AN ANALYSIS OF CITIZEN'S PERCEPTIONS OF POLICE-

COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROGRAMS AND SERVICES

AND THE RELATIONSHIP OF BOTH DOGMATISM

AND RACE TO THOSE PERCEPTIONS

By

FRED IRWIN KLYMAN

Bachelor of Science
Memphis State University
Memphis, Tennessee
1967

Master of Education
Memphis State University
Memphis, Tennessee
1970

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College
of the Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
December, 1973

AN ANALYSIS OF CITIZEN'S PERCEPTIONS OF POLICE-

COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROGRAMS AND SERVICES

AND THE RELATIONSHIP OF BOTH DOGMATISM

AND RACE TO THOSE PERCEPTIONS

Thesis Approved:

_____
Thesis Adviser

_____

_____

_____

_____
Dean of the Graduate College

911070

DEDICATION

This doctoral dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my
beloved mother, Lena Omell Klyman. Her love for learning and scholarly
accomplishment was exceeded only by her affinity for demonstrated
humanism. As the emanator of the motivation which underlies my striving
for academic accomplishment, she struggled both financially and psycho-
logically to encourage me to become a "real doctor." The typical jewish
mother assumes that only physicians are "real doctors." I was truly
fortunate that my jewish mother was atypical in that she subscribed to a
greater jewish ideology which recognized academic and scholarly pursuits
as a higher, more desirable ethos than the attainment of professional
status which surrounds the practice of medicine. Since she demonstrated
an acute awareness of what being a "real doctor" was all about, I dedi-
cate this dissertation to her loving memory with the singular hope that
it marks the inception of the fulfillment of her enlightened
expectations.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This dissertation comes to fruition as a result of the efforts of many persons other than the author. This expression of acknowledgment minimally depicts the depth and breadth of their input; yet it does emphasize that academic research is a joint enterprise which exists because a number of persons are willing to actively engage in mutually dependent learning experiences. The dissertation which follows is a manifestation of those experiences. The contribution of each of the following persons cannot be contrasted on a continuum by degrees of significance; quite the contrary, each must be considered as unique and significant.

My sincere appreciation is conveyed to the following persons for their contributions to this dissertation.

My wife, Amy, for her personal sacrifices and ability to cope with the volatile personality of a doctoral candidate. My children, Marnie (age 5) and Alicia (age 4) for serving as realistic critics of this dissertation in that they consistently fell asleep when its substantive sections were read to them.

Dr. Thomas Karman, for humanistically guiding my research, direct-ing my fumbling efforts, and for serving as a model which has had sig-nificant impact on my professional development as both scholar and teacher of future scholars. The other members of my committee, Drs. Russell Dobson, James Rhea, and Ken Wiggins, for their encourage-ment and empathetic responsiveness.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

x

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Beginning in the early 1930's, institutions of higher learning
started to direct greater attention to the educational needs of the law
enforcement profession. As a result of that attention, specialized
curricula emerged which emphasized the application of scientific methods
of police work designed to prepare better both police officers and also
candidates for police careers to perform the tasks which were incumbent
upon those who enforced the law. During that period, the typical cur-
riculum included course topics concerned with those functions--such as
criminalistics, criminal investigation, traffic safety, and patrol
techniques.

More recently, a new dimenison in the police function has begun to
receive attention, for in 1957, the St. Louis Police Department imple-
mented the first formalized work unit to provide specialized community
relations services. Since then, the American police enterprise has
become increasingly involved in a broad spectrum of programs and ser-
vices which have been equated with the generic term "police-community
relations" (PCR) (Brown, 1971). The term has become a part of police
jargon, denoting the processes, work units, and practitioner behaviors
which have emanated recently from a pervasive ideology that the police
must become part of--and not apart from--the communities they serve
(McEvoy, 1969).

Although the term "police-public relations" has been used

interchangably with PCR, Germann (1970, p. 147) has drawn clear distinc-

tions between these functions as they relate to law enforcement:

> Public relations activities. The planning of programs
> designed to gain and hold the good will and support of the
> general public. Such a unit often handles press relations,
> prepares announcements, bulletins and reports for the
> general public, conducts liaison with community organiza-
> tions, sends representatives of the agency to address groups,
> prepares motion picture and photographic informational mate-
> rial, works with educational institutions, and, in general
> attempts to secure public support and cooperation.
>
> Community relations activities. That dialog and discus-
> sion which involves 'two-way' communication with all indi-
> viduals and groups in the community (popular, cooperative,
> supportive, and 'as well', unpopular, negative and rebellious
> in order to develop meaningful public participation (at beat
> and precinct level) in police policy formulation, decision
> making, administration and operations.

By operational description, PCR spans diverse topics such as the

operation of storefront centers, athletic leagues, counseling programs,

job placement, and other social welfare services; pre-service and in-

service community relations training models, techniques of police-

human relations, police-minority group relations, and police-youth

relations; and the development of the so-called crime prevention pro-

grams, to name but a few.

Even with the St. Louis example, however, it was not until the

early 1960's that courses which were concerned with this new and diverse

dimension of the police function began to appear in criminal justice

higher education programs. Since 1965, these American junior colleges,

four-year colleges, and universities which have provided criminal

justice education programs have included PCR as a component of their

curricular offerings with increased frequency.

The effective PCR programs strives to facilitate community problem

solving through cooperative "first-hand" experiences between police and citizens. Such programs emphasize active citizen involvement in all aspects of PCR programming as a means for attaining cooperation and mutual understanding between police and community.

Yet, one of the crucial variables in such programs has been the attitudes of the police who are associated with them. Recognizing that, it can be said that criminal justice programs available in institutions of higher learning have incorporated offerings in PCR for basically two purposes. The first purpose is to encourage students to internalize positive attitudes toward PCR. The second purpose is to develop student knowledge, application, and evaluation of PCR which enhance viable citizen participation in the program determination process. As a recent phenomenon, PCR has been influenced by contemporary ideologies which emphasize the significance of citizen in-put and citizen evaluation with respect to both the formulation of governmental policies and the creation of programs and services designed to carry out such policies. Recognizing that citizen in-put appears to be related to success, it therefore seems prudent to explore ways of maximizing such input both in the creation of and the evaluation of police community relationships.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The Police-Community Relations Literature

Contemporary America is characterized by great diversity, mobility,
and rapid change. It is a nation which possesses a rigid socio-economic
class system and a variety of minority and ethnic groups. During the
last fifty years, America has experienced movement toward increased
levels of urbanization accompanied by population overcrowding, espe-
cially in the ghetto -- which, in turn, has yielded increased crime and
social unrest. In this setting, the police function and roles are par-
ticularly complicated, delicate, and important.

The awareness that tensions exist between the police and the com-
munity has inspired both numerous expository publications and a few
empirical research studies which have attempted to analyze these prob-
lems and to recommend or initiate programs to alleviate or ameliorate
them. The following represents a selected review of that literature.

The Role of the Police in the Community

Much of the recent literature concerning Police-Community Relations
(PCR) has attempted to define the proper role of the police in the com-
munity. The idea of role, as used by many social scientists, includes
both actions -- e.g., that police drive squad cars and break up fights
-- and expectations -- e.g., that police apprehend dangerous criminals.

The policeman's role, unlike those of many other occupations, has been relatively ambiguous, for the policeman serves as both a friend and a protector. Ideally, he strives to assure safety on the streets and to preserve the peace. Yet, in addition to guaranteeing safety and peace, the officer is also a convenient person who can be called upon to perform a variety of services when a citizen is confronted with an unusual situation -- e.g., when neighbors are excessively clamorous, when a cat is caught in a tree, or when a child is lost. On the other hand, the policeman can also represent a foe and repressor, for he can inhibit freedom, issue traffic citations, regulate crowd behavior, intervene in instances of family crises, investigate and interrogate persons who are suspected of or involved in some illegal activity, and perform the processes of arrest, search, and seizure attendant to such illegal activity.

In addition to the basically dual function of an officer, the tasks of the policeman vary from the urban to the rural setting, from large cities to small cities, and from district to district within each of these jurisdictions. Each precinct has its own unique problems. For example, a precinct located near shipping and industrial complexes will be confronted with problems quite different from those of a precinct in an area like Greenwich Village where there are coffeehouses, demonstrations, and nonconformists (Black, 1968). Yet regardless of the differences which are associated appropriately with a specific setting, PCR problems assume the greatest magnitude in the urban community.

Police in the Urban Community. There is some agreement among police administrators that the police in the city find themselves in the middle of situations they did not cause and responsible for enforcing

laws they did not make (Routh, 1966). The central controversy is
whether the police should be essentially non-involved enforcers of the
law or whether they should expand their service functions, working
actively to alleviate the conditions which cause crime, delinquency, and
injustice in their areas.

The former orientation, which stresses the objective enforcement
function of the police role, is exemplified by the model created by
Bernard L. Garmire (1961), Chief of Police of Tucson, Arizona, who pro-
vided a traditional definition of the police functions as:

a) the preservation of peace;

b) the protection of life and property;

c) the enforcement of laws; and

d) the apprehension of law breakers.

He, and others, suggested that those police departments which maintained
a high degree of expertise in these fundamental areas rendered the best
service to their community (Adams, 1968; Ashenhurst, 1956).

Central to this orientation is an implicit detachment from the
broader, environmental causes of crime (Misner and Hoffman, 1967; Preiss
and Ehrlich, 1966; Wilson, 1968). This approach to police work was
emphasized by Los Angeles - Devonshire Division, a large metropolitan
police force in the West, where the stated policies of the department
placed the stress on the tactical necessities of the police maintaining
order, rather than stressing the etiology of any given instance of dis-
order (Los Angeles Police Department, 1968).

A vivid example of the effects of increased concentration on the
basic police task was revealed by Commissioner Thomas Adams of the New
York Police Department. When a precinct with a high crime rate was

assigned over twice the usual number of patrol officers for a period of several months with no other operational factors being modified, the result was a decrease in the crime rate by 55% and a 66% increase in the number of crimes for which an arrest was effected. Adams concluded that this resulted from the substantial increase in manpower. He further speculated that an increase in manpower was more desirable than initiating new programs as an operational methodology for decreasing crime (Dougherty, 1964; New York Police Department, 1970; Rigert, 1968).

In line with that same basic attitude regarding police work, several sources e.g., (Lohman and Misner, 1967; National Advisory Commission, 1968; Pfiffner, 1967) have claimed that the police are called upon to perform too many duties which are unrelated to law enforcement. Banton (1964) has noted that policemen do a good deal of complaining about having to undertake work they consider beneath the dignity of the law enforcement practitioner, such as impounding stray dogs and putting up no parking signs (see also Brandstatter and Radelet, 1968).

In contrast with those who assign to the police a narrowly defined function of enforcing laws, advocates of community involvement urge police to participate in all community problem-solving activities and be more emphatically concerned with justice, as well as with enforcing law. Not surprisingly, many of those who have commented positively on PCR advance this position (Curry, 1962; Germann, 1965; Mihanovich, 1956). San Jose, California, Police Chief Ray Blackmore (1954, p. 228), one of the numerous articulate exponents of this view, has stated:

> The police cannot operate in a vacuum. We can no longer neglect the social problems that are so prevalent in our community. For many years, we have just gone with the tide of social problems. We are beginning to realize that police cannot remain passive bystanders . . . The police must engage in service work.

private homes; 32 stray horses were given shelter; 7 children were

found; and 29 physicians were called. The community service approach of

the New York Police in the 1870's included such duties as the removing

of obstructions from public streets, and the guarding of public health.

Officers were also expected to "assist, advise and protect immigrants,

strangers, and travelers in public streets" (Costello, 1855, p. 294.

Other duties of the Boston police consisted of handling:

misdemeanor and irregularities affecting the safety, the
peace, and convenience and comfort of the community; the
license laws; ordinances regulating the streets, trucks,
carts, carriages and horses, dogs, exhibitions, and public
shows; . . . trespasses and offenses of the public shows;
. . . trespasses and offenses on the common malls; . . .
the sale of wood and bark; . . . woodsawers; . . . unautho-
rized fireworks; . . . danger from lighted pipes and cigars,
games and plays; . . . paving of streets, footwalks; . . .
dirt and rubbish; . . . erecting of building; . . . and
various other subjects (Lane, 1967, p. 19).

In 1834 during a cholera epidemic in Boston, the police removed

1,500 loads of dirt, reportedly emptied 3,120 privies, and daily visited

"every house in Boston" to check on the disease. The city physician and

some volunteers made daily visits to police stations, which served as

temporary hospital facilities for citizens affected by the cholera

epidemic.

In the 1880's, Boston policemen were required to maintain a list of

physicians who were registered in their respective precincts in order to

contact them when citizens needed medical services. Public funds were

allocated to absorb the expenses related to such medical services for

the poor, and the precinct captain was responsible for authorizing the

payment order.

During the same time, police officers inspected all tenement and

lodging houses to assess the quality of sanitary conditions. Also, due

to the large number of steam boiler explosions, the police were required

to make power facility safety inspections and to test and license the

operators (Costello, 1885).

During this era, the City of Boston also distributed financial

relief to the poor in the form of a "charity fund." The police has pri-

mary responsibility for its administration. In addition, the Boston

police implemented a charity fund of their own, distributed coal to the

poor, and -- in the 1850's -- began to act as agents for the overseers

of the poor, investigating and recommending action on several hundred

cases a year. In 1864, Boston patrolmen were instructed to assist

applicants for shelter and relief by directing them to the proper social

agency.

One facet of early police work that seems atypical to modern theo-

rists of police administration was the Bostonian police practice of

furnishing lodging for the poor in police stations (Lane, 1967). New

York City had similar experiences. Between 1861 and 1869, a total of

880,161 persons were furnished lodging by the police of that city

(Costello, 1885).

Early Twentieth Century History of PCR. At the turn of the cen-

tury, a number of departments in the United States recognized that it

was a police responsibility to report conditions of individual distress.

The Commissioner of Police in New York City noted that:

> Policemen on the beat probably come more intimately into con-
> tact with the life of the people than any other class of men,
> and their wide opportunities for observation can be harnessed
> into various forms of constructive social work (Fosdick, 1920,
> pp. 375-376).

Fosdick (1920, p. 373) emphasized this widespread increased focus on the

police role in providing social services:

In many cities such as Indianapolis, Newark, and Seattle, it is the practice to detail policemen to assist probation officers attached to juvenile courts.

Obviously, this work involves the constant association of the police welfare or juvenile officers with representatives of other organizations . . . such as truant officers, the Children's Society, etc. This is a point of great importance. Police work cannot be isolated from other welfare agencies of the community concerned with social problems. It cannot be divorced from all the organizing influences that are working for better conditions in city life . . . The new policing demands a type of officer interested and trained in social service.

During 1910 and 1920, the New York City Police Department formally initiated a number of community service activities which were youth-service oriented. Carefully-chosen patrolmen were assigned to ten precincts with the single duty of looking after young people who were delinquent or who seemed to be disposed toward delinquency. According to the then commissioner of the New York Department, "these cases often involved . . . destitute home conditions which could be corrected by enlisting the aid of some private welfare association" (Fosdick, 1920, p. 373).

The New York Police Department also participated in the establishment of new city playgrounds, and play streets were located where traffic was excluded between certain hours to allow for youth recreation. Officers worked with private agencies in order to obtain a number of backyard playgrounds in high-crime areas. Uniformed policemen were assigned to interact with children in public schools to enhance police-youth relationships.

In 1916, 40,000 New York City children were entertained at Christmastime in police stations. This idea of having such Christmas parties was soon copied by other cities.

In 1917, the New York Police Department implemented the Junior

Police Program which organized approximately six thousand boys between the ages of 11 and 16 into 32 different precinct units. The boys were uniformed, drilled, and given classroom instruction in safety and first aid, traffic safety, and law. They also participated in recreational and athletic meets under the New York Police sponsorship.

During this same period of time, because unemployment was rampant, a financial aid fund was raised among the police themselves to provide monetary help for the poor. The captain of every precinct had a supply of books of tickets, each representing different amounts of money. The police made arrangements with restaurants, groceries, and fuel dealers to accept the tickets and bill the police precinct every week for commodities provided the poor through the auspices of this program. Throughout New York, police officers took persons in need:

> to the station house where the captain or lieutenant in charge would provide at once for his immediate needs and would then put him in touch with some private association or church where help would be continued as long as necessary. 'We believe it was the duty of the police,' said Commissioner Woods, 'to protect society by preventing as much as possible of the crime that might be committed by these unfortunate people in their distress.' During the three years in which this plan was in operation in New York, 3,262 families and individuals were thus assisted (Fosdick, 1920, p. 375).

In this period of time, the police considered themselves to be an appropriate agency to find jobs for many unemployed persons. In fact, the police frequently created jobs where none had existed, such as keeping streets and sidewalks clean by picking up waste paper and other litter in order to give the unemployed a source of income. From 1914 to 1917, over three thousand people were employed by the New York Police in such capacities.

Police services were not just restricted to the typical law-abiding citizens, for in 1916, the New York City Police Department was active in

effecting employment for ex-convicts. This program was advanced by the department in the furtherance of crime prevention. The Police Commissioner promised the inmates of Sing Sing Prison that the New York Police Force would not "hound" ex-convicts; instead, the inmates were told that if they wanted to earn an honest living and lead an honest life, the Police Department would not only give them a chance, but would assist them in finding non-criminal jobs.

The fact that, prior to 1920, the police in large municipalities were utilized extensively as parole and probation officers may have been one reason why they did this. For instance, in New York, 84 police sergeants were assigned to act as parole officers to supervise men released from jails, penitentiaries, and workhouses. Almost fifteen hundred men and boys were assigned to the care of these officers. These police/parole officers were instructed to help their charges get work, to make contact with them at least once a week, and to demonstrate that the officer was prepared to enter into a joint venture leading to the parolee's subsequent rehabilitation. The St. Louis and Los Angeles Police Departments also maintained similar parole and probation bureaus within their agencies which were staffed by sworn officers (Fosdick, 1920).

Contemporary Community Involvement. Although the police today no longer perform many of the tasks that were so beneficial to the community in earlier periods, Epstein (1962) estimated that 90% of more recent police functions centered around activities which were unrelated to crime control or law enforcement. Cumming (1965) reported that one-half of the calls for assistance received by an urban police department involved family crisis or other complaints of a personal or

interpersonal nature. Raymond Parnas (1967), studying just one month of Chicago's 1966 police records, reported that only 17% of the 134,369 calls to the police in the city were classified as "Criminal Incident". Of the remaining 83%, 12,544 were related to traffic accident calls, and 96,826 were classified as "Miscellaneous Non-Criminal." This last category accounted for approximately 80% of all calls for police service. Misner (1967) has also indicated that police departments have new missions in urban situations that call into question the assumption that the policemen's task is to control crime and investigate criminals, for he reported that more than 80% of police time has been spent in non-criminal matters. These non-criminal, interpersonal incidents include anything from a family quarrel to neighbors making too much noise. In other words, the policeman makes very few arrests in comparison with the human relations work that he does.

For instance, Liberman (1969) discovered that in Baltimore almost 50% of those who were admitted to the state mental hospitals (or the families of such patients) utilized the police as a community helping resource prior to admission. In order to understand better why so many people used the police for help in obtaining mental health services, a comparison was made between first-admission patients who used the police (N = 17) and those who used more conventional medical resources (N = 35). The results indicated that individuals who called the police did so because more conventional mental health resources either were not as accessible and did not provide services for recalcitrant patients. Liberman concluded that unless community mental health agencies developed more active evaluation and treatment programs for reluctant patients, the police should continue to fulfill this role.

This service-orientation approach can be further separated into nonpunitive service duties and community involvement services (Wilson, 1968b). In regard to the former, Charles Chamberline (1968) claimed that the service functions normally associated with the local police may be the single best means of maintaining strong popular support, as well as being dictated by the traditions of a given jurisdiction (see also Promrenke et al., 1967).

However, it is with great difficulty that theorists draw the distinctions between police and non-police duties. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice (1967) recognized an operational dichotomy between the two, but it also emphasized the value of so-called non-police duties being more adequately identified as a community service component of a total police effort. Thus, the commission asserted that, because this dichotomy was not substantiated, the service and enforcement aspects of the police roles were unitary. The commission vividly expressed its position vis-a-vis this recurring debate:

> Those who believe that policemen should be relieved of all
> duties not directly relevant to enforcing the law have a
> number of arguments: That full-time service duties --
> traffic direction and so forth -- are a waste of the time
> and the skills of people who have been specifically trained
> for fighting crime; that every minute a patrolman spends
> off patrol is a minute during which a crime that he might
> have deterred may be committed; that a patrolman busy on a
> service call is out of communication with superiors who may
> want him for an emergency call; that the only way policemen
> can become crime specialists they should be is by concen-
> trating exclusively during every working hour on crime;
> that the routine performance of trivial duties discourages
> able men from entering police work and drives other able
> men out of it.
>
> The opposing arguments are that traffic officers often do
> deter crimes or solve them by virtue of their presence and
> availability; that answering service calls stimulates public
> esteem for and cooperation with the police, helps familiarize

policemen with the community and furnishes investigative
leads to alert and intelligent officers; that opportunities
to be friendly and useful are psychologically valuable to
men who spend much of their time dealing with the seamy side
of life.

The Commission has had difficulty in analyzing these argu-
ments empirically. Police department records rarely reveal
what proportion of working time policemen spend on what
activities -- preventive patrol, answering service calls,
investigating crimes, appearing in court, writing reports,
directing traffic and so forth. In the absence of conclu-
sive proof to the contrary, the Commission believes that the
performance of many of the nonenforcement duties by the
police helps them to control crime, and that radically
changing the traditional police role would create more prob-
lems than it would solve -- including the problem of finding
other people to perform the indispensable services the police
would be excused from performing (pp. 97-98).

It would seem even more difficult to change police functions which

are related to the non-enforcement duties because the ambiguity of their

roles is especially pronounced in urban slums and ghettos.

Police in the Ghetto. In these areas where minority groups are

concentrated, police are often hated and feared. It is relevant that

the Report of the National Commission on Civil Disorder found that the

great majority of recent urban riots has been sparked by incidents

between police and ghetto residents. The commission concluded that

young blacks are now demonstrating behaviors associated with self-

esteem and enhanced racial pride rather than manifesting earlier behav-

iors associated with apathy and submission to "the system" (Bayley,

1969; National Advisory Commission, 1968; Stahl, 1966). Ghetto resi-

dents have decried the excessive criminal enforcement activity in their

neighborhoods which results from selective enforcement. Even though

Frank J. Remington (1964, 1965) has asserted that selective enforcement

did not represent a conscious attempt on the part of the police to

effect more zealous enforcement in the ghetto, he has also pointed out

how adherence to officially sanctioned selective manpower distribution and selective enforcement (i.e., the most police in areas with the most crime) can -- in practice -- give the impression of unequal enforcement (Misner and Hoffman, 1967).

One question for PCR thus becomes: To what extent do the police allow these ghetto citizens' impressions of the racial prejudices of police to affect their behavior as law enforcement officers. One large West Coast department has recognized that all people probably have prejudices; however, a police officer must learn to distinguish between his right to hold personal opinions as a citizen and his sworn duty as an officer to function as an effective law enforcement practitioner (Los Angeles Police Department, 1968).

In line with this conclusion (or policy statement), several Mid-western police departments, according to a survey conducted by Bouma (1969), indicated that their numbers felt a strong sense of racial dif-ferentiation. In one response, over one-half the officers felt that blacks would have lower moral standards than whites no matter what their economic condition. The same survey noted that three-fourths of the policemen felt that residents of the inner city had become more antago-nistic toward the police during the last ten years. Kuykendall (1970) suggested three possible bases for these negative perceptions of minority groups:

   a) Contact which the police have with these highly visible
       groups is primarily with lawbreakers;

   b) The extent of personal and social disorganization of the
       minority culture is determined by the police on the
       basis of the prevalence of the perceived minority crimi-
       nal deviance and the prevalence of perceived threatening
       situations; and

c) Police must deal with pressure strategies used by
   minorities for effectuating changes in status.

Thus, the police perception of the non-white community as being on
a different level related to how the various members of the community
were perceived. H. Lett (1963) commented, in connection with police-
minority relations, that there was a tendency in police work to sepa-
rate the urban community into a dichotomy: Members of the "in-group"
were judged as individuals while members of the "out-group" were judged
as a single entity and assumed to embrace those characteristics mani-
fested by the lowest common denominator of their experiences with rep-
resentatives of that group. Thus, one black thief made all blacks
thieves, whereas a white thief was merely a thief who happened to be
white.

Contrasting Perceptions of the Police Role

During the past decade, literature dealing with PCR has increas-
ingly focused on role perception as a key to understanding police-
community interaction (i.e., the pattern of expectation about group
conduct).

Police Self-Perception. J. Skolnick (1968d) has concluded that the
policeman sees his role as a function of danger and authority with a
constant pressure from the department for efficiency. This has two
consequences for PCR: (1) the development of a feeling of separateness
from the rest of the population, which does not share the dangers of
police work; and (2) the reluctance to build strong social bonds within
the police fraternity. An officer, who knows firsthand the difficulties
of making immediate, impartial, legally-correct decisions, will tend to

lend great understanding and support to other officers beset with post-

facto evaluations of their actions. The basis for the police officers'

feelings of aloneness was examined by Clark (1965). In his study of

isolation/integration of the police in the community in Britain and

America, he noted that policemen were generally isolated from the people

in the community because of the citizens' desire for privacy, because

the people were aware of incidences of police incompetence and occa-

sional brutality, because of the general social avoidance of unsavory

elements of society, and because of the occupational, professional, and

official policies of police agencies. Conversely, police were inte-

grated within a given community because they were recognized by the

public as legitimate and because their role was regarded as necessary in

light of community fears of what might happen if the police were not

integrated into the larger society. This recognition led to an ongoing

process of accommodation between police and the policed, with the latter

appearing to believe that cooperation with the police was one way of

achieving better police services.

Many articles dealing with the police self-image have emphasized

the primacy of the basic law enforcement task. Anderson (1968) clearly

stated this with his emphasis on crime fighting as "real police work".

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement (1967) has noted that the

phrase unfortunately left the impression that police work was primarily

a physical battle between policemen and criminals; in fact, as the

Commission went on to note, that was not the case in the vast majority

of the cases in which the policeman intervened.

In contrast with that study, research by the International Associ-

ation of Chiefs of Police (IACP) reported that -- in over three-fourths

of the 106 departments which responded -- over 90% of the police

officers' time was spent on crime-connected duties. In this case, the

precise definition of "crime-connected" is not the issue of signifi-

cance; rather, concern is caused by the apparent tendency on the part

of the departments involved to see their officers as over-whelmingly

occupied with the criminal aspect of their work. Therefore, it would

logically follow, as Michael Banton (1964) has stated, that one of the

most frustrating aspects of the tasks performed by police officers in

the United States and Great Britain would be the large number of

"unpolice-like" duties that they are required to perform (e.g., breaking

up family fights, attempting to find lost children, helping out motor-

ists in distress).

If the police, as indicated above, see themselves as serving the

community by catching criminals, then that essential function would be

greatly enhanced in effectiveness by community support. Indeed, public

apathy has been generally associated with the conviction that if the

community were better informed of police practices and the rationale

behind them, then better community support for the police would result

(IACP, 1965). The problem of citizen apathy has evoked many creative

responses from law enforcement agencies throughout this nation. They

range from citizen rides in cars to police lectures to school children.

