups.

Several partnerships conducted citizen surveys as part of their projects, generally to plan for community policing activities or evaluate activities already in place. For the LIRP sites, these surveys generally took six to eight months from the decision to conduct the survey to submission of final results. Survey questions have to be developed, the survey technique (mail, telephone, interviews) has to be selected, logistics must be put in place to conduct the survey, and the surveys must then be analyzed. A third example comes from the experiences of the sites that conducted some type of experimental design. The project in Baltimore on supervisors probably had the longest duration at about two years. That amount of time is not unreasonable given the level of effort required for the study.

It can be argued that focus groups do not provide the degree of scientific rigor that can be found in surveys, and that surveys do not provide the scientific rigor of an experimental design.

The focus groups provided more immediate information on changes that could be made to address a serious problem, while experimental designs provided more scientifically reliable results.

A conclusion from the LIRP program is that police departments need to understand the tradeoffs offered by different research approaches. It appears that police departments are willing to make changes and then to make adjustments later if needed. In fact, the framework of an action research model encourages this type of cyclical approach for improvements over time. In simplest terms, a department studies a problem, develops ideas for addressing the problem, selects a course of action based on the knowledge at that instant, and makes an intervention. The important step is to start the cycle over again to evaluate the changes that have been made.

For some researchers, this approach may be a very different way of operating. Their preference may be to develop a rigorous research design and see it through to show irrefutably that something is or is not working. For police, it is more natural to think about research where adjustments are made along the way. Police operate in a reactive way in addressing problems that face them and will make changes that seem the appropriate action when enough evidence is gathered to make a judgement. The difficulty that police have is in taking the time and effort to revisit an intervention. These thoughts present researchers with a dilemma that hinges on rigor versus relevance. If researchers lean toward the rigor of the research standards taught in their courses, they risk becoming irrelevant to practitioners' demands for usable knowledge. If they tilt toward the relevance of action research, they risk falling short of prevailing standards of rigor. The challenge is to define and meet standards of appropriate rigor without sacrificing relevance.

The same tradeoffs appear in a different setting when police departments want to make major organizational or operational changes. These types of changes were fairly frequent in the LIRP program as police departments transitioned to community policing, and the changes became the research evaluation topic for several LIRP projects (e.g., Albuquerque and Philadelphia). One approach that leans towards the concepts of action research was described by Chief Flynn, Arlington County Police Department, in discussing the change to new patrol operations:

> The cliché is Plan, Do, Check. I am sometimes oriented toward Do, Plan, Check, or Do, Plan, and then Do again. My notion is that there are very few fatal errors that will arise in an attempt to implement good faith programs and that if you are not careful, you could really bog down in a plan-

ning process. A great deal of time and effort are put into perfect plans that are perhaps never implemented or when they are implemented they are almost anti-climactic. My sense was that if we had the outline of a plan, developed it quickly and imposed it, there was much that would need to be filled out later on during the implementation. That is where subsequent input would be very important from the practitioners, but it was very important to get the bare bones out fairly quickly and not obsess over the details during the planning process. I didn't want the perfect plan. I wanted the outline of a good plan.

The research team in Arlington County evaluated these changes through a series of interviews and focus groups with operational personnel at all levels. Results from the evaluation led to further changes in patrol operations.

A trend that seemed to be emerging as the LIRP partnerships matured over time was the use of *multiple methods* or *triangulation* as the basic approach to research and evaluation. Rather than thinking in terms of one approach, such as focus groups, for addressing a selected topic, the local teams took advantage of several different techniques—basic analysis, surveys, interviews, and focus groups. The tradeoff is the accumulation of limited information through several techniques versus in-depth information from a single technique. The advantage is that the different techniques may support each other, showing progress in the same direction.

Models of Partnerships

The experiences of the LIRP program suggest three models of partnerships to perform research within police organizations:

- Local model
- Consortium model
- Shared position model

With some differences, these approaches echo those discussed in Klockars (1989) and Langworthy (1991) on organizational and funding arrangements for local partnerships (see Chapter 2, Literature Review).

Local Model

In this model, all researchers are local and they conduct research projects with only one police department in the area. The partnerships in Albuquerque, Baltimore, Buffalo, Council

Grove, Hagerstown, and other sites are illustrative of this approach. The researchers may be with a university or a research firm under this model. With a local model, there is usually one key researcher who is called by members of the police department with research needs. In practice, the researcher may be called on a variety of issues and asked for opinions and advice on far-ranging topics. In this sense, the researcher acts as a "researcher on retainer" to the police department. A researcher in this model needs to be knowledgeable about the literature on many police subjects and willing to call other researchers when he or she does not have an immediate answer. The local researcher may be working with the police department on several projects at once. He or she may bring in other researchers, from near or far, to assist. In addition, undergraduate and graduate students may be assigned to perform selected tasks.

The advantage of a local researcher is that he or she has acquired a good understanding of the entire jurisdiction by being a member of the jurisdiction and perhaps having worked with other criminal justice agencies. A local researcher should have a broad perspective on local issues, know the key players in the agencies, and understand the politics of the city. An ongoing dialogue can be developed with members of the police department and perhaps other key personnel in the city. The acquired knowledge is invaluable in advising on whether a research project should be undertaken and where the obstacles are likely to occur.

Consortium Model

A variation of the local model is for the researcher to assist several police departments in the area rather than only one department. Examples from the LIRP program include Alfred University, Arizona State University, Salem State University, University of Virginia, and University of Southern Alabama. As in the local model, the researchers may be with a university or a research firm, and one researcher usually acts as the lead in making initial responses to the local police departments.

The LINC project was a consortium model but differs from the above projects because neither the principal researcher nor the participating police departments were in the same area. The principal researcher resided on the East Coast and the participating departments were in the western part of the country. In spite of geographical disparity, the partnership operated in an effective and efficient manner. Reasons for the success were discussed in Chapter 4 (Case Studies). Primarily, the decision of the principal researcher to spend considerable time at the sites

and the excellent cooperation from the sites were keys to this successful partnership. Another approach of particular importance in the LINC project was the visits that members of the participating agencies made to each other's departments. That technique led to professional relationships that outlasted the project.

Other consortium projects were not as fortunate, and lessons from them should be mentioned. The Southern Illinois University grant project was a much smaller project that did not allow for the principal researcher to spend time at each of the approximately 18 participating police departments. Instead, the project held meetings to which the departments sent participants to discuss the research that should be conducted. It was difficult for the project to identify common research topics. The Florida State University project attempted a form of consortium on an even larger scale by attempting to identify and prioritize research needs across all police departments in the state. While the survey effort was successful, it was not possible to set up the supporting research network to address the identified topics.

As this report reflects, the consortium model can approach research in two ways. One is that the participating police departments jointly agree on research topics. In the Salem State University project, for example, the departments decided they wanted the researchers to conduct citizen surveys as an evaluative tool for their community policing efforts. The advantage of this approach is that it has economies of scale for the costs of the research. In addition, it may offer advantages to the researcher in terms of adequate sample sizes and cross-jurisdictional comparisons. The disadvantage is that a research topic of particular importance to one agency may not be selected because the other agencies do not have the same needs. It is not always easy for several police departments to agree on a research topic.

The other approach is to operate in a one-on-one arrangement between researchers and each police department. The project with Arizona State University operated in this manner by default because of the difficulties encountered by the three participating agencies in scheduling meetings and activities. The principal researcher remained the contact for the three agencies, and he assigned others from the university to each of the three agencies. In contrast with the first variation, the advantage of this approach is that each police department was able to select a topic of particular interest.

Shared Position Model

In two sites, Jersey City and Charlotte-Mecklenberg (IACP/JRSA), the principal researcher was employed by the police department. In the case of Jersey City, the grant paid for a research director as a full-time position within the police department for the duration of the grant. In Charlotte-Mecklenberg, the principal researcher remained on the faculty of the local university and split his time between the university and the police department.

The principal researcher in this model thus becomes a part of both worlds. He or she gains an in-depth understanding of the politics and operations of the police department while maintaining contact with the academic world. The advantages of this approach are that the researcher can bring in exactly the correct resources from the university to address a research topic. Further, the researcher may have greater control over the research and may be in a position to act as an advocate for the work at hand. The disadvantage is that the researcher may lose objectivity by becoming an employee of the department, becoming, as the saying goes, part of the problem rather than part of the solution.

Matchmaker Role

Regardless of the model under which research was conducted, the principal researchers in the LIRP program played "matchmaker" during the projects. By matchmaker, we mean that the principal researcher enlisted researchers and graduate students as needed to assist in the research project.

The LINC project offers a good example. The principal researcher called on the services of two other nationally recognized researchers to assist with the analysis of domestic violence incidents within the participating agencies. Interestingly, the two researchers were in different states than the principal researcher and the participating agencies. Their services were instrumental in the research project because they had backgrounds in researching domestic violence.

The other matchmaker role is the role that university researchers play in bringing undergraduate and graduate students to work on projects in police departments. Approximately 25 of the partnership projects enlisted students—usually graduate students—to assist in the research efforts. The Buffalo project is one of the foremost examples of this approach in the LIRP program. The principal researcher in that project was instrumental in bringing several graduate students into the Buffalo Police Department for different projects.

Within the LIRP program, undergraduate and graduate students had several different kinds of responsibilities. Some served as data collectors, for example, doing field observations or conducting door-to-door citizen surveys. Others conducted small research projects, like the study of the technology needs of investigators in the Buffalo Police Department. In some sites, they were called on for technical skills, establishing small databases or computer mapping systems. In the Philadelphia site, a graduate student was in essence a co-principal investigator instrumental in developing an evaluation design and seeing that the research was carried through to its conclusion.

As discussed elsewhere in this report, students in these research settings are a "win-win" situation. They gain practical experience by assisting in research at a police department. Generally, the experience is invaluable in complementing their academic careers, and in some cases, greatly influences their selection of courses and career options. The partnerships obviously gain by having more personnel on the project at a reasonable cost (if any) to the grants. Many of the projects could not have been performed without the assistance of graduate students.

Sustaining Partnerships

Alternative Partnership Arrangements

One of the key problems faced by all the partnership projects centers on how to maintain the partnership after the grant project ends. By maintaining contact with the sites after their grants, the ILJ evaluation staff identified three approaches for sustaining partnerships:

- Informal contact
- Budget item
- Memorandum of understanding

Of course, some partnerships did not sustain themselves after the partnership projects primarily because key personnel accepted other positions. In at least seven projects, the leading researcher moved to a university in another city either during the grant project or immediately after its completion. These researchers occasionally maintained contact with the university but continuation of the partnership obviously was made more difficult because the researcher was not readily available for consultation. Among police departments, at least 10 of the chiefs of police or key police practitioners changed positions either during the research project or immedi-

ately after its completion. These personnel served the important roles of assisting in the research and acting as *advocates* within their police agencies for a role of research to inform decision making. Once they are removed from research activities, a void is created, making it difficult to continue the efforts within the police department.

