

# TELEMASP BULLETIN

## TEXAS LAW ENFORCEMENT MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATIVE STATISTICS PROGRAM

September 1997

Vol. 4, No. 6

### Defining Community Policing

Any attempt to understand current approaches to policing must take into account the historical events that have shaped contemporary police practices. Policing in America, not surprisingly, was initially shaped by police practices prevailing in England at the time the colonies were founded. Although the British influence has remained strong, developments within the United States have also impacted law enforcement policy. The sections that follow briefly review the evolution of police practices from the colonial era to the present. Thereafter, the current level of interest in community-oriented policing in Texas is reviewed.

#### Colonial Police Practices

Among colonial precursors to contemporary law enforcement agencies was the sheriff, who was primarily responsible for collecting taxes, maintaining public thoroughfares and conducting elections. Little of the sheriff's time was concerned with criminal law enforcement (Boyd 1928). Like the sheriff, the constable also technically possessed some responsibilities for criminal law enforcement (Lane 1971), but because both constables and sheriffs were paid through a fee-for-service system that rewarded civil and administrative work, the pursuit of criminal wrongdoers was left largely to the particular private citizens who had been wronged (Steinberg 1989).

The colonial entity that bears most resemblance to modern law enforcement agencies was "the watch." All adult males were required to serve on the watch,

generally at nighttime, and the responsibilities included mostly order maintenance (e.g., guarding against fires, dangerous animals, crime, and disorder) (Lane 1971). The first police forces in this country were unique to the United States. They were the slave patrols—formed in southern states to capture runaway slaves and guard against their revolt (Wintersmith 1974).

#### Nineteenth Century Police Practices

Political machines throughout much of the nineteenth century controlled police practice. Many law enforcement positions were offered as part of the quid pro quo of political patronage (Walker 1977). Because of limitations in communication technologies of the time, citizens had a difficult time reaching the police, and police supervisors had a difficult time managing their subordinates effectively. Despite these limitations, some people since then have embraced a romantic view of policing in that era. As Walker (1992) observed,

In later years, a nostalgic image developed of the nineteenth-century foot patrol officer. He was seen as a friendly person who maintained close relations with neighborhood residents. If his methods were often rough, he was at least effective in maintaining order. This view has little if any basis in fact. It is doubtful that the first American police officers had close relations with people on their beats. Officers were few in number, personnel turnover was rapid,

and population movement was even greater than it is today. Police officers frequently used physical force, and there is no evidence that it helped to control disorder (p. 9).

The nostalgic view above was remarkably ahead of its time. As discussed below, much of current law enforcement policy seeks to return to this wished-for past that never really existed.

The corruption that pervaded nineteenth century policing met with calls for police reform. Because reformers accurately believed that police loyalty to local political machines was at the core of police corruption, they created boards, commissions, and other bureaucracies to oversee and centralize police operations (Fosdick 1972). Although the reformers were not very effective at eliminating police corruption, their efforts did have one long-term consequence—centralization of police operations.

### Twentieth Century Police Practices

Although the reformers were fairly unsuccessful at changing the prevailing police practices, two twentieth century developments did facilitate changes. These developments were (1) the professionalization movement in law enforcement, and (2) significant advancements in technology.

The minimization of political influence and the maintenance of discipline among the ranks of police officers were key goals of the professionalization movement (Walker 1992). Like the reform movement described above, the professionalization movement was reform-oriented, but, unlike the earlier effort, it was spearheaded by a new generation of police managers. Thus, the professionalization movement was being proposed from within law enforcement agencies, rather than being imposed from outside them. This difference likely accounts for its greater success.

Because of suspicions about corruption at the top levels of police organizations, governments sought to appoint police chiefs from other professions. These professionals occasionally were lawyers, but were more often former military commanders (Walker 1977). Appointments of former military commanders also helped achieve another goal of the professionalization movement, the implementation of military-style disci-

pline among officers (Walker 1992). In his short tenure as New York City's police commissioner, Theodore Roosevelt, for example, characterized the police mission as a "war on crime," and he emphasized close-order drills, parades and military-style commendations (Berman 1987; cited in Walker 1992). Although law enforcement agencies outwardly appeared to be militaristic from very early on, their appearance was betrayed by an underlying lack of discipline and efficiency.

