AN EXAMINATION OF THE CONCEPTUAL UNDERPINNINGS OF COMMUNITY POLICING PROGRAM PHILOSOPHY: THE CASE OF NEIGHBORHOOD-ORIENTED CRIME CONTROL STRATEGIES

By

KEN AMAECHI EGBO

Bachelor of Science
University of North Texas
Denton, Texas
1993

Master of Arts
Texas Southern University
Houston, Texas
1995

Submitted to the faculty of the
Graduate College of
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the degree requirement for
the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
August, 2001

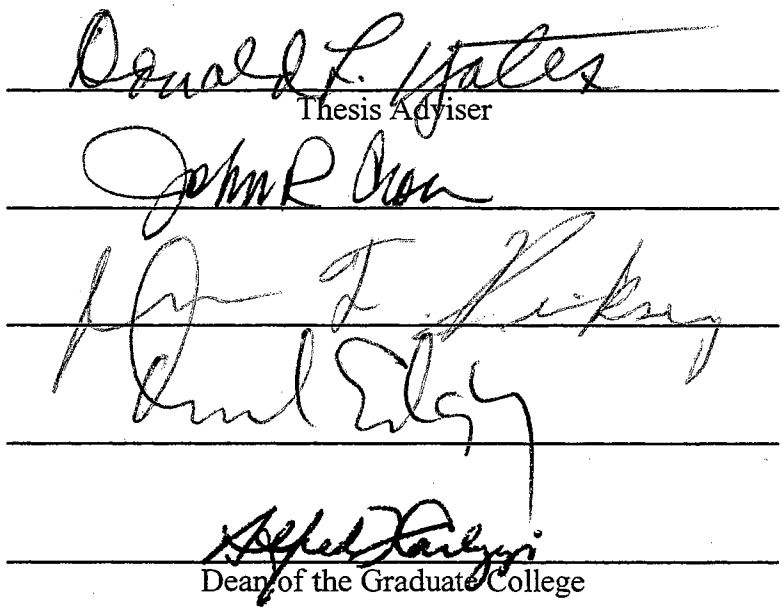
AN EXAMINATION OF THE CONCEPTUAL UNDERPINNINGS

OF COMMUNITY POLICING PROGRAM PHILOSOPHY:

THE CASE OF NEIGHBORHOOD-ORIENTED

CRIME CONTROL STRATEGIES

Thesis Approved:



Thesis Adviser

Dean of the Graduate College

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

It is with heart-felt appreciation that I thank, at this time, some individuals whose talents, general support, encouragement, and belief in me have made this dream a reality. First, I want to thank Professor Donald L. Yates for his instructions, counseling, and commitment in seeing me through the completion of this dissertation. As chair of my dissertation committee, Professor Yates went beyond the call of duty in mentoring and insisting continuously that I remain focused with regard to purpose, relevance, and objective of this study. Let me also use this opportunity to thank the other members of my committee, Professors John Cross, Chuck Edgley, and Jason F. Kirksey for their support and constructive comments throughout the writing of this dissertation. I also would like to thank Dr. L. Alex Swan of Texas Southern University, Dr. Vijay Pillai of University of Texas, Arlington. Both men tremendously influenced my decision to proceed in the direction of sociology.

My deepest thanks to Chief Udemgaba Maduka, of Isu-Awa, Chief Elijah E. Onah of Amechi-Awkunanaw, and late Chief Nwafor of Obu-Ofia (aka Nwafor Gboko) for making this dream a reality. Finally, I want to thank my parents, especially my beloved father Chief Egbo Nwonah Ogbodo (Oji n'amiri oha 1 of Amechi-Awkunanaw), and my entire family Meg, Chisom, and Ifeyinwa for their uncompromising love, faith, and

emotional support throughout this ordeal. I am forever grateful and indebted to those mentioned, and those not mentioned.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter Page

Chapter Page

FIGURE

Figure Page

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

Community policing is a relatively new paradigm and a philosophy of policing that seeks to reduce crime and neighborhood disorder by promoting a mutual working partnership between the police and the citizens. This philosophy is grounded on the belief that police officers, as well private citizens working together can solve many of the community problems associated with crime, fear of crime, social and physical disorder and neighborhood decay (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990). In this study, the author examined the salience of several basic elements presented in the literature was examined as being fundamental in both helping to define community policing as a general concept, as well as in the value each potentially bring to the development of successful evaluative designs to test the effectiveness of community policing programs. These elements included concepts found in basic processes previous research had presented as underlying community policing program efforts: processes involving program context, identification, intervention, and evaluation. Thus, a primary interest in this research was to examine the value of these four elements in predicting the successful outcomes of community policing programmatic efforts. A secondary interest existed in assessing the

usefulness of the four elements in the opportunities to bring greater precision to the conceptual and operational definitions undergirding community policing programmatic philosophies. Finally, the research endeavored to examine the relative strength of each element in relation to the outcomes of community policing program initiatives.

Many police departments across the United States are experimenting with this recent innovation in policing which is designed to deal with rising demands for a model of policing that curtails crime, neighborhood disorder and citizen's dissatisfaction with police services. Although the concept of community policing is elusive, its philosophy reflects a change in the overall direction of policing. Community policing represents a fundamental shift from incident driven and reactive policing to proactive and/or problem oriented crime control strategies. Community policing efforts, at best, represent a collaboration between the police and the community residents through which many of the neighborhood problems are identified and resolved. The ultimate goal is to identify and help eliminate those conditions that cultivate crime and threaten the quality of life in neighborhood communities. This style of policing is at odds with the professional policing model because it encourages community participation in crime prevention and other proactive policing centered initiatives.

Crime control strategies under community policing are predicated on the belief that the police are no longer the sole guardians of law and order. Achieving these strategies require police departments to implement a worthy relationship with all law-abiding members of the community as active partners in an effort to improve neighborhood cohesion, neighborhood safety, and quality of life. Community policing

efforts seek to increase the degree of citizen responsibility for their own neighborhoods, as well as increased better working relationships between the citizens and the police. Community policing has far-reaching consequences and/or implications for police departments. For instance, the commitment to crime control and prevention, the new emphasis on active community participation in problem solving, and a high degree of autonomy for neighborhood patrol officers requires profound and/or fundamental changes within the police organization. These changes often involve greater geographic centered patrol accountability, decentralization of decision-making to the lowest level of the organization, and the development of cooperative partnerships with organized groups of citizens and other social service agencies. Specific tactics such as foot and/or bike patrol, and mini-stations provide further illustration to such new and innovative aspects of police operational and organizational designs

For the past two decades, community policing has been the prevailing wind of change among police agencies across the United States. Currently, progressive police departments across the country are assessing the necessary changes in orientation, organization, and operations and how it will benefit the communities they serve. The overall objective is to improve the quality of life in the neighborhoods. Yet, despite what appears to be a thunderous endorsement, the concept of community policing leaves many basic questions unanswered, especially, relative to its structure and program effectiveness. In addition, there are divergent opinions as to what really constitutes community policing and how to plan, implement, and effectively monitor its stated program objectives (Hunter & Baker, 1993). Finally, there are troubling questions as to

whether its implementation is verifiable, or whether it is just another passing fad in the prevailing police paradigm in the United States (Rosenbaum, 1994). These are just a few of the many issues to be addressed in order to legitimize the emerging concept of community policing.

Policing in the United States: A Historical Perspective

When Sir Robert Peel established the London Metropolitan police, he set forth several principles. One principle in particular has evolved and become the core of community policing. In essence, this basic tenet of Peelian philosophy is that "the police are the public and the public are the police." Yet, over time, police departments have lost sight of this relationship and its use as a benchmark for police services. Scholars of police functions have suggested that reform in government initiated in the early 1900s, coupled with a nationwide move toward professionalization, culminated in the separation of the police from the community (Braiden, 1992; Kelling & Moore, 1988). Historically, police administrators assigned officers to rotating shifts and often moved them from one geographical location to another to curb corruption. Similarly, a policy of centralized control was necessary to insure strict compliance with standard operating procedures, and also to maintain to an image of professional impartiality.

The expanding role of the automobile, reinforced by technological advancements, including rapid telephone response systems and computer generated data, removed friendly patrol officers from face-to face interaction with the citizens. Overwhelmed with large numbers of calls for service, the police were compelled to respond to demands

for assistance regardless of the urgency of the situation. Subsequently, little time was spent on crime prevention efforts. The 1970s and 1980s marked an era of heightened police isolation with growing emphasis on professionalization. And the result was a prevailing ideology that the police knew best and citizen involvement in crime prevention and crime control was rather unnecessary.

In addition, all these changes came at a time when the movement to eradicate police corruption and the advancement in technology coincided with a growing crime rate and profound social upheaval. Under-equipped and over burdened with demand for services, the police had problems reaching out to socially and culturally distinct groups they served. Such overwhelming demand for police services severely limited broad police interaction with community residents. Given this state of heightened awareness and public expectations, the stage was set for what some observers called an attitude of us versus them (Harrington, 1981). The element of mistrust along with deteriorating police-community relations was more pronounced in American urban cities, where the urban poor saw the police as those who arrest you.

The problem was further compounded when police administrators and managers adopted a policy of centralized control designed to ensure compliance with standard operating procedures. The result was a social distancing between the police and the citizens reinforced by technological developments. The strategy of answering the large number of calls for service, however, left the police with little time for crime prevention strategies. Overall, arrest statistics rather than the type of service provided or the service recipients, became the focus for police departments and police managers alike. Thus, as

computer generated data on crime rates, patterns and trends, counted the incidence of crimes, increased the efficiency of dispatch, and calculated the rapidity and outcome of police response, rapid response became an end in itself. Random patrol also served to further break the link between communities and police. Officers were instructed to change routes constantly, as a means to thwart criminal activities. These traditional policing strategies were very reactive and further removed community residents from their local police.

Era of Social and Professional Renaissance

The history of reforms that undermine much of American policing can be traced back to the Wickersham Commission's Report on Lawlessness in Law Enforcement published in 1931. This report was the first of its kind and perhaps represents the first systematic investigation of police misconduct. Results included in the report have been used, for example, as a basis for reforms involving new means of accountability (Walker, 1980). The commission released several other reports related to prosecution, criminal statistics, criminal procedures, causes of crime, and other components of criminal justice administration. Of these, only the fourteenth report specifically addressed the emerging police role in the United States. Prepared under the direction of August Vollmer, this report highlighted some inherent problems with specific police tactics such as threats, illegal detention, as well as other forms of cruelty involving involuntary confessions (U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931). The report further made specific

recommendations for improving police professionalism (Bailey, 1989; Deakin, 1988; Peak, 1947).

In retrospect, the impact of the Wickersham reports resulted in some direct and lasting consequences on American policing. First, it resulted in the emergence of progressive open-minded police administrators who were willing to address problems relating to police brutality and abuse. This shift in focus culminated in the establishment of formal internal affairs units designed to investigate citizen complaints of police abuse and misconduct (U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967). Secondly, the fourteenth (1931) report laid the groundwork for several landmark U.S. Supreme Court decisions aimed at imposing constitutional standards on criminal justice administration. Although most of the decisions had nothing to do with policing, they rekindled the Court's interest in monitoring the criminal justice system with regards to possible violations of individual due process procedures (Kamisar, 1980). Finally, one other impact. Although, the report offered no specific remedies, its strong indictment of official police lawlessness became a catalyst for future changes in American policing.

Following successful implementation of the Peelian reforms in New York, Philadelphia, and Boston at the turn of the century, the inherent power of the police as an institution was very obvious. By the mid-nineteenth century, structured police organizations equipped with legitimate authority of arrest, search, and seizure was a prominent feature of American life. Similarly, proponents of these total institutions glorified professionalism in law enforcement as the only innovative crime reduction strategy. Implicitly, such concentration of power and the subsequent abuse that followed

thereafter had various implications for the police. Likewise, the ability to perform the duty was relegated to reciprocal political favoritism, as well as a patronage system endemic to big city organizations. Primarily, law enforcement agencies were interested in maintaining allegiance with the corrupt political machines more so than the various communities they purport to serve. Given the widespread incidents of police brutality and corruption, as well as increases in crime, the failure of professionalism became apparent. The burst of events in the early 1960s, including the Vietnam War, civil rights protests, and other social upheavals seriously challenged the American democratic ideals.

This era of social and political upheavals also brought about some changes in American policing and refocused attention to police-community relations (Skolnick & Bayley, 1988). Overburdened and ill-equipped, the police came to represent what this group sought to change. In fact, focusing attention on police policies and practices became an effective way to draw attention to the need for wider change. The police, in essence, became the targets of hostility, and ultimately led to reflections on police roles and responsibilities. Unable to trust their police, various community residents came together in an effort to take stronger control in the development of policies and practices that affected their lives. The inability of the police to handle urban unrest in an effective and appropriate manner resulted in demands by both the politicians and civic leaders for the re-evaluation of police practices. Even the most avowed proponents of professionalism, including politicians and police chiefs conceded that the police had fallen short of their duty to serve and protect.

Between 1967 and 1973, three Presidential Commissions including the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, and the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence were established to make recommendations for changes in policing (Moore, 1998). The President's Commission reports published in 1967 reflected growing public disenchantment with the professional model of policing. The commission addressed among other things issues relevant to police-community relations, and pointed out to the need for increased communications between the police and the community, as well as greater community involvement on issues related to crime prevention strategies. The reports of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, and the National Commission on Causes and Prevention of Violence, although somewhat different, also pointed out the inherent flaws with the professional policing style, at least in areas relating to police-community relations.

In response to these recommendations, several agencies of the United States Department of Justice, as well as many concerned police departments interested in new and innovative ideas began to stimulate and support various research and technical assistance aimed at improving contacts between the police and the communities they served. One such agency was the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration created to administer grant programs. The agency through the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice encouraged research efforts in crime reduction strategies, as well as educational funds for career interests in criminal justice. As a result, millions of dollars in federal grants were spent to foster and support criminal

justice education. These agencies as well supported a variety of police training, conferences, research, and technology upgrading, and various ways of improving the much needed police-community relations.

Referencing Innovative Neighborhood-Oriented Crime Control Strategies in Evaluations of Community Policing Program Effectiveness

Early studies into innovative policing sought to challenge existing police patrol operations and other practices. Most of these early studies provided valuable lessons and alternative ways for implementing and operationalizing what describes neighborhood centered crime prevention strategies. One early study, the Kansas City Prevention Patrol Experiment, would lend credence to the fact that randomized patrolling had limited impact on crime control or citizen attitude toward the police or police services (Kelling, 1974). The second studies on response time undermined the assumption that the police must quickly send officers to every call (Eck & Spelman, 1989; Kansas City, Missouri Police Department, 1989). The third experiment reaffirmed that the public does not always anticipate the police to respond quickly to non-emergencies (Farmer, 1981; McEwen, Connors, & Cohen, 1986). Still other studies related to the Kansas City Patrol Experiment, revealed that officers and detectives lack the ability to successfully investigate crimes and thus, should not follow up in all reported unsolved crime (Eck, 1979; Greenberg, 1975; Greenwood, Petersilia, & Chaiken, 1977).