Community Perceptions of the Police. Within any metropolitan

area, there are many different "communities," each of which has

apparently a certain perception of the police. Consideration will be

given here to middle-class, youth, and minority perceptions of the

police.

Middle-Class Perceptions. Fleck (1969), who attempted to summarize the attitude of the middle class toward the police, found several basic positions: that the police were seen as servants, not masters; that the primary purpose of the law was to protect individuals; and that the police were the enforcers of accepted moral standards. Keller and Vedder (1965) noted that the conclusion of many middle-class citizens was that the police should be concerned essentially with lower-class criminals and that any enforcement against members of the middle class (especially of traffic violations) was really time that could be better spent on more "serious matters".

According to the popular middle-class conception, the task of the policeman was singularly viewed as a law enforcement practitioner responsible for protecting life and property, for preventing lawlessness, and for apprehending criminal offenders. The disparity which exists between the actual role which police attempt to fulfill and the mass entertainment media version of that role was exemplified by Klyman (1973a, p. 4), who stated:

> Historically, many vectors of American society have advanced
> the myth that the police are merely law enforcers. America's
> movie, television, theatrical, and literary industries, while
> attempting to entertain and enlighten, have served as a co-
> gent force toward the advancement of the police myth. They
> have almost singularly depicted police as portrayers of en-
> forcement roles in an exaggerated and oversimplified 'cops
> and robbers' setting.

Many middle-class citizens are concerned with the issue of police power versus police restraint. This point to another complexity of police work, for the methodologies required to attain police goals may often conflict with the conduct required of the police as legal actors. Some observers believe that police should have more power and more freedom in terms of the law. On the other hand, there are those who

emphasize that the police must rigidly adhere to constitutional re-
straints which comprise the <u>Rule</u> <u>of</u> <u>the</u> <u>Law</u>. Under these circumstances,
the law enforcement component of the criminal justice system is under
appreciable pressure to maintain law and order, yet more often than not
they are strongly criticized if they try to circumvent or exceed the
limits of the law while they are rarely praised for the efficacy of
helping services which they provide.

<u>Youth Perceptions of the Police</u>. The police perception of youths
(and vice versa) cannot be considered without asking which young people
are being referred to. As Scammon pointed out (Scammon and Wattenberg,
1970), there were more persons under age 30 who favored preserving the
status quo than there were who favored change. Nonetheless, it was the
small minority of those seeking profound social change who reflected --
in an extreme form -- many of the attitudes held by many of the
Americans presently entering society as adults. Scammon felt that these
attitudes were concentrated on college campuses where future leaders
were being developed.

In a study conducted at Wichita State University, the Buss-Durkee
Inventory was used to measure the degree to which psychology students
and police officers who were enrolled in college course work exhibited
hostility and aggression. Each group then reversed its role and took
the inventory again (i.e., the participants were told to answer the
questions as they thought the members of the other group would). The
data obtained in the first part of the study did not reveal any statis-
tically significant differences between police officers and psychology
students regarding hostility and aggression levels, yet the second part
of the study revealed that the individual's perception of the amount of

hostility and aggression in the other group was grossly distorted: both

the police students and the psychology students perceived the individ-

uals in the other group as being far more hostile and aggressive than

was actually the case. It was suggested that part of this may be

explainable in sociological terms, i.e., the others being the "out-

group". These results -- which were statistically significant at the

.01 level -- suggested that the misperception might be a matter of a

basic antagonistic attitude (Kruckenberg, 1972).

The results of the Wichita State University study tended to confirm

the rather widespread alienation of college students from the "estab-

lishment" and indicated that this disallusionment may have extended to

the police. Many students believed that the police were "out to stifle

dissent or to harass nonconformists", or "to contain militant minori-

ties". There existed a deep feeling that the police target was not

criminality, but social, cultural, and political differences (Germann,

1967).

Indeed the youthful political demonstrations which were not aimed

at symbolically breaking a law presented a problem for the police. In

this situation those participating were likely to interpret enforcement

as an expression of official disapproval of the purpose of the demon-

stration (George, 1966; Selzman, 1969; Wilson, 1964). It could be noted

that even such a renowned theorist in police administration as O. W.

Wilson (formerly Dean of the University of Southern California School of

Criminology) stated -- at least in private -- that in fact, the police do

have, by virtue of their discretionary powers, the option not to arrest

(Goldstein, 1960; Wilson, 1968d).

Minority Perceptions of the Police. Although the question of

minority-group perceptions of the police is an urgent one, there has been a paucity of research in the area. Bouma (1969) stated that minority groups tended to see the police as discriminatory in their enforcement of many laws. This survey indicated that 65% of a sample of Northern blacks felt that the police were prejudiced against them, as contrasted with 60% of the Southern blacks.

The attitude of three different groups of high school students toward police was reported by Kuchel and Pottavina (1969). Their conclusion was that the difference between lower-, and working-, and upper-class schools was primarily a result of the frequency of contact with the police. The working- and upper-class students had much larger totals under "don't know" while the lower-class (predominately black) students showed very small totals under this heading. Substantive results from the survey indicated that the lower-class youths had a greater fear of, and less respect for, the police than the other two groups, but those black youth tended to see the police job as better paid and more desirable than did the other two.

In an extensive study of a western city in which the local police officers interviewed citizens regarding police roles in the community, it was concluded that the black community considered the police as being either "highly insensitive toward the minority culture" or "racist". The tighter policies of the ghetto -- e.g., the higher arrest rate, stricter juvenile curfew enforcement, arrest for the sake of harassment -- contributed to the ghetto-dwellings' general view of the police as a symbol of white injustice (San Diego Model Cities Program, 1970).

Yet, the amazing paradox was that the police were the ghetto residents' most important source of help in times of illness, personal

minority-group perceptions of the police is an urgent one, there has

been a paucity of research in the area. Bouma (1969) stated that

minority groups tended to see the police as discriminatory in their

enforcement of many laws. This survey indicated that 65% of a sample

of Northern blacks felt that the police were prejudiced against them,

as contrasted with 60% of the Southern blacks.

The attitude of three different groups of high school students

toward police was reported by Kuchel and Pottavina (1969). Their con-

clusion was that the difference between lower-, and working-, and upper-

class schools was primarily a result of the frequency of contact with

the police. The working- and upper-class students had much larger

totals under "don't know" while the lower-class (predominately black)

students showed very small totals under this heading. Substantive re-

sults from the survey indicated that the lower-class youths had a

greater fear of, and less respect for, the police than the other two

groups, but those black youth tended to see the police job as better

paid and more desirable than did the other two.

In an extensive study of a western city in which the local police

officers interviewed citizens regarding police roles in the community,

it was concluded that the black community considered the police as being

either "highly insensitive toward the minority culture" or "racist".

The tighter policies of the ghetto -- e.g., the higher arrest rate,

stricter juvenile curfew enforcement, arrest for the sake of harassment

-- contributed to the ghetto-dwellings' general view of the police as a

symbol of white injustice (San Diego Model Cities Program, 1970).

Yet, the amazing paradox was that the police were the ghetto

residents' most important source of help in times of illness, personal

on an open highway) with only a minimal change of being stopped. When

such people are stopped, they tend to attribute it to their bad luck

rather than their legal violation (Gardner, 1966; Schmideberg, 1960;

Skolnick, 1966c).

As rapid social change has increasing impact on police determina-

tion of which laws to enforce, it is likely that police roles will con-

comitantly become increasingly ambiguous. For example, it is not at

this point clear whether the police ought to delegate the traffic en-

forcement function to another agency of government in order to assume

greater responsibility for providing enforcement functions which protect

the environment.

Rapid social change has made issues such as those mentioned by

Skolnick vital national concerns. Donald Bouma (1969) has analyzed one

crucial factor: the demise of the stereotype (see also Kimble, 1969).

Due to the subjective nature of operational decision-making in law

enforcement, it seemed to him essential that the officer be able to

identify accurately and quickly the potential lawbreaker and be able to

distinguish him from the non-offender. Today, there is even less cer-

tainty that behavior and attitude toward the police will follow predict-

ably from the social standing of groups or individuals.

Both statutory and case law, as the basis for police legitimacy,

have been affected by social change. Two aspects appear to have gained

special attention from professional writers -- the law which is inten-

tionally broken for the purposes of furthering some political/social

goal, and the effects for police of enforcing laws during demonstrations

not specifically aimed at breaking the law (McMillan, 1964; New York

University Graduate School of Public Administration, 1963; Towler,

1964). Quinn Tamm (1965) has commented with regard to the initial point
that respect for the law is being replaced with the assumption that
selective law-breaking is itself a praiseworthy act if it is intended to
further some worthy purpose (Scott, 1962; Waskow, 1966).

Social change has been instrumental in limiting police initiative
in two ways. First, court decisions in recent years have had the effect
of disallowing certain previously accepted police criminal practices,
especially with regard to confessions and searches (Edwards, 1968;
Goldstein, 1968a; Remington, 1964). The International Association of
Chiefs of Police has expressed concern, as have many other law enforce-
ment professionals, that the balance between the rights of the indi-
vidual and the rights of society has swung too far toward the former,
resulting in a deleterious effect on police capacity to maintain order.
Herbert T. Klein (1968) has illuminated a working policeman's frustra-
tion with what he called the "procedural" orientation of many of the
nation's highest courts (see also Van Allen, 1968). He emphasized that
the police task is, in essence, to apprehend criminals and prevent
crime -- and that present evidence indicates that this battle is being
lost.

That the very definition of the police function has been the sub-
ject of such a high volume of comment in the past decade reflects both
a high degree of social frement nationally and an appreciably growing
tendency on the part of law enforcement practitioners toward critical
self-evaluation. In America, popular expectations of the police have
always been somewhat ambiguous, accepting the image of the lawman stand-
ing for fair play but not accepting official interference in personal
affairs (Silver, 1967). The increasing urbanization and technological

growth which have produced a changing society have not modified this

traditional attitude. They have, however, profoundly affected both the

nature of and the means to accomplish police goals.

There are some practitioners who have held that the police could be

of service in leading their community toward definite social goals

(Curry, 1962; Earle, 1969; Jones, 1966). Others such as Herman

Goldstein (1968) considered it significantly more desirable to avoid

any attempts at political directionality, while still striving for an

understanding of the issues at hand (Cumming et al., 1965; Goldstein,

1968b; Wilson, 1964). Patrick V. Murphy, while he was the assistant

director of Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, asserted that it

was possible to work against the roots of crime while becoming

politically committed (Murphy, 1967; Germann, 1970).

Professionalization and Image Improvement. Increasing crime rates

and decreasing respect for law enforcement have led many professionals

to ask how these trends may be countered. Aaron's (1965a) article was

representative of the self-examination that has marked the literature

of the past decade. Professionalization has generally been accepted as

a means of both gaining community respect and improving the quality of

police services. This concept has two aspects: individual profession-

alization concerns the job performance of every officer (Aaron, 1965b);

departmental professionalization entails organizational changes, the

adoption of more sophisticated technologies, and the improvement of

methodologies and physical systems for police training.

Individual Professionalization. Louis Radelet (1966), a pioneer in

this area, has proposed personal professionalization as a balance

between benefits accruing to police -- especially higher pay, public support, and greater respect -- and a new set of obligations.

J. D. Lohman (1968, p. 320) brought out a similar consideration when he defined the professional officer as one who "must understand the effects and implications of his skills and techniques so that he may be able to decide which ones to apply in a particular instance." According to Lohman, this was the fundamental distinction between a professional practitioner and a technician. For instance, if the task to be carried out is the dispersal of an unruly group of citizens, a professional attitude demands that the officer have some knowledge of the reactions of the people involved and which general techniques are most likely to work in that particular instance. It is precisely this type of situation which is most aggravated by unprofessional action. The many commission reports on riots have all concluded that the most common immediate cause is some form of police-citizen conflict.

The implication of this concept of a professional attitude for community relations is tremendous. The police officer needs to know both how to make an objective judgment and when to "step out" of the professional role and to show human concern with the problems of the clients (as indeed a doctor, lawyer, psychologist, or other professional must sometimes do). It is a delicate balance that is easily upset. Technological and other developments in law enforcement (e.g., the use of cars instead of walking a beat) tend to make the officer increasingly separated from those he serves, yet community support depends in a large measure on how well the police can combine empathy with efficiency.

Individual professionalization entails instilling a professional attitude in the officer -- a pride and a confidence. Brannon (1968),

who was then Chief of Police at Kansas City, Missouri, described this as a combination of respect for the community and respect for one's abilities as an officer. Payton (1966) and Price (1963) have written of the ethical standards as a requisite for police professionalization. Several thoughtful writers have interpreted the professional attitude as essentially characterized by detachment and self-control -- one who can react in terms of a specific task-oriented frame of reference, rather than as an individual (Reiss, 1969).

In spite of the abundant literature on police-citizen contact (see, for example, the Police Yearbook 1965-1968), little attention has been focused on professionalization: instead it has tended to delimit the range to issues such as common courtesy (FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 1967; Haagensen, 1969). Lunden (1965) and Phillips (1965) suggested that courtesy should be considered a form of crime prevention, i.e., one is likely to have more respect for the law if one has increased respect for those enforcing it.

The hard-to-achieve blend of detachment and empathy necessary for a professional attitude certainly involves courtesy, but it is something more. It appears, for example, that former New York Police Commissioner Murphy (1967, p. 37) may have been oversimplifying when he asserted "that it's just as easy to take a person into custody by saying 'won't you step this way, sir' as it is to handle him roughly and uncivilly. Either way, he gets to the stationhouse."

Departmental Professionalization. Technological advances and the search for greater effectiveness have lead to changes in police organizational structure. Cowley (1965) indicated that the computer has become a necessity for most major departments today, and it requires not

only new skills but also new concepts of organization. At the very .....

least, this involves setting up a new department of data processing,

which is separate from the records department but takes over many of

its functions. The use of helicopters creates the need for a special

section staffed with pilots and perhaps maintenance personnel. If one

scans any major law enforcement periodical, he will be struck by the

large number of courses in specialized technical fields offered to the

policeman. The challenge posed by this growing fragmentation is summed

up by Mitchel (1966), who concluded that the organization of the future

will have more diversity plus the potential for greatly increased

effectiveness.

The move toward the professional department often reinforces the

one toward the development of the professional policeman. Improved

training offered by a professional department can serve to increase the

patrolman's confidence in himself. New technological developments can

help make the policeman's judgment more accepted by the man on the

street -- especially in areas such as traffic enforcement.

Reiss (1967a) has asserted that only when the officer's judgment is

assumed as authoritative by those with whom he interacts will he be pro-

fessional. Some aspects of departmental professionalization, especially

centralization of command and the growing tendency to make decisions at

the staff level, may not, in Reiss' view, have been leading to a pro-

fessional patrol officer. For PCR, a major important result of this

move toward professionalization may turn out to be the tendency of

specialization and efficiency criteria to limit informal, personal con-

tacts with law enforcement officers. It is to counter this trend that

many of the present programs in PCR have been initiated.

James Q. Wilson (1968e) has hypothesized that there is a qualitative difference between the patrol function and professional orientation. He was therefore, pessimistic about the possibility for change and submitted that a patrol officer role should be that of a member of a craft and not a professional. It is perhaps worthy of mention that law enforcement practitioners have seldom been as pessimistic as Wilson although most recognize problems and challenges which impede professionalization of the police.

Education and Training. A discussion of the importance of individual education to law enforcement must distinguish between the concepts of training and education. Training is considered to be the broad category of preparation for police service that explores the "how to perform" aspects of the law enforcement function. Education, on the other hand, is considered to be preparation for police service that explores the underlying theory and philosophical basis upon which the "how to perform" is predicated (Pitchess, 1970).

Higher standards of recruitment and in-service education for officers already employed have been becoming increasingly more prevalent. Tocchio (1970) stated that the problem with police recruitment was qualitative rather than quantitative, for nationwide there were four times as many applicants as there were openings in law enforcement in 1965, and some departments accepted far fewer applicants -- the Los Angeles Department hired only 2.8% of the applicants. Taylor lamented the fact that state-regulated entry standards for the police profession have not yet exceeded a high school diploma, even though others -- such as barbers or embalmers -- have raised educational requirements to several years (Taylor, 1969). Perhaps one major reason people might avoid

police service is that the immediate prospects for service as a patrol-man might not appeal to many. Hildebrand (1969) suggested that one way to attract more college graduates was direct entry into the detective branch.

Better-educated officers can also be obtained by sending officers already on the force to college. Both Paul M. Whisenand's (1966a) evaluation of the Federal Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965 and Frank Day's (1965) article lucidly expressed the growing interest of the federal government in sending working policemen back to school. Some articles have suggested, however, that college education may have some unintended results. Niederhoffer (1967) has pointed out that the great importance given to education almost guarantees that anyone who studies hard will get promoted -- hence, those who remain as patrolmen will be the "least educated" even though they will be in the closest contact with the community. Other sources note that the more highly-educated the officer, the more difficult he is to keep due to his greater choice of alternative employment. Yet, in-service education is by no means entirely effected in colleges and universities alone. The Wichita Police Department is representative of the large number of agencies that have joined with colleges and universities to offer college-credit courses for both the line and staff officers. Brandstatter (1968) pre-dicted that the development of centers for research on law enforcement problems will greatly enhance the prospect for the educated officer.

The concept of training (as opposed to education) surrounds the technological explosion that has affected most sectors of this society since World War II. Coon (1969) emphasized the idea of police profes-sionalization through technological enforcement. A number of others

have emphasized this idea as well, and the interested reader is referred to bibliographies by Becker and Felkener (1968) and by the International Association of Chiefs of Police (1968) for further information on this subject.

Yet, this same training and specialization might have the adverse effect of downgrading the general patrol function. Arm (1969) has related that every new specialty, in which experts take over from generalists, reduces the sphere of competence of the generalist. Hence, the patrol officer might find himself left with only the most menial and least interesting of tasks, which could lead to lower self-confidence and less community esteem. Nonetheless, the improvement of training facilities and training techniques is usually considered to be an important function of the professional department. For instance, advance training is now being given in statewide programs such as in Oregon (for a description, see Van Asselt, 1967). Another example is the seven-week Advance Police Community Relations Leadership Training Program sponsored by California's POST (Peace Officers Standards and Training Commission) and held at three University of California campuses. Large departments are expanding facilities and using advances such as videotape techniques to explain the problems of law enforcement to students (Bonan, 1967).

It can be said, therefore, that modern urban police departments are being affected by social change and are being expected to develop more professional police officers through training and education. In addition, they are re-examining their role in the community as well as the community perception of them in their role.

Dogmatism Literature

Whether these police-evoked changes toward attaining professional-

ism in contemporary law enforcement will be accepted or rejected by

citizens exhibiting a broad spectrum of dispositions is worthy of con-

sideration. Typically, researchers have focused on authoritarianism as

an index of a given population's disposition to accept or reject social

and political change. However, Milton Rokeach's theory of dogmatism,

which centers on the open and closed mind, is currently receiving con-

siderable attention from social scientists.

According to Rokeach (1954, p. 195), dogmatism was:

(a)   a relatively closed cognitive organization of beliefs
      and disbeliefs about reality,

(b)   organized around a central set of beliefs about
      absolute authority which, in turn,

(c)   provides a framework for patterns of intolerance
      toward others.

By utilizing his theoretical analysis of the function, structure,

and formal content of dogmatism, Rokeach (1956) developed the Dogmatism

Scale (DS), which was designed to measure openness-closedness of dis-

belief systems, general authoritarianism, and general intolerance.

The concept of dogmatism can be structured into three main areas:

authoritarianism, perception, and resistance to change.

Authoritarianism

Of these three areas, authoritarianism has served as the most

popular singular construct to explain human dispositions to accept or

reject any given quantity of information.

Authority figures provide the individual both with a source of

information and a means for validating the information received.

Authority figures may be either positive or negative: the former dis-

pensing information concerning what is true, and the latter, what is

false about the world. Dependence on authority ranges from rational and

tentative, for the open-minded, to arbitrary and absolute for the

closed-minded. Earlier research has indicated that the more open a

person's belief system, the more his learning and problem-solving behav-

ior should be directed by the requirements of the situation rather than

by the demands of authority. Open-minded persons should be more able to

distinguish the source of information from the quality of the informa-

tion (Rokeach, 1960).

Several investigations which have compared the high dogmatic's (HD)

and low dogmatic's (LD) reaction to authority have substantiated

Rokeach's hypothesis (McCarthy and Johnson, 1962; Powell, 1962;

Vidulich and Kaiman, 1961). For example, Kemp (1963) noted that the

LDs perceived authority figures more realistically than the HDs, recog-

nizing both their negative and their positive characteristics. Feather

(1967) found that a relationship existed between dogmatism and member-

ship in religious groups that emphasize authority and tolerate little

argument. Other examples are provided by Norris (1965) and DiRenzo

(1967).

Perception

Perceptual analysis (i.e., the ability to analyze that which has

been perceived) and synthesis (i.e., the ability to abstract and order

the commonalities and differences of that which has been perceived) and

novel visual stimuli (i.e., never before perceived stimuli) have been

explored in relation to dogmatism. Findings in the area of conceptual functioning in problem solving have been extended to perceptual functioning in general by Levy and Rokeach (1960), who hypothesized that HDs and LDs would not differ in perceptual analysis but that HDs would be handicapped in perceptual synthesis. This hypothesis was supported by experiments undertaken by Hellkamp and Marr (1965) and by Iverson and Schwab (1967).

Expanding Rokeach's work on perceptual analysis and synthesis into acceptance or rejection of novel stimuli, Mikol (1960) reported that HDs were more apt to reject novel auditory stimuli than LDs, presumably because of the stimuli's novelty, lack of structure, and synthesizing demands. In another study, Pyron and Kafer (1967) confirmed a similar hypothesis; i.e., that HDs would reject by failing to recall irrational and novel combinations of nonsense sentences.

Rokeach (1954, 1956) also theorized that HDs were characterized by a narrowing of time perspective manifested by a tendency to deny the importance of the present -- that is, they would be future-oriented or past-oriented. The studies done by Rokeach and Bonier (1960) and Zucher, Willis, Ikard, and Dohme (1967) substantiate the non-now orientation of HDs.

Resistance to Change

In this area, the basic principle is that individuals having closed-minds are less able than people having open-minds to learn new beliefs and to change old beliefs. Rokeach has suggested that the dogmatic individual will be threatened by and avoid exposure to

belief-discrepant information because it creates dissonance (Tosi,

Fagan, and Frumkin, 1968; Rosenman, 1967; White and Alter, 1965).

For instance, an attempt to test the relation of open- and closed-

mindedness to the learning of belief-congruent and belief incongruent

materials in a laboratory context was made by Adams and Vidulich (1962).

They compared the performance of the 18 highest domatic and 18 lowest

dogmatic subjects from a pool of 300 students enrolled in an introduc-

tory psychology course. Subjects were presented with a paired-associate

learning task consisting of two word lists -- 15 belief-incongruent

pairs (e.g., ball-square) and 15 belief-congruent (e.g., ball-round)

pairs. The learning criterion was three errorless trials during which

they placed the word pairs in the proper column, and the unit of anal-

ysis was the total number of errors made prior to criterion performance.

Their two major findings were: first, that HDs made significantly more

errors prior to the criterion performance on the incongruent as compared

with congruent associations; second, and unexpectedly that the HDs also

made significantly more errors in learning the congruent associations.

Investigating another facet of the situation, Hallenbeck and

Lundstedt (1966) proposed that adjustment to the gradual onset of blind-

ness should vary among people exhibiting varying degrees of dogmatism.

Closed-minded persons, it was hypothesized, would deny their disability

and repress its affect -- both being indicators of a lack of acceptance

of their loss. Open-minded persons, in contract, were expected to show

depression as a reaction to the disability. Both of the hypotheses

were confirmed by scale and by clinical assessment of 32 males who were

becoming increasingly blind. Correlations of dogmatism with denial

ranged from .42 to .66 and with depression from -.43 to .52. On the

basis of this study, Hallenbeck and Lundstead concluded that the closed-minded person was less willing to accept major changes of the self than the open-minded individual.

Druckman (1967) compared the performance of HDs and LDs in playing the roles of union and management representatives in a simulated bargaining game. He found that, regardless of role, HDs were more resistive to compromise, which they were more apt to view as a defeat.

Zagona and Zurcher (1964, 1965b) observed differences between the HDs and the LDs in interpersonal interactions in an unstructured classroom situation. The HDs were concerned with the problem of leader selection and group structure, and when they were challenged by authority, they tended to become insecure, waivered in their convictions, and exhibited signs of reduced group cohesion. "Intellectual lethargy characterized the atmosphere of the (HD) classroom. An unwillingness to relate . . . to the subject matter, to the instructor, to other students (appeared to exist)" (Zagona and Zurcher, 1965b, p. 216).

The Dogmatism Scale

It must be noted, however, that Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale (DS) has been tested with primarily homogeneous samples of subjects, mainly students or other groups which naturally come together in one place. The reason for this limited testing in field studies is attributed mainly to the length of the scale: it has 40-items and takes at least 20 minutes if self-administered.

After administering the Dogmatism Scale (DS) to a given sample, Rokeach divided all cases at the median to determine the extent of dogmatism (high or low). Those cases falling above the median were

classified as high dogmatic and those cases falling below the median were classified as low dogmatic.

A number of studies have been done on the Rokeach Dogmatism scale that have dealt with important aspects of the scale's construct validity and reliability. Vacchiano, Shiffman, and Strauss (1967) performed a factor analysis on the items of the DS (Dogmatism Scale), noting that although the scale was internally complex, factors tended to group around Rokeach's conceptualizations.

Recognizing the length of Rokeach's scale, Troldahl and Powell (1965) developed a shortened version which consisted of 20-items and was developed by utilizing 227 Boston suburbanites who subscribed to a county agriculture newspaper. The items were selected on the basis of their item-total score correlation. Since the split-half reliability of this shortened version was .79, it can be used without reluctance.

Troldahl and Powell's 20-item short form of the DS served as an appropriate instrument to measure the effect that dogmatism would have on the disposition of citizens to agree or disagree with both existing and proposed PCR programs and services. Accepting the theory of dogmatism as put forth by Rokeach and measured by the Troldahl and Powell instrument, it was expected that there would be a difference in the subjects' degree of agreement or disagreement with existing and proposed PCR programs and services according to whether the subject was HD or LD. Furthermore, it was expected that differences would be present according to the subject's race, and his race when grouped according to HD or LD.

Summary of Review of the Literature on PCR

and Dogmatism

In view of the literature which has been reviewed above, several points can be made. First, historically, police officers have been asked to assume a dual responsibility by the society they serve. First, they have been asked to enforce the laws which that society has made. Second, they have been asked to assist the citizens in a variety of ways which go beyond strict law enforcement. These functions of the police have been traced since the 19th Century and have moved into the 20th Century, although in the present period, many of the services which were formally rendered by the police have been assumed by other social agencies. Nonetheless, it seems clear that the police will continue to discharge functions which go beyond that of law enforcement.

The second point that should be made is that there are varying perceptions of the police role as has been noted. There are those that perceive the contemporary policeman as being strictly an agent of law and order, while, on the other hand, there are elements within the society which stress that the police officer ought to be an integrated part of the greater community and continue to serve the community in a broad range of functions much like the officer during the 19th Century. However, if this broader concept of police work is to be effective, it is nearly a foregone conclusion that there must be a high degree of cooperation between the police agency and the citizens. In this sense, the police become not an isolated agency which only serves the citizen, rather it becomes a cooperative endeavor in order to facilitate the movement of a society toward greater unity and cooperation. Yet, if this high degree of cooperation is to be effected, it is essential that

research be done which probes the ways in which the various sub-groups within a community view the police in their roles; i.e., what police behaviors and police programs and services should be present within the community.

