Preface

Welcome to our eighth edition—and the complex world of policing! This is a most exciting point in time to be studying (or working in) law enforcement, as evidenced by the fact that, since this book's previous edition appeared, the still relatively new strategies (smart policing, intelligence-led policing, predictive policing, and so on), technologies, and methods that have come into being have changed the field to a major degree—and many more such changes are described in this edition. These collective strategies challenge the intellect and ability of today's police officers to address crime and disorder in ways that are more stimulating and exhilarating than ever before.

As seen recently on a billboard in Iceland, it is better to "teach by doing, rather than telling." Therefore, this edition continues our long-standing approach: emphasizing the practical, applied aspects of community and problem-oriented policing—putting the philosophy into daily practice.

We thus showcase what works in policing for combating crime and disorder in our neighborhoods and communities. It delineates the evolution of policing from its inception through the latest era in policing, one that centers on collaborating with the community and other agencies and organizations that are responsible for community safety.

This eighth edition is again premised on the assumption that you are most likely an undergraduate or graduate student studying criminal justice or policing. Or, alternatively, you are a police practitioner with a fundamental knowledge of police operations who is interested in learning about community-oriented policing and problem-solving.

We continue to emphasize that problem-oriented policing is an individualized, long-term process that involves fundamental institutional change, going far beyond such early, simple approaches as simply establishing foot and bicycle patrols or neighborhood police stations; it redefines the role of the officer on the street from crime fighter to problem solver; it forces a cultural transformation of the entire police agency, involving changes in recruiting, training, awards systems, evaluations, and promotions.

It has been said that problem-solving is not new in policing, that police officers have always been aware of and tried to solve problems on their beats. That is true enough; but as is demonstrated throughout this text, problem-solving in the context of community policing is very different and considerably more complex, requiring that police officers identify and examine the underlying causes of recurring incidents of crime and disorder. This policing approach thus seeks to make "street criminologists" of the officers, teaching them to expand their focus on individuals committing crimes to include crime settings and victims.

We also emphasize that this book is not a call to ignore or discard policing's past methods, nor do we espouse an altogether radical change in policing. Instead, we recommend that the police borrow from the wisdom of the past and adopt a holistic approach to the way police organizations are learning to address public safety more successfully. This book describes how many agencies should and are actively going about the process of revolutionizing their philosophy and operations.

Organization and Contents of the Book

As indicated above, like its seven predecessors, this book is distinguished by its *applied* approach. In doing so, it showcases dozens of "Focus On" boxes and additional case studies and examples of problem-solving in the field. In addition, chapters will examine major issues and challenging crime problems (e.g., drugs, gangs, violence, and human trafficking), crime prevention, changing agency culture, evaluating problem-solving initiatives, cyberbullying and cybercrime, and special populations (e.g., mentally ill individuals), and the future. A chapter-by-chapter breakdown follows.

Part I of the book consists of one chapter and describes what we term policing's long "arc" from its roots to community policing and problem-solving. Included is a brief discussion of policing's inception in Britain and the efforts of Sir Robert Peel leading to the Metropolitan Police Act in England. We also review the onset and evolution of policing in the United States, including slave patrols and a look at policing's three eras.

In Part II, we examine in its three chapters several uniquely complex and challenging problems. Chapter 2 explains how community partnerships are essential in this time of tremendous police-citizen discord, opening with an examination of what is meant by "community" and why all such efforts to involve citizens in addressing crime and disorder have led to community policing. Included is a review of the need for a new professionalism, the police role as "guardians," signs of a healthy community, economic challenges facing police and society, the use of civilian review boards, and how communities can connect with their courts and corrections organizations. Chapter 3, looking at diversity in the United States, discusses the challenges posed by people immigrating to the United States, the history (often very combative) of relations between marginalized populations, how problem-oriented policing can enhance police-community relations, and the need for police to become more transparent and address racial profiling and bias-based policing. Chapter 4 focuses on homeland security and explores the many faces of terrorism (to include cyberterrorism and bioterrorism) and what the local police and community policing—with the assistance of legislation and technologies—are doing to combat it.

Part III centers on the various "tools" or approaches to problem-solving and its programs and practices. Chapter 5, considering problem-solving per se, serves as a linchpin for the textbook as it specifically focuses on the development and methods of community- and problem-oriented policing, which are complementary core components. The problem-solving process, known as SARA (for scanning, analysis, response, and assessment), is discussed as the primary tool for understanding crime and disorder. Included are the basic principles of police problem-solving, the role of the street officer within it, some difficulties with problem-solving, and some ways to tailor strategies to individual neighborhoods. Crime prevention, discussed in Chapter 6, considers two important and contemporary components for preventing crime: crime prevention through environmental design (CPTED) and situational crime prevention; included are discussions of which crime-prevention approaches work, do not appear to be successful, and hold promise for crime prevention. Chapter 7 is based on technologies and looks at how IT came to policing as well as the tools that are available for crime analysis and other functions.

In Part IV we examine the necessary organizational foundations required for community policing and problem-solving to flourish. In Chapter 8, transforming agency culture, we discuss what is meant by organizational culture and the need for some police agencies to modify their culture so as to become more constitutional and legitimate in the eyes of the public; how an organization can move from one that is "good" to being "great"; recruiting quality officers; and

the roles and responsibilities of chief executives, middle managers, supervisors, and rank-and-file officers. Chapter 9, strategic planning and implementation, discusses the key functions of preparing and initiating problem-oriented policing, which must be accomplished by thoughtfully laying the proper foundation; we also explain the strategic planning process, roles of key leaders in this process, addressing resistance to change, and how to measure whether or not planning and implementation were properly accomplished. Chapter 10 addresses the challenge of providing the best means and types of training, particularly in the context of engaging in constitutional, fair and impartial policing; we also consider the value of higher education, what works best for adult- and problem-based learning, and some technological approaches to training and the basics of a curriculum. The last chapter in this part, Chapter 11, confronts the issue of evaluation, including the different tools and methods for doing so. An ongoing challenge for community policing and problem-solving is determining whether or not police responses to crime were successful.

Part V focuses on specific methods and challenges for dealing with crime and disorder in our society. In Chapter 12, we describe the application of problem-solving methods to drug abuse, gangs, and neighborhood disorder. Chapter 13 continues that theme, examining what works with the mentally ill population, cybercrime (including identity theft), and human trafficking.

Finally, in Part VI, we look at challenges that will likely confront the police in the future. Chapter 14 explores what kinds of factors will shape and drive change in the future. Its foci are technological advances; globalization and transnational crime; addressing challenges posed by "information overload" and handling vast amounts of data; considerations for deploying new technologies; the role of police in homeland security; emerging cybercrime trends; and training leaders for futures thinking.

One appendix concludes the text: an example of a problem-oriented policing training curriculum.

We believe this book comprehensively lays out for today's student how problem-oriented policing should function and is being applied in the United States. As noted above, a major strength of this book lies in its many case studies, "Focus On" boxes, and examples, which demonstrate how CPOP is planned, implemented, operationalized, and evaluated. As Samuel Johnson wrote, "Example is always more efficacious than precept."

New to This Edition

The majority of major chapter topics that were included in the previous edition remain in this eighth edition but have been updated with current information. In addition, each chapter has been treated with new "Focus On" boxes, a case study, and exercises. Following are other substantively new materials that have been added to this revised edition:

- Chapter 1: a newly proposed, fourth generation of community policing and problem-solving is proposed and discussed: the "globalization and technology" era; slave patrols
- Chapter 2: true meaning and common traits of a "community," and why it matters; emotional and social intelligence; advisory boards and community service centers; digital government; community justice (in courts, corrections)
- Chapter 3: collaborative efforts (against terrorism); recent terroristic attacks here and abroad; programs re: suspicious activity reporting; cyberterrorism; new federal initiatives; homeland threat assessment; asset forfeiture; information sharing; liaison programs

- Chapter 4: needs of and police programs for adults; immigration - federal law and policy; sanctuary cities - problems faced and reactions by governmental units; how community policing can help; report issued on police and diverse populations; greater transparency – making information public on police shootings and body camera footage; sexual, gender, minority communities
- Chapter 5: New perspectives on problem-solving; advancements in policing; recent studies of problem-solving; updates on the SARA process; the CHEERS test; sources of technical assistance; CPOP in context of catalytic converter theft; five groups of solutions to problems; UK's "Saving Lives with GPS" project
- Chapter 6: material added to history section; rational choice; integration of artificial intelligence, social media, smart technologies; collaborations with community; third generation of CPTED; officers' roles; publicity campaigns; victim- and offender-oriented campaigns; diffusion effects; evaluations of crime prevention practices
- Chapter 7: evolution of technology (IT) in policing, its impact on leadership, decision-making, and resource allocation; role of conceptual framework underlying the use of IT for problem-oriented policing; role of IT in CPOP and intelligence-led decision-making; contributions of crime analysis to problem-solving; advances in crime mapping, geographic information systems (GIS), crime analysis and mapping functions; three crime management strategies (intelligence-led policing, predictive policing, and smart policing); use of social media, civic apps, and crowdsourced intelligence in crime prevention, investigations, and public engagement; impact of artificial intelligence (AI), predictive analytics, and machine learning in modern policing strategies and decision-making; role of real-time crime centers (RTCCs) in enhancing data-driven decision-making and multi-agency collaboration
- Chapter 8: examples of international policing and their culture; generational differences (of employees); succession planning
- Chapter 9: expanded globalization focus; core elements of strategic planning (e.g., a "Best Practices Guide" w/four phases of strategic planning); economic and global realities (i.e., international migration, transnational crime and cyber threats); moving from vision to action; revised section on leadership responsibilities of all ranks; new exhibits, including human trafficking
- Chapter 10: emotional and social intelligence; training police as "guardians"; fair and impartial training; procedural justice best practices; mentoring officers across generations; training methods for today's officers—using "gamification," avatar-based, and command college training sites
- Chapter 11: assessment and impact evaluations, generally; need to publish what works; Chicago and New Haven programs; figures/guides for officers' evaluations; good example a of bad program; knowledge and skills needed for evaluators; evidence-based matrix; looking for causation; evaluating officers' CPOP efforts
- Chapter 12: changing War on Drugs and attitudes re: legalization; updates on marijuana, fentanyl, heroin, meth, xylazine, synthetics, others; federal law; police initiatives under CPOP; overdose mapping program; youth crimes, gangs, guns; graffiti related tagging, etching, sticker bombing; virtual harassment; neighborhood disorder—drug houses, foreclosures, abandoned buildings; "flash mob" thefts

