

THE FUTURE OF COMMUNITY POLICING
IN THE CONTEXT OF BASIC POLICE ACADEMY TRAINING

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	ii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	vii
LIST OF TABLES.....	viii
ABSTRACT.....	xi
CHAPTER 1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY.....	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
COMMUNITY POLICING.....	2
ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT.....	5
HISTORICAL BACKGROUND.....	6
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM.....	9
PURPOSE OF THE STUDY.....	9
RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	10
DEFINITIONS.....	10
SUMMARY.....	11
CHAPTER TWO REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	12
INTRODUCTION.....	12
HISTORY OF POLICING.....	12

HISTORICAL ORIGINS OF COMMUNITY POLICING.....	20
THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS OF COMMUNITY POLICING.....	24
ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE.....	26
TRAINING AND EDUCATION FOR CHANGE.....	28
A BRIEF HISTORY OF POLICE TRAINING.....	30
RECRUITMENT FOR CHANGE.....	39
CURRICULUM AS CHANGE.....	41
THE POLICE CORPS MODEL.....	46
SUMMARY.....	48
CHAPTER THREE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY.....	50
INTRODUCTION.....	50
PURPOSE OF THE STUDY.....	50
THE DELPHI APPROACH.....	51
SUMMARY.....	58
CHAPTER FOUR PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS OF DATA.....	59
INTRODUCTION.....	59
PANELIST SELECTION AND RESPONSE.....	61

FINDINGS.....	68
ROUND ONE INTERNAL PANEL.....	69
Attitudes and Philosophy.....	69
Integration with Other Course Materials and Activities.....	78
Teaching and Learning Experiences.....	84
Administrative and Department Support.....	109
SUMMARY.....	123
CHAPTER FIVE LIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS, FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	132
PURPOSE AND DESIGN OF THE STUDY.....	132
LIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS.....	134
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS.....	137
DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS.....	139
IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY AND PRACTICE.....	142
SUMMARY.....	143
REFERENCES.....	144
APPENDIX A.....	152
CORRESPONDENCE SAMPLES.....	153

APPENDIX B.....159

 SURVEY INSTRUMENT ROUND ONE INTERNAL.....160

APPENDIX C..... 173

 SUMMARY FORMAT OF INSTRUMENT FOR ROUND TWO.....174

VITA.....194

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Sample survey item.66
Figure 2. Summary version of survey instrument.....67

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Total Responses of External and Internal Panels For Each Round of the Delphi Study.....	69
Table 2. Attitudes favorable to community policing.....	72
Table 3. Community policing aptitudes as recruitment standards.....	74
Table 4. Community policing focus.....	74
Table 5. Agency wide indoctrination.....	75
Table 6. Policy and practice.....	76
Table 7. Character and skills.....	76
Table 8. Minority representation.....	77
Table 9. Integration with field training.....	80
Table 10. Embedding of community policing.....	81
Table 11. Daily reinforcement of themes.....	82
Table 12. Block instruction.....	82
Table 13. Integration with new curriculum additions.....	83
Table 14. Leadership and collaboration skills.....	87
Table 15. Meaningful community interaction.....	88
Table 16. Real world projects.....	89
Table 17. Guided scenario exercises.....	90

Table 18. Oservational ride-alongs.....	91
Table 19. Public speaking and non-traditional communication skills.....	92
Table 20. Case studies.....	93
Table 21. Role playing.....	94
Table 22. Problem based learning.....	95
Table 23. Current events discussions.....	96
Table 24. College faculty and civilian instructors.....	97
Table 25. Group activities and consensus building.....	98
Table 26. Theoretical context versus hands on.....	99
Table 27. Lecture based instruction.....	101
Table 28. Computer based training.....	103
Table 29. Community service projects.....	103
Table 30. Social exchange experiences.....	104
Table 31. Reflective journaling.....	105
Table 32. Release time for community service.....	106
Table 33. Required reading assignments.....	107
Table 34. Reducing high risk scenario training.....	108
Table 35. Administration regard for community policing.....	111
Table 36. Influence of basic training on community policing in agencies.....	112
Table 37. Performance measures.....	113
Table 38. Adequate training time.....	114

Table 39. Police administrator awareness.....	115
Table 40. Professional consensus on practices and evaluation.....	116
Table 41. Trainer selection.....	117
Table 42. Consistency of espoused core values.....	118
Table 43. Involvement of agency heads.....	119
Table 44. Marginalization of community policing training.....	120
Table 45. Influences on multi-agency academies.....	121
Table 46. External pressures on single agency academies.....	122
Table 47. Influence of academy directors.....	123

THE FUTURE OF COMMUNITY POLICING
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to forecast the likely and desirable conditions associated with community policing training during basic police academy training by seeking consensus among experts regarding selected conditions associated with community policing concepts and practices.

The process utilized the Delphi method of inquiry. Experts in community policing and police training were selected to serve on one of two panels, an external panel and an internal panel. The external panel was tasked with developing a survey instrument. The internal panel was asked to respond to the statements of the survey designed by the external panel. This process was done in successive rounds during which the panelists were made aware of the previous round's results to inform their rankings and commentary.

The findings from this study show clear support from police training experts for community policing training to become an integral part of basic police training academies. Nevertheless, respondents surveyed indicate that little is currently occurring that integrates community policing into efforts of police training academies and, moreover, respondents have little faith that such integration will occur in the foreseeable future. In essence, based on their predictions, the state of community policing and basic police training appears likely to remain unchanged.

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Introduction

President William Jefferson Clinton signed the Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act of 1994 to fulfill a campaign promise to add 100,000 community policing officers to America's streets. At the September 13th, 1994 signing of Public Law No. 103-322 he stated:

From this day forward, let us put partisanship behind us, and let us go forward - Democrats, Republicans and independents, law enforcement, community leaders, ordinary citizens - let us roll up our sleeves to roll back this awful tide of violence and reduce crime in our country. We have the tools now. Let us get about the business of using them. One of the reasons that I sought this office is to get this bill, because if the American people do not feel safe on their streets, in their schools, in their homes, in their places of work and worship, then it is difficult to say that the American people are free (Clinton Foundation, 2004, para. 9, 10).

According to the executive summary of the U.S. Attorney General Janet Reno's Report to Congress on the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS) from September 2000, the 1994 legislation made the largest investment in law enforcement training in the century (Executive Summary of the Attorney General's Report to Congress, 2000) and signaled recognition of the community policing era.

Community policing is "a collaborative effort between the police and the community that identifies problems of crime and disorder and involves all elements of the

community in the search for solutions to these problems"(Community Policing, 2005, para. 2). According to the Community Policing Consortium, community policing has three essential and complementary core components: community partnership, problem solving and change management (Community Policing). Community policing depends on optimizing positive contact between patrol officers and community members in ways traditional policing fails to do. Police executives are realizing that making minor alterations to traditional management and operational practices is not sufficient to make the transition to community policing. Community policing encompasses a variety of philosophical and practical approaches and is still evolving (National Criminal Justice Reference, 1994, para. 2). This study was designed to predict, using a Delphi analysis, ways in which the formal training of pre-service law enforcement officers might change in light of the advent of community policing.

Community Policing

Even as experts agree that the success of community policing relies on achieving consensus as to what it is (Bucqueroux & Trojanowicz, 1994), community policing lacks standard definition. Still, most law enforcement professionals tend to agree that community policing demands working with non-law enforcement community members to solve community problems associated with crime. The significant aspect of community policing in contrast to traditional policing is the realization by police personnel that they are not solely capable of being responsible for dealing with elements which cause, allow, or breed crime (Das & Lab, 2003). Community policing is based on the premise that the overall quality of life depends on both police and the community to identify and solve problems (Bucqueroux & Trojanowicz).

Flynn (1998) is among those who argue that the word community should be dropped from community policing to recognize the pervasive change that should someday characterize policing, subsuming the notion of community policing. *Community* was an adjective used by researchers and practitioners attempting to describe a quality of life approach to problems of police management and philosophy. Typical police definitions of community lie in jurisdictional boundaries, particularly those geographical areas with statistics marked by crime and demand for police resources. Individuals tend to have their own paradigms of community beyond the literal definition of groups sharing demographic, fellowship, and socioeconomic traits. Members of these segments often do not recognize their commonalities, nor do they understand that they typically are part of a discernable group (Carter, 2004).

Trojanowicz (1988) regards community as the primary unit of society above that of the individual and family. Mass media, mass transit, and mass communication have divorced geography from community and created shared communities anywhere mutual interests and some level of trust exist, in contrast with the neighborhoods of the past marked by the emotional satisfaction of knowing and being known. Community can refer to many overlapping entities which become a *community of interest* united by disorder or fear of crime (Bucqueroux & Trojanowicz, 1994, p. 33). The term community describes a set of concrete social relations with direct, reciprocal interactions and can refer to neighborhoods, clubs, or any network of social relations within which informal social control is possible (Lyons, 1999).

Community policing differs from the practice of the most recent era of policing which was known as the professionalism era. Professionalism, in the context of the

professionalism era, is defined not by collaboration but efficiency and confrontation. Traditional policing strives to respond to calls for service in a rapid and effective way, using force if necessary, to invoke the processes of the courts to punish and correct lawbreakers. The tools for police officers in this construct include technology such as vehicles, radios, computers, weaponry; documentation for reports to the courts for prosecution and disposition of offenders; and a variety of skills ranging from friendly persuasion to deadly force to gain compliance (Donahue & McLaughlin, 1993). In contrast to those physical skills, the tools of community policing include the officers' awareness of cultural and environmental causes and responses to crime and an ability to coalesce diverse groups for a common purpose to reduce or eliminate conditions conducive to crime and disorder. A key feature of community policing is the redeployment of police personnel to encourage interaction with the public in ways beyond simply responding to emergencies (Bayley, 1988).

Organizing, mediating, and encouraging are activities that supplement or supplant the historically utilized acts of constraining, deterring, and arresting that formed the public modality for police handling of crime (Bayley, 1988). Trojanowicz, et al, (1998) call this change a dramatic shift in thinking about law enforcement. A comprehensive approach to training and a focus on mission rather than rules must occur in order to move from traditional to community policing.

To effectively use persuasion and physical force, an officer masters skills and adopts a police culture to take authoritative control of chaotic and emotionally tense situations. Police academies have been typically designed to equip officers for effectiveness in that mission. Little has been written about training police to become

community oriented (Donahue & McLaughlin, 1993). To effectively collaborate, an officer must have expertise to complete the collaborative task (Rinehart, et al, 2001). Educators and social analysts recognize that education plays a role in reshaping and modifying the culture in which it operates and that education and public policy are closely related (Taba, 1962).

Organizational Change and Curriculum Development

Training is a significant cultural component of policing. Changes in training patterns are necessary in a transition from traditional policing to community policing (Trojanowicz, et al, 1998; Kratcoski & Dukes, 1993; McLaughlin & Donahue, 1993; Kelling et al, 1988; Meese, 1993; Goldstein, 1993; Kappeler & Gaines, 2005; Taba, 1962; Cordner, 2004; Flynn, 2004). Morgan (1986) states that culture comes from shared values, beliefs, meaning, understanding, and sense-making which comes from people constructing reality in particular ways. Cautioning against sloganism and cosmetic changes, as well as against believing that a mere policy change will create a cultural shift, Morgan urges the creation of shared meaning to create change in an organization. If a culture change is required in order to make the transition to community policing, leaders and trainers must realize that the key to culture lies in embedded and routine aspects of the members' daily experiences (Morgan). Community policing requires deep organizational changes for its integration into police culture, policy, and practice (Trojanowicz, et al).

Education researchers have recognized the mutual relationship between social change and education. Control of curriculum is power, influencing the cultural, political, and economic directions of society (Hewitt, 2006). Change in what is taught must be reflected in a policy change accepted by both the public and the most immediate recipients

of the policy (Hewitt). Just as school systems in the public education sector are comprised of complex sets of relationships which must be managed to produce support (Benne & Muntyan, 1951), so too must state training boards and training communities be changed in order to change the curriculum. Planning is a political process, not merely a rational one (Reid, 1999) and the new social reconstruction that would result from a curriculum change should be explicit in the education plan (Posner, 2005).

Historical Background

Specially appointed armed agents of government have existed at least since tribal times when rulers appointed certain officers with responsibilities of order maintenance for which ordinary soldiers could not be trusted. Biblical references point to such a police force during the reign of Hammurabi, king of Babylonia in 2181-2123 B.C. Roman Emperor Augustus Caesar made a distinct police force when he established the Praetorian Guard in 27 B.C. (Haberfeld, 2002).

Early English kings, including King Alfred in the 9th century and William the Conqueror in 1027 A.D., established law enforcement systems that relied largely on volunteer and self-policing with royal overseers which were the predecessors of the modern office of sheriff (Adams, 1973). In 1066 William of Normandy instituted the “frankpledge” which required citizens to take an oath to police themselves and report wrongdoers (Alpert, 2006). While law enforcement officers underwent special training as early as the 14th century in England until the 1800s a combination of military, private, and the volunteer patrols maintained some degree of order in populated areas of England. Dishonest volunteers and increasing crime gave rise to the reluctant acceptance of the Metropolitan Police Act of 1829 under the urging of Robert Peele. The London police

agency was created by Sir Robert Peele and founded on new principles of professionalism. Law enforcement was a royal function closely allied with the legal profession in English governance (Tobias, 1975),

The first American police departments that utilized paid, full time, uniformed officers began in the eastern United States in the mid 19th century and were modeled after the London Metropolitan Police (Morris & Vila, 1999). Thus, the roots of formalized police training in the United States, in contrast to the English experience, are not deep. New York City, having formed one of the first paid police departments in the nation in 1844, did not create a generalized police training school until 1909. That school evolved from the School of Pistol Practices begun in the final years of the 19th century. In 1959 New York State and the state of California were the first to establish statewide training standards by law. The first known law enforcement degree was issued in 1923 by the University of California Berkley (Gammage, 1963). The first bachelor's degree in police administration was awarded in 1935 from Michigan State (Palmeitto, 1999).

Corruption scandals such as those investigated in New York by the Wickersham Commission in 1931 were often the catalyst for changes in policing. For example in Los Angeles, William Parker became Chief of Police in the wake of scandal in the 1950s. With the political will and public demand for change in his favor Parker emphasized rigorous pre-service and in-service training. The Los Angeles Police Department became a leader in the police professionalism movement, a movement that would dominate the American policing philosophy until the advent of the community policing era of today (Morris & Vila, 1999).

During the professionalism era police used community relations programs, such as

speakers' bureaus and visits to schools, to create positive interaction between police and ordinary citizens. Efficiency and cold professionalism had replaced the neighborhood police officer. Radio dispatched motorized patrol replaced the face to face contact that, prior to the technology of the modern patrol car, had acted as the police officer's means of gathering information needed to keep his assigned area safe. The inefficiency of foot patrol, and the corruption of familiarity and favoritism, were both resolved by police using automobiles. Motor patrol also increased the speed and reach of police response to emergencies when coupled with the advent of the radio and telephone. Positive personal contact, however, diminished (Morris & Vila, 1999).

While some police departments addressed the developing isolation that accompanied the professionalism era, the mid 20th century brought firestorms of civil disruption for which mere efficiency of police response was no cure. A major national study, ordered by President Lyndon Johnson and published by the 1965 Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, found very low levels of training in police service. The recommendations of the study focused on making the police better equipped to serve with better education, training, and community relations (Saunders, 1970).

Community policing is a creation of a historical force which made some form of transformation in American policing inevitable. Political reformers and human rights activists found no cure for crime and injustice in technology, in public relations efforts, or in scientific management applied to law enforcement. "Community policing rose like a phoenix from the ashes of burned cities, embattled campuses, and crime-riddled neighborhoods" (Kappeler & Gaines, 2005, p. 67).

A U. S. Department of Justice study of law enforcement training academies in 2002

found attention is now being given to community policing topics in basic police training curricula, eleven years after the 1994 crime bill which began federal funding of community policing initiatives. The history of community oriented policing is taught in 85% of academies, with 60% of academies training in problem solving. During the two years prior to the study, 57% of academies had made changes in the curriculum related to community policing with a third increasing the number of hours devoted to it (Department of Justice, 2005).

Statement of the Problem

Community policing differs enough in its best practices from traditional policing that training in traditional academies for response-oriented policing may fail to prepare officers to perform in a community policing environment. Despite increasing acceptance and application of community policing philosophy, practice, and policy a significant gap may exist in training of new officers within their basic police training academy between training for more traditional policing models and training for the collaborative, problem solving model of community policing (Kappeler & Gaines, 2005).

Purpose of the Study

Police academies are moving toward inclusion of community policing in their curriculum (Hickman, 2002), but trainers do not yet know whether this curriculum is effective in its content, delivery, or outcome. Education, by definition, is undertaken to effect changes in knowledge, skills, and attitudes of individuals and communities (Knowles, 2005). To answer the question of whether a program attains intended outcomes and meets the needs of the participants, one must know what occurred in the program that is connected to outcomes (Patton, 1997). The Delphi process allows forecasts to be

quantified on policy issues with no easily determined quantitative answer (Strauss & Ziegler, 1975). The purpose of this study is to determine, based on perceptions of professionals in the field, what influence community policing is likely to have in the future as a curriculum component of police academy training.

Research Questions

The foundational question of this research is “What influence will community policing have on basic police training in the future?” Additionally, the study seeks to ascertain: a) what changes in basic police training are likely as a result of community policing b) what changes in basic police training are desirable as a result of community policing c) what training methods constitute best practices in the integration of community policing training into basic police training?

Definitions

The following terms were defined for this study as they were used throughout the study:

Basic police training (also known as basic law enforcement training) “Vigorous physical and mental training to teach participants self-discipline and organizational loyalty and to impart knowledge and understanding of legal processes and law enforcement” (Police Corps Act, 1994)

Community Policing “a collaborative effort between the police and the community that identifies problems of crime and disorder and involves all elements of the community in the search for solutions to these problems” (Community Policing, 2005, para. 2).

Delphi Process “The prediction of future events. The main goal being to collect judgments and establish a consensus about future probabilities in terms of variables, such

as time, quantity, and the desirability of the projected future state" (Helmer, 1978, p. 35).

Panel of Experts "Panelists have more knowledge about the subject matter than most people, or they possess certain work experience, or are members in a relevant professional association" (Murry & Hammons, 1995, p. 428)

Summary

This chapter presented background information for the study, conceptual underpinnings for the study in the area of describing community policing, recognizing dynamics of organizational change through curriculum design, and the general history of policing. This section presented the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, and the basic research questions to be answered. Chapter 1 closed with the definition of major terms used in the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter presents the history and development of the police profession, police education and training, the underpinnings of the style of police operations known as community policing, and a discussion of curriculum development and design in the context of organizational change.

History of Policing

Modern Americans have not experienced a society with no paid police and would find it difficult imagining a city or county relying on the community to police itself. However, the existence of trained, civilian police is a relatively new invention (Kappeler & Gaines, 2005). While kin could enforce order on small ancient communities governed by mutual consent and simple rules, Haberfeld (2002) states that the police system as we know it today has its origin in early tribal history. Tribal chiefs would appoint certain persons to assist them in both intimate and administrative duties with which soldiers or other officials could not be trusted.

Since the beginning of the development of structured cities, certain rulers have had special forces or separate branches of their armies that specialized in keeping law and order. Findings that Hammurabi, king of Babylonia in 2181-2123 B.C., developed a well organized judicial system give evidence of the early existence of a police type force to enforce the Hammurabic Code. Hammurabi's police force is described in the Biblical book of Genesis Chapter 14, in the story of the battle of four kings against five. Scholarly theologians agree on the validity of the police force as an agency of government in ancient

times (Haberfeld, 2002). Adams (1973) notes that a law enforcement kind of body existed in ancient Greece where five officials were elected at Sparta and given broad powers of investigation and execution.

Roman Emperor Augustus Caesar was the first ruler who made a distinct police force, separate from the army, with different clothing, living style, and commanders than conventional military forces. Augustus established the Praetorian Guard in 27 B.C. This force consisted of nine cohorts, each with 500 men, controlled directly by Augustus. Their prime function was to protect the emperor and enforce law and order in Rome and Italy. This system was also evident in the four hundred year rule of Rome over Britain (Haberfeld, 2002).

Adams (1973) describes the policing system established in the 9th century in England by King Alfred who compelled communities to police themselves. Alfred appointed a chief judge and enforcer as the reeve over the shire in which families were assembled in groups of tithings. The shire-reeve insured that each household was responsible for its own conduct under the supervision of a chief tithingman selected from a number of households. As each watched the other, accountability was enforced by requiring that community members turn in the wrongdoers or face the penalty themselves. In order to overcome intruders, able bodied men of the shires were always at the ready to form a posse at the call of the shire-reeve. William the Conqueror (1027-1087), reinforced the influence of shire-reeve by giving the office military rank in addition to the power already inherent in the civil position.

The system of householders taking turns doing unpaid duty continued through the Middle Ages and through the post-Reformation era. Men might be required to be the

watchman of their street for a night or be appointed constable for the parish for a year. In either case, a cash payment could be made in lieu of service which would fund a replacement for their shift (Tobias, 1975).

The dual role of judge and peace keeper was at various times separated. In 1072, the *Vicecomes*, or traveling (circuit court) judges, were introduced to the English scene and the law enforcement powers of the sheriff and constable were separated from their judicial powers. In the year 1166 the concept of a jury composed of peers of the accused was established. Beginning about the 14th century, policemen were actually trained for their jobs. The office of justice of the peace was created to replace the shire-reeve. The justice of the peace retained his role of policeman and judge for about seventy five years, when the office evolved into a strictly judicial role (Tobias, 1975).

From 1500 to the 1800s a combination of military, private, and the volunteer watch and ward (day and night patrol) served to maintain some degree of order in populated areas. The system fell into disrepute due to the actions of some dishonest or inefficient volunteers. Some of those so engaged were persons who were sentenced to serve on the watch as punishment for the very crimes they were on duty to prevent (Tobias, 1975).