The professionalization movement emphasized another management approach, the utilization of "principles of scientific management" (Walker 1992:13). The approach involved more centralization of command and increased efforts to deploy personnel resources efficiently. Police management improved not only as a result of these managerial application techniques, but also through certain technological advancements—the second major impetus for twentieth century law enforcement changes.

Technological advances dramatically changed police practices. These advances altered the relationship between police officials at many organizational levels as well as the relationship between police officers and the citizens. Three particular developments were responsible for these changes: the telephone, the two-way radio and the automobile. The three worked in concert to enhance, yet change police-citizen encounters.

The telephone allowed citizens to contact the police easily and to request service; the two-way radio enabled the police department to dispatch a patrol officer to the scene; the patrol car, in turn, allowed the patrol officer to reach the scene quickly (Walker 1992:16).

Because the advances allowed citizens to summon the police more rapidly (i.e., while problems were occurring) and allowed the police to respond much more quickly, demands for police services skyrocketed. Both increases in calls for service and more widespread automobile use required and allowed the police to become more reactive. That is, the police increasingly stayed out of neighborhoods. They came into neighborhoods only when needed for precision strikes at particular problems, then withdrew. The resulting decrease in the amount of informal contact with the police left the citizens and the police feeling isolated

from one another. In fact, some citizens viewed the police more as an occupying army than as a group of public servants (Walker 1992).

On one hand, estrangement created distance between the citizenry and the police. On the other hand, the technological advancements generated even more intimate contacts. No longer required to catch glimpses of private life from the sidewalks and streets, police officers were summoned or invited into private dwellings with much greater frequency. Consequently, domestic problems such as child abuse, spousal abuse, alcohol and drug abuse, and so forth became police matters much more so than ever had been the case before.

Of course, greater involvement in relatively more intimate matters of family life placed the police in a social welfare role. This was not, however, an entirely new role. Indeed, police departments for some time had been the only social welfare agency available for certain social ills. Many agencies provided lodging and food to local homeless people. During the 1880s, for example, the Philadelphia Police Department provided lodging to over 100,000 people (Monkkonen 1981).

### The Evolution of Community Policing

With the approach of the twenty-first century it has become increasingly apparent that law enforcement agencies spend a great amount of time in activities that promote social welfare or are otherwise not oriented toward crime. Reiss (1971) and Black (1980) have shown that peace officers spend much of their time responding to citizen-initiated calls for service which have little if anything to do with criminal activity. Other studies have shown that, even when complainants do contact the police to report crimes, they typically do not do so immediately (U.S. Department of Justice 1978). Goldstein (1990) has argued quite persuasively that the preoccupation with response times and other matters associated with improving responses to citizen-initiated calls for service is misplaced. To increase overall police effectiveness, Goldstein's problem-oriented policing approach calls for identification of particular problems (e.g., residential burglaries or sexual assaults) existing in certain neighborhoods followed by the development of strategic plans to address these problems. This approach is well-grounded in

theory and has intuitive appeal; a comprehensive plan tailored to address a particular problem should be more effective in facilitating positive long-term outcomes than simply responding to apparently random calls for service. In essence, this model redirects police policymaking from being call-focused to being problem-focused.

Community-oriented policing is a policing movement somewhat different from, but related to the problem-oriented policing movement. In a watershed policing theory article, Wilson and Kelling (1982) argued that police personnel resources are invested most wisely when law enforcement agencies target not necessarily criminal problems *per se*, but those precursors to crime that contribute to the fear of crime. They assert that incivilities and other indicators of neighborhood decline (i.e., 'little problems') should be addressed by the police so that deterioration can be arrested before neighborhood residents become too fearful, and those who have the financial resources to do so leave the neighborhood, further impoverishing it and initiating a downward spiral of neighborhood decline. Obviously, one feature of this approach, referred to metaphorically by the term "fixing broken windows," is that problems of importance to a particular neighborhood must be targeted. Consequently, police planning should be directed at the neighborhood level and not the city or county level of the entire police jurisdiction. Just as problem-oriented policing seeks to make the police more problem-focused, so community policing seeks to make the police more neighborhood-focused.