The Kansas City Patrol Experiment called into question the effectiveness of key policing strategies such as random, motorized preventive patrol. The experiment further revealed that much of the police procedures under the professional model was based in part on naïve and misguided concepts of the police role. Similarly, Eck and Spelman (1989) noted that most serious crimes were unaffected by the standard police actions designed to control them. The public as well did not notice reductions in patrol, reduced fast response to non-emergencies, or lack of follow-up investigation.

Still in other related studies, Birmingham, Alabama Police Department examined differential police response strategies. The objective of these projects was to increase the efficiency with which calls for service were managed, while maintaining citizen satisfaction with police services. Thus, the projects were designed to assess various service alternatives, including delayed response strategies, call-prioritization codes, and telephone response system. Farmer (1981) found that these alternatives were effective in re-routing calls from mobilized field units in fast and efficient manner without negatively affecting residents' satisfaction with the police.

The San Diego Police department also conducted several significant studies to evaluate the effect of neighborhood centered policing during the 1970s. These studies sought to assess the impact of one officer versus two officers patrol cars, an assessment of the association between field interrogations of suspicious persons and criminal deterrence, and a community oriented policing strategy (Boydstun & Sherry, 1975). As a part of these studies, neighborhood police officers developed beat profiling activities. Beat profiling gave the officers several advantages, including personal and intimate

knowledge, as well as the call histories and demographics of their beats. Patrol officers also developed tailored patrol strategies to address the types of crime and citizen concerns revealed by their profiling activities. Officers involved in these projects concluded that random patrols have not been effective in reducing crime and neighborhood decay. Stronger interactions with community residents developed through beat profiling resulted in improved officers attitudes toward citizens, and enhanced the development of solutions to specific community related problems.

The San Diego experiments represent the first empirical studies with significant consequence for contemporary community policing initiatives. First, the studies demonstrated the value of response strategies that ensure that most urgent calls received the highest priority and the most expeditious dispatch. The projects reaffirmed the importance of permanent beat assignments for neighborhood patrol officers, as well as the need for positive interactions between the police and the community residents. According to Goldstein (1979), many of the early studies dealt with patrol issues and compelled police administrators to reevaluate their strategies.

Other studies, such as the Newark Foot Patrol Experiment and Experimental Foot Patrols in Flint, Michigan, revealed the importance of foot patrol in building a lasting relationship between the police and the communities they serve. Foot patrol could foster the development of positive attitudes toward community members, as well as improve positive attitudes toward the police if the officers are willing to spend time on foot in the neighborhoods (Kelling, 1981; Trojanowicz, 1983). Experimental Foot Patrols in Flint, Michigan specifically demonstrated the impact of foot patrol in reducing citizen fear of

crime, as well as the same in decreasing the seriousness of crime related problems (Trojanowicz, 1983).

A number of these earlier studies provided empirical data on the effectiveness of key tactical elements of community policing such as community involvement, partnerships, and problem solving in reducing citizens' fear of crime, and improving other quality of life conditions. Further, results from these studies suggest that reduced fear of crime would ultimately compel community residents to take an active role in maintaining safety and neighborhood cohesion (Pate, Wycoff, Skogan, & Sherman, 1986; Police Foundation, 1981, Skogan, 1990).

Subsequent studies in the 1970s evaluated the potency of policing as a formal tool for social control and noted that policing, as a matter of fact, had limited impact on crime and citizen feeling of safety. Increased police presence does not necessarily have an impact on crime rates. However, as Skolnick and Bayley (1988) pointed out, other social conditions, including income, unemployment, and neighborhood composition have far-reaching consequences for crime and clearance rates. Similarly, Klockars (1985) notes that random motorized patrol, whether it is kept the same, doubled, tripled, or eliminated has no direct impact on crime rates, victimization rates, citizen fear of crime, and opinion of police services. Policing styles in the United States has been traditionally rooted in centralized police management and practices, such that these innovative studies were considered radical and threatening to the existing police culture. In some jurisdictions, open-minded police managers and administrators were suspected of being manipulated by outside political influences.

In an era of rising crime rates and high incidences of police brutality and misconduct, current interest in community-oriented policing strategies may very well reflect a conscious effort at re-evaluating police policies and procedures, as well as police roles and responsibilities. Contemporary changes in policing styles are rooted in the literature developed since the 1970s. Many of these studies successfully demonstrated that incorporating the core components of community partnerships, problem solving, and positive interactions with existing policing models will be the first step in the ongoing process.

This history, thus, provided the background for the present study. The following areas were outlined in the remaining pages of this chapter: 1) the problem to be investigated, 2) the purpose of the study, 3) the objectives of the present study, 4) the significance of the present research and study, and 5) the limitations of the study.

Problem Statement

A potential drawback for neighborhood-oriented policing, and other more local neighborhood centered policing strategy today was the absence of a meaningful conceptual and/or theoretical framework to test the effectiveness of community policing programs. This study sought to empirically investigate the salience of several proposed conceptual elements found in programmatic processes relating program context, identification, intervention, and evaluation, as providing a useful model in evaluating the effectiveness of neighborhood-oriented policing initiatives.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the efficacy of a proposed conceptual model of community policing programmatic effectiveness. Attention was given to examining several conceptual principles or elements thought to be critically important to the successful outcomes of program goals centered in neighborhood-oriented policing strategy and design.

Objectives

This study had several objectives:

1. Determine the value of four conceptually centered elements in predicting the outcome of community policing programmatic efforts.
2. Determine the usefulness of the four elements to bring greater precision to the conceptual and operational definitions undergirding community policing programmatic philosophy.
3. Determine the relative strength of each of the four elements to the outcomes of community policing program initiatives.

Significance of the Study

The research allowed for several significant contributions to the literature related to the nature of community policing programmatic philosophy. First, this research provided for the application and testing of a viable theoretical framework for predicting the effectiveness of neighborhood-based, community policing philosophy-centered

program strategies. Second, this research allowed for the opportunity to provide greater precision in defining the concept of community policing itself, through the use, application, and testing of important measurement processes undergirding community policing programmatic philosophy. Finally, this research allowed for the opportunity to determine the relative strength each of the four basic program elements contributed to predicting successful outcomes of neighborhood-based community policing program strategies.

Limitations of the Study

The potential limitations of this study were associated with the single residential neighborhood district design. All of the data for the research was associated with a project conducted in a single community—the Westside Community District of Ponca City, Oklahoma. The single neighborhood district design would, thus, not allow the findings to be generalized to other neighborhoods in Ponca City, elsewhere in Oklahoma or in the country. Only with additional studies of other neighborhoods, would generalizing the results be possible.

In essence, this research posed as a case study of effective neighborhood-based community policing program design. The study tracked the successful implementation of neighborhood-oriented policing in a community district comprising a part of Southwest Ponca, City, Oklahoma. This was a rural community of about 30,000 in population located in North Central Oklahoma. The project itself had two neighborhood

officers actively involved with community residents and merchants to reduce fear of crime and disorder in an area of the city long known for high calls for police services.

In Chapter II, the reseracher provided a more active review of the four principal elements of community policing philosophy. These elements were found in processes relating the nature of program context, identification, intervention, and evaluation, as central to community policing program outcomes.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Some of the most recent studies in community policing have focused on the need for successful assessment designs to monitor the effectiveness of community policing program efforts. The nature of the rather broad group of criticisms surrounding research into community policing is somewhat widespread. Some scholars have argued that the minimal use of experimental designs limits the ability to generalize the program elements in community policing. Implicit in these arguments are the likelihood of reduced credibility to the findings of a large number of community policing initiatives because they lack the control groups inherent in much social science research. Similarly, the issue of credibility in community policing studies calls into question the ability to randomize the crime control strategies and initiatives that are being implemented in various community groups (Cordner & Shehan, 1999).

Other critiques have pointed to research on community policing lacking rigorous statistical analyses (Yates & Pillai, 1996). Additional critiques point to the over abundance of studies on community policing utilizing small sample sizes, as well as offering no test of statistical significance. The general result has been to view the findings of most of the research on community policing to be extremely problematic (Yates & Pillai, 1996).

Yet, other scholars have been critical of the absence of important theoretical and conceptual principles needed for effective evaluation of community policing strategies today (Cardarelli & McDevitt, 1995; Cordner & Shehan, 1999; Yates & Pillai, 1996). Useful to the conceptual and theoretical frameworks being sought are those insights which successfully connect the work roles of community policing officers and their evaluation performance. In this regard, other writers have associated important aspects of the organizational element and climate surrounding community policing to the need for various types of information to assess the performance of individual police officers involved in community policing, in evaluating community policing initiatives and strategies (Cordner and Shehan, 1999). Such information illustrates expression to the more service-oriented duties and responsibilities inherent in community policing philosophy (Yates & Pillai, 1996).

Perhaps specific organizational features, such as those found in the above referenced aspects of these more service-oriented duties, will provide a crucial measure of the conceptual underpinnings and definitions attributed to community policing (Cordner & Shehan, 1999). Similarly, important theoretical insights have been cited as relevant to the current evaluative efforts centered on community policing. Studies in this regard point to the increased need to conduct and evaluate research on community policing within a viable theoretical framework (Cardarelli & McDevitt, 1995; Green & Taylor, 1988; Yates & Pillai, 1996). Offered to date have been what some writers have suggested as the theoretical links between community policing implementation efforts, and important conceptual elements underlying the likelihood for program effectiveness.

Evidence from various police department records and some literature on community policing have identified certain paradigmatic features for the purpose of explicating what processes and outcomes should be measured. Perhaps the most popular of these frameworks involved the need to identify a number of specific program elements in evaluating the effectiveness of community policing. They included context, identification, intervention, and evaluation.

Referencing the Conceptual Underpinnings of Community Policing in Evaluations of Community Policing Program Effectiveness

Albert Carderelli and Jack McDevitt (1995) set-forth a conceptual model for evaluating the effectiveness of community policing programs. Included in this framework were several elements suggested as being basic to community policing. These elements included, the context for community policing, the identification of suitable neighborhoods for community oriented policing, intervention strategies, and evaluation of the intervention strategies (see Figure 1).

Contextual Elements of Community-Oriented Policing

Various elements have been identified as crucial to establishing an overall framework for appraising the effectiveness of community policing programs. One such element presented the context for community policing. Context as an element of program

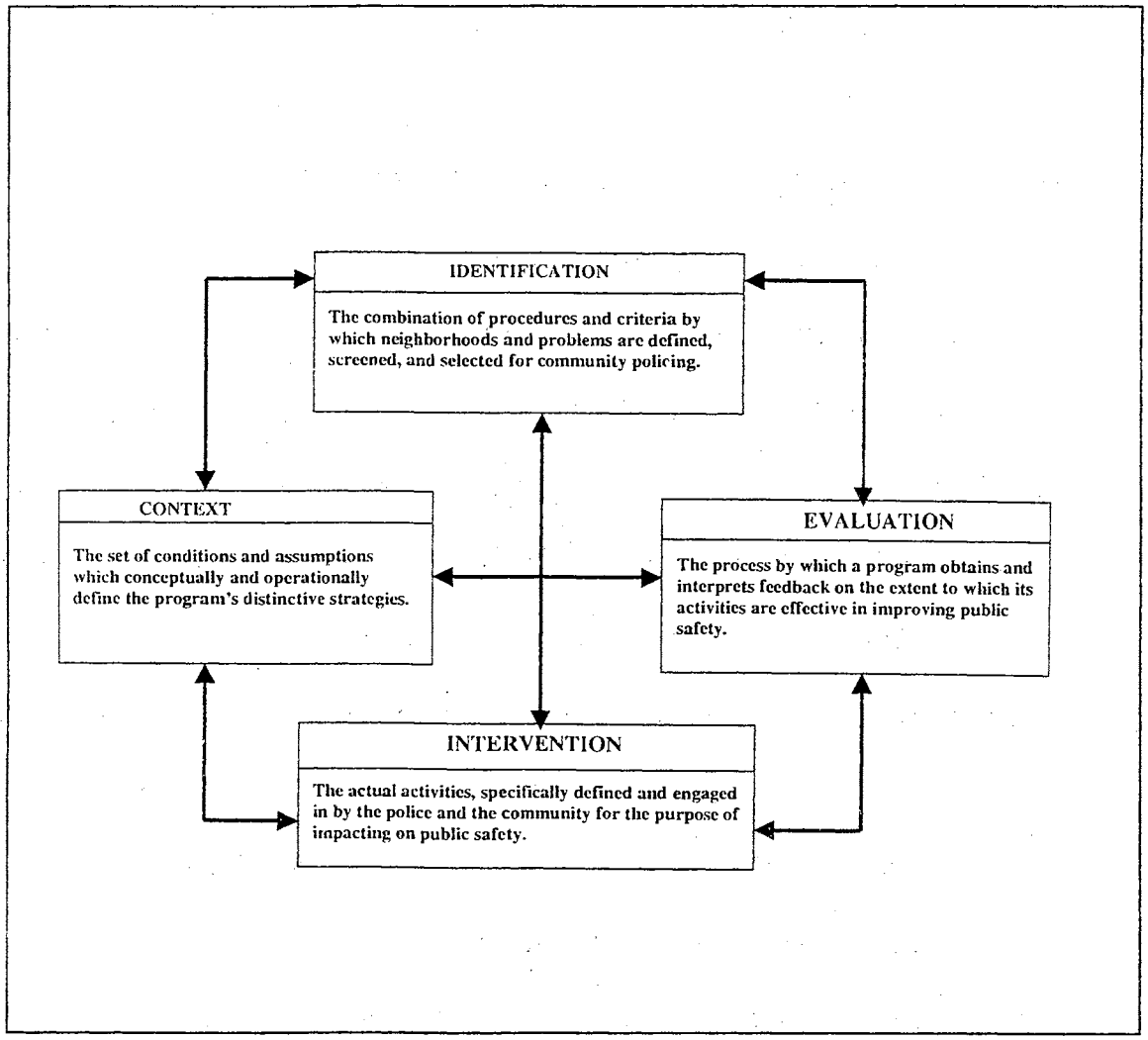


Figure 1. Community Policing: Program Elements.

Source: Cardarelli, A. P. & McDevitt, J. (1995). Toward a Conceptual Framework for Community Policing. In Kratcoski & Dukes (Eds.). Issues in Community Policing. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishers.

evaluation reflected a set of conditions that conceptually and operationally defined the program's unique strategies, as well as the program's key assumptions and goals. In reality, the fundamental underpinnings of a program should define the basis upon which the targeted audience is identified, as well as the intervention necessary for the

implementation of the program strategies. Contextual elements of community policing, at best, referred to logic and procedures utilized in the program evaluation.

Strategy as applied to community policing included the key operational concepts that translated philosophy into action. Thus, these strategic elements were the relationships between broad ideas and beliefs that underlie community policing, including the specific programs and practices by which it is implemented. Referenced as related sub-elements were greater emphasis on geographical basis for assignment as well as the responsibility of police officers. Also, cited in the literature as related sub-elements of community context were shifts toward greater face-to-face interactions with neighborhood residents, as well as a more proactive and preventive stance as an overall goal of the police agency.

As a program element, context conveyed some of the effects of geography on community policing. Rather than holding police officers, shift supervisors or shift commanders responsible for large units but only during their shifts, they were assigned a smaller geographical area for which they were held accountable. Permanent assignment enhanced interaction, familiarity and trust with neighborhood residents, as well as timely identification of community problems. Finally, permanent assignment may also reduce some of the potential conflicts that arise when new officers are assigned to the beat.