- Chapter 13: generally, new approaches to coping with mental illness, domestic violence, cyber criminals, and human trafficking; homelessness and mental illness; suicide by cop; homeless encampments; Domestic-Related Repeat Incident model; identity theft; Arizona task force for financial crimes; new forms of assistance for victims of human trafficking
- Chapter 14: technological advances; globalization and transnational crime; addressing challenges posed by "information overload" and handling vast amounts of data; embracing technology; modern fusion centers; a scenario; considerations for deploying new technologies; role for local police in homeland security; emerging cybercrime trends, tactics, tools; training leaders for futures thinking

Additional Teaching Resources

Visit **collegepublishing.sagepub.com** and navigate to the Resources tab on your book's page to find the teaching materials designed to accompany this textbook. On this site you will find an array of materials that will save you time and to help you keep students engaged, including:

- **Test banks**, aligned to Bloom's Taxonomy, that provide a diverse range of test items, including multiple choice, true/false, and essay questions;
- **Lecture notes** that provide an outline and the key concepts in each chapter to aid in lecture preparation;
- **PowerPoint® slides** that offer a flexible, accessible, and customizable solution for creating multimedia lectures;
- **Tables and Figures from the book** are available to support lecture preparation and class discussions

Chapter 1

Policing Today: The Long Arc From Reactive to Proactive

Learning Objectives

- **1.1** Discuss the evolution and development of professional policing from its early use of volunteers in England.
- **1.2** Describe the characteristics of the political era of policing in the United States.
- **1.3** Describe the evolution and characteristics of the professional era (reform movement).
- **1.4** Describe the evolution and characteristics of the community problem-solving era.
- **1.5** Discuss the new era of policing emerging from rapid advancements in technology and global impacts, we refer to as the "technology and globalization era."

Introduction

Welcome to the eighth edition of our book concerning the development of community and problem-oriented policing (CPOP), which has long been the foremost police strategy in the United States and abroad. As will be seen in reading this and the chapters to follow, CPOP is not unlike the human body—composed of a variety of parts but with the single mission of functioning smoothly.

This chapter will begin our look at CPOP with an important historical examination of policing. As philosopher George Santayana famously said, "Those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it." We might add a quote by famed actress Sigourney Weaver: "It is one proof of a good education and of true refinement of feeling, to respect antiquity."[1]

In that regard, we begin with Sir Robert Peel's principles and the Metropolitan Police Act in England. Then, we review the movement to and evolution of policing in America as it began in New York City, including how and why it has now traversed through four distinct eras: political, professional, community policing, and now technology and globalization. We include significant research studies that would lay bare policing as it really exists, bring about demands for police reform, help to cast off outdated policing methods, and bring about a new approach—which is the primary, overarching focus of this book.

The chapter, as well as all chapters to follow, will conclude with a case study and the following sections: Summary, Key Terms and Concepts, Discussion Questions, and Notes.

British Foundations and Early Policing Principles

The population of England doubled between 1700 and 1800. Parliament, however, took no measures to help solve the problems that arose from the accompanying social change.[2]

London, awash in crime, had whole districts become criminal haunts, and thieves grew very bold. In the face of this situation, Henry Fielding began experimenting with possible solutions. Fielding, appointed in 1748 as London's chief magistrate of Bow Street, argued against the severity of the English penal code, which applied the death penalty to many offenses. He felt the country should reform the criminal code to deal more with the origins of crime.

In 1750, Fielding made the pursuit of criminals more systematic by creating a small group of "thief-takers."[3] When Henry Fielding died in 1754, his half-brother John succeeded him as Bow Street magistrate.

By 1785, John Fielding's thief-takers had evolved into the Bow Street Runners—some of the most famous police officers in English history. While considered the first professional police, they were essentially hired bounty hunters tasked with catching criminals on behalf of the court and paid by the victims of the crime. Though they represented a significant advancement in policing, they lacked the full-time structure and public funding of what we now recognize as a modern police force.[4]

Later, Robert Peel, a wealthy member of Parliament, felt strongly that London's population and crime problem required a full-time professional police force. Still, many English people and other politicians objected to the idea, fearing it might result in a restraint of their liberties. They also feared a strong police organization because the criminal law was already quite harsh (by the early 19th century, there were 223 crimes in England for which a person could be hanged). Indeed, Peel's efforts to gain support for full-time paid police officers failed for 7 years.[5]

Peel finally succeeded in 1829. His bill to Parliament, titled "An Act for Improving the Police in and Near the Metropolis," succeeded and became known as the **Metropolitan Police Act** of 1829. The *General Instructions* of the new force stressed its preventive nature, saying that "the principal object to be attained is the prevention of crime."[6] It was decided that constables would don a uniform (blue coat, blue pants, and black top hat) and arm themselves with a short baton (known as a truncheon) and a rattle (for raising the alarm); each constable was to wear a designated number on his collar where it could be easily seen.[7]

Peel proved very farsighted and keenly aware of the need for a police force that would serve and be accountable to the public. He drafted several guidelines for the force, many focusing on improving the relationship between the police and the public. He wrote that the power of the police to fulfill their duties depended on public approval of their actions, that as public cooperation increased, the need for physical force by the police decreased, and that the officers needed to display impartial service to the law. That force should be employed by the police only when the attempt at persuasion and warning has failed (and only the minimal degree of force possible should be used). Peel's statement, "The police are the public, and the public are the police," emphasized his belief that the police are first and foremost members of the larger society.[8]

Peel encountered strong opposition during the first three years of his reform effort. He was denounced as a potential dictator; the *London Times* urged revolt, and *Blackwood's Magazine* referred to the bobbies as "general spies" and "finished tools of corruption." Also, during this

initial five-year period, Peel endured one of the largest police turnover rates in history. Estimates range widely, but it is probably accurate to accept the figure of 1,341 constables resigning from London's Metropolitan Police from 1829 to 1834.[9]

Peel drafted what have become known as **Peel's Principles of Policing**, most (if not all) of which are still apropos to today's police community. They are:

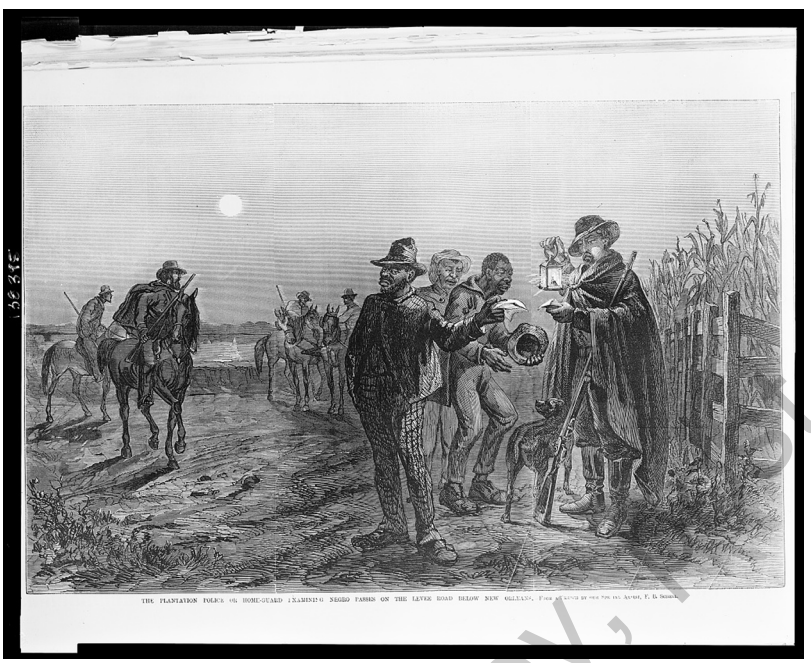
1. The basic mission for which the police exist is to prevent crime and disorder as an alternative to the repression of crime and disorder by military force and severity of legal punishment.
2. The ability of the police to perform their duties is dependent upon public approval of police existence, actions, behavior, and the ability of the police to secure and maintain public respect.
3. The police must secure the willing cooperation of the public in voluntary observance of the law to be able to secure and maintain public respect.
4. The degree of cooperation of the public that can be secured diminishes, proportionately, the necessity for the use of physical force and compulsion in achieving police objectives.
5. The police seek and preserve public favor, not by catering to public opinion, but by constantly demonstrating absolutely impartial service to the law, in complete independence of policy, and without regard to the justice or injustice of the substance of individual laws; by ready offering of individual service and friendship to all members of the society without regard to their race or social standing; by ready exercise of courtesy and friendly good humor; and by ready offering of individual sacrifice in protecting and preserving life.
6. The police should use physical force to the extent necessary to secure observance of the law or to restore order only when the exercise of persuasion, advice, and warning is found to be insufficient to achieve police objectives, and police should use only the minimum degree of physical force which is necessary on any particular occasion for achieving a police objective.
7. The police at all times should maintain a relationship with the public that gives reality to the historic tradition that the police are the public and that the public are the police; the police are the only members of the public who are paid to give full-time attention to duties which are incumbent on every citizen in the interest of the community welfare.
8. The police should always direct their actions toward their functions and never appear to usurp the powers of the judiciary by avenging individuals or the state, or authoritatively judging guilt or punishing the guilty.
9. The test of police efficiency is the absence of crime and disorder, not the visible evidence of police action in dealing with them.

Source: Lee, W. L. M. (1901). *A history of police in England*. Methuen & Company.[10]

Policing Comes to America: The Political Era

Although the onset of full-time, professional policing in the United States is commonly said to have occurred in New York City in 1844, some police historians believe that the first organized, "modern" form of policing occurred in the South in the form of **slave patrols**.[11] Dutch slave ships began bringing enslaved persons to America, the vast majority of whom were Africans.

European powers focused heavily on capturing, transporting, and selling African people, primarily from West and Central Africa and sold in various European colonies in the Americas, including the Caribbean, North America, and South America.[12]



"The Plantation Police," an 1863 illustration by Francis H. Schnell. The plantation police or home-guard examining Negro passes on the levee road below New Orleans.

Courtesy Library of Congress, https://www.loc.gov/item/2009630225/.