Earlier research has indicated that human beings possess varying degrees of what has been called dogmatism. Dogmatism has been defined as:

> a relatively closed cognative organization of beliefs and disbeliefs about reality organized around a central set of beliefs about absolute authority, which, in turn, provides a framework for patterns of intolerance towards others (Rokeach, 1954, p. 195).

If there will be a high degree of cooperation built between the police agencies and the elements within a community, it is essential that the perceptions of the citizens toward the police be explored along lines which will attempt to relate the degree of dogmatism held by those citizens to their perceptions.

A second variable which is conspicuously evident within a community is that of race, which has been one of the factors that has pointed out repeatedly as a major variable in either hospitable or hostile community relations. It has been theorized or hypothesized that the residents of ghettos (which usually implies black citizens) are markedly more hostile toward the police than are the white citizens in a community. Since this factor has been proposed as a major variable in police community relations, it is suggested that it too should be analyzed scientifically in order to determine to what extent race affects a person's attitude toward the police roles in the community.

CHAPTER III

THE PROBLEM STATEMENT AND METHODS

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is:

(1) To determine the perceptions of the citizens of Wichita,

Kansas regarding the police.

(2) To determine the perceptions of -- or the attitudes held

by -- the citizens of Wichita, Kansas regarding police-

community relations programs and services offered by the

Wichita Police Department.

(3) To determine whether there is a statistically significant

relationship between the subjects' race and his level of

dogmatism as they relate to (a) perception of the police,

and (b) police-community relations programs and services.

Definition of Terms

Community Exchange Scale - A scale to measure citizen perceptions

of police sponsored programs and services which prompt and sustain

interaction between police and citizens to enhance mutual awareness of

their roles, role expectations, and ideological interchanges. Its items

include:

(a) Establishing a civilian board to review the actions of

policemen would improve police-community relations.

(b) Police should invite citizen representatives from all parts of our city to exchange ideas about police work with recruits before completion of their training.

(c) Policemen should mix more in social, cultural, and athletic functions with all groups in the community.

(d) One way for the police to improve their relationship with young people is through more police sponsored athletic and recreation programs for the youth of our city.

(e) More citizens should spend some time in a patrol car with police officers to observe what police do.

(f) A committee of police officers and residents should be formed in every neighborhood of our city to work for better police-community relations.

(g) A committee of police officers, students, and faculty should be formed in our city's colleges and universities to improve police-student relations.

(h) A committee of police officers, students, and faculty should be formed in our city's secondary schools to improve police-student relations.

(i) More police officers should be assigned to foot patrol (walking a beat) because it would be easier for citizens to talk with policemen on foot than those driving cars.

(j) If police programs provided for more exchange of mutual problems between police and the community, citizen complaints of police abuse would decrease.

Criminal Justice System - The system in American Government which is responsible for the administration of justice through its component agencies of police, courts, and corrections.

Dogmatism -

a) A relatively closed cognitive organization of beliefs and disbeliefs about reality,

b) organized around a central set of beliefs about absolute authority which, in turn,

c) provides a framework for patterns of intolerance towards others (Rokeach, 1954, p. 195).

Education and Training of the Police Scale - A scale to measure citizen perceptions of recent practices in police training and higher education programs in criminal justice. Its items include:

(a) Police could do a better job if they had more college education.

(b) Police should invite citizen representatives from all parts of our city to exchange ideas about police work with recruits before completion of their training.

(c) If a police recruit has not completed a college degree he should be required to do so after becoming a police officer.

(d) A committee of police officers, students, and faculty should be formed in our city's colleges and universities to improve police-student relations.

(e) A committee of police officers, students, and faculty should be formed in our city's secondary schools to improve police-student relations.

<u>Helping Relationships and Social Services Scale</u> – A scale to
measure citizen perceptions of police sponsored programs and services
which are designed to enhance mutually dependent helping and social
relationships between police and citizens. Its items include:

    (a) Police should provide more counseling services designed
to help people.

    (b) Police should work more closely with our city's social
service agencies to solve community problems.

    (c) Police should operate neighborhood service centers which
would be located in all areas of the city to provide help
and information for all people who come in.

    (d) Police should provide more services to help young people
get jobs.

    (e) During their training, police recruits should spend at
least one day in jail to see what it is like.

    (f) Police should spend less time enforcing traffic laws
and more time helping people who request their services.

    (g) If our city decides to operate a public ambulance
service, it would improve police-community relations
if specially trained policemen provided these services.

    (h) When dealing with family and marital disturbances,
police should seek competent professional help for the
people involved.

    (i) Programs should be provided for poor people who seek
training which will better prepare them to meet the
requirements to become a police recruit.

(j) Police-community relations would improve if more high
school and college age students were given part-time
jobs after school hours as civilian employees of our
city's police department.

(k) Police should protect the consumer more by working with
consumer protection agencies.

Image Improvement Scale - A scale to measure citizen perceptions
of how the image of police could be improved. Its items include:

(a) Police could do a better job if they had more college
education.

(b) The image of the police patrol officer would be improved
if his pistol and ammunition were not as visible.

(c) Usually if only one police officer is assigned to each
car on patrol that officer will talk more with citizens.

(d) Police-community relations would be improved if more
women officers were added to the police patrol force.

(e) One way police and youth relations would be improved is
if drug abuse enforcement did not include marijuana, but
only included hard drugs such as heroin.

(f) If a police recruit has not completed a college degree
he should be required to do so after becoming a police
officer.

(g) The uniforms worn by our city's police officers should
be in keeping with current fashions and not so military
in style.

(h) A policeman should be allowed to grow a mustache or a
beard if he wants to.

(i)   If most people living in a neighborhood are of one race,

      most of the police officers assigned to patrol that

      neighborhood should be of the same race.

(j)   Generally speaking, a police officer should be a resident

      of the neighborhood that he is assigned to patrol.

Non-Whites - Persons who are either Black, Chicano, Native

Americans (Indians) or Oriental.

Perception of the Police Scale - A scale to measure citizen per-

ceptions of the police based on the following:

(1)   Extent of racial prejudice demonstrated by police.

(2)   Extent of police abuse of citizens.

(3)   Extent of unethical police behavior.

(4)   Extent of police indirect harrassment of citizens.

(5)   Extent to which police manpower is adequately expended.

Its items include:

(a)   Regardless of the reason, police response time is slower

      in neighborhoods other than white neighborhoods.

(b)   Policemen give the impression of feeling superior to

      people who are not white.

(c)   Police officers are more careful when arresting non-whites

      because non-whites are more likely to commit crimes of

      violence against police officers than whites.

(d)   There is pressure exerted on policemen by other policemen

      to make fun of non-white people.

(e)   Policemen are often unethical (They sponge off merchants

      and even other people).

(f)   The likelihood of a citizen being abused by a policeman

in this city is high.

(g)   Police spend much time and energy on too many unimportant

things.

(h)   The use of helicopters by police in my neighborhood is

disturbing.

(i)   In many situations which the police respond to civil

disorder, they are either "damned" if they take action

or "damned" if they do not.

Police – The governmental, municipal law enforcement agency of a

given locality.

Police Community Relations – That dialog and discussion which in-

volves "two-way" communication with all individuals and groups in the

community (popular, cooperative, supportive, and "as well", unpopular,

negative and rebellious in order to develop meaningful public partici-

pation (at beat and precinct level) in police policy formulation,

decision making, administration and operations (Germann, 1970, p. 147).

Police Public Relations – The planning of programs designed to

gain and hold the good will and support of the general public. Such a

unit often handles press relations, prepares announcements, bulletins

and reports for the general public, conducts liaison with community

organizations, sends representatives of the agency to address groups,

prepares motion picture and photographic informational material, works

with educational institutions, and, in general attempts to secure

public support and cooperation (Germann, 1970, p. 147).

Public Relations and Information Services Scale – A scale to

measure citizen perceptions of various programs, services, and

police-news media relationships, which are designed to inform the public of other police programs, activities, and services. Its items include:

(a) Police should speak before more community, civic, religious, and social organizations.

(b) News coverage by the newspapers in our city has generally presented a favorable relationship between the citizens and the police.

(c) Television news coverage in our city has generally pre-sented a favorable relationship between citizens and the police.

(d) Radio news coverage in our city has generally presented a favorable relationship between citizens and the police.

(e) I would like to read more booklets, pamphlets, or brochures about our city's police department.

(f) I would like to tour our city's police facilities.

(g) One reason why many people do not understand what our city's police really do is because they have viewed too many unrealistic crime, detective, and police programs on T.V.

(h) Police should present programs to inform citizens how they can protect themselves against crime.

(i) Police should present programs to inform citizens how they can get government services.

Total Police Community Relations Scale - A scale to measure the average score of citizen perceptions of the following categories of Police Community Relations programs:

(a) Image Improvement, Scale Two;

(b) Public Relations and Information Services, Scale Three;

(c) Helping Relationships and Social Services, Scale Four;

(d) Community Exchange, Scale Five;

(e) Education and Training of Police, Scale Six;

(f) and, Vocational Interest Programs, Scale Seven.

Vocational Interest Programs Scale - A scale to measure citizen perceptions of police sponsored programs which are designed to seek a broad spectrum of candidates to pursue police careers. Its items include:

(a) Police should operate neighborhood service centers which would be located in all areas of the city to provide help and information for all people who come in.

(b) Police should provide more services to help young people get jobs.

(c) Police-community relations would be improved if more women officers were added to the police patrol force.

(d) Programs should be provided for poor people who seek training which will better prepare them to meet the requirements to become a police recruit.

(e) Police-community relations would improve if more high school and college age students were given part-time jobs after school hours as civilian employees of our city's police department.

Whites - Persons who are Caucasians.

Population Selection

The citizens of Wichita, Kansas were selected as the population for this study because their police department was undergoing major changes in organization and management which were designed to improve the department's public image and community relationship. In 1972, the Department's newly-appointed Chief requested that faculty members of the Department of Administration of Justice of Wichita State University suggest ways in which citizens' opinions of these changes could be gleaned. It was assumed, therefore, that this study could have realistic, utilitarian application in the Wichita community.

Assumptions

The primary assumption of any attempt to measure attitudes lies in the uncertainty of the degree to which the $\underline{Ss}$ responses reflect their true attitudes. Also, it is difficult to determine the exact component of an attitude which is being measured. For example, does a given attitudinal measurement reflect the $\underline{Ss}$ feelings about the attitude object (i.e., affective responses), or his knowledge about the attitude object (i.e., cognitive responses) or his predisposition to act toward the attitude object in a given way (i.e., behavioral responses). This study assumed that it gleaned affective responses which were predicated on an adequate cognitive base. It was assumed that behavioral responses could only be obtained under the auspices of a controlled experimental setting.

It was further assumed that $\underline{Ss}$ were capable of articulating such affective responses. Similarly, it was assumed that interviewers were

capable of soliciting and recording responses in an accurate, unbiased,
and orderly fashion which is characteristic of a "Scientific Method"
of data gathering.

Limitations

Using Wichita, Kansas as the population, a random stratified sample
was extracted which yielded a representative sample for this study.
The findings which were obtained from that population can only be gen-
eralized to that population.

Instrument

In an effort to aid the police in developing Police-Community
Relation (PCR) programs that adequately reflect community opinion, it
seemed pertinent to develop an inventory which a police department could
use as a measure (i.e., a social indicator) of the citizens' stated
perceptions of their police and their attitudes toward specific PCR
programs.

National PCR Survey

Early in 1972, the faculty of the Department of Administration of
Justice at Wichita State University initiated the "Police-Community
Relations Survey: A Quantitative Inventory of Services and Work Units"
(see Appendix G). The inventory depicted the levels of PCR resources
and services of all municipal police departments with 300 or more full-
time sworn employees. This inventory population represented all juris-
dictions in the nation which encompassed at least 25,000 citizens. Of
the 122 departments which comprised the inventory population, 67

departments (55%) responded. Those responding represented all geo-

graphical regions of the nation.

The mean percentages of time spent by PCR units on various kinds

of services (see Table I) were utilized as a reference which would re-

flect the operational components of the PCR efforts as demonstrated by

a majority of the nation's largest municipal police agencies. These

data were used to develop instrument items in the present study.

Although the survey did not describe the qualitative dimensions of

PCR nationally, its quantitative dimensions provided a valuable resource

for the development of items for citizen evaluation which were relevant

to the PCR operations of contemporary American policing.

A Survey of Perceptions of Police-Community

Relations

Utilizing the National PCR Survey and the review of the PCR

Literature as a base, an instrument was developed for this study: "A

Survey of Perceptions of the Police-Community Relations" (see Appendix

A). Items 8, 9, and 11 were adapted from a San Francisco undertaking

called Project PACE: Police and Community Enterprise (Eisenberg, Fosen,

and Glickman, 1971).

The measuring instrument included: 7 demographic items, 49 items

related to citizen perceptions of the police and PCR programs, and the

20-item Troldahl and Powell (1965) shortened version of the Rokeach

Dogmatism Scale. Forty of the 76 questions focused on community per-

ceptions of the police subjects responded to the items on a seven-point

agreement-disagreement continuum developed by Likert (1932) and utilized

on the original DS. Responses on the seven-point agreement-disagreement

TABLE I

THE MEAN PERCENTAGES OF TIME SPENT BY POLICE COMMUNITY-RELATIONS
UNITS ON THE VARIOUS KINDS OF SERVICES

Services	Of Total Police Community Relations Unit Manpower Resources % of 100% of Manhours Currently Expended	Projection of % of Manhours That Will be Expended Next Year
Office Management of Police Community Relations Unit Office	11.96%	11.39%
Public Information and Press Relations	8.77%	9.17%
Police-School Liaison and/or Teaching	18.47%	19.88%
Participation in Departmental Training Programs	5.05%	6.59%
Handling Citizens Complaints Against Police Officers	1.72%	1.53%
Recruiting	4.08%	4.19%
Coordinating Social Services With Community Service Agencies	11.16%	11.98%
Research in Police Community Relations Programming	5.27%	5.80%
Delivery Services Through Storefront Center(s)	5.18%	5.58%
Delivery of Youth Services	10.88%	8.88%
Delivery of Counseling Services to Citizens	9.38%	9.52%
Other	8.08%	5.49%

continuum were as follows: (1) disagree very much, (2) disagree on the whole, (3) disagree a little, (4) neutral, (5) agree a little, (6) agree on the whole, and (7) agree very much.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was run on three different groups: Administration of Justice lower- and upper-division students (N = 53), command police officers employed by the Wichita Police Department (N = 34), and Wichita citizens in four areas of the city (a black neighborhood, a Mexican-American neighborhood, an affluent East Wichita neighborhood, and an area populated by predominately senior citizens) -- this pilot study was administered by police recruits. A total of 187 inventories were satisfactorily completed.

The inventory revealed there was general consensus (the typical response was "agree" on the whole) which favored 12 police-community relations programs (items: 14, 15, 18, 28, 35, 36, 40, 41, 47, and 51). In general, these items concerned the police functioning in a helping relationship or providing information to the public about the police.

In the pilot study, dogmatism proved to be a variable which influenced a subject's willingness to support police-community relations programs, with the more dogmatic individual's offering stronger support. Race (white or non-white) proved to be almost as useful a variable as dogmatism, with the non-whites perceiving the police more negatively, although they strongly supported PCR programs. This was determined by using tests on individual items using .05 as the critical level of significance.

Since it was important to attempt to determine which kinds of

programs the <u>Ss</u> were supporting, the items were formed into scales.

Seven scales (see Appendix D) were created: (1) Perception of the

Police, (2) Image Improvement, (3) Public Relations and Information

Services, (4) Helping Relationships and Social Services, (5) Community

Exchange, (6) Education and Training of Police, (7) Vocational Interest

Programs, and (8) Total PCR Score (a composite score representing a

total score on scales two through seven, inclusively).

Hypotheses

These observations prompted the following null hypotheses:

(A) Hypotheses that concern the total sample taken as a group:

    (1) There will be no statistically significant difference
between white and non-white subjects regarding their
attitudes toward the majority of the Police-Community
Relations (PCR) programs.

    (2) There will be no statistically significant difference
between all high dogmatic (HD) and low dogmatic (LD)
subjects regarding their attitudes toward the majority of
the PCR programs.

    (3) There will be no statistically significant difference
between white and non-white subjects regarding their
general perceptions of the police.

    (4) There will be no statistically significant difference
between HD and LD subjects regarding their general per-
ceptions of the police.

(B) Hypotheses that concern the sample as subdivided into racial

groups:

(5) There will be no statistically significant difference
     between the HD and LD non-white subjects (i.e., blacks,
     chicanos, orientals, and Indians) regarding their atti-
     tudes toward PCR programs.

(6) There will be no statistically significant difference
     between HD and LD non-white subjects regarding their
     attitudes toward police programs and activities designed
     to improve the image of the police.

(7) There will be no statistically significant difference
     between HD and LD non-white subjects regarding their
     attitudes toward police programs and activities designed
     to improve public relations and information services
     provided by police agencies.

(8) There will be no statistically significant difference
     between HD and LD non-white subjects regarding their
     attitudes toward police programs and activities designed
     to augment social services and helping relationships.

(9) There will be no statistically significant difference
     between HD and LD non-white subjects regarding their
     attitudes towards police programs and activities designed
     to enhance the level of exchange between citizens and the
     police (i.e., positive interaction between police and
     citizens which tend to engender mutually dependent work-
     ing and social relationships).

(10) There will be no statistically significant difference
     between HD and LD non-white subjects regarding their
     attitudes toward police programs and activities designed

to improve the education and training programs which
attempt to professionalize the police.

(11) There will be no statistically significant difference
between HD and LD non-white subjects regarding their
attitudes toward police programs and activities designed
to improve the quality of vocational interest programs
which seek a broad spectrum of candidates to pursue
police careers.

(12) There will be no statistically significant difference
between HD and LD white subjects regarding their attitudes
toward PCR programs.

(13) There will be no statistically significant difference
between HD and LD white subjects regarding their attitudes
toward police programs and activities designed to improve
the image of the police.

(14) There will be no statistically significant difference
between HD and LD white subjects regarding their attitudes
toward police programs and activities designed to improve
public relations and information services provided by
police agencies.

(15) There will be no statistically significant difference
between HD and LD white subjects regarding their attitudes
toward police programs and activities designed to augment
social services and helping relationships.

(16) There will be no statistically significant difference
between HD and LD white subjects regarding their attitudes
toward police programs and activities designed to enhance

the level of exchange between citizens and police (i.e.,
positive interaction between police and citizens which
tend to engender mutually dependent working and social
relationships).

(17)   There will be no statistically significant difference
between HD and LD white subjects regarding their attitudes
toward police programs and activities designed to improve
the education and training programs which attempt to
professionalize the police.

(18)   There will be no statistically significant difference
between HD and LD white subjects regarding their attitudes
toward police programs and activities designed to improve
the quality of vocational interest programs which seek a
broad spectrum of candidates to pursue police careers.

<p align="center">Sampling Procedure</p>

A sample of approximately 1000 Ss was deemed desirable, for that
number would provide a large enough sample for evaluation and yet be
within human and non-human constraints of the project. The sampling and
subsequent interviewing produced a usable sample of 1000 Ss.

The sampling procedure utilized was developed by John Hartman
(1971) of the Department of Sociology of Wichita State University for
the Wichita-Sedgwick County Alcohol Safety Action Project. This tech-
nique consists of a four-stage proportional random sampling. The first
two stages were performed in the office and the second two in the field.
A plat map of the city of Wichita and surrounding small communities was
obtained. It contained 82 districts with all streets marked throughout

the city and environs. Due to dispersal and relative geographical spread of the city, it was decided to sample about one fourth of the districts in the area. Each district was numbered and, using a table of random numbers (Kendall and Smith, 1938), a total of 30 districts (36.58%) were included in the sample. The number of households for each district was obtained and divided by the 1970 census figure for the included area. The total number of households for these 30 districts was added to obtain the total number of households for the 30 randomly-selected districts. Each district in turn was divided by this 30-district summated figure to produce the percentage of the sample to be selected from that specific district. For example, if the 30 districts contained approximately 110,106 households, and if one district con-tained 4,571, or 3.2 per cent of the total, that district would be used to provide 32 or 3.2 per cent of the desired 1000 sample.

After deciding how many respondents were to be obtained in each district, a process was established to select at random, the housing units from which respondents would be interviewed. Each block in each district (30) was numbered, and blocks were randomly selected until the actual number of respondents was obtained. The number of needed interviews ranged from 14 to 56 per district. A list of alternates was drawn and a specific procedure utilized when the interviewer was unable to find anyone at home after three call-backs or was refused an interview. The alternates were drawn in the same manner as the original list. Procedures for field selection of the house on each block, age, and sex of the respondent are more fully discussed in Appendix C -- "Instructions to Interviewers".

This four-step random selection procedure produced a very close

approximation of the actual population of the Wichita area (see Table
II). When an individual (other than the person answering the door) was
selected, but for some reason was unable to respond to the question-
naire, an appointment was made for a later interview at a time conven-
ient to the respondent.

The $\underline{Ss}$ were interviewed by the 29 upper-division Administration of
Justice students mentioned in the acknowledgments. During two class
sessions, the interviewers were given instruction in interviewing tech-
niques, selection of $\underline{Ss}$, and ethical responsibility. The interviewers
were each given a copy of the instructions found in Appendix C. Those
$\underline{Ss}$ who wished to do so could request to receive a copy of the results of
this study.

<div align="center">Statistical Analysis</div>

Two-way analysis of variance (AOV) was utilized to analyze data
which were related to examining the hypothesis that concerned the total
sample taken as a group. One-way AOV was utilized to analyze data which
were related to examining hypotheses that concerned the sample when sub-
divided into racial groups. In addition, for those hypotheses for which
significant differences were found, correlations were utilized to indi-
cate the strength of relationship between variables.

These calculations were effected by the Wichita State University
Computer Center using the multi-variate AOV for general linear hypoth-
eses as written as BMDX64 at Health Sciences Computing Facility, Uni-
versity of California at Los Angeles. This program provides a
correction factor for performing AOV when sample subgroups are of
unequal size.

TABLE II

COMPARISON FOR CENSUS DATA AND PCR SURVEY
BY PERCENTAGES

	Wichita	Sample
RACE		
White	86.77	83.5
Black	9.70	13.4
"Chicano"	2.52	2.3
Other	1.00	.8
SEX		
Male	46.63	43.2
Female	53.37	56.8
INCOME		
Less than $3,000	9.6	9.8
$3,000 - $4,999	9.1	12.2
$5,000 - $6,999	13.0	14.0
$7,000 - $9,999	23.5	22.2
$10,000 - $14,999	27.7	27.1
$15,000 and over	17.1	14.7
AGE		
16 - 19	10.3	8.1
20 - 24	13.7	11.6
25 - 34	18.0	21.8
35 - 44	16.2	16.4
45 - 54	16.6	13.9
55 - 59	6.9	7.3
60 - 65	5.7	5.9
65 - 74	7.6	10.6
75 and over	5.6	4.4

In addition, the Spearman-Brown Formula for Reliability was used
to establish reliability for each of the eight scales. In order to
establish internal validity, correlations were used to analyze the con-
sistency between each of the scales.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Measurement

Before analyzing the data in relation to the hypothesis, two tech-
niques were employed to ascertain the reliability and internal validity
of each. The Spearman-Brown Formula for reliability was used to estab-
lish reliability for each scale, and Pearson correlations were utilized
to determine the internal validity.

TABLE III

CORRECTED SPEARMAN-BROWN SPLIT-HALF RELIABILITY
FOR EACH SCALE

	Scale	Number of Items	Correlation Coefficient
(1)	Perception of the Police	9	0.733
(2)	Image Improvement	10	0.683
(3)	Public Relations and Information Services	9	0.734
(4)	Helping Relationships and Social Services	11	0.764
(5)	Community Exchange	10	0.799
(6)	Education and Training of the Police	5	0.727
(7)	Vocational Interest Programs	5	0.536
(8)	Total PCR Score	40	0.889

TABLE IV

INTERNAL VALIDITY: PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN SCALES

Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(1) Perception of the Police							
(2) Image Improvement	-.4186						
(3) Public Relations and Information Services	.0453	.1763					
(4) Helping Relationships and Social Services	-.2593	.4456	.4170				
(5) Community Exchange	-.1874	.4010	.4239	.7169			
(6) Education and Training of the Police	-.1204	.5694	.3591	.5624	.7049		
(7) Vocational Interest Programs	-.1638	.4616	.4174	.8108	.6647	.5206	
(8) Total PCR Score	-.2634	.6796	.5921	.8732	.8478	.7860	.8324

All of the scales except the seventh, Vocational Interest Programs, yielded a high correlation of reliability. Scale seven yielded a lower correlation of reliability possibly because it contained only five items. Thus, it may be assumed that the level of consistency of each scale was adequate.

Pearson correlations were utilized to determine the internal validity of the scales. It was expected that an individual who had a positive perception of the police would not favor PCR programs as strongly as an individual having a more negative perception of the police. This could be expected because the former group would already regard the police as an effective social institution, while the latter group would be unsure of their relationship with the police. The Pearson correlations tended to support this prediction.

All of the scales, except Scale 3, Public Relations and Information Services, when compared with Scale 1 yielded a high degree of both predictive and construct validity.

It was expected that all of the remaining scales would correlate well with each other because a totality of components which comprise PCR programs should be present in all of them, and that Scales 2-7 should correlate appreciably with Scale 8. The results were as expected, thus indicating the presence of an acceptable level of internal validity.

The F test was used to determine whether or not the differences between group and within group means were significant at the .05 level or greater. If the analysis revealed that differences were significant at the .05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

The following hypotheses that concern the total sample taken as a
group were analyzed by two-way Analysis of Variance (AOV):

(1)   There will be no statistically significant difference
      between white and non-white subjects regarding their
      attitudes toward the majority of Police-Community Relations
      (PCR).

(2)   There will be no statistically significant difference
      between all high dogmatic (HD) and low dogmatic (LD)
      subjects regarding their attitudes toward the majority
      of the PCR programs.

TABLE V

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: TOTAL PCR SCORE

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Mean	27289759.42	1	27289744.00	23620.85	
Dogmatism	14197.68	1	14197.67	12.29	.001
Race	21255.71	1	21255.71	18.39	.001
Interaction	20996.12	1	20996.29	18.17	.001
Error	1150703.12	996	1155.32		

Since $F = 18.39$, the null hypothesis of identical populations was
rejected because the analysis revealed that differences existed which
were significant at well beyond the .05 level (i.e., .001). Given that

fact, it can be said that the race of the Ss appears to have influenced

their attitudes toward the majority of PCR programs, with the Non-White

Subjects (NW Ss) tending to give greater support to PCR programs than

White Subjects (W Ss). In this respect, the mean score for NW Ss (i.e.,

232.22) was significantly more positive, statistically, than the mean

score for W Ss (i.e., 218.14).

Since $F = 12.29$, the null hypothesis of identical populations was

rejected because the analysis revealed that differences existed which

were significant at well beyond the .05 level (i.e., .001). Given that

fact, it can be said that the dogmatism level of the Ss appears to have

influenced their attitudes toward the majority of the PCR programs,

with High Dogmatic Subjects (HD Ss) tending to give greater support to

PCR programs than Low Dogmatic Subjects (LD Ss). In this respect, the

mean score for HD Ss (i.e., 221.70) was significantly more positive,

statistically, than was the mean score for LD Ss (i.e., 219.23).