Contextual (i.e., strategic dimension) element of community policing demanded a reoriented operation within the police agency. Thus, neighborhood police officers under community policing are encouraged to develop more face-to-face interactions and less reliance on patrol cars. The ultimate goal was to replace old and ineffective traditional

policing style that thrived on motorized patrol and rapid response to low priority calls with more effective, proactive, and interactive approaches. Many police departments today have increased their use of foot patrol, door-to-door canvass, and other alternatives to traditional motorized patrol (Cordner & Trojanowicz, 1992). Still, others have simply reduced their commitment to any form of continuous patrolling, preferring instead to have their patrol officers engage in problem solving, crime prevention, as well as other related activities necessary to improve the quality of life in the neighborhoods.

Strategic dimension of community also established a new insight on differential patrol. Many police agencies have adopted differential responses to calls for service (McEwen, Connors, & Cohen 1986). Rather than dispatching sworn officers, the police department may opt to vary their responses depending on the seriousness of the incident being reported. Similarly, reports may be taken over the telephone while others service requests are referred to community agencies and networks. Other possible alternatives may include referring the complainant to a nearby police mini-station, where an officer, a trained civilian employee or a volunteer may provide other in-person assistance. Employing differential responses helps the police agencies deal with overwhelming emergency calls while at the same time freeing patrol officers time for other activities, such as patrolling, problem solving, and crime prevention.

Still further, the emphasis on prevention was at odds with the reactive, incident-driven approach that undermines much of the professional policing model. Prevention may take several forms, one of which is simply to encourage effective use of officers' time. In many police agencies, patrol officers who are not engaged in handling calls are

assigned to random patrol. Under community policing, time was of essence. Thus, a substantial amount of time was devoted to directed-enforcement activities, specific crime prevention efforts, identifying and solving community problems, citizen interactions, and other activities necessary to improve attitude toward the police, as well as to quality of life in the neighborhoods.

Within the context of prevention, officers were encouraged to look beyond the individual incidents that they encounter as calls for service and reported crimes in order to discover underlying problems and conditions (Eck & Spelman, 1987). Implicit in the philosophy of prevention was the belief that if the officers discovered such underlying conditions and put forth the effort to improve them, they could prevent the future recurrence of incidents and subsequent calls for police services. Although, immediate response and after-the-fact (reactive) investigation of crime was an important aspect to police functions, community policing encouraged before-the-fact (proactive) prevention and problem solving to comparable status.

Specific to this element was the desire to enhance the status of crime prevention within police organizations. In some jurisdictions, police departments devote a greater part of their personnel to patrol, after-the-fact investigations, and for the purposes of rapid response. It may be possible that the mere presence and high police visibility associated with patrolling may prevent crime, but research findings over the past 20 years have called into question the reliability of these crime prevention strategies (Greenwood & Petersilia 1975; Kelling et al., 1974; Spelman & Brown, 1984).

Given the dramatic nature of crimes, and criminal investigations, the preeminence of after-the-fact (reactive) crime fighting within police and popular cultures was understandable. Similarly, fighting crimes and responding to emergencies have certain natural appeal with some heroic elements for the police and citizens. However, if given the choice, most people would prefer not being victimized in the first instance to being dramatically rescued, to having the police successfully apprehend their attacker, or to having their stolen property recovered. Suffice it to say that although police organization while implementing reactive crime fighting strategies, must give higher priority to before-the-fact (proactive) prevention.

Finally, prevention as a sub-element of community policing context reflects a social welfare orientation of police duties. In this regard, neighborhood police officers are compelled to offset some of the deficiencies and failures of families, churches, schools, and other social institutions. Preventive strategies must be tailored to meet the needs of special groups such as juveniles and other vulnerable members of the community. By serving as mentors and role models, as well as providing recreational and educational services, police officers may affect aberrant behaviors in more specific manners. This kind of proactive stance forms the basis for community oriented policing. Given the fact that no single program element can fairly articulate and document the fundamental assumptions underlying the full selection of community policing strategies, context as a core component of community policing must be flexible and responsive to the internal linkages with the elements of identification, intervention, and evaluation.

Identification as a Programmatic Element of

Community-Oriented Policing

Identification as an element presented as useful in the construction of an effective model of program evaluation described the combination of methods and criteria by which neighborhoods and problems are defined, screened, and selected for community policing. Moreover, identification as a programmatic element reflected a tactical dimension of community policing that ultimately translates ideas, philosophies, and strategies into meaningful programs. Even the most outspoken critiques of community agreed that unless community policing programs resulted in some positive outcome either in terms of some new or different behavior, it was all rhetoric and no reality (Greene & Mastrofski, 1988).

Presented as being a key measure of identification, were the procedures police agencies utilized to both select and involve residents in identifying the particular kind of problem ridden neighborhoods that should be targeted. Excluding community residents in this process resulted in the likelihood of targeting behaviors and problems based on often misleading official crime statistics, rather than those viewed as potentially disruptive by residents.

As a core element of community policing, identification recognized pre-existing neighborhood conditions, including unemployment rates, racial composition, business and commercial density, and housing inventory in terms of their links to the problems being addressed by community policing. In this regard, the element of identification acknowledged the very fact that racial conflict, neighborhood decay, and high rate of

residential mobility may have more adverse consequences for community policing than criminal activities.

Identification also included other important tactical elements of community policing such as positive interaction, community partnership, and problem solving. The nature of police work (arrests, tickets, order maintenance, and victim advocacy) involved negative contacts with the citizens. Community policing recognized these pitfalls and proposed to offset them by involving the officers in much needed positive interactions whenever and wherever possible.

Positive interaction had the potential for building familiarity, confidence, and trust between the officers and community residents. In addition, positive interaction aided the officers in making informed decisions about people and conditions in their beats. While professional policing models relied heavily on motorized patrol, neighborhood police officers were trained to exploit any chances at cultivating needed interaction with the citizen. By walking the neighborhoods and positively interacting with the neighborhood residents, officers offset the monotony of motorized patrol. Community policing, as well, presented many opportunities for positive interactions. Calls for service provided one such opportunity. For instance, instead of getting there quickly in order to clear promptly, officers strived to see calls as opportunities for positive interaction and problem identification. Routine patrols also presented another opportunity for positive interaction if the officers were willing to get out of their cars to interact with the neighborhood residents.

Also, presented as a sub-element of identification was partnership with community residents. Under community policing, police agencies are expected not only to cooperate with citizens and communities but to also to actively solicit their input and participation (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994). Community involvement included such matters as neighborhood crime watch, town hall meetings, patrolling the streets, and reporting drugs and suspicious activities. Similarly, community involvement is best achieved when citizens are involved in problem identification and problem solving initiatives, crime prevention strategies, as well as improvement in the quality of life in the neighborhoods.

The concept of community in community policing suggests that social order are maintained basically by informal social processes present in the neighborhood and not police presence and/or activity. Therefore, citizen participation, as well as the proper use of available community resources are important elements in crime prevention strategies (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993; Byrne & Sampson, 1986; Rosenbaum, 1988). Unfortunately, perceptions about crime undermined the ability of the community to coordinate and defend itself. This is partly because many factors other than objective risk of crime influenced fear of crime (Rosenbaum et al., 1991; Skogan & Maxfield, 1981), and fear of crime had been shown to erode neighborhood cohesion, and resulted in community deterioration (Skogan, 1990; Wilson & Kelling, 1982).

As a center piece of community policing, fear of crime had certain implications for police departments. First, the police do not have the answer as to which factors contribute to fear or ways of reducing such fear. Secondly, since fear of crime was often

found in racially and highly disorganized groups or neighborhoods (Anderson, 1990, Heitgerd & Bursik, 1987; Merry, 1981; Suttles, 1968; Taub, Taylor, & Dunham, 1984), police discovered it tasking to satisfy community desires, reducing fear associated with crime, as well as providing equitable services (Gottlieb, 1993).

Nevertheless, there was some evidence suggesting that increased contact with the community can positively impact fear of crime (Pate, Wycoff, Skogan & Sherman, 1986; Skogan, 1990). The exact nature and extent of community involvement varied from jurisdiction to jurisdiction and from community to community. For instance, in highly disorganized and transient neighborhoods where residents were often fearful and suspicious of each other, the police initiated community organizing as a tool for empowering the citizen in identifying and solving their own problems. By engaging the community, the police encouraged a sense of community in areas where neighborhood residents were unfamiliar with each other. Community organizing was extremely difficult and at odds with the conventional role of policing, however, these were usually the very communities that benefited from both enhanced police protection and improved crime prevention strategies.

Given the fact that divergent and often conflicting interests found in many communities were sometimes represented by competing interest groups, finding a common ground around which to base police practices or organize an entire community could be a vexing aspect of policing. Community policing recognized this inherent feature of pluralistic society. Thus, along with feelings of safety, most citizens wanted their property protected, as well as some level of tranquility in their neighborhoods.

Partnerships under community policing provided neighborhood police officers with enough of a consensus upon which to base cooperative initiatives directed at improving safety and residents' quality of life.

A final sub-element of identification was problem solving. Supporters of community policing were convinced that the very nature of police role must be altered from its present incident-by-incident and case-by-case orientation to one of problem identification and problem solving (Goldstein 1990). Problem-solving was characterized by several important dimensions requiring a change in the overall direction of policing. First, problem-solving approach should be the standard operating procedure of policing rather than on the whim special project.

Moreover, problem-solving initiative should be a departmental wide effort including the personnel and the ranks and file of the police organization down to the specialists and police managers. Similarly, effective problem solving approach means that decision making processes must be empirically grounded on the basis of information gathered and should, whenever possible, involve collaboration between police and other community agencies and institutions. Finally, and in keeping with problem-oriented approach, citizen inputs and participation should be incorporated in the problem identification and problem solving whenever possible. Obviously, when community residents were empowered to identifying and solve their own problems, they sustained a degree of responsibility for their own protection.

Generally, problem solving under community-oriented policing included four-step processes. They included: 1) scanning, which is designed for careful identification of the

problems; 2) analysis, which calls for learning about the causes; 3) scope and effects of the problem, response or need for alternative solution; and 4) assessment and/or appraisal of a response to the problem (Eck & Spelman, 1987).

Intervention as a Programmatic Element of Community-Oriented Policing

Intervention referred to the actual activities specifically defined and engaged in by the police and community residents. Of special importance was the process by which residents were included in the decisions associated with the selection of program strategies. Other areas of concern for evaluators included the limit and intensity of the program strategies, as well as any changes that might have taken place since the beginning of the program. Community policing had been referred to as a new philosophy of policing and a shift away from professional model policing. As a program element, intervention reflected a philosophical dimension, as well as the central ideas and beliefs underlying community policing. Citizen input, broad police function, and personalized service were the three important sub-element of program intervention.

Citizen input suggested that in a democratic process, the citizens should have an unrestricted access to police organizations, as well as input in the decision making process. Police departments are public agencies and should be responsive and accountable to the concerns of the communities they serve. Citizen input was synonymous with openness. As a built-in component, citizen input was a unique tool that could be employed by itself or along with other alternatives in responding to problems.

Thus, within the context of neighborhood oriented policing, citizen input reflected a conscious effort at mobilizing a specific segment of the community to help implement a response to specific a problem regardless of how long it takes.

Broad police function was a related sub-element suggests that the police must first extend themselves in order to learn about the concerns of the community (Murphy & Muir, 1985). Community policing according to Kelling and Moore (1988) embraced a broad perspective of the police function

Methods of obtaining citizen input varied from one community to another. Bureau of Assistance (1994) suggested mechanisms for achieving greater citizen input. These are systematic and periodic community surveys, as well as other methods, such as town hall meetings, radio and television, call in programs, and other forums available to community residents. Philosophically, intervention as a program required police agencies to seek out and consider citizens when making decisions that affected their lives.

Also cited as a sub-element of intervention was the broader police function. Professional police models had a limited view of police functions, emphasizing rather on crime fighting and law enforcement. Broader police functions gave meaning to non-law enforcement duties such as order maintenance, and social service duties. Within the confines of community policing, neighborhood police officers were expected to perform various general assistance functions to improve the lives of the most needy and other vulnerable groups, including the juveniles, the poor, the disabled, and the homeless (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990).

A final sub-element of philosophical dimension (intervention) of community policing was referred to as personal service. The emphasis was on tailored services based on local norms and values, as well as the individual neighborhood needs. Under community policing, individual police officers must consider the interest of the community in deciding what laws to enforce and police administrators, as well, must tolerate differential patterns of policing. Personal service suggests that police administration at all levels must take into account neighborhood values and norms, as well as other issues relative to professional and organizational considerations and their impacts on decision making about policies, program, and resources. The ultimate goal was to generate and enhance trust between the officers and the community residents.

Evaluation as a Programmatic Element of Community-Oriented Policing

Community policing was an organizational wide philosophy and management that pointed to the direction of community, police partnerships, proactive problem-solving, and community engagement to uncover the causes of crime, fear of crime, and other issues related to quality of life in the neighborhood. Thus, evaluation as identified element of program assessment referred to the processes by which a program obtained and interpreted any information regarding the effectiveness of intervention strategies. One of the most crucial aspect of community policing concerned its proactive stance to crime reduction. In professional model of policing, the police departments and officers

alike reacted almost exclusively to incidents of crime and calls for police services as the need arose.

Proactive crime reduction strategy acknowledged areas of great concerns and implemented programs that led to a reduction in the number of calls for police services, as well as the seriousness of reported incidents of crime in those areas. Accomplishing these goals was challenging. First, the police department engaged in a mutual working relationship with community leaders, as well as religious groups and various social service agencies within the community. In addition, the agency identified specific concerns and strategies for problem-solving as well as designs to empirically evaluate the plans to measure their effectiveness. To the extent that a supportive organizational design surrounding community policing greatly affected its implementation, police departments made variety of changes in organization, management, and supervision to facilitate its implementation. Further, elements of evaluation and organizational dimension although not necessarily part of community policing were extraordinarily important to its successful implementation.

One element of evaluation of community policing related to the changing aspects of structure. Restructuring the police agencies was often necessary to facilitate the various components of community policing including context, identification, and intervention. Organizational structures germane to police departments reflected the mission and values of the department so as to reduce the potential for conflict and frustration inherent with policing. Community policing, at best, required a degree of discretion and creativity for the neighborhood police officers. This degree of autonomy

and decentralization of decision-making processes turned the professional model policing and its routine, reactive, and bureaucratic stance on its head. As Rosenbaum and Lurigio (1994) succinctly remarked,

> An argument can be made that police departments will not be prepared to achieve effective problem-solving and community partnerships until the beliefs, perceptions, attitudes, and behavior of individual officers become more compatible with the redefinition and enlargement of their jobs as prescribed by the community policing model. (p.146)

Police personnel and organizational structure restricted the activities of individual police officers. Thus, to ignore these restraints was synonymous to program failure due to apathy, frustration, resentment, perceived inequality, fear of change, and other factors that negates the successful implementation of community policing (Rosenbaum & Lurigio, 1994).