What happened most commonly after the grants was that the researchers and practitioners maintained *informal contact* with each other and agreed to collaborate on projects as needed. University researchers continued to teach at their respective universities, and their classes were attended by sworn personnel from the local police departments. In fact, many partnerships had done research prior to the grant project, and the project was simply a continuation of their arrangements. After the grant, conditions reverted to what they had been.

Another approach exemplified by the Albuquerque site is for the police department to include research as a *budget item*. Even before the LIRP program, the Institute for Social Research, University of New Mexico, was submitted in the police department's budget each year to conduct a citizen survey of satisfaction with police services. Even though the line item was not always approved, the police department continued to include the survey in its proposed budget and, when approved, the survey was conducted and the results provided guidance to the police department. The LIRP program provided an opportunity for additional research at the police department. The impetus for the proposal was the relationship that had been established through the citizen surveys.

The budget item may be stated more generally in order to bring individual researchers on board. Thus, a budget may include an amount for "consultants" or "research" rather than naming a specific project, university or research company. This approach provides the flexibility to bring the right expertise on board for conducting research.

A *memorandum of understanding* (MOU) is a third approach for sustaining a partnership. An MOU achieves the following aims:

- States that the police department and research organization want to conduct research together
- Delineates the roles and responsibilities of each organization
- Identifies a few specific ongoing research activities (e.g., annual citizen report or patrol analysis)

- Lays the foundation for including research in future budget submissions

An MOU offers several advantages for keeping partnerships in operation. For example, it responds somewhat to the problem of personnel turnover within the police department or research organization. When someone leaves, the partnership may still continue because the parties have agreed through the MOU for the *organizations* to work together. While this approach is not a full answer to the problems of turnover, it is a step in the right direction. Another benefit is that the MOU may include ongoing research activities, providing a reason for the partners to get together on a regular basis for research purposes. If ongoing activities are not delineated, the partnership may eventually wither because partners pursue other endeavors and have no reason to see each other. As indicated, the MOU provides a basis for including research efforts in future budget submissions.

Within the LIRP program, the Colorado Springs site was the only one that obtained a signed memorandum of understanding. The University of Colorado at Colorado Springs first set up a Justice Studies Center, which was an interdisciplinary arrangement with faculty from several disciplines—sociology, psychology, political science, economics, and others. As stated in the prologue of the MOU, "The Justice Studies Center will promote the integration of the teaching, research and service activities of the University with programs of public safety, agency change and development, and social service in the community and region." The Colorado Springs Police Department was a co-signer of the MOU although the intent of the Center was to address issues in several criminal justice agencies. Mentioned as possibilities in the MOU are a follow-up study of victimization, experimental treatment methodologies for domestic violence, and an analysis of information systems at the police department.

Money Matters

Regardless of the approach taken to sustain a partnership, funds must be acquired to pay for the services of individual researchers or research organizations. In discussing how to obtain funds, the police practitioners in the LIRP program were unanimous in their recommendations. First, they stated that the chief of police had to be an advocate for including funds in a proposed departmental budget. Without the chief's support, it would be virtually impossible to obtain local funding. Second, the main practitioners involved in the research have to push for the funds to be included. They can push by direct contact with the chief of police, by preparing position pa-

pers on the importance of research, and by publicizing research results that led to positive changes in the department.

Two other avenues of funding are available to reduce local costs. One is to use the consortium model discussed above, in which the research organization supports several local police departments instead of just one department. The obvious advantage is that the costs can be shared across the departments, and if an MOU is signed with the participating agencies, then the justification for inclusion in the budget is stronger.

Obtaining state and federal research grants is another avenue for reducing local costs. Applications to NIJ are clearly a way for research to continue at the local level. Such a grant usually requires the partnership to decide on a topic under an NIJ solicitation and jointly prepare a proposal. These grants are especially worthwhile because they can provide a foundation for research over a two- or three-year period.

National Significance

The purpose of the LIRP program was to promote research and evaluation at the local level as police departments continued to develop their community policing initiatives. In that regard, ILJ's evaluation provides beneficial information to other police departments on how to go about the difficult job of conducting research through partnerships and contributing to the development of local community policing efforts. For example, the evaluation found clear differences between partnerships that were successful in conducting research and making operational changes compared to less successful partnerships. As discussed at the beginning of this chapter, these differences included selection of a problem of particular relevance, a flexible hierarchy that allowed for sharing responsibilities, qualifications of researchers and practitioners, time spent by researchers in the agencies, the positions of responsibility of practitioners, and the value of practical recommendations. These results can be generalized to other police-research partnerships, and indeed, to other types of partnerships.

The evaluation provided insight into the types of research tools typically applied in the research efforts designed for community policing. In this regard, the experiences of the LIRP partnerships were that traditional research methods—surveys, interviews, observations, and basic analysis—were typically selected. Quasi-experimental and experimental designs were less often

selected in the program. This result is important for other agencies that are interested in community policing in identifying the research tools that might be applied to inform decisions.

Most importantly, the evaluation achieved a key objective of determining the factors that lead to effective working relationships between police practitioners and researchers. As detailed in Chapter 7, these included acquiring an understanding of the local police culture, developing trust between partnerships, enlisting undergraduate and graduate students in the research efforts, tailoring products to fit the local audience, and learning the benefits and limitations of local research.

Evaluation results provided beneficial information of general application on three models of partnerships—local model, consortium model, and shared position model. As discussed in this chapter, each has advantages and disadvantages. Selection of the most appropriate model is, of course, a decision that is predicated on local circumstances. Further, the evaluation identified three approaches for sustaining partnerships—informal contact, budget item, and memorandum of understanding. These overlapping approaches are important for any police-researcher partnership to maximize the chances that the partnership will continue beyond an initial effort and without additional federal support.

Next Steps

The LIRP program has had a significant impact at both the national and local levels. It was the first program of its type in NIJ's history. Since that time, other partnership programs have been established and supported by NIJ and other federal agencies. At the local level, the LIRP program has demonstrated that research partnerships can be formed and can operate in an effective manner to produce good research methodologies and well-founded results.

It can be expected that these kinds of partnerships will continue in the future. Within universities that practice service learning, changes in curricula may occur with greater emphasis on basic analytical techniques and the practice of evaluation. Some faculty members in the LIRP program stated that their experiences with local research had influenced teaching methods. For police departments, the LIRP program had several benefits. It brought in additional resources to address practical problems. It created an opportunity for practitioners to learn from researchers how to analyze data and execute research designs. At the same time, researchers learned from

police practitioners about the role that research might play within the organizations. It can be anticipated that local partnerships will continue to occur on both a formal and informal basis.

Summaries of
Partnership Projects

This appendix provides brief summaries of the 39 projects in the LIRP program. The projects have been divided into four groups. The first group consists of 28 research efforts that assisted police departments in their development of community policing. The distinguishing feature of the second group (five projects) is that they focused on computer mapping and the establishment or improvement of a CompStat process. The third group (four projects) selected domestic violence as their research topic. The final group consists of two projects aimed at developing research capacities. One was the effort spearheaded by Florida State University to address research needs of police agencies throughout the state, and the other was the joint effort of the IACP and JRSA to assist five agencies in establishing research projects. These last two projects provided contributions to the evaluation but were outside the norm of the other three groups.

The summaries provide only an overview of the projects and cannot do justice to the full range of activities that took place in them. Chapter 4 ("Case Studies") provides more details about the following projects:

- Baltimore (Maryland) Police Department and Johns Hopkins University
- Buffalo (New York) Police Department and State University of New York–Buffalo School of Management
- Jersey City (New Jersey) Police Department and Rutgers University
- Rapid City, Pocatello, Eureka, and Redding Police Departments with LINC
- Racine Police Department and University of Wisconsin
- Albuquerque Police Department and University of New Mexico

Some projects overlap categories. In those instances, the project has been placed in the category that received the greatest attention during the research.

Development of Community Policing

In the spectrum of community policing implementation, the police departments in this group were in one of three different stages. Some had not started any community policing activities and were trying to make a decision on whether to proceed. Other departments were just starting community policing and needed help advancing their efforts, and the remaining departments had implemented some community policing activities and wanted research on how well things were going. In terms of research techniques, the distinguishing feature of these 28 projects is that the majority employed surveys (internal and external), interviews, and focus groups. For departments that had not yet made their decisions on community policing, the research techniques informed their decision and provided a baseline for moving forward. The departments that had just started their community policing efforts took advantage of the research project to advance their community policing efforts and then to measure how well they were working. Finally, departments that had implemented community policing activities wanted the research team to evaluate the changes. In a few projects, the research team looked at changes in crime rates, calls for service, and other measures during the evaluations with a before/after design, sometimes with control areas or control groups.

Ada County (Idaho) Sheriff's Office with Boise State University

This partnership was between the Ada County Sheriff's Office and the Department of Criminal Justice Administration (CJA) at Boise State University. During the course of the project, five research efforts were undertaken:

- Citizen survey on fear of crime and satisfaction with the services of the sheriff's office
- Development of an Internet site for the sheriff's office
- Citizen survey on knowledge of gang activities in the county
- Survey of deputies on their perceptions of citizen's attitudes about the sheriff's office
- Analysis of patrol procedures at the sheriff's office

The survey efforts led to the development and implementation of a "beat integrity" plan for the sheriff's office. The LIRP project then evaluated the beat integrity plan and subsequent changes in how it operated.

At the conclusion of the grant project, plans were underway for the two organizations to conduct a second round of surveys to determine the extent of changes in citizens' attitudes about community policing in the county.

Albuquerque (New Mexico) Police Department with University of New Mexico

At the beginning of this research partnership, the police department had started a major transition to community policing. The first research effort focused on whether the changes regarding problem solving and police authority had changed the day-to-day activities and orientations of police officers. The partnership was between sworn and civilian law enforcement practitioners in the police department and researchers from the university's Institute for Social Research.

An ethnographic approach was employed as the basis for the research project, including over 3,000 hours of participant observation, 152 formal interviews, and 14 focus groups. The research team gathered the views of police officers, civilian police department employees, supervisors, three chiefs of police, personnel from other city agencies, and neighborhood leaders.

The community policing initiatives under way during the study included problem-solving efforts between police, city agencies, and local community organizations; organizational changes to support community policing; and decentralization through the establishment of substations and area commands.