Since $F = 18.17$ for interaction between race of the Ss and dogmatism

level of the Ss, the analysis revealed that differences existed which

were significant at well beyond the .05 level (i.e., .001). Given that

fact, it can be said that the Ss' level of dogmatism (i.e., HD or LD)

appears to combine with the Ss' race (i.e., W or NW) to influence the

Ss' attitudes toward the majority of PCR programs.

The following hypotheses also concern the total sample taken as a

group, and the data were analyzed by two-way AOV:

(3) There will be no statistically significant difference

between white and non-white subjects regarding their

general perceptions of the police.

(4)   There will be no statistically significant difference
      between HD and LD subjects regarding their general
      perceptions of the police.

TABLE VI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: PERCEPTION OF THE POLICE

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Sample Mean	867694.45	1	867694.43	14831.90	
Dogmatism	9.52	1	9.52	0.16	
Race	12639.57	1	12639.57	216.05	.001
Interaction	11.20	1	11.20	0.19	
Within Group Error	58267.88	996	58.50		

Since $F = 216.05$, the null hypothesis of identical populations was

rejected because the analysis revealed that differences existed which

were significant at well beyond the .05 level (i.e., .001). Given that

fact, it can be said that the race of the Ss appears to have influenced

their general perceptions of the police, with NW Ss tending to indicate

more negative perceptions of police than W Ss. In this respect, the

mean score for W Ss (i.e., 44.84) was significantly more positive, sta-

tistically, than was that for NW Ss (i.e., 35.18).

Since $F = 0.16$, the null hypothesis of identical populations was not

rejected because the analysis did not reveal that differences existed

which were significant at the .05 level. In this respect, the mean

score for LD $\underline{Ss}$ (i.e., 43.70) was not significantly more positive, sta-

tistically, than that for HD $\underline{Ss}$ (i.e., 42.80).

Since $F = 0.19$, for interaction between race of the $\underline{Ss}$ and dogmatism

level of the $\underline{Ss}$, the analysis did not reveal that it would appear that

race (W or NW) and level of dogmatism (HD or LD) significantly combined

to influence the $\underline{Ss}$' general perceptions of the police.

The following seven hypotheses concerned the NW sample only and

were treated with one-way AOV. Edwards' table, presented below, was

utilized to determine p for the one-way AOV of the NW sample (Edwards,

1968, pp. 425, 429).

TABLE VII

PROBABILITY LEVEL FOR ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
NON-WHITE SAMPLE

$F = 3.89$ $(p \neq .050)$
$F = 5.15$ $(p = .025)$
$F = 6.76$ $(p = .010)$
$F = 8.18$ $(p = .005)$
$F = 11.38$ $(p = .001)$

Sample size: HDs = 94; LDs = 71
$df = 1$ and 163

The first of those hypotheses was:

(5) There will be no statistically significant differences

between the HD and LD NW $\underline{Ss}$ (i.e., blacks, chicanos,

72

orientals, and indians) regarding their attitudes

toward PCR programs.

TABLE VIII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: NON-WHITE TOTAL PCR SCORE

Source of Variation	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	p
High Dogmatics	241.98	32.05	16.23	.001
Low Dogmatics	219.30	40.27		

Since F = 16.23, the null hypothesis of identical populations was
rejected because the analysis revealed that differences existed which
were significant at well beyond the .05 level (i.e., .001). Given that
fact, it can be said that the dogmatism level of NW Ss appears to have
influenced their attitudes toward the majority of PCR programs, with the
HD NW Ss tending to agree with PCR programs more than LD NW Ss. In this
respect, the mean score for HD NW Ss (i.e., 241.98) was significantly
more positive, statistically, than was that for LD NW Ss (i.e., 219.30).

(6) There will be no statistically significant difference
between HD and LD non-white subjects regarding their
attitudes toward police programs and activities designed
to improve the image of the police.

TABLE IX

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: NON-WHITE TOTAL
POLICE IMAGE IMPROVEMENT SCORE

Source of Variation	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	p
High Dogmatics	41.10	8.97	2.05	
Low Dogmatics	38.96	10.17		

Since $F = 2.05$ did not reach the critical .05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

(7) There will be no statistically significant difference between HD and LD non-white subjects regarding their attitudes toward police programs and activities designed to improve public relations and information services provided by police agencies.

TABLE X

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: NON-WHITE TOTAL PUBLIC RELATIONS
INFORMATION SERVICES SCORE

Source of Variation	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	p
High Dogmatics	43.46	6.94	10.54	.005
Low Dogmatics	39.59	8.35		

Since F = 10.54, the null hypothesis of identical populations was rejected because the analysis revealed that differences existed which were significant at well beyond the .05 level (i.e., .005). Given that fact, it can be said that the dogmatism level of the NW Ss appears to have influenced their attitudes toward police sponsored public relations and information services programming, with HD NW Ss tending to give greater support to public relations and information services than LD NW Ss. In this respect, the mean score for HE NW Ss (i.e., 43.46) was significantly more positive statistically, than was that for LD NW Ss (i.e., 39.59).

(8) There will be no statistically significant difference between HD and LD non-white subjects regarding their attitudes toward police programs and activities designed to augment social services and helping relationships.

TABLE XI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: NON-WHITE TOTAL SOCIAL SERVICES
AND HELPING RELATIONSHIPS SCORE

Source of Variation	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	p
High Dogmatics	58.93	8.43	15.39	.001
Low Dogmatics	52.78	11.72		

Since $F = 15.39$, the null hypothesis of identical populations was rejected because the analysis revealed that differences existed which were significant at well beyond the .05 level (i.e., .001). Given that fact, it can be said that the dogmatism level of the NW Ss appears to have influenced their attitudes toward police sponsored programs and activities which are designed to augment social services and helping relationships, with HD NW Ss tending to give greater support to such programs and activities than LD NW Ss. In this respect, the mean score for HD NW Ss (i.e., 58.93) was significantly more positive statistically, than was that for LD NW Ss (i.e., 52.78).

(9)   There will be no statistically significant difference between HD and LD non-white subjects regarding their attitudes toward police programs and activities designed to enhance the level of exchange between citizens and the police (i.e., positive interaction between police and citizens which tend to engender mutually dependent working and social relationships).

TABLE XII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: NON-WHITE TOTAL
COMMUNITY EXCHANGE SCORE

Source of Variation	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	p
High Dogmatics	47.83	8.34	5.43	.025
Low Dogmatics	44.31	8.72		

Since $F = 5.43$, the null hypothesis of identical populations was rejected because the analysis revealed that differences existed which were significant at well beyond the .05 level (i.e., .025). Given that fact, it can be said that the dogmatism level of the NW $\underline{Ss}$ appears to have influenced their attitudes toward police sponsored community exchange programs and activities, with the HD NW $\underline{Ss}$ tending to give greater support to police sponsored programs designed to engender mutually dependent helping and social relationships between police and citizens than LD NW $\underline{Ss}$. In this respect, the mean score for HD NW $\underline{Ss}$ (i.e., 47.43) was significantly more positive, statistically, than that for LD NW $\underline{Ss}$ (i.e., 44.31).

(10) There will be no statistically significant difference between HD and LD non-white subjects regarding their attitudes toward police programs and activities designed to improve the education and training programs which attempt to professionalize the police.

TABLE XIII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: NON-WHITE TOTAL EDUCATION AND
TRAINING OF POLICE SCORE

Source of Variation	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	p
High Dogmatics	25.11	5.30	9.42	.005
Low Dogmatics	22.47	5.70		

Since $F = 9.42$, the null hypothesis of identical populations was rejected because the analysis revealed that differences existed which were significant at well beyond the .05 level (i.e., .005). Given that fact, it can be said that the dogmatism level of the NW Ss appears to have influenced their attitudes toward programs and activities designed to improve police education and training, with the HD NW Ss tending to give greater support to such programs and activities than LD NW Ss. In this respect, the mean score for HD NW Ss (i.e., 25.11) was significantly more positive, statistically, than that of LD NW Ss (i.e., 22.47).

(11)   There will be no statistically significant difference between HD and LD non-white subjects regarding their attitudes toward police programs and activities designed to improve the quality of vocational interest programs which seek a broad spectrum of candidates to pursue police careers.

TABLE XIV

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: NON-WHITE TOTAL
VOCATIONAL INTEREST PROGRAMS SCORE

Source of Variation	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	p
High Dogmatics	25.97	4.56	36.98	.001
Low Dogmatics	21.20	5.51		

Since $F = 36.98$, the null hypothesis of identical populations was rejected because the analysis revealed that differences existed which were significant at well beyond the .05 level (i.e., .001). Given that, it can be said that the dogmatism level of the NW Ss appears to have influenced their attitudes toward police programs and activities designed to improve the quality of vocational interest programs, with HD NW Ss tending to give greater support to police programs and activities which seek a broad spectrum of candidates to pursue police careers than LD NW Ss. In this respect, the mean score for HD NW Ss (i.e., 25.97) was significantly more positive, statistically, than was the mean score for LD NW Ss (i.e., 21.20).

The following seven hypotheses concerned the W sample only and were treated with one-way AOV. Since the F for each failed to reach the .05 level of significance, none of the hypotheses could be rejected.

TABLE XV

STRENGTH OF HYPOTHESES THAT CONCERN THE WHITE SAMPLE

Hypothesis	Source of Variation	Mean	Standard Deviation	F
(12) There will be no statistically significant difference between HD and LD white subjects regarding their attitudes toward PCR programs.	High Dogmatics	217.007	34.197	0.8921
	Low Dogmatics	219.219	33.052	
(13) There will be no statistically significant difference between HD and LD white subjects regarding their attitudes toward police programs and activities designed to improve the image of the police.	High Dogmatics	35.653	8.046	1.7841
	Low Dogmatics	36.734	9.416	
(14) There will be no statistically significant difference between HD and LD white subjects regarding their attitudes toward police programs and activities designed to improve public relations and information services provided by police agencies.	High Dogmatics	40.958	7.305	2.4785
	Low Dogmatics	41.716	6.606	
(15) There will be no statistically significant difference between HD and LD white subjects regarding their attitudes toward police programs and activities designed to augment social services and helping relationships.	High Dogmatics	51.884	10.174	0.0103
	Low Dogmatics	51.783	9.538	

TABLE XV (Continued)

Hypothesis	Source of Variation	Mean	Standard Deviation	F
(16) There will be no statistically significant difference between HD and LD white subjects regarding their attitudes toward police programs and activities designed to enhance the level of exchange between citizens and the police (i.e., positive interaction between police and citizens which tend to engender mutually dependent working and social relationships).	High Dogmatics Low Dogmatics	43.672 43.667	8.401 7.917	0.0038
(17) There will be no statistically significant difference between HD and LD white subjects regarding their attitudes toward police programs and activities designed to improve the education and training programs which attempt to professionalize the police.	High Dogmatics Low Dogmatics	22.901 23.175	4.950 5.427	0.5800
(18) There will be no statistically significant difference between HD and LD white subjects regarding their attitudes toward police programs and activities designed to improve the quality of vocational interest programs which seek a broad spectrum of candidates to pursue police careers.	High Dogmatics Low Dogmatics	21.938 22.145	5.251 5.105	0.3522

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The results of the Analysis of Variance (AOV) may be summarized as
follows:

(1) Non-white (NWs) and high dogmatics (HDs) had significantly
     higher Total Police-community relations (PCR) Scores
     (Scale 8) than did whites (Ws) and low dogmatics (LDs),
     respectively. A high score indicated a favorable atti-
     tude toward PCR programs. Further, there was a statis-
     tically significant interaction effect which suggested
     that NWs were more dogmatic than Ws.

(2) On Perception of the Police (Scale 1), NWs had a signifi-
     cantly more negative perception of police than Ws, but
     dogmatism made no difference.

(3) Among NWs, those who scored high on the dogmatism scale
     agreed with the total PCR score (Scale 8) more than
     those who scored low on dogmatism. Further (with the
     exception of Scale 2 -- Image Improvement) those who
     scored high on dogmatism had significantly higher scores
     on each scale.

(4) Among Ws, there were no significant differences on any
     of the scales between those who scored either high or
     low on the dogmatism scale.

81

Apparently, race is the more important factor.

Given the number of cases in which the results of the F-tests were significant, the question arises as to the strength of the relationships in question. This is particularly the case for two reasons:

(1) Achieving levels which are statistically significant is partly a function of sample sizes as well as of actual differences which were between or among the sub-samples in question;

(2) Many of the mean scores for sub-categories of subjects were relatively close, which suggests that the differences -- while statistically significant -- might have little substantive meaning.

As a means of further exploring the relationships involved, a number of tabular analyses were performed. First, Table XVI shows the relationship between race and dogmatism.

TABLE XVI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RACE AND DOGMATISM BY PER CENT

DOGMATISM		Race	
		NW	W
	LDs	43	51.4
	HDs	57	48.6

χ^2 = 3.51   N = 165   N = 835
df = 1
p = <.1
Contingency coefficient = .06

As Table XVI indicates, NWs had a tendency to be more dogmatic than Ws. Even though the chi-square value did not quite reach the .05 level of significance, 57% of the NWs were HDs as compared with 48% of Ws. Yet, the data presented in Table XVI supports the conclusion that there was a significant interaction effect between race and dogmatism as was suggested earlier in Table V (AOV for Total PCR Score: Entire Sample, p. 68), which further supports the interaction effect. The mean scores depicted in Table XVII further depict the interaction effect between race and dogmatism.

TABLE XVII

MEAN VALUES OF DOGMATISM SCORES BY RACE AND
LEVEL OF DOGMATISM

		Race	
		NW	W
DOGMATISM	LDs	60.4 (n = 71)	56.7 (n = 429)
	HDs	92.8 (n = 94)	90.7 (n = 406)
		N = 165	N = 835

TABLE XVIII

THE PERCENTAGE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOTAL PCR SCORE AND RACE
(Scale 8)

TOTAL PCR SCORE	Race	
	NW	W
Low	3	9
Medium	57	67
High	40	24

$\chi^2 = 21.2$ N = 165   N = 835

<u>df</u> = 2

p < .001

Contingency Coefficient = .144

TABLE XIX

THE PERCENTAGE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOTAL
PCR SCORE AND DOGMATISM

TOTAL PCR SCORE	Dogmatism	
	LD	HD
Low	6.4	9.4
Medium	68.4	62.4
High	25.2	28.2

$\chi^2 = 5.1$ N = 500   N = 500

<u>df</u> = 2

p < .1   Contingency Coefficient = .07

TABLE XX

THE PERCENTAGE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOTAL PCR SCORE
AND DOGMATISM, CONTROLLING FOR RACE

Total PCR Score	Race			
	NW Dogmatic		W Dogmatic	
	LDs	HDs	LDs	HDs
Low	5.6	1.1	6.5	11.3
Medium	69.0	47.9	52.3	65.8
High	25.4	51.1	25.2	22.9

$\chi^2 = 12.6$ N = 71   N = 94   N = 429   N = 406

$\underline{df} = 2$ $\chi^2 = 6.07$

$p < .001$ $\underline{df} = 2$

Contingency Coefficient = .267 $p < .05$

Gamma = .513   Contingency Coefficient = .084

                        Gamma = -.118

Table XVIII shows that a moderate relationship existed between race
and Total PCR score, with the NWs tending to have higher scores than
Ws (Contingency Coefficient = .144). Table XIX indicates that for the
entire sample there was only a very slight relationship between Dogma-
tism and Total PCR score. However, when the partial correlations in
Table XX were examined, it could be seen that among NWs there was a
fairly strong positive relationship between the Total PCR score and dog-
matism (Gamma = .513), while among Ws there was actually a reversal --
that is, there was a weak negative relationship between dogmatism and

the Total PCR score. The significant interaction effect from Table III,
AOV, sample (see p. 65) is explained by the reversal of the relation-
ship between dogmatism and Total PCR score among the two racial groups.
The data presented in Table XX tend to confirm the earlier finding --
based on one-way AOV -- that among NWs, an individual's level of dogmatism
tended to have significant impact on his Total PCR score. It should be
stressed that an individual's dogmatism among Ws did not tend to have
significant impact on Total PCR score.

Table VI, AOV: Perception of the Police (p. 70), showed that with
regard to race (and not dogmatism) perception of the police made the
only significant difference. This was confirmed by tabular analysis,
and the data in Table XXI indicates that the relationship was fairly
strong (Contingency Coefficient = .336). According to Table XXI, only
19.4% of non-whites scored high on Perception of the Police as opposed
to 58.1% of the whites.

Since a significant difference between HDs and LDs was also found
among the NWs with regard to Scale 3, Public Relations and Information
Services; Scale 4, Helping Relationships and Social Services; Scale 5,
Community Exchange; Scale 6, Education and Training of the Police; and
Scale 7, Vocational Interest Programs. Tables XXII through XXVI were
computed to examine the strength of the realtionships in question.

TABLE XXIII

THE PERCENTAGE RELATIONSHIP AND DOGMATISM BETWEEN
HELPING RELATIONSHIPS AND SOCIAL SERVICES
(SCALE 4) FOR NON-WHITES

HELPING RELATIONSHIPS AND SOCIAL SERVICE		LD	HD
	Low	5.6	2.1
	Medium	43.7	14.9
	High	50.7	83.0

χ^2 = 19.7   N = 71   N = 94

$\underline{df}$ = 2

p < .001

Gamma = .627

TABLE XXIV

THE PERCENTAGE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COMMUNITY EXCHANGE
(SCALE 5) AND DOGMATISM FOR NON-WHITES

COMMUNITY EXCHANGE		LD	HD
	Low	5.6	0
	Medium	38.0	33.0
	High	56.3	67.0

χ^2 = 6.3   N = 71   N = 94

$\underline{df}$ = 2

p < .05

Gamma = .252

TABLE XXV

THE PERCENTAGE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EDUCATION AND TRAINING
OF THE POLICE (SCALE 6) AND DOGMATISM FOR NON-WHITES

		LD	HD
EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF POLICE	Low	8.5	7.4
	Medium	50.7	36.2
	High	40.8	56.4

χ^2 = 4.03   N = 71   N = 94

<u>df</u> = 2

p < .10

Gamma = .255

TABLE XXVI

THE PERCENTAGE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VOCATIONAL INTEREST
PROGRAMS (SCALE 7) AND DOGMATISM FOR NON-WHITES

		LDs	HDs
VOCATIONAL INTEREST PROGRAMS	Low	19.7	3.2
	Medium	53.5	34.0
	High	26.8	62.8

χ^2 = 25.43   N = 71   N = 94

<u>df</u> = 2

p < .001

Gamma = .637

An examination of the tables in question points out that the relationships with dogmatism are highest for Helping Relations and Social Services (Scale 4) (.623) and Vocational Interest Programs (.637). For Scales 3, Public Relations and Information Services; Scale 5, Community Exchange; and Scale 6, Education and Training of the Police, the relationship is relatively weak. Interestingly enough, for the Ws in the sample, the relationships between dogmatism and Scales 2 through 7 -- i.e., Scale 2, Image Improvement; Scale 3, Public Relations and Information Services; Scale 4, Helping Relationships and Social Services; Scale 5, Community Exchange; Scale 6, Education and Training of the Police; and Scale 7, Vocational Interest Programs, were all negative, although in no instance did the coefficient exceed -.07, and in no instance did the chi-square value reach levels that were statistically significant. Table XXVII summarizes the gamma coefficients between dogmatism and Scales 2 through 7 -- i.e., Scale 2, Image Improvement; Scale 3, Public Relations and Information Services; Scale 4, Helping Relationships and Social Services; Scale 5, Community Exchange; Scale 6, Education and Training of the Police; and Scale 7, Vocational Interest Programs, for the white subjects in the sample.

Since the cutting points utilized in trichotomizing the scale scores for the tabular analysis could affect the value of the gamma coefficients, Pearsonian correlation coefficients were computed between dogmatism and the score which whites and the non-whites obtained on each scale. Data presented in Table XXVIII summarize the results of that analysis, which in general supported the conclusions reached on the basis of tabular analysis -- among white subjects there was no

significant relationship between dogmatism and the scale scores, although such a relationship was found for the Non-Whites.

TABLE XXVII

GAMMA COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN DOGMATISM AND SCALE SCORES:
WHITE SUBJECTS

Scale	Gamma
2. Image Improvement	-.070
3. Public Relations and Information Services	-.037
4. Helping Relationships and Social Services	-.035
5. Community Exchange	-.008
6. Education and Training of the Police	-.053
7. Vocational Interest	-.035

TABLE XXVIII

PEARSON CORRELATIONS: DOGMATISM AND SCALE SCORES

	Scale	Whites	Non-Whites
1.	Perception of the Police	.069	.022
2.	Image Improvement	.082	.211
3.	Public Relations and Information Services	.042	.262
4.	Helping Relationships and Social Services	.036	.293
5.	Community Exchange	.041	.270
6.	Education and Training of the Police	.035	.266
7.	Vocational Interest Programs	.011	.454
8.	Total PCR Score	.013	.358

Overall, the results of the analysis suggested that the factor of Race was more important in Perceptions of the Police than was Dogmatism. Based on these findings, it can be suggested that the latter variable apparently had significant impact on Perceptions of the Police among non-white subjects only. In the next chapter, possible application of these findings will be presented.

CHAPTER VI

APPLYING THE CITIZEN INVOLVEMENT APPROACH TO

POLICE-COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROGRAMMING

Typically, Police-Community Relations (PCR) programs have been

developed and implemented by the police agency and have been designed to

enable the public to understand better police roles and police problems.

During the past decade, the thrust of such programs was usually directed

toward reducing tension between police and minority groups within the

community. Yet today it is increasingly common to regard the improve-

ment of police-minority group relations as but one component of a larger

concept of PCR programs and services that are directed to the community

as a whole. This shift in emphasis has been embellished by plaudits

from those who recognize the desirability of involving all of the com-

munity in what might be more aptly viewed as an area of all-community

concern.

Although this more recent concept has emphasized the value of the

"all-community" thrust, it -- much like the police-minority relations

programs of the 1960's -- has tended to minimize the processes of citi-

zen involvement in program determination. All too often, today's pro-

grams continue to emerge, live, and die without benefit of consumer

(i.e., citizen) involvement in those aspects of need-assessment, plan-

ning, implementation, and evaluation which contribute to their success

or failure. When extensive consumer representation is not facilitated,

such efforts are likely to culminate in just another police-public rela-
tions effort, and may only serve to enhance the police image as embraced
by those who already hold the police in somewhat positive esteem. This
pattern typically yields programs which are actually concerned with
public relations rather than community relations. In these cases,
public relations is distinguished from community relations in that they
resoundingly convey police-originated plaudits such as "look at what we
are doing for you", rather than citizen-originated plaudits such as "we
can work together", which typifies the true community relations program.

The usual "Police Neighborhood Service Center" is but one example
in which the consumer becomes ex parte to the program development pro-
cess. Under the banner of improving the police and community relation-
ship and preventing crime, the police agency descends upon target
neighborhoods by opening the storefront service center, with the agency
determining the site, services, staffing, funding, and other program
dimensions without the benefit of direct consumer input. Although the
center is opened with a flurry of publicity and quasi-political endorse-
ments, where are the consumers seeking to interact with their police?
Many may have attended for the "grand opening", but minimal participa-
tion in the day-to-day operation of the facility is the rule rather than
the exception. If by chance or design the center has been staffed with
an officer who is adept in the skills of encouraging consumer participa-
tion, it may begin to function adequately after an appreciable lapse of
time. But this usually requires the skilled facilitator, unhampered by
departmental restraints to enter the neighborhood area, achieve some
level of acceptance, and encourage citizen participation in a program
for which officialdom has merely verbalized a commitment to achieve

citizen participation. Generally, police personnel responsible for the operational success of these usually agency-centered programs are virtually precluded from attaining the agency's expectations of program efficacy. Such personnel, who can be either skilled or unskilled in the art of mobilizing citizen participation, are confronted with a formidable barrier to attaining efficacy of service delivery which is inherent in any agency-determined program. In essence, these practitioners are confronted with facilitating a high quality of consumer participation at an advanced stage of program delivery without benefit of similarly high quality interaction at the earliest stages of problem identification and subsequent program development. Often, the initiation of agency-determined PCR programs which produce barriers to viable consumer participation tend to have far reaching negative effects which stifle citizen participation, not only in the current program, but in those which are attempted in the future as well.

The effective PCR program, on the other hand, facilitates community problem solving through cooperative "first-hand" experiences between police and citizens. Such programs emphasize active citizen involvement in all aspects of PCR programming as a means for attaining cooperation and mutual understanding between police and community.

Suggestions for Further Research

The methodology employed in the Survey of Perceptions of Police-Community Relations: Household Opinions and Attitude Survey, Wichita, Kansas, 1973, which was conducted by faculty and students at Wichita State University's Department of Administration of Justice represents an approach which can be utilized by police agencies to initiate

community involvement in PCR program determination. Although this instrument was appropriate for the Wichita community, researchers and PCR program planners in other communities should be encouraged to use this methodology. However, in some communities the researchers and planners may find it desirable to modify this instrument to include items which reflect the particular concerns of their community with regards to existing and proposed PCR programs.

The importance of the distinction between white and non-white responses has been adequately demonstrated with this research; therefore, it is appropriate to encourage future researchers to continue to consider the race of the Ss as a critical variable in research of this nature. It seems less important that dogmatism be retained as a critical variable for such purposes; yet, it would be desirable if future research explored further the relationship between dogmatism and citizen attitudes toward police and PCR programming.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aaron, T. J.

   1965a   "The Decline of Public Order: Time for a Change in Law
             Enforcement Philosophy?" Police, 9, 26-27.

   1965b   "Education and Professionalism in American Law Enforcement."
             Police, 9, 37-41.

Adams, H. E., and R. N. Vidulich.

   1962   "Dogmatism and Belief Congruence in Paired--Associate
            Learning." Psychological Reports, 10, 91-94.

Adams, T. F.

   1968   Law Enforcement. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas.

Anderson, R. E.

   1968   "Are Our Large City Police Departments Being Neutralized?"
            Police, 12, 14-17.

Arm, W.

   1969   The Policeman: An Inside Look at His Role in Society.
            New York: E. P. Dutton.

Ashenhurst, P. H.

   1956   Police and the People. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C.
            Thomas.

Banton, M.

   1964   The Policeman in the Community. London: Basic Books.

Bard, M.

   1967   "Family Intervention Police Teams as a Community Mental
            Health Resource." Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and
            Police Science, 60, 247-250.

   1968   "Family Intervention Police Teams as a Community Mental
            Health Resource." Paper presented at a symposium at the APA
            76th Annual Convention in San Francisco, Calif.

Bard, M., and B. Berkowitz.

  1968   "Family Disturbance as a Police Function." Paper presented at
          the Second National Symposium on L. E. Research Institute,
          Chicago, Ill.

Bayley, D., and H. Mendelsohn.

  1969   Minorities and the Police: Confrontations in America.
          New York: The Free Press.

Becker, H. K., and G. T. Felkener.

  1968   Law Enforcement: A Selected Bibliography. Meutchen, N. J.:
          Scarecrow Press.

Black, A.

  1968   The People and the Police. New York: McGraw-Hill Book
          Company.

Blackmore, R. J.