Also referenced as vital to successful program evaluation was the style of leadership and management that incorporated organizational cultures and values, and less emphasis on written rules. Early reform efforts centered largely on changing the underlying organizational structure under which police department functions (Angell, 1971; Bayley, 1988; Goldstein, 1990; Kelling & Moore, 1988; Wilson, 1950). Similarly, organizational designs based on classic organizational theory, highly centralized, and formal hierarchical bureaucracy had been faulted for many of the problems associated with modern policing. Kelling and Moore (1988) have outlined some defining elements of organizational designs central to community policing program strategy that set it apart from professional law enforcement era. First, workers can have substantive interest in their work and officers' discretion can be extracted and supported through community

engagement and problem solving initiatives. Other defining elements included decentralization of decision making to line personnel in the neighborhood specific assignments, and increased participatory management and involvement of top executives in strategic planning and implementation (Kelling & Moore, 1988).

The above design identified the planning and implementation necessary for effective outcomes to community policing programs (Cardarelli & McDevitt, 1995). Along with this planning and implementation model, theoretical explanations for evaluating the effectiveness of community policing programs have ascertained the need to monitor pre-existing conditions affecting community policing efforts. Notably among these are the segments of the socioeconomic environment governing the neighborhoods engaged in community policing initiatives (Cardarelli & McDevitt, 1995). An important socio-economic influences related to the conditions of social deprivation which reside in the resident population were thought to impact community policing efforts (Cardarelli & McDevitt, 1995). Conditions of social strain found in high unemployment rates, low educational levels, and low yearly household incomes provided an important context for the distinctive program applying community-policing principles. Other influences on community policing existed internally to the organizational environment of police agencies (Cardarelli & McDevitt, 1995; Yates & Pillai, 1996). Given this review to the four principal elements of community policing philosophy. The researcher next presented in Chapter III the methodology and major variables that governed this study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study proposes an active evaluation of neighborhood-oriented policing within the framework of important principles relating community context, identification, intervention, and program evaluation. Additionally, this research proposes to provide an examination to defining community policing operationally and conceptually through the application, use, and testing of important measurement processes undergirding community policing programmatic philosophy. Finally, the research proposes to assess the relative strength which each of the four basic program elements uniquely brings to explaining the outcomes of neighborhood-based community policing program strategies.

Research Design

The principle research design for this study incorporates the traditions of survey research methodology. Both self-administered questionnaires, as well as survey interviews were adopted. Sample respondents in the study consisted of two categories: (a) Household Residents living within the Westside Neighborhood Community District, and (b) Merchants operating a business within the Westside Neighborhood Community District. For the residents, survey questionnaires were administered through face-to-face interviews carried out by this writer and others employed as research assistants for the

Westside Project. For the merchants, self-administered questionnaire procedures were utilized in obtaining survey data from Westside community business owners and/or operators.

Data Collection/Sampling Procedure

Data were collected over three separate survey periods: 1997, the baseline year survey; 1998, the one-year anniversary assessment; and, 1999, the two-year anniversary assessment. The August 1997 survey allowed for a baseline set of survey data from which to measure the effectiveness of neighborhood community policing strategies put in place since September, 1997. The survey design allowed results to be developed separately for North Area Residents, South Area Residents, and Merchants within the Westside Community District. Systematic sampling procedures were adopted in identifying households solicited for interviewing. The sampling procedure for the household respondents entailed contacting from a starting point in each of the two primary neighborhoods every third household for the purpose of soliciting a member's participation in the current study.

In instances where no household member was at home, or where the request to provide an interview was turned down, interview staff were instructed to contact the next door household until an interview was obtained. After successfully obtaining an interview, the systematic sampling procedure of contacting every third household for interviewing was re-established. Over the three periods of surveying residents, interviewers recorded quite low proportions of refusals. The refusal rate was

consistent throughout the three survey periods, averaging about 10% of all solicited interviews. For the merchants, surveys were delivered to managers or owners of a compiled list of 60 businesses operating with the Westside Community District. Individuals either owning or managing businesses within the Westside Community were invited to complete a self-administered survey questionnaire. A pre-paid postage envelope was provided to merchants, who were asked by staff to return the completed survey in the mail to: the Department of Sociology, Oklahoma State University.

Interview Schedule

The interview schedule consisted of six sections comprising questions which focused on the following topics: Section I, public fear of crime; Section II, attitudes toward the police/police services; Section III, neighborhood needs; Section IV, quality of police contact; Section V, criminal victimization; Section VI, demographic characteristics of respondents (e.g., age, sex, race, employment status, years of schooling, and income), and some miscellaneous questions dealing with police/community relations, present police policy, protection, and the interviewee's personal experience with the police.

The Merchants had a slightly different interview schedule. Although the survey was not altered in any significant way for this sample group, a major discrepancy is the addition of a different piece of information that asked them to tell us how long their businesses have been in this neighborhood. This substituted for the question to the household members, where they had been asked how long have you lived in this neighborhood.

Major Variables of Interest for Investigation

The major variables of concern were: (a) context, (b) identification, (c) intervention, and (d) evaluation.

Context

Respondents were asked to indicate their concerns, if any, about crimes in their neighborhoods. Seven questions on fear of crime (see Appendix C, Section I, item 1 through 7) constituted the measure for this variable. Some examples of the questions included: I often avoid going out during the daytime because I am afraid of crime. I often avoid going out after dark because I am afraid of crime. My fear of crime is very high, and I am more afraid of crime than I have been. Items will be analyzed to determine the appropriateness of various scaling possibilities.

Identification

Respondents were asked to give their opinions to eight questions relating to neighborhood needs. Examples of questions that constituted the measure for this variable included: One big problem in this neighborhood is disorderly youthful gangs and/or groups. One big problem in this neighborhood is teenage crime. One big problem in this neighborhood is frequent street fights and/or people loitering on corners. One big problem in this neighborhood is poor street lighting, and One big problem in this neighborhood is run down building that are fire and other hazards. For questions refer to Appendix C, Section III, item 25 through 32.

Intervention

Respondents were asked to give their opinions regarding some proposed intervention strategies that the police and community residents could mutually engage in to improve the quality of life indicators in the neighborhood. Five questions (see Appendix C, Section III, item 33 through 37) constituted the measure for this variable. Some examples of the questions included: One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city could provide tutors for neighborhood children after school and on weekends. One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city could provide affordable educational opportunities for the adults in this neighborhood, and One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city planned more organized outings and other activities for the elderly in this neighborhood. Again, items will be analyzed to determine the appropriateness of various scaling possibilities.

Evaluation

Evaluation/Public Opinion of Police Services. We asked the respondents to register their feelings about police practices in the city of Ponca City and in their neighborhood in general. Six questions (see Appendix C, Section II, item 8, 11, 15, & 19; Section IV, item 39, & 40) constituted the measure for this variable. Some examples of the questions included: The police department is doing a better job in this neighborhood than it was a year ago. I regularly see police officers on patrol in this neighborhood; Officers have generally been helpful to me in matters where I have required their assistance; and the police in my neighborhood try to provide the kind of

services that people in my neighborhood want. The measurement for the public opinion of police services construct is slightly different for the survey year, 1997. Two of the original list of items for measuring public opinion of police services was not utilized as a measure for 1997. This is because those two items were not included as survey items for that year. Items excluded in the measure for 1997 include: The police department is doing a better job in this neighborhood than it was a year ago; and The police in my neighborhood try to provide the kind of services that people in my neighborhood want.

Evaluation/Public Opinion of Ponca City Police Officers. The operationalization of attitudes toward Ponca City police consisted of responses to six questions and/or statements about the police. Respondents were asked to indicate their feelings about each of four statements (about police) with a forced-choice response: "Strongly Agree," "Agree," "Neither Agree nor Disagree," "Disagree," or "Strongly Disagree" (see Appendix C, Section II, item 17, 18, 20, & 21). Additionally, two questions (see Appendix C, Section IV, item 38 & 41) asked the respondents to indicate their feelings about the quality of police contacts. Examples of questions that constituted measure of this variable included: The Ponca City Police are generally quite helpful. The Ponca City Police puts you at ease, and My experience is that police officers have generally cared about me as a person.

The research allowed for two independent measures of our *Evaluation* program element within the conceptual model: (a) public opinion of police services; and (b) public opinion of Ponca City police officers. Because the research allowed for two measures of

the evaluation program element, we proposed retaining the public opinion of police services construct, as a permanent dependent variable in the study. I further proposed to utilize the public opinion of Ponca City police officers as a permanent independent variables in the research. In setting up these assignments, we provided a useful structure for examining the relationship of each of the four primary conceptual elements of community policing to neighborhood centered program outcomes. The one dependent variable served, thus, as our permanent measure for neighborhood-based community policing program outcomes in this study.

This dissertation was concerned with several important issues related to the program strategies of neighborhood-oriented policing, and the broader principles of community policing philosophy and practice. First, this dissertation sought to examine the salience of several basic elements previous research had presented as being fundamental to the effective operations and functioning of community policing programs. Central to the insight being offered in regard to this group of elements for community policing program efforts was to invite the beginnings of a viable theory of neighborhood-oriented policing programmatic success. This dissertation, which provided a measure of each of the group of program elements relating program context, identification, intervention, and evaluation, was in a position to provide some examination into the viability of these several basic elements in predicting the effective outcome of neighborhood-oriented policing program strategies. Likewise, such findings would establish the basis for the beginnings of a useful theory of neighborhood policing

program effectiveness, utilizing important principles found in the very elements relating to program context, identification, intervention, and evaluation.

Secondly, this dissertation was concerned with assessing the usefulness of the four program elements regarding the opportunities such insight brought to defining community policing operationally, and as a concept congruent with the broader philosophy and principles of community policing practice and application. This dissertation, which incorporated tests for the validity and reliability of constructs providing a measure of community policing program philosophy, was in a position to bring credible assessment to the four program elements regarding the opportunities each element brought toward defining community policing operationally, and as a concept congruent with the broader philosophy of community policing. Likewise, this dissertation, which incorporated factor analyses as part of the early exploration in establishing the strength of the proposed elemental scales, was in a position to bring additional assessment to the four program elements regarding the opportunities each element brought toward defining operationally and conceptually, what is community policing.

Finally, this dissertation was concerned with assessing the relative strength each of the four program elements brought toward explaining the outcomes of community policing program efforts. This research, which adopted simultaneous equation modeling procedures in testing the relative strength of each of the program elements to predict the outcome of neighborhood-oriented community policing strategies was, thus, poised to

provide some assessment to the relative strength of the four program elements to community policing outcomes.

Hypotheses

Considering the major variables as they have been stated, and based on the earlier literature review, the following hypothesized relationships are expected to be observed:

1. Context was negatively related to the dependent variable, *Attitudes Toward Police Services.*
2. Context was a stronger predictor of the dependent variable than any single control group variable.
3. Identification was negatively related to the dependent variable, *Attitudes Toward Police Services.*
4. Identification was a stronger predictor of the dependent variable than any single control group variable.
5. Intervention was positively related to the dependent variable, *Attitudes Toward Police Services.*
6. Intervention was a stronger predictor of the dependent variable than any single control group variable.
7. Evaluation/Attitudes toward Ponca City police officers was positively related to the dependent variable, *Attitudes Toward Police Services.*

8. Evaluation/Attitudes toward Ponca City police officers was stronger predictor of the dependent variable than any single control group variable.

Simultaneous equation modeling procedures were proposed in testing the following hypothesis:

Each element of neighborhood community policing program philosophy brings an equal contribution to predicting the dependent Variable, *Attitudes Toward Police Services.*

Analytical Strategies

Several univariate and bivariate analyses were proposed. A primary interest with the initial analyses was in presenting an early exploring of the survey data. A principle interest was in comparing the representativeness of the sample groups across the three interview periods. In this regard, it was proposed to present univariate level descriptive analyses showing characteristics of the combined resident and merchant sample respondents for the three survey periods: the baseline year (1997); the one-year anniversary (1998); and the two- year anniversary (1999). Data shown included distributions of sample group respondents by gender; race; age; employment status; educational level; yearly household income; home ownership; city resident tenure, and neighborhood resident tenure.

Another early interest was in providing an initial examination of the sample groups in their perceptions of fear of crime, neighborhood conditions, problems, needs, and other indicators of quality of life. Since much of these attitudinal questions were

serving as measures for the program and/or conceptual elements of community policing philosophy, an early opportunity was provided in examining the effectiveness of the neighborhood-based community policing initiatives in contributing to an improved quality of neighborhood life. Reductions observed between the baseline year and the first and second year anniversary periods in the proportions of sample respondents registering a high prevalence of neighborhood related problems would likely point to some early evidence of success of neighborhood-oriented policing in the Westside Community District. In this regard, another set of early descriptive analysis were proposed to construct a percentage frequency distribution of items measuring each of the suggested dimensions of community policing programmatic philosophy by survey year. The frequency distribution analyses were used to assess any variations in response to the grouping of attitudinal questions between respondents over the three survey periods. Several bivariate analyses and tests of relationships were proposed.

A primary interest in constructing these analyses allowed for the continuation of early exploring of the relational dynamics of the community policing conceptual measures as to their impact in contributing to the effectiveness of neighborhood-based community policing programmatic outcomes. A further interest was in applying bivariate level significance testing to explore for the possibilities of significant variation between the three sample population groups (i.e., Northside residents; Southside residents, and Merchants) in their assessment of the prevalence of neighborhood conditions, problems, needs, and other indicators of quality of life. Both accomplished important background analyses ahead of the subsequent multivariate applications which followed. In this

regard, contingency table analysis were proposed and used in exploring the responses to a number of attitudinal questions related to each of the conceptual dimensions of community policing program philosophy across the three groups of survey respondents. Analyses were to be constructed for examining the group of bivariate relationships across each of the three survey periods (i.e., 1997, 1998, & 1999).

Several multivariate analyses and tests of relationships were proposed. One set of analysis sought to test for the validity of the several proposed dimensions (i.e., constructs) providing a measure of community policing program philosophy. In this regard, one group of analyses tested for each dimension's convergent validity. A high level correlation among indicators that were related conceptually to the construct would demonstrate convergent validity (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Cook & Campbell, 1979). It was proposed to examine the inter-correlations among the item for each of the proposed dimensions and/or constructs measuring neighborhood community policing programmatic philosophy.

A second group of analyses tested for each of the construct's discriminant validity. A minimum level of correlation among the dimensions (i.e., constructs) would invite that the scales were sufficiently independent, and thus demonstrated to some degree the presence among the constructs of discriminant validity. It was proposed to examine the correlations between each construct measuring neighborhood community policing programmatic philosophy. Another group of analytical strategies entailed factor analyzing all the indicators of the proposed constructs. A discovery of five principle

factors hypothesized as grouping together based on our underlying theoretical perspective was sought. The discovery would suggest validity to the constructs.

A final exploratory strategy in determining the strength of the scales, entailed investigating each construct for their internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha test for a scale's level or degree of internal consistency was employed in examining each construct for their degree of reliability. High alpha coefficients would indicate strong reliability to the constructs. Ordinary least square (OLS) regression models for the three survey periods were proposed for testing the hypotheses. Simultaneous equation modeling procedures were proposed in examining the four program elements for their relative importance to neighborhood-oriented policing outcomes. The following group of variables functioned as control variables in the research, in carrying out tests of the linear effects of the primary group of independent program variables onto the dependent variable: gender; race; age; city resident; household income; home ownership.