Goldstein's (1990) problem-oriented policing approach embodies the current trend in redefining the problems with which the police deal. Much of Goldstein's criticisms stem from the failure of reactive approaches to address the underlying problems of which specific incidents may be simply symptoms. As Stephens (1990) noted, "The police respond and deal with the single incident as if it had no history or future" (p. 155).

To create a more effective police response, Goldstein proposed that specific problems be grouped as "a cluster of similar, related, or recurring incidents rather than a single incident" (1990:66). The clustering, he argued, should be made on the basis of persons involved, behavior or territory. Examples of each of these types of clustering exist.

Goldstein's (1990) approach emphasizes clustering based on behavior (e.g., burglaries, sexual assaults). The Wilson and Kelling (1982) neighborhood focus involves a territorial clustering of incidents. Programs aimed at the prevention of bias-related crime ("Bias-related Crime ..." 1987) and repeat offender programs (Gay and Bowers 1985; Moore et al. 1984) cluster incidents according to the kinds of people involved—victims and offenders, respectively. Stephens (1990) argued for this approach as follows:

About 60 percent of crime calls to which police respond originate from about 10 percent of the addresses in a city. Ten percent of the victims account for 40 percent of the reported crimes, and 10 percent of the criminals are responsible for about 55 percent of the offenses. The traditional incident-driven policing would normally not make the connections between these repeat calls, victims and offenders (p. 155).

The approaches described above involve rethinking police service provisions. According to Wilson and Kelling, individual neighborhoods should be assessed to identify the problems and corollary needs of that neighborhood. Goldstein's model suggests that assessments should result in prioritizing policing needs and implementing programs to meet those needs. In establishing those priorities, Wilson and Kelling's model suggests that the police should not overlook 'little problems.' Read together, these models call for a policing approach that is both problem-focused and neighborhood-based.

### **Community Policing Among Texas Law Enforcement Agencies**

As part of a doctoral dissertation project (Lyons 1997), a survey concerning community-oriented policing efforts in Texas was designed and distributed to 200 law enforcement agencies in the state. To survey the law enforcement practices most prevalent in the state, all agencies with 50 or more sworn officers were targeted for inclusion in the study. However, because some very innovative community policing efforts have been undertaken by smaller agencies (Garrett 1994; Neill 1994), a nonrandom sample of such smaller agencies also was included. Collectively, the agencies surveyed employ 17,724 sworn officers. Thus, the data from

these agencies describe the police policies affecting approximately 45 percent of all Texas peace officers not employed by the state of Texas.

Of the 75 agencies responding to the survey, 68 (91%) indicated that they endorsed or subscribed to a community-oriented policing philosophy. Similarly, 62 (83%) indicated that they had one or more community policing programs in place.

**Population size and community policing.** Statistical data analysis revealed that Texas law enforcement agencies are more likely to be involved in certain types of community-oriented policing efforts as their citizen population increases (i.e., neighborhood-based programming and solicitation of community input).

**Agency type and community policing.** Statistical analyses revealed that police departments in Texas are more likely than sheriff's offices to indicate that they endorse the community policing philosophy.

**Community-oriented police programs and community policing.** As noted above, agencies were asked whether they subscribe to a community policing philosophy. Not surprisingly, agencies responding in the affirmative were more likely than other agencies to indicate that they have one or more community policing programs.

The following section will describe how the willingness to undertake a community policing orientation has been translated into action. That is, current police practices throughout the state will be described and analyzed to see how they square with the tenets of community-oriented policing.

### **Defining Community Policing**

Rosenbaum and Lurigio (1994) noted that "[t]here are numerous definitions of the theory and practice of community policing" (p. 301). Despite the variability in definitions, some themes reemerge frequently and, thus, can be characterized as defining features. Rosenbaum (1988) identified these defining features as including an emphasis on improving the number and quality of police-citizen contacts, a broader definition of "legitimate" police work, decentralization of the police bureaucracy, and a greater emphasis on proactive problem-solving strategies (p. 334).