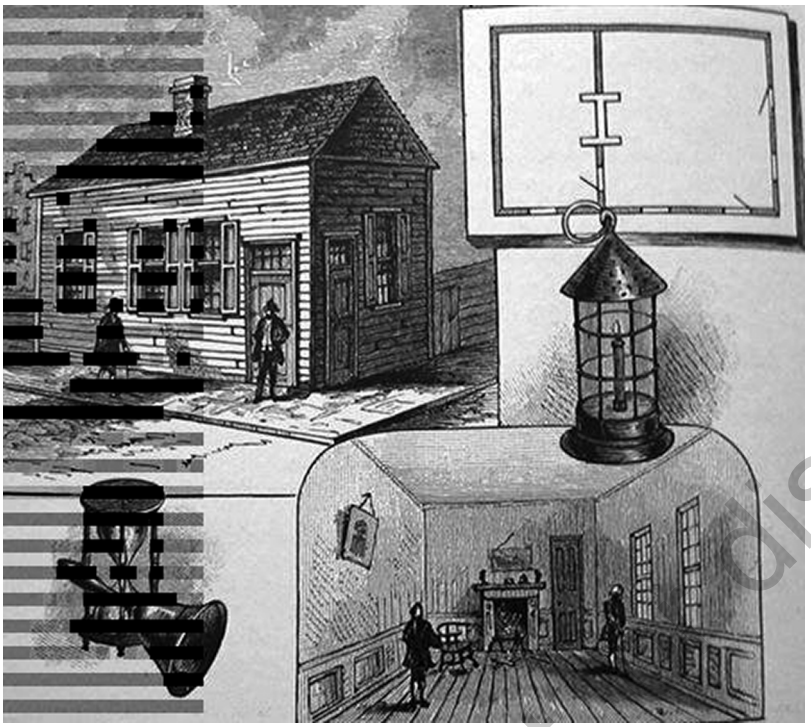
U.S. colonists soon began attempting to control enslaved people through informal "patrols." The first such patrol was probably organized as a special enforcement arm in South Carolina in 1704. These men were well-armed and often visited plantations where they were allowed to flog enslaved people who were violating the codes.[13] In many colonies and states, anyone could legally apprehend, chastise, and even kill any enslaved person found off the plantation, and enslaved persons who had run away could even be killed in some states. These slave patrols eventually became the legal mechanism for social control, particularly in rural areas of the Southern colonies, where they maintained the institution of slavery, captured enslaved people who had run away, and guarded against uprisings and crimes committed by enslaved people.[14]

The New York City Experience

Americans, meanwhile, were observing Peel's overall successful experiment with the bobbies on the patrol beat. By the 1840s, when industrialization began in earnest in America, U.S. officials began watching the police reform movement in England more closely, however, many Americans feared that a professional police force would infringe on their liberties, especially if they were heavily influenced by local politicians and acted as tools for political oppression rather than protectors of public safety.[15]

Nevertheless, the movement toward policing in America began in New York City. Although Philadelphia launched a daytime police force with a private bequeath of $33,000 in 1833, it was short-lived and disbanded in three years. In 1844, New York's state legislature passed a law establishing a full-time preventive police force for New York City.

This launching of full-time policing was accompanied by much blundering, inefficiency, and confusion in this **political era.** This was an age when forensic techniques could not clearly distinguish the blood of a pig from that of a human, and the art of criminal detection was little



In 1734—more than a century before the New York Police Department was formally established—the first police stationhouse (the "Watch House") was erected. A two-room wooden structure, it was used by the night watch who patrolled from dusk to dawn. Used until 1789, it included an outdoor cage to house prisoners as well as a whipping post and pillory to punish offenders. Source: "First Main Watch-house, Wall and Broad Streets." Augustine E. Costello, Our Police Protectors: History of the New York Police From the Earliest Period to the Present Time (published by the author, 1885).

more than divination. In this environment, meanwhile, police patrolled with minimal training, relying on simplistic rule books that offered little guidance in managing distress and disorder.[16]

The city government and politicians deliberately controlled these police forces. The mayor chose recruits, and selected candidates were assigned to aldermen and tax assessors from each ward. Political patronage, rather than merit, often determined these selections.[17] Given that, the link between police and neighborhoods and politicians was so close that the police of this era have been considered virtual adjuncts to political machines.[18] Politicians helped keep police in office, and police, in turn, supported ward leaders, encouraging citizens to vote for particular candidates. This "spoils system" of jobs awarded for political support plagued many police forces during this era.

Soon, other cities adopted the New York approach. New Orleans and Cincinnati adopted plans for a new police force in 1852; Boston and Philadelphia followed in 1854; Chicago in 1855; and Baltimore and Newark in 1857. By 1880, nearly all major American cities had a police force based on New York City's adaptation of Peel's approach.

From Eastern Cities to Wild West Towns

These new police were also borne of conflict and violence. An unprecedented wave of civil disorder swept the nation from the 1840s until the 1870s. Few cities escaped serious rioting caused by ethnic and racial conflicts, economic disorder, and public outrage about such things as brothels

New York Police Department officers initially refused to wear uniforms because they did not want to appear as "liveried lackeys." A blue frock coat with brass buttons was adopted in 1853.

Photo by Kean Collection/Getty Images

and medical school experiments. These occurrences often made for hostile interaction between citizens and the police, who were essentially a reactive force. Riots occurred in many major cities and the use of the baton to quell riots, known as the "baton charge," was not uncommon.[19]

Furthermore, while large cities in the East were struggling to overcome social problems and establish preventive police forces, the western half of America was anything but passive. When people left the wagon trains and their relatively law-abiding ways, they attempted to live together in communities. Many different ethnic groups—Anglo-Americans, Mexicans, Chinese, Indians, freed Blacks, Australians, Scandinavians, and others—competed for often-scarce resources and fought one another violently, often with mob attacks. Economic conflicts were frequent between cattlemen and sheep herders, often leading to major range wars. There was constant labor strife in the mines. The bitterness of the slavery issue remained, and many men with firearms skills learned during the Civil War turned to outlawry after leaving the service (Jesse James was one such person).[20]

Despite these difficulties, westerners established peace by relying on U.S. marshals, businessmen, town police or marshals, and private citizens,[21] the latter forming posses vigilante committees[22] (not unlike today's self-appointed groups that patrol the Southwestern borders in search of illegal immigrants).[23]

Federal marshals were created by Congressional legislation in 1789. As they began to appear on the frontier, the vigilantes tended to disappear. U.S. marshals enforced federal laws, so they only had jurisdiction over federal offenses, such as theft of mail, crimes against railroad property, and murder on federal lands. Finally, when a territory became a state, the primary law enforcement functions usually fell to local sheriffs and marshals. Sheriffs quickly became important officials, but they spent more time collecting taxes, inspecting cattle brands, maintaining jails, and serving civil papers than they did actually dealing with outlaws.[24]

Politics, Patronage, and Corruption

Large cities gradually became more orderly during the late 19th century. American cities absorbed millions of newcomers after 1900 without the social strains that attended the Irish immigration of the 1830s to 1850s.[25]

Partly because of their closeness to politicians, police provided a wide array of services to citizens during this era. Many police departments were involved in crime prevention and order maintenance as well as a variety of social services. In some cities, they operated soup lines, helped find lost children, and found jobs and temporary lodging for newly arrived immigrants.[26] Police organizations were typically quite decentralized, with cities being divided into precincts and run like small-scale departments, hiring, firing, managing, and assigning personnel as necessary.

Officers were often recruited from the same ethnic groups in the neighborhoods; they lived in the beats they patrolled and were given considerable discretion in handling their individual beats. Decentralization encouraged foot patrol, even after call boxes and automobiles became available. Detectives operated from a caseload of "persons" rather than offenses, relying on their caseload to provide information on other criminals.[27]

The strengths of this political era centered on the fact that police were integrated into neighborhoods. This strategy proved useful as it helped contain riots, and the police assisted immigrants in establishing themselves in communities and finding jobs. However, this intimacy with the community, the closeness to politicians, and a decentralized organizational structure (and its inability to provide supervision of officers) also led to police corruption.

The close identification of police with neighborhoods also resulted in discrimination against strangers, especially marginalized ethnic and racial groups. Police often ruled their beats with the "end of their nightsticks" and practiced "curbside justice."[28]

The Push for Professionalism

In summary, the 19th-century police officer was essentially a political operative rather than a modern-style professional committed to public service. Because the police were essentially a political institution and perceived as such by the citizenry, they did not enjoy widespread acceptance by the public. As political appointees, officers enjoyed little job security, and local political factors determined salaries. Primitive communications technology of the era meant that police chiefs could not supervise their captains at the precinct level; thus, the policy was greatly influenced by the prevailing political and social mores. As a consequence, police behavior was very much influenced by the interaction between individual officers and individual citizens. The nature of that interaction, later termed the problem of **police-community relations**, was perhaps even more complex and ambiguous in the nineteenth century than in the late 20th century.[29]

The Professional Era (Reform Movement)

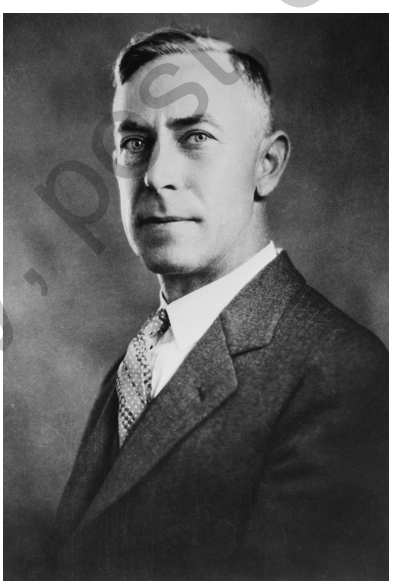
The idea of policing as a profession, however, began to emerge slowly in the latter part of the 19th century. Reform ideas first appeared as a reaction to the corrupt and politicized state of the police. Reformers agreed that partisan politics was the heart of the problem. Slowly, the idea of policing as a profession committed to public service began to gain ground leading to the emergency of the **professional era** of policing. Two other ideas about the proper role of the police in society also appeared: improvement in the role of police with respect to scientific techniques of crime

detection, and that the police could play more of a social-work role, preventing crime and keeping people out of the justice system.[30]

Several important developments occurred during the late 1800s. First, policing began to generate a body of literature, providing glimpses into the informal processes that governed police departments and focused on the individual officer. Furthermore, there were improvements in the areas of testing and training. The physical and mental qualifications of police officers were more highly emphasized, and formal schools of instruction were developed. There also came into being a number of police entities, such as the National Police Chiefs Union (later named the International Association of Chiefs of Police [IACP])[31] and the National Sheriff's Association, fraternal and benefit societies of police.[32]

August Vollmer, a pioneer of police professionalism from 1905 to 1932, rallied police executives around reform during the 1920s and 1930s. He advocated the idea that the police should function as social workers and the use of modern technology to enhance policing efficiency. Police, he believed, should do more than merely arrest persons committing crimes; they should actively seek to prevent crime by "saving" individuals committing potential or actual offenses.[33]

Vollmer's innovative mindset also led to his introduction in Berkeley, California, to the use of lie detectors (polygraphs), fingerprinting, forensic science, some of the earliest crime labs, and the use of patrol cars and bicycles to improve response times.[34]



August Vollmer, a national spokesman for and early pioneer of police professionalism, established one of the first fingerprint bureaus and formal police schools while he was chief of police in Berkeley, California.