CHAPTER IV

DESCRIPTION OF THE NEIGHBORHOOD SAMPLE AND EARLY EXPLORING OF FEAR OF CRIME, NEIGHBORHOOD CONDITIONS, AND NEEDS

In this chapter, I present an early exploring of the survey data. I first provide a description of the sample. I will next examine the sample groups in their frequency of reporting several quality of life conditions. Lastly, using a number of cross-tabulations, I will compare the sample groups for any significant differences among each relative to the baseline year period on several quality of life conditions.

Description of the Sample

In exploring the data, one of the interests in this research was to assess how representative the sample group participants have been over the three years data collection. Table A-I (Appendix A) presents both composite and baseline year characteristics of north area sample group respondents. Overall, the table shows the composite years to be highly comparable to the baseline year. Males have generally made up slightly less than 50% of the sample for the period. Homeowners have slightly outnumbered renters among north area sample respondents. A significant percentage

(around 16 or 17% respectively) have reported being unemployed. A high percentage (around 39 to 43%) of the sample respondents reported having less than a high school education. While an extremely high proportion (greater than 50%) of the north area respondents reported yearly household incomes of less than $20,000. The results suggested a highly representative group of sample respondents among north area residents.

I carried out a similar examination of sample respondents from south neighborhoods. Table A-II (Appendix A) presents the results. As with north area respondents, the sample population for south area residents in all the categories remained fairly comparable to the proportion reported for the baseline year. Whites have generally outnumbered other racial groups. A significant proportion (from 70 to 77%) report having lived in Ponca City for more than six years. From 31 to 35% of the sample respondents report having less than a high school education. Between 10 and 12% of south area respondents reported being unemployed. Between 38 and 42% reported yearly household income of less than $20,000. These results also suggested a highly representative sample.

Finally, I examined the group of merchants completing the surveys. The findings are presented in Table A-III (Appendix A). Overall, the table showed the composite years to be highly comparable to the baseline year. Males have generally made up about 60% of the sample for the period. A high percentage (85 to 91%) report having lived in Ponca City for more than six years. From 49 to 73% report having established their business in Ponca City for more than six years. Only between 7 and 14% reported a

yearly household income of less than $20,000. These results point to a highly representative group of sample respondents among the merchants.

Another interest was in providing an early exploring of the sample groups in their perceptions of fear of crime, neighborhood conditions, problems, and other quality of life measure. Since much of these attitudinal questions were serving as measures for the program and/or conceptual element of community policing philosophy, an early opportunity was provided in examining the effectiveness of neighborhood community policing to contribute to an improved quality of life. Tables A-IV to A-VIII (Appendix A) presented the reported frequency among north area sample respondents of residents' perception of fear related crime, quality of police services, neighborhood conditions, and neighborhood needs across the three survey years. Improvements were observed over the three survey years in north area residents' perception of their overall quality of life. For Table A-IV (Appendix A), personal fear of crime was shown to be dramatically down among north area residents in 1999 compared to 1997. The largest reduction was among those reporting that they were more afraid of crime than they had ever been (down to 23% in 1999, compared to 50% in 1997).

For Table A-V (Appendix A), improvements were observed over the three years in the amount of favorable opinion residents have of the police. Eighty-nine percent, for example, reported the opinion in 1999 that the police show concern. This was well up from 68% sharing this opinion in 1997. Also, considerably more north area residents (87% in 1999, compared to 55% in 1997) believed that the police department does the best job it can against crime in their neighborhood. North area residents additionally

reported reduced perceptions of neighborhood problems (Table A-VI - Appendix A), increased support for city provided services and needs (Table A-VII - Appendix A), and increased perception of personal contact with the police being one of a highly positive nature (Table A-VIII - Appendix A). These results indeed pointed to success of neighborhood community policing operating in area locations in the Westside community district.

A similar examination of sample group respondents from south area neighborhoods was carried out. These findings are presented in Tables A-IX to A-XIII (Appendix A). Overall, personal fear of crime is down among south area residents in 1999 compared to 1997. For Table A-IX (Appendix A), the largest decline is recorded among those reporting that "I am more afraid of crime than I have ever been" (down to 26% in 1999, compared to 46% in 1997).

For Table A-X (Appendix A), significant improvements were observed over the three years in the amount of favorable opinion south area residents have of the police and police services. Eighty-three percent report the beliefs in 1999 that the police are knowledgeable about the needs in their neighborhood. This proportion represents a dramatic improvement from fifty-three percent reporting this belief in 1997. Also impressive was the percentage of south area respondents (at 83% in 1999) reporting that they regularly see police officers on patrol in their neighborhood. This was well up from 59% in 1997 reporting this belief. Finally, south area residents were fairly mixed in their perceptions of neighborhood problems (Table A-XI-Appendix A), increased support for city-funded services (Table A-XII-Appendix A), and highly positive in their opinion of

personal contact with the police (Table A-XIII-Appendix A). Again, the results were pointing to the success of neighborhood community policing operating in the south area locations with the Westside community district.

Finally, an examination of the group of merchants concerning their fear levels, neighborhood conditions, problems, and other quality of life measures was performed. These findings are presented in the Tables A-XIV to A-XVIII (Appendix A). Generally, merchants were reporting a lower degree of change in their perceptions of fear of crime, quality of police services, neighborhood conditions and needs, in comparison with north and south residents. In spite of higher shares of fear related crime among merchants and more stubborn eroding of perceptions of neighborhood problems compared to residents, the result again suggested the success of neighborhood community policing in the opinions merchants generally bring to their perception of neighborhood conditions, needs, and other quality of life assessments.

For A-XIV (Appendix A), personal fear of crime remained a central concern of Westside merchants in 1999 compared to 1997. The largest increase was among those reporting that "there is a good chance I will be a victim of property crime this year" (up 60% in 1999, compared to 44% in 1997). However, reductions among merchants fear of crime were observed in four out of seven items of measurement. For Table A-XV (Appendix A), improvements were observed over the three years in the amount of favorable opinion merchants have of police. Ninety-two percent, for example, reported the opinion in 1999 that the police always exhibit professional conduct. This was well up from 59% sharing this opinion in 1997. Also, impressive was the proportion of

merchants (64% in 1999, compared to 41% in 1997) reporting the opinion that the police department does the best job it can against crime in this neighborhood. Merchants reported fewer problems with neighborhood gangs and street fights (Table A-XVI-Appendix A), also, increased support for some city-funded services (Table A-XVII-Appendix A), as well as increased perceptions of positive contacts with the police (Table A-XVIII-Appendix A).

Another interest expressed during the early investigation of this data existed in the application of tests for exploring the possibilities of significant variation between the three sample population groups in the impressions each bring to neighborhood conditions, problems, needs, and other measures assessing quality of life. Any evidence of such variation might pose problems for building the necessary community consensus important to the success of neighborhood and other local based community-policing strategies. Table A-XIX (Appendix A) presented these results as related to items measuring public fear of crime. All of the analyses were being shown for 1997. On most of the items, both north and south residents, and merchants were highly similar in their perceptions of possessing a fear of crime. These results generally were not pointing out large variations between the three population groups in the impressions each bring to fear of crime, and thus the larger context for innovative crime initiative such as found in community policing philosophies.

South residents however, were significantly different from north residents and merchants in reporting that fear of crime was very high in their neighborhood. While only 32% of south residents reported that "fear of crime is high in this neighborhood," a

larger percentage of north residents at 44%, and merchants at 48% share this belief. Likewise, merchants were significantly different from both north and south residents in their belief that there is a good chance they will be "a victim of personal crime this year." About 6% of merchants share the belief that they will be "a victim of a personal crime this year." A much higher percentage of north residents (20%) and south residents (14%) share this belief.

A similar examination of three population groups on items measuring public attitudes toward police and police services was also carried out. The results were presented in Table A-XX (Appendix A). On most of the items, north residents and merchants at the start of community policing in 1997 were similar in their attitudes toward the police and police services. Most relationships showed no major differences between the three groups in their perception of police and police services. South residents were significantly different from north residents and merchants in reporting the regularity with which they saw police officers in their neighborhoods. A smaller number of south residents (59%) reported that they regularly saw police officers on patrol in their neighborhood. A higher percentage of north residents (71%), and merchants (70%) reported that they regularly saw police officers on patrol in their neighborhood. In addition, south residents and merchants were significantly different from north residents with regards to their perception that "the police hassle people too much in this neighborhood." About 8% of south residents, and 3% of merchants report that the police hassles people too much in their neighborhoods. This feeling was shared by a much larger percentage (23%) of north residents. South residents as well, were much more

likely than north residents and merchants to report that "Ponca City police always exhibit professional conduct." A significant group, about 83% of South residents believed that "the police always exhibit professional conduct." Only 64% of north residents and 59% of merchants respectively, agreed with this aspect of police and police services.

A similar examination of the three population groups on items assessing neighborhood problems was carried out. The results are presented in Table A-XXI (Appendix A). Merchants were significantly different from both north and south residents in reporting that disorderly youthful gangs and/or groups was a big problem in their neighborhood. On this measure, more variation was being observed, especially among merchants and south residents. A significant group, 76% of merchants, believed that youthful gangs are a large problem in their neighborhood. This belief was shared by just 46% of north residents, and 38% of south residents. All three categories, north residents, south residents, and merchants were significantly different from each other in reporting that teenage crime is a big problem in their neighborhood. While both north residents and merchants were significantly different from south residents in reporting that frequent street fighting and/or people loitering on the corners remain a big neighborhood problem, a significant group, 39% of north residents, and 53% of merchants shared this belief. On the other hand, only 19% of south residents shared this opinion. Finally, north residents were significantly more likely than south residents and merchants to believe that tall grass was a big problem in their neighborhood.

A similar examination of the three groups on items assessing neighborhood needs was carried out. Table A-XXII (Appendix A) presented these results. North and south

residents were significantly different from merchants in their perceptions of neighborhood needs. Higher percentages of north residents (69%) and south residents (66%) felt that "city-funded tutors for neighborhood children after school and on weekend will be a good way to help their neighborhoods." A smaller percentage of merchants (41%) share this opinion. Similarly, north and south residents were significantly more likely than the merchants to share the opinion that "providing affordable educational opportunities for the adults will be a good way to help their neighborhoods." A significant group, 73% of north residents and 70% of south residents, respectively, shared this belief.

However, only 53% of merchants shared this opinion. Finally, in terms of other city-funded programs, north and south residents remained significantly different from merchants. For instance, while a significant group of north and south residents (68% and 66% respectively) supported building a recreational center and/organized activities for neighborhood children and adults, only 44% of merchants shared this belief. Likewise, whereas significant percentages of north residents (60%) and south residents (55%) shared the belief that "planning more organized outings/other activities for the elderly will be a good way to help their neighborhoods," only 32% of merchants agreed with this aspect of neighborhood needs.

Finally, the three population groups on items assessing quality of neighborhood contact were examined. Table A-XXIII (Appendix A) presented these results. Both north and south residents, as well as merchants were highly similar in their perceptions of quality of police contact. Merchants were, however, significantly different from north

and south residents in reporting that "officers who patrol my neighborhood are generally polite to me." While a significant percentage of merchants (91%) shared this opinion, smaller percentages of north and south residents (79% and 75%, respectively) shared this opinion. On the other hand, south residents and merchants were significantly different from north residents in reporting that "police officers have generally cared about me as a person." In contrast to north residents (51%) sharing this feeling, significant percentages of south residents (66%) and merchants (68%) shared this opinion. Even though all three population groups were similar in terms of their beliefs in working with the police to make their neighborhoods better place to live, south residents were significantly different from north residents and merchants in this aspect of quality of police contact. Finally, 88% of south residents would work with the police to make their neighborhood a better place to live. This compared with 98% and 90%, respectively, of north residents and merchants reporting that they would work with the police to make their neighborhood a better place to live.

Summary and Conclusions

The results of the percent frequencies among North area, South area, and Merchant sample respondents in their perceptions of fear related crime, quality of police services, neighborhood conditions, and neighborhood needs showed broad reductions overall in negative perceptions in each category over the three years. For North area respondents, all seven of the attitudinal items measuring fear of crime (Table A-IV - Appendix A) show reductions between 1997 and 1999. Among South area respondents,

again all seven of the attitudinal items measuring fear of crime (Table A-IX - Appendix A) showed reductions between 1997 and 1999. Finally, among Merchant respondents, four of the seven items measuring fear of crime (Table A-XIV - Appendix A) showed reductions between 1997 and 1999. Two showed slight increases from 1997. One item (property crime victimization) showed a larger increase in public fear between 1997 and 1999.

The results of the percent frequencies for all three categories in their general attitudes toward the police and police services shows a consistent increase in positive perceptions of police and police services over the three years. Among North area respondents, all thirteen of the attitudinal items measuring public attitudes toward the police and police services (Table A-V - Appendix A) show an increase in positive feelings between 1997 and 1999. Among South area respondents, ten out of the 13 items measuring public attitudes toward the police and police services (Table A-X - Appendix A) show an increase in positive feelings between 1997 and 1999. Among Merchants, seven out of the 13 items measuring attitudes toward the police and police services (Table A-XV - Appendix A) show reductions between 1997 and 1999. The four items not showing reductions, show slight increases in negative perceptions between 1997 and 1999.

The results of the percent frequency for all three categories in their assessment of neighborhood problems and needs showed a consistent improvement in community members' perception of neighborhood problems and needs being effectively addressed. Among North area respondents, seven out of the eight items measuring perception of

neighborhood problems (Table A-VI - Appendix A) showed reductions between 1997 and 1999. Among South area respondents, five out of the eight items measuring perception of neighborhood problems (Table A-XI - Appendix A) showed reductions between 1997 and 1999. One item that did not show reduction (teenage crime) also did not show an increase. Among Merchants, four out of the eight items measuring perception of neighborhood problems (Table A-XVI - Appendix A) showed reductions between 1997 and 1999.

For the items measuring neighborhood needs, among North area respondents (Table A-VII - Appendix A), all 5 of the attitudinal items showed an increase between 1997 and 1999 in North area residents' perception of the neighborhood benefiting from wider city-funded services. Among South area respondents (Table A-XII - Appendix A), all five of the attitudinal items showed an increase between 1997 and 1999 as well in South area residents' perception of their neighborhood benefiting from wider city-funded services. Among Merchants, three out of the five items (Table A-XVII - Appendix A) showed increase support between 1997 and 1999. Finally, all three categories showed community members to consistently express a strong positive attitude toward the quality of personal contact they have had with the police.

One of the primary interests in this initial exploring of the data was to make an early assessment of the effectiveness of the neighborhood-based community-policing program in contributing to an improved quality of neighborhood life. Given the reductions in fear of crime, neighborhood problems and needs, and equally the increased positive feelings of residents toward the police and the services they are providing to the

neighborhood, it appeared that an early examination points to the effectiveness of the structure of neighborhood-oriented policing that has been put in place in the Westside neighborhood community.

Finally, in setting up the cross-tabulations, it was sought to determine how varied the three groups were in their perception of the prevalence of fear of crime, neighborhood problems, needs, and other aspects of neighborhood conditions at the start of implementing neighborhood-oriented policing in 1997. The results of the cross-tabulations showed a highly similar experience among Westside community members in the perceptions that they bring to their risk of being a crime victim. Only two out of the 21 relationships show statistical significance at the .10 level. Thus, on the majority of attitudinal probes, North residents, South residents, and Merchants did not differ significantly in their perceptions of their risk of being a victim of crime.