The key finding from the research effort was that at the time of the project, the changes in the police department had only limited impact on the culture of policing in the city. By mid-1998, the police department had instituted some significant changes in policing in Albuquerque by drawing on various building blocks of community-based crime prevention already present in the department, engaging in some strategic planning, geographically decentralizing the organization, and focusing on department-wide implementation of community policing. However, as stated in the final report, these changes had "a very limited impact on how most officers understood their role, viewed the department's mission, or actually did their work. With some important exceptions,…most officers believed that community policing had made no difference in how they did their jobs."

In May 1998, the mayor appointed a new chief of police, who initiated a version of New York's CompStat meetings as a way of holding middle managers accountable for policing in the city and pushing them toward more effective community policing. The LIRP project team observed the CompStat meetings and conducted interviews afterwards on how they were received by department managers. The project team was instrumental in identifying initial conflicts between the CompStat process and the community policing activities that had been implemented in the department. The result was a change in direction of the CompStat meetings. By the end of the research project, more compatibility existed between the two approaches.

Alfred and Wellsville (New York) Police Departments with Alfred University

The purpose of this partnership project was to help two rural communities (Wellsville and the Village of Alfred) determine the feasibility of implementing a set of programs designed to promote community policing. Research methods during the study included community forums, secondary analysis of crime reports, surveys, and focus groups.

The study had several interesting facets related to the fact that the research setting was a rural area. Wellsville, with about 5,200 residents, is the largest community in the county, which has a population of just over 50,000 people. The Village of Alfred is located about 20 miles from Wellsville and has about 1,200 full-time residents, but for nine months of the year, when Alfred University is in session, its population exceeds 6,000 people. One of the confounding factors in the research project is that five law enforcement agencies serve the county. They include the departments in Wellsville and the Village of Alfred, the New York State Police (with a substation in the town of Wellsville), the County Sheriff's Department, and the Alfred State College Public Safety department.

The principals in the research team included a professor and graduate student from the university and the police chiefs from Alfred and Wellsville. During the course of the research, they attempted with limited success to include key personnel from the other law enforcement agencies. The project team conducted two focus groups, developed a database of crime reports from the two participating agencies, surveyed police officers in all five law enforcement agencies (57 surveys returned out of 94 surveys distributed (61 percent)), and conducted a mail survey of citizens with 674 responses.

The collective results of these efforts showed support for the concept of community policing. However, the research identified several obstacles, including the diversity of missions in the five law enforcement agencies, the geographic dispersion of agencies and citizens, and the lack of a countywide information system for crime.

Arlington County (Virginia) Police Department with The Urban Institute

This partnership was between the Arlington County Police Department and researchers at The Urban Institute, located in Washington, D.C. During the course of the project, the several researchers from The Urban Institute worked with the chief of police and department personnel on two primary projects. One project was a set of internal interviews aimed at the impact of a major reorganization on officers' daily tasks and their perceptions on the effects of the change. The other project was to conduct problem solving in one district with a support computer system to assist in implementing the SARA (Scanning, Assessment, Response, Analysis) model.

The impetus behind the interviews was a reorganization in 1998 that divided the county into four geographic districts, with 24-hour responsibility for each district assigned to a Captain. The interviews took place about a year after the reorganization. Several changes occurred in the reorganization: (1) officers attended "break-out" groups at the start of a shift, (2) officers were expected to stay within their assigned districts more of the time, (3) beat designations and radio call numbers changed, and (4) many officers were reporting to new sergeants since a new group of sergeants had just been promoted. One of the researchers conducted 33 interviews, covering all captains in operations, most of the lieutenants in operations, and a sample of sergeants.

Key results from the interviews were as follows:

- Most of the captains felt that the changes were having significant positive effects on the way policing was done in Arlington.

- The lieutenants felt some "guarded optimism" for the plan, and the sergeants' opinions were a "very mixed bag," with some expressing some hope for the future but many stating very strong disapproval.

- The officers felt that their activities had changed drastically. While they were optimistic about the new openness of the administration, many were unhappy about the new geographic policing and felt that it was not having a positive effect on policing the community.

For the other part of the project, researchers from The Urban Institute worked with officers, supervisors, and command staff in the department's 3rd District to introduce problem-solving into its routine. The researchers' contribution was to actualize the SARA model into an "officer's tool kit" for routine application to crime and disorder problems. The tool kit, called SAMPSTAT (System for Arlington-style Management of Problem-Solving), featured a simple way of using word processing software to track and manage the four SARA model components. During the course of the project, the project team trained officers in the SARA model and the use of SAMPSTAT. It also analyzed calls for service to assist in the identification of problems in the district. The success of SAMPSTAT is indicated by the fact that it was expanded to three other patrol districts in the department.

Baltimore Police Department with Johns Hopkins University

This research effort required a multidisciplinary team composed of a principal investigator from Johns Hopkins University, three sworn members of the Baltimore Police Department (BPD), the director of research from the Mayor's Office of Criminal Justice (with a background as an applied sociologist), and two professors from Notre Dame College in Baltimore (one from the Philosophy Department, the other from the Psychology Department). The principal investigator had an excellent record of research in the police field, coupled with experience in numerous management studies of police departments. All three members from the police department had at least 10 years on the force, with combined backgrounds in operations, personnel, training, and investigations. The two professors had several research publications to their credit, including projects with police departments. They had also conducted training sessions with police departments. The project team had not, however, worked together on a research project.

The project team eventually settled on three research questions:

- What are the characteristics of exemplary sergeants that distinguish them from their less-effective peers?

- Are the characteristics easily measured? How?

- Is there extant police personnel data that would correlate with measurable characteristics?

The first step in achieving the project goals was to conduct a series of focus groups and interviews with all ranks in the BPD. Participants were asked to identify the best sergeants they

had known and to recommend criteria for what makes a good sergeant. A number of sergeants were nominated by two or more participants as exemplary, and the research team then matched the career and demographic characteristics of those sergeants against other sergeants in the department. The result was a matched sample of two groups—26 sergeants as exemplary and 29 sergeants as controls. Employing a double-blind experimental design, the researchers interviewed the sergeants and collected objective measures from department records. The measures included entrance exam scores, psychological screenings, police academy performance, citizen complaints, departmental commendations, and other internal data. As a last step, the project examined the data's implications for community policing, as well as for processes such as selection, education and training, mentoring, and promotions.

The results showed that the primary differences between the "nominated" or exemplary group and the control group were as follows:

1. Nominees scored significantly higher on all three moral reasoning variables than did controls.
2. Nominees selected friends, relatives, and authority figures in their lives as moral exemplars, whereas controls selected well-known religious or historical figures.
3. Nominees were promoted to sergeant faster than controls and promoted to lieutenant at a slower rate than controls.
4. Nominees used fewer non-line-of-duty sick days, and used them in characteristically different ways.

Bay City (Michigan) Police Department and Saginaw Valley State University

This partnership was between the Bay City Police Department and faculty members from Saginaw Valley State University. Its express purpose was to evaluate the Bay City Fast Track Program, which was aimed at reducing the recidivism of nonviolent juvenile delinquents. Specific research objectives were these:

- Demonstrate whether the Fast Track Program is a proactive program and if it is better than the traditional juvenile crime response system.

- Aid in the Bay City Police Department's managerial and budget allocations by producing data that will validate existing programs or suggest future projects.

- Add to research and data on nonviolent juvenile crime programs in a regional or demographic area.

Basically, to enter the program, a youth was "sentenced" by a judge to a certain number of hours of community service work, with the number of hours dependent upon the nature of the offense and the juvenile's prior delinquent history.

The Fast Track Program operated on the hypothesis that delinquent youths who were placed in a relatively brief community service program, jointly operated by the police and local community service agencies, would be less likely to reoffend than youths who received more traditional handling by the prosecutor or the juvenile court. To evaluate the program, a group of 188 participants in the Fast Track Program was compared to a similar group of 142 youths whose cases received more traditional handling, such as probation, deferred prosecution, or dismissal.

Results of the evaluation included these:

- Members of the Fast Track group received community service sanctions ranging from 2 to 20 days in length, with an average of 6.5 days.

- Regression analysis showed that the length of the sanction was related to the seriousness of the offense, but not to gender, race, or age.

- Of the participants in the Fast Track Program, 12.2 percent reoffended, compared to 24.1 percent in the comparison group.

Boston Police Department with Northeastern University and Harvard University

This partnership brought together planners in the Boston Police Department and faculty from Northeastern and Harvard Universities. At the time of the project, the police department was in the midst of planning a major transition to community policing. The LIRP project assisted this planning in two ways. First, the project team participated in a major strategic planning effort for community policing that had extensive involvement from community members. Second, the project team conducted a series of surveys of both citizens and police personnel to obtain reactions on the community policing changes that had been implemented.

Three categories of planning teams emerged for the strategic planning effort: neighborhood-based teams, constituent-based teams, and functionality-based teams. In total, 16 teams were formed. District captains tended to lead the neighborhood-based teams. The constituency-based teams generally included neighborhood residents and business owners in a community, and often included representatives from churches, civic groups, and youth service organizations. These teams tended to be in districts with concentrations of businesses. The functionality-based

teams were citywide teams for some of the bureaus in the police department: the Bureau of Special Operations, Bureau of Investigative Services, Professional Standards Bureau, and Field Services Bureau.

After three months of meetings, a list of goals and objectives was published that represented the culmination of efforts by the teams. The 16 teams generated 295 specific goals and objectives. District captains were then empowered to develop and implement action plans for accomplishing the goals and objectives.

The LIRP project team became involved in surveys that were conducted in 1995 and again in 1997 to measure citizens' perceptions about crime and community policing. The 1997 survey included questions about victimization. The team also conducted surveys of police personnel on the changes that had been made. The analyses of the surveys showed support for the police department's efforts towards community policing.

Buffalo (New York) Police Department with the State University of New York–Buffalo School of Management

This partnership was between the Buffalo Police Department (BPD) and the School of Management at the State University of New York–Buffalo. In spring 1995, the School of Management conducted a leadership development course for the department. That effort led to interest on the part of both organizations in developing a partnership that was eventually funded under the LIRP program.

The overall purpose of the partnership was to build effective strategies for community policing. Toward that aim, a steering committee was established, comprising key departmental managers from administration, patrol, and the detective bureau. Over the course of the project, the committee provided direction and received feedback on the project's research efforts. During the four years, the project team worked on several research projects, including strategic planning, computer training, implementation of new information technologies, a hiring process and educational requirement review, a minority recruitment plan, supervisor training, joint community–police training, and an evaluation of the effectiveness of the BPD's new mobile computer terminals.