  1964   "The Law Enforcement Image: A Partnership With the Community."
          Police Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: International Associa-
          tion of Chiefs of Police, 227-230.

Bonan, R. C.

  1967   "T.V. Drama Helps Train Police Officers." Police Chief, 34,
          53.

Bordura, D. J., and L. Tift.

  1971   "Police Community Relations." Law and Society, 155-170.

Bouma, D.

  1969   Kids and Cops. Grand Rapids, Mich.: Eerdmans.

Brandstatter, A. F.

  1968   "Today's Police Need Extensive Training." Michigan Municipal
          Review, 41, 55-56.

Brandstatter, A. F., and L. A. Radelet.

  1968   Police-Community Relations: A Sourcebook. New York: Free
          Press.

Brannon, B. C.

    1968   "Professional Development of Law Enforcement" in A. F.
              Bradstatter and L. A. Radelet (eds.) Police-Community
              Relations: A Sourcebook. New York: Free Press, 302-316.

Brown, Lee P.

    1971   "Typology: Orientation of Police Community Relations
              Programs." The Police Chief, 38, 3 (March), 16-21.

Chamberline, C.

    1968   "Public Relations in the Small Department." Law and Order,
              16, 108.

Clark, J. P.

    1965   "Isolation of the Police: A Comparison of the British and
              American Situations." Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology,
              and Police Science, 12, 276-286.

Coe, R. M., and A. B. Duke.

    1963   "Public Attitude Toward the Police." Police, 8, 73-76.

Coon, T. F.

    1969   "Law Enforcement Technology Welcomes the 'Chopper Copper.'"
              Police, 13, 6-8.

Costello, A. E.

    1889   Our Police Protectors. Montclair, N. J.: Patterson Smith.

Cowley, D. M.

    1965   "The Police and the Computer." Police Management Review,
              2, 3.

Cumming, E., I. M. Cumming, and L. Edell.

    1965   "Policeman as Philosopher, Guide, and Friend." Social
              Problems, 12, 276-286.

Curry, J. E.

    1962   "Tale of Two Cities: The Crucial Role of Police in Community
              Change." Sections N and O of Proceedings of the Institute on
              Police Community Relations. East Lansing: Michigan State
              Press.

Day, F. D.

    1965   "Administration of Criminal Justice: An Educational Design
            in Higher Education." Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology,
            and Police Science, 56, 540-544.

Direnzo, G. J.

    1967   "Dogmatism and Orientations Toward Liturgical Change."
            Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion, 7, 278.

Dougherty, R.

    1964   "The Case for the Cop." Harpers, 229, 129-133.

Druckman, D.

    1967   "Dogmatism, Prenegotiation Experience, and Simulated Group
            Representation as Determinants of Dyadic Behavior in a
            Bargaining Situation." Journal of Personality and Social
            Psychology, 6, 279-290.

Earle, H. H.

    1966   Police-Community Relations: Crisis in Our Time.
            Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas.

    1969   "Police Community Relations: The Role of the First Line
            Officer." Police, 14, 23-28.

Edwards, A. L.

    1968   Experimental Design in Psychological Research. New York:
            Holt, Rhinehart and Winston.

Edwards, G.

    1968   "The Constitution and the Citizen: The Quest for Balance!" in
            A. F. Brandstatter and L. A. Redelet (eds.) Police-Community
            Relations: A Sourcebook. New York: Free Press, 151-161.

Eisenberg, T., R. H. Fosen, and A. S. Glickman.

    1971   Project PACE: Police and Community Enterprise--A Program for
            Change in Police-Community Behaviors." Washington: American
            Institute for Research.

Epstein, C.

    1962   Intergroup Relations for Police Officers. Baltimore:
            Williams and Wilkins Co.

Falk, G. J.

  1964   "The Public's Prejudice Against the Police." American Bar
          Association Journal, 50, 754-757.

Feather, N. T.

  1967   "Evaluation of Religious and Neutral Arguments in Religious
          and Atheist Student Groups." Australian Journal of
          Psychology, 19, 3-12.

Federal Bureau of Investigation.

  1967   "How Does Your Department Rate on Courtesy?" FBI Law Enforce-
          ment Bulletin.

  1971   Crime in the United States, p. 165-172.

Ferguson, F.

  1969   "Police-Community Coffee Klatch." Police, 13, 19-22.

Fleck, T. A., and T. J. Newsom.

  1969   "The Police Role in Modern Society." Police, 13, 21-27.

Fleisher, L. A. (ed.)

  1967   Police-Community Relations. Chapel Hill: North Carolina
          Institute of Government.

Fosdick, R. B.

  1920   American Police Systems. Montclair, N. J.: Patterson Smith.

Foster, J., R. Stanek, and W. Krassowski.

  1961   The Impact of a Value Oriented University on Student Attitudes
          and Thinking. Santa Clara, California: University of Santa
          Clara.

Gardner, J. A.

  1966   "Police Discretion: The Case of Traffic Law Enforcement."
          (Ph. D. dissertation, Harvard University, 1966.)

Garmire, B. L.

  1961   "Understanding Others: The Police and the Citizen" in A. F.
          Brandstatter and L. A. Radlet (eds.) Police-Community Rela-
          tions: A Sourcebook. New York: Free Press.

George, B. J.

   1966   "Police Practices and the Citizen." Police, 10, 38-42.

Germann, A. C.

   1965   "American Policemen: Social Workers." Texas Police Journal,
             12, 1-4.

   1967   "The Hip Scene: A New Community." Police, 12, 43-46.

   1970   "The Police, A Mission and a Role." Police Chief, 37, 16-19.

Germann, A. C., et al.

   1962   Introduction to Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice.
             Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas.

Goldstein, H.

   1963   "Police Discretion: The Ideal Versus the Real." Public
             Administration Review, 23, 140-148.

   1968a   "Trial Judges and the Police." Crime and Delinquency, 14-25.

   1968b   "Police Response to Urban Crisis." Public Administration
             Review, 28, 393-430.

Goldstein, J.

   1960   "Police Discretion Not to Invoke the Legal Process: Low
             Visibility in the Administration of Justice." Yale Law
             Review, 69, 543-594.

Haagensen, K. W.

   1969   "Are We Really Getting Through to the People?" Law Enforce-
             ment Bulletin, 8-10.

Hallenbeck, P. N., and S. Lundsedt.

   1966   "Some Relations Between Dogmatism, Denial and Depression."
             Journal of Social Psychology, 70, 53-58.

Harrison, L., and M. Rieser.

   n.d.   Grant proposal to improve police-student relations (mimeo),
             Los Angeles.

Hartman, J. J.

   1971   Findings of the 1971 Wichita Alcohol Safety Action Program.
             Wichita, Kansas: Wichita State University.

Hellkamp, D. T., and J. N. Marr.

    1965   "Dogmatism and Field-Dependency." Perceptual and Motor
            Skills, 20, 1048.

Hildebrand, J. A.

    1969   "The Detective Bureau: A Path to Professionalization in
            Metropolitan Police Departments." Police, 13, 41-47.

International Association of Chiefs of Police.

    1965   Selected Readings in Police-Community Relations. Washington,
            D. C.: IACP.

International Police Association.

    1968   International Bibliography of Selected Police Literature.
            London: IAP.

Iverson, M., and H. G. Schwab.

    1967   "Ethnocentric Dogmatism and Binocular Fusion of Sexually and
            Radically Discrepant Stimuli." Journal of Personality and
            Social Psychology, 7, 73-81.

Jones, M. E.

    1966   "Police Leadership and Human Relations." Police, 10, 42-53.

Keller, O. J., and C. B. Vedder.

    1965   "The Police and Middle Class Conflicts." Police, 9, 6-8.

Kenny, J. P.

    1964   The California Police. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas.

Kemp, C. G.

    1963   "Perception of Authority in Relation to Open and Closed Belief
            Systems." Science Education, 47, 482-484.

Klein, H. T.

    1968   The Police: Damned If They Do, Damned If They Don't.
            New York: Crown.

Klyman, F. I.

    1973a   The Administration of Justice Neighborhood Service Center.
            Project Proposal to the City Commissioners of Wichita,
            Kansas.

Klyman, F. I.

  1973b   "Police-Community Relations Survey: A Quantitative Inventory
           of Services and Work Units." Police Legal Review, 3, 13-25.

Kruckenberg, J.

  1972   "Agression and Hostility in Police and Psychology Students
           Using the Buss-Durkee Inventory and Role Reversal."
           (Unpublished manuscript, Wichita State University.)

Kuchel, G. H., and A. V. Pottavina.

  1969   "Juveniles Look at Their Police." Police, 13, 25-27.

Kuvkendall, J. L.

  1970   "Police and Minority Groups--Toward a Theory of Negative
           Contracts." Police, 13, 47-55.

Lane, Roger.

  1967   Policing the City, Boston: 1822-1885. Montclair, N. J.:
           Patterson Smith.

Lett, H. A.

  1963   "A Sense of Responsibility" in A. F. Brandstatter and L. A.
           Radelet (eds.) Police-Community Relations: A Sourcebook.
           New York: Free Press.

Levy, J., and M. Rokeach.

  1960   "The Formation of New Perceptual Systems" in M. Rokeach, The
           Open and Closed Mind. New York: Basic Books.

Liberman, R.

  1969   "Police as a Community Mental Health Resource." Community
           Mental Health Journal, 2, 32-40

Likert, R.

  1932   "A Technique for the Measurement of Attitudes." Archives of
           Psychology, 140.

Lipsitt, P. D., and J. Steinbruner.

  1969   "An Experiment in Police-Community Relations: A Small Group
           Approach." Community Mental Health Journal, 5, 78-80.

105

Lohman, J. D.

1968   "Why Human Relations Training for Police?" in A. F.
          Brandstatter and L. A. Radelet (eds.) Police-Community
          Relations: A Sourcebook. New York: Free Press.

Lohman, J. D., and J. D. Misner.

1967   "The Police and the Community: The Dynamics of Their Rela-
          tionship in a Changing Community." President's Commission on
          Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. Washington,
          D. C.

Los Angeles Police Department.

1968   Manual of the Devonshire Division, LAPD.

Lunden, W. A.

1965   "The Police and the People." Police, 9, 24-26.

McCarthy, J., and R. C. Johnson.

1962   "Interpretation of the 'City Hall Riots' as a Function of
          General Dogmatism." Psychological Reports, 11, 243-245.

McEvoy, Donald.

1969   Police and Community Relations is a Two Way Street. New York:
          National Conference of Christians and Jews.

McMillan, G.

1964   Racial Violence and Law Enforcement. Atlanta: Georgia State
          University Press.

Mihanovich, C. S.

1965   "Programming for Citizen Participation in Police Action
          Programs." Police Chief, 32, 27-33.

Mikol, B.

1960   "The Enjoyment of New Musical Systems" in M. Rokeach The Open
          and Closed Mind. New York: Basic Books.

Misner, G. E.

1967   "The Urban Police Mission." Issues in Criminology, 3, 35-46.

Misner, G. E., and R. B. Hoffman.

1967   "Police Resource Allocation." Presented at the American
          Association for the Advancement of Science, New York.

Mitchel, R. E.

    1966   "Organization as the Key to Police Effectiveness." Crime and
             Delinquency, 12, 344-353.

Murphy, P. V.

    1967   "Police and the Community-Probing for Mutual Understanding."
             Proceedings of the Institute on Police-Community Relations.

    1972   "Social Change and the Police." Police.

National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders.

    1968   National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders Report.
             New York: Bantam.

New York Police Department.

    1970   Policy statement (Mimeo.).

New York University Graduate School of Public Administration.

    1963   Papers on Police Administration and Civil Disobedience.
             New York.

Niederhoffer, A.

    1967   Behind the Shield: The Police in Urban Society. Garden City,
             N. Y.: Doubleday Anchor.

Norris, E. L.

    1965   "Attitude Change as a Function of Open or Closed-Mindedness."
             Journalism Quarterly, 42, 571-575.

Parnas, E. D.

    1963   "The Relationship Between Self-Acceptance and Dogmatism in
             Junior-Senior High School Students." Journal of Educational
             Sociology, 36, 419-426.

Parnas, R.

    1967   "The Police Response to Domestic Disturbance." Wisconsin Law
             Review, 4, 914-960.

Payton, G. T.

    1966   "Ethics and Professional Law Enforcement." Police Chief, 33,
             24-40.

Pfiffner, J. M.

    1967   The Function of the Police in a Democratic Society. Los
             Angeles: University of Southern California Press.

Phillips, R. M.

    1965   "An Ounce of Prevention is Worth a Pound of Cure." Police, 9,
             27-29.

Pitchess, P. J.

    1970   "Career Development for Professional Law Enforcement."
             Police, 15, 5-10.

Police Chief, the OLEA Fellowship Program.

    1968   Police Chief, 35, 22-30.

Police Yearbook.

    1965   "Police Problems and Social Change, a Workshop." Police
             Yearbook, 143-164.

Pomrenke, N., C. E. Cherry, and H. Burton.

    1967   "New Approach to Crime Prevention: Community Services."
             Police Chief, 34, 33-41.

Powell, F. A.

    1962   "Open and Closed Mindedness and the Ability to Differentiate
             Source and Message." Journal of Abnormal and Social
             Psychology, 65, 61-64.

Preiss, J. J., and H. J. Ehrlich.

    1966   An Examination of the Role Theory: The Case of the State
             Police. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of
Justice.

    1967   The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society. Washington, D. C.:
             U. S. Government Printing Office.

Price, C.

    1963   "Ethics and Professionalization in American Law Enforcement."
             Police, 7, 6-12.

Purdy, E. W.

    1966   "The Police as Community Leaders." Police, 10, 57-63.

Pyron, B., and J. Kafer.

1967   "Recall of Nonsense and Attitudinal Rigidity." _Journal of Personality_ and _Social_ _Psychology_, 5, 463-466.

Radelet, L. A.

1966   "Implications of Professionalism in Law Enforcement for Police-Community Relations." _Police_, 10, 82-86.

Rapoport, A.

1960   _Fights_, _Games_, _and_ _Debates_. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Reiss, A. J.

1967a   "Professionalism and the Police." _Proceedings_ _of_ _the_ _Institute_ _of_ _Police-Community_ _Relations_, Section E. East Lansing: Michigan State University Press.

1967b   "Studies in Crime and Law Enforcement in Major Metropolitan Areas." _Field_ _Survey_ _for_ _the_ _President's_ _Commission_ _of_ _Law_ _Enforcement_ _and_ _the_ _Administration_ _of_ _Justice_. Washington, D. C.

1969   "A Civil Police in a Civil Society." _Yale_ _Reports_, 517.

Remington, F. J.

1964   "Social Change, the Law and the Common Good." _Proceedings_ _of_ _the_ _Institute_ _on_ _Police-Community_ _Relations_, Section H. East Lansing: Michigan State University Press.

1965   "The Police Role in a Democratic Society." _Police_ _Yearbook_.

Rigert, J.

1968   "Cop-Out on Community Relations." _Commonwealth_, 89, 305-306.

Rokeach, M.

1954   "The Nature and Meaning of Dogmatism." _Psychological_ _Review_, 61, 194-204.

1956   "Political and Religious Dogmatism: An Alternative to the Authoritarian Personality." _Psychological_ _Monographs_, 70, Whole No. 425.

1960   _The_ _Open_ _and_ _Closed_ _Mind_. New York: Basic Books.

1968   _Beliefs_, _Attitudes_, _and_ _Values_. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Rokeach, M., and R. Bonier.

1960   "Time Perspective, Dogmatism, and Anxiety" in M. Rokeach The
         Open and Closed Mind. New York: Basic Books.

Rosenman, M. F.

1967   "Dogmatism and the Movie 'Dr. Strangelove.'"   Psychological
         Reports, 20, 942.

Routh, F.

1966   "The Police Role in a Democratic Society."   Proceedings of the
         Institute on Police-Community Relations, Section Q.   East
         Lansing: Michigan State University Press.

San Diego Model Cities Program.

1970   Mid-Term Planning Statement.   San Diego, California.

Scammon, R. M., and B. J. Wattenberg.

1970   The Real Majority: How the Silent American Center of the
         Electorate Chooses Its President.   New York: Coward-McCann.

Schmideberg, M.

1960   "The Offender's Attitude Toward Punishment."   Journal of
         Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 51, 328-334.

Schultze, R. H. K.

1962   "A Shortened Version of the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale."   Journal
         of Psychological Studies, 13, 93-97.

Scott, R. H.

1962   "Changing Attitudes Toward Crime."   Proceedings on the
         Institute of Police-Community Relations, Section D.   East
         Lansing: Michigan State University Press.

Selzman, R. M.

1969   "The Police, The Public, Public Order and The Law."   Police
         Chief, 36, 36-39.

Silver, A.

1967   "The Demand for Order in a Civil Society: A Review of Some
         Themes in the History of Urban Crime, Police, and Riot" in
         D. J. Bordura (ed.) The Police, Six Sociological Essays.
         New York: Free Press.

Skolnick, J. H.

    1966a   Justice Without Trial: Law Enforcement in a Democratic Society. New York: John Wiley.

    1966b   "Conventional Morality, Judicial Control and Police Conduct" in Justice Without Trial: Law Enforcement in a Democratic Society. New York: John Wiley, 204-227.

    1966c   "Operational Environment and Police Discretion" in Justice Without Trial: Law Enforcement in a Democratic Society. New York: John Wiley, 71-88.

    1966d   "A Sketch of a Policeman's Working Personality" in Justice Without Trial: Law Enforcement in a Democratic Society. New York: John Wiley, 42-67.

Smith, R. L.

    1965   The Tarnished Badge. New York: Basic Books.

Stahl, D.

    1966   The Community in Racial Crisis. New York: Basic Books.

Tamm, Q.

    1965   "Understanding the Police." Proceedings of the Institute on Police-Community Relation, Section J.

Taylor, C. R.

    1969   "Standards for Selection, Education, and Training of Police Personnel." Police, 14, 36-40.

Thompson, W. E.

    1965   "Police as Community Leaders." Proceedings of the Institute on Police-Community Relations, Section B. East Lansing: Michigan State University Press.

Tocchio, O. J.

    1970   "It is Time to Develop a New Caliber Policeman." Police, 14, 36-40.

Tosi, D. J., T. K. Fagan, and R. M. Frumkin.

    1968   "Relation of Levels of Digmatism and Perceived Threat Under Conditions of Group Personality Testing." Perceptual and Motor Skills, 26, 481-482.

Towler, J. E.

    1964   The Police Role in Racial Conflicts. Springfield, Ill.:
            Charles C. Thomas.

Trodahl, V., and F. A. Powell.

    1965   "A Short-Form Dogmatism Scale for Use in Field Studies."
            Social Forces, 44, 211-215.

Turner, V. S.

    1968   "Police Work in the Ghetto." Law and Order, 16, 80-93.

Vacchiano, R. B., P. S. Strauss, and D. C. Schiffman.

    1968   "Personality Correlates of Dogmatism." Journal of Consulting
            and Clinical Psychology, 32, 83-85.

Van Allen, E. J.

    1968   Our Handcuffed Police: The Assault Upon Law and Order in
            America and What Can Be Done About It. Mineola, N. Y.:
            Repertorial.

Van Asselt, K. A.

    1967   "Development of a Statewide Training Program--the Oregon
            Experience." Police Chief, 34, 55-57.

Vidulich, R. N., and I. P. Kaiman.

    1961   "The Effects of Information Source Status and Dogmatism Upon
            Conformity Behavior." Journal of Abnormal and Social
            Psychology, 63, 639-642.

Wallace, D. B.

    1968   "Crime Prevention Program for Businessmen and Women." Crime
            and Delinquency Abstracts.

Wakow, A. I.

    1966   From Race Riot to Sit-In. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday.

Watson, N.

    1963   Police and the Changing Community: Selected Readings.
            Washington, D. C.: International Association of Chiefs of
            Police.

Whisenand, P. M.

1966a   "Equipping Men for Professional Development in Police
           Service: The Federal Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965."
           Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science, 57,
           223-227.

1966b   "The Up-Grading of Educational Requirements for Police
           Officers: Unplanned for Personnel Problems." Police Chief,
           33, 39-43.

White, B. J., and R. D. Alter.

1965   "Dogmatism, Authoritarianism, and Contrast Effects in
           Judgment." Perceptual and Motor Skills, 20, 99-101.

Wilson, J. Q.

1968a   Varieties of Police Behavior. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard
           University Press.

1968b   "The Service Style" in Varieties of Police Behavior.
           Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 200-226.

1968c   "The Legalistic Style" in Varieties of Police Behavior.
           Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 172-199.

1968d   "Police Discretion" in Varieties of Police Behavior.
           Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

1968e   "Dilemmas of Police Administration." Public Administration
           Review, 28, 393-430.

Wilson, O. W.

1964   "How the Police Chief Sees It." Harpers, 228, 140-145.

Zagona, S. V., and L. A. Zurcher.

1965   "Notes on the Reliability and Validity of the Dogmatism
           Scale." Psychological Reports, 16, 1234-1236.

Zurcher, L. A., J. E. Willis, F. Ikard, and J. A. Dohme.

1967   "Dogmatism, Future Orientation, and Perception of Time."
           Journal of Social Psychology, 63, 205-209.

APPENDIX A

A SURVEY OF PERCEPTIONS OF POLICE-COMMUNITY

RELATIONS

A SURVEY OF PERCEPTIONS OF POLICE-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Household Opinion and Attitude Survey

Wichita, Kansas

1973

Department of Administration of Justice
Wichita State University

Sample No.

Tract No.

Block No.

Address _____

This is a survey to obtain the opinions and attitudes of residents of Wichita, Kansas toward Police-Community Relations. It is being conducted by faculty and students of the Department of Administration of Justice, Wichita State University.

To enable me to select the member of your household to be interviewed, I first need to know the approximate ages of all females over the age of 16 who are permanent residents at this address (oldest first, second oldest, etc.; list below). Now may I have the approximate ages of all males over the age of 16 who are permanent residents at this address (oldest first, second oldest, etc.; continue list). (Check the total household members and circle the number indicating person interviewed.)

FEMALE

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

4 _____

5 _____

MALE

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

4 _____

5 _____

	1	2	3	4
Date				
Time				
Results				

C - completed

RNH - respondent not home

APM - appointment made (state date & time)

CERTIFICATION

I hereby certify that the information listed on this form has been obtained by me from the respondents and is accurate and complete.

Age

Interviewer Signature   Date

Sex

Instructions: Make a check in the appropriate blank.
Ignore the printed numbers on the blanks.
Thank you.

1) For how many years have you been a Wichita resident?

Not a Wichita resident	1
Less than 1 year	2
1 year but less than 3 years	3
3 years but less than 5 years	4
5 years but less than 10 years	5
10 years but less than 20 years	6
20 years and over	7

2) What is your race?

Black	1
White	2
Chicano	3
Oriental	4
Indian	5
Other	6

3) What is your ordinary occupation when at work?

Blue Collar	1
White Collar	2
Professional, managerial, and executive	3
College student	4
High school student	5
Housewife	6
Police Officer	7

Please specify _____

4) Are you now

Employed	1
Unemployed	2
Retired	3

5) What is your total family income for the last year?

Less than $3,000 per year	1
$3,000-$4,999	2
$5,000-$6,999	3
$7,000-$9,999	4
$10,000-$14,999	5
$15,000-$19,999	6
$20,000-$24,999	7
$25,000-$29,999	8
$30,000 and over	9

6) Please indicate your highest educational attainment.

Eighth grade or less	1
Some High School	2
High School Graduate	3
Some College or Technical School	4
Bachelor's Degree	5
Some Graduate School	6
Master's Degree	7
Doctorate (Please specify _____)	8

7) How many times per month do you come in contact with Wichita Policemen?

Write in a number.   _____

Instructions: Say, "NOW I'M GOING TO READ SOME STATEMENTS. YOU MAY FIND YOURSELF AGREEING STRONGLY WITH SOME OF THE STATEMENTS ... DISAGREEING JUST AS STRONGLY WITH OTHERS... AND PERHAPS UNCERTAIN ABOUT OTHERS. WHETHER YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH ANY STATEMENT, YOU CAN BE SURE THAT MANY PEOPLE FEEL THE SAME AS YOU DO. WE WANT YOUR PERSONAL OPINION ON EACH STATEMENT.

(H A N D   T H E   R E S P O N D E N T   T H E   C A R D)

"WE WANT YOUR PERSONAL OPINION ON EACH STATEMENT. WHEN I READ EACH ONE, FIRST TELL ME WHETHER IN GENERAL YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH IT, THEN TELL ME A NUMBER ... 1 THROUGH 7 ... THAT INDICATES HOW STRONGLY YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH IT. ALL OF THE ITEMS PERTAINING TO THE POLICE REFER TO THE WICHITA POLICE"

Write the number of the answer in the blank provided by each question. If the respondent does not know mark it 4 -- neutral.

8) Regardless of the reason, police response time is slower in neighborhoods other than white neighborhoods.

_____ 8

9) Policemen give the impression of feeling superior to people who are not white.

_____ 9

10) Police officers are more careful when arresting non-whites because non-whites are more likely to commit crimes of violence against police officers than whites.

_____ 10

11) There is pressure exerted on policemen by other policemen to make fun of non-white people.

_____ 11

12) Police could do a better job if they had more college education.

_____ 12

13) Policemen are often unethical (They sponge off merchants and even other people.)

_____ 13

14) Police should provide more counseling services designed to help people.

_____ 14

15) Police should work more closely with our city's social service agencies to solve community problems.

_____ 15

16) The image of the police patrol officer would be improved if his pistol and ammunition were not as visible.

_____ 16

17) Establishing a civilian board to review the actions of policemen would improve police-community relations.

_____ 17

18) Police should operate neighborhood service centers which would be located in all areas of the city to provide help and information for all people who come in.

_____ 18

19) Police should invite citizen representatives from all parts of our city to exchange ideas about police work with recruits before completion of their training.

_____ 19

20) Police should provide more services to help young people get jobs.

_____ 20

21) Usually if only one police officer is assigned to each car on patrol that officer will talk more with citizens.

_____ 21

22) During their training, police recruits should spend at least one day in jail to see what it is like.

_____ 22

23) Police should spend less time enforcing traffic laws and more time helping people who request their services.

_____ 23

24) The likelihood of a citizen being abused by a policeman in this city is high.

_____ 24

25) Police should speak before more community, civic, religious and social organizations.

_____ 25

26) Police spend too much time and energy on too many unimportant things.

_____ 26

27) Police-community relations would be improved if more women officers were added to the patrol force.

_____ 27

28) Policemen should mix more in social, cultural, and athletic functions with all groups in the community.

_____ 28

29) The use of helicopters by police in my neighborhood is disturbing.

_____ 29

30) News coverage by the newspapers in our city has generally presented a favorable relationship between the citizens and the police.

_____ 30

31) Television news coverage in our city has generally presented a favorable relationship between citizens and the police.

_____ 31

32) Radio news coverage in our city has generally presented a favorable relationship between citizens and the police.

_____ 32

33) If our city decides to operate a public ambulance service, it would improve police-community relations if specially trained policemen provided these services.

_____ 33

34) I would like to read more booklets, pamphlets, or brochures about our city's police department.

_____ 34

35) I would like to tour our city's police facilities.

_____ 35

36) When dealing with family and marital disturbances, police should seek competent professional help for the people involved.

_____ 36

37) One way for the police to improve their relationship with young people is through more police sponsored athletic and recreation programs for the youth of our city.