A London magistrate, Henry Fielding - later succeeded by his brother John Fielding - developed a small but effective band of enforcers known by 1785 as the Bow Street Runners. The Runners effectively dealt with crime on the loading docks and merchant district of London. Taking note of the success of the Bow Street Runners, Robert Peele, a wealthy Member of Parliament, believed strongly that London's population and crime merited a full-time, professional police force.

Politicians objected to the idea of such a police force, fearing tyranny more than

they feared crime. The formal structure and centralized administration of the London Metropolitan police were delayed by resistance to the idea of a strong government. The population of London had grown to nearly one million by 1792, but the only provision for government law enforcement was the Middlesex Justice Act which provided for a police force of only 126 constables. While crime was an increasing problem and threat to commerce, attempts to reform the police were stalled in 1785, in 1818, and in 1827 for fear of government oppression (Tobias, 1975).

Peele finally succeeded in getting the Metropolitan Police Act of 1829 passed through Parliament. Policing under Peele derived from the common-law culture rather than the police of the prince of the Roman Empire (Tobias, 1975). The General Instructions of the new force stressed its preventive nature, saying that the principal object to be attained was the prevention of crime. Peele's ideas were much more democratic than previous police organizations in the derivation of power from the public rather than the crown in enforcing the law. Peele articulated the need for public cooperation and approval in preventing crime and reducing the need for the use of force to gain compliance (Glensor & Peak, 2002). Even with Peele's assurances, it is said that his new officers were initially greeted by mobs intending to club them off the streets (Garmine, 1982).

The derivation of American policing from its English roots is seen as early as 1634. The office of sheriff was introduced to the United States when the first counties were established in Virginia (Adams, 1973). Morris & Vila (1999) note that Peelean modeled police forces appeared in the U.S. in the mid-1800s, first in Boston, then New York, then Philadelphia. Serious crime was apparently rare in the earliest American colonies, but with growth and ethnic diversity came greater concern for maintaining peace. Cities exceeding

50,000 in population began to emerge in the 1700s, and quality of life eroded with no effective policing. Ineffective rural law enforcement, especially in the South, led to the establishment of bands of citizens called regulators who had some success against outlaws but often attacked anyone of whom they disapproved.

The population of the United States increased fifteen fold within a century of the revolution and reached from the Appalachians to the Pacific. The night watch system was inadequate as U. S. cities became crowded and disorganized. Sentiment suspicious of state power gave way to establishment of full time police systems modeled after the London Metropolitan Police. Citizens soon came to expect police services as a part of city life (Morris & Vila, 1999). In 1844, the New York state legislature passed a law establishing a full-time, preventive police force for New York City. New Orleans and Cincinnati followed in 1852, Boston and Philadelphia in 1854, Chicago in 1855, and Baltimore and Newark in 1857. By 1880, virtually every major American city had a police force based on Peele's model (Morris & Vila) although widespread tales emerged of police officers assaulting their superiors, releasing prisoners, sleeping or being drunk on duty, and willing to take a bribe (Garmin, 1982).

In the American west the responsibility for law enforcement was vested in private citizens, U.S. marshals, businesspeople, and town police officers. Private citizens usually helped to enforce the law by joining a posse or engaging in individual efforts, such as vigilante committees (Kappeler & Gaines, 2005). The post-Civil War era was rampant with governmental corruption from which policing did not escape. Civil service reform helped remove hiring decisions from pure politics, but police administrators were still political appointees and departments continued to wallow in corruption (Kappeler &

Gaines). In New York City, for example, the police department was run by a board of commissioners. Each commissioner sought to make sure that his own party had its fair share of the patronage jobs in the department. The police also had a large influence on the conduct of elections. From 1865 until the end of the century the conduct of elections was part of the responsibility of the police commissioners, and from 1872 the police were actually responsible for counting the votes and declaring the results (Douthit, 1975).

That "the history of American law enforcement is inseparable from the history of the United States itself" (Garmin, 1982, p. 18) is evident in technologies of early law enforcement. Telegraph police boxes were installed in 1867. Bicycles were used in Detroit by police officers in 1897 while, as early as 1913; the motorcycle was employed by departments in the eastern part of the country. Akron, Ohio claims the use of the first police car in 1910 with Cincinnati popularizing the police wagon in 1912 (Siegal, 2003). In 1930 still fewer than a thousand police cars were in use for patrol in the United States (Garmin).

Police officers were limited in their collective influence on the development of policing at the turn of the 20th century after the Boston police strike in September of 1914. Massachusetts Governor Calvin Coolidge used the state militia to break the strike when looting and rioting broke out. The striking officers were fired and replaced, ending unionism and solidifying power in the hands of autocratic police administrators (Siegal, 2003). As a result of rampant corruption and political patronage, the early 1900s also became the age of the crime commission. Beginning with the Chicago Crime Commission in 1919 and continuing through the 1930s, crime commissions were established or crime surveys conducted in some 24 states. In addition, two national commissions: the National Crime Commission (1925) and the National Commission on Law Observance and

Enforcement (also called the Wickersham Commission (1929) were created (Douthit, 1975). The most notable of these commissions was the Wickersham Commission created by President Herbert Hoover in the wake of lax enforcement of Prohibition and other forms of police corruption. This commission completed the first national study of crime and criminal justice, issued multiple reports and made five final recommendations. The five recommendations included the removal of the corrupting influence of politics from policing, the selection of police chief executives on merit, the testing of patrol officers and the requirement that officers meet minimal physical standards, the upgrade of police salaries and working conditions to decent levels, and the use of police women in juvenile and female cases (Morris & Vila, 1999).

The commissions influenced policing in three major ways. First, the commissions encouraged a climate of attitudes and ideas emphasizing crime control as the primary function of police forces and giving rise to the bellicose metaphor of the war against crime. Second, the commissions encouraged the use of the concept of efficiency as the principle criterion for the evaluation of police policies and practice. Efficiency became the same criterion by which other parts of the criminal justice system came to be evaluated. Third, the commissions emphasized the need for state and national coordination and leadership in the struggle against crime (Douthit, 1975).

The Wickersham report and its embedded guidelines, authored under the direction of August Vollmer, provided a map for the next generation of policing. By 1929, American policing had set the core goals of efficient administration with honest, fair, and well trained officers. Over the years, progress toward these goals was erratic. Complicating reform were wars, economic troubles, technological change, and the fact that policing in America

was in the hands of thousands of independent police agencies whose quality varied widely (Morris & Vila, 1999).

A change in the role of the federal government in the war against crime from one of encouragement to one of active leadership came in 1934. President Roosevelt, who had been a charter member of the National Crime Commission, showed an interest in the problem of crime and law enforcement even at a time when economic problems of the nation were uppermost. Federal attention to violent crime appeared in an effort to control kidnapping when Congress passed the Federal Kidnapping Act in 1932, establishing a legal precedent for federal action against certain notorious forms of crime (Douthit, 1975).

Because of the notorious corruption in law enforcement during Prohibition, the control of police officers was the focus of the professionalism movement from the 1940s through the 1960s using a military model of police organization and discipline that emphasized managerial efficiency. The poor performance of law enforcement was witnessed by the nation on television during the civil disturbances of the 1960s. These events and the brutal police response caused a loss of faith in the professionalism movement. Critics accused police agencies of being out of touch with the times and as racially biased organizations whose members harassed minorities and dissidents (Siegel, 2003).

In the early 1970s managerial efficiency began to give way to more human relations models, redesigning police work around motivators for enhancing officers' job satisfaction and improving community relations. One such effort was "team policing" that decentralized police services to the neighborhood level where problems would be solved

by generalist police officers (Morris & Vila, 1999). These efforts were precursors of the community policing era.

Historical Origins of Community Policing

The police in U.S. society have claimed enforcement of the laws as their mandate, even though studies show that the overwhelming majority of police time is spent assisting citizens with issues that are not explicitly related to a criminal act. The mandate to enforce the law is carried out by the unifying reality which is unique to law enforcement - the legal use of coercive force (Alpert, 2006). With the emphasis on community policing at the end of the 20th century, Robert Trojanowicz, a leading proponent of community policing, articulated the need for new training to accommodate the philosophy. “Community policing implies a shift within the department to...create and develop a new breed of line officer who acts as a direct link between the police and the people in the community” (Trojanowicz, et al, 1998, p. 2).

Observers have long noted the unique role of the police in creating and maintaining social order in ways that usually have little to do with the use of force and stereotypical police activities. The police function involves more than law enforcement, and the non-law enforcement functions have an important effect on a community's quality of life (Goldstein, 1987). In tracing the reemergence of community policing to the philosophy of policing promulgated by Sir Robert Peele, Braiden (1992) refers to one of Peele's original principles indicating that the police are members of the public and the members of the public are the police. “It was Peele's contention that a community must literally police itself, with certain members paid to do it full time in uniform while the rest did it part-time as they went about their daily work” (Braiden, 1992, p. 12).

The tension between the enforcement role of the police and their community problem solving role goes back to early American police reformers. In 1919 the Chicago Commission investigated crime and policing, concluding that crime could be reduced by increasing the chances of the criminal being caught and by swift and certain punishment following apprehension (Douthit, 1975). In that same year, Vollmer presented a treatise on the social worker role of police officers to the 1919 convention of the International Association of Chiefs of Police.

O.W. Wilson observed in 1950 that police service had broadened to social service and that skill in putting people in jail was less important than seeking out the influences of crime and dealing with them (Wilson, 1950). The 1967 Presidential Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice stated that “The peacekeeping and service activities, which consume the majority of police time, receive too little consideration” in training (U.S. President’s Commission, 1967, p. 92). Despite recognition of the need for positive community interaction, the community model of policing gave way by the late 1960s to the professional model. Ignoring a call from the 1967 report of the Presidential Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice for non-governmental entities to take a greater role in dealing with crime, police agencies took that burden upon themselves (Saunders, 1970). With centralized authority, bureaucracy, specialization, and detached formalized communication between citizens and the police, law enforcement used technology and efficiency rather than personal relationships to respond to crime. Outcomes were measured in crime rates and response times. Officers became disconnected from citizens except to take reports and interview victims and witnesses. Not until the late 1980s when the professional movement seemed to be ineffective as measured by crime

statistics, did community policing began to receive attention. By the 1990s a consensus had emerged that police should play a major role in working with others in the community to identify and eliminate crime's underlying causes even while maintaining traditional roles of reporting, investigating, arresting, and responding to crimes (Morris & Vila, 1999). Goldstein (1987) declared that the value of traditional policing methods was extremely limited. Even traditional policing relies on residents' trust in calling the police when they witness a crime (Stoutland, 2001).

Community policing advocates believe citizens should be involved in the policing process, and that solutions to problems require freeing both residents and police to be creative in solving problems (Dukes & Kratcoski, 1995). However, in a dictionary of law enforcement terminology published in the late 1980s the phrases *community policing* and *community oriented policing* do not yet appear. An entry describing community centered policing does appear but vaguely refers to community support and political activism (Fay, 1988). "Community policing has become what many have called a paradigm shift in the way policing is being performed in the United States. There seems little doubt that this paradigm will drive policing in the years to come" (Oliver, 2000, p. 1).

With rising crime in the 1980s, discussions of problem-oriented policing and community policing continued to intensify. The massive national upheavals of civil rights, antiwar protests, and assassinations gave way to more personal crime concerns as urban violent crimes against persons increased dramatically. In 1982 James Q. Wilson and George Kelling, both of Harvard, argued for active participation of police in community problems that were related to quality of life. Wilson's broken windows theory (slow degradation of the neighborhood environment fosters crime) was published in 1982 in the

Atlantic Monthly. The article fostered a consensus that emerged by the 1990s that police should play a major role in dealing with social problems that are the genesis of crime. With crime a national political issue, promises of new money and new techniques were made during election years. Gang violence related to crack cocaine focused attention on urban blight and violent young people. Fear possessed neighborhoods. Simply sending a police car to a reported crime did not prevent or “cure” crime. Urban dwellers felt abandoned by the police, and suburban dwellers feared that crime would spread to their middle class areas. The police were called upon to do more. Understanding underlying causes of crime and working with the community to deal with those causes were added to traditional duties of emergency responses to criminal events (Morris & Vila, 1999). Wilson’s broken window theory held the promise for a new era of policing.

In a 1982 article Kelling and Wilson noted that neighborhood residents reported feeling safer with foot patrol officers working even though no statistical change was being reported in crime in areas that were patrolled by officers on foot. These authors also noted that the officers on foot patrol reported more positive feelings about the community than did motor patrol officers, Wilson built a case for officers working on a neighborhood basis to maintain order as well as deal with actual criminal behavior. Wilson created a logical argument that at the community level, disorder and crime are usually inextricably linked. “Social psychologists and police officers tend to agree that if a window in a building is broken and *is left unrepaired*, all the rest of the windows will soon be broken.” (Kelling & Wilson, 1982, p. 5).

In reflecting on the professional era, Wilson postulated that the role of neighborhood police changed in the post WWII era, gradually shifting to a view of police

as crime fighters rather than maintainers of good order. Social scientists assumed that greater efficiency of police in solving crimes and making arrests would result in citizens feeling safer. But, according to Wilson, the most important requirement is to think that to maintain order in precarious situations is a vital job (Kelling & Wilson, 1982).

Problem solving approaches in community policing will almost certainly influence police officers as their role in society is reconsidered. Identifying and solving problems require that officers make more contacts outside the police agency (Eck & Spelman, 1987). Adoption of the community policing approach has been a band wagon effect that was given a major incentive by federal funding in the Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act of 1994 and became common practice for the majority of agencies across the country (Oliver, 2000).

Theoretical Underpinnings of Community Policing

Whether police behavior can influence the occurrence of criminal activity is a central question to any discussion of the effectiveness of community policing. “The most important reinforcers governing behavior are beyond the ready control of governments or any institutions” (Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985 p. 375). Whether communities influence criminal activity is also central to the question of effectiveness of policing methods which rely on marshalling community influences to reduce crime. Criminologist Robert K. Merton stated in 1938, “Our primary aim lies in discovering how some social structures exert a definite pressure upon certain persons in the society to engage in nonconformist rather than conformist conduct” (Merton, 1938).

Conceptions of what causes people to commit crime are varied, and critics question their validity (Bernard, 2002). Theories related to individual choice are predicated on “the

assumption that people, when faced with a choice, choose the preferred course of action” (Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985, p. 43), meaning that hedonistic motives will cause individuals to seek pleasure and avoid pain (Sutherland & Cressy, 1974). The choice to offend will vary based on opportunities which occur at various rates as individuals go about their daily routines (Wilson & Herrnstein). In terms of Routine Activities Theory, a suitable target in the presence of a likely offender in the absence of a capable guardian increases the potential for a criminal event to occur (Felson, 1987). Theories based on individual choice generally apply to personal, predatory criminal attacks on individuals (Clarke & Felson, 1993).

Theories related to social forces hold that social relations create a context within which formal and informal social control is possible (Lyons, 1999). Evidence shows that some neighborhoods have higher crime rates than others, although no universal explanation has been developed (Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985). Social disorganization may affect crime due to breakdowns in the moral and ethical influence of family, church, and school in counteracting delinquency (Reckless, 1961). Larger social constructs, involving legal and economic power, are also considered factors in crime causation, with the very existence of the police power of the state provoking criminality (Sutherland & Cressey, 1974; Siegel, 2003). Smaller social units may promote criminal behavior. “Violence in a subculture usually involves learned behavior and the process of differential learning, association, or identification” (Wolfgang & Ferracuti, 2002). Community policing assumes that latent informal mechanisms of social control can be mobilized by innovative police practices (Lyons, 1999).

If criminality is a biologically determined or predisposed personality trait, social and situational variables may play “a relatively minor part in crime compared with the powerful, driving force of criminal dispositions” (Clarke & Felson, 1993, p.4). Social control itself is not regarded as sufficient to prevent or respond to crime. Attempts to maintain social order in America failed as early as 1638 with Governor John Winthrop of Massachusetts decrying the sinfulness of the colonists even with the considerable influence of Puritanism (Garmin, 1982). Although governments and other institutions find difficulty in observing results of its influence (Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985), police control can be credited with successful reduction in violence in society (Sutherland & Cressey, 1974).

Some studies show specific examples of crime reduction attributed to policing strategies such as New York City and San Diego (Green, 1999), and Boston (Bragg, Kennedy, et al, 2001). Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux (1994) hold that the Normative Sponsorship Theory (that people of good will cooperate for common goals) and Critical Social Theory (people coalesce to overcome obstacles) validate the assumptions that community policing can be effective. Community policing relies on the assumption that increased neighborhood cohesion, aided or coalesced by the police, will reduce fear (Goldstein, 1987), improve safety (Bragg, Kennedy, et al), solve problems (Bucqueroux & Trojanowicz, 1994), revitalize communities (Lyons, 1999), and reduce crime (Greene).

Organizational Change

If police officers are now to engage in a far wider and more extensive range of policing functions, how are these newer and more complex range of police functions, roles, responsibilities, and their attendant risk-taking activities to be

introduced into existing police organization and structures? (Silverman, 1995, p. 37).

Silverman's question addresses the issue of organizational change which community policing advocates agree is necessary in order to transition from traditional policing to community policing (Trojanowicz, et al, 1998). History shows that police administrators have often faced both internal and external resistance to change (Garmin, 1982). Organizations tend to accept their current status quo as reality and often remain unprepared to challenge the rules at all operational levels (Morgan, 1986).

The knowledge and skills associated with community policing must be transmitted throughout the police organization. Much of this knowledge is tacit knowledge, not learned through lecture and text books but rather "deeply rooted in an individual's action and experience, as well as in the ideals, values, or emotions he or she embraces" (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Knowledge must be passed through to the organization by dialogue, experience, and observation (Senge, 1990) in order to create a new culture. Leaders must understand the norms and frameworks of the current activity in order to change them so that a new system of shared meaning can be internalized by members of the organization (Morgan, 1986).

Community policing will be successful only if the rank and file of police agencies allow key elements of community policing to be integrated into how individual members conceptualize the agency (Goldstein, 1987). Shifts from service goals and activities to evaluating outcomes can be difficult (Patton, 2001). A focused structure is necessary for effective group performance (Bolman & Deal, 1997).

Management must formulate the justification for a change and create valid criteria

to establish that the new ideas are worthwhile (Senge, 1990). Leaders' influence on establishing community policing and problem solving as an organizational value has an effect on the officers' use of their time. Supervisors are important in communicating higher authority's expectations to street practice (Engel & Worden, 2003).

Bolman & Deal (1997) describe several challenges to organizational change. These challenges include vague definitions of the problem, the intertwining of problems with other problems, unreliable information or information which is interpreted differently by different actors, multiple or conflicting goals, a shortage of resources, lack of clarity about shared or assigned responsibility, and lack of clarity of measurable criteria for success. Lipsky (1971) specifically cites police officers as among public employees who have high levels of independence and discretion, who work with limited resources and often uncooperative clientele, and who tend to resist demands for improved or more sympathetic service to their clients.

Training and Education for Change

A shift to the community policing philosophy requires a realignment of everything that is taught in training from the academy through in-service training. "This range of cognitive and behavioral actions entails an outlook and value system profoundly different than the law enforcement role" (Silverman, 1995, p. 36). A comprehensive approach is needed to provide a foundation for that change. Training in a community policing environment must provide skills used in community policing, must provide an understanding of the underlying philosophy of community policing, and must be structured to be engaging and maintain the interest of trainees. The community policing environment will not reduce the need for training in the use of firearms or other emergency survival

skills. Added to traditional law enforcement skills will be improvement of interpersonal and leadership skills (Trojanowicz, et al, 1998). The underlying idea is that the police are not capable of dealing with the root causes of crime on their own (Das & Lab, 2003).

Training for community policing is not the same as training in firearms, defensive driving, executing search warrants, and effecting arrests. Most police training is rigid, evolving as it does from law, policies, and procedures to which the law enforcement agency must conform (Kratcoski & Dukes, 1993). Compared to the manual skills of traditional academies, some features necessary for community policing training to be successful probably include empowerment, partnership, problem solving, and accountability. No substantiated training standards, curricula, nor literature existed for the budding practice of community policing in its early stages to inform trainers and policy makers of the effectiveness of any training (McLaughlin & Donahue, 1993).

Officers must internalize the knowledge, skills, and values for the kind of discretion required for community through training. Such behavioral goals come only through socialization and real world application. If a culture change is required to transition to community policing, leaders and trainers must realize that the key to culture lies in embedded and routine aspects of the members' daily experiences (Morgan, 1986). Police academies are notoriously inadequate for providing such training (Kelling et al, 1988). Kratcoski & Dukes (1993) agree that a defect in the implementation of community policing is training officers in the practices associated with community policing. Community policing skills should be integrated into the training curricula, not treated as a separate component of the training program. All personnel must become skilled in the techniques of problem solving, motivating, and team building. Patrol officers must develop

planning, organization, problem-solving, communications, and leadership skills
(Understanding Community Policing).

Edwin Meese III, speaking as the U. S. Attorney General, held that community policing must be reflected in recruiting and basic training of new officers. Meese asserted that leadership, communication skills, and qualities of persuasiveness and motivation were attributes associated with higher ranking officers which now must be expected of officers involved in community policing at every level. Police academy curricula would need to be changed to reflect more than mechanical police work. The training should prepare officers to understand their communities (Meese, 1993).

A Brief History of Police Training

The perceived importance of police training, although waxing and waning over the years, was noted as early as 1829 in the beginnings of uniformed policing with Robert Peele (Spurlin, 1992). New York City boasted the School of Pistol Practice in 1895 which grew into a more generalized police academy by 1909. August Vollmer began a training school for his Deputy Marshals of Berkley; the training school was criticized in the local newspapers but embraced as useful by his officers who attended on their own time (Gammage, 1963). The prevailing idea against which Vollmer struggled was that all a man needed to be qualified for the post of police officer was strength enough to swing a billy club. Vollmer borrowed heavily from ideas of professional development proposed by Richard Sylvester who served as the Superintendent of the Washington, D.C. police from 1898-1915 and president of the International Association of Chiefs of Police from 1902-1915 (Alpert, 2006).