An interesting feature of the partnership was its extensive use of students from local universities. These interns performed a variety of tasks for the department as a result of the LIRP project. Examples include the development of a new e-mail system, a study to explore raising

the educational requirement for potential officer candidates, assessment of the technological needs of the detective bureau, creation of guides for using new technologies, and development of the department's website. Interns also established databases for several detective squads (sex offense, auto theft, narcotics, and robbery), for district detectives' warrants file, and for community policing officers to track block clubs and businesses.

Toward the end of the project, the National Center for Geographic Information and Analysis (one of three such centers in the country) was added as a partner. Other departments within the university that eventually joined the partnership were the Library School, the School of Social Work, the Law School, and the School of Engineering. Each contributed resources to the partnership effort.

Chandler, Glendale, and Scottsdale (Arizona) Police Departments with Arizona State University

This partnership project was between three police departments (Chandler, Glendale, and Scottsdale) and Arizona State University. All three cities are located in the Phoenix area. The original design of the project was that representatives from the three agencies would meet to determine a common research agenda. However, because of delays in the actual grant funding, the time period for the project had to be compressed. In addition, the agencies encountered difficulties in scheduling team meetings. As a result, the project became more of a one-to-one approach with individual researchers working with personnel in their assigned agency.

The research project in Chandler was an evaluation of the police department's Operation Restoration, which was an attempt to reduce crime and disorder in the city's redevelopment district, an area comprising some of the oldest neighborhoods in the city. The department combined two units—the Neighborhood Response Team and Neighborhood Services Unit—to focus on the target areas. The evaluation concluded that the effort was successful and that there were few problems with the implementation.

The project in the Scottsdale Police Department examined the department's efforts to implement a CompStat-like process to help direct its community policing and traditional law enforcement efforts. Scottsdale's model involved regular meetings of management personnel where crime statistics and enforcement efforts were discussed in order to determine crime trends, design enforcement strategies, and assess the results of enforcement efforts. The research project

consisted of a process evaluation that involved intensive observation of the CompStat process and an assessment of how crime trend data actually gets used at the district and beat levels.

At the time of the project, the Glendale Police Department was trying to integrate the department's investigative function with its patrol-based community policing efforts. The plan was to decentralize the investigative function and co-locate investigators with patrol and "community action officers" in geographically dispersed precincts. At the time of the project team's final report, the partnership research had not been completed due primarily to persistent delays in implementing the department's planned reorganization.

Charleston (West Virginia) Police Department with Marshall University

As a result of the partnership project with the IACP and JRSA, the Charleston Police Department and Marshall University submitted their own proposal to NIJ in a subsequent round of funding under the LIRP program. As stated in their proposal, the intent was to conduct several surveys in Charleston to obtain opinions on the police department's community policing program. Specifically, the project assessed the "knowledge, skills, attitudes, and perceptions" of (1) the general public, (2) area businesses, (3) community housing residents, and (4) police officers in the Charleston Police Department. Sample sizes were 210 residents, 415 public housing residents, 147 businesses, and 111 police officers. The research team wrote separate reports about each survey's results, plus an overall report covering the major findings.

The project's final report highlights the following survey results:

- 50.9 percent of the public housing residents and 54.2 percent of other city residents either (1) felt that Charleston's community policing had made a difference in crime prevention and reduction or (2) had noticed a positive change in the way crime was handled in the area.

- 32.9 percent of the business owners said they had heard about community policing and believed that community policing would have great value for their business district. Another 28.9 percent said they had heard about the community policing approach, but did not believe it would make a difference in their area, or they had not heard about it, but were willing to give it a try.

- When Charleston police officers were asked if they agreed that community policing was not just a change in tactics but a philosophical change in policing, 84.5 percent either agreed or strongly agreed, compared to 5.4 percent who disagreed or strongly disagreed.

- With regard to responsiveness of police officers, 66.2 percent of city residents, 64.3 percent of public housing residents, and 63.8 percent of business owners agreed that officers were either very responsive or somewhat responsive.

- 64.4 percent of public housing respondents said that the worst threat of crime in public housing was involvement of children in drugs, followed by 62.7 percent who reported drug dealer attacks, 54.7 percent who said random shooting, and 53.3 percent who said crimes against children.

Colorado Springs Police Department and El Paso County Sheriff's Department with Colorado University

The Colorado Springs Police Department and El Paso County Sheriff's Department partnered with Colorado University in this project. The primary activity under the grant project was a telephone survey of 1,200 residences selected randomly through El Paso County, which includes Colorado Springs. The survey was conducted in November 1996. Its primary purpose was to determine actual victimization rates of crime in the area and perceptions about policing. A survey of this type had been conducted in 1978, thereby allowing comparisons after an 18-year period. While there were a few differences in the survey methodology, questions asked on the two surveys remained the same.

Key results from the survey effort were as follows:

- Annualized crime rates per 1,000 population for the city and county were determined to be: theft (183.6 in 1978 versus 124.4 in 1996); burglary (19.2 and 15.6), motor vehicle theft (8.2 and 5.2), assault (45.2 and 46.6), assault with a weapon (19.4 and 20.8), sexual assault (4.8 and 2.6) and vandalism (89.4 and 75.3).

- Except for theft, none of the differences observed in the rates of victimization for the city versus the county was statistically significant. For theft, the rate for Colorado Springs was higher than the rate for El Paso County.

- From 1978 to 1996, the local rate of reporting theft remained the same at a little over 40 percent. For burglary, the rate of reporting in 1978 was 65 percent, compared to 36 percent in 1996. For motor vehicle theft, the reporting rates were 93 percent and 86 percent, respectively. For assault, the reporting rate was 57 percent in 1978, decreasing significantly to 33 percent in 1996.

- On rating whether police were doing a good job (1=poor, 2=average, 3=good, 4=excellent), the average was 2.90 in 1978, compared to 3.07 in 1996, a statistically significant difference.

- With regard to feelings of safety, the mean for the city was 3.81 in 1996, compared to 3.06 in the earlier survey, which meant that residents felt greater safety in 1996, a statistically significant difference.

Authors of the report developed a multivariate structural equation model of victim fear, reporting, and attitudes toward police. Results of that model showed that the more serious the victimization in a household, the more likely the crime was to be reported. Moreover, the most serious the victimization, the greater the fear of personal victimization by the respondent. Women were slightly more fearful of personal victimization than men. The greater the fear of personal victimization, the less positive were the attitudes toward police. Finally, women, older respondents, and white respondents held more positive attitudes toward police than men, younger respondents, and non-white respondents.

Council Grove Police Department with Kansas State University

This partnership was between the Council Grove, Kansas Police Department and Kansas State University. Council Grove is a town of approximately 2,500 residents located about 130 miles west of Kansas City. The county has about 6,300 residents. The location of this partnership was clearly the smallest in the Partnership program, although it should be noted that the chief of police from Council Grove could claim that their form of policing has always followed the tenets of community policing because of their size.

Key members of the project staff were the chief of police, city manager, and a professor/researcher from the university. After conducting a series of meetings prior to proposal submission, the aims of the project were identified as:

- Describe the policing model in the city from the perspectives of law enforcement, community leaders, and other members of the community.

- Identify the indicators of success or effectiveness of local policing as perceived by law enforcement, community leaders, and other citizens.

- Identify law enforcement priorities as perceived by law enforcement, community leaders, and other citizens.

- Make recommendations for law enforcement policy and training.

Interest in applying to the Partnership program derived from the fact that improvements of a local state highway would result in a few years in making an historic ranch and proposed national park area more accessible to tourists. The city manager and chief of police were con-

cerned about the effects of rapid population change on the traditionally low crime rate in the city and county.

To accomplish the project's aims, a telephone survey of over 300 residents was conducted using randomly selected numbers. Students from the university conducted the telephone surveys, which were then analyzed by the university researcher. She shared the results with the city and chief of police, and the results were made available through the local newspaper. Several recommendations resulted from the survey's results. These included (1) a recommendation for law enforcement and city/county officials to do more public aware education, (2) more training for police officers regarding their responsibilities for enforcing law and protecting due process rights, and (3) additional education for police officers needed in gender equity issues.

Daphne, Foley, Gulf Shores, Loxley, and Baldwin County Sheriff's Departments with University of Southern Alabama

This partnership involved the University of Southern Alabama and five law enforcement agencies in Baldwin County, Alabama. The intent of the grant project, which had been initiated by the key researcher from the university, was to assist the five agencies to (1) plan community policing strategies, (2) define problems and create solutions, and (3) understand the need for evaluations of current and future community policing and problem-solving initiatives. Unfortunately, the university denied tenure to the researcher for reasons unrelated to the project and he left soon after the grant award to accept a position at a university in another state.

The university hired a replacement who was from a university in the Chicago, Illinois area and had been a member of the Chicago Police Department. With the permission of an advisory committee consisting of the chiefs from the five local police agencies and one representative from the university, the project was changed to develop a preliminary strategic plan to introduce community policing to their agencies, which included a police survey that had been used in an evaluation of Chicago's community policing program (see Skogan and Lurigio (1994)).

A total of 140 sworn officers from the five agencies completed the survey, which covered the topics of job satisfaction, attitudes about change, community-based police activities, opinions on the involvement of citizens in anti-crime changes, and others. Comparison of results from these agencies against those from the 1,405 officers with the Chicago Police Department gave the following results:

- Compared to their Chicago colleagues, Baldwin County officers believe
  - They have more discretion. are more aware of what their organizations expect of them.
  - Feel better about their organizations.
  - Are less resistant to change.
  - Exhibit a willingness to engage in non-crime fighting tasks.
  - See the citizens of their community as more involved in crime prevention activities.
  - Are more willing to collaborate with community members in addressing police-related activities.
  - Are less distrustful of their communities.
- These differences seem to be related to the organizational structures and patterns of interaction between community and police in a large city versus a rural community.

Hagerstown Police Department with Shippensburg University

This partnership between the Hagerstown, Maryland Police Department and nearby Shippensburg University examined the impact of community policing efforts in four areas of the city (Jonathan Street Area, Center City or Downtown, and the Noland and Westview Housing Complexes. These areas were selected for community policing by the department because they represented either historically or newly emerging trouble spots. Also included in the study was an area known as Salem Avenue, which served as a comparison area for the evaluation.

In Hagerstown, the community policing program had been implemented through the establishment of Community Policing Officers (CPOs), which had primary responsibility for their assigned neighborhoods. The formal responsibilities of the CPOs were to (1) perform law enforcement duties while patrolling their respective neighborhoods, (2) serve as a liaison between the neighborhood's citizens, businesses, and the police department, (3) provide support to neighborhood organizations, (4) establish Neighborhood Watch Programs and other crime prevention activities, (5) conduct a series of education meetings, and (6) coordinate the services of the various governmental and private agencies to resolve identified neighborhood problems.