Bettmann / Contributor

Other reforms brought civil service systems to eliminate political patronage and ward influences in hiring and firing police officers.[35]Police organizations became law enforcement agencies, with the sole goal of controlling crime. Any non-crime activities they were required to do were "social work." The "professional model" of policing was in full bloom.

Officers were to enforce laws and make arrests whenever possible. Discretion was limited to the extent possible. Special units (e.g., vice, juvenile, drugs, tactical) were created when special problems arose rather than assigning problems to patrol officers.

Crime Commissions and Early Police Studies

The early 1900s also became the age of the crime commission, including the **Wickersham Commission** reports in 1931. President Herbert Hoover, concerned with the lax enforcement of prohibition and other forms of police corruption, created the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement—popularly known as the Wickersham Commission after its chairman, former U.S. Attorney General George W. Wickersham. This commission completed the first national study of crime and criminal justice, issuing 14 reports and recommending that the corrupting influence of politics be removed from policing, police chief executives be selected on merit, patrol officers be tested and meet minimal physical standards, police salaries and working conditions be decent, and policewomen be used in juvenile and female cases. Although the Wickersham Commission's recommendations were not immediately implemented, its findings influenced later reforms and helped lay the groundwork for the modernization of police practices.[36]

The most important change in policing during this decade was the advent of the automobile and its accompanying radio. Gradually, the patrol car replaced foot patrol, expanding geographic beats and further removing people from neighborhoods. There was also Prohibition (from 1920-1933), a bloody wave of racial violence in American cities, and the rise and defeat of police unionism and strikes.[37]

The 1930s marked an important turning point in the history of police reform. The first genuine empirical studies of police work began to appear, and O. W. Wilson emerged as the leading authority on police administration. The major development of this decade was a redefinition of the police role, leading to the ascendancy of the crime fighter image. J. Edgar Hoover's transformation of the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) into an agency of high prestige enhanced the police reform strategy.[38]

Also, by the 1930s, the policewomen's movement, which began in the early 1900s, was losing ground. Professionalism came to mean managerial efficiency, technological sophistication, and an emphasis on crime fighting. The social work aspects of policing—the idea of rehabilitative work, which had been central to the policewomen's movement—was almost totally eclipsed**.** Pioneers like Alice Stebbins Wells, who advanced women's involvement in policing, saw their roles marginalized as the profession shifted toward a law-enforcement model.[39] The result was a severe identity crisis for policewomen: They were caught between a social work orientation and a law enforcement ideology. Later, by the 1960s, women would occupy an extremely marginal place in American policing.[40]

In sum, under the reform era's professional policing model, officers were to remain in their "rolling fortresses," going from one call to the next with all due haste.

The Professional Crime Fighter

From the 1940s through the early 1960s, police reform continued along well-established lines. and the police began to develop their own sense of professional autonomy.

Citizens' responsibility in crime control was limited to calling police and serving as witnesses when asked to do so. Police were the "thin blue line." If a citizen saw a police officer, it was normally as they sped by in their "rolling fortress," the patrol car (some First Nations people

FBI Shooting Range. FBI agents practice shooting from vehicle in the 1930s.

Courtesy FBI.

in Canada evolved the term "men without legs," meaning that officers are only seen driving through communities rather than stopping and engaging with the public). Quantitative measures of policing were paramount—rapid response to calls for service (CFS), numbers of arrests, miles driven during a shift, and so on. Foot patrol, where practiced, was often rejected as an outmoded, expensive frill.[41]

However, this phrase appears to be part of oral traditions and lacks formal documentation in written sources.

The Advent of Police-Community Relations

While much of the country's so-called police reform was embodied in the professional model of policing, a movement was beginning in Michigan to bring the police and community closer together. The National Institute on Police and Community Relations (NIPCR) was founded in 1955 at Michigan State University, which also had a National Center on Police and Community Relations, created to conduct a national survey on police-community relations.[42]

Challenges and New Research During the Professional Model

Several problems with the professional model of policing began to arise during the late 1960s:

- *Crime began to rise, and research suggested that conventional police methods were not effective*. The 1960s was a time of explosion and turbulence (the 1968 Democratic National Convention in Chicago in particular). Inner-city residents rioted in several major cities; protestors denounced military involvement in Vietnam; and assassins ended the lives of President John F. Kennedy, Robert F. Kennedy, and civil rights leader Rev. Martin Luther King, Jr. As a result of this national turmoil, five national studies, each with a different focus, looked into police practices during the 1960s and 1970s.

  - The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice (termed the "President's Crime Commission" [1967])
  - The National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (1968)
  - The National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence (1968)
  - The President's Commission on Campus Unrest (1970)
  - The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1973)

  Notably, the aforementioned President's Crime Commission of 1967 recommended hiring more individuals from marginalized communities as police officers to improve police-community relations, upgrading the quality of police officers through better-educated officers, and using better applicant screening and intensive preservice training.[43]

- *Fear of crime rose sharply during this time.* Citizens abandoned parks, public transportation, neighborhood shopping centers, churches, and entire neighborhoods.
- *Many citizens from marginalized communities did not perceive their treatment as equitable or adequate*. They protested not only police mistreatment but lack of treatment—despite attempts by most police departments to provide impartial policing to all citizens.
- *The antiwar and civil rights movements challenged the police*. Students resisted police, marginalized communities rioted against them for what they represented, and the public questioned police tactics.
- *Many of the myths surrounding policing were deemed unfounded, such as:* Law enforcement composed but a small portion of police officers' activities;[44] two-person patrol cars were neither more effective nor safer than one-person cars in reducing crime or catching criminals;[45] arrests alone, commonly viewed as the major tool used by police, do not reduce crime; police officers routinely exercised a great deal of discretion in their work, rather than following laws and going "by the book"; and less than 50 percent of an officer's time was committed to CFS and law enforcement, and of those calls handled, over 80 percent were noncriminal incidents.[46]
- *Police began to acquire competition: private security and the community crime control movement*. Businesses, industries, and private citizens began to seek alternative means of protecting themselves and their property.
- The Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment of 1973 questioned the usefulness of random patrol in police vehicles.[47]
- Officers and detectives were limited in their abilities to investigate crimes successfully, while most crimes go unsolved.[48]
- Rapid response to calls was less effective at catching criminals than educating the public to call the police sooner after a crime is committed.[49]

What did these studies mean for the police? Was the professional model of policing entirely off base? No, in fact, it can have a positive impact on a police agency's organization, efficiency, and control. However, these studies do show that the police erred in doggedly investing so much of their resources in a limited number of practices that were based on a somewhat naive and simplistic concept of the police role.[50] As we have seen, the "We've always done it this way" mentality and traditional policing methods does not always serve police well.

1965 Selma Alabama Voting March. Three Selma-to-Montgomery (Alabama) marches in 1965 marked the peak of the American civil rights movement, growing out of the voting rights movement launched by African Americans. The first march took place on March 7, 1965—"Bloody Sunday"—when 600 civil rights marchers were attacked by state and local police with batons and tear gas.

Archive PL / Alamy Stock Photo

Time for a New Approach

Given these challenges, it is clear that police agencies must change their daily activities, management practices, and perspectives to confront the evolving landscape. Police research has demonstrated the need for agencies to evaluate the effectiveness of their responses using both quantitative and qualitative data. Departments must have a comprehensive understanding of their officers' activities and the impact of their strategies.

To successfully accomplish their mission, police must reacquaint themselves with community members by involving citizens in resolving neighborhood problems. Simply stated, police must view the public, as well as other government and social services organizations, as "partners in" rather than "apart from" their efforts.

The Community Problem-Solving Era

In the early 1970s, it was suggested that the performance of patrol officers would improve more by using job redesign based on "motivators."[51] This suggestion later evolved into a concept known as "**team policing**," which sought to restructure police departments, improve police-community relations, enhance police officer morale, and facilitate change within the police organization. Its primary element was a decentralized neighborhood focus to the delivery of police services. Officers were to be generalists, trained to investigate crimes and attend to all the problems in their area. A

team of officers was assigned to a particular neighborhood and responsible for all police services in that area**.** This was the beginning of the **community era** of policing.

However, team policing failed for several reasons. Most of the experiments were poorly planned and hastily implemented, leading to confusion among street officers who did not understand their new roles. Many mid-management personnel felt threatened by team policing; as a result, some sabotaged the experiment. Furthermore, team policing did not represent a completely different philosophy for policing.

During the late 1970s and early 1980s, foot patrol also became popular. Findings in several cities were that residents viewed foot patrol positively, led to a significant reduction of perceived crime problems, and resulted in a significant increase in the perceived level of safety of the neighborhood.[52]

Foundations Laid for Community and Problem-Oriented Policing

In the mid-1980s, a problem-oriented approach to policing developed by Herman Goldstein was tested in several jurisdictions. It was discovered that police officers have the capacity to solve problems effectively and can collaborate with citizens and other agencies. Additionally, citizens appreciated working with the police, leading to a model where officers were given more autonomy and trained to analyze the underlying causes of problems and develop creative solutions.

By the late 1980s and 1990s, the concept of **community-oriented policing (COP)** had evolved significantly. Robert Trojanowicz's work laid the foundation for a collaborative, problem-solving approach by emphasizing the importance of partnerships between police officers and community members.[53] Herman Goldstein's **problem-oriented policing (POP)** further reinforced this philosophy by promoting the idea of addressing root causes rather than merely responding to incidents.[54]

However, as will be seen in later chapters, POP demands more than new strategies; it requires a shift in organizational focus, prioritizing community collaboration and crime prevention. This shift pushes discretionary police authority to lower levels within the organization. The establishment of the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS Office) under the U.S. Department of Justice in 1994 marked a significant milestone in institutionalizing these practices nationwide. During this period, the first 100,000 community police officers were hired, and research consistently supported the integration of problem-solving strategies with community partnerships.[55]

The Technology and Globalization Era

As the 21st century progressed, policing entered an era shaped by rapid technological change and the far-reaching effects of globalization. As indicated earlier, we propose that police are now in a "technology and globalization era," which builds upon Kelling and Moore's three-era model (Table 1.1) and reflects a new reality where individuals committing crimes operate across borders, and technology drives crime trends. Given that, policing must evolve or be left behind. Whether a large metropolitan department or a small agency, today's police organizations must now deal with crimes that do not stop at city, state, or even national lines.