Research and writings by Leonhard Felix Fuld and Raymond Fosdick in the early

1900s shamed the police into shifting slowly from physical force and on-the-job experience to advocating more formal training. The University of California at Berkeley, under the influence of Vollmer, had issued the nation's first known law enforcement related degree in 1923 when an A.B. in Economics with a Criminology minor was granted. The depression era vocational funding of the George-Deen Act provided federal funds which spurred Northwest University and Purdue to begin police related college studies (Gammage, 1963).

Training was a low priority for early American police departments. Until the arrival in the mid-1900's of civil service the political nature of the job of police officer and the job's often low appeal resulted in a short tenure of employees. Police jobs were generally appointed on a patronage system regardless of merit. A policeman's tenure might well depend on the election outcome or the amount of support or graft he could acquire in the course of his rounds. Police training was seldom seen as a national priority. Not until the 1930's did the FBI focus national attention on the need for training in all agencies as a result of the public crime wave associated with the Great Depression and Prohibition (Saunders, 1970).

Modern professional police training is also credited to the Los Angeles Police Department under the leadership of Chief William H. Parker who took the helm in the 1950s after a corruption scandal. Parker emphasized rigorous pre-service and in-service training. He was a student of Vollmer and O. W. Wilson, former Chief of Police and reformer in the Chicago Police Department. The Los Angeles Police Department became a model of professionalism (Morris & Vila, 1999). The modern management of the professional era combined the rigidity of the military model with the productivity measures

of the industrial model. Response times, arrest rates, enforcement ratios, and technical proficiency defined effective law enforcement.

Marion (1994) notes that crime control in the United States is traditionally a matter that comes primarily within the authority and autonomy of individual states. Due to increases in crime, including organized crime which did not respect state line boundaries, the role of the federal government in controlling criminal behavior has expanded significantly since the 1960s.

Saunders (1970) states that, while crime was not on the party platforms of the 1960 presidential campaigns, President Lyndon Johnson recognized crime as a national issue in 1964. President Lyndon Johnson gave his first Special Message to the Congress specifically on crime in 1965, and this message heralded the beginning of a new era in which public expectation for national government action would be encouraged by national political leaders. As a result, Congress passed the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965 and launched the presidential Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. The Commission's report dealt substantially with police issues, and found grossly inadequate training. The report recommended higher standards of education and training as well as better community relations. The phrase *war on crime* became common, and the infusion of a moderate amount of federal dollars and federal influence began to flow to local law enforcement.

President Johnson called for the improvement of law enforcement through federal grants. As part of this federal funding, selected police officers would be sent to approved colleges and universities for a year of intensive study in an effort to improve the quality of their work. Among the many commissions Johnson established was the President's

Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. After two years of research and expenditures of \$2.5 million, the Committee reported its findings in February 1967 in a report entitled “The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society.” The Committee made more than two hundred specific recommendations, including a proposal for federal aid for training and equipping local law enforcement officers (Marion, 1994). The federal involvement in funding led to the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration which provided grants for equipment and training, and offered financial aid for students attending criminal justice programs who went on to serve in justice related public service. The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society also made reference to the need for addressing crime through means other than law enforcement alone. The emphasis on non-law enforcement components of the justice system for solving the general crime problem was consistent with modern community policing concepts. The commission’s most important contribution, however, was its high level push for education of police officers (Marion).

The history of police training also roughly follows the pattern of development of other professional occupations toward education and licensing. The historical development toward professionalization for skilled occupations has been apprenticeship, informal education, proprietary schooling, then university and professional school. Policing has haltingly followed along these developmental paths and has not yet reached the professional standard of a coherent program of university education. Police work suffers from the perception among some that it is lacking in intellectual demands, is often reduced to crude manual tasks, and can be accomplished by persons with limited or native ability (Carter, 1995).

A Presidential task force reported the obvious need for police training. Even if a

police applicant possesses the highest qualities of intelligence, judgment, and emotional fitness, the recruit still needs extensive training before understanding the job of policing and developing the skills needed to perform it. “No person, regardless of his individual qualifications, is prepared to perform police work on native ability alone” (U.S. President’s Commission, 1967, p. 137).

The idea of special status, education, and training for professional careers is an ancient one. Craftsmen and merchants were trained either by family members engaged in the trade or with apprenticeships where learners were virtually enslaved by their mentors in the craft until they might be able to become entrepreneurs themselves. The professions grew from the guilds and associations in eleventh century Europe. Education for general knowledge and not for occupational training, a somewhat later development, is generally traced to classical Greek and Roman cultures (Carter, 1995).

Etzioni (1964) characterizes professionals as those who exercise authority by virtue of knowledge gained over a lengthy training period, who make life or death decisions or are vested with privileged communication, and who apply or create knowledge rather than merely communicate knowledge. Lebeaux & Wilensky (1965) describe the process of professionalizing as one in which new forms of control are created by the professional group over standards of work done, ethics, client relationships, and professional schools. Additionally, the profession assumes a status among other professions along with popular stereotypes and increasing economic reward. Professionalism is also seen as autonomous expertise devoted to a client’s best interest over personal or commercial profit (Aiken, 1970). Professions tend to derive from social factors of change such as technology, crisis, reform, or from the efforts of a strong leader. Carter (1995) regards policing to be in a state

of continued transition toward becoming a profession.

Professionalism predicates education. American society has equated progress with education, especially in the era of the civil rights movement and the cold war (Hewitt, 2006). The delineation between training and education is part of the defining characteristic of a profession as opposed to a trade. Jackson (1970) holds that formal education takes precedence over technical competence, with the presumption that a trained mind can gain readily learned skills. Broderick (1987) defines a professional as one who holds more than just technical competence but rather is one who has mastered a complex body of knowledge which is applied to complex problems using independent judgment.

Three training models have been used for police training: the plebe system, technical training model, and the college system (Broderick, 1987). The plebe system is the military model; the technical training model teaches operational skills; the college system stresses professionalism to produce the “thinking man” (Broderick, p. 215).

Carter (1995) cites three training philosophies - the paramilitary model, which uses the police academy; the professional model, which attaches importance to the college degree; and another philosophy known as the federal model, which advocates a national police school as is seen in many European countries. All of the models are used to some degree in the United States. The paramilitary model exists in every state with at least one police academy in the tradition of a residential quasi-military encampment. Criminal justice academic programs are common place in colleges of all types but only rarely supplant academy training as a basic requirement for certification. The FBI and other federal law enforcement agencies use a national police school, either the FBI Academy at Quantico, Virginia, or the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center in Glynco, Georgia.

The basic police training academy is the common starting place for virtually every police officer in America. Statewide standards for law enforcement training and certification were first established in both California and New York state in 1959 (Gammage, 1963) with every state establishing minimum standards by the 1980s. Curriculum and total training hours vary widely, but the police academy establishes the values that will influence the police officers' careers, shaping the officers' attitudes when they are most open to adopting a philosophical mindset about policing (Alpert, 2006; Myers, 2004).

A government study showed that problem solving models were taught in only slightly more than half of all academies; skills at organizing the community, assessing effectiveness of responses, creating problem solving teams, and analyzing crime pattern were much rarer and were emphasized in well below half of the academies. A mere 5% of recruits worked on a problem-solving project for which problems were surveyed and identified and for which a solution was developed and results were presented. More than a third of these changes in community policing related teaching were made because of mandates from the state or federal government (Department of Justice, 2005).

Missouri and Colorado (states from which experts for this study were drawn) basic police training requirements give little explicit attention to problem solving as a professional component of policing. Missouri law leaves approval of academy curricula up to its Peace Officer Standards and Training Board for approval. Missouri statute 590.040. 1. states "The POST commission shall set the minimum number of hours of basic training for licensure as a peace officer no lower than four hundred seventy and no higher than six hundred" (<http://www.moga.mo.gov/statutes/c500-599/5900000040.htm>). A sample of an

approved academy curriculum from the St. Louis County and Municipal Police Academy (<http://www.co.st-louis.mo.us/police/academy/pdf/Curriculum.PDF>) shows a 902 hour curriculum of which two hours are focused on “Problem Solving” (p.8). Colorado mandates the curriculum explicitly in the language of the governing statute (<http://www.ago.state.co.us/post/2006POSTMANUAL.pdf>, pp. C3-C23) with a 546 hour curriculum of which two hours is devoted to the subject of community policing, four hours to problem solving, and two hours to community partnership.

Lorie Fridell, Director of the Police Executive Research Forum in 2004 urged police executives to work with academy directors and legislators to promote problem solving in training infused throughout the entire academy curriculum (Fridell, 2004). However, few departments have much control over their officers’ basic police training. Regional academies spread training costs but dilute agency influence. State regulations mandate curriculum. Concerns about liability, law, and tactical procedures dominate with 90 percent of academy courses devoted to 20 percent of what a police officer typically does with his or her day (Flynn, 2004).

Training for high risk, low occurrence events associated with life and death survival for officers emphasizes the combat policing model where survival is the sole mission of policing, with devotion to community necessarily excluded (Myers, 2004). “Officers whose education and training is totally oriented around community engagement and methods for solving specific types of community problems might be able to implement better quality COP than officers whose indoctrination into policing took a more traditional form” (Cordner, 2004, p.67). Community policing and problem solving competencies are creativity and innovation. Training for community policing should be infused into every

module of the training curricula, rather than being stand alone units of training (McPherson, 2004).

Training methodology is under scrutiny as well as subject matter. Knowles (2005) cautions that adult learning models should be debated separately from the goals of a given curriculum. McPherson (2004) acknowledges that a few departments have adopted new training methods that encourage adult learners to assume responsibility for their own learning.

College education for entry level police officers is not required in the majority of law enforcement agencies. No clear consensus exists about what such a degree program should include or whether a specific degree is significantly better than any baccalaureate degree. The case of *Davis V. City of Dallas*, 777 F.2d 205 (5th Cir. 1985, Certiorari Denied to Supreme Court May 19, 1986) accepted college education for police officers as a bona fide occupational qualification (BFOQ) for hiring if a police agency so chooses. Saunders (1970) holds that the benefit of a college education is unquestionable. Liberal education promotes the very characteristics which law enforcement leaders claim to desire in recruits. Knowledge of change in social and political conditions, human behavior, communication, and assumptions about certain moral beliefs, discipline, and habits of the mind are all desirable components of public servants (Saunders; Palmietto, 1999).

Bromley (1999) points out some objections to a presumption that college educated police officers are superior to police officers who are products of a police academy only. Bromley regards research on college educated police officers as mixed and inconclusive, sees no uniformity in college programs or degree requirements in law enforcement hiring to create meaningful research samples, believes the paramilitary structure of most police

agencies would not allow the full problem solving capacity of an educated officer to be employed, and suggests the distinction in modern police training academies between the college model and the military model are not as significant as they might have been historically.

Recruitment for change

Training changes alone may not be sufficient to make the shift from traditional to community oriented policing if candidates for police work continue to be recruited for traditional policing. The efficiency of the police has long been recognized to depend on a careful selection of policemen as well as adequate training and pay (Sutherland, 1934). Etzioni (1964) observed that organizations tend to perpetuate the kinds of participants who reflect the status quo. Selection is based on qualities which require the least amount of resources to maintain control of the organization. After selection, organizational socialization adapts those qualities to organizational roles. In contrast to this uniformity, continuity, and control the autonomy granted to professionals is necessary for effective professional work. Professionals must be individually responsible for their professional decision, arrived at with individual knowledge and creativity. This autonomy is diametrically opposed to the traditional principle of organizational control by superiors.

Recruitment that preserves the current culture of an organization reflects an often subtle resistance to change. When agencies think they are already recruiting successfully, the assumption may reflect a concept that Stone (2003) borrows from sports commentators know as the Superbowl syndrome. Observers of professional football have noted that the same football team rarely wins the Superbowl Championship two years in a row, Stone uses the sports metaphor to attribute satisfaction with the status quo as the cause - we are

the champions, why change? “Some organizations are characterized by a remarkable inability to sense that they have problems and thus have a low ability to anticipate and adapt to changes” (Owens, 2001, p. 199). Senge (1990) describes the condition as a mindset which makes people unwilling to change because they feel they are already right and will seek out and interpret data in ways that validate their mindset. Police departments should emphasis recruiting the educated, but the same police departments can still prevent education from becoming a force for change by enforcement of policies to insure that officers remain loyal to the subculture (Sherman, 1978).

Ellen Scrivner, Deputy Superintendent of the Chicago Police Department, noted recruits to police work who had traditional qualities knew little about the job, tended to be military veterans, obtained their education after beginning their career, were prone to take responsibility upon themselves, responded to incidents in order to fix the problem and then get back on patrol for the next call, and focused on keeping the edge over potential adversaries. Scrivner called for selection of police recruits based on a new skill set focusing on abilities to collaborate, use technology, problem solve, and think analytically. Scrivner also advocated seeking recruits who possess character qualities of emotional intelligence, empathy, and leadership. Traditional policing tends to “select out” - creating hurdles for recruits to overcome, rather than to “select in” recruits with community policing skills suited for today’s needs (Scrivner, 2006).

The lament in a 1946 report on the selection of police officers held that "even if specifications for a good police officer were drawn up, there are no efficient methods for selecting such a person"(Holcomb, 1946, p.2). Even less optimistic was Sutherland's assessment of police selection in the 1930s which "are not adequate to keep morons and

criminals out of the force" (Sutherland, 1934). Although no modern commentator would make such a claim, the implementation of community policing does call for officers to perform substantially new tasks, in addition to performing old tasks in new ways (Engel & Worden, 2003). Officers will not be creative and will not take initiative if a high value continues to be placed on conformity. But properly trained and motivated officers, given the freedom to make decisions and act independently, will respond with enthusiasm (Goldstein, 1993). Recruitment will be critical to the success of community policing initiatives, along with training, supervision, and criteria for evaluating and promoting officers (Goldstein, 1987).

Curriculum as Change

With change in training content and methods viewed as an integral part of the recommended means by which community policing is implemented, exploring the goals of community policing and the means by which such training change may occur is essential (Silverman, 1995). The process that occurs typically in police training differs markedly from the processes recommended by community policing advocates. A report from a national study in 1978 asserted that the best way to educate for change in policing was to develop police officers' knowledge to solve problems (Sherman, 1978). While most texts and research on curriculum development appear to have been written focusing on public elementary and secondary education the principles identified are here applied to the subject of curriculum and program planning in police education and training.

Curriculum is described by Hawthorne & Henderson (2000) as "the vision of the educated adult, a plan for a pedagogical journey", "a student's actual classroom engagement with ideas and ways of knowing", "the accumulation of value and knowledge

traditions representing political conceptions of a society”, “a distinctive subject matter content”, or “teachers’ educational activities - what actually occurs in the classroom” , and a “value-laden set of activities in which those involved try to create ways for students to acquire ideas” (Hawthorne & Henderson, p. 3). Pratt (1980) says ancient education reflected curricula consisting of memorization of sacred texts or training for war. Bondi & Wiles (1979) trace the first use of the word curriculum to around 1820 in America and defined it as the product of a course of training including textbooks, teaching plans, and other artifacts of study. Curriculum is tantamount to the philosophical question of human potential (Zais, 1976). Taba (1962) states that all curricula contain objectives, select and organize content, and indicate patterns of learning and teaching. Posner (1992) concludes that the common elements of curricula are the learning outcomes and the expected means: the scope and sequence of material; the syllabus, content outline, the texts and the planned learning experiences. Curriculum is also described as what is handed down by the authorities as the official word on what must be taught (Posner). The first question of curriculum is what is to be taught, the second is how it is to be taught (Hewitt, 2006).

Henderson & Hawthorn (2000) interpret curriculum as a “vision of the educated adult” and “a value-laden set of activities in which those involved try to create ways for students to acquire the ideas, perspective, and skills deemed most worthy of good education” (p.3). Pratt (1994) states that “The primary curriculum goal is liberation - developing in students maximum capacity for choice” (p.13). Zais (1976) claims that curriculum is designed to win the hearts and minds of students, guiding wise decisions. Posner (1992) asserts that curriculum decisions involve not just how to do something but why it should be done, to whom, and by whom, describing curriculum as “part of an

ongoing dialogue between people with differing beliefs about and commitments to education and , in particular, different beliefs about what people should learn to do“ (Posner, p. 35). Nicoll & Nicoll (1972) describe curriculum development as clearly establishing what is to be achieved, deciding how to do it, and considering how to know if it has been successful in bringing about a change in the student.

Curriculum development is unavoidably a political process (Hawthorne & Henderson, 2000; Reid, 1999). Curriculum designers must consider the social context, demands on resources, and the opinions of significant persons in the community of the end users of the curriculum (Pratt, 1980, 1994). Curriculum is often the result of pressures outside of the education system, including religion, technology, and economic forces (Becher & Maclure, 1978). Curriculum is also a product of history, validating a certain social and political order over another (Posner, 1992).

Curriculum development is an expression of what is important and includes not just elements and assumptions about what to learn and how it should be learned, but also what is moral, patriotic, and philosophically sound. The ontology of knowledge has a transcendent spiritual quality (Zais, 1976). Palmer’s work in *Fifty Major Thinkers on Education from Confucius to Dewey* (2001) cites many historically revered leaders in religion and philosophy who are regarded as great teachers - Confucius, Aristotle, Socrates, Plato, Jesus, John Stuart Mill, among them. Teaching creates a confrontation with moral choice (Reid, 1999; McCutcheon 1995; Bondi & Wiles, 1979) involving subjective renderings of fundamental meanings of life and one’s place in the universe (Pratt, 1994; Zais, 1976).

Curriculum, therefore, cannot be conceived, constructed, and handed down by

experts to practitioners for use like instructions included in a “some assembly required” do-it-yourself furniture kit. The curriculum development process may be non-linear and can appear chaotic (Zais, 1976; Pratt, 1964). “It is not so much like bricklaying as like weaving. It is less a technology than an art. It is a task for poets rather than bureaucrats” (Pratt, p. 66). Owens notes that curriculum development is done within a “loosely coupled” system (Owens, 2001, p. 115) and curriculum designers may quickly lose control of the aims of the course.

Before any training program can be designed and developed, training directors must know what needs for training exist (Klotter & Rosenfeld, 1979). A formal determination of the need for curriculum change can be accomplished with a needs assessment which is “an array of procedures for identifying and validating needs and establishing priorities among them” (Pratt, 1980). Such an assessment will be based on both opinion and fact. Opinions should be gathered from a variety of persons including those with political power, teachers, recent graduates, employers, and “frontier thinkers” (Pratt, 1980, p. 81). The results of polling public opinion may not represent actual needs but will likely represent political realities. Needs assessments should not rely too heavily on opinion because identification of a need does not automatically establish a need for a new formal educational effort. Present needs may not justify a change unless the need will be a significant one in the future. Objective data are of value in determining the future value of a given curriculum (Pratt).

Some who comment on learning caution against exclusive use of conventional teaching styles. Senge (1990) urges thinking beyond books, manuals, and lectures to attend to subjective insights guided through the use of metaphors or experiences. Nonaka &

Takeuchi (1995) assert that experience is the most powerful realm of learning and that the type of knowledge such as that possessed by a craftsman is not easily articulated without mental models. Group learning through dialogue, observation and shared experiences can provide learning for adapting to new ideas and for generating new ideas (Senge).

Many impediments exist to implementation of a desired curriculum. Because control of the curriculum is an exercise of power (Hewitt, 2006) curriculum planners should be clear where the decision making about curriculum actually lies (Pratt, 1980). While promoters of a given curriculum design course content and delivery, they are necessarily also deciding what is not taught, as well as that which is taught implicitly (Pratt, 1994; Posner, 1992; McCutcheon, 1994). Interpretation and implementation by the end user - the teacher (or police trainer) - is not always predictable either. "The fact that the need for a new curriculum is supported by academic or pedagogical experts does not carry much conviction with teachers" (Pratt, 1994). Teachers can reinvent curriculum as they present it (McCutcheon, 1994; Bradley, 1985). Teachers may have little enthusiasm for the material, or little interest in presenting it in a new way that is not in their typical instruction patterns. There must be those in the learning community who perceive curriculum change as meeting a local need (Pratt). The new material may not be integrated into the existing curriculum in a meaningful or logical way, and adequate resources may not be allocated to the instructional effort (Pratt, 1980).

Owens (2001) cautions that curriculum developers' influence has limitations. Curriculum is part of a loosely coupled system, implying that no direct line of control exists between curriculum conception and implementation. As with any endeavor, intended consequences never unfold as planned (Patton, 1997). Unintended learning and

consequences of teacher - learner relationships should always be considered as possible side effects (Posner & Rudnitsky, 2005). Limitations in scheduling also affect coordination of subject matter and their sequence, and are not always controllable by the curriculum designer (Posner, 1992). Evaluation schemes are also often at odds with the stated purposes of a curriculum (Zais, 1976).

Training methods used for community policing subject matter may conflict with the actual goals of community policing. In a previous study, this researcher examined a curriculum in a Colorado police academy and found a unit on problem solving to consist entirely of lecture with no practical application built into the unit (Shults, 2004). Pratt (1994) refers to these unarticulated implications as hidden curriculum, where true intentions are reflected such as a lesson on creativity to students seated in neat, conventional rows. Argyris (1985) calls this disjunction a conflict between “espoused values” and “theories in use” (p.79).

The Police Corps Model

The Police Corps, an experimental police training program funded by the federal government, was designed as a model program for training community policing officers when authorized in 1994 in Title XX of the Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act, public law 103-322 (42 USC 14091, et seq) and administered by the U.S. Department of Justice Office of Justice Programs, Office of the Police Corps and Law Enforcement Education. Part of the mission statement for the Police Corps states “By engaging these officers with distinct communities we will increase trust and respect between law enforcement and all of our citizens thereby creating safer communities” (Police Corps, 2001, p. 3). The Police Corps was designed for trainees who had completed their

baccalaureate degrees, and this program also articulated values that emphasized creativity and working with partners to solve problems. In keeping with the aim of training future police officers toward a philosophy centered on partnerships with the communities they serve, the recommended training guidelines for the Police Corps included strategies for relationship building, communication, critical thinking, and hands on learning (Police Corps, 2000).