When decentralization goals and emphasis on specific problem-solving strategies are included in the definition, many activities that agencies characterize as part of their community policing efforts appear not to be community policing at all. For example, many agencies reported operating citizen police academies. These academies are designed to familiarize citizens with the responsibilities of law enforcement officers. Although such programs increase citizen contacts with the police, they typically involve neither decentralization of command nor proactive approaches to problem solving at the neighborhood level. Moreover, as Grinc (1994) observed, "if these academies do not properly instruct residents in the community role in community policing, they will not advance the effort to institutionalize community policing" (p. 457). This is not to say that citizen police academies cannot be part of a community policing strategy, but rather, that such efforts standing alone miss some of the major points of community-oriented policing.

Although Rosenbaum's (1988) definition goes far in clarifying the kinds of activities that can be characterized properly as community-oriented policing, it neglects one key feature, namely, collaboration with other agencies. In the case of child protection efforts, for example, such collaborative strategies are essential. Law enforcement agencies, at a minimum, must collaborate with the local child protection agency if they are to incorporate the goals of child protection into their community policing strategies. Ideally, under a community-oriented policing strategy, law enforcement agencies would also work closely with hospitals, schools, clinics, and other agencies that provide services to children and their families.

A definition of community policing which requires collaboration with other agencies excludes many activities and current practices from the community policing domain. The disparity between community policing as idealized and community policing as practiced appears to be quite real. As Grinc (1994) observed, "in most cases community policing is an isolated police department phenomenon including neither community residents nor other city agencies" (p. 441).

The survey (Lyons 1997) shows the impact of applying a definition of community policing which requires collaboration to the activities of Texas law enforcement agencies. Of the 75 agencies responding to the

questionnaire, 70 reported that they either had one or more community policing programs in place or that they had adopted a community policing orientation/philosophy. Those agencies reported a total of 120 established programs to address particular community problems. However, only 30 of the 120 programs, or 25 percent, qualify as community policing programs under a strict definition which includes the requirement of collaboration with other agencies.

Collaboration with other agencies is not the only defining feature of community-oriented policing. Skogan (1990) described community-oriented policing as a style where the police are "responsible to citizen demands" and an approach involving "helping neighborhoods help themselves" (p. 92). Grinc (1994) observed that despite the widely varied definitions of community policing, "there is one central tenet that they share—that the police and the community must work together to define and develop solutions to crime and quality-of-life problems" (p. 440).

As Grinc's point makes clear, community policing works only if there is substantial input from the community. To assess the extent to which Texas law enforcement agencies are soliciting community input into their police programming efforts, surveyed agencies were asked about eight different police programming domains. Consistent with Goldstein's (1990) proposed method of clustering, the domains were organized around different groups of people (abused and neglected children, battered spouses, persons with disabilities, elderly persons, ethnic minorities, lesbians and gay men, persons with mental illness, sexual assault). Agencies were asked whether they had solicited community input in planning any programs involving any or all of the eight domains. Responding agencies identified a total of 120 community-oriented policing programs, but less than half of these (53, 43%) involved community input.

To some extent, reliance on information about particular programs in order to capture community policing efforts is misplaced. Several police policymakers have noted that many police agencies consider community policing as consisting of one or more programs, but that, in fact, community policing is viewed more accurately as an orientation or philosophy—a way of policing (that, nevertheless may include programs) (Brown 1989). Unfortunately, it is difficult to assess

adherence to a philosophy. Moreover, as the survey revealed, there may be a substantial gulf between believing in the philosophy and behaving in conformity with it. Consequently, information about programs was relied on, despite the problems in doing so.

### **Defining Community**

Many critics have asserted that even the term "community" is poorly defined in the context of community policing (Manning 1988; Murphy 1988). Frequently, the term is used to describe people who are disenfranchised (Eck and Rosenbaum 1994). However, it is also used in the context "of geographical areas (blocks, neighborhoods, census tracts)" (Buerger 1994:423). Although these definitions overlap considerably, the present study focused on the geographic definition not only because it seems to describe where Wilson and Kelling's (1982) "broken windows" would be found but also because the definition coincides nicely with patrol districts, beats, areas, and so forth. Of the 120 community-oriented policing programs reported by the 75 responding agencies, only 44 (35%) were reported as being based out of one or more geographically defined neighborhoods. The survey results suggest that agencies are significantly more likely to engage in neighborhood-based police programming if they endorse the community-oriented policing philosophy. Overall, the finding suggests that many community policing programs as defined by responding agencies are not neighborhood based.