Bike Patrols have become part of community policing and problem-solving efforts; many agencies use bicycle patrols to focus on crime prevention and greater interaction with the community.

(C)iStockphoto.com/Marc Dufresne

Table 1.1 ▪ The Three Eras of Policing

	Political Era (1840s to 1930s)	Reform Era (1930s to 1980s)	Community Era (1980s to Present)
Authorization	Politics and law	Law and professionalism	Community support (political), law, and professionalism
Function	Broad social services	Crime control	Broad provision of services
Organizational design	Decentralized	Centralized and classical	Decentralized using task forces and matrices
Relationship to Community	Intimate	Professional and remote	Intimate
Tactics and technology	Foot patrol	Preventive patrol and rapid response to calls	Foot patrol, problem-solving, and public relations
Outcome	Citizen and political satisfaction	Crime control	Quality of life and citizen satisfaction

Source: Adapted from Kelling, G. L., Moore, M. H., United States. Office of Justice Programs., & National Institute of Justice. (1989). *The evolving strategy of policing / by George L. Kelling and Mark H. Moore.* U.S. Dept. of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice.

Unlike past eras, crime today is digital, decentralized, and global in reach. Criminals hide behind encrypted networks, move illicit funds through cryptocurrency, and carry out cyberattacks from thousands of miles away. Policing has no choice but to adapt.

Next, we briefly explore how technology and globalization have reshaped crime, changed police operations, and redefined relationships between officers and the communities they serve. The challenge is clear—criminals will always be one step ahead if law enforcement doesn't evolve.

The Influence of Technology and Globalization in Today's Policing

Technology and globalization have changed not only crime but also how society functions. People's lives are interconnected in ways never before experienced, impacting how people communicate, conduct business, and commit crimes. This means policing can't rely on the old playbook—it has to move toward intelligence-led, globally connected strategies.

Discussions about this shift aren't new. Bayley and Shearing addressed how policing had entered a "multilateralization" phase, where security is no longer just the government's responsibility but shared with private companies, local communities, and international partnerships. Their work underscored the need for law enforcement to shift its thinking—crime is no longer merely a local problem.[56]

Today, police agencies—large and small—find themselves fighting new and unfamiliar threats that often originate overseas. As examples:

- Drug cartels, in partnership with China-based companies, have turned cities across the U.S. into battlegrounds, fueling violence and record-high overdose rates.[57]
- Cybercriminals based overseas are defrauding everyday Americans through sophisticated scams and digital financial fraud.
- Human trafficking operations stretch across international borders, requiring extensive international collaboration among law enforcement agencies to interrupt recruiting, transport, and exploitation of victims.
- Transnational gangs like Tren de Aragua, originating from Venezuelan prisons, are embedding themselves in communities throughout Europe and other regions of the world and now in communities throughout the United States. They operate much like terrorist organizations—establishing cells to operate independently while leadership remains in Venezuela.[58]

What do these crimes have in common? They do not begin or end in one place. They move through encrypted networks, hidden supply chains, and financial systems that stretch worldwide. Policing has to evolve alongside these threats.

At the same time, technology has transformed criminal activity and officers' jobs. Criminal organizations now use encrypted messaging apps and the Dark Web to conduct business outside law enforcement's reach. Cryptocurrency is frequently used to transfer illegal funds internationally to avoid allowing criminals to launder money and avoid detection. Additionally, AI presents many new challenges for policing, as cybercriminals use AI-driven tools to launch sophisticated attacks that can disrupt government agencies, private businesses, and even police departments. A real-world cyber-attack occurred on May 2021, when the Colonial Pipeline Company suffered a ransomware attack that shut down its operations, causing widespread fuel shortages across the U.S. East Coast. The attack was attributed to the "DarkSide" hacker group.[59]

The Future is Now: Recognizing and Advancing the Technology and Globalization Era

In 2006, Willard Oliver proposed that a new, fourth era of policing be considered, which he termed the Homeland Security Era; he believed that such a shift provided important insights into post-9/11 counterterrorism, intelligence-sharing, and interagency coordination.[60]

However, the impact of technology and globalization is now emerging and challenging police in every community. Therefore, our model presented herein builds upon Oliver's framework but extends beyond counterterrorism, acknowledging the expansive reach of cybercrime, financial fraud, AI-enhanced criminal operations, and other transnational threats that now define modern policing challenges.

The **Technology and Globalization Era** is not a theoretical shift but an operational reality with far-reaching implications for law enforcement agencies worldwide. Consider these developments:

- Interpol and Europol have expanded cybercrime task forces, working across borders to dismantle financial fraud networks and disrupt ransomware operations.[61]
- The FBI has enhanced its Joint Task Forces, integrating partnerships with cybersecurity firms and financial institutions to implement AI-powered threat detection in criminal investigations.[62]
- National law enforcement agencies worldwide are adopting intelligence-led policing strategies, using predictive analytics and real-time crime mapping to enhance investigative efficiency and crime prevention.[63]

As the impact of technology and globalization continues to evolve, police agencies must evolve beyond reactive strategies and develop a comprehensive, forward-looking approach that prioritizes global intelligence-sharing, digital forensics, and technology-driven enforcement. The success of 21st-century policing will depend on how effectively law enforcement adapts to this new reality.

FOCUS ON NYPD's Application of the Technology and Globalization Era

The New York City Police Department (NYPD) exemplifies technology and globalization integration in modern policing. Through its International Liaison Program, the NYPD stations officers in major cities such as London, Tel Aviv, and Singapore to gather intelligence and collaborate with foreign law enforcement. This program bolsters its counterterrorism efforts by enabling the department to stay ahead of global threats and respond with informed strategies. Domestically, the NYPD employs advanced technologies, including real-time crime mapping, predictive analytics, and digital surveillance, to identify and address crime trends proactively. These tools aid in efficiently allocating resources, enhancing situational awareness, and preventing incidents before they escalate. This dual approach demonstrates the NYPD's commitment to blending community-oriented practices with modern technological capabilities. By adapting to the demands of a globalized, tech-driven world, the NYPD effectively navigates both local and international challenges, contributing to overall public safety and fostering public trust in an interconnected era.[64] (Bailey & Shearing, 2001)

Case Study

You're a newly hired police chief for Rivercrest, a mid-sized department with a growing population. The mayor and city council tasked you with modernizing the police department to align with 21st-century policing principles and address citizen's concerns. Riverside has operated under a traditional reactive policing model with little or no crime prevention in its responses. The department has not kept up with technological advancements and is pressured to modernize the agency under the principles of community and problem-oriented policing.

1. How can community partnerships and problem-solving help reduce crime and improve public trust?
2. What suggestions would you make concerning technologies to help officers respond more effectively to crime and community needs?

Summary

This chapter has provided a comprehensive overview of the evolution of policing in America, beginning with its roots in British law enforcement, particularly the influence of Sir Robert Peel's principles. These foundational ideas laid the groundwork for formal police forces in the United States. They paved the way for developing four primary eras of policing: the political era, the professional era, the community era, and the current technology and globalization era.

The political era was characterized by close ties between the police and local politicians, often leading to corruption and inefficiency. The subsequent professional era aimed to reform policing by reducing political influences, emphasizing crime control, and solidifying the "crime fighter" model. However, as social and criminal dynamics evolved, it became clear that the professional model had limitations, particularly in addressing public trust and community needs.

These limitations led to the community era, prioritizing building community partnerships and integrating problem-solving strategies to enhance crime prevention and public safety. This era shifted from purely reactive approaches to proactive, community-involved policing methods.

As the 21st century advanced, the emergence of what we term the technology and globalization era became essential. This era demands that police adapt to complex global challenges, including transnational crime and advanced technology. Integrating data-driven intelligence, international cooperation, and innovative technological tools are now critical for effectively addressing modern threats.

In conclusion, the chapter has shown that traditional, time-limited policing methods have evolved significantly. These changes have culminated in the development of community policing and problem-oriented policing (CPOP), which remains the central focus of this book.

Key Terms And Concepts

Community Era
Community-oriented policing
Metropolitan Police Act
Peel's Principles (Robert Peel)
Police-community relations
Political Era
Problem-oriented policing
Professional Era
Team policing
Technology and Globalization Era

Vollmer, August Vollmer (August) Wickersham Commission

Discussion Questions

1. What were the British contributions to American policing?
2. When and where did modern-day policing first come to America, and what were its primary challenges during the early stages of development?
3. What research findings bare the fallacies of traditional policing methods?
4. What are the four eras of policing, and how would you define them, their emphases, and their impact on police practices?

Chapter 2

Police-Community Partnerships

Trust And Collaboration

Learning Objectives

- **2.1** Distinguish types and common traits of a community.
- **2.2** Discuss how and why the police must adopt a "new professionalism."
- **2.3** Describe what constitutes a healthy community, and how citizens and police can collaboratively contribute to a sense of social well-being and address fear of crime.
- **2.4** Explain the effects of the economy on police and community—and police efforts to cope with economic downturns.
- **2.5** Explain the uses and purposes of beat meetings, advisory boards, and civilian review boards.
- **2.6** Discuss how courts and corrections agencies are practicing community justice.

Introduction

In Chapter 1, we established that policing has evolved through four eras and is currently in its globalization and technological era. However, the underlying emphasis was the practice and acceptance of community and problem-oriented policing (CPOP, discussed thoroughly in Chapter 5) in and with the community's acceptance. For CPOP to function well, it needs to have deep involvement with the community. But what defines a "community," and how do the police engage and address problems within a changing community with all types of crime? How can the police deal with the community's fear of crime? And how does the overarching problem of the local economy relate to those efforts? Clearly, working with the community is key.

This chapter discusses why that is so, beginning with a look at new directions many police agencies and personnel are undertaking to focus on being more professional. Next is a discussion of some elements that compose a healthy community, including cohesion, social capital, addressing fear of crime, and volunteerism. Then, we look at how the economy has affected policing and discuss the centerpiece of this chapter: how all of these topics relate to the CPOP strategy and how it differs from traditional policing practices.