In comparing North residents, South residents, and Merchants in their perceptions of police and police services, location within the community as well as the status of resident or merchant appeared to be important in the attitudes observed. There was a registering of some differences between the three groups in their opinion of the police and the quality of police services. Eight of the 33 relationships show statistical significance at the point .10 level or higher. Nevertheless, on most of the attitudinal relationships, no significant differences between the three groups were observed. With a few exceptions, members of this community at the start of neighborhood community policing tended to share a generally similar opinion of the police, and the services they provide.

In comparing North residents, South residents, and Merchants in their assessments of neighborhood problems and neighborhood needs, merchants were more likely than residents to identify gangs/groups, teenage crime, and street fights/loitering on corners as being big problems in the neighborhood. On other matters relating to the appearance and physical environment of the neighborhood, North and South residents and merchants registered a highly similar opinion on their perception of the appearance and physical environment of the neighborhood. In comparing residents and merchants in their assessments of neighborhood needs, North and South residents were much more open to seeing their neighborhood benefitting from a wider amount of city-funded services such as funding tutors for neighborhood children, and providing affordable educational opportunities for adults in the neighborhood, compared to merchants.

Finally, the results of the cross-tabulations suggested a highly similar group of residents and merchants in seeing the politeness, helpfulness, and general care that police officers have shown in the encounters they have had with police. While highly favorable on all attitudinal items as well, North residents did report a slightly higher negative perception of police in their contact with them than South residents and merchants, at the start of implementation of neighborhood-oriented policing.

CHAPTER V

PROGRAM ELEMENTS OF NEIGHBORHOOD-ORIENTED COMMUNITY POLICING: TEST OF HYPOTHESES AND CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I specified the individual items making up the program elements in neighborhood community policing philosophy. I constructed the factor loadings and communality of the proposed program scale items. I further assessed the scale constructs for their appropriate validity and reliability. I examined the correlations of the proposed scales, public opinion of police services and public opinion of Ponca City police officers, for the opportunity to proceed with dividing this construct for purposes of hypothesis testing as originally proposed in Chapter III. Finally, I tested the hypotheses linking program elements to the dependent variable as set out in Chapter III. To specify the link between the program elements and the dependent variable, I carried out several regression equations utilizing ordinary least square principles. Appropriate controls for the influence of several demographic factors were built into the analysis. Finally, stepwise regression procedures were brought to an examination of the relative importance of each program element to predicting the successful outcome of neighborhood community policing program efforts. Analyses were presented for each survey year.

An Examination of Scale Items For 1997

Factor analytical procedures bring to social research studies the opportunities for creating successful multiple-item scales and constructs that improve the chances for increased precision and accuracy in measuring otherwise highly abstract social concepts and variables. I utilized these resources in developing a set of proposed dimensions of neighborhood community policing philosophy. A principal interest is in determining the best grouping of individual attitudinal items providing a measure of neighborhood community policing programmatic elements. I explored the possibilities for such scale construction and development utilizing data reduction processes of principal-component analysis. Factor analysis utilizing principal-component procedures is a method of transforming a given set of individual variable items into a new set of component variables that are uncorrelated to each other.

The interest is in creating the best combination of variables on the basis of the intercorrelations exhibited in the data. The result is a variable or scale whose individual items exercise high inter-relatedness, and inviting evidence of a singular construct. I brought these procedures to an examination of the scale items utilizing first the 1997 survey data. Factor analysis involving principal component extraction and varimax rotation yielded six original factors in examining the data in 1997. Four of the six factors were associated with variables I had hypothesized to be relevant based on theory. The variables in each group were factor analyzed. Factor analysis yielded one factor. As a result, the solutions could not be rotated. The findings provided evidence of validity to the constructs in terms of the indicators measuring only one underlying trait.

Table BI (Appendix B) presented the factor loadings and communality for items measuring the construct, program context. Factor loadings having absolute values exceeding .32 or more were considered significant. The factor loadings vary from .67 to .79. This would indicate a high degree of construct validity. An examination of correlations among this construct's indicators point to evidence of the convergent validity of the scale. The four indicators of context were moderately correlated with one another (the range is from .17 to .52) and highly significant ($p<.001$). Table BI also shows Cronbach's alpha for the four items measuring the construct, program context, at .74, suggesting high reliability.

Table BII (Appendix B) presented the factor loadings and communality for items measuring the construct, program identification. The factor loadings vary from .43 to .78. This would likewise point to evidence of high construct validity. An examination of correlations among the construct's indicators point to evidence of convergent validity to the scale. The five indicators of identification were moderately correlated with one another (this range is from .20 to .52) and are highly significant ($p<.001$). Table BII further shows Cronbach's alpha for the five items measuring the construct, program identification, at .73, suggesting again high reliability.

Table BIII (Appendix B) presented the factor loading and communality for items measuring the construct, program intervention. The factor loadings varied from .53 to .82. This as well would point to evidence of high construct validity. In addition, an examination of correlations among the indicators of the construct point to the direction of convergent validity to the scale. The five indicators of intervention were highly

correlated with one another (this range is from .42 to .67) and more highly significant ($p<.001$). Table BIII further showed Cronbach's alpha for the five items measuring the construct, program intervention, at .84, again suggesting a high reliability.

Table BIV (Appendix B) presented the factor loadings and communality for items measuring the construct, program evaluation. The factor loadings varied from .42 to .83. This would again point to evidence of high construct validity. An examination of correlations among the indicators of the construct point to evidence of convergent validity to the scale. The ten indicators of evaluation were highly correlated with one another (this range is from .21 to .68) and were highly significant ($p<.001$). Table BIV additionally showed Cronbach's alpha for the ten items measuring evaluation at .89. This would further point to evidence of reliability.

Table BV (Appendix B) presented the correlations among the four constructs. Where correlations among constructs were not exceedingly high, this would suggest evidence of discriminant validity to the proposed constructs. Correlation coefficients varied between .03 and .25. Correlations among the four scales suggested that the constructs are sufficiently independent. Given the findings, I believed the data clearly provided evidence of the presence of the constructs which were hypothesized to influence the outcome of neighborhood-oriented community policing programs. The exploratory factor analysis revealed evidence of construct validity to the four program scales. The inter-item correlation test revealed the consistency of the scale group indicators, and thus provided evidence of the convergent validity of the program scales. The correlations among the four scales further suggested evidence of the scales being highly discriminant.

Finally, the reliability test reveals the internal consistency of the four constructs. Given these results for the 1997 data, I moved to an examination of the scale items for 1998.

An Examination of Scale Items For 1998

Factor analysis involving principal component extraction and varimax rotation yielded eight original factors in examining the data in 1998. Five of the eight factors were associated with variables I had hypothesized to be relevant based on theory. The variables in each group were factor analyzed. Factor analysis yielded two factors for one grouping of variables. Both factors were associated with variables I had hypothesized to be relevant based on theory. Each group was factor analyzed, factor analysis yielded this time one factor. For each remaining grouping of variables, principal component extraction and varimax rotation yielded one factor. As a result, the solutions could not be rotated for this second grouping of variables. Finally, two factors contained variable items originally proposed as representing one component. I adopted the variable group with the strongest loadings to then represent the remaining construct. These findings provided evidence of validity to the constructs in terms of the indicators measuring only one underlying trait.

Table BVI (Appendix B) presented the factor loadings and communality for items measuring the construct, program context for 1998. The factor loading varied from .64 to .80. This indicated a high degree of construct validity. An examination of correlations among this construct's indicator point to evidence of convergent validity. The five indicator of context were moderately correlated with one another (the range is from .25 to

.58) and highly significant at (p.<001). Additionally, Table BVI showed Cronbach's alpha for the five items measuring the construct, program context at .78, suggesting high reliability.

Table BVII (Appendix B) presented the factor loadings and communality for items measuring the construct, program identification. The factor loadings varied .48 to .78. This would point to evidence of high of construct validity. An examination of correlations among this construct's indicators pointed also to evidence of convergent validity. The five indicators of identification were moderately correlated to one another (the range is .14 to .50) and highly significant (p<.001). Finally, the Cronbach's alpha for the five items measured the construct, program context at .70 point to evidence high reliability.

Table BVIII (Appendix B) presented the factor loadings and communality for items measuring the construct, program intervention. The factor loadings varied from .70 to .86 and pointed to evidence of high construct validity. An examination of correlations among the construct's indicators revealed evidence to convergent validity of the scale. The five indicators of intervention were highly correlated with one another (the range is from .44 to .70) and highly significant (p<.001). Finally, Cronbach's alpha for the five items measured the construct, program intervention at .85, points to evidence of high reliability.

Table BIX (Appendix B) presented the factor loadings and communality for items measuring, the construct, program evaluation. The factor loadings varied from .31 to .81 and, thus pointed to evidence of high construct validity. An examination of correlations

among the construct's indicators would also point to evidence of convergent validity of the scale. With a range of .30 to .63, the eight indicators of evaluation were highly correlated with one another and highly significant ($p<.01$). Finally, Table BIX showed Crobanch's alpha for the eight items measuring the construct, program evaluation, at .84, indicating a high degree of reliability.

Table BX (Appendix B) presented the correlations among the four constructs for 1998. Where the correlations among constructs were not exceedingly high, this would point to evidence of discriminant validity to the proposed constructs. Correlation coefficients varied between .01 to .16. Correlations among the four scales pointed to evidence of the constructs being sufficiently independent. Given these results, the researcher concluded that data clearly showed evidence of the presence of the constructs predicted as influencing neighborhood-oriented community- policing program outcome. There was also evidence of construct validity to the four program scales as indicated by exploratory factor analysis. Further, the inter-item correlation test showed consistency of the scale group indicators. Likewise, this provided evidence of convergent validity of the program scales. The correlations among the four scales as well pointed to evidence of the scales being highly discriminant.

Finally, there is evidence of internal consistency of our proposed constructs provided by the reliability test. Given these findings for the 1998 data, the resercher proceeded to an examination of the scale items for 1999.

An Examination of Scale Items For 1999

Factor analysis involving principal component extraction and varimax rotation yielded six original factors in examining the data in 1999. Four of the six factors were associated with variables the researchr had hypothesized to be relevant based on theory. The variables in each group were factor analyzed. Factor analysis yielded two factors for one grouping of variables. Both factors were associated with variables hypothesized to be relevant based on theory. Each group was factor analyzed, factor analysis yielded one factor. For each remaining grouping of variables, principal component extraction and varimax rotation yielded one factor. As a result, the solutions could not be rotated for this second grouping of variables. Finally, again, two factors contained variable items originally proposed as representing one component. Both groups had extremely high loadings. I adopted the variable group with the greater number of loadings to then represent the remaining construct. The findings provided evidence of validity to the constructs in terms of the indicators measuring only one underlying trait.

Table BXI (Appendix B) presents the factor loadings and communality for items measuring the construct, program context for 1999. The factor loadings varied from .54 to .79, and pointed to evidence of high construct validity. Further examination of correlations among the construct's indicator also revealed evidence of convergent validity to the scale. The six indicators of context were highly correlated with one another (the range is from .23 to .56) and highly significant ($p<.001$). Cronbach's alpha for the six items the construct, program context was at .77. This suggested evidence of high reliability.

Table BXIV (Appendix B) presented the correlations among the four constructs. Where correlations among constructs were exceedingly high, this pointed to evidence of discriminant validity to the proposed constructs. Correlation coefficients varied between .06 to .38. Correlations among the four scales suggested evidence of the constructs being sufficiently independent. Given the findings, I believed that the data provided clear evidence of the presence of the constructs which were hypothesized to influence the outcomes of neighborhood-oriented policing programs. The exploratory factor analysis pointed to evidence of construct validity to the four proposed program scales. The inter-item correlation test revealed the consistency of the scales group indicators, and thus provided evidence of the convergent validity of the program scales. The correlations among the four scales further pointed to evidence of the scale being highly discriminant. Finally, the reliability test showed the internal consistency of the four constructs (see (Table BXV - Appendix B). Given these results for 1999 data, the researcher proceeded to test the hypotheses.

Examining the Correlation Between Public Opinion of Police Officers and Police Services

In Chapter III, I proposed to divide the evaluation measure into two components: (1) items measuring attitudes toward police officers; and (2) items measuring public attitudes toward police services. While both provided an assessment for determining the outcome of neighborhood community policing program efforts, the researcher believed the two component held the possibility for being sufficiently independent to function as two separate variable group scales. The factor analyses have shown these items to group

together into one single scale. This is evident in Tables BIV, BVIII, and BXIV, all shown in Appendix B, where items measuring public attitudes toward police officers, and items measuring public attitudes toward police services sit as a single construct based on the results of previous factor analyses. An examination of the correlation between scale items measuring attitudes toward police officers and a separate scale measuring attitudes toward police services showed a correlation coefficient for both scales of .817, and highly significant ($p=<.0001$). This effectively removed the opportunity to assign attitudes toward police officers to the group of independent variables for purposes of this research study. Instead, I made the decision to retain attitudes toward police officers and attitudes toward services as a permanent dependent variable in this study. Thus, I modified the hypothesized statements from Chapter III to exclude hypotheses 7 and 8. What were originally those numbered hypotheses are excluded. What was originally hypothesis 9 is now hypothesis 7. I also modified the hypothesized statements from Chapter III to include items assessing public attitudes toward Ponca City police officers as a component of the dependent variable. The reconstituted hypothesized statements follow below:

I. Context is negatively related to our dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services.

II. Context is a stronger predictor of our dependent variable than any single control group variable.

III. Identification is negatively related to our dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services.

IV. Identification is a stronger predictor of our dependent variable than any single control group variable.

V. Intervention is positively related to our dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services.

VI. Intervention is a stronger predictor of our dependent variable than any single control group variable.

VII. Each element of neighborhood community policing program philosophy brings an equal contribution to predicting our dependent variable, attitudes toward police services/officers.

We now can proceed with a test of our hypotheses.

An Examination of the Effects of Three Program Elements

On Attitudes Toward Police Officers

Police Services (1997)

In Chapter V, I presented seven hypotheses as the major analytical criteria for carrying out this study. I tested these hypotheses using the 1997 data. The first of these hypotheses were presented as follows:

Hypothesis I. Context is negatively related to the dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services.

This hypothesis was tested by regressing the evaluation measure (i.e., attitudes toward police officers/services) with the construct measuring program context. The

results for 1997 were displayed in Table BXVI (Appendix B). The unstandardized coefficients in this table should be interpreted as the difference between sample group participants, within the relevant category. For example, the -.252 coefficient among minorities on their attitudes toward police officers/services means that minorities relative to whites in this sample are 25 percent more negative toward police officers/services. On the other hand, the .009 coefficient at the top of the middle column meant that very little difference in attitudes toward police officers/services existed among this sample population that would be conditioned by a distinct context for each. The first column of regression coefficients labeled "without controls," indicated that context was the only independent variable in the equation. The regression coefficient showed that context has a weak positive effect on attitudes toward police officers/services. Further, context was accounting for the most minimum amount of the variance in attitudes toward police officers/services, .001. The direction of the regression coefficient was opposite to the above stated hypothesis. Given these findings, this data does not appear to support hypothesis I.