### **Defining Organizing Efforts**

Once law enforcement officials identify the relevant community, the question of what to do with that community remains. As noted above, Skogan (1990) believes that helping neighborhoods help themselves is a key component of community-oriented policing. Such helping typically takes the form of some kind of community organizing effort.

Organizing community residents is one of the most important aspects of community policing. The term organizing, however, has a variety of connotations. For many police departments, organizing means having local residents attend one Neighborhood Watch meeting. For others, it involves the empowerment of local residents, especially regarding decisions that

affect the quality of life in their neighborhoods (Rosenbaum and Lurigio 1994:306).

In the present study, the questionnaire was not designed to assess the level of community organization, but rather, to determine whether there had been any community input at all. Obviously, the better the community is organized and the greater its input, the better the agency adheres to the ideals of community policing.

### **Community Policing in the Real World: (...But I Know It When I See It)**

Like other scholars, analysts of police policy are fond of rigidly defining theoretical constructs as consisting of multiple criteria. Consensus about matters like community policing is often reached in the sterile environment of academic journals and books—far removed from the day-to-day operations of law enforcement agencies in the real world. Once the "discoveries" are made, a considerable amount of time is typically devoted to telling people in the field how they have been doing it wrong. The ideal community-oriented policing strategy (i.e., one involving input from the affected community, collaboration with other agencies, and based out of particular neighborhoods) is achievable—but not always. The history an agency has with its citizenry, the nature of the problem to be addressed, the relative marginalization of the affected group, and a variety of other factors impact the extent to which the ideal strategy can be realized. Therefore, one might logically ask, "What do community-oriented efforts look like?"

In recent decades the law enforcement community has shown its willingness to broaden efforts beyond criminal apprehension to more safety-oriented themes. In 1992 in Spokane, Wash., for example, police officers had weekly, non-threatening interactions with hundreds of economically disadvantaged youths as part of an organized community program. The program's goals included: (a) improvement of the image of police, (b) instilling law-abiding behavior, and (c) promotion of a conventional work ethic. Evaluation of the program showed promising results (Thurman, Giacomazzi, and Bogen 1993). The program was neighborhood-based and involved loose collaboration with other agencies.

The Child Development-Community Policing Program in New Haven, Conn. is an example of much closer collaboration between police and providers of children's services (Marans 1995). The program involves cross-training mental health professionals and police who confront children involved in violence. The closer working relationship has enabled both groups to combine and marshal their resources more efficiently to provide faster and better services to those children targeted by the program.

On rare occasions, instead of police working with other agencies, they actually take over the functions of those agencies. Perhaps the clearest example is the MOMS (Managing our Maternity System) and COPS (Community Oriented Public Safety) programs in Aiken, S.C. (Neill 1994). Aiken was suffering from one of the highest infant mortality rates in the country. Moreover, the local child protection agency had a bad reputation with local residents. Community leaders established a task force consisting of multiple agencies, including the police department. The task force developed a multi-systemic approach to the problem resulting in a substantial decline in child death rates. Police officers on bicycles or walking beats identify pregnant women and visit with them about available social services. Other agencies have reoriented their service systems in order to provide greater prenatal care once the police have informed the mothers-to-be. Even after the children are born, officers maintain contact visits to verify the mothers' adjustment.

The programs identified above are representative of the kinds of activities the police can become involved in to help improve the quality-of-life of community residents. Indeed, in Aiken, the activities have likely given life to some. The specific approach undertaken by any particular community depends upon the needs of that community. Communities necessarily should have different priorities. This tailoring of services is consistent with Goldstein's (1990) problem-oriented model of policing.

### Community Policing As A Panacea

Although the idea of community policing continues to hold promise for improving residents' overall quality-of-life, the propaganda surrounding it will inevitably lead to disappointment among citizens and police

policymakers alike; community policing cannot be everything to everyone. As Rosenbaum, Yeh, and Wilkinson (1994) observed:

The concept, like mother and apple pie, is so attractive and has been garnished with so many endorsements that police chiefs and public officials have stopped asking questions and have started jumping on the bandwagon (p. 331).