During the partnership project, several surveys of businesses and citizens were conducted both prior to and after the introduction of CPOs into a selected area. All surveys were administered in a face-to-face interview format. In addition, analyses were conducted with data on crime and calls for service for the targeted areas and control area.

Jersey City Police Department with Rutgers University

This partnership was between the Jersey City, New Jersey Police Department and the Center for Crime Prevention Studies at Rutgers University. The two organizations had teamed on research projects in the past including NIJ-sponsored projects such as the Drug Market Analysis Project (DMAP) and the Public Housing crime-mapping project.

A unique feature of the grant project was that it supported an academically credentialed researcher on a full-time basis as Research Director within the police department. During the course of the Partnership project, several research efforts were accomplishes. Most notable of these was an evaluation of the Journal Square Special Improvement District, which encompassed 23 street segments around the intersection of two major traffic arteries. The area had long been in decline. Area businesses pooled resources through a self-imposed levy to supplement public services. It launched a major effort to make the area more attractive to prospective customers. Between 1995 and 1997, the Partnership project evaluated the efforts in this area through (1) photographic and videotaped records of physical conditions, (2) a 1996 survey of merchants, business, and professional people in the area; (3) calls for service from comparable periods before and after the cleanup effort; and (4) records of activities and incidents handled by security and hospitality personnel over a 13-month period.

The evaluation results were generally favorable to the efforts in cleaning up the area. Journal Square's appearance was considered to be cleaner and safer. The vast majority of respondents to the survey of merchants reported no burglary or assault crimes against their businesses or employees. Over three-quarters of the respondents rated the performance of the security guards as good or excellent. Finally, calls for police service in the Journal Square area fell throughout the year following the initiative.

Other research efforts under the Partnership project included support and evaluation for a Neighborhood Task Force and Anti-gang Initiative, domestic violence crisis intervention teams, a CompStat data project, and others.

Lansing Police Department with Michigan State University

In 1996, the Lansing Police Department implemented a "team approach" to community policing within the organization. The Partnership project with Michigan State University started shortly after the new plan was implemented. At the start of the Partnership project, the project

selected the implementation of the new plan as the focus for research. The team approach included the following changes:

- Two independent precincts, each with its own uniformed officers and detectives

- Creation of a new precinct house for one of the precincts.

- Ten team areas in each precinct with patrol officers around the clock assigned to each team area and expected to perform as a team.

- Overlapping 10-hour shifts to facilitate teamwork across shifts.

- Assignment of detectives to teams, handling all investigations on a geographic basis (later changed to specialized units throughout the precinct).

- Elimination of the Community Policing Bureau, with assignment of the Community Policing Officers (CPOs) to teams.

- CPOs remained assigned to small neighborhoods within team areas.

The Partnership project team conducted a survey of the patrol force with a response rate of 84 percent (120 officers). They did ridealongs on 51 shifts (about 450 hours) and they conducted two focus groups with nine officers and ten sergeants. Results from their effort included the following:

- Ninety percent of the officers responding to the survey felt there were not sufficient personnel to handle calls for service.

- Except for day shift, officers spent the majority of their time outside their assigned team areas.

- Fifty percent of the officers stated they had completed a problem solving project in the last four months, but 30 percent said they had never done a project.

- Among officers who had completed a problem solving project, the median amount of time spent was five hours per week.

- Forty percent of the officers and half the sergeants felt that the department had not done a good job in clarifying the role of patrol officers in problem solving.

A new chief came on board to the department in 1998. He made the decision that the project report would be publicly available. In addition, he accepted many recommendations for change in the report. These included (1) adding 20 people to the patrol force from specialized units to ensure more time for problem solving, (2) reducing the number of teams from ten to nine, (3) providing all officers with problem solving training and how to take advantage of in-

formation technology, (4) returned lieutenants to permanent shifts, and (5) evaluate precinct commanders on outcome measures such as crime rates, calls for service, and citizen satisfaction.

Lexington Police Department with Eastern Kentucky University

The Lexington Police Department and Eastern Kentucky University had a long-standing collaboration on joint efforts prior to the Partnership program. The grant project continued their collaboration with four studies: an evaluation of the current written test administered to police applicants, an analysis of drug arrests, a national survey to determine the experiences of other police departments with Citizens Academies, and a study on the apparent lack of interest in promotions to sergeant and lieutenant.

As an example of the type of research conducted, the first study analyzed a commercially available test given to applications for the job of police officer. The test consists of six subscales: ability to learn and apply information, ability to remember details, verbal ability, ability to accurately complete forms, spatial ability, and ability to apply judgment and logic. The research team obtained test results on 419 applicants for the position of police officer. Their analysis concluded with the following results:

- An item-analysis of the test reveals that it is improperly constructed in that extremely easy items are over representative, thus reducing the ability of the test to discriminate highly qualified from less qualified applicants.

- While the selection of easy items results in a high degree of internal consistency, as represented by Cronbach's Alpha, it fails to assist police departments in identifying a pool of strong candidates.

- A factor analysis of the test items revealed that none of the factors corresponded with any of the six sub-scales indicating that although the sub-scale items may have had face validity, they did not access coherent underlying constructs.

The researchers concluded that the test was not particularly effective in selecting a pool of qualified applicants for policing.

Los Angeles Police Department with University of California at Los Angeles and University of Southern California

The principal researcher in this partnership project was a professor from the Graduate School of Education and Information Studies (GSEIS) at UCLA. Two professors *emertis* from UCLA and USC assisted on the project along with two other professors from GSEIS and a pro-

fessor from the Department of Management, California State University. During the course of the project, four UCLA graduate students assisted in the research effort. The primary contact within the Los Angeles Police Department was a deputy chief in headquarters. However, the research team worked with a large number of command personnel and officers in all six divisions of the department.

The project team conducted three major surveys of police department employees with the first initiated in November 1996, the second in January 1998, and the third in November 1999. In total, 1,131 surveys were completed in the 1996 survey (90 percent of sworn employees available for duty on the day of the survey), 1,720 surveys in the 1998 effort (83 percent response rate), and 1,625 surveys in the 1999 effort (82 percent response rate). In addition, the research team conducted more than 100 ride-alongs, observed operations in police stations, and conducted interviews with officers.

Areas covered by the surveys were developed through a series of meeting held in July 1996 with captains from the six divisions. The results was a 95-item questionnaire, scored on a five-point Likert scale, organized around four overarching issues: police work and the working environment (32 items); supervisors and managers (20 items); hiring, evaluation, and disciplinary systems (18 items); and community policing and the department's relationship to the community (25 items).

As discussed in their final report, the events in Los Angeles between 1994 and 1998 hampered the research progress. These included the Christopher Commission report that followed the 1991 Rodney King beating, the publicity surrounding the O.J. Simpson trial, the Margaret Mitchell shooting, and the Rampart scandal of 1998. During the same research period, the department had two police chiefs—Chief William Williams (1992-1997) and Chief Bernard Parks (1997-2000).

Even with these obstacles, the extensive analysis of the surveys produced useful results for the LAPD to consider in the coming years regarding community policing. A key recommendation in their final report is for a redesign of the department's work systems to "include community policing activities as the means of producing cultural changes." The reports goes on to say that the elements of community policing exist in the department's organization (the Basic Car plan, the senior lead officers, and 18 Community Police Advisory Boards).

Lowell, Salem, and Danvers Police Departments with Salem State University

Three police departments located in the cities of Lowell, Salem, and Danvers, Massachusetts participated in this partnership with researchers from Salem State University. At the time of the project, the Lowell Police Department had 102 sworn personnel, Danvers had 44 sworn personnel, and Salem had 88 sworn personnel.

The primary activities under the Partnership project were (1) surveys of all sworn personnel in the three participating departments and (2) surveys of citizens in all three cities regarding community attitudes and perceptions relating to crime and safety and (3) review of existing information systems at the three departments. To develop the survey instruments, the principal researcher met with a team of three police officers (one from each department) and three members of the university on a monthly basis.

Multiple Sites with Southern Illinois University

In this project, a member of the faculty at Southern Illinois University and two graduate students held a series of meetings with representatives from approximately 18 law enforcement agencies in the region. The purpose of the meetings was to identify common research interests across the agencies. Those meetings resulted in the identification of two evaluation projects with one focusing on the DARE program in the area and the other on the implementation of several COPS grants awarded to the sites. Other topics considered at the meetings, but eventually rejected, were employment of part-time police officers, community policing training for mid-level management, and developing input to community policing programs. The project resulted in the development of two masters dissertations on the selected topics of the DARE program and COPS grants.

Oakland Police Department with University of California at Berkeley

The partnership between the Oakland, California Police Department and the University of California at Berkeley conducted three research efforts during the course of their Partnership project. These were on (1) problems that had arisen in connection with an annual festival celebrating multi-culturalism, (2) an evaluation of the police department's gun violence suppression program, and (3) research on reducing the stress of individual police officers. All three were completed within the time frame of the project.

The study of Oakland's Festival at the Lake resulted from hostilities between police and young African Americans during the 1994 festival. The research team reviewed the problems that occurred during this festival as compared to the 1995 and 1996 festivals in which the police department had employed community-oriented strategies. Their report concludes that principles of community oriented policing—interagency collaboration, problem solving, cultural sensitivity, and community engagement—reduce the risks associated with policing public events.

The city's Gun Violence Suppression program had twelve components that included "hot spot" enforcement, gun trade-ins, community participation, and gun seizures. The plan targeted five areas in each of the five police districts in Oakland chosen based on high numbers of violent crimes, good community support, and clearly defined borders. The Project team conducted an evaluation of the suppression program, with the following conclusions:

- All the beats containing target areas experienced declines in rates of assaults with deadly weapons as a result of the suppression program, ranging from 4 percent to 27 percent across the five areas. These results compared to a 2 percent increase in the rest of the city.

- Four of the target areas had decreases in carjackings greater than the decrease that occurred in the rest of the city.

- The results in overall homicides were mixed with only one beat decreasing significantly, by 85 percent.

- One area, Beat 33, had the most impressive results. It had received steady attention over a 13-month period. In addition to the reductions in the violent crimes of homicide, assault with a deadly weapon, and carjackings, the area also experienced reductions in robberies (24 percent) and burglaries (28 percent).