_____ 37

38) One way police-youth relations would be improved is if drug abuse enforcement did not include marijuana, but only included hard drugs such as heroin.

_____ 38

39) One reason why many people do not understand what our city's police really do is because they have viewed too many unrealistice crime, detective, and police programs on T.V.

_____ 39

40) Programs should be provided for poor people who seek training which will better prepare them to meet the requirements to become a police recruit.

_____ 40

41) More citizens should spend some time in a patrol car with police officers to observe what police do.

_____ 41

42) Police-community relations would improve if more high school and college age students were given part-time jobs after school hours as civilian employees of our city's police department.

_____ 42

43) If a police recruit has not completed a college degree, he should be required to do so after becoming a police officer.

_____ 43

44) The uniforms worn by our city's police officers should be in keeping with current fashions and not so military in style.

_____ 44

45) A policeman should be allowed to grow a mustache or a beard if he wants to.

_____ 45

46) If most people living in a neighborhood are of one race, most of the police officers assigned to patrol that neighborhood should be of the same race.

_____ 46

47) Police should present programs to inform citizens how they can protect themselves against crime.

_____ 47

48) A committe of police officers and residents should be formed in every neighborhood of our city to work for better police-community relations.

_____ 48

49) Police should protect the consumer more by working with consumer protection agencies.

_____ 49

50) A committee of police officers, students, and faculty should be formed in our city's colleges and universities to improve police-student relations.

_____ 50

51) A committee of police officers, students, and faculty should be formed in our city's secondary schools to improve police-student relations.

_____ 51

52) Police should present programs to inform citizens how they can get government services.

_____ 52

53) More police officers should be assigned to foot patrol (walking a beat) because it would be easier for citizens to talk with policemen on foot than those driving cars.

_____ 53

54) Generally speaking, a police officer should be a resident of the neighborhood that he is assigned to patrol.

_____ 54

55) If police programs provided for more exchange of mutual problems between police and the community citizen complaints of police abuse would decrease.

_____ 55

56) In many situations which the police respond to civil disorder, they are either "damned" if they do or "damned" if they do not.

_____ 56

57) In this complicated world of ours, the only way we can know what's going on is to rely on leaders or experts who can be trusted.

_____ 57

58) My blood boils whenever a person stubbornly refuses to admit he is wrong.

_____ 58

59) There are two kinds of people in this world: those who are for the truth and those who are against the truth.

_____ 59

60) Most people just don't know what's good for them.

_____ 60

61) Of all the different philosophies which exist in this world there is probably only one which is correct.

_____ 61

62) The highest form of govenment is a democracy and the highest form of democracy is a government run by those who are the most intelligent.

_____ 62

63) The main thing in life is for a person to want to do something important.

_____ 63

64) I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems.

_____ 64

65) Most of the ideas which get printed nowadays aren't worth the paper they are printed on.

_____ 65

66) Man on his own is a helpless and miserable creature.

_____ 66

67) It is only when a person devotes himself to an ideal or cause that life becomes meaningful.

_____ 67

68) Most people just don't give a damn for others

_____ 68

69) To compromise with our political opponents is dangerous because it usually leads to the betrayal of our side.

_____ 69

70) It is often desirable to reserve judgement about what's going on until one has had a chance to hear the opinions of those one respects.

_____ 70

71) The present is all too often full of unhappiness. It is only the future that counts.

_____ 71

72) The United States and Russia have just about nothing in common.

_____ 72

73) In a discussion, I often find it necessary to repeat myself several times.

_____ 73

74) While I don't like to admit this even to myself, my secret ambition is to become a great man, like Einstein or Beethoven or Shakespeare.

_____ 74

75) Even though freedom of speech for all groups is worthwhile goal, it is unfortunately necessary to restrict the freedom of certain political groups.

_____ 75

76) It is better to be a dead hero than a live coward.

_____ 76

APPENDIX B

INSTRUCTIONS TO INTERVIEWERS

INSTRUCTIONS TO INTERVIEWERS

I. General Instructions

The information to be collected by you on this project is to pro-
vide baseline information for a study of Police and Community Relations
in the City of Wichita. We wish to collect a random sample of informa-
tion, attitudes, and knowledge about the subject from a cross section of
the citizens of Wichita. Both the census tracts and the blocks assigned
to you have been carefully selected by a random process. We hope that
you will be able to obtain the information from the house you select by
your field procedure in each of the assigned blocks; however, when this
is not possible, a list of alternatives has been provided. (If for some
reason you are unable to obtain an interview from the house chosen by
your random process for the specified block, please go to the first
alternative on the list provided you.) The list of alternatives is to
be used only after you have exhausted the possibility of obtaining in-
formation from the household or if upon selection you find that a resi-
dence is vacant or that the residents are on vacation and not available
to you during the time you are in the field interviewing. It is essen-
tial to both you and to us that you make every effort to obtain the
interview from the first chosen household and that you view the alterna-
tive blocks as a last resort and not to be turned to relatively quickly.

II. Selection of the House

The specific house will be selected by you after going to the block
designated to provide an interviewee. For standardization, all of the
interviewers are asked to number the households, starting at the

southwest corner of the block. Start with No. 1 and number North along the Western extremity of the block, East along the Northern extremity of the block, South along the Eastern extremity of the block, and West along the Southernmost portion of the block. Thus, you will have numbered the houses, starting with 1 and going around the block, finishing with the total number of houses in the block.

A set of numbers has been provided in an envelope. You are to be sure that the numbers corresponding to the houses are included in the envelope. After shaking up the envelope, select one of the numbers from the envelope. This number will designate the house that you are to approach. Make every effort to make your contact and obtain an interview from that household.

It should be called to your attention that in the larger tracts more questionnaires are sought. At times two and, in some instances, as many as three interviews have been randomly selected for a single block. When this is the case, be sure to draw the appropriate number from your envelope of random numbers. Hence, it is possible that you will attempt to obtain two or three questionnaires from the same block. This is an exception and not the case in all census tracts.

III. Selection of Interviewee

Upon having chosen the house in which you hope to obtain your interview, flip a coin to see if you are to interview a male or female in this household. In order to be consistent, allow heads to select a female interviewee and tails to select a male interviewee. (If there are no persons of that sex at that residence then, and only then, interview one of the opposite sex.)

Then approach the house and ask the individual who comes to the door to provide you the approximate ages of all individuals 16 years of age and older, who permanently reside in the household. You will select the individual by a random process, by selecting a random number that corresponds with the number alongside the age of the individuals.

For example, if your coin flip determined that you are to interview a male and there are three male residents of the household over 16 years of age, you should place the numbers 1, 2, and 3 in an envelope, shake and draw out one of them. Interview the individual whose age appears opposite the number you have selected. It doesn't make any difference which of the individual is as long as the respondent is randomly selected.

Enter the block number in the appropriate box in the top right-hand corner of page 1 of the Survey and then fill in the address. You should also enter the sex and age of the respondent in the lower right-hand corner of page 1.

If the individual is not home at that time, attempt to make an appointment for a later time. If the individual you wish to interview is home, make every effort to obtain the information from that individual at that time. It will save you time and increase the probability of your getting the interview from that particular individual.

After approaching a household, whether you have been successful in finding someone at home, interviewing an individual or in making an appointment for a future time, please report the date, the time and the disposition of the call in the appropriate boxes on the front page of the questionnaire. If you find no one is home at the time you make your call, make three calls back to that address during the time that you are

in the field before moving to one of the alternative blocks and the procedures for selecting a replacement.

IV. Collecting Information

In general you are to regard yourself as an interviewer and as a neutral person. Your comments about Police and Community Relations should not influence the information you receive on the survey. Hence, any comments you may wish to make must be reserved until you have completed the questionnaire. If an individual makes comments requesting your attitude, please defer the individual with politeness to the end of the questionnaire. For example, you might say, "Yes, of course, I have my own attitudes about that information, but we really prefer to have your opinion about the question, and I'll be happy to give you my opinion after the conclusion of the questionnaire." This is to avoid leading the respondent into giving a socially desirable response or responses that he believes that you as the interviewer are seeking. For most of the questions, we are asking opinion-type questions and they have no "right or wrong" answers. We seek a simple recording of the attitudes of the individuals who respond to our questionnaire.

If for some reason they have difficulty in understanding or fail to respond to your request for information, please ask them if they do not understand the question or if it requires any explanation in terms of the words used in the question. You may then attempt to paraphrase or suggest in other words what the question means.

It is essential to us that you collect information about all of the questions. Make every effort to have the individual give a response to all of the questions as you ask them. Some individuals will say that

they would like to skip a particular question and come back to it later. In some instances you will not be able to avoid this and will have to go along with it, but in general, it is better to obtain the responses in the numerical order and move straight through the questionnaire.

It is imperative that <u>you have an answer for each question</u>. Please make every effort to obtain a response for each of the questions. We will be unable to use the survey if every item is not answered. Mark the appropriate line for the individual's response immediately after he has responded. On the questions answered from the card, if the inter-viewee does not know the answer, the appropriate response is 4 -- neutral.

<u>Under no set of circumstances are you to leave the questionnaire for someone to fill out and return to you or for you to pick up at a later time.</u> In all instances you will be physically present and mark the individual's responses on the questionnaire provided for that purpose.

Do not give the individual the card until it is called for in the questionnaire. Only when you have the instructions which say, "HAND THE RESPONDENT THE CARD" is it appropriate to hand the individual the card.

V. <u>Questionnaire Disposition</u>

After you have collected several questionnaires and choose to no longer have the responsibility for packing them around or having them at your house or on your person, return them to the Department of Admin-istration of Justice at 1834 Harvard. When returning the questionnaires to the A. J. office, make sure that the secretary who recieves the

questionnaires marks the log for the number of questionnaires that you

have provided and that she provides you with a receipt for the number of

questionnaires completed and turned in by you. If a questionnaire is

incomplete (i.e., one or more questions left unanswered) you will not

get credit for it.

Good luck in your interviewing and if at any time during the pro-

ject you are involved in any difficulty or in need of any assistance,

don't hesitate to call us at 689-3710. We will be most happy to assist

you in any manner in collecting the information. It is a very important

phase of our project and we very much need your full cooperation and

your best effort in collecting these data for us.

Thank you.
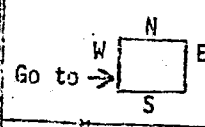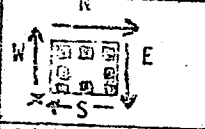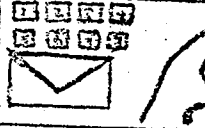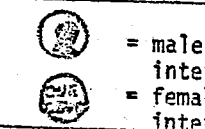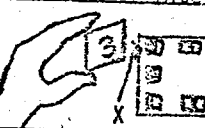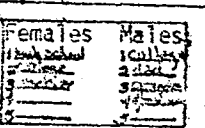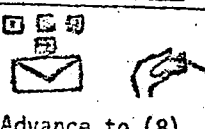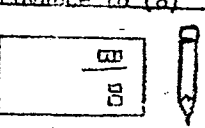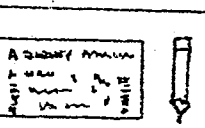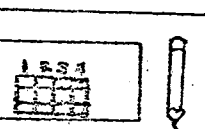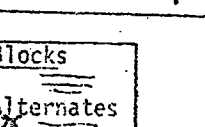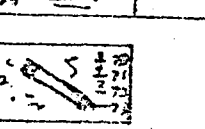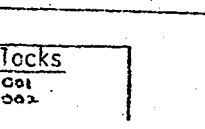
ADDENDUM

Although it is not meant to reflect on the individual integrity of

any of the interviewers selected for this project, each interviewer

should be aware that provisions have been made to do a 10% call-back on

those households interviewed in order to ascertain the validity and

reliability of the data collected.

APPENDIX C

GAME PLAN

GAME PLAN – THE SURVEY CHECK LIST

(1) Go to the Southwest corner of the block designated.

(2) Proceed to number the houses on the block going clockwise.

(3) Select the same amount of numbers, put them in the envelope and shake. Draw out one number.

(4) Flip a penny.

(5) Go to a house with that number.

(6) Ask the preson who answers the door the approximate ages of all individuals over 16. Write them down.

(7) Choose the list according to (4). Put the appropriate numbers in the envelope and shake. Draw out one number -- the interviewee.

(8) Write the block number, address, sex, and age on page one of the survey.

(9) If the individual is home, interview the individual.

(10) If the individual is not home, set up an appointment and write it on page one of the survey.

(11) If the individual is not home after three (3) call backs, go to the alternate list.

(12) Fill in every blank on the survey.

(13) Select next block number.

APPENDIX D

SCALES

SCALE ONE

PERCEPTION OF THE POLICE

8) Regarcless of the reason, police response time is slower in neighborhoods other than white neighborhoods.

_____ 8

9) Policemen give the impression of feeling superior to people who are not white.

_____ 9

10) Police officers are more careful when arresting non-whites because non-whites are more likely to commit crimes of violence against police officers than whites.

_____ 10

11) There is pressure exerted on policemen by other policemen to make fun of non-white people.

_____ 11

13) Policemen are often unethical (They sponge off merchants and even other people.)

_____ 13

24) The likelihood of a citizen being abused by a policeman in this city is high.

_____ 24

26) Police spend much time and energy on too many unimportant things.

_____ 26

29) The use of helicopters by police in my neighborhood is disturbing.

_____ 29

56) In many situations which the police respond to civil disorder, they are either "damned" if they take action or "damned" if they do not.

_____ 56

SCALE TWO

IMAGE IMPROVEMENT

12) Police could do a better job if they had more college education.

_____ 12

16) The image of the police patrol officer would be improved if his pistol and ammunition were not as visible.

_____ 16

21) Usually if only one police officer is assigned to each car on patrol that officer will talk more with citizens.

_____ 21

27) Police-community relations would be improved if more women officers were added to the police patrol force.

_____ 27

38) One way police and youth relations would be improved is if drug abuse enforcement did not include marijuana, but only included hard drugs such as heroin.

_____ 38

43) If a police recruit has not completed a college degree he should be required to do so after becoming a police officer.

_____ 43

44) The uniforms worn by our city's police officers should be in keeping with current fashions and not so military in style.

_____ 44

45) A policeman should be allowed to grow a mustache or a beard if he wants to.

_____ 45

46) If most people living in a neighborhood are of one race, most of the police officers assigned to patrol that neighborhood should be of the same race.

_____ 46

SCALE TWO (CONTINUED)

54) Generally speaking, a police officer should be a resident of the neighborhood that he is assigned to patrol.

_____ 54

SCALE THREE

PUBLIC RELATIONS AND INFORMATION SERVICES

25) Police should speak before more community, civic, religious and social organizations.

_____ 25

30) News coverage by the newspapers in our city has generally presented a favorable relationship between the citizens and the police.

_____ 30

31) Television news coverage in our city has generally presented a favorable relationship between citizens and the police.

_____ 31

32) Radio news coverage in our city has generally presented a favorable relationship between citizens and the police.

_____ 32

34) I would like to read more booklets, pamphlets, or brochures about our city's police department.

_____ 34

35) I would like to tour our city's police facilities.

_____ 35

39) One reason why many people do not understand what our city's police really do is because they have viewed too many unrealistic crime, detective, and police programs on T.V.

_____ 39

47) Police should present programs to inform citizens how they can protect themselves against crime.

_____ 47

52) Police should present programs to inform citizens how they can get government services.

_____ 52

SCALE FOUR

HELPING RELATIONSHIPS AND SOCIAL SERVICES

14) Police should provide more counseling services designed to help people.

_____ 14

15) Police should work more closely with our city's social service agencies to solve community problems.

_____ 15

18) Police should operate neighborhood service centers which would be located in all areas of the city to provide help and information for all people who come in.

_____ 18

20) Police should provide more services to help young people get jobs.

_____ 20

22) During their training, police recruits should spend at least one day in jail to see what it is like.

_____ 22

23) Police should spend less time enforcing traffic laws and more time helping people who request their services.

_____ 23

33) If our city decides to operate a public ambulance service, it would improve police-community relations if specially trained policemen provided these services.

_____ 33

36) When dealing with family and marital disturbances, police should seek competent professional help for the people involved.

_____ 36

40) Programs should be provided for poor people who seek training which will better prepare them to meet the requirements to become a polic police recruit.

_____ 40

SCALE FOUR (CONTINUED)

42) Police-community relations would improve if more high school and
college age students were given part-time jobs after school hours
as civilian employees of our city's police department.

_____ 42

49) Police should protect the consumer more by working with consumer
protection agencies.

_____ 49

SCALE FIVE

COMMUNITY EXCHANGE

17) Establishing a civilian board to review the actions of policemen would improve police-community relations.

_____ 17

19) Police should invite citizen representatives from all parts of our city to exchange ideas about police work with recruits before completion of their training.

_____ 19

28) Policemen should mix more in social, cultural and athletic functions with all groups in the community.

_____ 28

37) One way for the police to improve their relationship with young people is through more police sponsored athletic and recreation programs for the youth of our city.

_____ 37

41) More citizens should spend some time in a patrol car with police officers to observe what police do.

_____ 41

48) A committee of police officers and residents should be formed in every neighborhood of our city to work for better police-community relations.

_____ 48

50) A committee of police officers, students, and faculty should be formed in our city's colleges and universities to improve police-student relations.

_____ 50

51) A committee of police officers, students, and faculty should be formed in our city's secondary schools to improve police-student relations.

_____ 51

SCALE FIVE (CONTINUED)

53)   More police officers should be assigned to foot patrol (walking a
      beat) because it would be easier for citizens to talk with police-
      men on foot than those driving cars.

                                                          _____ 53

55)   If police programs provided for more exchange of mutual problems
      between police and the community, citizen complaints of police
      abuse would decrease.

                                                          _____ 55

SCALE SIX

EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE POLICE

12) Police could be a better job if they had more college education.

_____ 12

19) Police should invite citizen representatives from all parts of our city to exchange ideas about police work with recruits before completion of their training.

_____ 19

43) If a police recruit has not completed a college degree he should be required to do so after becoming a police officer.

_____ 43

50) A committee of police officers, students, and faculty should be formed in our city's colleges and universities to improve police-student relations.

_____ 50

51) A committee of police officers, students, and faculty should be formed in our city's secondary schools to improve police-student relations.

_____ 51

SCALE SEVEN

VOCATIONAL INTEREST PROGRAMS

18) Police should operate neighborhood service centers which would be located in all areas of the city to provide help and information for all people who come in.

_____ 18

20) Police should provide more services to help young people get jobs.

_____ 20

27) Police-community relations would be improved if more women officers were added to the police patrol force.

_____ 27

40) Programs should be provided for poor people who seek training which will better prepare them to meet the requirements to become a police recruit.

_____ 40

42) Police-community relations would improve if more high school and college age students were given part-time jobs after school hours as civilian employees of our city's police department.

_____ 42

APPENDIX E

PRELIMINARY REPORT OF CITIZEN RESPONSES

PRELIMINARY REPORT OF CITIZEN RESPONSES

To

"A Survey of Perceptions of Police-Community Relations"

A Household Opinion and Attitude Survey

Conducted in Wichita, Kansas

January - May 1973

By

The Department of Administration of Justice

Wichita State University

Fred I. Klyman, Asst. Professor
and
Joanna M. Kruckenberg, Asst. Instructor

June 14, 1973

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

1. To obtain an overview of the perceptions or attitudes of the police held by the citizens of Wichita, Kansas.

2. To obtain an overview of the perceptions held by the citizens of Wichita, Kansas as they relate to a variety of police-community relations programs and services.

3. To obtain differential ratings of these perceptions according to the race of citizens.

All of which, hopefully will yield indicators to assist in police-community relations program planning, implementation and evaluation in this city.

SAMPLE

One thousand (1,000) Wichita citizens comprised the subjects of this survey. The subjects were randomly selected in a manner which caused them to equate with the 1970 Census Report for Wichita which was compiled by the U. S. Department of Commerce's Census Bureau. Thus, the subjects interviewed comprise a group which adequately and proportionately reflects the 1) age, 2) sex, 3) race, 4) income, which is characteristic of the 16 years of age and above population of this city.

INTERVIEW METHOD

Students majoring in the Department of Administration of Justice, Wichita State University, conducted the interviews. Several of the over 20 student-interviewers were Wichita Police Officers, but they only disclosed that they were W.S.U. students (to offset bias response). All interviews were transacted during the period spanning January through May, 1973.

The interviewers carefully explained that the interviews were being conducted by the Department of the Administration of Justice of Wichita State University to obtain the opinions and attitudes of Wichitans toward community relations with their Police Department.

1. Each randomly selected subject was confirmed as being a Wichita resident and at least 16 years of age.

2. The subjects were assured of their anonimity and informed of the strict confidentiality of their individual responses.

3. The subjects were instructed that all of the statements referring to the police referred to the Wichita Police Department.

4. The subjects were requested to give their "personal opinion" on each statement that was read to them. To report their personal opinion they were asked to respond with one of the following for each statement:

             1) Disagree very much
             2) Disagree on the whole
             3) Disagree a little
             4) Neutral
             5) Agree a little
             6) Agree on the whole
             7) Agree very much

DATA PRESENTED IN THIS REPORT

The data that follows in this report represents the extent of agreement or disagreement with each statement by percentage (%) for:

a.) Whites   (835)
b.) Non-Whites   (165)
c.) Total Sample   (1,000)

A comparison of the extent of variance in response between Whites and Non-Whites is also provided.

Although the citizens interviewed were randomly selected from all parts of Wichita and adequately reflect a representative sample of the entire city (proportionate according to age, sex, race, and income)

this report is not advanced as a "totally accurate" assessment of the community's opinion.

The reader is cautioned to note that opinion research in any given community is not an absolute index of that community's total or component perspective.

However, the report attempts to provide date which will adequately serve as an indicator as to the direction(s) police-community relations programming in Wichita should assume. Hopefully, it will serve as resource which citizens, police, and local government can jointly utilize to:

1.) identify problem areas in police-community relations

2.) plan and implement programs and services which seek their solution and

3.) evaluate police-community relations programs and services and the role of police in this community.

This report in no way attempts to either censure or praise the Wichita Police Department, its individual employees, work units, services, or existing programs. The report attempts only to identify the indications of strengths and weaknesses of the police-community relationship as expressed by an adequately representative sample of Wichita citizens.

RACIAL COMPOSITION OF THE SAMPLE
N = 1000

```
     I
1.   ************* (     134)    13.4 PCT
     I  BLACK
     I
     I
2.   ***********************************************************************************(    835) 83.5 PCT
     I  WHITE
     I
     I
3.   *** (     23)  2.3 PCT
     I  CHICANO
     I
     I
4.   * (      3)  0.3 PCT
     I
     I
     I
5.   * (      3)  0.3 PCT
     I
     I
     I
6.   * (      2)  0.2 PCT
     I
     I
     I.........I.........I.........I.........I.........I.........I.........I.........I.........I.........I
     0        100       200       300       400       500       600       700       800       900      1000
     FREQUENCY
```

NUMBER OF CONTACTS WITH THE POLICE PER MONTH FOR THE TOTAL SAMPLE
N = 1000

```
I
************************************************************************************ (   662)   66.2 PCT
I    ZERO
I
I
********************************** (   269)   26.9 PCT
I    1-10
I
I
****** (    49)    4.9 PCT
I    OT 10
I
I........I........I........I........I........I........I........I........I........I........
0       100       200      300      400      500      600      700      800
FREQUENCY
```
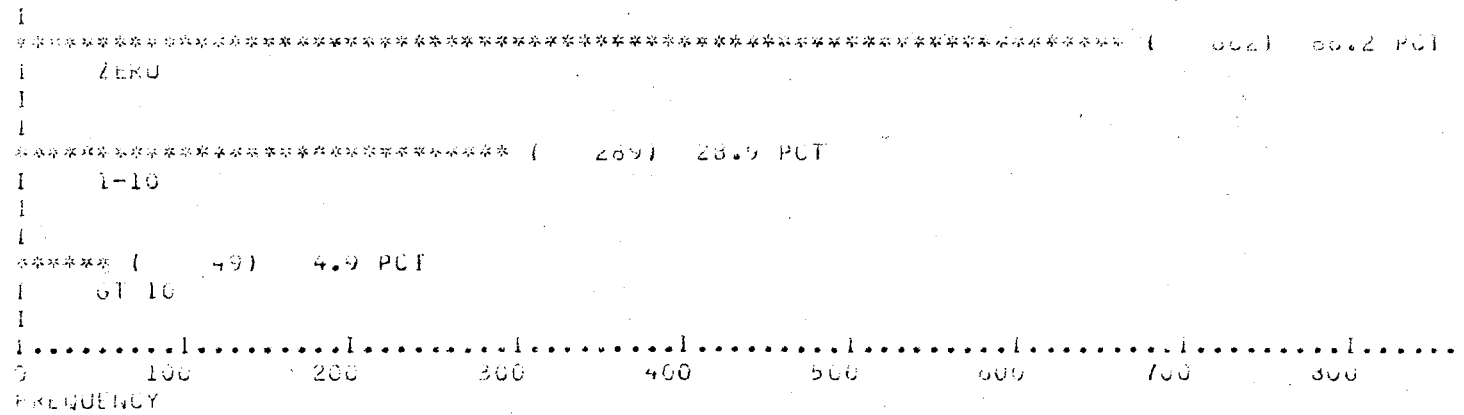
NUMBER OF CONTACTS WITH THE POLICE FOR THE NON-WHITE POPULATION (N = 165)			NUMBER OF CONTACTS WITH THE POLICE FOR THE WHITE POPULATION (N = 835)	
Zero Conacts	N = 83	50%	N = 579	69%
1 - 10 Contacts per month	N = 66	40%	N = 223	27%
Over 10 Contacts per month	N = 16	10%	N = 33	.4%

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N = 835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
8. REGARDLESS OF THE REASON, POLICE RESPONSE TIME IS SLOWER IN NEIGHBORHOODS OTHER THAN WHITE NEIGHBORHOODS.					
Disagree very much	12.4	10.3	12.8		2.5
Disagree on the whole	16.5	12.7	17.2		4.5
Disagree a little	14.5	7.3	15.9		8.6
Neutral	36.7	17.0	40.6		23.6
Agree a little	8.3	21.2	5.7	15.5	
Agree on the whole	5.5	9.1	4.8	4.3	
Agree very much	6.1	22.4	2.9	19.5	
9. POLICEMEN GIVE THE IMPRESSION OF FEELING SUPERIOR TO PEOPLE WHO ARE NOT WHITE.					
Disagree very much	16.6	8.5	18.2		9.7
Disagree on the whole	19.3	9.1	21.3		12.2
Disagree a little	14.7	11.5	15.3		3.8
Neutral	26.6	14.5	29.0		14.5
Agree a little	11.2	23.6	8.7	14.9	
Agree on the whole	6.1	11.5	5.0	6.5	
Agree very much	5.5	21.2	2.4	18.8	
10. POLICE OFFICERS ARE MORE CAREFUL WHEN ARRESTING NON-WHITES BECAUSE NON-WHITES ARE MORE LIKELY TO COMMIT CRIMES OF VIOLENCE AGAINST POLICE OFFICERS THAN WHITES.					
Disagree very much	14.5	19.4	13.5	5.9	
Disagree on the whole	12.8	15.8	12.2	3.6	
Disagree a little	12.5	15.2	12.0	3.2	
Neutral	24.0	18.2	25.1		6.9
Agree a little	18.3	12.7	19.4		6.7
Agree on the whole	12.0	9.1	12.6		3.5
Agree very much	5.9	9.7	5.1	4.6	