The eight elements of Police Corps standard curriculum were referred to as the eight domains of policing: Leadership and Conduct, which includes character development, leadership, teamwork, and self-discipline; Core Values and Ethics, which emphasizes honor and excellence; Physical/Mental/Emotional Fitness, which includes communal living with intense training and proximity with other trainees in a residential setting; People and Communities, which includes hands-on projects and role playing; Communication, which includes speaking, courtroom training, and mentoring; Academic Content, which includes reading, writing, debate, and research; Technical Skills, which includes arrest control, vehicle operation, firearms training, and investigation; and Scenario Training, which involves problem-solving, discretion, and situational leadership (U.S. Department of Justice, 2003).

In 2003 the U.S. Department of Justice commissioned an assessment study conducted by Caliber Associates to examine the viability of the Police Corps. The Police Corps assessment studied "successful and effective training techniques" (U.S. Department of Justice, 2003, p. IV-13). The study found the following "notable examples" of learning: developing the conceptual framework of the eight domains as a philosophical framework that informs the whole curriculum; moving toward integrated rather than block learning so

that the subject matter flows seamlessly; providing immediate and individualized feedback and assessment using adult learning styles; adding context to broaden the trainee's world view; modeling excellence; addressing needs of different kinds of learning styles; collaborative problem solving; and engaging and communicating with the community. One example cited by the assessment report is the Missouri Police Corps practice of assigning trainees to be prisoners or persons in poverty and homeless and having them live in real environments in those roles for a period of time.

The Police Corps assessment report recommended scenario based training using experiential and hands-on exercises, and further recommended general principles to be integrated and over-learned throughout the curriculum. The report pointed out differences between the Police Corps and other basic police training academies, although Police Corps training met and exceeded state peace officer certifications. The assessment report recommended that traditional police academies adopt Police Corps training practices including enhanced lectures (adding tabletop exercises and lots of discussion), greater use of problem solving exercises using teams, case studies based on real life situations to facilitate creative thinking, role playing and simulations which present trainees with an artificial problem representing reality, and breakout groups to discuss and clarify lecture material with peer-to-peer learning (U.S. Department of Justice, 2003). The Police Corps came to an end when no federal funds were appropriated in fiscal year 2006 for the training program (<http://www.whitehouse.gov/omb/budget/fy2006/pdf/appendix/jus.pdf>).

Summary

This chapter presented a historical background for the study. Chapter 2 reviewed the ancient origins of policing through the English roots and models of law enforcement

that provided an organizational and philosophical framework for policing in the United States. This chapter reported the progress of American policing from the watchman to the uniformed paid police officer and outlined the fundamental changes in policing that came with political and technological changes. Chapter 2 cited the evolution of police work as a profession, the development of police training, and the shift toward the concept of community policing. This chapter examined the beginning of community policing and theoretical underpinnings. Chapter 2 concluded with a discussion of organizational change and the change agents of education and training, recruiting, and curriculum development within the framework of community policing.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The research design and methodology of this study is organized in three sections. The first section reviews the purpose of the study, the second reviews the Delphi technique. The third deals with population and sampling, data collection, and analysis.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to forecast, based on the perceptions of selected experts, the likely and desirable changes associated with training at the basic law enforcement academy level as that training regards community policing. The study used multiple rounds of questioning of panelists to determine convergence of opinions from law enforcement personnel deemed experts in police training as to the likely and desirable changes in basic training as a result of implementation of community policing. Respondents were comprised of police academy directors, police academy instructors, and police supervisors and trainers at the field training level. The survey was based on a set of survey questions established by an external panel of experts selected from attendees at the July, 2006 Community Policing: Leading the Way to a Safer Nation conference sponsored by the Community Policing Consortium and the U.S. Department of Justice Office of Community Oriented Policing Services in Washington, D.C. An arbitrary measure of consensual agreement was used to determine agreement among panel members.

This analysis identified the perceptions of selected experts as to a) what changes in basic police training are likely as a result of community policing, b) what changes in basic police training are desirable as a result of community policing, c) what training methods

constitute current practices in the integration of community policing training into basic police training.

The Delphi Approach

The research utilized a process of inquiry known as the Delphi method which was developed as a prediction model (Sackman, 1975). Classic Delphi, as developed by the Rand Corporation, follows the chronological problem-solving sequence: establishment of objectives, formulation of the problem, solution testing, and the write-ups and dissemination of results. In the Delphi context, objectives include needs, goals, basic value assumptions, and expected payoffs. Formulation of the problem is accomplished throughout the design of the questionnaire and its experimental implementation. Solution testing includes iterative field administration and scoring of responses to the questionnaire. The last stage involves the interpretation of results by the Delphi director in communicating findings to others (Sackman).

Willis (2003) explains the derivation of the term *Delphi* as first used by Olaf Helmer and Norman Dalkey of the Rand Corporation. Greek mythology describes Delphi as an ancient Greek shrine considered by the Greeks to be the center of the earth. In this story the god Apollo declared himself the master of Delphi after slaying a dragon. Through the centuries several temples were built at Delphi to Apollo. People came from miles around to discover the will of heaven as revealed through the oracle at Delphi through the priestess Pythia. Her vague statements were not always convincing. During a conflict with the Persian army, the Greeks sought advice from Pythia. Doubting her first revelation, they sought another. Combining the first and second declarations, the Greeks devised a successful strategy to defeat the enemy.

The primary element in the Delphi process is prediction of future events. "The main goal being to collect judgments and establish a consensus about future probabilities in terms of variables, such as time, quantity, and the desirability of the projected future state" (Helmer, 1978, p. 35). Delphi was used initially to forecast bombing targets in the United States likely to be chosen by the Soviet Union (Dalkey & Helmer, 1963). Dalkey (1972) viewed the Delphi process as suitable for important decisions in the social sciences which involved issues not amenable to use of factual data or theory.

Willis (2003) suggested the existence of some assumptions about decision making. One assumption is that group decisions are usually more valid than decisions made by an individual; another assumption holds that decisions are more valid if the group is composed of experts in the field. A final assumption is that participant anonymity brings greater rationality to the decision-making process. Rohrbaugh (1979) found that judgments of a group were significantly better than the judgments of the same individuals treated separately and that meaningful group discussion increased accuracy of both simple and complex tasks. Experts have concluded that most Delphi studies in educational settings are normative and useful (Willis).

The selection of experts is an initial part of the Delphi process after a problem has been identified. Expertise among panelists implies that "the individual panelists have more knowledge about the subject matter than most people, or that they possess certain work experience, or are members in a relevant professional association" (Murry & Hammons, 1995, p. 428). In addition to the panelists' expertise, panelists need to be available, willing, and able to be objective and rational (Brooks, 1979).

For the selection of panel members Delbecq, Gustafson, & Van de Ven (1975)

suggested a nomination process from within relevant professional organizations. In this study presenters and participants at a national conference on community policing provided an available pool of respondents for the development of the initial Delphi issues and questions. Academy personnel in Missouri and Colorado comprised one of two pools for consideration of the questions, while the second pool consisted of selections by local police departments that received mailed inquiries addressed to *Training Officer* and forwarded the survey to the most appropriate person based on the criteria in the letter to the training officer. This second group was made up of officers who do training or supervision on the department level either as field training officers or patrol supervisors.

Delphi has been derided most notably by Sackman (1975) who criticized the process on several fronts. Sackman's primary objections were to the questionnaire design, selection and definition of *expert*, and lack of scientific and reliably measured results. Sackman held that the potential for bias and manipulation on the part of the researchers, as well as the potential for poorly developed questions and marginally qualified respondents, cast doubt on the reliability of the Delphi process. In this study, respondents were identified by occupation as likely to be knowledgeable in the areas of inquiry. Areas of inquiry were suggested and reviewed by experts who volunteered for the external panel and who were involved in community policing policy, practice, and research.

In describing the Delphi process, Willis (2003) identified two major activities with several steps within each area of activity. The first activity is identifying the panel of experts, accomplished by discovering willing participants and collecting demographic data on them. The second activity is developing and administering the questionnaire. The questionnaire construction is accomplished by having a panel first develop areas of

questioning for the survey then analyzing the input in order to resubmit the data to the panel.

The literature is mixed on the optimal size of the expert panel, but Murry & Hammons (1995) concluded that at a minimum, the final panel should be comprised of at least ten members. Delbeq, et al (1975) suggested using no more than thirty participants. Brooks (1979) noted no significant improvement when a panel exceeded 25 members. The original Delphi study used a panel of seven (Dalkey & Helmer, 1963). Helmer (1983) pointed out that standard Delphi format has evolved to consist of four rounds of inquiry administered through questionnaires. First round questionnaires asking for opinions provide initial input on the topic under consideration. Once the Delphi statements are formulated, a questionnaire is developed and sent to the panel members who are asked to respond to each item in a predetermined way. This first round essentially functions as an anonymous brainstorming session, although a modified version of the Delphi technique may begin with a structured questionnaire (Murry & Hammons, 1975). According to Brooks (1979) an open ended approach is most frequently used because it allows freedom of response, and having independent review of data acts to reduce the danger of researcher bias. The length and complexity of the survey questions may be relevant to the outcome. Christensen (2001) recommends that the length of any survey be constrained to hold the respondent's interest and cooperation.

Once the Delphi questions and experts are determined, most studies use a Likert type scale with instructions to panelists to rate items with an agree/disagree rating (Brooks, 1979). Panelists are invited to make comments about the items or their responses. The researcher compiles the results for resubmission to the panelists, revising the questions if

necessary to generate items on which greater agreement might be achieved.

One important issue is the means by which the researcher knows how to determine when a Delphi panel reaches consensus (Willis, 2003). Murry & Hammons, (1975) advocated tabulating the percentage or number of panel members selecting a certain response or rating cutoff for determining if consensus was reached. Willis accepted the establishment of arbitrary standards to be used by the researcher to determine consensus.

This study used two panels. One panel (the external expert panel) formulated the questionnaire, and the other (the internal expert panel) responded to the questionnaires in successive rounds of Delphi discussion. The external panel was a selection of community policing advocates and practitioners who attended the July, 2006 Community Policing: Leading the Way to a Safer Nation conference held in Washington, D.C. and sponsored by the Community Policing Consortium and the U.S. Department of Justice Office of Community Oriented Policing Services. The academy and law enforcement personnel for the internal expert panel were police administrators and trainers in Colorado and Missouri. These two states were chosen based on the researcher's knowledge of similarities between Colorado and Missouri in regard to rules governing police training. Both Colorado and Missouri have state training standards that require pre-service certification of those who desire to hold arrest powers with a law enforcement agency. Many states have centralized state-run training sites which train all or most of the peace officers who have already been hired by local police agencies. The centralized state-run model results in a small number of basic training academies in the state, and states using this model were therefore excluded. The target states of Colorado and Missouri have a combined total of over 30 basic police training academies whose addresses are easily accessible on their respective state

government web sites. Police agencies were selected from Missouri and Colorado municipal and county law enforcement agencies with an identifiable email address on department internet web sites and from a list of agencies in Missouri provided by the Missouri Department of Public Safety, Peace Officer Standards and Training division.

The identity of the participants and their responses from each of the questionnaires remained anonymous to the other participants. Selected panelist candidates were contacted in August of 2006. In October, 2006 the researcher posed the general question to the external panel: "How will basic law enforcement academy training be affected by community policing?" Several discussion questions were offered to the experts to aid in prompting and focusing the responses of panelists. The external panel members responded during October, 2006.

The questions developed by the researcher using the suggestions of the expert panel were resubmitted via email to the panel members for review and clarification and then edited by the researcher into 110 condition statements based on the expert panelists' responses. External experts suggested simplifying the survey instrument. A shortened version of the survey, maintaining all of the condition statements from original iteration but with a simplified response grid of 46 items, was presented via email and web site display to the external panel. The external panel of experts all agreed on the 46 item survey in early November, 2006.

The 46 item survey was then submitted to the internal panelists for ratings and comments. The internal panel was selected from respondents to a mailing to law enforcement agencies and police academies completed in late November of 2006. Respondents provided their perceptions regarding the likely and desirable components of

training in law enforcement academies to prepare future police trainees for community policing in the first round of the Delphi study for internal panelists completed in January, 2007. In addition to the rating, respondents were invited and encouraged to comment and explain their responses. Respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement with the desirability, current existence, and future likelihood of each survey condition statement. Respondents were encouraged to write brief narrative statements in support of their ranking.

Responses were then analyzed to determine the degree to which each statement was rated and the degree to which the panelists converged in their ratings. The summary and qualitative analysis were submitted along with the original survey questions to each panel member as round two of the internal expert Delphi process was completed by the end of January, 2007. Respondents were asked to evaluate the questions in light of the summary of other panel members' responses and re-rate the items with commentary explaining any of their choices that appeared to be at variance with other panelists' rankings in previous rounds. The analysis and summary process was applied to the second round as the researcher analyzed results for the appearance of consensus, with results presented to the panel for further response. By early March of 2007 the internal panelists all agreed that no further changes in their responses were forthcoming and that final levels of consensus had been reached.

Each questionnaire was submitted in both written and electronic form, giving the respondents the option of responding by either means on each occasion. Surveys were preceded by a letter from the researcher explaining the purpose and scope of the survey. Final responses were used to answer the research questions after tabulation and analysis.

Summary

This study was designed to determine the components a selected group of experts in law enforcement training expect to become part of basic law enforcement academy training as it regards attention to skills associated with community policing. A Delphi methodology, which provides a survey administered in successive rounds to determine the level of agreement on predictions made by a panel, was used. An initial panel of experts, chosen because of their expertise in community policing was used to establish the core questions on the survey. Once the core questions were established, the survey was administered to an internal panel of experts comprised of trainers and supervisors employed by law enforcement agencies. Panelists from agencies in Colorado and Missouri were chosen for the similarity of their law enforcement training regulations from their respective states' Peace Officers Standards and Training boards.

This analysis was designed to determine what experts predict regarding training for community policing at the basic law enforcement academy training level. The study is significant in determining if experts believe that basic police training currently practices community policing training, if basic law enforcement academy training will change to better reflect community policing principles, and if experts agree on what those desirable training concepts are.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

Using a Delphi approach, this study identified the perceptions of experts in community policing and police training regarding the current practices, desirable practices, and expected future practices in basic police training as it regards community policing. The findings of the study are described in this chapter. The characteristics of the Delphi panel members are discussed in this section as well as the findings in each round of the Delphi process. The chapter concludes with a summary of the research findings.

The study used a Delphi survey questionnaire developed using information gained from responses to open-ended questions presented to an external panel of experts. These experts were selected from among notable professionals in the field of community policing and from selected participants at a national meeting on the topic. General discussion questions were presented to panelists to evoke areas of inquiry. From these questions the external experts generated statements and areas of inquiry which resulted in 110 interrogatory statements on the first round draft of the survey. For each statement the researcher provided a range of responses from which the respondents chose their level of agreement with the statement. The range of options were *strongly agree*, *agree*, *unsure*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree*. Each statement was phrased as a current condition, then as a desirable condition, and finally as a condition likely to exist in the foreseeable future.

The external panelists were asked to view the first draft that was displayed on an internet web site. Several panelists commented on the length of the survey expressing concerns about respondent fatigue and persistence. Based on the suggestions of the

external panel the researcher reformatted the survey keeping the areas of inquiry the same as the original survey areas of inquiry. The revised survey presented each condition statement as though it currently were true and existed in basic law enforcement academy training. Beneath each condition statement a response grid was provided for respondents to mark their level of agreement with the condition's current, desirable, or future existence. This reduced the condition statements to 46. The survey in its revised format was presented to the external panel of experts and was accepted by the external panel as a final instrument. (see Appendix B, Survey Instrument Round One Internal)

A second panel of experts was surveyed using the 46 item questionnaire. This second panel was an internal panel selected from responses to a mass mailing to law enforcement and training agencies in Colorado and in Missouri. Most of the mailings were addressed to the police department with attention to the training division. Small, medium, and large departments serving both urban and rural populations were included. Some mailings were to individuals within the department whose names appeared on Colorado or Missouri state government web sites as having policy roles in training or community policing. Other mailings were addressed to directors of police academies.

Respondents signed consent forms and completed the 46 item survey which was provided to them via email and regular mail. Internal panel members were encouraged to make comments and suggestions along with their rankings. The first round survey with results was submitted to the internal panel in a second round of Delphi inquiry. Respondents were requested to rank, comment on, and make suggestions as they responded to the survey. No change from first round results in convergence in the agreement categories for any condition statement or status emerged from the second round

of the survey. The researcher summarized the responses and submitted them for review by the internal panel via email, regular mail, and internet website in a third round of inquiry. In the final round the researcher condensed the categories from five to two, adding together percentages of *strongly agree* and *agree*, and adding the *strongly disagree* and *disagree* answers together. These consolidations were then used to report *total agree* and *total disagree* for each condition statement, and for each status. Consensus was defined by the researcher as a 66% plurality of responses in either category of *total agree* or *total disagree*. Responses of *unsure* were not added to either the *total agree* or *total disagree* percentages which sometimes resulted in totals of the responses of *total agree* and *total disagree* being less than 100%.

Experts who had served on the external panel of experts were invited in April, 2007 to view the final results of the survey via email with a link to the internet website and asked for any observations they might have on the outcome. Only one external panelist responded indicating interest in further analysis of the results by the researcher. The results obtained as a result of the Delphi survey process are presented in this chapter.

Panelist Selection and Response

In order to overcome one of the potential problems of the Delphi process as identified by Delphi critic Sackman (1975) regarding bias in the survey questions, the researcher used a two phase process to select topics of inquiry for the study. In July of 2006 the researcher attended a national conference in Washington, D.C. sponsored by the Community Policing Consortium and the U.S. Department of Justice Office of Community Oriented Policing Services. The conference, Community Policing: Leading the Way to a Safer Nation offered a number of sessions with notable speakers on subjects related to

community policing training and implementation. A participant list provided names, titles, and contact information of attendees and speakers to all participants in the meeting. From this list, and from personal interaction with conference leaders, the researcher gleaned candidates to participate in the development of a Delphi survey questionnaire. Candidates included administrators of national policy making groups, university professors with research and teaching responsibilities in law enforcement, chief executives and administrative staff of law enforcement organizations, regional community policing training center administrators, and law enforcement personnel assigned to community policing initiatives.

In early August of 2006, the researcher sent emails to approximately 85 persons from the conference participant list who had job titles indicating direct responsibilities in community policing. Job titles which indicated that the conference attendees were directors of regional community policing institutes, criminal justice educators, supervisors in designated community policing units of police agencies, or personnel assigned to community policing tasks, or who were conference presenters were selected. The email explained the purpose and means of the proposed study and asked if these individuals would participate or nominate an interested, qualified person to participate. Of that number, 11 persons responded and subsequently signed a consent form agreeing to participate.

In October, 2006, the first inquiry from the researcher to the external expert panel was a set of discussion questions designed by the researcher to evoke discussion on what specific questions or statements might be used to survey police training experts about the existence of community policing training within basic law enforcement academy training.

These questions were:

- 1) How important is community policing to the curriculum in the basic law enforcement academy setting?
- 2) Should community policing be addressed at this level of training?
- 3) What pedagogical methods should be used in accomplishing any training or learning objectives related to community policing?
- 4) Should community policing be integrated into all subjects or treated as a separate subject or series of subjects?
- 5) What are the current strengths or weaknesses in conceptualizing community policing, its training and application, and its presence in current curricula in basic training academies?
- 6) What questions, areas of concern, or consensus would you like to see explored in this study?
- 7) What persons or job classifications in education, training, and administration should be most responsible for community policing training?
- 8) In your view do you see any areas absent thus far from this researcher's conceptualizations that should be considered when examining the influence of community policing on the training curriculum and methods.

Panelists responded during October, 2006 to the initial question set. In addition to the narrative responses provided by panelists, two respondents also sent written material that they had published which addressed community policing. The researcher took the responses and collated each area of inquiry suggested by the respondents into discrete statements, resulting in 110 condition statements. Those statements were submitted to the

participants by email and posted on a website for their review in mid-October, 2006. Based on comments from the external panel expressing concerns about the length of the survey, the instrument was reshaped to survey the areas of interest by means of 46 condition statements utilizing an answer grid that allowed a ranking of agreement categories relative to three condition statuses: *currently true*, *desirable*, and *likely* in the foreseeable future.

After presenting the revised 46 question survey with the response grid to external panelists via email in early November, 2006, all of the respondents viewed the shortened survey format and agreed that the survey was suitable for use with the internal panel of experts. Institutional approval was obtained from the University of Missouri to use the survey instrument developed by the external panel of experts, and the researcher selected participants for the next round of inquiry which used an internal panel of experts.

In order to seek candidates for participation on the internal panel, the researcher used the internet to discover physical addresses of police agencies and police academies in both Missouri and Colorado. In addition, the researcher obtained a postal address list of all law enforcement agencies in the state of Missouri provided by the Missouri Department of Public Safety, Peace Officer Standards and Training division. Nearly 200 addresses were selected to represent police department trainers and academy staff from the two states. The researcher selected law enforcement agencies from counties and municipalities both urban and rural areas, eliminating those known to be very small departments (fewer than five officers). Some agency web sites identified community policing or training officers for their agencies, and surveys were addressed to those individuals. Other web sites listed names of police officials or officers who served on training committees or as police academy instructors. When individuals were identified, they were addressed specifically;

otherwise the mass mailing was addressed to the agency with attention to the training officer.

The first survey packet contained consent forms and was sent in late November, 2006, via postal mail, and contained a stamped envelope addressed to the researcher. Seventeen volunteers responded by signing the consent form and returning the first survey results by late December, 2006. The volunteers included one sheriff (who was a state regulatory board member as well), one chief of a major university police department, one division commander of a metropolitan sheriff's department, three police department supervisors with specific assignments which included supervision of community policing efforts, five police academy directors, three supervisors with academy instruction assignments in addition to other duties, and three supervisors with training assignments other than academy training.

The survey instrument for internal experts consisted of 46 statements designed and approved by the external Delphi panel and the researcher. Respondents were asked to rank their level of agreement with all three statuses related to each condition statement in three ways: does the statement represent a current condition in basic police academy training; does the statement represent a desirable condition; and does the statement represent a condition that will likely become true in the foreseeable future in the basic police training academy?