The study on police stress put together a team of clinical psychologists from the university's Department of Psychology and the Institute of Human Development to apply already developed measures to reduce stress associated with the marriages of police officers. Eleven male officers from the Oakland Police Department and their spouses used daily dairies to rate the amount of job stress they experienced each day for 30 days. Once each week, they came to the laboratory at the Department of Psychology at the end of the work day and engaged in a 15-minute conversation about the events during the day. They subsequently watched a videotape of their conversation and used a rating dial to rate how they had felt moment-by-moment during the conversation. Physiological measures that assessed the cardiovascular (e.g., heart rate and blood

pressure), electrodermal (sweat gland activity), and somatic (overall muscle activity) systems were monitored continuously from both spouses.

Interviews with the officers and their spouses identified several common complaints:

- Safety issues: poorly equipped police force; inadequate, out-dated equipment; understaffing; and sending individuals out without backup partners.

- Politics: a belief that the current police administration cares more about the opinions of the public than about the safety or training of the police force.

- Organizational climate: Makes asking for help with problems difficult.

- Court appearances: the necessity to appear in court regardless of what shift a person has been assigned.

The researchers also found that higher levels of job stress on the day of the sessions were related to increased cardiovascular arousal during the pre-interaction period for both partners, as shown by shorter cardiac inter-beat intervals and shorter pulse transmission times to the finger. Job stress predicted different patterns of somatic activity for spouses, with high stress associated with high activity for husbands (consistent with increased agitation) and low activity for wives (consistent with increased vigilance and wariness).

Omaha Police Department with University of Nebraska at Omaha

The Omaha Police Department and the University of Nebraska at Omaha partnered on this project to assist in the research and evaluation of a Total Quality Management (TQM) approach to community policing. Topic selection was driven by the fact that the department had independently received federal funding for the TQM approach at about the same time that the research partnership grant was received. As a result, a sense of urgency about implementing TQM developed, and its implementation became the focal point for the Partnership project.

The TQM approach focused on three components of planned change within the department: training, structural change, and problem-solving activities. An additional focus for the research was to identify factors impeding the implementation of TQM. The research project as planned consisted of two major components. The first was to set up a monitoring process for the implementation of the Omaha Policing Strategic Plan. That plan included over 100 action items, and development of a system to track implementation was viewed by police department staff as an important source of feedback on their efforts to implement the plan. The second component

was to conduct surveys of the community to determine whether the implementation of the plan was having any impact on the community. The research design called for analyzing crime data and community surveys to assess changes that might be attributable to the implementation of the strategic plan.

One survey had been completed as part of the strategic planning process, and that survey was to serve as the baseline for analysis. Unfortunately, developments in the department and community prevented the execution of the second survey. As the final report on this project states, "The chief more or less placed a moratorium on community surveys of police perform-ance after a string of extraordinary community relations problems flared up."

The evaluation of TQM under the strategic plan basically concluded that it was not working within the police department. The primary reason for this conclusion was that the de-partment had overestimated the amount of time and effort required for a TQM process and was not ready for the dramatic changes in culture that it required.

Philadelphia Police Department with Temple University

The Philadelphia Police Department and the Center for Public Policy at Temple Univer-sity were the partners in this project, which focused on evaluating community policing within the police department. The partnership received two grant awards over three years. The first grant used multiple research methods, including surveys, observations, interviews, and analysis of or-ganizational directives, and resulted in an inventory of community policing efforts and activities within the city of Philadelphia. At the organizational level, interviews were conducted with cen-tral administrators and district commanders to ascertain the nature and extent of community po-licing in each district and identify issues of importance in each district.

At the operational level, survey instruments were developed and administered to ap-proximately 150 officers hired under COPS AHEAD grants awarded to the department by the COPS Office.[32] These officers had received several types of field assignments in the department. Information concerning the role of these officers, their information sources, job attachment, time allocation, acculturation, and training were among the topics covered. Observational methods included walk-alongs and ride-alongs with COPS AHEAD and traditional motorized officers. At

the community level, the research staff attended Police Department Advisory Council meetings and discussed with community members the nature of their activities and the community policing activities of the department. As a result of the project, exemplary community-oriented and problem-solving programs were identified. In addition, the project identified factors that facilitated and hindered the implementation of community policing within the Philadelphia Police Department. The researchers reported a number of findings and recommendations at the administrative, operational, and community levels.

An important component of both projects in Philadelphia was the use of an administrative committee and a supervisor and line officer committee to advise the research team and provide a link between the two groups. During the planning grant, the committees met monthly and worked on all aspects of the project. They assisted with the content and language of the surveys and questionnaires. Additionally, they assisted with interpreting the findings and made suggestions for implementing recommendations. The administrative committee dealt generally with organizational issues that would be affected by expanding community policing into the whole department. The supervisor and line officer committee focused on how the COPS AHEAD program had been implemented. The committees served a critical function for both the researchers and police department. By having administrators and district commanders discuss what they considered to be the important issues, the researchers were assured that the top end of the organization had provided input and would support those chosen areas. As important, the supervisor and line officer committee relied on the information from officers who provided service to the community. Committee members were able to voice their opinions openly in working sessions, which permitted the researchers to understand each group's viewpoints.

By establishing a true collaboration with committee members, the researchers were able to acquire information about the organization and its operations under community policing. Committee members representing commanders and line officers were able to discuss the project and its process with fellow officers. They could explain its scope and "sell" the project to any skeptics. These secondary functions were important to committee members and served the researchers' needs very well.

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[32] COPS AHEAD is one of the programs sponsored by the COPS Office for achieving its goal of hiring 100,000 officers nationwide for community policing.

Racine Police Department with University of Wisconsin

The purpose of this partnership between the Racine, Wisconsin Police Department and the University of Wisconsin was to evaluate community policing in the city. Community Policing began in Racine in 1992 in response to citizen concerns regarding deteriorating neighborhoods, increasing signs of gang presence, and issues of safety in high crime areas. In 1993, two community-based field offices in two high crime areas were established. In addition, changes were made in how police officers interacted with the community, including foot patrols in target areas, rotation periods extended from 30 days to two years, and an increase in minority officers on the force. In 1994, community policing was expanded to the Martin Luther King neighborhood, another area plagued with high crime.

Research techniques for the partnership project included survey of police officers, survey of residents in affected areas, focus groups, interviews with neighborhood leaders, and analysis of crime statistics. Some surveys had already been conducted prior to the initiation of community policing in the selected areas, which allowed for before/after comparisons to be made. With some survey efforts, control groups had been identified, which strengthened the analysis design.

Major results from the analysis were as follows:

- Community leaders were overwhelmingly supportive of community policing. They like the role of police officers in assisting community groups, providing safe houses for students after school, and promoting citizen awareness of community needs.

- Community leaders wanted to see more involvement of the police department with the community, extension of hours that police patrolled neighborhoods, and greater presence of officers in the schools.

- Support for community policing was high among commander personnel in the police department, but there was less support among patrol officers and detectives.

- The three community policing areas experienced a 23.7 percent decrease in Part One crimes from 1993 to 1997, while the control neighborhood had a drop in crime of 40 percent for this time period. While crime has declined in these areas, it remained stable over the four-year study period in the rest of the city.

St. Louis Police Department with St. Louis University

This partnership was between members of the St. Louis Police Department and the Department of Public Policy Studies at St. Louis University. The two organizations already had a

long relationship of research efforts, although these efforts generally were under grants provided to the university in which the police department served as the testing agency or source for data.

The research topic, which was selected jointly by the two organizations, was guided by the Department's view that the key to effective community policing was the leadership capability of sergeants. As a starting point for the research, focus groups were held with nine district captains and three area majors to get their views on the characteristics and behaviors associated with effective supervision. These factors were identified as adaptability, assertiveness, self-confidence, and knowledge. After the focus groups, the research team conducted an extended participant observation phase with sergeants. Captains were asked to designate "strong, average, and weak sergeants" for the observations. Twenty-seven sergeants representing all nine districts were observed and interviewed over more than 100 hours of ride-alongs.

In addition, a leadership survey was administered throughout the department to establish dimensions of leadership styles. Results from the surveys showed that sergeants have a different view of how they lead than officers who report to them and than their immediate supervisors. Moreover, the survey results reflected agreement about how sergeants should function. Finally, the research team examined calls for service from citizens to gauge the extent to which problem-solving was taking place by supervisors and officers.

West Virginia State Police with The FOCUS Coalition

The FOCUS (Free Our Citizens of Unhealthy Substances) Coalition was founded in 1990 by 38 organizations in Jefferson County, West Virginia, located in the Eastern Panhandle of the state. Since that time, coalition members have expanded to 130 public and private organizations representing business, education, health, and public safety. The Coalition was established for the purpose of designing and implementing strategies and programs for the prevention of alcohol, tobacco, and other drug abuse, and to research and evaluate criminal justice initiatives.

The Partnership project featuring the Coalition was initiated to support the efforts of the West Virginia State Police in a unique effort to assist local police agencies in the state in their implementations of community policing. Particular attention during the grant was paid to Jefferson County where the state police are the first line of public safety with support from the Ranson Town Police Department and Jefferson County Sheriff's Department.

During the partnership project, the project team conducted a process evaluation of community policing in the county with on-site observations of the implementation and pre/post surveys of community residents. Conclusions of the evaluation include the following:

- Rural police can implement successful community policing initiatives consistent with local culture.

- Success in implementing such initiatives is affected by such factors as consistent leadership, availability of training, and duration of implementation efforts.

- The implementation of community policing initiatives can reduce the fear of crime in a rural setting.

- The implementation of community policing initiatives can improve the public's assessment of police performance in a predominantly rural setting.

- Community-based organizations such as the FOCUS Coalition can successfully work with local police to set police research agendas, which are both meaningful to the community and useful to the police.

- Community-based organizations like the FOCUS Coalition can successfully conduct evaluation and research projects in partnership with their local police.

In addition to this major effort in evaluating community policing, the partnership was asked during the course of the project to report on the planning and installation of an electronic warrant network and data management system for the Jefferson County West Virginia Sheriffs' Department, Shepherdstown Police Department, the Shepherd College West Virginia Police Department, and Jefferson County Office of Emergency Services. The system, called the Combined Local Agency Warrant System (CLAWS), was developed so that the law enforcement agencies could immediately access and share information. The report makes several observations on the experiences of the participating agencies in establishing such a system includes recommendations for other agencies in the state that might be interested in the system.

Computer Mapping and CompStat

These five projects aimed at developing computer mapping for the participating police departments. Because of the subject matter, these projects were more technical in nature than the first two groups as they involved the establishment of databases (crime, calls for service, etc.), geographic information systems, and spatial analysis techniques. Three projects (New York, Indianapolis, and Prince George's County) subsequently established or improved their CompStat process with the capabilities available through the computer mapping.