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N = 835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
11. THERE IS PRESSURE EXERTED ON POLICEMEN BY OTHER POLICEMEN TO MAKE FUN OF NON-WHITE PEOPLE.					
Disagree very much	21.4	9.1	23.8		14.7
Disagree on the whole	18.4	13.3	19.4		6.1
Disagree a little	13.3	10.9	13.8		2.9
Neutral	36.0	43.6	34.5	9.1	
Agree a little	6.3	10.9	5.4	5.5	
Agree on the whole	2.8	7.3	1.9	5.4	
Agree very much	1.8	4.8	1.2	3.6	
12. POLICE COULD DO A BETTER JOB IF THEY HAD MORE COLLEGE EDUCATION.					
Disagree very much	11.2	14.5	10.5	4.0	
Disagree on the whole	14.9	7.9	16.3		8.4
Disagree a little	13.2	9.1	14.0		4.9
Neutral	12.9	18.8	11.7	7.1	
Agree a little	19.4	15.2	20.2		5.0
Agree on the whole	14.6	17.6	14.0	3.6	
Agree very much	13.8	17.0	13.2	3.8	
13. POLICEMEN ARE OFTEN UNETHICAL (THEY SPONGE OFF MERCHANTS AND EVEN OTHER PEOPLE).					
Disagree very much	26.9	14.5	29.3		14.8
Disagree on the whole	23.3	13.9	25.1		11.2
Disagree a little	13.2	7.3	14.4		7.1
Neutral	20.9	34.5	18.2	16.3	
Agree a little	10.2	15.8	9.1	6.7	
Agree on the whole	2.8	7.3	1.9	5.4	
Agree very much	2.7	6.7	1.9	4.8	

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N =835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
14. POLICE SHOULD PROVIDE MORE COUNSELING SERVICES DESIGNED TO HELP PEOPLE.					
Disagree very much	2.8	3.0	2.8	0.2	
Disagree on the whole	5.3	3.0	5.7		2.7
Disagree a little	6.2	2.4	6.9		4.5
Neutral	12.9	10.3	13.4		3.1
Agree a little	16.6	15.2	16.9		1.7
Agree on the whole	27.5	24.8	28.0		3.2
Agree very much	28.7	41.8	26.2	15.0	
15. POLICE SHOULD WORK MORE CLOSELY WITH OUR CITY'S SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCIES TO SOLVE COMMUNITY & PROBLEMS.					
Disagree very much	2.3	3.0	2.2	0.8	
Disagree on the whole	3.4	2.4	3.6		1.2
Disagree a little	5.0	3.0	5.4		2.4
Neutral	9.7	6.1	10.4		4.3
Agree a little	17.1	10.3	18.4		8.1
Agree on the whole	31.1	32.7	30.8	1.9	
Agree very much	31.4	42.4	29.2	13.2	
16. THE IMAGE OF THE POLICE PATROL OFFICER WOULD BE IMPROVED IF HIS PISTOL AND AMMUNITION WERE NOT VISIBLE.					
Disagree very much	29.5	22.4	30.9		8.5
Disagree on the whole	23.3	13.3	25.3		12.0
Disagree a little	15.2	17.6	14.7	2.9	
Neutral	12.4	19.4	11.0	8.4	
Agree a little	8.1	7.3	8.3		1.0
Agree on the whole	5.9	9.1	5.3	3.8	
Agree very much	5.6	10.9	4.6	6.3	

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N = 835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
17. ESTABLISHING A CIVILIAN BOARD TO REVIEW THE ACTIONS OF POLICEMEN WOULD IMPROVE POLICE-COMMUNITY RELATIONS.					
Disagree very much	12.5	6.1	13.8		7.7
Disagree on the whole	9.5	2.4	10.9		8.5
Disagree a little	11.9	4.2	13.4		9.2
Neutral	16.1	18.2	15.7	2.5	
Agree a little	20.9	18.8	21.3		2.5
Agree on the whole	16.1	17.6	15.8	1.8	
Agree very much	13.0	32.7	9.1	23.6	
18. POLICE SHOULD OPERATE NEIGHBORHOOD SERVICE CENTERS WHICH WOULD BE LOCATED IN ALL AREAS OF THE CITY TO PROVIDE HELP AND INFORMATION FOR ALL PEOPLE WHO COME IN.					
Disagree very much	5.2	5.5	5.1	0.4	
Disagree on the whole	4.7	3.6	4.9		1.3
Disagree a little	7.9	1.8	9.1		7.3
Neutral	10.7	12.1	10.4	1.7	
Agree a little	21.2	17.0	22.0		5.0
Agree on the whole	25.6	23.6	26.0		2.4
Agree very much	24.7	36.4	22.4	14.0	
19. POLICE SHOULD INVITE CITIZEN REPRESENTATIVES FROM ALL PARTS OF OUR CITY TO EXCHANGE IDEAS ABOUT POLICE WORK WITH RECRUITS BEFORE COMPLETION OF THEIR TRAINING.					
Disagree very much	5.3	5.5	5.3	.2	
Disagree on the whole	5.6	3.0	6.1		3.1
Disagree a little	6.2	1.8	7.1		5.3
Neutral	14.5	15.8	14.3	1.5	
Agree a little	23.6	21.8	24.0		2.2
Agree on the whole	23.6	14.5	25.4		10.9
Agree very much	21.2	37.6	18.0	19.6	

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N = 835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
20. POLICE SHOULD PROVIDE MORE SERVICES TO HELP YOUNG PEOPLE GET JOBS.					
Disagree very much	17.8	14.5	18.4		3.9
Disagree on the whole	17.8	6.7	20.0		13.3
Disagree a little	13.7	8.5	14.7		6.2
Neutral	16.8	17.6	16.6	1.0	
Agree a little	13.1	13.3	13.1	0.2	
Agree on the whole	10.0	18.8	8.3	10.5	
Agree very much	10.8	20.6	8.9	11.7	
21. USUALLY IF ONLY ONE POLICE OFFICER IS ASSIGNED TO EACH CAR ON PATROL THAT OFFICER WILL TALK MORE WITH CITIZENS.					
Disagree very much	10.5	9.1	10.8		1.7
Disagree on the whole	11.4	7.3	12.2		4.9
Disagree a little	12.0	6.7	13.1		6.4
Neutral	29.7	27.9	30.1		2.2
Agree a little	17.3	18.2	17.1	1.1	
Agree on the whole	12.3	16.4	11.5	4.9	
Agree very much	6.8	14.5	5.3	9.2	
22. DURING THEIR TRAINING, POLICE RECRUITS SHOULD SPEND AT LEAST ONE DAY IN JAIL TO SEE WHAT IT IS LIKE.					
Disagree very much	16.9	18.2	16.6	1.6	
Disagree on the whole	9.9	4.2	11.0		6.8
Disagree a little	8.0	9.1	7.8	1.3	
Neutral	12.7	13.9	12.5	1.4	
Agree a little	17.5	12.7	18.4		5.7
Agree on the whole	14.6	12.7	15.0		2.3
Agree very much	20.4	29.1	18.7	10.4	

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N = 835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
23. POLICE SHOULD SPEND LESS TIME ENFORCING TRAFFIC LAWS AND MORE TIME HELPING PEOPLE WHO REQUEST THEIR SERVICES.					
Disagree very much	11.5	9.7	11.9		2.2
Disagree on the whole	14.0	5.5	15.7		10.2
Disagree a little	19.2	14.5	20.1		5.6
Neutral	15.1	15.2	15.1	0.1	
Agree a little	14.8	15.8	14.6	1.2	
Agree on the whole	11.4	12.1	11.3	0.8	
Agree very much	14.0	27.3	11.4	15.9	
24. THE LIKELIHOOD OF A CITIZEN BEING ABUSED BY A POLICEMAN IN THIS CITY IS HIGH.					
Disagree very much	25.8	8.5	29.2		20.7
Disagree on the whole	26.0	7.3	29.7		22.4
Disagree a little	13.6	17.6	12.8	4.8	
Neutral	16.3	28.5	13.9	14.6	
Agree a little	8.1	13.9	6.9	7.0	
Agree on the whole	4.9	9.7	4.0	5.7	
Agree very much	5.3	14.5	3.5	11.0	
25. POLICE SHOULD SPEAK BEFORE MORE COMMUNITY, CIVIC, RELIGIOUS AND SOCIAL ORGANIZATIONS.					
Disagree very much	3.7	3.0	3.8	.	.8
Disagree on the whole	4.9	2.4	5.4		3.0
Disagree a little	7.4	4.2	8.0		3.8
Neutral	13.4	13.9	13.3	0.6	
Agree a little	24.1	24.2	24.1	0.1	
Agree on the whole	26.7	21.8	27.7		5.9
Agree very much	19.8	30.3	17.7	12.6	

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N =835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
26. POLICE SPEND TOO MUCH TIME AND ENERGY ON TOO MANY UNIMPORTANT THINGS.					
Disagree very much	11.2	6.7	12.1		5.4
Disagree on the whole	13.8	7.3	15.1		7.8
Disagree a little	14.7	6.1	16.4		10.3
Neutral	25.4	27.3	25.0	2.3	
Agree a little	14.4	18.2	13.7	4.5	
Agree on the whole	10.7	13.9	10.1	3.8	
Agree very much	9.8	20.6	7.7	12.9	
27. POLICE-COMMUNITY RELATIONS WOULD BE IMPROVED IF MORE WOMEN OFFICERS WERE ADDED TO THE PATROL FORCE.					
Disagree very much	18.0	23.6	16.9	6.7	
Disagree on the whole	16.3	10.3	17.5		7.2
Disagree a little	12.2	10.3	12.6		2.3
Neutral	20.8	20.0	21.0		1.0
Agree a little	16.6	17.0	16.5	0.5	
Agree on the whole	8.7	7.9	8.9		1.0
Agree very much	7.4	10.9	6.7	4.2	
28. POLICE SHOULD MIX MORE IN SOCIAL, CULTURAL, AND ATHLETIC FUNCTIONS WITH ALL GROUPS IN THE COMMUNITY.					
Disagree very much	3.6	4.2	3.5	0.7	
Disagree on the whole	5.5	3.6	5.9		2.3
Disagree a little	8.1	3.6	9.0		5.4
Neutral	19.1	13.3	20.2		6.9
Agree a little	28.0	29.1	27.8	1.3	
Agree on the whole	21.9	21.8	21.9		0.1
Agree very much	13.8	24.2	11.7	12.5	

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N = 835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
29. THE USE OF HELICOPTERS BY POLICE IN BY-ʎΠᵞ NEIGHBORHOOD IS DISTURBING.					
Disagree very much	41.1	12.1	46.8		34.7
Disagree on the whole	19.7	5.5	22.5		17.0
Disagree a little	9.1	9.7	9.0	0.7	
Neutral	8.6	16.4	7.1	9.3	
Agree a little	6.4	12.7	5.1	7.6	
Agree on the whole	3.4	4.8	3.1	1.7	
Agree very much	11.7	38.8	6.3	32.5	
30. NEWS COVERAGE BY THE NEWSPAPERS IN OUR CITY HAS GENERALLY PRESENTED A FAVORABLE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE CITIZENS AND THE POLICE.					
Disagree very much	7.2	9.7	6.7	3.0	
Disagree on the whole	6.5	7.9	6.2	1.7	
Disagree a little	15.0	11.5	15.7		4.2
Neutral	22.3	25.5	21.7	3.8	
Agree a little	18.6	21.2	18.1	3.1	
Agree on the whole	20.9	14.5	22.2		7.7
Agree very much	9.5	9.7	9.5	0.2	
31. TELEVISION NEWS COVERAGE IN OUR CITY HAS GENERALLY PRESENTED A FAVORABLE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CITIZENS AND THE POLICE.					
Disagree very much	6.8	10.3	6.1	4.2	
Disagree on the whole	6.4	9.1	5.9	3.2	
Disagree a little	12.8	10.3	13.3		3.0
Neutral	19.8	26.1	18.6	7.5	
Agree a little	20.0	14.5	21.1		6.6
Agree on the whole	24.7	20.6	25.5		4.9
Agree very much	9.5	9.1	9.6		0.5

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N = 835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
32. RADIO NEWS COVERAGE IN OUR CITY HAS GENERALLY PRESENTED A FAVORABLE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CITIZENS AND THE POLICE.					
Disagree very much	5.9	7.9	5.5	2.4	
Disagree on the whole	6.8	7.9	6.6	1.3	
Disagree a little	12.9	12.7	12.9		0.2
Neutral	21.3	24.8	20.6	4.2	
Agree a little	19.8	18.2	20.1		1.9
Agree on the whole	24.5	20.6	25.3		4.7
Agree very much	8.8	7.9	9.0		1.1
33. IF OUR CITY DECIDES TO OPERATE A PUBLIC AMBULANCE SERVICE, IT WOULD IMPROVE POLICE-COMMUNITY RELATIONS IF SPECIALLY TRAINED POLICEMEN PROVIDED THESE SERVICES.					
Disagree very much	5.7	4.8	5.9		1.1
Disagree on the whole	8.6	4.2	9.5		5.3
Disagree a little	10.0	8.5	10.3		1.8
Neutral	23.6	21.8	24.0		2.2
Agree a little	18.7	20.6	18.3	2.3	
Agree on the whole	18.4	20.0	18.1	1.9	
Agree very much	15.0	20.0	14.0	6.0	
34. I WOULD LIKE TO READ MORE BOOKLETS, PAMPHLETS, OR BROCHURES ABOUT OUR CITY'S POLICE DEPARTMENT.					
Disagree very much	7.1	17.0	5.1	11.9	
Disagree on the whole	4.2	3.6	4.3		0.7
Disagree a little	6.8	3.6	7.4		3.8
Neutral	24.2	22.4	24.6		2.2
Agree a little	20.8	21.2	20.7	0.5	
Agree on the whole	18.0	9.7	19.6		9.9
Agree very much	18.9	22.4	18.2	4.2	

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N = 835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
35. I WOULD LIKE TO TOUR OUR CITY'S POLICE FACILITIES.					
Disagree very much	8.7	15.8	7.3	8.5	
Disagree on the whole	4.7	1.8	5.3		3.5
Disagree a little	6.3	5.5	6.5		1.0
Neutral	28.8	23.0	29.9		6.9
Agree a little	14.8	14.5	14.9		0.4
Agree on the whole	16.7	16.4	16.8		0.4
Agree very much	20.0	23.0	19.4	3.6	
36. WHEN DEALING WITH FAMILY AND MARITAL DISTURBANCES POLICE SHOULD SEEK COMPETENT PROFESSIONAL HELP FOR THE PEOPLE INVOLVED.					
Disagree very much	4.8	6.7	4.4	2.3	
Disagree on the whole	5.5	4.2	5.7		1.5
Disagree a little	8.0	3.0	9.0		6.0
Neutral	11.8	13.3	11.5	1.8	
Agree a little	16.2	18.8	15.7	3.1	
Agree on the whole	25.6	18.2	27.1		8.9
Agree very much	28.1	35.8	26.6	9.2	
37. ONE WAY FOR THE POLICE TO IMPROVE THEIR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUNG PEOPLE IS THROUGH MORE POLICE SPONSORED ATHLETIC AND RECREATION PROGRAMS FOR THE YOUTH OF OUR CITY.					
Disagree very much	3.3	3.6	3.2	0.4	
Disagree on the whole	3.7	1.2	4.2		3.0
Disagree a little	5.6	4.2	5.9		1.7
Neutral	10.8	9.7	11.0		1.3
Agree a little	21.9	21.8	21.9		0.1
Agree on the whole	27.1	20.6	28.4		7.8
Agree very much	27.6	38.8	25.4	13.4	

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N = 835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
38. ONE WAY POLICE-YOUTH RELATIONS WOULD BE IMPROVED IS IF DRUG ABUSE ENFORCEMENT DID NOT INCLUDE MARIJUANA, BUT ONLY INCLUDED HARD DRUGS SUCH AS HEROIN.					
Disagree very much	36.8	29.1	38.3		9.2
Disagree on the whole	18.0	10.3	19.5		9.2
Disagree a little	7.0	8.5	6.7	1.8	
Neutral	12.9	11.5	13.2		1.7
Agree a little	8.6	15.2	7.3	7.9	
Agree on the whole	6.9	5.5	7.2		1.7
Agree very much	9.8	20.0	7.8	12.2	
39. ONE REASON WHY MANY PEOPLE DO NOT UNDERSTAND WHAT OUR CITY'S POLICE REALLY DO IS BECAUSE THEY HAVE VIEWED TOO MANY UNREALISTIC CRIME, DETECTIVE, AND POLICE PROGRAMS ON T.V.					
Disagree very much	6.6	10.9	5.7	5.2	
Disagree on the whole	7.5	7.9	7.4	0.5	
Disagree a little	10.6	12.7	10.2	2.5	
Neutral	14.2	18.2	13.4	4.8	
Agree a little	19.7	15.2	20.6		5.4
Agree on the whole	19.8	18.8	20.0		1.2
Agree very much	21.6	16.4	22.6		6.2
40. PROGRAMS SHOULD BE PROVIDED FOR POOR PEOPLE WHO SEEK TRAINING WHICH WILL BETTER PREPARE THEM TO MEET THE REQUIREMENTS TO BECOME A POLICE RECRUIT.					
Disagree very much	4.2	2.4	4.6		2.2
Disagree on the whole	7.1	3.6	7.8		4.2
Disagree a little	7.4	2.4	8.4		6.0
Neutral	17.3	18.8	17.0	1.8	
Agree a little	21.0	20.6	21.1		0.5
Agree on the whole	25.1	21.8	25.7		3.9
Agree very much	17.9	30.3	15.4	14.9	

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N = 835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
41. MORE CITIZENS SHOULD SPEND SOME TIME IN A PATROL CAR WITH POLICE OFFICERS TO OBSERVE WHAT POLICE DO.					
Disagree very much	5.5	13.3	4.0	9.3	
Disagree on the whole	4.4	3.0	4.7		1.7
Disagree a little	6.7	8.5	6.3	2.2	
Neutral	10.1	16.4	8.9	7.5	
Agree a little	25.8	20.0	26.9		6.9
Agree on the whole	25.0	16.4	26.7		10.3
Agree very much	22.5	22.4	22.5		0.1
42. POLICE-COMMUNITY RELATIONS WOULD IMPROVE IF MORE HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE AGE STUDENTS WERE GIVEN PART-TIME JOBS AFTER SCHOOL HOURS AS CIVILIAN EMPLOYEES OF OUR CITY'S POLICE DEPARTMENT					
Disagree very much	3.4	10.3	2.0	8.3	
Disagree on the whole	4.3	4.2	4.3		0.1
Disagree a little	7.3	4.8	7.8		3.0
Neutral	11.7	12.1	11.6	0.5	
Agree a little	28.2	20.6	29.7		9.1
Agree on the whole	26.6	25.5	26.8		1.3
Agree very much	18.5	22.4	17.7	4.7	
43. IF A POLICE RECRUIT HAS NOT COMPLETED A COLLEGE DEGREE, HE SHOULD BE REQUIRED TO DO SO AFTER BECOMING A POLICE OFFICER.					
Disagree very much	14.2	13.3	14.4		1.1
Disagree on the whole	16.3	10.3	17.5		7.2
Disagree a little	17.0	15.8	17.2		1.4
Neutral	14.0	16.4	13.5	2.9	
Agree a little	15.8	11.5	16.6		5.1
Agree on the whole	13.0	16.4	12.3	4.1	
Agree very much	9.7	16.4	8.4	8.0	

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N = 835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
44. THE UNIFORMS WORN BY OUR CITY'S POLICE OFFICERS SHOULD BE IN KEEPING WITH CURRENT FASHIONS AND NOT SO MILITARY IN STYLE.					
Disagree very much	14.5	11.0	15.4		5.7
Disagree on the whole	15.9	10.3	17.0		6.7
Disagree a little	14.1	7.3	15.4		8.1
Neutral	23.4	30.3	22.0	8.3	
Agree a little	11.7	18.8	10.3	8.5	
Agree on the whole	10.3	9.1	10.5		1.4
Agree very much	10.1	14.5	9.2	5.3	
45. A POLICEMAN SHOULD BE ALLOWED TO GROW A MUSTACHE OR A BEARD IF HE WANTS TO.					
Disagree very much	7.5	4.8	8.0		3.2
Disagree on the whole	6.6	3.6	7.2		3.6
Disagree a little	4.5	4.8	4.4	0.4	
Neutral	15.2	17.6	14.7	2.9	
Agree a little	15.1	12.1	15.7		3.6
Agree on the whole	21.2	17.0	22.0		5.0
Agree very much	29.9	40.0	27.9	12.1	
46. IF MOST PEOPLE LIVING IN A NEIGHBORHOOD ARE OF ONE RACE, MOST OF THE POLICE OFFICERS ASSIGNED TO PATROL THAT NEIGHBORHOOD SHOULD BE OF THE SAME RACE.					
Disagree very much	15.9	26.1	13.9	12.2	
Disagree on the whole	17.3	15.2	17.7		2.5
Disagree a little	13.8	10.9	14.4		3.5
Neutral	11.3	11.5	11.3	0.2	
Agree a little	13.9	12.1	14.3		2.2
Agree on the whole	15.5	8.5	16.9		8.4
Agree very much	12.3	15.8	11.6	4.2	

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N = 835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
47. POLICE SHOULD PRESENT PROGRAMS TO INFORM CITIZENS HOW THEY CAN PROTECT THEMSELVES AGAINST CRIME.					
Disagree very much	1.4	2.4	1.2	1.2	
Disagree on the whole	1.6	0.6	1.8		1.2
Disagree a little	1.8	0.6	2.0		1.4
Neutral	3.5	6.1	3.0	3.1	
Agree a little	13.1	12.7	13.2		0.5
Agree on the whole	31.9	24.8	33.3		8.5
Agree very much	46.7	52.7	45.5	7.2	
48. A COMMITTEE OF POLICE OFFICERS AND RESIDENTS SHOULD BE FORMED IN EVERY NEIGHBORHOOD OF OUR CITY TO WORK FOR BETTER POLICE-COMMUNITY RELATIONS.					
Disagree very much	2.2	1.2	2.4		1.2
Disagree on the whole	4.4	6.7	4.0	2.7	
Disagree a little	6.9	3.6	7.5		3.9
Neutral	14.5	17.0	14.0	3.0	
Agree a little	27.6	19.4	29.2		9.8
Agree on the whole	26.0	26.7	25.9	0.8	
Agree very much	18.4	25.5	17.0	8.5	
49. POLICE SHOULD PROTECT THE CONSUMER MORE BY WORKING WITH CONSUMER PROTECTION AGENCIES.					
Disagree very much	4.3	4.2	4.3		0.1
Disagree on the whole	5.2	4.8	5.3		0.5
Disagree a little	6.5	4.2	6.9		2.7
Neutral	19.8	18.8	20.0		1.2
Agree a little	24.5	25.5	24.3	1.2	
Agree on the whole	24.2	23.6	24.3		0.7
Agree very much	15.5	18.8	14.9	3.9	

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N = 835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
50. A COMMITTEE OF POLICE OFFICERS, STUDENTS, AND FACULTY SHOULD BE FORMED IN OUR CITY'S COLLEGES AND·UNIVERSITIES TQ IMPROVE POLICE-STUDENT RELATIONS.					
Disagree very much	3.0	4.8	2.6	2.2	
Disagree on the whole	3.7	4.2	3.6	0.6	
Disagree a little	6.4	10.3	5.6	4.7	
Neutral	15.9	18.2	15.4	2.8	
Agree a little	27.7	21.2	29.0		7.8
Agree on the whole	27.4	24.2	28.0		3.8
Agree very much	15.9	17.0	15.7	1.3	
51. A·COMMITTEE OF POLICE OFFICERS, STUDENTS, AND FACULTY MEMBERS SHOULD BE FORMED IN OUR CITY'S SECONDARY SCHOOLS TO IMPROVE POLICE-STUDENT RELATIONS.					
Disagree very much	2.6	3.0	2.5	0.5	
Disagree on the whole	3.8	4.2	3.7	0.5	
Disagree a little	5.5	5.5	5.5		
Neutral	14.3	18.2	13.5	4.7	
Agree a little	27.1	17.6	29.0		11.4
Agree on the whole	27.4	28.5	27.2	1.3	
Agree very much	19.3	23.0	18.6	4.4	
52. POLICE SHOULD PRESENT PROGRAMS TO INFORM CITIZENS HOW THEY CAN GET GOVERNMENT SERVICES.					
Disagree very much	10.8	9.7	11.0		1.3
Disagree on the whole	12.3	3.0	14.1		11.1
Disagree a little	11.0	6.7	11.9		5.2
Neutral	18.6	16.4	19.0		2.6
Agree a little	18.7	20.6	18.3	2.3	
Agree on the whole	17.7	25.5	16.2	9.3	
Agree very much	10.9	18.2	9.5	8.7	

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N = 835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
53. MORE POLICE OFFICERS SHOULD BE ASSIGNED TO FOOT PATROL (WALKING A BEAT) BECAUSE IT WOULD BE EASIER FOR CITIZENS TO TALK WITH POLICEMEN ON FOOT THAN THOSE DRIVING CARS.					
Disagree very much	10.8	13.3	10.3	3.0	
Disagree on the whole	12.2	6.1	13.4		7.3
Disagree a little	12.2	7.9	13.1		5.2
Neutral	19.3	13.9	20.4		6.5
Agree a little	21.0	21.8	20.8	1.0	
Agree on the whole	12.9	13.9	12.7	1.2	
Agree very much	11.6	23.0	9.3	13.7	
54. GENERALLY SPEAKING, A POLICE OFFICER SHOULD BE A RESIDENT OF THE NEIGHBORHOOD THAT HE IS ASSIGNED TO PATROL.					
Disagree very much	26.1	29.1	25.5	3.6	
Disagree on the whole	25.5	15.2	27.5		12.3
Disagree a little	15.2	12.1	15.8		3.7
Neutral	11.9	13.9	11.5	2.4	
Agree a little	11.9	15.2	11.3	3.9	
Agree on the whole	5.5	7.3	5.1	2.2	
Agree very much	3.9	7.3	3.2	4.1	
55. IF POLICE PROGRAMS PROVIDED FOR MORE EXCHANGE OF MUTUAL PROBLEMS BETWEEN POLICE AND THE COMMUNITY, CITIZEN COMPLAINTS OF POLICE ABUSE WOULD DECREASE.					
Disagree very much	4.2	8.5	3.4	5.1	
Disagree on the whole	5.5	6.1	5.4	0.7	
Disagree a little	9.1	10.3	8.9	1.4	
Neutral	25.3	29.1	24.6	4.5	
Agree a little	24.7	17.6	26.1		8.5
Agree on the whole	21.2	17.0	22.0		5.0
Agree very much	10.0	11.5	9.7	1.8	

	% Total Sample N = 1000	% Non-White N = 165	% White N = 835	% Difference by Race	
				Non-White	White
56 IN MANY SITUATIONS WHICH THE POLICE RESPOND TO CIVIL DISORDER, THEY ARE EITHER "DAMNED" IF THEY DO OR "DAMNED" IF THEY DO NOT.					
Disagree very much	2.3	3.6	2.0	1.6	
Disagree on the whole	3.8	3.0	4.0		1.0
Disagree a little	5.3	15.2	3.4	11.8	
Neutral	14.3	19.4	13.3	6.1	
Agree a little	19.3	20.0	19.4	0.6	
Agree on the whole	27.9	17.6	29.9		12.3
Agree very much	26.9	21.2	28.0		6.8
57 POLICE SHOULD OPERATE NEIGHBORHOOD SERVICE CENTERS WHICH WOULD BE LOCATED IN ALL AREAS OF THE CITY TO PROVIDE HELP AND INFORMATION FOR ALL PEOPLE WHO COME IN. Disagree very much	5.2	5.5	5.1	0.4	
Disagree on the whole	4.7	3.6	4.9		1.3
Disagree a little	7.9	1.8	9.1		7.3
Neutral	10.7	12.1	10.4	1.7	
Agree a little	21.2	17.0	22.0		5.0
Agree on the whole	25.6	23.6	26.0		2.4
Agree very much	24.7	36.4	22.4	14.0	
58 POLICE SHOULD INVITE CITIZEN REPRESENTATIVES FROM ALL PARTS OF OUR CITY TO EXCHANGE IDEAS ABOUT POLICE WORK WITH RECRUITS BEFORE COMPLETION OF THEIR TRAINING. Disagree very much	5.3	5.5	5.3	..2	
Disagree on the whole	5.6	3.0	6.1		3.1
Disagree a little	6.2	1.8	7.1		5.3
Neutral	14.5	15.8	14.3	1.5	
Agree a little	23.6	21.8	24.0		2.2
Agree on the whole	23.6	14.5	25.4		10.9
Agree very much	21.2	37.6	18.0	19.6	

APPENDIX F

THE POLICE-COMMUNITY RELATIONS SURVEY

The Police-Community Relations Survey:

A Quantitative Inventory of Services and Work Units

By Fred Klyman

Introduction

Since the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department implemented the first formalized work unit to provide specialized community relations services in 1957, the contemporary American police enterprise has become increasingly involved in the delivery of a broad spectrum of programs and services which have been equated with the generic term police-community relations, (Brown, 1971). The term has become police jargon to denote the processes, work units, and practitioneer behaviors which have emanated recently from a pervasive ideology that the police must become part of and not apart from the communities they serve (McEvoy, 1969).