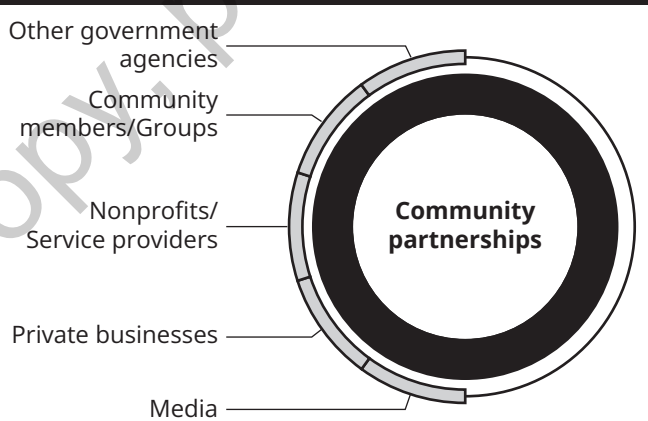
In this same vein, we look at beat meetings, advisory boards, and citizen police academies for bringing police and communities together, as well as what is needed in terms of police oversight. Finally, we examine community justice, how courts and corrections agencies partner with citizens, and how government organizations utilize community service centers (discussed below) and e-government activities to keep the public engaged and informed.

The Meaning Of "Community" And Why It Matters

People today probably pay little attention to the meaning of the word "community" and its impact, given our busy lives and mobility—as people often move and relocate for job and family reasons. If spoken, "community" is frequently used casually and without consideration of its true meaning. And if someone does think about what constitutes a community, they probably limit its meaning to a place where a group of people live together. But it is much more than that.

First, the word "community" includes different types of communities, such as academic, sports, art, religion, veterans, business, or ethnicity. A true community fosters a sense of identity and belonging—with an accompanying feeling of pride when it is praised, as well as hurt or distress when it is condemned.[1] This sense of identity may also explain why some communities are more tightly-knit—to the extent that someone moving in might feel like and be treated as a stranger for some time. Figure 2.1 illustrates the collaborative partnerships essential for addressing community concerns and strengthening trust in law enforcement.

Figure 2.1 ▪ Collaborative partnerships between the law enforcement agency and the individuals and organizations they serve will develop solutions to problems and increase trust in police.



Source: U.S. Department of Justice, Community Oriented Policing Services, *Community Policing Defined,* 2014, p. 4, https://portal.cops.usdoj.gov/resourcecenter/content.ashx/cops-p157-pub.pdf.

Finally, for many people, their community defines who they are and can even give them certain character traits (values, behaviors, attitudes). This shaping of their personality might be owed to the community's history, social events, or even its current or past well-known residents. Furthermore, many, if not most, people consider themselves to be a part of that community long after they have moved away, perhaps still taking an active part in reunions, keeping abreast of

their hometown news, maintaining a social media presence (virtual gatherings, online forums), and so on.[2]

Of course, the interaction of the community's police agency with its members is of great importance; the police must provide residents with a feeling of safety and work to solve and prevent crimes. This chapter focuses on that community-police alliance.

Embracing A New Professionalism

These are exciting yet also daunting times for the police and public. These times call for stricter accountability regarding police effectiveness and conduct while also increasing their legitimacy. Next, we discuss how this must be accomplished—perhaps now more important than ever, given the public outcry for transparency and accountability in their police.

Accountability in Effectiveness and Conduct

Chapter 1 discussed the many drawbacks of policing during the professional era. In short, policing was largely reactive, with little emphasis on long-term problem-solving or community involvement. Officers represented the "thin blue line" more than actively engaging with the community members they served. Citizens were no longer encouraged to approach officers assigned to their neighborhoods or precincts.

Television influenced the public with 1960s programs like "Dragnet," which introduced audiences to modern-day law enforcement with Sgt. Joe Fridays, the stoic phrase, "Just the facts, ma'am," epitomizes a detached, procedural approach to policing. For all the good that occurred in the many advancements of this professional era, it often did so at the expense of public trust and engagement.

The need for a relationship between policing and the community was soon realized in the emergence of community policing in the 1980s. At the same time, their productivity in the professional era was judged primarily by the number of arrests they made or the number of people they stopped during a shift. As a result, the crime rate became the primary indicator of police effectiveness.

Today, police organizations across the United States are striving for what might be termed a new professionalism. This includes stricter accountability regarding their effectiveness and conduct while increasing their legitimacy in the eyes of those they serve and encouraging continuous innovation in police practices. These three goals suggest a fourth element as well: *national coherence*. Next, we discuss these four principles in greater detail.

1. A commitment to *accountability* means being answerable for police actions both internally and to external bodies like civilian review boards (discussed below), city councils, county commissioners, state legislatures, and courts. Community surveys reveal the public's concerns about crime and safety. Accountability also focuses on reducing use-of-force incidents by analyzing incidents leading to its use to determine if officers used proper tactics and it was justified.

2. A commitment to *legitimacy* requires police to act judiciously and with community consent and approval. The new professionalism emphasizes integrity and trust as measures of support over traditional measures like citizen complaints, which are

unreliable due to low reporting and misuse by individuals who are persistent in committing offenses.

3. A commitment to *innovation* means actively experimenting with new ideas and changing policies and procedures. Innovative agencies look for practices that work as they attempt to prevent crimes and solve problems. Knowledge—its creation, dissemination, and practical application—is essential to genuine professionalism. Police must also measure their outcomes (discussed in Chapter 11), encourage independent evaluations of their policies and tactics, and design experiments that rigorously test new ideas. In sum, police departments need to become learning organizations.

4. *National coherence* means that agencies exemplifying the new professionalism participate in national conversations about professional policing. Agencies must train their officers, supervisors, and leaders in successful practices and theories. Organizations such as the Police Foundation, the Police Executive Research Forum, the federal Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS), the Office on Violence Against Women, the Office of Justice Programs, the Major Cities Chiefs Association, and other professional associations have helped by nurturing national conversations among practitioners and researchers.[3]

Police as "Guardians" and "Warriors": Can They Co-Exist?

The idea of police as **warriors** vs. **guardians** was created out of concerns about America's trust in policing and their role in society. This concern arises whenever people lose confidence in their police. This strained relationship, especially in marginalized and low-income communities, only heightens with high-profile acts of misconduct captured on video and shared worldwide on social media. Policing reforms and developments, including de-escalation training and body-worn cameras, are steps in the right direction, and research shows improvements in public perceptions. However, these alone do not fully address the issue.

Simply put, the warrior view of police sees officers as combatants rather than protectors, which in turn leads to a climate of distrust and tension with the public. Furthermore, an adversarial stance damages police-community relations, obstructs effective policing, and impedes reforms.

Conversely, the guardian mindset portrays the officer's mission as one of protecting citizens from harm. It proposes a procedurally just culture that emphasizes communication over commands, cooperation over compliance, and legitimacy over authority. But at the same time, it is recognized that officers need the capability to act in the capacity of warriors in certain situations. But overall, the guardian's priority is respect, trust, and partnerships, fostering a police culture that upholds dignity, enhances public safety, and rebuilds trust lost within communities.[4]

Can these two ideologies coexist? Indeed, the dangerous environment in which the police work at times requires them to approach the situation as warriors. An officer is a public servant who protects citizens from individuals committing crimes (guardian) while also having the skill and courage to act as a warrior in times of riots, serious violent crime, executing felony warrants, critical incidents, and so on.[5]

Empirical research supports this idea of an overlap between the "warrior/guardian framework." The warrior and guardian mindsets are distinct but related.[6]

We will discuss the need for a new type of police professionalism, legitimacy, and the guardian mindset in Chapter 8, which concerns how to change agency culture.

Ft. Lauderdale mounted unit on patrol speaks with a father and son on the beaches.

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A "Transformational Time" in Policing: Emotional and Social Intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) and **social intelligence (SI)** align closely with the warrior vs. guardian framework. These concepts are now taught in police training to improve officers' skills in active listening, empathy, conflict resolution, de-escalation, and navigating complex and diverse social situations.[7]

For the police, EI is the ability to understand, manage and express one's emotions while navigating interpersonal relationships. This skill can make the difference between de-escalating a tense encounter and letting it spiral into conflict. SI as it applies to the police refers to the ability of officers to understand and manage social interactions, both their own and those of others, to build trust, de-escalate conflicts, and improve community relations. It encompasses skills like empathy, communication, and conflict resolution, and is increasingly recognized as a crucial element for effective law enforcement.

These are both broad concepts that are much more involved than can be dissected here, but see Rex Scism, "Using Social and Emotional Intelligence in Public Safety" (complete cite in endnote).[8] As noted above, the warrior needs to prioritize these skills more. Tactical and physical competencies are emphasized versus managing emotions or understanding social cues in nonthreatening situations. The guardian model, however, does display higher emotional intelligence and is more likely to de-escalate situations without resorting to force. The guardian relies more on social intelligence and can effectively communicate with community members whose cooperation is critical to the neighborhood's safety and crime reduction efforts. Modern policing is both emotionally and cognitively challenging. For officers to succeed in their work, they must possess the skills necessary to harness the intelligence ways that keep them safe and elicit the cooperation of citizens in resolving situations safely. This is the product of both EI and SI.

Signs of a Healthy Community

While there is no universal definition of community cohesion, there is general consensus that it includes the following elements: (1) people in the community share common values, respect each other, and have a common identity; and (2) people in the community share goals and responsibilities and are willing to work with others. Empowerment is the result of **community cohesion**; it refers to the ability of neighborhood residents to work together to decide what is best for the community, and to transform these decisions into action and desired outcomes.[9]

Community cohesion and empowerment are processes rather than outcomes, that is, they entail an ongoing effort by people in the community to work together to achieve shared goals. Fostering a strong **sense of community** is one of the principles of **community policing**, and it follows that key roles for the police include identifying and addressing issues of neighborhood crime and disorder to prevent victimization and fear of crime. Next, we discuss how the police and other government organizations can empower citizens so they may have a stake in and provide formal assistance with crime and disorder reduction.[10]

Social Capital

Two of the most fundamental and indispensable qualities of a thriving community are public safety and social order. Police cannot hope to address neighborhood crime and disorder successfully without partnering with the community's members; this is the nexus of "community" and "policing," and it requires high levels of trust and engagement.

Having members of a community who are bonded together, looking out for one another, and willing to engage in collective action when threatened is key to the peaceful coexistence, if not the very survival, of an orderly society. This is known as **social capital**, and it relates to community policing.

Social capital concerns social networks and relationships, bonding people, and establishing bridges between them. It includes fostering goodwill toward each other (social cohesion) and is fundamentally about how people interact with each other. Social capital pertains to people close to one another who share rootedness and involve their social, psychological, and even economic dependence on one another. It also can refer to the institutions, relationships, and norms that help to shape social interactions.