And they are doing so in droves. Trojanowicz (1993) found that half of the respondents to a survey of chief law enforcement executives of cities with populations of 50,000 or more reported that they had adopted the community policing philosophy, and another 20 percent reported that they intended to adopt community-oriented policing within the following year. As noted earlier, just over 90 percent of respondents to the Texas survey reported that they had adopted community policing. As suggested by their provocative title, "BS and Buzzwords ..." Hunter and Barker (1993) warned that many police administrators try to appear more progressive than they are by labeling their traditional models as community-oriented. Consequently, it is difficult to determine what sense to make of figures like those above.

Although agency administrators obviously believe community policing will work for them, what is not so obvious is how they believe it will work (Manning 1984). Different authors have advanced community policing as an effective tool for: (a) combating crime, (b) improving community relations, and (c) enhancing police officer morale. Rosenbaum and Lurigio (1994), for example, noted that community policing "is the centerpiece of the Clinton administration's anticrime policy and the topic of numerous books and conferences" (p. 299). It has been described as the "only form of policing available for anyone who seeks to improve police operations, management, or relations with the public" (Eck and Rosenbaum 1994:4). Rosenbaum, Yeh, and Wilkinson (1994) reported:

In a nutshell, community policing reform promises to replace ineffective, reactive, quasi-military bureaucracies with modern organizations that are responsive to both the needs of their employees and the needs of the communities they serve (p. 333).

Thus, community policing is expected not only to eliminate the ills of the community, but also to create happier police officers. They explained:

Essentially, employees are more productive, happy, and motivated when their individual needs are met by the organization—needs such as independence, recognition, responsibility, challenge, accomplishment, participation, compensation, and others. At the heart of the community policing model is a plan to remove the organizational shackles from police officers to stimulate creative thinking, discretion, and problem solving at the street level (p. 333).

Not surprisingly, community policing efforts are lagging substantially behind the overly idealistic expectations offered by some. Buerger (1994) described how unfettered euphoria such as this can not only be unhelpful but also harmful:

The long-term perspective is more dismal and does not appear in the promotional materials for obvious reasons. Evaluations ... are buried in academic journals unread by the general public. Because no institutional memory exists, the programs are adopted as a cure on the basis of their promotional advertising. Each new generation then relearns the lessons of the previous one as the "panacea phenomenon" (Finckenauer 1982) repeats itself, unrealistic expectations giving way first to discouragement, then abandonment, when the inadequate means fail to deliver the promised outcomes (p. 413).

Under Buerger's view, one consequence of unrealistic optimism is that when the efforts fail to produce the expected result, some may label the efforts a failure and abandon them altogether.

### **Establishing A Comprehensive Community Policing Strategy: The Sugar Land Model**

Approximately one year ago, the city council and mayor of the city of Sugar Land, Texas, directed their attention toward ensuring that the city was prepared to meet its future policing needs. City administrators, in consultation with the Criminal Justice Center at Sam

Houston State University, set about the task of designing a community policing plan for that community.

Although the project is still far from finished, the efforts illustrate incorporation of three fundamental definitional elements of a community-oriented approach—problem orientation, neighborhood based and collaborative. A telephone survey of more than 400 residents was conducted to identify citizens' expectations. The survey was followed by several citizen focus groups intended to clarify and expand upon the survey results. Because of the difficulties associated with imposing a community-oriented police strategy from the top down (i.e., upon unwilling officers), all sworn officers were surveyed to assess their attitudes toward community policing. The mayor, city manager and city council were also surveyed.

Results from the surveys and the focus groups will be compiled and used as the basis for planning. Once problem areas have been targeted, the appropriate agencies with which to collaborate will be identified. Additionally, neighborhood organizations (e.g., homeowners' associations) will be consulted to facilitate neighborhood-based planning. All new approaches or programs will be implemented with a program evaluation component focusing on key performance indicators. This should provide objective data to evaluate the success of the new efforts. The data, along with future assessments, will be used to help fine-tune the strategy on an ongoing basis.