The response grid for each condition statement showed a numbered column with three rows followed by five agreement categories arranged in five columns with the headings: *strongly agree*, *agree*, *unsure*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree* as shown in Figure 1. The first column had three row headings indicating the condition statement status:

currently true, desirable, likely. Respondents were asked to mark their level of agreement with each statement regarding its current, desirable, and likely existence. Responses could be totaled from each category then divided by the number of respondents to establish the percentage of convergence within each status and agreement category.

Figure 1. Sample survey item.

1. Basic police training at the academy level includes indoctrination and attitude development favorable to community policing.					
Q1	Strongly Agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

The results of round one were compiled and examined by the researcher during January, 2007. On January 5, 2007 participants were emailed a message of appreciation for their participation and urged to continue with the study. Relatively few comments were made by respondents; therefore no rewording or editing of the survey instrument occurred for the subsequent round. Willis (2003) notes that researchers recognize the possibility that no consensus will result by the end of the Delphi process. Conversely, the possibility does exist that consensus will be achieved early in the process.

The survey results were posted by email on January 14, 2007 for the internal panelists to review in order to continue the survey with round two of the Delphi process.

The survey instrument for round two was modified to present a simplified response grid showing only total *agree* percentages and total *disagree* categories and the percentages calculated from the first survey round. For each condition statement in round two the response grid retained the three status rows of *currently true*, *desirable*, and *likely*. For participants in the internal panel the results were presented in a chart in which the percentages of *strongly agree* and *agree* were added together and reflected in an *agree* column as shown in Figure 2. The category of *unsure* was eliminated in the second round. The percentages of *strongly disagree* and *disagree* were added together and reflected in the *disagree* column as shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Summary version of survey instrument.

1. Basic police training at the academy level includes indoctrination and attitude development favorable to community policing.		
Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	65%	29%
Desirable	94%	0
Likely	59%	0

On February 4, 2007 results of the second round of the Delphi inquiry were posted online and emailed to the internal panel of experts along with a message asking for review of their answers in light of other panelists' responses as they continued to the third Delphi round. In the invitation to participate in round three, sent with the round two results, panelists were advised that the total percentage of the *agree* columns added to the percentage in the corresponding *disagree* columns might not add up to 100% due to the unpublished *unsure* response percentage. As they continued with the survey, panelists were invited and encouraged to make comments where their responses were different from

the majority. Eleven of the panelists persisted in rounds two and three of the study.

Due to the length of the survey, round three was emailed February 4, 2007 to each panelist in a total of four email messages. The first email was the letter of thanks, encouragement, and invitation to participate in the next round of the survey. Panelists were subsequently sent three emails, each of which contained approximately one third each of the survey totals from round two.

A low response rate initially emerged from the 17 original panelists to the emailed round three. Two panelists responded to the emailed survey by return email. In order to give panelists another opportunity to participate, postal mailings of the survey with results, along with a letter of invitation and instruction, and a stamped, self-addressed envelope, were mailed to the fifteen remaining non-responding panelists. An additional six panelists responded to the mailing. Although very few comments were shared on the returned statements and results of round two, each of the responding panelists indicated that he or she would not change any initial responses and none of the panelists' responses suggested the likelihood of any greater consensus if subsequent rounds were conducted.

In early March, 2007 the researcher issued a final email to those who had not yet responded to encourage the remaining non-responding panel members to participate in round three. The email message asked the remaining panelists to simply respond if they agreed with the posted results or not. An additional four panelists emailed a response agreeing that the posted results reflected their final opinions. With no further expectation of revisions or changes of panelists' responses, the researcher accepted round two results as fully reflecting the internal panelists' consensus on the survey statements.

Table 1. Total Responses of External and Internal Panels For Each Round of the Delphi Study.

	Round One External	Round Two External	Round Three External	Round One Internal	Round Two Internal	Round Three Internal
Inquires Sent	85	11	5	200	17	11
Acceptance	11	5	5	17	11	11
Percent Persisting	13%	45%	100%	9%	65%	100%

Findings

Statements derived from a panel of external experts were used to establish a survey of law enforcement training experts regarding practices within basic police training academies that relate to the implementation of community policing. Respondents were asked to comment on the current practices, desirable practices, and likely future practices of community policing training within basic police training, and select a level of agreement with the listed condition statements.

The first status listed after each condition statement was labeled *currently true*, the second status was *desirable*, and the third status for each condition statement was *likely*. Each status row afforded respondents the choice of marking one of the categories of *strongly agree*, *agree*, *unsure*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree*. The *unsure* category was provided so that respondents would not feel forced to agree or disagree, or to skip a

statement about which they are uninformed or ambivalent. Categories of *strongly agree* and *agree*, and *disagree* and *strongly disagree*, were provided a type of continuum to allow for some range of sentiment and ambiguity within a category. The percentages in categories of *strongly agree* and *agree* were summed to determine consensus at a convergence of 66%, reflected in the category *total agree* in the tables presented below. Likewise, the percentages in categories of *disagree* and *strongly disagree* were summed to determine consensus at a convergence of 66%, reflected in the category *total disagree* in the tables presented below.

Round One Internal Expert Panel

Although no deliberate effort was made to develop questions within any specified groupings, the researcher found that most condition statements could fit within four general groups. Results will be analyzed by looking at responses to condition statements within subject groupings of: 1) *attitude and philosophy*, which includes how community policing is portrayed and indoctrinated throughout the academy experiences; 2) *integration with other course materials / activities*, which deals with whether community policing is found embedded throughout the curriculum and policy; 3) *teaching / learning experiences*, which has to do with the construction of curriculum; 4) *administrative and department support*, which refers to leadership policies and practices consistent with community policing advocacy.

Attitudes and Philosophy

Statement conditions which address indoctrination of attitudes and philosophies considered favorable to community policing within basic police training academies were:

1. Basic police training at the academy level includes indoctrination and attitude

development favorable to community policing.

6. Aptitudes consistent with community policing are part of the standards for selection and testing of basic law enforcement academy applicants and trainees.
8. Basic police training at the academy level makes community policing the forefront and focus of police work.
10. Community policing as an agency-wide form of police practice for all members of a police agency - civilian and sworn - is a part of community policing indoctrination and training in the basic law enforcement academy.
24. Community policing is currently reflected in the policy and practice of basic police training academies.
37. Character is as highly valued as are skills in the basic police training academy.
39. Minorities and woman are well represented among academy trainees and instructional staff.

Responses in round one of the internal panel survey are shown below. All five levels of agreement, represented in the grid by five columns labeled *strongly agree*, *agree*, *unsure*, *disagree*, *strongly disagree*, respectively, are shown in the first table of each condition statement that respondents rated in three status rows according to current conditions, desirable conditions, and the likelihood that the condition statement will be true in the foreseeable future. Two additional columns in the tables displayed show the *total agree* and *total disagree* categories.

Table 2. Attitudes favorable to community policing.

1. Basic police training at the academy level includes indoctrination and attitude development favorable to community policing.							
Q1	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total Disagree
Currently True	24%	42%	65%	6%	30%	0%	29%
Desirable	71%	24%	94%	6%	0%	0%	0
Likely	18%	41%	59%	41%	0%	0%	0

Condition statement 1 presents a foundational premise that basic law enforcement academy training includes indoctrination in and favorable attitudes toward community policing. Respondents failed to converge to the consensus level that this condition is currently true, and also had no consensus that such indoctrination is likely in the foreseeable future. An overwhelming majority (94%) of experts agreed at the consensus level that favorable attitudes toward and indoctrination in community policing is desirable. In summary, community policing indoctrination is highly desirable, but experts do not clearly agree that it is happening or that it is going to happen

Table 3. Community policing aptitudes as recruitment standards.

6. Aptitudes consistent with community policing are part of the standards for selection and testing of basic police academy applicants and trainees.							
Q6	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total Disagree
Currently True	6%	18%	24%	18%	41%	18%	59%
Desirable	41%	41%	82%	6%	11%	0%	12%
Likely	0%	53%	53%	29%	18%	0%	18%

Responses to condition statement 6 show that panelists did not reach consensus on whether basic police training applicants are chosen to be trainees at least partially based on aptitudes consistent with community policing skills. Although no consensus was evident regarding whether such aptitude selection was currently true, more than one half of respondents disagreed that the condition statement is currently true. More than half of the respondents (53%) converged in his or her opinion that selection of basic police training candidates based partially on aptitudes consistent with community policing would likely be true in the future, but no consensus was achieved. A high level of consensus (82%) was evident that selection of basic police training candidates based in part on aptitudes consistent with community policing is desirable. In summary, expert panelists agree with a high level of consensus that selection of recruits should be based at least partly on characteristics which are consistent with community policing, but no consensus exists that this is currently the practice or that it will be in the foreseeable future.

Table 4. Community policing focus.

8. Basic police training at the academy level makes community policing the forefront and focus of police work.							
Q8	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total Disagree
Currently True	6%	18%	24%	0%	65%	11%	76%
Desirable	35%	41%	76%	11%	11%	0%	12%
Likely	11%	41%	53%	18%	24%	6%	29%

Condition statement 8 reflects the primacy of community policing within a framework of basic law enforcement academy training. Panelists reached clear consensus (76%) in their perception that this condition is not currently true in police academies, but by the same level of consensus agree that making community policing the focus of police work is desirable. Although slightly more than half of respondents (53%) agree that it is likely that community policing will have primacy in basic law enforcement academy training in the foreseeable future, the convergence is too weak to be regarded as consensus.

Table 5. Agency wide indoctrination.

10. Community policing as an agency-wide form of police practice for all members of a police agency - civilian and sworn - is a part of community policing indoctrination and training in the basic police academy							
Q10	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total Disagree
Currently True	0%	29%	29%	11%	47%	11%	59%
Desirable	47%	29%	76%	11%	11%	0%	12%
Likely	11%	35%	47%	41%	11%	0%	12%

Condition statement 10 reflects the depth of change that community policing may achieve, and states that indoctrination of trainees in basic police training in community policing includes the premise that all members of an agency, in addition to the police officers themselves, are integral to community policing efforts.

Panelists disagree with this condition statement as *currently true* (59%) but not at a consensus level. Panelists also failed to arrive at a consensus regarding the likelihood of basic law enforcement academies indoctrinating trainees in community policing practices which include the whole organization, even though experts agreed with a high degree of consensus (76%) that this condition is desirable.

Table 6. Policy and practice.

24. Community policing is currently reflected in the policy and practice of basic police training academies							
Q24	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total Disagree
Currently True	18%	18%	35%	18%	35%	11%	47%
Desirable	41%	47%	88%	6%	6%	0%	6%
Likely	24%	35%	59%	24%	18%	0%	18%

Condition statement 24 explores respondents' opinions on whether police academies model community policing ideals in their own operations. No consensus was reached on whether the condition in condition statement 24 was currently true or likely to be true in the foreseeable future, but strong consensus (88%) was achieved that community policing reflected in the policy and practices of basic training academies is desirable.

Table 7. Character and skills.

37. Character is as highly valued as are skills in the basic police training academy.							
Q37	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total Disagree
Currently True	53%	11%	65%	11%	18%	6%	24%
Desirable	88%	12%	100%	0%	0%	0%	0
Likely	65%	24%	88%	6%	6%	0%	6%

Condition statement 37 addresses character issues of trainees in basic law enforcement academies and the relative importance of character in addition to skill mastery. Responses to this condition statement were among the strongest in the survey. Although a majority of panelists (65%) agreed that character is currently as highly valued as skills in basic police training academies, the convergence did not reach the level establishing consensus for this study. As one of only three condition statements on the survey for which total convergence occurred, the combination of *strongly agree* and *agree* totaled 100% consensus that valuing character and skills equally is desirable. A significant but lesser level of consensus (88%), compared to convergence levels of *desirability*, shows that experts regard the condition statement as likely to be true in the foreseeable future.

Table 8. Minority representation

39. Minorities and women are well represented among academy trainees and instructional staff.							
Q39	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	6%	41%	47%	6%	41%	6%	47%
Desirable	56%	25%	81%	19%	0	0	0
Likely	13%	44%	57%	31%	13%	0	13%

A high level of consensus at 81% concurs that condition 39 “Minorities and women are well represented among academy trainees and instructional staff” is desirable. An equal percentage of respondents converged at 47% concurrence that the condition is currently true and that the condition is not currently true, with only 6% unsure. No consensus emerged on whether the condition is likely in the foreseeable future.

All of the statement conditions which are identified in the *attitudes and philosophy* grouping were considered desirable by the respondents in the survey. The average percentage in the *agree* category on the six items in this grouping as *desirable* is 86%. The cumulative level of convergence for the condition statements in the grouping of *attitude and philosophy* is 86% in the *total agreement* category. The highest level of convergence is with condition statement 37 regarding the importance of character traits of police recruits at 100% level of consensus. No level of consensus in this group was below 76%. Levels of uncertainty about the desirability of the condition statements in this grouping were negligible as indicated by a low percentage of the choices of *unsure*, which average 7%.

All survey statements in this grouping of items 1, 6, 8, 10, 24, 37 and 39, reflect desired conditions associated with the integration of community policing training in basic law enforcement academy training according to opinions of expert panelists. Low convergence emerged among panelists opinions as to the *currently true* status of condition statements in this grouping. Condition statement 8, “Basic police training at the academy level makes community policing the forefront and focus of police work” generated a 76% level of consensus in the *total disagree* category. This level of convergence appears to reflect a belief among experts that community policing has not achieved prominence in basic law enforcement academy training.

Condition statement 37, “Character is as highly valued as are skills in the basic police training academy” was ranked as likely to be true in the foreseeable future (88%). Statement 37 was ranked *desirable* by 100% of respondents and as *currently true* by 64% of respondents. No other statements in the survey have an equal or higher ranking in *likelihood*. This condition statement is also one of only two statements achieving

consensus in the *total agree* category in all three condition statuses of *currently true*, *desirable*, and *likely*.

Integration with Other Course Materials and Activities

Condition statements which reflect issues relating to integrating community policing with other curricula and activities within basic police training were:

2. Basic police training at the academy level includes community policing training that is seamlessly integrated into field training.
21. Community policing is embedded in every aspect of the basic police academy training.
28. Daily reinforcement of community policing themes, philosophy, and practice is a part of community policing training in basic police training.
30. Community policing currently is taught primarily as a stand alone block of instruction.
36. Community policing is expanded and integrated into new curriculum as new subjects and blocks of instruction are added to the academy curriculum.

Results of internal expert panel for the category of integration of community policing with other course materials are shown below.

Table 9. Integration with field training.

2. Basic police training at the academy level includes community policing training that is seamlessly integrated into field training							
Q2	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	11%	35%	47%	6%	47%	0	47%
Desirable	71%	24%	94%	6%	0	0	0
Likely	18%	41%	59%	41%	0	0	0

Condition statement 2 pertains to perceptions of panelists regarding whether community policing training as conducted in basic police training is meaningfully linked to the trainee's subsequent training phase, typically known as field training. An equal level of convergence is evident between panelists who agree that this condition is currently true (47%), and those panelists who disagree that the condition is currently true (47%).

No consensus was achieved regarding the likelihood of this condition in the foreseeable future, although a very high level of convergence (94%) reflects consensus that the condition is highly desirable.

Table 10. Embedding of community policing.

21. Community policing is embedded in every aspect of the basic police academy training							
Q21	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	0	6%	6%	0	65%	29%	94%
Desirable	29%	41%	71%	6%	24%	0	24%
Likely	6%	18%	24%	41%	35%	0	35%

Condition statement 21 tests the premise that community policing is pervasive as a theme in the basic law enforcement academy curriculum and practice. Experts converge decidedly that this condition is not reflected in current practice, with a consensus level of 94% disagreeing with the statement "community policing is embedded in every aspect of the basic police academy training" as it pertains to *currently true*. No consensus was achieved on the likelihood of this condition being true in the foreseeable future. The highest ranking category of future likelihood is seen in the *unsure* category (41%), with no consensus about the likely future practice regarding this condition. A strong level of consensus (71%) was apparent in the desirability of community policing being embedded in every aspect of basic law enforcement academy training.

Table 11. Daily reinforcement of themes.

28. Daily reinforcement of community policing themes, philosophy, and practice is a part of community policing training in basic police training							
Q28	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	18%	6%	24%	6%	53%	18%	71%
Desirable	35%	29%	65%	18%	18%	0	18%
Likely	11%	29%	41%	35%	24%	0	24%

Condition statement 28 addresses the consistency of community policing themes being reinforced on a daily basis in basic police training. Although experts agreed with a strong level of consensus (71%) that this condition is not current practice, no other consensus of expert opinion emerged regarding the desirability or likelihood of the condition. A majority of respondents (65%) ranked the condition as desirable but not to the level defined as consensus for this study.

Table 12. Block instruction.

30. Community policing currently is taught primarily as a stand alone block of instruction							
Q30	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	18%	41%	59%	6%	29%	6%	35%
Desirable	0	18%	18%	18%	41%	24%	65%
Likely	6%	29%	35%	35%	29%	0	29%

In contrast to conditions describing community policing as embedded throughout the curriculum and practice of basic training, with daily reinforcement, and integrated into subsequent training, condition statement 30 states that community policing is taught as a block of instruction unto itself. A majority of experts (59%) agreed that community policing currently is taught as a stand alone block of instruction, but did not agree at the level defined as consensus for this study. No consensus, and no majority in convergence in any of the categories, emerged regarding the likelihood of the condition in the foreseeable future. A majority of experts (65%) disagreed that presenting community policing as a stand alone block of instruction is desirable, but that convergence fell short of the consensus level for this study.

Table 13. Integration with new curriculum additions.

36. Community policing is expanded and integrated into new curriculum as new subjects and blocks of instruction are added to the academy curriculum.							
Q36	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	12%	6%	18%	18%	53%	12%	65%
Desirable	29%	47%	76%	18%	6%	0	6%
Likely	12%	29%	41%	35	24%	0	24%

Respondents converged at a strong consensus level of 76% that condition 36 “Community policing is expanded and integrated into new curriculum as new subjects and blocks of instruction are added to the academy curriculum” is desirable. Concurrence at a 65% level, just short of consensus for this study, emerged in the *total disagree* category to the *currently true* status. No other significant convergence occurred.

Patterns of convergence for *integration with other course material and activities* indicated high desirability for condition statements associated with principles advocated by community policing proponents, represented in this grouping by items 21, 28, 35, and 2 (item 30 is the antithetical version of item 21 and therefore excluded from the groupings' averages). The total convergence of the *desirability* status in the *total agree* category were significantly different in the grouping of condition statements which refer to integration of community policing with other basic law enforcement academy training curriculum and activity, than convergence patterns noted in the grouping of condition statements which refer to attitude and philosophy of community policing in the basic law enforcement academy training context.

Three of the condition statements, 2, 21, and 35, have strong consensus as to desirability, but no condition statements in this grouping achieved consensus as likely to be true in the foreseeable future. Both embedding of community policing training in basic police training (item 21) and daily reinforcement of community policing (item 28) converged strongly at a consensus of *total disagree* 94% and 71%, respectively in the *currently true* status.

Teaching and Learning Experiences

The largest grouping of condition statements which were derived from Delphi rounds of input from external panel of experts concerned teaching and learning experiences. Those condition statements are:

3. Basic police training at the academy level engages trainees in leadership training that develops collaboration and team skills for problem solving in a community setting.

4. Basic police training at the academy level provides opportunities for trainees to interact meaningfully with communities as part of their community policing training and indoctrination.
11. “Real world projects” (such as finding a crime or disorder issue in the community and working with others to solve it) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
12. Guided scenario exercises are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
13. Online, computer based training is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
14. Observational ride-alongs are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
15. Community service projects (such as volunteering in a homeless shelter) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
16. Social exchange experiences (spending the night in jail, applying for welfare) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
17. Public speaking, writing for publication, media relations, and other non-traditional communication skills training are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
18. Case studies are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

19. Role playing is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
20. Traditional lecture based classroom indoctrination is the primary method of teaching community policing in basic police academy training.
22. PBL (Problem Based Learning) is currently used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
23. Reflective journaling is currently used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
25. Release time from training or during the course of the basic police academy is provided for trainees to enable them to engage in community service.
26. Discussion of current events is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
27. Required reading in subjects that are not strictly law enforcement related is a part of the community policing instruction in basic police academy training.
29. Scenario training in high risk, low occurrence events associated with “officer survival training” in the military assault model is being reduced to accommodate or integrate community policing training more fully in basic police academy training.
31. Where available, college faculty or other qualified civilians are utilized to instruct in basic police academies.
32. Group and team activities requiring cooperation, collaboration, and consensus building are part of the curriculum for community policing training in the basic police academy.

33. Community policing is presented in a theoretical context which lacks practical application. There should be more hands-on training relating to community policing in basic police academy training.

Results in the teaching and learning experiences grouping are shown below.

Table 14. Leadership and collaboration skills.

3. Basic police training at the academy level engages trainees in leadership training that develops collaboration and team skills for problem solving in a community setting							
Q3	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	6%	35%	41%	18%	35%	6%	41%
Desirable	71%	18%	88%	12%	0	0	0
Likely	0	35%	47%	41%	0	0	12%

Condition statement 3 addresses the problem solving skills of collaboration and leadership. Respondents shared no consensus as to the current practice of this condition, and no consensus regarding the likelihood of the condition existing in the foreseeable future. A strong convergence appeared regarding leadership and collaboration skills with consensus (88%) that this condition is desirable. No other categories showed convergence at even moderate levels.

Table 15. Meaningful community interaction.

4. Basic police training at the academy level provides opportunities for trainees to interact meaningfully with communities as part of their community policing training and indoctrination							
Q4	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	12%	18%	29%	6%	53%	12%	65%
Desirable	47%	47%	94%	6%	0	0	0
Likely	12%	29%	41%	24%	35%	0	35%

Condition statement 4 deals with development of practical knowledge of the community component of community policing by offering opportunities to interact with communities in some meaningful way as part of the basic police academy. Respondents converged with a significant majority (65%) in the *total disagree* category, short of consensus for this study. Consensus was not reached on the likelihood of meaningful community interaction as a part of community policing training in basic police training, but a significant consensus (94%) was reached that this condition is desirable.