Social capital exists in two contexts or domains: local and public. The local level of social capital is the most basic and concerns individual citizens who trust and reciprocate with one another. It involves informal assumptions of responsibility to care for one another and enforce informal rules of conduct.[11]

For example, the Salisbury, North Carolina, Police Department actively participates in Project Safe Neighborhoods (PSN). This nationwide initiative aims to reduce gun and gang crime by fostering collaboration among federal, state, and local law enforcement, prosecutors, and community leaders. In Salisbury, PSN focuses on providing resources and support to individuals who are at high-risk of committing offenses, including reentry simulations that educate service providers on the challenges individuals face when reintegrating into society after incarceration.[12]

Addressing the Fear of Crime

A police-community alliance cannot succeed if citizens are too afraid to frequent their streets, parks, businesses, and neighborhoods. A 2023 Gallup poll found that 40% of Americans were afraid of walking home alone at night within a mile of their home—the highest level in more

than three decades. People also reported being concerned with having their car broken into or stolen, home burglary, getting mugged, and murder or sexual assault.[13]

Walking alone in dark areas certainly raises fear levels.

Contributor: imageBROKER.com/ Alamy Stock Photo

Another Gallup poll asked people whether their fear of crime disrupted their daily activities. People reported avoiding driving into certain areas of a city or town, which impacted their mobility and consumerism. Their well-being was also affected, with a third reporting that their fear of crime prevented them from walking, jogging, or running alone in their area and walking in local parks.[14]

What can the police do about citizen fears? First, research suggests that when the police partner more generally with the public and are visible in communities, levels of citizen fear will decline. It also reveals that problem-oriented policing is an effective approach for reducing crime, disorder, and fear. This generally means that, as police increasingly practice CPOP by attending to crime "hot spots" and using techniques and technologies discussed in later chapters —crime, disorder, and the fear of crime may all be reduced.[15]

FOCUS ON Violent Crimes and House Visits in Reno, Nevada

Three shootings occurred in a single neighborhood in one month in Reno, Nevada. The police and government leaders immediately undertook outreach measures to address the affected area's concerns. Knocking on nearly 50 homeowners' doors in a single day as part of a formal Neighborhood Contact Team initiative, the team gave residents information about community resources that combat poverty and crime, reassured residents that they can feel safe in their homes, and, as one officer put it, helped to "humanize the badge."

During the home visits, officers disseminated fliers and business cards and informed residents that they would be returning with food for needy families. The residents were

asked to offer any ideas about ways to combat crime and poverty in the area, informed of an app that could be used for reporting crimes via a Secret Witness program and given referrals to agencies that would help with mental illness and drug abuse problems.

A survey was also carried out to help the police learn how they could better serve the area. One important—an unanticipated—need that was identified for the area was having more activities for kids and ways in which parents could become more engaged in their children's lives.[16] This need clearly extended beyond the traditional purview of police agencies but also demonstrated the need for a holistic approach in assessing a community's needs relating the crime and disorder.

Volunteerism

Volunteerism is the involvement of volunteer labor, especially in community services, and is often the lifeblood of service organizations. Volunteers have also become essential to law enforcement, especially during difficult fiscal times and amid challenges in recruiting and filling open positions. By taking on supportive roles, volunteers enable agencies to maintain service levels without additional financial strain, allowing officers to focus on essential policing functions. This support enhances service delivery and community responsiveness. Volunteers fulfill civic duties, strengthen police-community relations, and serve as ambassadors who foster trust and understanding. They provide services that sworn or civilian staff may lack the time or resources to offer, acting as a vital bridge during recruitment gaps. However, to maximize the potential of volunteer programs, employee support and involvement are key. Engaging and educating staff about the program's value ensures its integration and success.

FOCUS ON Volunteering in Police Services (VIPS)

Following are three examples of how the police can utilize volunteers:

- The Ventura California Police Department's Volunteers in Policing (VIP) program supports the community by patrolling in marked cars, relaying suspicious activities to dispatch, conducting property checks, and assisting with traffic control and parking enforcement. VIPs do not have arrest powers and follow safety protocols, like the buddy system. They participate in special events, boosting community trust and police visibility.
- Volunteers assigned to the patrol division in Vacaville, California, issue citations for all nonmoving violations, direct traffic, service police vehicles, serve as school crossing guards, assist with searches for missing persons, report unlicensed businesses, and help enforce municipal health and safety codes. Volunteers also assist in the records section (releasing crash records, running citations for traffic court, providing customer service at the front counter), the property and evidence section (purging unneeded evidence, updating computer records), the K-9 unit (putting on the protective wear and standing in for the bad guy during training exercises), and the investigations division (coordinating the crime prevention program).
- The Hazelwood, Missouri, police department's Volunteer Services Unit requires volunteers to complete the citizens' police academy; they are then eligible to participate in the Citizen Observer Patrol, in which volunteers patrol designated areas of the city, in a marked car or on foot, watching for and reporting suspect activity, looking for disabled automobiles, injured persons, fires, and broken windows and open doors at homes and businesses; watching for teenagers who appear to be involved in mischief, and so on.

Volunteers receive quarterly in-service training on such topics as traffic direction, radio procedures, first aid, and CPR.[17]

EFFECTS OF THE ECONOMY ON POLICE AND COMMUNITY

Policing has long been an occupation that offers job security, even during economic recessions. However, this has often not been the case since the Great Recession of 2007–2009. In this chapter section, we discuss the challenges posed for the police during the recent economic malaise.

Economic Challenges and Staffing Impacts

Since the onset of the Great Recession, in order to address their financial constraints, many police agencies have laid off officers, left positions unfilled, and considered regionalizing services. Some counties began treating patients inside the jails instead of transferring them to external facilities, switched from name-brand medications to generic ones, and privatized the medical services they provide in their jails to save money.[18] Some counties expanded the use of house arrest for individuals convicted of nonviolent offenses to reduce incarceration costs. Some individuals convicted of nonviolent offenses served their sentences at home and were monitored by an electronic ankle bracelet.

In Pontiac, Michigan, a city of 60,000 residents, the city's unemployment rate of 25% was one of seven jurisdictions in the state operating under a law that allowed the governor to take control of towns away from local officials. This led to the consolidation of the Pontiac Police Department with the Oakland County Sheriff's Office, saving the city more than 2 million dollars a year while providing the citizens with additional police services. In addition, the city experienced a notable decrease in crime rates. By 2021, serious crime in Pontiac had declined by more than 40%, and the relationship between the Pontiac Police Department and OCSO remains in effect.[19]

Many local governments also expanded their use of technologies, particularly in policing, to increase efficiency. Traffic cameras, public surveillance systems, GPS systems, and license plate scanners expand policing capabilities. These technologies also assist with identifying specific "hot spot" areas to predict particular times and places where crime is most likely to occur.[20]

The economic downturn also raised concerns about the sustainability of CPOP efforts and the resources required for such initiatives—police, prosecutors, jails, and social services. Jurisdictions debated prioritizing resources and the long-term viability of comprehensive CPOP strategies.[21]

In recent years, however, the situation has improved. A 2023 Police Executive Research Forum (PERF) survey found that overall staffing levels remained 4.8% lower while hiring increased than in January 2020. However, the survey also revealed that more officers were hired in 2023 than in the previous four years, and fewer officers resigned or retired. Despite these improvements, large police departments remained below their pre-2020 staffing levels, and small departments faced high resignation and retirement rates.[22] Finally, during economic downturns, some police agencies perceive a need to shut down CPOP programs and officers, viewing them as expendable. However, history has shown that doing so is not the proper approach. CPOP has taught us that building relationships and solving problems are more, not less, important in challenging fiscal times.

To reduce funding, the NYPD in 2016 replaced some of its aging vehicle fleet with the purchase of 250 Smart Fortwo cars, seating one person and mainly used for traffic assignments. In 2016, the NYPD integrated a fleet of electric and hybrid vehicles into its fleet they hope will achieve the City's commitment to an all-electric fleet by 2035.

The short-lived NYPD "smart fortwo" vehicle used by the NYPD in 2016.

Ed Rooney / Alamy

The police must continually and perpetually rely on residents and business owners to share information about crime and disorder to engage in effective problem-solving to maintain public order and curtail crime. While some citizens and police leaders would argue that they can no longer afford the "luxury" of CPOP, it is clear that the better approach is to adhere to its ideals and practices. Focus On box describes three excellent methods of bringing police and citizens together: beat meetings, advisory boards, and citizen police academies.

FOCUS ON Notable Programs: Beat Meetings, Advisory Boards & Citizen Police Academies

- In Chicago, each of the 22 police districts holds regular beat meetings that offer residents a platform to voice their concerns and learn about public safety in their neighborhoods. These meetings foster engagement between the community and law enforcement, allowing residents to gain insight and participate in local safety efforts. Community members can also step up as beat facilitators, cochairing these meetings alongside a Chicago PD Community Policing officer to strengthen neighborhood ties and proactive safety measures.[23]
- At the Los Angeles Police Department, Community-Police Advisory Boards (C-PABs) have been meeting since 1993 to provide community members with an opportunity to obtain information and give advice to their respective officers. Each of the 21 geographic areas (community police stations) throughout the city has its own C-PAB. These advisory

groups meet monthly to discuss crime and quality of life issues. C-PABs have formed subcommittees to tackle specific crime and quality of life problems with problems involving graffiti, youth, homeless outreach, and traffic.[24]

- Citizen police academies are essential to community policing, typically lasting 10–12 weeks with weekly sessions. These programs help create informed citizens, dispel myths about law enforcement, and foster open communication. Offered free to civilians 18+ with no criminal history, class sizes are limited for quality interaction and hands-on learning. Activities include facility tours, ride-alongs, and visiting courts, with training in defensive tactics and crime scene management. Engaging instructors ensure an interactive, educational experience.[25]

Community Service Centers

Beginning in the mid-1980s, when CPOP was becoming more widespread, police storefronts also became more popular as well as a way to help address the economic downturn. Today, however, traditional community centers are less prevalent and have evolved significantly with the advent of the internet and advancements in technology. Many services offered at storefronts, such as applying for business licenses and passports, have been replaced by convenient online services. Many police departments maintain robust websites or apps where residents can file nonemergency reports, access public records, and request permits or licenses. Advancements in technology also allow agencies to provide public video conferencing for consultations or mediations, online crime reporting, and virtual town halls or community forums.