Charlottesville Police Department, Albemarle County Police Department, University of Virginia Campus Police with University of Virginia

Three police departments in Virginia (Charlottesville, Albemarle, and University of Virginia) were partners with professors and researchers at the Institute of Law, Psychiatry and Department of Systems Engineering, University of Virginia. The partnership project had two primary objectives. One was to join academic research faculty from the university to police personnel to improve crime analysis with the potential for more effective community policing. The second objective was to develop and implement a state-of-the-art computer system for capturing and analyzing crime data for all three participating agencies.

The projected resulted in the establishment of a incident-based reporting system called ReCAP (Regional Crime Analysis Program) that is a fully integrated Records Management System (RMS) and Geographic Information System (GIS) with crime analytical modeling. In addition, a "how to" manual was prepared to provide an outline of the steps necessary to facilitate the successful installation of ReCAP or a similar system for police departments nationwide.

Completed features of ReCAP under the partnership project include:

- Mapping software (i.e., geographical displays of location and types of crime occurrences)

- Suspect identification (i.e., searching files prior to the arrest of a suspect to determine prior arrestees who are demographically similar and/or who have manifested a similar type of crime scene behavior. This might reflect similarities in terms of their demographic characteristics, victim or target choice, or modus operandi.)

- Case matching (i.e., a correlational process whereby matching occurs between the crime scene behavior of the arrested suspect and other current unsolved crimes)

- Target profile arrest (i.e., builds upon control chart modeling, makes use of information, is thought to be more useful for the identification of the type of person, structure, vehicle, or establishment that is most likely to be targeted by an offender in a series of offenses).

Implementation of ReCAP was a major step forward for the participating police departments. Prior to the project, the police departments used different data collection forms to manually generate offense reports. As a result of the project, a regional database and collaborative partnership with university researchers has been established for crime analysis.

Forest Park Police Department with University of Cincinnati

Forest Park, Ohio has a residential population of approximately 22,000 and is located just outside the city of Cincinnati. The police department had approximately 30 sworn personnel at the time of the Partnership program. A long-standing relationship existed prior to the Partnership program between the police department and researchers at the Division of Criminal Justice at the University of Cincinnati. For more than ten years, students from the university had served in internship capacities with the police department. Further, several members of the police department had earned degrees from the university, and several joint research projects between the two organizations had been achieved.

At the start of the Partnership program, there were three key participants in the project: a lieutenant and a captain from the police department, and a researcher from the university. An early research effort was performed through the supervision of the research team in which police officers in the county having community policing or crime prevention assignments received surveys to complete on the kinds of community problems encountered, the solutions employed by officers, and officers' perceptions of the adequacy of their training and preparation for their assignments. Results assisted in forming Forest Park's community policing program.

In 1997, the project encountered organizational problems because of turnover of key personnel. In June, the lieutenant retired from the department; in August, the captain left the department to accept another job; and in September, the graduate research assistant who had – worked on the survey accepted a faculty position at an out-of-state university. As a result, the faculty researcher at the university was the only member remaining from the original team. By the spring of that year, it appeared that the partnership would not continue because the new command staff had not been actively involved in the partnership and did not display enthusiasm about the grant project. However, in April 1998, an interesting turn of events occurred in which the chief of the department retired and in June the former captain accepted the job as chief of police.

By January 1999, the partnership was again well established and had started on a Geographic Information System (GIS) with assistance from a doctoral student. The research assistant worked half time at the department for several months along with a detective assigned to the

project to develop a GIS. This effort was eventually successful in establishing a crime mapping system for the department along with a Guidebook for users.

Indianapolis Police Department with Indiana University and Hudson University

This partnership was between the Indianapolis Police Department, Indiana University, and the Hudson Institute. Activities under the partnership centered on the establishment of the Indianapolis Management Accountability Program (IMAP), which was fashioned after the successful CompStat efforts in New York City. The first IMAP session, which focused on drugs, had about 100 individuals in attendance, including most of the department's middle managers and executive staff. It used computer projection to display maps and other information. The Project team had developed the session, with the development starting with the selection of drugs for the first session and continuing through to the analysis and interpretation of information presented at the session.

After that session, other IMAP sessions were held bi-weekly on each Part I offense (homicide, rape, robbery, assault, burglary, auto theft, larceny, and arson). These sessions were followed by similar IMAP efforts on each of the department's five districts. Each district commander was provided a copy of he analysis about five days before the scheduled IMAP session, and the district commander was expected to answer questions about the analysis at the session. In 1999, the format was modified with monthly meetings held in which the crime trends of all five districts were discussed, including follow-up from the preceding session on the impact of operational changes.

Throughout IMAP's development, the sessions were supported through a joint project team comprised of district criminologists (funded by the Partnership grant), three university faculty (grant funded), and a lieutenant from the police department. The IMAP effort had several beneficial results for the Indianapolis Police Department. These included (1) improved data availability, (2) improved internal data analysis capacity, (3) greater emphasis on problem solving, and (4) more effective resource allocation.

Analyses for the IMAP sessions led to other research projects under the Partnership grant. For example, particular neighborhoods were identified as accounting for a disproportionate amount of the city's violent crime. The result was a replication of the Kansas City gun experi-

ment (Sherman, Shaw, and Rogan, 1995) in two target areas, chosen on the basis of the IMAP crime maps and deploying two slightly different strategies. The evaluation (McGarrell, Chermak, and Weiss, 1999) found that the project had a significant effect on gun crime in the north target area with a major reduction in homicide and 0 percent decreases in armed robbery and aggravated assault with a gun. In the east target area, homicides were reduced, but no observable effect on armed robberies or gun assaults could be found.

New York City Police Department with City University of New York

The purpose of this collaboration was to improve computer mapping techniques with particular application to the CompStat program within the New York City Police Department. The project brought together members of the Crime Analysis and Program Planning office at the police department with researchers from the City University of New York—both the Center for Urban Research (Graduate School and University Center) and Center for Applied Studies of the Environment (Hunter College).

The foundations for the efforts under this project were obtained through a workshop held by the grantees in which 12 noted researchers from across the country were invited to explore the state of the art in geographic information systems (GIS) to analyze crime patterns. To prepare for the workshop, the researchers were sent 13 months of data on the seven major felonies (homicide, rape, robbery, assault, burglary, larceny, and auto theft) for Bronx, New York and asked to undertake their own analysis for presentation at the meeting.

Contributions at the workshop fell into four groups. The first concerns the organizational and intellectual environment in which GIS is used to conduct crime analysis, including how the parts of a GIS fit together and become useful for field operations. The second group presented a variety of techniques for defining and analyzing "hot spots" within the Bronx data. A third group related these spatial patterns to other characteristics, such as proximity to various kinds of facilities, including schools, transit stops, and public housing. A final group of presenters looked at a variety of other issues about crime analysis, including crime displacement, neural network analysis, and raster as opposed to vector data to analyze hot spots.

Papers from the workshop appeared in book form (Goldsmith, *et al*., 2000). In addition, several of the techniques presented by the researchers at the workshop were incorporated into the crime maps for the CompStat meetings at the New York City Police Department.

Prince George's County Police Department with University of Maryland

This project between the Prince George's County Police Department and the University of Maryland evolved over a four-year period with a series of research efforts centering on computer mapping. The first project was CRIMEWEB, which was developed to collect and analyze crime information in a timely and accurate manner. The university provided expertise in database management and mapping to their partners in the police department in this endeavor. Using maps developed by CRIMEWEB, another project, Violence Abatement Program, developed procedures for identifying hot spots of crimes and the department directed intensified patrol to those areas. As the Violence Abatement Program progressed, members of the university team informed the department about reductions in crime in the targeted areas. The success of these two projects led to another effort that focused on the needs of the six District commanders. University team members assisted the commanders in analyzing crime and creating computer maps for individual districts.

Another related project was the Take Away Guns (TAG) effort. TAG officers employed traffic enforcement in an attempt to seize guns and discourage illegal gun transportation in the county. The university team conducted a before/after analysis of TAG's eight corridors and found positive effects on the reduction of gun crimes along the corridors.

A parallel effort to the above activities was the education of key commanders in the police department on New York's CompStat program. The result was that the department initiated its own version of CompStat with CRIMEWEB as the analytical basis. As with the New York approach, an interactive accountability structure evolved from the meetings that pressured districts to increase their ability to analyze and deal with geographic areas with high levels of crimes. The university team developed specialized reports on the department's efforts to support this effort.

Domestic Violence

These four projects selected domestic violence as a research topic. A common result was that the departments substantially increased their information and knowledge about community policing. Two projects (Berkeley and Seattle) developed assessment instruments to assist in the investigation and prevention of domestic violence. The other two projects improved the data-

bases of the participating police departments and conducted focus groups with victims to expand local knowledge about domestic violence.

Berkeley Police Department with East Bay Public Safety Corridor and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency

This project was a collaboration between the Berkeley, California Police Department, the East Bay Public Safety Corridor Partnership, and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency. The East Bay Corridor Public Safety Partnership provides services to 23 law enforcement jurisdictions in Alameda County and Contra Costa County, California. The Partnership identified a problem in the responses by police department officers to domestic violence incidents in that all officers did not handle the incidents in a consistent manner. Based on ridealongs and continued dialogue on the problem, the project team decided that two instruments would be developed to improve decision making at these incidents. One form is a Domestic Violence Safety Assessment/Supplemental Report and the other is a risk assessment instrument to classify offenders into risk categories. The department's Domestic Violence Prevention Unit would apply the risk assessment instrument to determine the level and type of intervention for each case.

To develop the risk assessment instrument, the project team obtained a sample of 47 domestic violence incidents, which resulted in the coding of information on 94 suspects. They then conducted an analysis including sex and race of individuals involved, drugs or alcohol involved, children present, prior arrest history of suspects, actions by officers (photographs taken, suspects arrested, etc.), and others.

A logistic regression model was then employed where the outcome variable was dichotomous and defined as being a suspect in the Berkeley police records on a new domestic – violence case within one year of the sampled event. Four variables were identified as statistically significant:

- Risk of reoffending was lower if:
  - The incident happened in a public place.
  - The victim was present for questioning when the police arrived.
- Risk was higher if:
  - The couple had children.
  - The suspect had a prior court record of domestic violence.

At the end of the Partnership effort, the risk assessment instrument was available for validation with prospectively collected data.

Framingham Police Department with Social Science Research and Evaluation, Inc.

This partnership was between the Framingham, Massachusetts Police Department and re-searchers at the Social Science Research and Evaluation, Inc. (SSRE). Framingham is a Boston suburb with about 65,000 residents. Collaboration between the police department and SSRE originated several years prior to the Partnership program as a result of SSRE's role as the evaluator of the Framingham Prevention Coalition.