Table 16. Real world projects.

11. “Real world projects” (such as finding a crime or disorder issue in the community and working with others to solve it) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.							
Q11	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	12%	12%	24%	24%	35%	18%	53%
Desirable	47%	41%	88%	6%	6%	0	6%
Likely	24%	18%	41%	47%	12%	0	12%

Condition statement 11 refers to activities within basic police training which use real world projects as learning opportunities for community policing concepts and skills. A variety of rankings were assigned by experts on the internal panel regarding whether this condition is currently true, with no consensus appearing. The likelihood that real world problem solving will be used in community policing training in basic police training in the foreseeable future also found no consensus, with the largest convergence in the *unsure* category at a low 47%. A significant consensus (88%) was obtained regarding desirability.

Table 17. Guided scenario exercises.

12. Guided scenario exercises are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.							
Q12	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	12%	35%	47%	12%	24%	18%	42%
Desirable	53%	47%	100%	0	0	0	0
Likely	18%	41%	59%	35%	6%	0	6%

Condition statement 12 regards the teaching mechanism of using guided scenarios for training in community policing. Respondents were almost evenly split in ranking whether this condition is currently true, with no ranking developing a consensus, or even a majority of respondents converging in a category. There was no consensus as to the likelihood of this condition existing in the foreseeable future, but a complete consensus occurred at 100% that the use of guided scenarios in basic police training to teach community policing is desirable.

Table 18. Observational ride-alongs.

14. Observational ride-alongs are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.							
Q14	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	18%	29%	47%	0	41%	12%	53%
Desirable	47%	47%	94%	0	6%	0	6%
Likely	12%	41%	53%	24%	24%	0	24%

Condition statement 14 regards having basic training participants ride with police officers on patrol during their training as part of community policing training. More respondents disagreed that this was currently true than true, but no consensus was reached about perceptions of current practice. Rankings of the likelihood of ride-alongs being used in basic training to further community policing training showed no consensus level, but an overwhelming consensus (94%) of experts believed the condition desirable.

Table 19. Public speaking and non-traditional communication skills.

17. Public speaking, writing for publication, media relations, and other non-traditional communication skills training are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training							
Q17	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	0	29%	29%	0	47%	24%	71%
Desirable	47%	24%	71%	0	29%	0	29%
Likely	6%	35%	41%	12%	47%	0	47%

Condition statement 17 deals with training in interpersonal communication skills associated with community policing training within basic police academy training.

Respondents concur strongly (71%) that this condition is currently not true, and concur at the same level (71%) that the communication skills identified in the condition statement are desirable. Low convergence emerged, and no consensus about the likelihood of this condition being true in the foreseeable future surfaced.

Table 20. Case studies.

18. Case studies are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.							
Q18	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	12%	53%	65%	0	29%	6%	35%
Desirable	41%	35%	76%	6%	18%	0	18%
Likely	35%	35%	71%	6%	24%	0	24%

Condition statement 18 refers to the use of case studies as a means of instruction in community policing. Although more than a majority of respondents (65%) agree that this condition is currently true, the convergence does not achieve consensus. Panelists did reach consensus on both the desirability (76%) and the future likelihood (71%) of the use of case studies.

Table 21. Role playing.

19. Role playing is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.							
Q19	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	24%	24%	47%	6%	41%	6%	47%
Desirable	47%	35%	82%	6%	12%	0	13%
Likely	29%	29%	59%	18%	24%	0	24%

Condition statement 19 deals with the use of role playing as an instructional technique for teaching community policing in basic police training academies. Panelists ranked this condition as desirable by a strong consensus (82%), but no consensus emerged on the likelihood of role playing being used in the foreseeable future for community policing training within basic police training academies. Panelists did not arrive at consensus on whether role playing was currently used in basic police academies for community policing training.

Table 22. Problem based learning.

22. PBL (Problem Based Learning) is currently used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.							
Q22	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	12%	35%	47%	6%	29%	18%	47%
Desirable	47%	35%	82%	12%	6%	0	6%
Likely	24%	35%	59%	29%	12%	0	12%

Condition statement 22 regards the use of the specific scenario training technique of Problem Based Learning. Panelists ranked this condition as desirable by a strong consensus (82%), but no consensus was reached on the likelihood of PBL being used in the foreseeable future for community policing training within basic police training academies. Panelists did not arrive at consensus on whether PBL was currently used in basic police academies for community policing training.

Table 23. Current events discussions.

26. Discussion of current events is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.							
Q26	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	24%	29%	53%	12%	18%	18%	35%
Desirable	35%	53%	88%	6%	6%	0	6%
Likely	24%	41%	65%	18%	18%	0	18%

Condition statement 26 regards the use of current events discussion as a means of teaching community policing in basic police training. No consensus was reached regarding whether current events discussion is currently in use in police academies for community policing training, but a strong convergence (88%) showed a consensus among respondents that the condition is desirable. A majority of panelists concurred at 65% agreed that discussion of current events is likely to be used in basic police academy training in the foreseeable future, but the convergence level falls short of consensus for the purpose of this study.

Table 24. College faculty and civilian instructors.

31. Where available, college faculty or other qualified civilians are utilized to instruct in basic police academies.							
Q31	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	24%	53%	76%	6%	12%	6%	18%
Desirable	41%	41%	82%	0	18%	0	18%
Likely	29%	53%	82%	12%	6%	0	6%

Condition statement 31 achieved consensus in each status in the *agree* category.

Panelists converged decidedly (76%) at the consensus level that qualified civilians and college faculty are currently being utilized in basic police training academies to instruct in the area of community policing, that this condition is desirable (82%), and that the condition will likely continue to be true in the foreseeable future (82%).

Table 25. Group activities and consensus building.

32. Group and team activities requiring cooperation, collaboration, and consensus building are part of the curriculum for community policing training in the basic police academy.							
Q32	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	12%	29%	41%	12%	29%	18%	47%
Desirable	41%	47%	88%	6%	6%	0	6%
Likely	24%	41%	65%	24%	12%	0	12%

Condition statement 32 states that group and team exercises are used for teaching community policing in the context of basic law enforcement academy training. While not reaching consensus, a majority of the panelists (65%) predicted that group and team activity will be used in basic police training for teaching community policing in the future. A strong consensus (88%) was achieved that this condition is desirable.

Table 26. Theoretical context versus hands on.

33. Community policing is presented in a theoretical context which lacks practical application. There should be more hands-on training relating to community policing in basic police academy training.							
Q33	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	18%	47%	65%	18%	18%	0	18%
Desirable	35%	41%	76%	12%	12%	0	12%
Likely	6%	35%	41%	35%	24%	0	24%

Condition statement 33 “Community policing is presented in a theoretical context which lacks practical application. There should be more hands-on training relating to community policing in basic police academy training” yielded a favorable convergence of 76% establishing consensus that the condition is desirable. While a significant majority (65%) concurred that the condition was currently true, no consensus was established, and no significant convergence occurred in the *likely* status for this condition.

Percentages of convergence were high for this sub group of the learning and teaching methods grouping. The average of all thirteen desirable conditions which respondents ranked as *strongly agree* is 47%. The average of all thirteen desirable conditions which panel members ranked as *agree* is 39% for a cumulative average consensus level in this subgroup of 86%, reflecting high levels of desirability for the

conditions in this subgroup of items from the *teaching and learning experiences* grouping.

Despite the high levels of concurrence on the desirability of each of the twelve items in the subgroup, only one of the statement conditions was perceived by a consensus of internal panel members to be currently true. Panelists ranked item 31, the current use of college faculty as police academy presenters, at 77% in the *total agree* category, establishing consensus. No other statement conditions in this subgroup reached panel consensus both as desirable and as currently true.

Analyzing the condition statements that are perceived by panelists as likely to be true in the foreseeable future yields a finding of consensus on two of the condition statements in this subgroup. Condition statement 31, regarding the use of college faculty to teach in basic police training academies and condition statement 18, the use of case studies as a teaching method in police training academies, were both ranked as *likely* based on convergence at consensus levels of 82% and 70%, respectively. The use of college faculty is the only condition statement from this group which shows consensus for all three statuses of *currently true*, *desirable*, and *likely*.

Additional results under the teaching/learning methods grouping are recorded below. The following eight of the condition statements (20, 13, 15, 16, 23, 25, 27, and 29) in the grouping *teaching and learning methods* achieved no consensus level of convergence for desirability.

Table 27. Lecture based instruction.

20. Traditional lecture based classroom indoctrination is the primary method of teaching community policing in basic police academy training							
Q20	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	24%	47%	71%	6%	18%	6%	24%
Desirable	0	6%	6%	29%	47%	18%	64%
Likely	24%	47%	71%	6%	18%	6%	24%

Condition statement 20 regards the practice of lecture as the primary mode of teaching community policing within basic police academy training. Clear consensus (71%) was achieved by panelists agreeing that traditional lecture based classroom indoctrination is currently the primary method of teaching community policing in basic police academy training. The same high level of consensus (71%) was achieved in the ranking of the likelihood that the condition will occur in the foreseeable future. In the *desirability* status, lecture ranked extremely low in desirability (6%) with a strong majority (65%), short of consensus, agreeing that lecture is not desirable.

While 71% of internal experts concurred that lecture is the primary training method, 65% perceived lecture to be an undesirable training method, and yet 71% expected that lecture will remain the primary instruction method in the foreseeable future. The remaining seven teaching and learning condition statements (items 13, 15, 16, 23, 25, 27, and 29) in

this grouping that were not ranked as desirable also failed to find consensus among internal experts that the condition was currently true or that the condition was likely to be true in the foreseeable future.

Table 28. Computer based training.

13. Online, computer based training is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.							
Q13	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	0	18%	18%	12%	53%	18%	71%
Desirable	18%	47%	65%	24%	6%	6%	12%
Likely	0	25%	25%	44%	31%	0	31%

Condition statement 13 “Online, computer based training is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training” was ranked as not currently true with consensus at 71%. A strong majority (65%) converged on the desirability of the used of computer based training, falling just short of consensus. No consensus emerged about the likelihood of computer based training being used for community policing curricula in basic police training in the foreseeable future.

Table 29. Community service projects.

15. Community service projects (such as volunteering in a homeless shelter) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.							
Q15	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	0	6%	6%	6%	59%	29%	88%
Desirable	12%	29%	41%	18%	29%	12%	41%
Likely	0	6%	6%	18%	65%	12%	76%

Responses to condition statement 15 revealed that experts reached consensus at 88% in the *total disagree* category regarding the *currently true* status of community service projects used for community policing training. Experts also reached consensus on the *likely* status at 76% in the *total disagree* category, indicating the panelists' convergence of opinions that community service projects are not being used and will not be in the foreseeable future.

Table 30. Social exchange experiences.

16. Social exchange experiences (spending the night in jail, applying for welfare) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.							
Q16	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	0	0	0	12%	41%	47%	88%
Desirable	12%	12%	24%	24%	29%	24%	53%
Likely	0	6%	14%	6%	65%	24%	71%

Condition statement 16 “Social exchange experiences (spending the night in jail, applying for welfare) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training” achieved consensus at the 88% level in *total disagree* category regarding the status of *currently true*. In addition to being regarded as not currently true, respondents also achieved consensus that the condition is not likely in the foreseeable future at a consensus of 77%. Thus, both condition statements 15 and 16 achieved no consensus as to desirability, but achieved consensus that the conditions are not true and will not be true anytime soon.

Table 31. Reflective journaling.

23. Reflective journaling is currently used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.							
Q23	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	12%	12%	24%	6%	53%	18%	71%
Desirable	24%	12%	35%	29%	29%	6%	35%
Likely	12%	18%	29%	29%	35%	6%	41%

Condition statement 23 “Reflective journaling is currently used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training “ regarding the use of reflective journaling achieved consensus (71%) only in the category of *total disagree* pertaining to the status *currently true*. Low levels of convergence were noted in all other statuses and categories, with no consensus on the practice of reflective journaling regarding its desirability, nor the likelihood of its future use in community policing instruction.

Table 32. Release time for community service.

25. Release time from training or during the course of the basic police academy is provided for trainees to enable them to engage in community service.							
Q25	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	0	18%	18%	0	47%	35%	82%
Desirable	0	53%	53%	24%	18%	11%	24%
Likely	0	18%	18%	35%	35%	12%	46%

Respondents achieved consensus on condition statement 25 at a cumulative level of 82% that “Release time from training or during the course of the basic police academy is provided for trainees to enable them to engage in community service” is not currently true in police academy basic training curriculum. Although falling short of consensus, respondents reached convergence at more than a mere majority (53%) regarding the desirability of release time. No significant convergence occurred regarding its likely future use.

Table 33. Required reading assignments.

27. Required reading in subjects that are not strictly law enforcement related is a part of the community policing instruction in basic police academy training.							
Q27	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	12%	0	12%	18%	47%	24%	71%
Desirable	29%	35%	65%	12%	24%	0	24%
Likely	6%	24%	29%	35%	35%	0	35%

On condition statement 27 respondents agreed at a consensus level of 71% that required reading in non-law enforcement was not the current practice as part of the means of instruction in community policing within basic police training academies. No consensus as to desirability or likelihood was achieved.

Table 34. Reducing high risk scenario training.

29. Scenario training in high risk, low occurrence events associated with “officer survival training” in the military assault model is being reduced to accommodate or integrate community policing training more fully in basic police academy training.							
Q29	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	0	0	0	18%	59%	24%	82%
Desirable	12%	6%	18%	18%	35%	29%	65%
Likely	0	12%	12%	29%	35%	24%	59%

Condition statement 29 regards a reduction in survival training to accommodate community policing training. Respondents concurred with a cumulative level of consensus of 83% that this condition is not currently true. No other consensus was achieved in any other status on condition statement 29.

The results of the Delphi survey in the group of condition statements regarding teaching and learning methods for community policing instruction in basic police academy training show that little or no change is expected by experts on the internal panel in the near future. Regardless of whether the condition was desirable or not, or currently true or not, in *teaching and learning methods* for community policing subject matter in basic police academy training, respondents expect little change in the foreseeable future in the way community policing is taught compared to current practice.

Administrative and Department Support

The final grouping of condition statements regards the level of perceived support that community policing training is given by sponsoring agencies and their administrative leaders. The thirteen statements in this group are:

5. Community policing training at the basic police academy level is regarded by administrators, trainers, and trainees as vital to successful policing.
7. Community policing training is largely ignored or marginalized in basic police training but community policing is sufficiently promoted by employing agencies in other ways after the academy.
9. Addressing community policing in an effective way in basic police training promotes community policing as practiced within police agencies.
34. Performance measures for assessing competence in community policing concepts and skills have been adequately developed or applied in community policing training at the basic police academy training level. Academies are doing a good job of knowing if community policing is being well taught and learned.
35. There is adequate training time allotted for community policing topics in the basic police training academy.
38. Police administrators are highly aware of what is going on at basic police training academies.
40. Basic police training academies have reached a professional consensus on the best way to teach, indoctrinate, and evaluate community policing in the academy curriculum.
41. Trainers and administrators in basic police academies are selected, trained, and rewarded for their community policing knowledge, skills, practice, and promotion.

42. Core values espoused officially and unofficially by police departments, police leaders, and role models in policing, are consistent with community policing and those espoused in the basic training environment.
43. Multi-agency and pre-service basic police academies' community policing training suffers from the influences of city, county, and state pressures on curriculum and values.
44. Community policing training in single agency basic police academies suffers from external pressures on curriculum and values.
45. Academy directors exert the single greatest influence on basic police academy training and are therefore the single most influential source of promoting community policing at the basic police academy level.
46. Agency heads (Sheriffs, Chiefs, Directors) are involved in introducing community policing to trainees at the basic training academy in order to emphasize the importance of community policing.

This group of condition statements addresses support from leadership in the academy administration and in the agencies who employ or will employ the graduates of the academies. The findings are shown below.

Table 35. Administration regard for community policing.

5. Community policing training at the basic police academy level is regarded by administrators, trainers, and trainees as vital to successful policing.							
Q5	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	11%	24%	35%	24%	35%	6%	41%
Desirable	71%	11%	82%	6%	11%	0	12%
Likely	11%	35%	53%	29%	18%	0	18%

Condition statement 5 identifying high regard of community policing by administrators, trainers, and trainees was ranked at the consensus level of 71% in the *strongly agree* category in the status of *desirable*. The cumulative convergence of the *strongly agree* and *agree* categories is at consensus with 82% of respondents ranking this condition as desirable. No other status achieved consensus on statement 5, indicating that while this condition is highly desirable, no consensus existed as to whether this condition is currently true or likely to be true in the foreseeable future.

Table 36. Influence of basic training on community policing in agencies.

9. Addressing community policing in an effective way in basic police training promotes community policing as practiced within police agencies.							
Q9	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	35%	35%	71%	24%	6%	0	6%
Desirable	71%	18%	88%	11%	0	0	0
Likely	24%	41%	65%	24%	6%	6%	12%

Condition statement 9, regarding the affect of community policing instruction in basic police training on community policing practice within police agencies, achieved a consensus level at 71% convergence that the condition is currently true. A consensus level of 89% reveals that respondents perceive this link between academy instruction and professional practice to be desirable. Panelists lack consensus (65%) in convergence on the likelihood of the condition being true in the foreseeable future.

Table 37. Performance measures.

<p>34. Performance measures for assessing competence in community policing concepts and skills have been adequately developed or applied in community policing training at the basic police academy training level. Academies are doing a good job of knowing if community policing is being well taught and learned.</p>							
Q34	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	0	6%	6%	18%	65%	11%	76%
Desirable	29%	59%	88%	6%	6%	0	6%
Likely	6%	29%	35%	41%	24%	0	24%

Condition statement 34 “Performance measures for assessing competence in community policing concepts and skills have been adequately developed or applied in community policing training at the basic police academy training level. Academies are doing a good job of knowing if community policing is being well taught and learned” shows a high level of consensus (88%) regarding desirability. Although this condition is regarded as desirable, a strong consensus of 76% disagreed that the condition was currently true. No consensus was achieved in predicting the likelihood of the condition being true in the foreseeable future with the highest convergence in this status in the category of *unsure* at a low 41%.

Table 38. Adequate training time.

35. There is adequate training time allotted for community policing topics in the basic police training academy.							
Q35	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	6%	29%	35%	11%	35%	18%	53%
Desirable	41%	53%	94%	6%	0	0	0
Likely	18%	41%	59%	29%	6%	6%	12%

Condition statement 35 “There is adequate training time allotted for community policing topics in the basic police training academy” yielded convergence at (53%) that this condition is not currently true but is likely in the foreseeable future (59%), however, the level of convergence did not constitute consensus on this condition for the purpose of this study. An overwhelming consensus of respondents (94%) clearly ranked the desirability of adequate time for community policing instruction very highly. The desirability of embedding community policing in every aspect of basic law enforcement academy training achieved 70% consensus when adding both the *strongly agree* and *agree* rankings. Respondents overwhelmingly converged at high (94%) consensus that adequate time be allotted for community policing training.

Table 39. Police administrator awareness.

38. Police administrators are highly aware of what is going on at basic police training academies							
Q38	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	6%	35%	41%	6%	24%	29%	53%
Desirable	69%	31%	100%	0	0	0	0
Likely	18%	35%	53%	29%	11%	6%	18%

Condition statement 38, “Police administrators are highly aware of what is going on at basic police training academies” was regarded as *desirable* with the highest possible consensus of 100%. No consensus emerged for the status *currently true* or *likely*, even as weak majority converged at 53% for the status of *likely* in the *agree* category and a 53% level of concurrence in the *disagree* category was noted for the *currently true* status.

Table 40. Professional consensus on practices and evaluation.

40. Basic police training academies have reached a professional consensus on the best way to teach, indoctrinate, and evaluate community policing in the academy curriculum.							
Q40	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	6%	0	6%	11%	59%	24%	82%
Desirable	53%	29%	88%	6%	6%	0	6%
Likely	11%	29%	41%	29%	18%	11%	29%

Condition statement 40 “Basic police training academies have reached a professional consensus on the best way to teach, indoctrinate, and evaluate community policing in the academy curriculum” achieved a consensus level of 82% in the *desirable* status. Panelists reached no consensus regarding a prediction that this condition is likely in the foreseeable future, but converged strongly at a consensus level of 82% that the condition is not currently true.

Table 41. Trainer selection.

41. Trainers and administrators in basic police academies are selected, trained, and rewarded for their community policing knowledge, skills, practice, and promotion.							
Q41	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	0	18%	18%	18%	47%	18%	65%
Desirable	29%	47%	76%	18%	6%	0	6%
Likely	6%	29%	35%	41%	24%	0	24%

In responses to condition statement 41 “Trainers and administrators in basic police academies are selected, trained, and rewarded for their community policing knowledge, skills, practice, and promotion” a 76% consensus emerged that it is desirable that trainers and administrators in basic police training academies to be selected, trained, and rewarded for community policing practices. Despite consensus regarding the desirability of this condition, no consensus was reached on the likelihood of this condition being true in the foreseeable future, and no consensus emerged regarding perceptions of whether this condition is currently true.

Table 42. Consistency of espoused core values.

42. Core values espoused officially and unofficially by police departments, police leaders, and role models in policing, are consistent with community policing and those espoused in the basic training environment.							
Q42	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	12%	35%	47%	6%	41%	6%	47%
Desirable	47%	41%	88%	6%	6%	0	6%
Likely	18%	29%	47%	41%	12%	0	12%

Condition statement 42 “Core values espoused officially and unofficially by police departments, police leaders, and role models in policing, are consistent with community policing and those espoused in the basic training environment” showed significant consensus at 88% *total agree*. Consensus was not reached in any other status any category. Panelists were equally divided in their opinion of whether this condition is currently true or not. The status *currently true* converged at 41% in the *agree* category and 41% in the *disagree* category with only 6% ranking the status as *unsure*.

Table 43. Involvement of agency heads.