Hypothesis II. Context is a stronger predictor of our dependent variable than any single control group variable.

Table BXVI (Appendix B) presented further results providing a test of Hypothesis II. This hypothesis was tested by regressing the dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services with the construct, program context, in addition to incorporating several control group variables. In this analysis, race was being treated as a dummy

variable, with minority being assigned 1 and the category of race entered into the equation, while whites were assigned 0 and represented the reference category. Age was also treated as a dummy variable with less that 65 assigned 1 and the category of age entered into the equation, while greater than 65 is assigned 0 and constituted the reference category. Females are originally coded 1 in the data. Males are originally coded 0, and are the reference category for gender. City residence was treated as a dummy variable with less than 6 years residence assigned 1 and the category of the variable entered into the equation, while greater than 6 years is assigned 0 and constituted the reference category. Household income was also treated as a dummy variable with less than $14,000.00 assigned 1 and the category of household income entered into the equation, while greater than $14,000.00 is assigned 0 and is the reference category. Own residence was originally coded 1 in the data for homeownership. Rent residence was originally coded 0, and was the reference category for the homeownership variable.

The second column of regression coefficients labeled "with controls," indicated that the effect of context was estimated while controlling for the effect of gender, race, and age. The estimates indicated that context has the least important effect of the four variables in the regression model. The R square value at .06 for the four variables in the model indicated the greater importance of at least two of the three demographic variables over context in their effect on attitudes toward police officers/services.

The third column of regression coefficients labeled "with controls," indicated that the effect of context was estimated while controlling for the effect of city residence, household income, and homeownership. The estimates indicated that context has no

greater effect than the remaining group of control variables on attitudes toward police officers/services. The R square at .01 for the four variable group model suggested this group of variables add little appreciably to explaining the dependent variable. Given these findings, the data did not appear to support hypothesis II.

Hypothesis III. Identification is negatively related to our dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services.

Table BXVII (Appendix B) presented analyses for carrying out a test of the third hypothesis. This hypothesis was tested by regressing attitudes toward police officers/services with the construct measuring program identification. The results were displayed in Table BXVII (Appendix B). The first column of regression coefficients labeled "without controls," indicated that identification was the only independent variable in the equation. The regression estimate showed identification had an important negative effect on our measure of program evaluation. Identification alone accounted for 4.2 percent of the variance in the program evaluation measure. The direction of the regression coefficient was further consistent with the stated hypothesis. Given these findings, the data did provide strong support for hypothesis III.

Hypothesis IV. Identification is a stronger predictor of our dependent variable than any single control group variable.

Table BXVII (Appendix B) presented additional results in providing a test of our fourth hypothesis. This hypothesis was tested by regressing the program evaluation

measure (i.e., attitudes toward police officers/services) with identification, along with incorporating several control group variables. As previously, race was treated as a dummy variable, with minority being assigned 1 and the category of race entered into the equation, while whites were assigned 0 and represented the reference category. Age was treated as a dummy variable with less than 65 assigned 1 and the category of age entered into the equation, while greater than 65 is assigned 0 and make up the reference category. Females were originally coded 1 in the data. Males were originally coded 0, and constituted the reference category for gender. City residence was treated as a dummy variable with less than 6 years residence assigned 1 and the category of the variable entered into the equation, while greater than 6 years was assigned 0 and constituted the reference category. Household income was also treated as a dummy variable with less than $14,000.00 assigned 1 and the category of household income entered into the equation, while greater than $14,000.00 is assigned 0 and was the reference category. Own residence was originally coded 1 in the data for homeownership. Rent residence was originally coded 0, and was the reference category for the homeownership variable.

The second column of regression coefficients labeled "with controls," showed the effect of identification while controlling for the effect of gender, race, and age. The regression estimates indicated that identification had a significant negative effect on the program evaluation measure. Race and age were also observed to have a significant effect on the program evaluation measure. The combined effects of the four variables in the model accounted for 10.1 percent of the variance in the evaluation construct. Thus, gender, race, and age by themselves contributed about 6 percent to explaining the

dependent variable and program evaluation measure. This combined effect is less than the 4.2 percent identification alone brought to explaining the dependent variable.

The third column of regression coefficients labeled "with controls" shows the effect of identification while controlling for the effect of city residence, household income, and homeownership. The regression coefficients indicate that identification has a significant negative effect on our measure of program evaluation. The combined effect of the four variables in the model accounts for 5.3 percent of the variance in the evaluation construct. Thus, city residence, household income, and homeownership contribute only about 1 percent of the variance in the evaluation construct. This combined effect is less than the 4.2 percent identification by itself brings to explaining our dependent variable. Given these findings, the data does support hypothesis IV.

Hypothesis V. Intervention is positively related to our dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services.

Table BXVIII (Appendix B) presents analyses for carrying out a test of our fifth hypothesis. This hypothesis was tested by regressing our measure for program evaluation with our construct measuring intervention. The results are displayed in Table BXVIII. The first column of regression coefficients labeled "without controls" again indicates that intervention was the only independent variable in the equation. The regression estimate shows intervention has a significant negative effect on our program evaluation construct. Intervention by itself accounts for 2 percent of the variance in the program evaluation

construct. The negative direction of the regression coefficient is opposite to our stated hypothesis. Given these findings, the data does not provide support for hypothesis V.

Hypothesis VI. Intervention is a stronger predictor of our dependent variable than any single control group variable.

Table BXVIII (Appendix B) presents further results in providing a test of hypothesis VI. This hypothesis was tested by regressing the program evaluation construct with intervention, along with incorporating several control group variables. Race is treated as a dummy variable, with minority being assigned 1 and the category of race entered into the equation, while whites were assigned 0 and represent the reference category. Age is treated as a dummy variable with less than 65 assigned 1 and the category of age entered into the equation, while greater than 65 is assigned 0 and make up the reference category. Females are coded 1 in the data. Males are coded 0, and constitute the reference category. City residence is treated as a dummy variable with less than 6 years residence assigned 1 and the category of the variable entered into the equation, while greater than 6 years is assigned 0 and constituted the reference category. Household income is also treated as a dummy variable with less than $14,000.00 assigned 1 and the category of household income entered into the equation, while greater than $14,000.00 is assigned 0 and is the reference category. Own residence is originally coded 1 in the data for homeownership. Rent residence is originally coded 0, and is the reference category for the homeownership variable.

The second column of regression coefficients labeled "with controls" shows the effect of intervention while controlling for the effect of gender, race, and age. The regression estimate indicates that intervention has a negative effect on our program evaluation measure. This is opposite to the stated hypothesis. Race and age are also observed to have a significant effect on the evaluation construct. The combined effects of the four variables in the model account for 7.1 percent of the variance in the evaluation construct. Thus, gender, race, and age alone contribute about 5 percent to explaining program evaluation. This combined effect is greater than the 2 percent intervention alone brings to explaining our dependent variable. The researcher cannot reject the possibility that one or more of the control group variables provide an equal predictable strength as intervention, to explaining program evaluation. Given these findings, the data does not support hypothesis VI.

The third column of regression coefficients labeled "with controls" indicates that the effect of intervention was estimated while controlling for the effect of city residence, household income, and homeownership. The estimates indicate that intervention has a significant negative effect on the program evaluation construct. Again, this is opposite to the stated hypothesis. The combined effect of the four variables in the model accounts for 2.7 percent of the variance in program evaluation. Thus, the control variables in this model contribute much less than intervention to explaining the program evaluation construct. The researcher cannot reject the possibility that one or more of the control group variables provide an equal predictable strength as intervention, to our program evaluation measure. Like the second column, this set of data does not support hypothesis VI.

Hypothesis VII. Each element of neighborhood community policing program philosophy brings an equal contribution to predicting our dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services.

Table BXIX (Appendix B) presents results providing a test of hypothesis VII. Analyses presented under Model 1 in Table BXIX reflect those program variables entered on the basis a pre-established statistical criteria. The researcher applied in the current analyses stepwise inclusion regression procedures which permit an isolation of those subsets of variables that will yield the best or optimal prediction equation to explained variance (i.e. in establishing the best independent predictor variables in explaining the dependent variable). Variables that do not meet the pre-established criterion are excluded from the equation. These procedures thus provided the basis for examining the relative strength of each independent program variable to explaining the dependent variable in this research (attitudes toward police officers/services). Model 1 reflects those independent variables that met the criteria for not being excluded as an optimal or best predictor of attitudes toward police officers/services. Identification remains the lone survivor variable, and thus provides the best predictor of program evaluation measure (i.e. attitudes toward police officers/services). Model 2 examines the relative strength of the two excluded variables, context and intervention, to explaining the program evaluation construct. Both context and intervention combined contribute only half of the explained variance to attitudes toward police officers/services. Model 3 isolates the context program construct and shows it to contribute the most minimum to explaining our program evaluation measure. Finally, model 4 present the combined effects of each of

the program constructs. The R square for model 4 shows the combined effect of the program elements to account for 6 percent of the variance in attitudes toward police officers/services. Context clearly adds very little to predicting our program evaluation measure. While intervention provide roughly half the value of identification to explaining our program evaluation measure. Given these findings, the reseracher cannot claim that each independent program element bring an equal contribution to explaining our measure of program evaluation.

Summary and Conclusion

The data supported two of the seven hypotheses. Hypotheses III and IV were supported. Hypotheses I, II, V, VI, and VII were not supported. Identification as a program element is proving the most successful in explaining our measure of program evaluation. The predicted direction of what would be the nature of the relationship between identification and program evaluation is being demonstrated with this data. Also, the expectation that identification will provide a stronger predictor to our program evaluation measure than the control group variables is being demonstrated with this data. The predicted direction of what would be the nature of the relationship between intervention and program evaluation is supported with this data. Additionally, context is neither showing the direction of the predicted relationship with program evaluation, or that it provides a stronger predictor to the program evaluation measure than the control group variables. Further, intervention is not showing the direction of the predicted relationship with program evaluation. It is also not proving to be a stronger predictor to

program evaluation than the control group variables. Finally, the program elements do not provide an equal contribution to predicting our program evaluation measure. Identification makes more of a contribution to the dependent variable than context and intervention by themselves.

An Examination of the Effects of Three Program Elements on Attitudes Toward Police Officers/Police Services (1998)

Again in Chapter III, we presented seven hypotheses as the major analytical criteria for carrying out this study. The researcher tested these hypotheses here using the 1998 data. The first of these hypotheses were presented as follows:

Hypothesis I. Context is negatively related to our dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services.

This hypothesis was tested by regressing the evaluation measure (i.e. attitudes toward police officers/services) with the measure for program construct. The results for 1998 are displayed in Table BXX (Appendix B) The first column of regression coefficients labeled "without controls" indicate that context was the only independent variable in the equation. The regression coefficient shows that context exercises a significant negative effect on the program evaluation measure. Context alone accounts for 1.5 percent of the variance in the program evaluation construct. The direction of the regression coefficient is consistent with the above stated hypothesis. Given these findings, the data does provide support for hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis II. Context is a stronger predictor of our dependent variable than any single control group variable.

Table BXX (Appendix B) present further results providing a test of hypothesis II. The researcher tested this hypothesis by regressing the dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services with the program context construct, in addition to incorporating several control group variables. In our analyses, race again is treated as a dummy variable, with minority being assigned 1 and the category of race entered into the equation, while whites were assigned 0 and constitute the reference category. Age is further treated as a dummy variable with less than 65 assigned 1 and the category of age entered into the equation, while greater than 65 is assigned 0 and represent the reference category. City residence is treated as a dummy variable with less than 6 years residence assigned 1 and the category of the variable entered into the equation, while greater than 6 years is assigned 0 and constitute the reference category. Females were originally coded 1 in the data. Males were originally coded 0, and are the reference category for gender.

The second column of regression coefficients labeled "with controls" shows that the effect of context was estimated while controlling for the effect of gender and race. The estimates indicate that context has a significant negative effect on our program evaluation measure. Gender also exercises a significant negative effect on our program evaluation construct. The combined effects of the three variables in the model account for 4.6 percent of the variance in the evaluation construct. The combined effect is greater than the 1.5 percent context alone brings to explaining the dependent variable. Because race is shown to exercise no effect on program evaluation, the greater differences in the

magnitude of the effect of context and gender combined in column 2, and context alone in column 1, can thus be attributed to gender. Gender is proving to have as much an effect on program evaluation as context. Given this finding, the data is not proving supportive of hypothesis II.

The third column of regression estimates labeled "with controls" indicates that the effect of context was estimated while controlling for the effect of age and city residence. The regression coefficient indicate that context has a significant negative effect on our measure of program evaluation. Age also exercises a significant negative effect on the program evaluation construct. The combined effect of the three variables in the model account for 4.2 percent of the variance in the evaluation construct. The combined effect is again greater than the 1.5 percent, context alone brings to explaining our dependent variable. Given the highly significant regression estimate for age, the data is showing the age variable to have as much effect on the program evaluation construct as context. Again, the data is not proving supportive of hypothesis II.

Hypothesis III. Identification is negatively related to our dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services.

Table BXXI (Appendix B) presents analyses for carrying out a test of our third hypothesis. The researcher tested this hypothesis by regressing attitudes toward police officers/services with our construct measuring program identification. The results are displayed in Table BXXI The first column of regression coefficients labeled "without controls" indicates that identification was the only independent variable in the equation.

The regression estimate shows identification has a significant negative effect on the measure of program evaluation. Identification alone accounts for 2.2 percent of the variance in program evaluation. The direction of the regression coefficient is likewise consistent with our stated hypothesis. Given these findings, data does provide strong support for hypothesis III.

Hypothesis IV. Identification is a stronger predictor of the dependent variable, than any single control group variable.

Table BXXI (Appendix B) presents further results in providing a test of the fourth hypothesis. The researcher tested this hypothesis by regressing program evaluation with identification, along with incorporating several control group variables. Race is treated as a dummy variable, with minority being assigned 1 and the category of race entered into the equation, while whites were assigned 0 and represented the reference category. Age is treated as a dummy variable with less than 65 assigned 1 and the category of age entered into the equation, while greater than 65 is assigned 0 and constitute the reference category. City residence is treated as a dummy variable with less than 6 years residence assigned 1 and the category of the variable entered into the equation, while greater than 6 years is assigned 0 and constitute the reference category. Females are originally coded 1 in the data. Males are originally coded 0, and constitute the reference category.

The second column of regression coefficients labeled "with controls" shows the effect of identification while controlling for the effect of gender and race. The regression coefficients indicate that identification has a significant negative effect on program

evaluation. Gender also has a significant effect on program evaluation. The combined effects of the three variables in the model account for 3.9 percent of the variance in the evaluation construct. Removing the effects of identification would reduce the magnitude of the explained variance for gender and race to about 1.7 percent. The effect for gender and race is, thus, generally less than the 2.2 percent, identification alone brings to explaining our dependent variable.

The third column of regression coefficients labeled "with controls" shows the effect of identification while controlling for the effect of age and city residence. The regression coefficient indicates that identification has significant negative effect on the measure of program evaluation. Age also has a significant effect on our program evaluation measure. The combined effects of the three variables in the model account for 3.9 percent of the variance in program evaluation. Again, removing the effects of identification would reduce the magnitude of the explained variance for age and city residence to about 1.7 percent. The effect for age and city residence is, thus, generally less than the 2.2 percent, identification alone brings to explaining our dependent variable. Given both findings, the data provide support for hypothesis IV.