In its attention to community-oriented policing strategies, Sugar Land is not unique in Texas. The overwhelming majority of respondents to the survey have indicated a desire to adopt or maintain a community orientation. Exactly what that means remains somewhat unclear. At its idealized best, community-oriented policing should be a problem-focused, neighborhood-based policing strategy that is responsive to citizen needs and blurs the boundaries that separate the police from other important social institutions. Even less-than-perfect community-oriented strategies, however, can do much to further the goals that underlie community policing.

## Conclusion

The changes in social conditions and the resulting need for changes in policing techniques have not been lost on Texas law enforcement administrators. Texas chiefs of police and sheriffs whose agencies responded to the survey almost universally endorsed a community policing philosophy. Nearly as many claimed to have one or more community-oriented policing programs in operation. Thus, law enforcement agencies in Texas appear to be poised to forge ahead with more of a community orientation. Chief law enforcement administrators in Texas are engaged in a wide variety of innovative programs and strategies. It probably will come as no surprise to most readers that, since the early 1980s, Texas has paved the way of community policing—and continues to do so now.

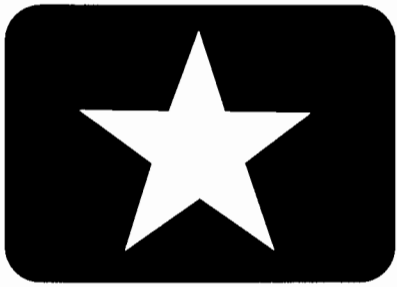
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*Thank you to the following agencies for participating in this month's bulletin.*

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| Addison Police Department           | La Marque Police Department            |
| Alvin Police Department             | Lakeview Police Department             |
| Andrews Police Department           | Lampasas Police Department             |
| Arlington Police Department         | League City Police Department          |
| Atlanta Police Department           | Lufkin Police Department               |
| Baytown Police Department           | McKinney Police Department             |
| Beaumont Police Department          | Midland Police Department              |
| Benbrook Police Department          | Montgomery County Sheriff's Department |
| Bonham Police Department            | Nassau Bay Police Department           |
| Burleson Police Department          | Navasota Police Department             |
| Cameron County Sheriff's Department | Odessa Police Department               |
| Carrollton Police Department        | Orange Police Department               |
| Cleburne Police Department          | Pasadena Police Department             |
| Collin County Sheriff's Department  | Perryton Police Department             |
| Corpus Christi Police Department    | Plano Police Department                |
| Corsicana Police Department         | Port Arthur Police Department          |
| Deer Park Police Department         | Richardson Police Department           |
| Donna Police Department             | Richmond Police Department             |
| Dumas Police Department             | San Angelo Police Department           |
| Duncanville Police Department       | San Antonio Police Department          |
| Eastland Police Department          | San Benito Police Department           |
| El Paso Police Department           | Snyder Police Department               |
| Farmer's Branch Police Department   | Sugar Land Police Department           |
| Fort Worth Police Department        | Sunset Valley Police Department        |
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| Haltom City Police Department       | Tyler Police Department                |
| Harlingen Police Department         | Universal City Police Department       |
| Harris County Sheriff's Department  | Uvalde Police Department               |
| Highland Park Police Department     | Victoria Police Department             |
| Highland Village Police Department  | Village Police Department              |
| Hitchcock Police Department         | Waco Police Department                 |
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| Humble Police Department            | Webb County Sheriff's Department       |
| Hurst Police Department             | Wichita Falls Police Department        |
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TELEMASP Monthly Bulletins,  
ISSN 1075-3702, are produced  
under an agreement with the

**Police Research Center**  
Sam Houston State University  
Larry T. Hoover, Ph.D., Director  
Jamie L. Tillerson, Program Manager

For information about TELEMASP  
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This bulletin was authored by Dr. Phillip M. Lyons, Jr. Assistant Professor Lyons received his J.D. and his M.A. and Ph.D. in Forensic Clinical Psychology from the University of Nebraska and served as a police officer with the city of Alvin prior to completing graduate and law school. His research interests include competency to stand trial—insanity, police personnel psychology, community-oriented policing, and child social policy.

**Bill Blackwood Law Enforcement  
Management Institute of Texas**  
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