However, some agencies still have **community service centers** physically located in neighborhoods. Their services have expanded considerably from traditional centers and include:

- Crime reporting
- Educational workshops (e.g., cyber safety, drug prevention)
- Community meetings
- Resources for victims of domestic violence and other crimes

Some police departments have adopted mobile service units or "pop-up" community service centers to direct resources to neighborhoods, especially for underserved areas. Sacramento, California, police introduced a mobile station to foster community engagement in 2023.[26]

The Reno Police Department also operates a Mobile Outreach Safety Team (MOST), a specialized unit responding to mental health crises. This team collaborates with mental health professionals to provide on-site assistance and divert individuals from the criminal justice system when appropriate. In 2017, the Nevada State Legislature approved a major expansion of the MOST Program allocating resources to make the program available 24 hours a day.[27]

Digital Government

Another community-focused development involving the police and helping to address the economic downturn discussed above is digital government (evolved from E-government), which integrates advanced technologies to enhance transparency, efficiency, and community engagement. For instance, predictive policing (discussed in Chapter 7) utilizes data analytics to anticipate

crime hotspots, allowing for proactive resource allocation. It also provides crime data and neighborhood maps for citizens to see what is occurring in their neighborhoods. Real-time crime centers (see Chapter 7) aggregate live data from various sources, enabling swift decision- making during incidents. Body-worn cameras are equipped within this framework, particularly under digital evidence management and public accountability initiatives.

A Digital Amber Alert notifies drivers of a vehicle sought in a child abduction in California.

David R. Frazier / Science Source

Automated reporting systems reduce administrative burdens on officers, and public dashboards provide accessible crime statistics, fostering transparency. These advancements contribute to a more responsive and community-focused policing model.[28]

Civilian Oversight: A Partnership in Accountability

CPOP, which encourages collaboration between citizens and police to address crime and community issues, highlights the value of involving civilians in oversight. **Civilian review boards**, independent oversight of officers, and community advisory boards offer a structured means for citizens to participate in the oversight of police activities, especially in matters of significant public concern, such as use-of-force incidents or potential misconduct.

Civilian oversight is widely seen as a way to provide the transparency that the public demands, particularly following high-profile incidents involving police. Organizations like the National Association of Civilian Oversight of Law Enforcement (NACOLE) support this work by offering resources, training, and conferences to strengthen these boards. Today, there are over 200 civilian oversight entities nationwide, each with varying degrees of authority to review, investigate, and influence policies. Some of these boards focus on investigating disciplinary actions related to the use of force or in-custody deaths. In contrast, others extend their scope to budget review, policy recommendations, and assessments of body camera usage.

As these initiatives gain traction, they collectively foster greater trust and accountability between law enforcement agencies and their communities.

Following are several approaches being taken to provide civilian oversight:

- *Independent oversight officers*: Appointing independent oversight officers ensures impartial review of police conduct, providing an unbiased mechanism to address complaints and misconduct, which strengthens public confidence in law enforcement.[29]
- *Community advisory boards*: Community advisory boards facilitate regular dialogue between police and community members, allowing residents to voice concerns and collaborate on public safety strategies, thereby improving mutual understanding and trust.[30]
- *Civilian oversight committees*: This approach empowers citizens to participate in the review of police practices and policies, promoting accountability and ensuring that law enforcement actions align with community values and expectations.[31]
- *Data transparency initiatives*: This involves publicly sharing comprehensive policing data, such as use-of-force incidents and arrest statistics, enabling communities to monitor police activities and hold departments accountable.[32]
- *Force dashboards*: Online platforms provide real-time data on police use-of-force incidents, offering accessible information to the public and enhancing transparency in law enforcement operations.[33]

In sum, civilian oversight initiatives are essential tools for fostering trust and accountability between law enforcement and the communities they serve, especially in the wake of high-profile incidents.

Community Justice: Redefining Courts and Corrections

In addition to the previously discussed police/community partnerships under CPOP, citizen involvement with courts and corrections agencies has improved greatly in recent years. Such involvement, known collectively as **community justice**, has inspired innovative programming among court systems (e.g., prosecutor and defense attorney offices) and corrections departments.

Important components of community justice are restorative justice and community diversion. Briefly stated, **restorative justice** aims to repair the harm caused by the individual convicted of an offense by holding them accountable and including the victim in the process, thus helping the individual convicted of an offense to become a better citizen. Additionally, the courts can conduct community diversion programs, which aim to direct individuals committing low-risk or first-time offenses away from traditional prosecution, focusing instead on rehabilitation through counseling, education, or community service. These programs work to reduce the court's burden, prevent re-offense, and support individuals in addressing the root causes of behavior.

Table 2.1 compares the traditional standard of retributive justice with restorative justice, which concerns active involvement of victims and the community.

Table 2.1 ▪ Comparison of Retributive and Restorative

Old Approach to Justice: Retributive	New Approach to Justice: Restorative
Primary objective focuses on punishment for a violation of the law	Primary objective focuses on reparation of harm done to victim or community by individual convicted of offense
Adversarial process with little or no attention to victim	A community-based approach to facilitation, dialogue and negotiation to change the behavior of the individual convicted of offense
Traditional treatments of punishment, leniency and prevention	Individual convicted of offense must take ownership of harms committed
Vengeance for wrongs committed outweigh community-based approaches such as mediation and negotiation	Individual convicted of offense must take action to make amends to victim and community
Punishment of the individual convicted of offense is primary objective	Victim healing is also a primary objective

Source: Adapted from *Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention* Balanced and Restorative Justice: Prospects for Juvenile Justice in the 21st Century, 2004, pp. 467–509, https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles/framwork.pdf.

Community Courts

Community courts are neighborhood-focused courts that attempt to harness the power of the justice system to address local problems. They strive to engage outside stakeholders such as residents, merchants, churches, and schools in new ways to bolster public trust in justice. Community courts also test new approaches to reduce both crime and incarceration, frequently using community diversion programs to address minor offenses and focus on rehabilitation.

The first community court in the country was the Midtown Community Court, launched in 1993 in New York City (discussed more below). Several dozen community courts, inspired by the Midtown model, are in operation or planning around the country. The Bureau of Justice Assistance in 2020 supported the enhancement of community courts nationwide. Seven new sites were added to the initiative, each receiving technical assistance to develop or improve their community court programs.[34] International interest in community courts includes programs in Canada, Australia, South Africa, and Singapore.[35]

Community prosecution is founded on the idea that prosecutors are responsible not only for prosecuting cases but also for solving public safety problems, preventing crime, and improving public confidence in the justice system. Around the country, prosecutors work out of neighborhood offices and collaborate with others (residents, community groups, and other government agencies) to develop problem-solving initiatives. Community stakeholders often help set the crime-fighting agenda and participate in solving the problem. Rather than simply tallying cases won or lost or jail sentences imposed, community prosecutors measure the effect of their work on neighborhood quality of life, community attitudes, and crime.[36]

Defense attorneys are also engaged in community justice and see their communities as a series of interconnected family networks. Relatives often call the office out of concern for a person's safety as they enter the justice system. The program provides a deeper understanding of clients through continuity of representation and better investigation, better presentation of sentencing options through greater connections to community resources, and a more remarkable

ability to represent residents' support for a less severe sentence. Defense attorneys also advocate for alternatives that benefit both the client and the community.

A good example of a community court activity is the aforementioned Midtown Community Court in New York City.[37] This court targets quality-of-life offenses such as prostitution, illegal vending, graffiti, shoplifting, fare beating, and vandalism in midtown Manhattan. Residents, businesses, and social service agencies collaborate with the court by supervising projects and providing onsite services, including drug treatment, health care, and job training. Social services located in the court provide the judge with these services as well as a health education class for prostitutes and "johns," counseling for young people at risk of committing offenses and mentally ill persons, and employment training. For convicted individuals with lengthier records, the court offers a diversionary program. Many defendants return to court voluntarily to take advantage of these services, including English as a second language and General Educational Development (GED) classes.

Community Corrections

Community corrections is the term used for supervising individuals convicted of offenses in the community rather than in jail or prison through probation or parole. These programs aim to facilitate rehabilitation and reentry by providing supervision and support while addressing challenges such as substance use and employment barriers.

A female officer overseeing a prisoner work crew.

Don B. Stevenson / Alamy Stock Photo

As the size and cost of jails and prisons have grown, so has the awareness of many people. Many individuals convicted of nonviolent offenses may benefit from more alternatives to incarceration. This increasing awareness has led to reconsidering the role of community-based corrections, which encompasses probation, parole, and pretrial supervision. In response, states and counties are shifting the burden of institutional to community-based approaches.[38]

Other partnerships that involve the courts and citizens include childcare during trials for victims and witnesses, law-related education, and job training and referral for individuals

convicted of offenses and victims.[39] Agencies or courts enforce sanctions and oversee compliance, often collaborating with community organizations to match individuals with the appropriate level of supervision and services. Technology also plays a growing role in community corrections. Tools like smartphone-based video and messaging enhance communication between supervisors and individuals under supervision. However, challenges remain, such as addressing substance use and improving officer training.

Case Study

In the aftermath of several police shootings in Sessions County, its governing board has been hearing and reading public comments concerning the need for police to become more accountable, legitimate, and like community "guardians." As legislative liaison for the county's sheriff's department, you've been asked to prepare a position paper on this topic.

1. What would you propose in terms of changes in or considerations of police practices? Training? Technology? Review and investigation?

Summary

This chapter's centerpiece is the partnership between the community and police. In that regard, we defined some of the characteristics of a community, what police are doing to become more professional, means for bringing the two sides together, and approaches to having a sense of police-community accountability (e.g., civilian review boards). Also discussed was how and why CPOP evolved and how courts and corrections organizations are also partnering with the public.

These are exciting yet also daunting times for the police and public. Perhaps more than ever, given recent national outrage toward policing killings and public outcry for greater transparency and accountability, the police must be mindful of their image and the social, political, and psychological impact of their actions. "Business as usual" will not suffice.

Key Terms and Concepts

Civilian review board
Community
Community cohesion
Community corrections
Community courts
Community justice
Community policing
Community prosecution
Community service center
Emotional intelligence
Guardians
Restorative justice
Sense of community
Social capital
Social intelligence
Volunteerism
Warriors

Discussion Questions

1. What are some of the types and common traits of a community? Both positive and negative.

2. What are some police agencies doing to gain what is termed "new professionalism?"
3. What is meant by a "guardian" vs. "warrior" mentality for the police, and how does it affect the public's views?
4. What roles do cohesion, social capital, and volunteerism play in the community?
5. How has the recent Great Recession affected policing in general? CPOP in specific?
6. How do beat meetings, advisory boards, and citizen police academies function and serve to foster better police-community relations?
7. How can civilian review boards help policing? What are some arguments against them?
8. How are courts and corrections agencies connecting with citizens?