46. Agency heads (Sheriffs, Chiefs, Directors) are involved in introducing community policing to trainees at the basic training academy in order to emphasize the importance of community policing.							
Q46	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	6%	24%	29%	11%	47%	11%	59%
Desirable	24%	53%	76%	11%	11%	0	12%
Likely	11%	24%	35%	41%	18%	6%	24%

Condition statement 46 “Agency heads (Sheriffs, Chiefs, Directors) are involved in introducing community policing to trainees at the basic training academy in order to emphasize the importance of community policing” revealed a consensus level of 76% convergence in the *total agree* category. Despite consensus regarding the desirability of this condition, no consensus emerged on the likelihood of either of the\ condition being true in the foreseeable future, or regarding perceptions of whether these conditions are currently true.

Table 44. Marginalization of community policing training.

7. Community policing training is largely ignored or marginalized in basic police training but community policing is sufficiently promoted by employing agencies in other ways after the academy.							
Q7	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	18%	24%	41%	11%	47%	0	47%
Desirable	24%	18%	41%	18%	29%	11%	41%
Likely	18%	35%	53%	29%	18%	0	18%

No levels of consensus were obtained for any category of any condition status on condition statement 7 “Community policing training is largely ignored or marginalized in basic police training but community policing is sufficiently promoted by employing agencies in other ways after the academy”. Low levels of convergence were evident in all responses with a majority (53%) achieved in only the *agree* category of the *likely* status, falling far short of consensus.

Table 45. Influences on multi-agency academies.

43. Multi-agency and pre-service basic police academies' community policing training suffers from the influences of city, county, and state pressures on curriculum and values.							
Q43	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	11%	29%	41%	29%	18%	11%	29%
Desirable	0	6%	6%	24%	41%	29%	70%
Likely	11%	24%	35%	41%	6%	18%	24%

Condition statement 43 ” Multi-agency and pre-service basic police academies’ community policing training suffers from the influences of city, county, and state pressures on curriculum and values” achieved consensus on desirability with a combined *disagree* and *strongly disagree* ranking of 70% strongly indicating that the condition is not desirable. Rankings showed no convergence at a consensus level as to the current existence of city, county, and state pressures on curriculum, and no consensus on panelists perception of the condition’s likelihood in the foreseeable future.

Table 46. External pressures on single agency academies.

44. Community policing training in single agency basic police academies suffers from external pressures on curriculum and values.							
Q44	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	6%	18%	24%	47%	11%	18%	29%
Desirable	0	0	0	41%	29%	24%	56%
Likely	6%	24%	29%	41%	11%	18%	29%

Condition statement 44 “Community policing training in single agency basic police academies suffers from external pressures on curriculum and values” yielded no consensus in any area. Only the category of *total disagree* in the *desirable* status reflected a majority (56%) convergence. Condition statement 44 showed an unusually high convergence (41%) of *unsure* in each status row, and no items of consensus for any category regarding any condition status.

Table 47. Influence of academy directors.

45. Academy directors exert the single greatest influence on basic police academy training and are therefore the single most influential source of promoting community policing at the basic police academy level.							
Q45	Strongly Agree	Agree	Total Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total Disagree
Currently true	24%	35%	59%	6%	29%	6%	35%
Desirable	11%	24%	38%	24%	35%	0	38%
Likely	24%	35%	59%	11%	29%	0	29%

No consensus regarding any status or category level was achieved regarding condition statement 45 regarding the influence of academy directors on the promotion of community policing in basic police academy training.

Summary

This chapter reviewed the Delphi process used in this study. The first part of the Delphi process consisted of two rounds of inquiry of an external panel of experts to design a survey instrument to submit to a second, internal expert panel. External experts were selected primarily from attendees at a national conference on community policing. Eleven panelists consented to participate in the study and contributed suggestions in response to a prompted request for topics. The researcher collated the responses from the initial round of external experts and developed a 110 item survey. The external panelists were asked to

review the survey and make comments. As a result of their feedback in round two of the process, the researcher reduced the survey to 46 condition statements with an answer grid enabling internal panelists to mark their level of agreement with the condition as to whether it was currently true, desirable, and whether the condition is likely to be true in the foreseeable future.

Candidates for panel members who are experts and practitioners in law enforcement training were sought by a mass mailing to police academies and police departments in Colorado and Missouri. Seventeen panelists consented to participate as the internal panel of experts. After submitting responses in the first round, these panelists were asked to review and re-rate their responses on a condensed survey collated from their first round responses. Eleven panelists persisted through the second round, each reporting that his or her final responses were reflected and that no further consensus would be achieved. Two condition statements were excluded from the final results due to their ambiguity as reflected in idiosyncratic response patterns and lack of consensus.

Internal panelist ratings were analyzed and tabulated seeking consensus levels of convergence at 66% or higher. This chapter reports those findings.

Only three statements resulted in a consensus level of 66% or more regarding current practices that panelists perceived to be currently true. Those statements (numbered as they appear in order of the survey) were:

9. Addressing community policing in an effective way in basic police training promotes community policing as practiced within police agencies.
31. Where available, college faculty or other qualified civilians are utilized to instruct in basic police academies.

20. Traditional lecture based classroom indoctrination is the primary method of teaching community policing in basic police academy training.

Thirteen statements that the panelists converged at a consensus level of 66% or greater to be currently not true in basic police training were:

8. Basic police training at the academy level makes community policing the forefront and focus of police work.
13. Online, computer based training is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
15. Community service projects (such as volunteering in a homeless shelter) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
16. Social exchange experiences (spending the night in jail, applying for welfare) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
17. Public speaking, writing for publication, media relations, and other non-traditional communication skills training are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
21. Community policing is embedded in every aspect of the basic police Academy training.
23. Reflective journaling is currently used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
25. Release time from training or during the course of the basic police academy is provided for trainees to enable them to engage in community service.
27. Required reading in subjects that are not strictly law enforcement related is a part of the community policing instruction in basic police academy training.

28. Daily reinforcement of community policing themes, philosophy, and practice is a part of community policing training in basic police training.
29. Scenario training in high risk, low occurrence events associated with “officer survival training” in the military assault model is being reduced to accommodate or integrate community policing training more fully in basic police academy training.
34. Performance measures for assessing competence in community policing concepts and skills have been adequately developed or applied in community policing training at the basic police academy training level. Academies are doing a good job of knowing if community policing is being well taught and learned.
40. Basic police training academies have reached a professional consensus on the best way to teach, indoctrinate, and evaluate community policing in the academy curriculum.

Thirty-one statements that panelists agreed were desirable, as evidenced by consensus of at least 66% were:

1. Basic police training at the academy level includes indoctrination and attitude development favorable to community policing.
2. Basic police training at the academy level includes community policing training that is seamlessly integrated into field training.
3. Basic police training at the academy level engages trainees in leadership training that develops collaboration and team skills for problem solving in a community setting.
4. Basic police training at the academy level provides opportunities for trainees to interact meaningfully with communities as part of their community policing training and indoctrination.

5. Community policing training at the basic police academy level is regarded by administrators, trainers, and trainees as vital to successful policing.
6. Aptitudes consistent with community policing are part of the standards for selection and testing of basic police academy applicants and trainees.
8. Basic police training at the academy level makes community policing the forefront and focus of police work.
9. Addressing community policing in an effective way in basic police training promotes community policing as practiced within police agencies.
10. Community policing as an agency-wide form of police practice for all members of a police agency - civilian and sworn - is a part of community policing indoctrination and training in the basic police academy.
11. “Real world projects” (such as finding a crime or disorder issue in the community and working with others to solve it) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
12. Guided scenario exercises are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
14. Observational ride-alongs are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training
17. Public speaking, writing for publication, media relations, and other non-traditional communication skills training are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

18. Case studies are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
19. Role playing is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
21. Community policing is embedded in every aspect of the basic police academy training.
22. PBL (Problem Based Learning) is currently used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
24. Community policing is currently reflected in the policy and practice of basic police training academies.
26. Discussion of current events is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
31. Where available, college faculty or other qualified civilians are utilized to instruct in basic police academies.
32. Group and team activities requiring cooperation, collaboration, and consensus building are part of the curriculum for community policing training in the basic police academy.
34. Performance measures for assessing competence in community policing concepts and skills have been adequately developed or applied in community policing training at the basic police academy training level. Academies are doing a good job of knowing if community policing is being well taught and learned.
35. There is adequate training time allotted for community policing topics in the basic police training academy.
36. Community policing is expanded and integrated into new curriculum as new subjects

and blocks of instruction are added to the academy curriculum.

37. Character is as highly valued as are skills in the basic police training academy.
38. Police administrators are highly aware of what is going on at basic police training academies.
39. Minorities and woman are well represented among academy trainees and instructional staff.
40. Basic police training academies have reached a professional consensus on the best way to teach, indoctrinate, and evaluate community policing in the academy curriculum.
41. Trainers and administrators in basic police academies are selected, trained, and rewarded for their community policing knowledge, skills, practice, and promotion.
42. Core values espoused officially and unofficially by police departments, police leaders, and role models in policing, are consistent with community policing and those espoused in the basic training environment
46. Agency heads (Sheriffs, Chiefs, Directors) are involved in introducing community policing to trainees at the basic training academy in order to emphasize the importance of community policing.

Items which panelists determined by at least 66% consensus were not desirable included:

43. Multi-agency and pre-service basic police academies' community policing training suffers from the influences of city, county, and state pressures on curriculum and values.

Items which panelists indicated consensus that a given statement reflects a condition that is likely to be true in the foreseeable future are:

18. Case studies are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
20. Traditional lecture based classroom indoctrination is the primary method of teaching community policing in basic police academy training.
31. Where available, college faculty or other qualified civilians are utilized to instruct in basic police academies.
37. Character is as highly valued as are skills in the basic police training academy.

Statements which reflect a condition that a consensus of at least 66% of panelists believed to be unlikely in the foreseeable future were:

15. Community service projects (such as volunteering in a homeless shelter) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.
16. Social exchange experiences (spending the night in jail, applying for welfare) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Only two items were perceived to be both desirable and currently true according to at least 66% of the panelists. The items were:

9. Addressing community policing in an effective way in basic police training promotes community policing as practiced within police agencies.
31. Where available, college faculty or other qualified civilians are utilized to instruct in basic police academies.

Three items were found by panelists to be both desirable and likely at a consensus level of 66% or above. The items were:

18. Case studies are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

31. Where available, college faculty or other qualified civilians are utilized to instruct in basic police academies.

37. Character is as highly valued as are skills in the basic police training academy.

Only two condition statements were perceived by a consensus of the panel to be currently true, desirable, and likely. They were item 31, “Where available, college faculty or other qualified civilians are utilized to instruct in basic police academies” and item 37, “Character is as highly valued as are skills in the basic police training academy”.

Although significant consensus exists on many items which are desirable in implementing community policing within basic police training, few of these conditions are expected to make their way into the heart and soul of basic police academies.

CHAPTER FIVE

LIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS, FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter's first section reviews the purpose and design of the study. The second lists limitations of the study and summarizes the study's findings. The third section consists of conclusions and recommendations drawn from the study.

Purpose and Design of the Study

In the 1980s as crime began to become a political issue at the national level, criminologists developed theories based on community problem solving. Police agencies were urged to exercise leadership and broad discretion to engage partnerships to respond to underlying causes of crime as an alternative to the traditional militaristic law enforcement response.

With apparent successes of community policing in New York City and legislation promised and delivered by President Clinton, federal funding was distributed to state and local police agencies to promote community policing efforts. After millions of dollars and wide promotion of community policing, political focus shifted to natural disaster relief and terrorism. Community policing lost federal funding but was still a topic kept alive in police departments, federal agencies, and textbooks. As the concept enters its third decade, this study examined perceptions of experts in the field regarding community policing training in the context of basic police training academies.

This investigation was a Delphi study to determine experts' predictions regarding the role of community policing in basic police training academies. Two groups of experts were selected by the researcher for invitation to participate in the study. One group, the

external panel, designed the survey instrument in successive rounds of Delphi decision making; the other group, the internal panel responded to the survey instrument which asked their opinions about current conditions, desirable conditions, and predictions of conditions likely in the foreseeable future regarding community policing training.

The foundational question of this research was “What influence will community policing have on basic police training in the future?” Additionally, the study sought to ascertain: a) what changes in basic police training are likely as a result of community policing b) what changes in basic police training are desirable as a result of community policing c) what training methods constitute current practices in the integration of community policing training into basic police training?

Expert panelists for the individuals participating in the external panel round were selected from among experts attending a meeting sponsored by the U. S. Department of Justice on community policing which met in Washington, D.C. The researcher also attended this meeting and obtained the participant list which was distributed to all participants. Emails were sent to prospective candidates to serve on the external panel. After 85 email inquiries, eleven experts consented to participate and answered a set of general questions about community policing within basic police training academies. Represented in the panel were national experts on community policing and law enforcement training.

Experts’ responses to the general discussion questions were collated and published for review by all of the external panelists who were invited to revise their responses and to also justify any of their responses that varied from majority opinions. An initial survey instrument of 110 items was presented to those external panel members. Based on their

review and input the survey was reduced to 46 condition statements which were designed to be ranked by the members of the internal expert panel according to the current existence of the stated conditions, the desirability of the conditions, and the likelihood of those conditions existing in the foreseeable future. The external panelists came to consensus on the acceptability of this 46 item survey instrument.

The researcher then mailed 200 invitations to Missouri and Colorado police agencies and training academies, based on available published address lists. Seventeen persons consented to the study, with eleven persisting through the final round. Internal experts included police chiefs, sheriffs, police academy directors, and others responsible for training or community policing in their agencies.

Panelists completed the survey in which they ranked their agreement or disagreement with 46 condition statements according to the conditions currently in place in police academies, conditions that are desirable, and conditions that are likely to be true in the foreseeable future. After the initial round the results were collated and published for review by the panelists. Each panelist was invited to review the results, retake the survey and make any comments

Limitations and Assumptions

The study was limited to participants selected because of their expertise in law enforcement, law enforcement training, and community policing. The external panelists were experts invited by the researcher based on their national prominence in community policing or their participation in a national community policing training session hosted in Washington D C in the summer of 2006 by the U. S. Department of Justice and the Community Policing Consortium. The panelists participated in a Delphi decision making

process to develop a survey instrument which was subsequently used to determine expert opinion on current conditions, desirable conditions, and likely future conditions in community policing training. External panelists were limited to those who were strong advocates of community policing as indicated by their job titles or publications. None of the respondents questioned or challenged the presumption that community policing is or will continue to be a major influence in law enforcement and law enforcement training.

Internal panelists were selected from published lists of law enforcement practitioners and trainers employed by police agencies or police academies. Some names were taken from Missouri and Colorado state government websites where members of state regulatory or advisory boards associated with peace officer training and credentialing are found. Other panelists were invited from mass mailings to police agencies and training academies with a request that the invitation be forwarded to the training or community policing person.

The study was limited to panelists from Colorado and Missouri. Both states have similar regulatory structure and academy training programs. The researcher is familiar with both states' law enforcement and training systems. Whether results including other states or regions would have been different is unknown.

As with the external panel, internal panelists were likely advocates of community policing. Because a review of the literature indicated an acceptance of community policing as good practice and because this assumption was supported by respondents to the survey no critique of community policing in general occurred and only commentary on principles associated with community policing training was sought.

The research was limited to community policing training in the context of basic law

enforcement academy training. Community policing may exist and flourish by other means of institutionalization such as field training and department orientation. No other training or indoctrination modes were examined in this study.

The response rate of 17 individuals consenting to participate in the study out of approximately 200 mailings could be called into question. Internal panelists were solicited mostly from mailing to department addresses, not by addresses to individuals. The invitation letter was, therefore, dependent upon whoever first gets the department mail to pass it along to the pertinent person. Departments receive a significant amount of unsolicited mail likely resulting in most of the invitation letters being discarded without being opened. A recommendation for future study is to more strategically target recipients of the survey instrument. The researcher noted that the quality of the internal panel appeared to be very high, and the final number involved was well within recommendations for a Delphi study.

The Delphi method of decision-making involves successive rounds of inquiry during which respondents review the results as they are collated. Panelists are invited to revise and comment on their responses and the survey in order to achieve a level of consensus with others to define a predictive model regarding the survey issues. While the Delphi has a good record of acceptability, it is a different way of responding to surveys than most people have experienced. Although explicit directions and explanations were given to respondents, the level of effort given to the task by panelists and the affect on results was not measured. The researcher assumed that respondents gave their best effort and did not come to quick consensus out of fatigue or disinterest.

The researcher also assumed the 66% was an appropriate marker to reflect a

significant level of consensus. The 66% marker was derived in part from Robert's Rules of Order where a 2/3rd vote indicates the clear will of a democratic body during debate when such clarity is needed to show wide support for a procedure. While other studies established lower levels for determining consensus (Friend, 2001; Willis, 2003) and establishing the cut-off at a lower level may have resulted in more reported consensus, doing so would likely have resulted in reported levels of agreement that lacked sufficient consensus to support the implementation of changes from the status quo.

Summary of Findings

The 46 condition statements were analyzed in four theme groups: 1) attitude and philosophy, which includes how community policing is portrayed and indoctrinated throughout the academy experiences; 2) integration with other course materials / activities, which deals with whether community policing is found embedded throughout the curriculum and policy; 3) teaching / learning experiences which has to do with the construction of curriculum; and 4) administrative and department support which refers to leadership policies and practices consistent with community policing advocacy.

Respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement with each condition statement as to whether the condition was currently true, whether the condition was desirable, and whether the condition was likely to be true in the foreseeable future.

A salient trend from responses to the survey would be distressing to those who advocate the integration and inclusion of community policing training as part of basic law enforcement academy training. The clear indication of the results is that, while many conditions are known and desirable which would facilitate community policing training as part of basic police academy training, none of them are likely except those which are

currently being practiced in basic police training academies. In short, experts in police training and community policing who participated in this study indicated agreement that no change is likely to occur in the way community policing is presented in basic police training academies.

Participating experts clearly agree basic police training should indoctrinate students in community policing, that community policing should be a focal point of the training, that applicants should be selected partly on the basis of characteristics consistent with community policing, and that the academies themselves should operate in ways consistent with community policing philosophies. Despite being chosen as desirable, none of the foregoing conditions was described as currently true, and none were expected to be true in the foreseeable future. Additionally, while panelists deemed strategies that integrate community policing into existing course subjects, and part of any added subject areas in the future in basic police training, with daily reinforcement of community policing themes to be desirable, respondents said this integration of community policing with the whole basic police academy curriculum was not currently true and not likely to be true.

A number of teaching and learning strategies were found to be desirable by a consensus of panelists, including collaboration and leadership exercises, case studies, communication skills, and problem solving exercises. Although desirable, none of these were believed to be currently in wide use for community policing training, and none are likely to be used for community policing training within the basic police training academy in the foreseeable future.

Two exceptions to the experts' opinion, reflected in this study and indicating those things that are desirable are also not likely to become true in the foreseeable future, pertain

to the use of civilians and college instructors as academy instructors and to the regard for character as equal to skills for police recruits. Use of civilians and college instructors was rated as currently true as well as desirable and likely and thus does not portend any change in the status quo. Additionally, respondents agreed that character is as important as skills and is likely to be regarded highly in the foreseeable future.

Consensus was reached that a high level of support for community policing throughout police and police academy organizations is desirable but is not presently true and is not likely. Panelists reached consensus that community policing was not currently the “forefront and focus” of police work as presented in basic police training today. Finally, experts agreed at the consensus level that academies should agree on and accurately assess competency on community policing outcomes. However, these same experts do not expect such agreement or accurate assessment of competency in community policing outcomes to occur in the foreseeable future.

Discussion of Findings

The findings of this Delphi study do not indicate changes in basic law enforcement academy training in terms of the influence of community policing on philosophy, practice, teaching, or curriculum. Time and again experts in policing training in this study have concurred that what is desirable is known but not practiced. Furthermore, broad consensus in both the literature and the results of this study suggest that little is likely to change.

High levels of consensus are observed in the results on condition statements about community interaction, leadership and collaboration training, and positive attitudes about community policing. Similarly high consensus is observed in desirability of consistency in espousing and modeling core values, rewarding staff who exemplify and practice

community policing principles, and promoting community policing values. Agreement levels indicate expectations that none of the desirable conditions which are not currently in effect will become practice in basic police training in the foreseeable future. Perhaps the condition in item 40 of the survey which states “Basic police training academies have reached professional consensus on the best way to teach, indoctrinate, and evaluate community policing in the academy curriculum” tells a story. A significant consensus exists that the condition indicated in item 40 is not currently true; an almost equal consensus indicates that the condition is desirable. Failure to come to consensus on the likelihood of professionals agreeing on what to teach, how to teach it, and how to test it, is virtually non-existent.

The literature on organizational change reveals a consensus among experts in such matters that change is difficult and resisted by practitioners regardless of the rational merit of the proposal. Certainly ambiguity on the part of policy makers and law enforcement leadership on what community policing is and how much support and attention it deserves will fail to motivate the officers in patrol assignments to engage in the self-directed changes necessary to institute community policing.

Item 47 gives further insight. No consensus emerged that leaders in policing are currently modeling community policing skills and attitudes. In other words, collaboration and consumer-oriented practices associated with community policing are not used in decision making by police academy leaders or trainers. Yet while significant consensus that such modeling is desirable, no consensus exists that leaders will model community policing in the near future. Even more disconcerting, no consensus emerged, as reflected in

items 38 and 46 that police administrators even really know what goes on in basic police academies.

Two classes of responses were noted in the condition statements in the *teaching and learning* area which gained consensus as to desirability. One set which includes statements 3, 4, 11, 12, 14, 17, 18, 19, 22, 26, 31, and 32 represents conceptual or philosophical statements about teaching processes rather than actual suggestions about instructional methodology. A second set includes statements about teaching processes which offer specific teaching techniques. The group of condition statements with specific teaching techniques failed to achieve consensus regarding desirability. The researcher noted that all statements in the grouping of *attitudes and philosophy* achieved high levels of consensus regarding desirability. These responses raise the question of whether police trainers have little or no experience with actual community policing training methods such as those methods offered by the external panel in the condition statements, but only know that they *should* be favoring community policing. Perhaps trainers have moved past the question of why academies should teach community policing, and have not been exposed to the answer to the question of how to teach community policing.