The Partnership program offered another opportunity to work together on an experiment in which the police departments distributed cellular telephones to victims of domestic violence who had taken out restraining orders and were judged to be at high risk for further violence. The rationale was that the phones could provide an immediate connection between victim and police when a threat occurred. By hastening the call to the police, victims would be able to minimize the extent of the abuse and simplify police efforts to apprehend perpetrators. An evaluation de-sign was developed in which female victims of domestic violence would be randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. Victims in the experimental group would be given a cellular phone with which they could call the police in an emergency. Victims in the control group would not receive phones.

The design never came to fruition because of two unexpected problems. First, there were not as many adult female victims of domestic partner abuse as anticipated, and second, almost none of those victims met all the criteria for selection into the study. Moreover, some women wanted to get back together with the offender; while others did not expected to be abused again and therefore saw no need for a cellular phone. Consequently, the members of the partnership decided to change the research direction. Most of the partnership's efforts were to continue col-lecting information on these incidents to learn more about the different types of victims.

Over the course of the project, the Project team developed three reports based on inter-views with victims. One study was an exploratory effort based on interviews with 100 adult fe-male victims. That study found, for example, that 25 percent of the victims believed it was somewhat likely or very likely that their assailant would abuse them again; over half the victims

believed that future abuse was unlikely (and expected that if they were abused again, they would not be harmed seriously); and about 20 percent wanted to return immediately to the offender. A second study focused on domestic violence victims' perceptions of the police. The results showed very positive results on their direct ratings of the helpfulness of the police. The third study was for the purpose of exploring social supports in relationship to domestic violence in the lives of victims at the time they came to police attention. Results showed that most of the victims had social supports available to them and that they perceived these supports to be very helpful.

Rapid City, Pocatello, Eureka, and Redding Police Departments with LINC

This partnership started with four police departments (Redding, California; Rapid City, South Dakota; Pocatello, Idaho; and Eureka, California) as the participating agencies. Through subsequent funding, other agencies joined the partnership including the sheriffs' agencies in the surrounding jurisdictions, the Hoopa Department of Public Safety (tribal law enforcement agency), and key representatives from the Yurok and Karok Indian tribes. The primary research group was LINC located in Alexandria, Virginia, headed by Dr. Marcia Chaiken. She obtained support during the partnership from researchers at the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF), the Joint Centers for Justice Studies (JCJS), and the University of Cincinnati.

The primary objectives of the partnership were to:

- Identify crime problems that community members were facing with a special focus on reducing violence against women and girls.

- Reduce these problems through community policing approaches, especially those involving collaboration with other agencies.

- Keep from "reinventing the wheel" by sharing approaches that work and avoiding those that research shows is counterproductive.

Activities carried out during the course of the partnership were:

- Geographic mapping of domestic violence incidents and other incidents involving violence against women.

- Statistical analysis of data collected by police responding to domestic violence incidents, including victim offender characteristics and subsequent arrests.

- Individual and group surveys to find out about incidents of violence against women and girls; the characteristics of the incidents; whether or not the incidents

were reported; and community recommendations about approaches for reducing violence and serving victims.

- Participant observation by individual researchers and by teams of a police officer and a deputy sheriff from each county who visited partner departments in another region of the county.

Seattle Police Department with University of Washington

This partnership is a good example of the way in which research efforts can be blended into continual changes in the operations of a police department. In November 1994, the Seattle Police Department initiated a Domestic Violence Unit within its newly created Family and Youth Protection Bureau to provide specialized follow-up investigations for domestic violence crimes. In 1996, the department received its first Partnership grant award to bring together the Domestic Violence Unit, researchers from the University of Washington School of Public Health, the Harborview Injury Prevention and Research Center, and other units of city government addressing domestic violence. Key members of the partnership had collaborated in other projects, including the improvement of a medical release form for patrol officers in domestic disputes. The Partnership award was a natural extension of work on mutual interests that had already been identified.

The key researcher was an epidemiologist on the faculty of the University of Washington and a member of the Harborview Injury Prevention and Research Center. She brought an extensive research background to the project.

The first grant focused on evaluating the police department's domestic violence unit. Prior to this grant, the police department's capacity to respond to domestic violence cases was viewed internally as inadequate in the areas of reporting and analyzing data on these incidents. These problems were addressed in the first grant by (1) designing and refining a Domestic Violence Incident Report, (2) improving access to victim medical information from hospitals and treating physicians, (3) obtaining physician assistance in report design efforts, (4) consolidating investigative responsibility within the Domestic Violence Unit, and (5) initiating the creation of an internal database for capturing better information on these cases. The Partnership grant efforts resulted in several improvements in Unit operations, changes in policies and procedures on handling domestic violence, and an analysis of evidence collection processes to facilitate prosecution of domestic violence cases. Particular attention was paid to the large number of misde-

meanor cases, as compared to more serious felony cases, and the need to stop the "cycle of vio-lence" at an early stage before escalation to more serious offenses. Additional detectives were assigned to the Domestic Violence Unit to expand its scope to include misdemeanor offenses.

In early 1997, NIJ awarded a second Partnership grant for the development of a Lethality Scale risk assessment tool for the department to "work smarter" in their investigations of domes-tic violence cases. This project resulted in an expansion of the report form that police officers used in domestic violence cases to include risk factors for predicting future escalation of violence in particular situations. Factors included a score for injury, treatment, weapons used, incident location, alcohol/drug involvement, and others.

Other Projects

Florida Law Enforcement Research Coalition with Florida State University

The Florida Law Enforcement Research Coalition (FLERC) evolved as a result of a se-ries of meetings held between members of Florida State University and officials of law enforce-ment agencies and associations around the state. FLERC's advisory board consisted of ap-pointed representatives from the Florida Sheriffs Association, Florida Police Chiefs Association, Florida Department of Law Enforcement, Florida Criminal Justice Executive Institute, Florida Chapter of the International Association of Law Enforcement Planners, Tallahassee Police De-partment, Florida State University College of Social Sciences, and Florida State University School of Criminology and Criminal Justice. The objectives of FLERC were to determine the research needs of law enforcement agencies in Florida and address those needs through projects involving FLERC staff and/or by facilitating research collaborations between other Florida re-searchers and agencies.

FLERC used focus groups and surveys to identify the research needs of police agencies in Florida. The survey was distributed to all municipal, county, and other law enforcement agen-cies in the state. Respondents were asked to indicate the importance of 32 law enforcement is-sues. Results of the survey were that the issues of greatest concern were juvenile crime, police-community relations, domestic violence, officer safety and drug use/sales. Focus groups fol-lowed the survey to identify more specifically the problems facing agencies and to explore how research might help to resolve those problems.

Results of the survey were disseminated to all identified FLERC researchers making them aware of the highest priority research needs. As stated in their final report, "Although no formal assessment was made regarding the collaborations that developed merely from that information dissemination, we were made aware of several projects that were initiated as a result of researchers conducting their local agencies to propose projects related to the identified research needs."

A unique feature of this partnership is that it was the only one in the Partnership program that attempted to provide a statewide research capability. Their final report commented that a challenge to such an arrangement are the varying, sometimes competing, interests of county and municipal law enforcement agencies in the state. Another difficulty was in enrolling researchers from other universities in the state. Because Florida State University received the grant funding, faculty members at some other universities were suspicious of the motives behind the project.

Wichita, Kansas; Baltimore County, Maryland; New Orleans, Louisiana; Grand Rapids, Michigan; and Charleston, West Virginia with IACP and JRSA

This multi-site partnership involved five police departments that partnered with two national organizations—International Association of Chiefs of Police and Justice Research Statistics Association. The view of the two associations was that the project should "promote, create, and strengthen academic research/law enforcement partnerships to facilitate effective analysis and evaluation of emerging law enforcement programs, particularly community or problem oriented policing." Unlike the other partnership projects, which sought to conduct research with members of the partnerships, the aim of this project was to establish a mechanism for research for the five sites.

Toward that aim, the two associations enrolled the support of local universities and the Statistical Analysis Centers (SAC) in each site's state. The five partnership nurtured during the project were:

- Wichita Police Department, Wichita State University, and Kansas Statistical Analysis Center
- Baltimore County Police and Maryland Statistical Analysis Center at the University of Maryland
- New Orleans Police and Louisiana Statistical Analysis Center (in the Louisiana Commission on Law Enforcement/Loyola University

- Grand Rapids Police and Michigan Statistical Analysis Center at the Michigan State University

- Charleston Police and West Virginia Statistical Analysis Center at Marshall University.

To encourage the development of these relationships, the two associations identified the previously established partnership between the Charlotte-Mecklenburg Police Department and the University of North Carolina at Charlotte as an exemplary model to follow. Thus this partnership became a sixth partnership in this project.

The first main activity in this project was to bring together members of the various agencies from the six sites to discuss the aims of the project. Trips were then made to each of the six sites for meetings with command staff, community policing officers (where applicable), community leaders, and the research team. The aim of these meetings was to encourage independent discussion from each group on the project.

The results of this project were as follows at each site:

- **Wichita, Kansas**: Development of a research plan to conduct a house-to-house survey of an African-American community of 5,000-6,000 households. Survey objectives are to gauge their level of attachment to the community, their definition of the boundaries of their community; the problems and priorities they perceive for the community, and how they believe others (including police) view their community.

- **Charleston, West Virginia**: The police department, in conjunction with the West Virginia SAC, developed a survey to assess the knowledge, attitudes, and perceptions of the area businesses concerning the department's Community Policing Initiative. The survey was compared to a 1993 survey along the same lines that led to the development of the initiative.

- **Charlotte-Mecklenburg, North Carolina**: Through a contract with the university, the department had a full-time academic-based educator serving as the head of its Research, Strategic Planning and Crime Analysis Bureau for a two-year period. Several joint projects on GIS systems and other areas resulted from the arrangement.

- **New Orleans, Louisiana**: The researchers and police department conducted an attitudinal survey of community-oriented policing officers in the department and residents of B.J. Cooper housing development. Crime data from the area were analyzed to determine the relationship between actual crime activity and attitudes about crime (such as fear of crime).

- **Grand Rapids, Michigan**: The main activity in this partnership was the establishment of a relational database to allow crime analysis personnel to perform queries that would be useful in determining crime patterns. Analysis was also performed on 28 months of reported crime.

- **Baltimore County, Maryland**: This partnership conducted an evaluation of the community action teams (CAT), which are teams comprised of senior officers and sergeants who report to a command staff member in high crime areas.

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