The increase in formalized police-community relations (PC-R) services has been accompanied by a commensurate increase in that vector of criminal justice literature which has chronicled the evolution of PC-R as an almost unique manifestation of the American police enterprise. A surge of journal articles, monographs, and textbooks have appeared to form the "body of knowledge" which attempts to enhance the quality of these services so that their delivery can be more readily viewed as both a "science" and an "art."

The voluminous aggregate of literature spans diverse topics such as: operation of storefront centers, athletic leagues, counseling programs, athletic programs, job placement and other social welfare serivces; pre-service and in-service community relations training

models; techniques of police-human relations, police-minority group relations, and police-youth relations; and development of the so-called crime prevention programs, to name but a few. Thus, one might amusingly conclude that the volume of criminal justice literature concerned with police-community relations has succeeded in surpassing the volume of literature which was prompted by the classic debate in police adminis- tration over the relative worth of the one-man versus the two-man patrol car.

Yet, there is a paucity in this substantial body of criminal jus- tice literature. That little or no quantitative data assessing PC-R services has been disseminated is conspicuous by its absence. Although much has been published with respect to "what should be done" and "how," little has been published to assess "what is being done" on a national basis.

This article reflects the author's attempt to quantitatively inven- tory the extent of police-community relations services and the work units which have provided them for the nation's largest municipal police departments. As a quantitative inventory, it does not depict the quali- tative dimensions of PC-R services such as: service efficacy, compara- tive viability of programming techniques, the extent to which services have affected intra and extra-departmental perceptions of the police as a social institution, and shifts in the variety of mutually supportive, helping and working relationships existant between the police and the communities they serve. As a quantitative inventory, however, it has attempted to depict the levels of resources and services which serve as descriptors of the national PC-R effort.

Methods

The survey of full-time employees of American municipal police departments in jurisdictions 25,000 and over in population which was compiled by the Federal Bureau of Investigation in the 1971 Uniform Crime Reports was referenced to provide a population source for the inventory (F.B.I., 1971). After ranking the departments listed by state of jurisdiction according to the greatest number of full-time employees, all departments with 300 or more full-time employees were extracted to comprise the population of 122.

Early in 1972, questionnaires were posted to the Chiefs of Police of these 122 departments with a form letter delimiting the intent and scope of the survey and subsequently seeking their cooperation in facilitating its accurate completion.

There were sixty-seven (67) respondents yielding a response rate of fifty-five (55) per cent. For a mailed questionnaire this amount of rescription is inordinate reflecting, perhaps, the magnitude of interest currently generated by police-community relations.

Half of the respondents represented departments that had a population greater than 250,000 under their jurisdiction. The remainder were between 50,000 and 250,000 in size.

Rejoinders came from all geographical regions of the country: New England (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont) -- 1%, North Atlantic (Delaware, Washington D.C., Maryland, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania) -- 15%, North Midwest (Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin) -- 14%, Central (Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota) -- 10%, Southeast (Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana,

Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Birginia) -- 30%, Southwest (Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas) -- 12%, Mountain (Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Utah, and Wyoming) -- 6%, and Pacific (Alaska, California, Hawaii, Nevada, Oregon, and Washington) -- 12%.

The modal respondent to this questionnaire was from the Southeast section of the country and of a city from 100,000 to 250,000 in population. See Table XXIX for the number of respondents by city size and area of the country.

Findings

When queried about how old their police-community relations unit in their department was twenty (20) reported units more than six (6) years old. Forty-eight (48) per cent of those that answered said that their unit was at least three years but less than six years old. The remaining thirty-two (32) per cent had inchoative units in operation less than three (3) years (nine (9) per cent were even less than one (1) year).

Of the sixty-seven (67) departments assayed, sixty-four (64) state publicly that they assign manpower resources to a police-community relations unit.

On the average, these departments assign fourteen (14) commissioned officers to the special police-community relations units and eleven (11) civilian employees. However, one department enounced that they have four hundred and forty-five (445) civilian employees and if that department is omitted the mean drops to four (4) civilian employees per police-community relations unit.

TABLE XXIX

RESPONDENTS BY CITY SIZE AND AREA OF THE COUNTRY

Geographical Region		Population of the Jurisdiction					
	Over 1,000,000	750,000 to 1,000,000	500,000 to 750,000	300,000 to 500,000	250,000 to 300,000	100,000 to 250,000	50,000 to 100,000
New England						1	
North Atlantic	1	1		1	2	3	1
North Midwest	2		3	1	1	2	
Central			2	1		3	1
Southeast	1	1	1	3	1	11	2
Southwest	1	2		4		1	
Mountain			1			1	2
Pacific		2	1			3	2

These departments required an average of thirteen (13) hours of in-service training police-community relations for all or most of its commissioned personnel during 1971 and expect to dragoon an average of fifteen and one-half (15½) hours during 1972.

In the recruit training academy or setting, these departments impose an average of thirty (30) hours of special police-community relations training.

Only three (3) per cent of the departments disclosed a requirement of less than high school or G.E.D. for appointment as a commissioned officer, but for eighty-seven (87) per cent of the departments fulfillment of those requirements was sufficient formal education for appointment as an officer. The reamining ten (10) per cent enunciated an expectation of one or two years of college. The educational requirements for a commissioned officer to be assigned full-time duty in the police-community relations unit differed only slightly with fourteen (14) per cent being required to have some college.

Sixty-one (61) per cent of these departments offer special police-community relation in-service training programs for all commissioned personnel who are assigned to performing field patrol services. Law enforcement research projects related to police-community relations programs or their services have been done by seventy-four (74) per cent of these departments. For an additional breakdown of services done by these police-community relations units, see Table XXX.

This reconnoitre revealed that twenty-five (25) per cent of these departments operate a police-community relations Citizen Advisory Committee composed of citizens from the community.

Figures 1 and 2 give the percentage of acknowledgements according

TABLE XXX

THE MEAN PERCENTAGES OF TIME SPENT BY POLICE-COMMUNITY RELATIONS
UNITS ON THE VARIOUS KINDS OF SERVICES

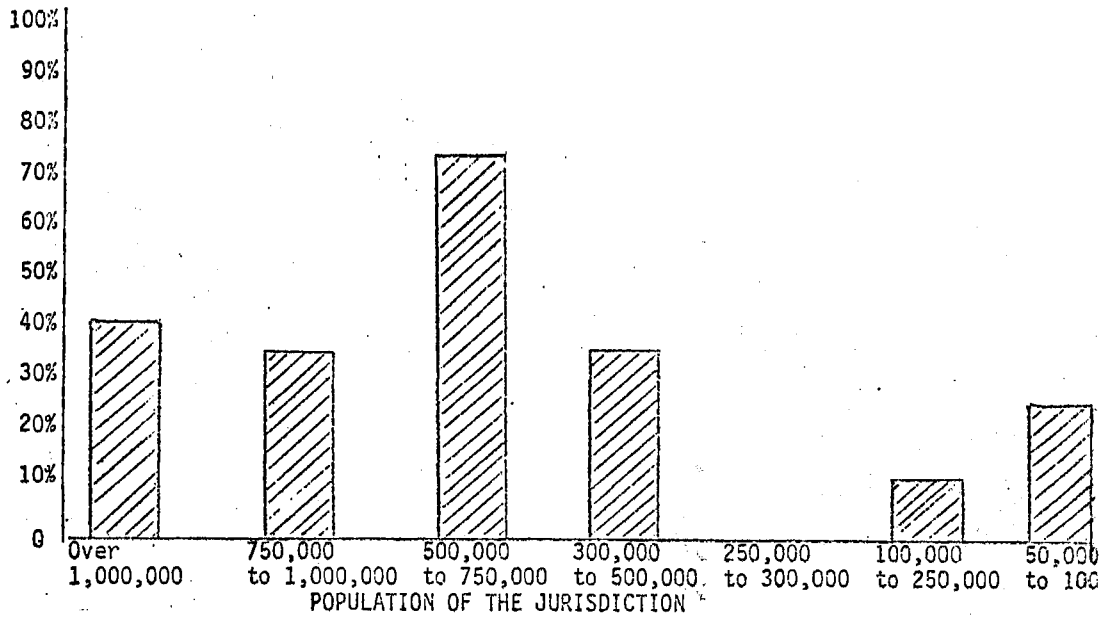| Services	Of Total Police Community Relations Unit Manpower Resources % of 100% of Manhours Currently Expended	Projection of % of Manhours That Will Be Expended Next Year
Office Management of Police Community Relations Unit Office	11.96%	11.39%
Public Information and Press Relations	8.77%	9.17%
Police-School Liaison and/or Teaching	18.47%	19.88%
Participation in Departmental Training Programs	5.05%	6.59%
Handling Citizens Complaints Against Police Officers	1.72%	1.53%
Recruiting	4.08%	4.19%
Coordinating Social Services With Community Service Agencies	11.16%	11.98%
Research in Police Community Relations Programming	5.27%	5.80%
Delivery Services Through Storefront Center(s)	5.18%	5.58%
Delivery of Youth Services	10.88%	8.88%
Delivery of Counseling Services to Citizens	9.38%	9.52%
Other	8.08%	5.49%

Figure 1. Percentage of Respondents Per Population Bracket Having a Community Citizens Advisory Board
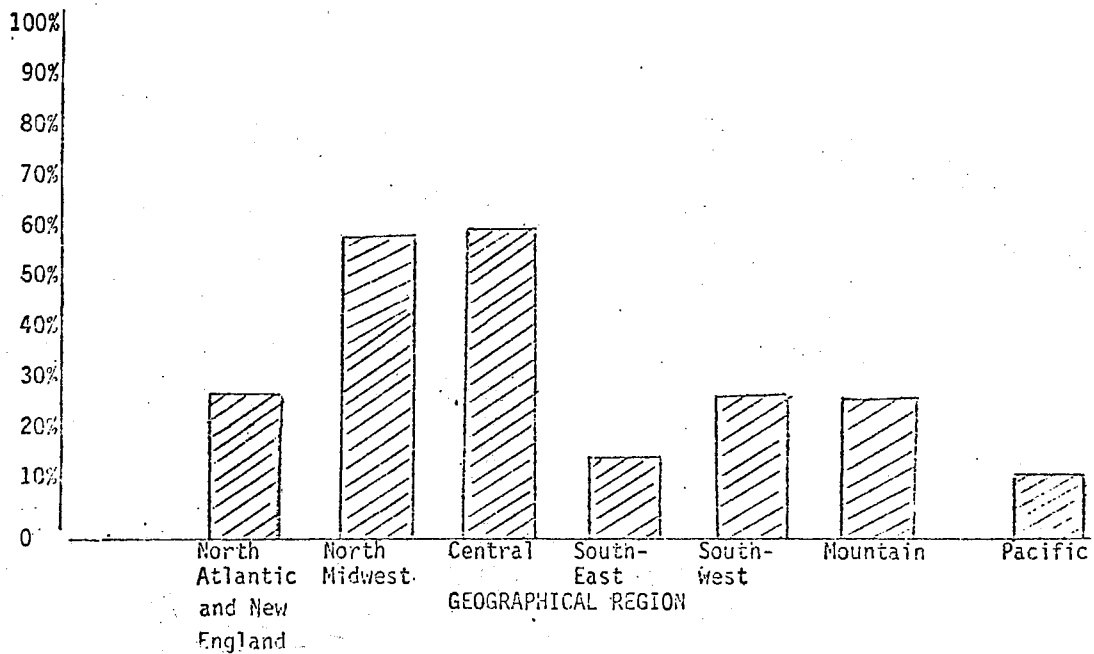

Figure 2. Percentage of Respondents in Each Geographical Region Having a Community Citizens Advisory Board

to population size and geographical region. Ten to fifteen members make up the average department's police-community relations Citizens Advisory Committee of those that report having one. One-half of these Citizens Advisory Committees were formed prior to 1968. Of the departments speered only one answered that its police community relations Citizens Advisory Committee reviewed complaints lodged against police officers.

A Sample of the Questionnaire Used with the Item Responses Obtained and Percentages

POLICE COMMUNITY RELATIONS SERVICES SURVEY

1972

THE DEPARTMENT OF ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE
Wichita State University
Wichita, Kansas

Instructions: Make a check in the appropriate blank to the right of each question, unless instructed not to. Ignore the printed numbers on these blanks. Also complete blanks under questions if asked to do so. Thank you.

1. Check the population of the jurisdiction which your law enforcement agency operates.

Over 1,000,000	5	7%
750,000 to 1,000,000	4	6%
500,000 to 750,000	9	13%
300,000 to 500,000	12	18%
250,000 to 300,000	4	6%
100,000 to 250,000	25	38%
50,000 to 100,000	8	12%
25,000 to 50,000	0	
10,000 to 25,000	0	
Under 10,000	0	

2. How old (approximately) is the Police Community Relations Unit in the Department?

Less than one year	6	9%
One year, but less than 2	5	7%
Two years, but less than 3	11	16%
Three years, but less than four years	8	12%
Four years, but less than five years	13	20%
Five years, but less than six years	11	16%
Between six and ten	11	16%
Between eleven and fifteen	1	2%
Between sixteen and twenty	1	2%
More than twenty	0	

3. How many hours of In-Service training in Police Community Relations did your department require for all or most of its commissioned personnel during 1971?

Mean = 12.917

Enter no. of hours | 8 | 6 | 6 | = Total

4. Has your department ever engaged in law enforcement research projects related to Police Community Relations Programs or their services?

Yes   49   74%

No   18   26%

5. How many <u>hours</u> of <u>In-Service</u> training in Police Community Relations will your department require for all or most of its commissioned officers in 1972?

Mean = 15.5

Enter No. of hours | 10 | 1 | 0 | = total

7. How many hours of special Police Community Relations training does your department provide in its recruit training academy or setting?

Mean = 30.56

Enter no. of hours | 20 | 6 | 6 | = total

8. What is the <u>minimum level of educational attainment</u> required by your department for appointment as a commissioned officer.

Less than High School or G.E.D.	2	3%
High School or G.E.D.	58	87%
One year of College	2	3%
Two years of College (No degree)	5	7%
Associates Degree (2 yr. degree)	0	
B. ., B.A. or comparable 4 year academic degree	0	
Academic work past Baccalaureate degree	0	

9. What is the minimum level educational attainment required by your department for assignment of commissioned officers to <u>full time duty in the departments Police Community Relations program?</u>

Less than High School or G.E.D.	1	1%
High School or G.E.D.	54	80%
One year of College	3	5%
Two years of College (no degree)	5	8%
Associates degree (2 yr. degree)	1	1%
B.A., B.S. or comparable 4 year academic degree	3	5%
Academic work past Baccalaureate degree	0	

10. Check the geographical region in which your police department operates.

<u>New England</u>
    Conn., Maine, Mass., New Hamp., R.I., Vt.   1   1%

<u>North Atlantic</u>
    Delaware, D.C., Maryland, New Jersey,   10   15%
    New York, Penn.

10. (Continued)

North Midwest
Ill., Indiana, Mich., Ohio, Wisconsin   9   14%

Central
Iowa, Kansas, Minn., Missouri, Nebraska,   7   10%
North Dakota, South Dakota

Southeast
Ala., Ark., Fla., Georgia, Kentucky,   20   30%
Louisiana, Miss., North Carolina, South
Carolina, Tenn., Virginia, West Va.

Southwest
Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas   8   12%

Mountain
Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Utah, Wyoming   4   6%

Pacific
Alaska, California, Hawaii, Nevada,   8   12%
Oregon, Washington

11. Does your department publicly state that it assigns manpower
resources to a police community relations unit?

Yes   64   96%
No   3   4%

12. How many commissioned officers are currently assigned to a special
police community relations unit in your department?

                                  Mean = 14.216

a. Enter no. assigned | 9 | 5 | 3 | = total

                                    Mean = 10.937

b. Civilian employees | 7 | 3 | 4 | = total

13. Does your department offer a special Police Community Relation In-
Service Training Program for all commissioned personnel who are
assigned to performing field patrol services?

Yes   41   61%
No   26   39%

	a. Of total Police Community Relations Unit manpower resources % of 100% of manhours currently expended	b. Projection of manhours that will be expended next year

SERVICES: See Table XXIX

14. Office Management of Police Community Relations Unit Office. [＿＿｜＿＿] %   [＿＿｜＿＿] %

15. Public Information and Press Relations. [＿＿｜＿＿] %   [＿＿｜＿＿] %

16. Police-School Liason and/or teaching. [＿＿｜＿＿] %   [＿＿｜＿＿] %

17. Participation in Departmental Training Programs. [＿＿｜＿＿] %   [＿＿｜＿＿] %

18. Handling Citizen complaints against police officers. [＿＿｜＿＿] %   [＿＿｜＿＿] %

19. Recruiting. [＿＿｜＿＿] %   [＿＿｜＿＿] %

20. Coordinating social services with community service agencies. [＿＿｜＿＿] %   [＿＿｜＿＿] %

21. Research in Police Community Relations Programming. [＿＿｜＿＿] %   [＿＿｜＿＿] %

22. Delivery Services through storefront center(s). [＿＿｜＿＿] %   [＿＿｜＿＿] %

23. Delivery of youth services (i.e., Police Athletic Leagues). [＿＿｜＿＿] %   [＿＿｜＿＿] %

24. Delivery of counseling services to Citizens. [＿＿｜＿＿] %   [＿＿｜＿＿] %

25. Other _____ [＿＿｜＿＿] %   [＿＿｜＿＿] %

---

26. Does your department operate a Police Community Relations Advisory Committee composed of citizens from the community?

Yes ____17____ 25%

No ____50____ 75%

27. What is the number of members who serve on your department's Police Community Relations citizens advisory committee (board)?

None (No committee)	49	75%
Two	1	2%
3 to 5	3	4%
6 to 9	3	4%
10 to 15	5	7%
16 to 20	3	4%
21 to 30	1	2%
Over 30	2	3%

28. When was your Police Community Relations Citizen Advisory Committee (board) formed?

Before 1967	8	12%
1967	1	2%
1968	0	
1969	1	2%
1970	3	4%
1971	5	8%
1972	1	2%
Not formed	48	70%

29. Does your Police Community Relations Citizens Advisory Committee (board) review complaints lodged against Police Officers?

Yes	1	2%
No	18	27%
No Police Community Relations Citizens Advisory Committee in Existence	48	71%

30. Please list the primary functions of your department's Police Community Relations Citizens Advisory Committee (board).

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____

Note: This data will be included in a forthcoming textbook on Police Community Relations. If we have permission to identify your department's input please complete the following. (If you wish the data to remain anonymous please leave blank).

_____
Name of Department

_____   _____
Date   Signature

Conclusion:

    From the data gathered, the following profile of Police-Community Relations Services and work units, typical to the U.S., can be drawn:

    The typical Police Community Relations Unit is four (4), but less than five (5), years of age. It operates within a department that required almost thirteen (13) hours of PC-R in-service training for all or most of its commissioned personnel during 1972, and during 1973 it will require a total of 15.5 hours. Through the auspices of its training academy, the department provided 30.6 hours of community relations training for recruits in addition to community relations in-service training for all commissioned personnel who perform field patrol services. The minimum level of educational attainment required by the department for assignment of commissioned officers to full time duty in the unit is high school graduation or its G.E.D. equivalent. Fourteen (14) commissioned officers are assigned to the unit and their efforts are supported by eleven (11) civilian employees. The typical unit does not function with a police community relations advisory committee which is composed of citizens from the community. The PC-R unit will expend approximately 57% of its man-hours toward the delivery of services characteristic of the helping relationship, i.e., police school liaison services, coordinating social services with community service agencies, delivery of services through store front centers, the delivery of youth services, and the delivery of counseling services to citizens. The remaining 43% of their man-hours will be expended in administration of the work unit and a variety of antecedent staff functions, i.e., press relations, training, recruiting, research, and miscellaneous services.

    As an inventory, this survey has not addressed itself to the

meaningful study of the qualitative dimensions of police-community relations as they exist in contemporary America. At best, its efforts toward this end have been "token" when viewing the sheer magnitude of all that has been labeled police community relations. One is encouraged to conclude that reporting systems should be developed and implemented on a national basis which would allow for the compilation of adequate data to quantitatively and qualitatively depict the efforts of America's police to relate with the communities they serve. Appreciable levels of interest and support are currently afforded the traditional attempts at data gathering such as the F.B.I.'s Uniform Crime Reports and surveys funded by both the International Association of Chiefs of Police (I.A.C.P.) and the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (L.E.A.A.)

This author is encouraged to assume that PC-R services are no less substantive than variables such as "crime statistics" and "enforcement operations" in the assessment of the quality of police service in any given community. If this assumption becomes pervasive, police agencies will hopefully begin to broaden their research and planning capabilities so that the broad spectrum of work units, services, resources, and human factors which have been categorized as PC-R might be adequately defined, measured, and then analyzed.

VITA

Fred Irwin Klyman

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: AN ANALYSIS OF CITIZEN'S PERCEPTIONS OF POLICE-COMMUNITY
         RELATIONS PROGRAMS AND SERVICES AND THE RELATIONSHIP OF
         BOTH DOGMATISM AND RACE TO THOSE PERCEPTIONS

Major Field: Higher Education

Biographical:

    Personal Data: Born at Memphis, Tennessee, February 23, 1946, the
        son of Lena Omell Klyman and Joseph Klyman (deceased).
        Married the former Amy Whitman in 1967; have two daughters:
        Marnie O'mell (born May, 1968) and Alicia Catherine (born
        July, 1969).

    Education: Graduated from Central High School, Memphis, Tennessee,
        in 1963; received Associate of Arts Certificate in Law Enforce-
        ment from Memphis State University, 1966; received Bachelor of
        Science degree from Memphis State University, 1967, with a
        major in Journalism (Public Relations Series) and Sociology
        (Law Enforcement Series); received a Master of Education degree
        from Memphis State University, 1970, with a major in Education
        (Counseling) and minor in Sociology (Law Enforcement Series);
        completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree at
        Oklahoma State University in December, 1973.

    Professional Experience: Intake Officer, Memphis-Shelby County
        Juvenile Court, Memphis, Tennessee, February 1964 to May 1967;
        Patrolman, Shelby County Sheriff's Department, Memphis,
        Tennessee, May 1967 to December 1967; Procedures Writer,
        Plough, Inc., Memphis, Tennessee March 1968 to August 1968;
        Junior High School English and Social Studies Teacher,
        St. Louis School, Memphis, Tennessee, August 1968 to June
        1969; Executive Director, Memphis-Shelby County Association
        for Retarded Children, Memphis, Tennessee, June 1969 to
        August 1970; Instructor, Memphis State University, Department
        of Sociology and Anthropology, Division of Law Enforcement,
        Memphis, Tennessee, August 1970 to July 1971; Assistant
        Professor, Wichita State University, Department of

Administration of Justice, Wichita, Kansas, August 1971 to
present. Education and Training program consultant for
Attorney General's Office, State of Kansas; Project Consultant
- "Training in Juvenile Delinquency Prevention and Control"
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare - Office of
Juvenile Delinquency Youth Development at Memphis State Uni-
versity, 1971; Planning and Research Consultant for Memphis
Police Department, 1970-71; Consultant for Bureau of Narcotics
and Dangerous Drugs (B.N.D..D.) Grant Study Committee of the
Forensic Science Foundation project, 1971; Consultant for
Wichita Sedgwich County Coalition Planning Board for Resources
Mobilization, task force on Administration of Justice and
Public Safety, 1972-73, (Subcommittee on Metropolitan Law
Enforcement and Subcommittee on Metropolitan Fire Protection;
Staff Adviser for Wichita Police Department, 1972 to present;
Lecturer for Wichita Police Training Academy, 1972 to present;
Consultant for Sedgwich County Sheriff's Department, 1972 to
present; Member of Advisory Council, The Juvenile Court of
Memphis and Shelby County, Tennessee, 1973 to present;
Assistant Director - Workshop for Law Enforcement Training
Officers for Wichita Police Department, 1971.

Publications: Co-author (with Arthur J. Crowns, Jr.) of Justice
and the Juvenile, MSU Press, 1971; co-author (with Arthur J.
Crowns, Jr.) of Police Public and Community Relations, text-
book in progress under contract with Holbrook Press, Inc.;
co-author (with A. J. Crowns, Jr.), Accountability and the
Criminal Justice Instructor, The Institute for Research and
Development in Criminal Justice Education, 1972; authored
"Optimizing the Criminal Justice News - Media Relationship,"
Police Journal, June, 1972; and pre-publication textbook
review of Police Psychology, March, 1972, for Holbrook Press,
Inc., as well as five additional book reviews for Holbrook
Press, Inc., Boston, Massachusetts.

Grants: Source: Governor's Committee on Criminal Administration,
State of Kansas and The Law Enforcement Assistance Administra-
tion, U. S. Department of Justice. The Law Enforcement In-
structors' and Training Officers' Institute for Department of
Administration of Justice, August, 1972; The Attorney General
Conference: Justice and the Student for Kansas Attorney
General's Office, November, 1972; The Kansas Criminal Justice
Community Relations Training Institute for Wichita Police
Department, August, 1972; The Attorney General's Conference on
the Administration of County Law Enforcement Agencies for the
Attorney General of Kansas, May, 1973.

The Police Neighborhood Service Center, for Wichita Police
Department. Funded by Wichita City Commission from Revenue
Sharing, February, 1973.

Source: Halfway House Services for Male Retarded Offenders.
Staffing grant awarded at Memphis, Tennessee, 1970.