Challenges to full implementation of community policing by means of indoctrination and training in basic police training include a lack of recruitment of trainees based on aptitudes consistent with community policing, as evidenced in item 6; a failure to utilize, reward, and model community policing in the very organization and practice of the police academy as evidenced in items 10, 24, 41, and 42; teaching community policing when no consensus exists for evaluation as evidenced in item 34 and 40; and continuing with lecture as the primary mode of instructional delivery even though such instructional

practice is regarded as among the poorest ways to teach community policing as evidenced in item 20. All of the signs from this study point to a continuation of the status quo in basic police training when it comes to community policing.

Implications for Policy and Practice

Results of this Delphi study have immediate implications for advocates of community policing. The following recommendations derive from this research:

1. Advocates should reassess the role of basic police academy training in accomplishing the shift from traditional policing models to community policing.

Individual police agency leaders might have more success in department level training rather than academy level training as it pertains to knowledge, skills, and attitudes of community policing.

2. Selection, employment, evaluation, and development of both police recruits and academy staff should be predicated on values and skills associated with community policing.

3. Police academies should allow self-examination to determine if the culture of the obedient police recruit is consistent with the creative, independent discretion and decision making model associated with community policing. Is it possible to teach a collaborative skill in a military environment?

4. Education experts should be recruited by community policing advocates to develop teaching and evaluation methods for which nationally recognized standards can be developed for assessing educational outcomes associated with community policing knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Lecture style presentations need to be dramatically reduced from the preeminence they currently hold. The impact of traditional blocks of

instruction measured by hours of classroom lecture time is likely keeping community policing from being integrated into a variety of subject matter.

Additional research should include a study of the inhibiting effects of state peace officer and academy certification regulations on innovation in training. This study should be replicated using internal panelists from other regions or states to determine if Colorado and Missouri reflect conditions across the country, since regulation of police training varies from state to state. Model programs which incorporate this study's recommendations may exist for study and replication in other states. Finally, a study should be conducted to explore the political and organizational realities which resulted in the reduction of federal funding for community policing in the face of widespread support for community policing strategies among law enforcement experts and the public at large.

Summary

The findings from this study show clear support from police training experts for community policing training to become an integral part of basic police training academies. Nevertheless, respondents indicated little is currently occurring to integrate community policing training into efforts of police training academies and, moreover, respondents have little faith that such integration will occur in the foreseeable future. In essence, based on their predictions, the state of community policing and basic police training appears likely to remain unchanged. While advocates of community policing already have support for the philosophy and practice of those collaborative community problem solving skills, in order for community policing to be in full effect, police and political leaders must engage in the very kinds of creative problem solving that is increasingly demanded of those men and women in uniform patrolling and problem solving in America's communities.

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APPENDIX A
CORRESPONDENCE SAMPLES

Consent to Participate

I agree to participate in Joel F. Shults’ dissertation research for the purpose of forecasting the likely and desirable changes associated with community policing and its impact on the content and conduct of training in basic law enforcement training academies. I realize that I will be required to respond to comments and questions concerning the topic in successive rounds of the Delphi inquiry process., with each round taking an estimated time of thirty minutes or less. I understand that my participation is completely voluntary, that I may withdraw at any time, and that all my responses will be confidential and will become anonymous as soon as the data are collected and collated.

Signed_____ Date_____

Please complete the following information:

Name: _____

Mailing Address: _____

Telephone contact numbers: _____

Email Address: _____

Employer: _____

Position: _____

IF YOU HAVE QUESTIONS ABOUT THE STUDY YOU MAY CONTACT THE UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI CAMPUS IRB OFFICE AT 573-882-9585 OR EMAIL cirb@missouri.edu, OR CONTACT JOEL F. SHULTS AT joel_shults@yahoo.com.

Dear _____:

I notice that you attended the recent Community Policing Conference in Washington, D.C. I certainly will benefit from the sessions during my doctoral research on Community Policing and Basic Law Enforcement Training.

I am conducting research regarding the future of basic police academy training as influenced by community policing. In order to survey practitioners about what they believe would be desirable, likely, and best training practices for community policing in basic law enforcement training academies, I must develop a core set of questions and issues from experts like yourself. I'd like to ask if: a) are willing to help me shape the questions by participating in a few anonymous rounds of commentary via email and; b) are there experts in community policing training whom you might refer to me for contact so that I might ask if they would be willing to assist me in developing these important questions?

Thanks for your help. For now a simple response of YES or NO, or the names, titles, and contact information of other high level Community Policing experts to whom I may send a similar email request, will suffice.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Joel F. Shults
Associate Professor Administration of Justice
Hannibal-LaGrange College
Hannibal, MO. 63401
573-221-3675 ex. 223

Date:
Name:
Institution:
Address:

Salutation:

I am presently a doctoral candidate in the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis at the University of Missouri - Columbia. For my dissertation research I will be using the Delphi technique to study and forecast the likely and desirable changes associated with community policing and basic law enforcement training.

You have been selected from a group consisting of experts in the field of law enforcement training. I am writing to ascertain your interest in serving on the a panel of experts to assist in my research. This panel of experts consists of police academy trainers and police department training personnel. Your participation should take less than 30 minutes in each of two to four sessions which you will complete via e-mail.

As a member of the expert panel your role would be in responding to open ended questions about the impact of community policing on the content and conduct of basic law enforcement academy training. This will be done by e-mail. A key element in Delphi inquiry is anonymity. Participants and their responses remain anonymous to other participants, and confidentiality is maintained with the researcher for the entire process. Only the researcher will view the e-mailed responses from participants. Your initial comments and questions will be collated with other respondents' submissions and formed into further revised questions. In this process, the researcher will avoid using concepts or wording that would identify any individual or agency to other readers. This set of questions will then be submitted to you and the other panel members for ratings regarding your level of agreement or disagreement, along with your comments elaborating on your rating responses. This process is repeated until a level of consensus among respondents is determined by the researcher. The purpose of the survey, using the Delphi method of inquiry, is to predict the future influence of community policing on the content and conduct of basic law enforcement academy training.

If you agree to participate in this research, please email me at joel_shults@yahoo.com and provide your complete address, or mail the self-addressed stamped post card to me. I will forward a Consent to Participate form to you, which must be signed and returned. If you have any questions concerning my research please contact me.

Sincerely,

Joel F. Shults
7 Fair Oaks
Hannibal, MO. 63401

Dear _____ :

Thank you for participating in my research.

In a Delphi study selected experts are surveyed to solicit their opinion about the likelihood of future occurrences or conditions. The survey questionnaire may be developed from the mind of the researcher, from an already established instrument, or may be developed by a separate panel of experts. I am conducting a study to determine the likely and desirable effects of community policing on the training curriculum and methods and content of basic law enforcement training in the future. To conduct this study I am asking your help in forming the topics and content of a survey instrument. Some essential questions to be addressed in the survey which you are assisting in creating include issues of whether community policing should be taught at the academy level and, if so, how should that occur? Your role, if you decide to continue to participate, is to provide some written commentary and thoughts about the matter of community policing training within the framework of the basic police training academy. Based on your suggestions, commentary, and opinions, and that of several other experts in the field of community policing and police training, I will compose a set of survey statements which I will ask all of the experts participating in this round to review for commentary and suggestions. After I obtain those responses I will once again revise, collate, and develop a slate of survey statements for submission to other experts derived from police academies and law enforcement agency trainers. I will be asking those experts to rate the likelihood and desirability of the statements on a scale from agreement to disagreement to determine whether a consensus develops on what is desirable and likely for the future of community policing to be a part of basic police training in the future. I hope also to glean knowledge on what is perceived to

be the current best practices in the teaching of community policing within the framework of basic police training, in those basic police academies where community policing training is occurring.

Please take a few minutes to provide commentary on the following issues:

- 1) How important is community policing to the curriculum in the basic police academy setting?
- 2) Should community policing be addressed at this level of training?
- 3) What pedagogical methods should be used in accomplishing any training or learning objectives related to community policing?
- 4) Should community policing be integrated into all subjects or treated as a separate subject or series of subjects?
- 5) What are the current strengths or weaknesses in conceptualizing community policing, it's training and application, and it's presence in current curricula in basic training academies?
- 6) What questions areas of concern or consensus would you like to see explored in this study?
- 7) What persons or job classifications in education, training, and administration should be most responsible for community policing training?
- 8) In your view do you see any areas absent thus far from this researcher's conceptualizations that should be considered when examining the influence of community policing on the training curriculum and methods and content of basic law enforcement training in the future?

All of your commentary is important. Please send your comments via email to joel_shults@yahoo.com within five days. Please remember that your responses are seen only by me and no individual will be identified during the study. The responses you provide will be collated and aggregated with others' in order to formulate survey statements and questions.

If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact me.

Joel F. Shults, Joel_shults@yahoo.com
Work phone 573-221-3675 ext. 223
7 Fair Oaks, Hannibal, MO. 63401

APPENDIX B

SURVEY INSTRUMENT ROUND ONE INTERNAL

Community Policing Survey

1. Basic police training at the academy level includes indoctrination and attitude development favorable to community policing.

Q1	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

2. Basic police training at the academy level includes community policing training that is seamlessly integrated into field training.

Q2	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

3. Basic police training at the academy level engages trainees in leadership training that develops collaboration and team skills for problem solving in a community setting.

Q3	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

4. Basic police training at the academy level provides opportunities for trainees to interact meaningfully with communities as part of their community policing training and indoctrination.

Q4	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

5. Community policing training at the basic police academy level is regarded by administrators, trainers, and trainees as vital to successful policing.

Q5	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

6. Aptitudes consistent with community policing are part of the standards for selection and testing of basic police academy applicants and trainees.

Q6	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

7. Community policing training is largely ignored or marginalized in basic police training but community policing is sufficiently promoted by employing agencies in other ways after the academy.

Q7	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

8. Basic police training at the academy level makes community policing the forefront and focus of police work.

Q8	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

9. Addressing community policing in an effective way in basic police training promotes community policing as practiced within police agencies.

Q9	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

10. Community policing as an agency-wide form of police practice for all members of a police agency - civilian and sworn - is a part of community policing indoctrination and training in the basic police academy.

Q10	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

11. “Real world projects” (such as finding a crime or disorder issue in the community and working with others to solve it) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q11	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree

Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

12. Guided scenario exercises are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q12	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

13. Online, computer based training is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q13	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

14. Observational ride-alongs are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q14	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

15. Community service projects (such as volunteering in a homeless shelter) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q15	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

16. Social exchange experiences (spending the night in jail, applying for welfare) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q16	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

17. Public speaking, writing for publication, media relations, and other non-traditional communication skills training are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q17	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

18. Case studies are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q18	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

19. Role playing is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q19	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

20. Traditional lecture based classroom indoctrination is the primary method of teaching community policing in basic police academy training.

Q20	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

21. Community policing is embedded in every aspect of the basic police academy training.

Q21	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

22. PBL (Problem Based Learning) is currently used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q22	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

23. Reflective journaling is currently used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q23	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

24. Community policing is currently reflected in the policy and practice of basic police training academies.

Q24	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

25. Release time from training or during the course of the basic police academy is provided for trainees to enable them to engage in community service.

Q25	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

26. Discussion of current events is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q26	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

27. Required reading in subjects that are not strictly law enforcement related is a part of the community policing instruction in basic police academy training.

Q27	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

28. Daily reinforcement of community policing themes, philosophy, and practice is a part of community policing training in basic police training.

Q28	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

29. Scenario training in high risk, low occurrence events associated with “officer survival training” in the military assault model is being reduced to accommodate or integrate community policing training more fully in basic police academy training.

Q29	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

30. Community policing currently is taught primarily as a stand alone block of instruction.

Q30	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

31. Where available, college faculty or other qualified civilians are utilized to instruct in basic police academies.

Q31	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

32. Group and team activities requiring cooperation, collaboration, and consensus building are part of the curriculum for community policing training in the basic police academy.

Q32	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

33. Community policing is presented in a theoretical context which lacks practical application. There should be more hands-on training relating to community policing in basic police academy training.

Q33	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

34. Performance measures for assessing competence in community policing concepts and skills have been adequately developed or applied in community policing training at the basic police academy training level. Academies are doing a good job of knowing if community policing is being well taught and learned.

Q34	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

35. There is adequate training time allotted for community policing topics in the basic police training academy.

Q35	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

36. Community policing is expanded and integrated into new curriculum as new subjects and blocks of instruction are added to the academy curriculum.

Q36	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

37. Character is as highly valued as are skills in the basic police training academy.

Q37	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

38. Police administrators are highly aware of what is going on at basic police training academies.

Q38	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

39. Minorities and woman are well represented among academy trainees and instructional staff.

Q39	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

40. Basic police training academies have reached a professional consensus on the best way to teach, indoctrinate, and evaluate community policing in the academy curriculum.

Q40	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

41. Trainers and administrators in basic police academies are selected, trained, and rewarded for their community policing knowledge, skills, practice, and promotion.

Q41	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

42. Core values espoused officially and unofficially by police departments, police leaders, and role models in policing ,are consistent with community policing and those espoused in the basic training environment.

Q42	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

43. Multi-agency and pre-service basic police academies' community policing training suffers from the influences of city, county, and state pressures on curriculum and values.

Q43	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

44. Community policing training in single agency basic police academies suffers from external pressures on curriculum and values.

Q44	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

45. Academy directors exert the single greatest influence on basic police academy training and are therefore the single most influential source of promoting community policing at the basic police academy level.

Q45	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

46. Agency heads (Sheriffs, Chiefs, Directors) are involved in introducing community policing to trainees at the basic training academy in order to emphasize the importance of community policing.

Q46	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Currently true					
Desirable					
Likely					

APPENDIX C
SUMMARY REPORT OF SURVEY RESULTS

SUMMARY REPORT OF SURVEY RESULTS

1. Basic police training at the academy level includes indoctrination and attitude development favorable to community policing.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	65%	29%
Desirable	94%	0
Likely	59%	0

2. Basic police training at the academy level includes community policing training that is seamlessly integrated into field training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	47%	47%
Desirable	94%	0
Likely	59%	0

3. Basic police training at the academy level engages trainees in leadership

training that develops collaboration and team skills for problem solving in a community setting.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	41%	41%
Desirable	88%	0
Likely	47%	12%

4. Basic police training at the academy level provides opportunities for trainees to interact meaningfully with communities as part of their community policing training and indoctrination.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	29%	65%
Desirable	94%	0
Likely	41%	35%

5. Community policing training at the basic police academy level is regarded by administrators, trainers, and trainees as vital to successful policing.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	35%	41%
Desirable	82%	12%
Likely	53%	18%

6. Aptitudes consistent with community policing are part of the standards for selection and testing of basic police academy applicants and trainees.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	24%	59%
Desirable	82%	12%
Likely	53%	18%

7. Community policing training is largely ignored or marginalized in basic police training but community policing is sufficiently promoted by employing agencies in other ways after the academy.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
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Currently true	41%	47%
Desirable	41%	41%
Likely	53%	18%

8. Basic police training at the academy level makes community policing the forefront and focus of police work.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	24%	76%
Desirable	76%	12%
Likely	53%	29%

9. Addressing community policing in an effective way in basic police training promotes community policing as practiced within police agencies.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	71%	6%
Desirable	88%	0

Likely	65%	12%
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10. Community policing as an agency-wide form of police practice for all members of a police agency - civilian and sworn - is a part of community policing indoctrination and training in the basic police academy.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	29%	59%
Desirable	76%	12%
Likely	47%	12%

11. "Real world projects" (such as finding a crime or disorder issue in the community and working with others to solve it) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	24%	53%
Desirable	88%	6%

Likely	41%	12%
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12. Guided scenario exercises are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	47%	42%
Desirable	100%	0
Likely	59%	6%

13. Online, computer based training is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	18%	71%
Desirable	65%	12%
Likely	25%	31%

14. Observational ride-alongs are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	47%	53%
Desirable	94%	6%
Likely	53%	24%

15. Community service projects (such as volunteering in a homeless shelter) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	6%	88%
Desirable	41%	41%
Likely	6%	76%

16. Social exchange experiences (spending the night in jail, applying for welfare) are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
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Currently true	0	88%
Desirable	24%	53%
Likely	14%	71%

17. Public speaking, writing for publication, media relations, and other non-traditional communication skills training are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	29%	71%
Desirable	71%	29%
Likely	41%	47%

18. Case studies are used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	65%	35%
Desirable	76%	18%
Likely	71%	24%

19. Role playing is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	47%	47%
Desirable	82%	13%
Likely	59%	24%

20. Traditional lecture based classroom indoctrination is the primary method of teaching community policing in basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	71%	24%
Desirable	6%	64%
Likely	71%	24%

21. Community policing is embedded in every aspect of the basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently	6%	94%

true		
Desirable	71%	24%
Likely	24%	35%

22. PBL (Problem Based Learning) is currently used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	47%	47%
Desirable	82%	6%
Likely	59%	12%

23. Reflective journaling is currently used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	24%	71%
Desirable	35%	35%
Likely	29%	41%

24. Community policing is currently reflected in the policy and practice of basic police training academies.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	35%	47%
Desirable	88%	6%
Likely	59%	18%

25. Release time from training or during the course of the basic police academy is provided for trainees to enable them to engage in community service.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	18%	82%
Desirable	53%	24%
Likely	18%	46%

26. Discussion of current events is used as part of the community policing curriculum in basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	53%	35%
Desirable	88%	6%
Likely	65%	18%

27. Required reading in subjects that are not strictly law enforcement related is a part of the community policing instruction in basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	12%	71%
Desirable	65%	24%
Likely	29%	35%

28. Daily reinforcement of community policing themes, philosophy, and practice is a part of community policing training in basic police training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently	24%	71%

true		
Desirable	65%	18%
Likely	41%	24%

29. Scenario training in high risk, low occurrence events associated with “officer survival training” in the military assault model is being reduced to accommodate or integrate community policing training more fully in basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	0	82%
Desirable	18%	65%
Likely	12%	59%

30. Community policing currently is taught primarily as a stand alone block of instruction.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	59%	35%
Desirable	18%	65%
Likely	35%	29%

31. Where available, college faculty or other qualified civilians are utilized to instruct in basic police academies.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	76%	18%
Desirable	82%	18%
Likely	82%	6%

32. Group and team activities requiring cooperation, collaboration, and consensus building are part of the curriculum for community policing training in the basic police academy.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	41%	47%
Desirable	88%	6%
Likely	65%	12%

33. Community policing is presented in a theoretical context which lacks practical application. There should be more hands-on training relating to community policing in basic police academy training.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	65%	18%
Desirable	76%	12%
Likely	41%	24%

34. Performance measures for assessing competence in community policing concepts and skills have been adequately developed or applied in community policing training at the basic police academy training level. Academies are doing a good job of knowing if community policing is being well taught and learned.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	6%	76%
Desirable	88%	6%
Likely	35%	24%

35. There is adequate training time allotted for community policing topics in the basic police training academy.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	35%	53%

Desirable	94%	0
Likely	59%	12%

36. Community policing is expanded and integrated into new curriculum as new subjects and blocks of instruction are added to the academy curriculum.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	18%	65%
Desirable	76%	6%
Likely	41%	24%

37. Character is as highly valued as are skills in the basic police training academy.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	65%	24%
Desirable	100%	0
Likely	88%	6%

38. Police administrators are highly aware of what is going on at basic police training academies.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
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Currently true	41%	53%
Desirable	100%	0
Likely	53%	18%

39. Minorities and woman are well represented among academy trainees and instructional staff.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	47%	47%
Desirable	81%	0
Likely	59%	12%

40. Basic police training academies have reached a professional consensus on the best way to teach, indoctrinate, and evaluate community policing in the academy curriculum.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	6%	82%
Desirable	88%	6%
Likely	41%	29%

41. Trainers and administrators in basic police academies are selected, trained, and rewarded for their community policing knowledge, skills, practice, and promotion.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	18%	65%
Desirable	76%	6%
Likely	35%	24%

42. Core values espoused officially and unofficially by police departments, police leaders, and role models in policing ,are consistent with community policing and those espoused in the basic training environment.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	47%	47%
Desirable	88%	6%

Likely	47%	12%
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43. Multi-agency and pre-service basic police academies' community policing training suffers from the influences of city, county, and state pressures on curriculum and values.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	41%	29%
Desirable	6%	71%
Likely	35%	24%

44. Community policing training in single agency basic police academies suffers from external pressures on curriculum and values.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	24%	29%
Desirable	0	56%
Likely	29%	29%

training and are therefore the single most influential source of promoting community policing at the basic police academy level.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	59%	35%
Desirable	38%	38%
Likely	59%	29%

46. Agency heads (Sheriffs, Chiefs, Directors) are involved in introducing community policing to trainees at the basic training academy in order to emphasize the importance of community policing.

Q1	Agree	Disagree
Currently true	29%	59%
Desirable	76%	12%
Likely	35%	24%

VITA

Joel F. Shults was born in Rolla, Missouri on October 14th, 1956. After graduating Rolla Senior High School he continued to work for a local grocer until he was able to begin attending Central Missouri State University in the winter term of 1975. His college education was not a straight path, being delayed frequently for one goal or another. In the fall of 1976 he enlisted in the Missouri Army National Guard and attended Basic Combat Training and military police school, rejoining college in the spring. After earning an A.A. degree from CMSU (now UCM) he joined the Warrensburg Police Department to fulfill a dream of becoming a police officer. While on the WPD he completed his bachelor's and master's degrees, becoming a husband and father while working full time, attending school, and earning sergeant stripes in the guard.

Mr. Shults' police career was varied as he served in patrol, investigations, community relations, training, and supervision. In 1989 the Shults family moved to Colorado where he full time police academy instructor at Trinidad State College. In 1995 Mr. Shults became Chief Shults, called on to manage an 18 member police department in Walsenburg, Colorado. Returning to civilian teaching in 1997, Chief Shults became Professor Shults with Hannibal-LaGrange College until accepting the position of Public Safety Director of Adams State College in Alamosa Colorado in June of 2007.

Chief Shults' richest accomplishments are being husband to a gifted wife Cheryl, and being father to their adult children Jen and Michael.