Hypothesis V. Intervention is positively related to our dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services.

Table BXXII (Appendix B) provide analyses for carrying out a test of the fifth hypothesis. The researcher tested this hypothesis by regressing our measure for program evaluation with our construct measuring intervention. The results are displayed in Table BXXII. The first column of regression coefficients labeled "without controls" indicates

that intervention was the only independent variable in the equation. The regression estimate shows intervention has a significant positive effect on the program evaluation measure. Intervention alone accounts for 1.4 percent of the variance in the program evaluation construct. The direction of the regression coefficient is likewise consistent with our stated hypothesis. Given these findings, the data does provide strong support for hypothesis V.

Hypothesis VI. Intervention is a stronger predictor of our dependent variable than any single control group variable.

Table BXXII (Appendix B) presents further results in providing a test of hypothesis VI. The researcher tested the hypothesis by regressing the program evaluation construct with intervention, along with incorporating several control group variables. Race is treated as a dummy variable, with minority assigned 1 and the category of race entered into the equation, while whites were assigned 0 and represent the reference category. Age is treated as a dummy variable with less than 65 assigned 1 and the category entered into the equation, while greater than 65 is assigned 0 and constitute the reference category. City residence is treated as a dummy variable with less than 6 years residence assigned 1 and the category of the variable entered into the equation, while greater than 6 years is assigned 0 and make up the reference category. Females are coded 1 in the data. Males are coded 0, and constitute the reference category.

The second column of regression coefficients labeled "with controls" shows the effect of intervention while controlling for the effect of gender and race. The regression estimates indicate that intervention has a significant positive effect on program evaluation. Gender also exercises a significant positive effect on program evaluation. The combined effect of the three variables in the model account for 3.3 percent of the variance in the program evaluation construct. The combined effect is greater than the 1.4 percent, intervention by itself brings to explaining our dependent variable. Removing the effects of intervention would reduce the magnitude of the explained variance for gender and race to about 1.9 percent. The effect for gender and race is, thus, generally less than the 1.7 percent, intervention alone brings to explaining our dependent variable. These findings are not providing a reason to reject hypothesis VI.

The third column of regression estimates labeled "with controls" shows the effect of intervention while controlling for the effect of age and city residence. The regression coefficients indicate that intervention has a significant positive effect on our measure of program evaluation. Age also has a significant effect on our program evaluation measure. The combined effect of the three variables in the model account for 4.6 percent of the variance in the program evaluation construct. Removing the effects of intervention would reduce the magnitude of the explained variance for age and city residence to about 3.2 percent. This combined effect for both control group variables is greater than the 1.4 percent, intervention alone brings to explaining our dependent variable. The researcher cannot reject the possibility that at least one of the control variables provide an equal

predictable strength as intervention to explaining the program evaluation. Given these findings, the data does not support hypothesis VI.

Hypothesis VII. Each element of neighborhood community policing program philosophy brings an equal contribution to predicting our dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services.

Table BXXIII (Appendix B) presents results providing a test of hypothesis VII. The researcher tested in the current analyses stepwise inclusion regression procedures which permit an isolation of those subsets of variables that will yield the best or optimal prediction equation to explained variance (i.e. in establishing the best independent predictor variables in explaining the dependent variable). Analyses presented under Model 1 in Table BXXIII reflect those program variables entered on the basis of a pre-established statistical criteria. Variables that do not meet the pre-established criterion are excluded from the equation. These procedures thus provided a basis for examining the relative strength of each independent program variable to explaining the dependent variable in this research (i.e. attitudes toward police officers/services). Model 1 shows those independent variables that met the criteria for not being excluded as a best predictor of attitudes toward police officers/services. Identification proves the best predictor of the program evaluation measure (i.e. attitudes toward police officers/services). For model 2, we examine the relative strength of the two excluded variables, context and intervention, to explaining the program evaluation measure. Both context and intervention combined contribute an additional 4.3 percent of the explained variance in attitudes toward police

officers/services. Model 3 isolates the context program construct and show it to contribute 1.5 percent of the explained variance to attitudes toward police officers/services. Finally, model 4 presents the combined effects of each of the program constructs. The R square for model 4 shows the combined effect of the program elements to account for 5.3 percent of the variance in attitudes toward police officers/services. Each of these elements are proving to provide roughly equal contribution to explaining our program evaluation measure. Given these findings, the data does provide solid support for hypothesis VII.

Summary and Conclusion

The data supported five of the seven hypotheses. Hypotheses I, III, IV, V, and VII were supported. Hypotheses II, and VI were not supported. Identification is proving to be the most consistent program element in explaining our measure of program evaluation. The predicted direction of what would be the nature of the relationship between identification and program evaluation is further being demonstrated with this data. Context and intervention explain the program evaluation measure on 1 out of 2 each of the original group of 6 hypotheses. The expected direction of the relationship between context and program evaluation is being demonstrated with this data. Likewise, the hypothesized direction of the relationship between intervention and program evaluation is holding true with this data. Finally, each program element is proving to provide an equal contribution to explaining the program evaluation measure.

An Examination of the Effects of Three Program Elements on Attitudes Toward Police Officers/Police Services (1999)

With regard to the seven hypotheses presented in Chapter III as the major analytical criteria for carrying out this study. Likewise, the researcher tested these hypotheses using the data from 1999. The first hypotheses were presented as follow:

Hypothesis I. Context is negatively related to our dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services.

This hypothesis was tested by regressing the evaluation measure (i.e attitudes toward police officers/services) with the measure for program construct. The results for 1999 are displayed in Table BXXIV (Appendix B). The first column of regression coefficient labeled "without control" indicate that context was the only independent variable in the equation. The regression coefficient shows that context exercises a positive effect on our program evaluation measure. Context alone accounts for .003 percent of the variance in the program evaluation construct. Likewise, the direction of the regression coefficient is not consistent with the above stated hypothesis. Given these results, the data that not provide support for hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis II. Context is a stronger predictor of our dependent variable than any single control variable.

Table BXXIV (Appendix B) presents further results which provide for a test of hypothesis II. The researcher tested this hypothesis by regressing the dependent variable,

attitudes toward police officers/services with our program context construct, in addition to several other control group variables. In the analyses, again the researcher treated race as a dummy variable, with minority being assigned 1 and the category of race entered into the equation, while whites were assigned 0 and constitute the reference category. Likewise, age is treated as a dummy variable with less than 65 assigned 1 and the category of age entered into the equation, while greater than 65 is assigned 0 and represent the reference category. City residence is also treated as a dummy variable with less than 6 years residence assigned 1 and the category of the variable entered into the equation, while greater than 6 years is assigned 0 and constitute the reference category. Females were original coded in the data as 1, while males were originally coded as 0, and represent the reference category for gender.

The second column of regression coefficients labeled "with controls" shows that the effect of context was estimated while controlling for the effect of gender and race. The estimates indicate that context has a no significant effect on program evaluation measure. Gender and race also has no significant effect on our program evaluation measure. The combined effects of the three variables in the model account for .01 percent of the variance, suggesting that this group of variables had no appreciable effect on our dependent variable. The combined effect is greater than .003 percent attributed to context alone in explaining the dependent variable. Given this finding, the data does not provide support for hypothesis II.

The third column of regression estimates labeled "with controls" indicates that the effect of context was estimated while controlling for the effect of age and city residence.

The regression coefficient indicate that context has no significant effect on the program evaluation measure. City residence has at least some significant negative effect on the program evaluation construct. The R square at 2.5 percent for the four variable group model is again greater than .003 percent, context alone brings in explaining the dependent variable. The researcher cannot reject that one or more of the control group variables provide an equal or greater strength to explaining program evaluation. Given these findings, the data does not provide support for hypothesis II.

Hypothesis III. Identification is negatively related to our dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services.

Table BXXV (Appendix B) presents analyses for carrying out a test of hypothesis III. The reseacher tested this hypothesis by regressing attitudes toward police officers/services with our construct program identification. The results are shown in Table BXXV. The first column of regression coefficient labeled "without controls" indicates that identification was the only independent variable in the equation. Likewise, the regression estimate indicates that identification has positive effect on the measure of program evaluation. Identification alone accounts for only .005 percent of the program evaluation. The positive direction the of regression coefficient is not opposite with the stated hypothesis. Given these findings the data does not provide support for hypothesis III.

Hypothesis IV. Identification is a stronger predictor of our dependent variable than any single control group variable.

Table BXXV (Appendix B) presents further results in providing a test of our fourth hypothesis. The researcher tested this hypothesis by regressing program evaluation with identification, along with incorporating several control group variables. Race is treated as a dummy variable, with minority being assigned 1 and the category of race entered into the equation, while whites were assigned 0 and represented the reference category. Likewise, age is treated as dummy variable with less than 65 assigned 1 and the category entered into the equation, while greater than 65 is assigned 0 and constitute the reference category. City residence is treated as a dummy variable with less than 6 years residence assigned 1 and the category of variable entered into the equation, while greater than 6 years is assigned 0 and constitute the reference category.

The second column of regression coefficients labeled "with controls" shows the effect of identification while controlling for the effects of gender and race. The regression coefficients show that identification has a positive effect on the program evaluation construct (i.e. attitude toward police officers/services). This is opposite to the stated hypothesis. The combined effects of the three variables in the model account for 1.2 percent of the variance in the evaluation construct. Thus, the effect for gender and race on the dependent variable and program evaluation measure is generally greater than .005 percent, identification alone brings to explaining our dependent variable.

The third column of regression coefficients labeled "with controls" show the effect of identification while controlling for the effects age and city residence. The regression coefficients indicate that identification has a positive effect on our measure of program evaluation. City residence has a significant negative effect on our program

evaluation measure. The combined effects for the three variables account for 2.8 percent of the variance in the program evaluation. The effect for age and city residence is, thus generally greater than the .005 percent, identification alone brings to explaining our dependent variable (i.e. attitudes toward police officers/services). Given theses findings, the data does support for hypothesis IV.

Hypothesis V. Intervention is positively related to our dependent variable attitudes toward police officers/services.

Table BXXVI (Appendix B) presents analyses for carrying out a test of hypothesis V. The researcher tested this hypothesis by regressing our measure of program evaluation with our construct measuring intervention. The results are shown in Table BXXVI. The first column of regression coefficients labeled "without controls" reveals that intervention is the only independent variable in the equation. The regression estimate further shows that intervention has a highly positive effect on program evaluation measure, and account for 3.1 percent of the variance in the program construct. Given that the direction of regression coefficient is consistent with the stated hypothesis, the researcher concluded that the data does provide support for hypothesis V.

Hypothesis VI. Intervention is a stronger predictor of our dependent variable than any single control group variable.

Table BXXVI (Appendix B) provides further results for a test of hypothesis VI. This hypothesis was tested by regressing the program evaluation construct with

intervention, with combining several control group variables. Race and age, and were treated as dummy variables. For race, minority is assigned 1 and the category of race entered into the equation. Whites are assigned 0 and constitute the reference category. For age, less than 65 is assigned 1 and the category entered into the equation, while greater than 65 is assigned 0 and represent the reference category. Likewise city resident is treated as a dummy variable with less than 6 years residence assigned 1 and the category of the variable entered into the equation, while greater than 6 years is assigned 0, and constitute the reference category. Females are coded 1 in the data. Males are again coded 0, and make up the reference category.

The second column of regression coefficients labeled "with controls" indicates the effect of intervention while controlling for gender and race. The regression estimates show that intervention has a significant positive effect on our program evaluation. The combined R square at 3.9 percent for the three variable group model is slightly greater than 3.1 percent intervention along brings to explaining our dependent variable. Given these findings, the data does provide support for hypothesis VI.

The third column of regression coefficients labeled "with controls" shows the effect of intervention while controlling for the effect of age and city residence. The regression coefficients indicate that intervention has a significant positive effect on our program evaluation construct. City residence also has a significant effect on our program evaluation measure. The three variable group model accounts for 5.1 percent of the variance in the evaluation construct. Its magnitude is greater than the combined effect of

the remaining two control variables. Given these findings, the data provide support for hypothesis VI.

Hypothesis VII. Each element of neighborhood community policing program philosophy brings an equal contribution to predicting our dependent variable, attitudes toward police officers/services.

Table BXXVII (Appendix B) presents results providing a test of hypothesis VII. Analyses described under model 1 in Table BXXVII reflect those program variables entered on the basis of a pre-established statistical criteria. The researcher invoked in the current analyses a stepwise inclusion regression procedures which allow for isolation of those subset of variables that will produce the best or optimal prediction equation to explained variance (i.e. in establishing the best independent predictor variables in explaining the dependent variable). Variables that do not meet the pre-established criterion are thus, removed from the equation. In essence, the reseracher provided a basis for testing the relative strength of each independent program variable to explaining the dependent variable in this research (attitudes toward police officers/service). Model 1 shows those independent variables that met the pre-established criterion for not being as the best predictor of program evaluation (i.e. attitudes toward police officers/services). Intervention proves the best predictor of our program evaluation measure (i.e. attitudes toward police officers/services). For model 2, the researcher further examined the relative strength of the two excluded variables (i.e. context and identification) to explaining the program evaluation. Both context and identification had a combined R square or explained variance of .007 percent in the attitudes toward police

officers/services. Finally, model 3 presents the combined effects of each of the program constructs. The R square for model 3 shows the combined effect of the program element to account for 3.2 percent of the variance in attitudes toward police officers/services. Whereas intervention provides value to explaining our program evaluation measure, context and identification add little appreciably to predicting program evaluation (i.e. attitudes toward police officers/services). Given these results, the data does not provide support for hypothesis VII.

Summary and Conclusion

The data supported two of the seven hypotheses. Hypotheses V and VI were supported. Hypotheses I, II, III, IV, and VII were not. Intervention as a program element is proving the most successful in explaining our measure of program evaluation. The predicted direction of what would be the nature of the relationship between intervention and program evaluation is being demonstrated with this data. Also, the expectation that intervention will provide a stronger predictor to our program evaluation measure than the control variables is being demonstrated with this data. Additionally, context and identification are neither showing the direction of the predicted relationship with program evaluation, nor do either provide a stronger predictor to our program evaluation measure than the control group variables.

CHAPTER VI

PROGRAM ELEMENTS OF NEIGHBORHOOD-ORIENTED POLICING: DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

Given persistent urban decay and high levels of crime in the United States, the need for a more proactive crime control strategy is unmistakable. Traditional policing has had limited impact on high crime levels in neighborhoods characterized by high social and economic strain and disorganization. Community-oriented policing program philosophy provides an alternative strategy for involving community residents in a working partnership with the police. The guiding principles for community-oriented policing are innovations in controlling crime, providing public safety, and improving the overall quality of police-community relations. Community policing is premised on direct involvement on the part of neighborhood police officers in the everyday affairs of the community, including perform an active role in educating and steering young children from toward more socially acceptable, and success-oriented patterns of conduct (Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux, 1990). Yet, current literature on community policing points to a lack of a viable theoretical model for testing its program outcomes.

In Chapter II, the researcher reviewed the literature important in providing greater understanding to some of the dynamics of community policing philosophy. The

conceptual model by Albert Cardarelli and Jack McDevitt (1995) incorporate community policing program elements within the context of a proposed conceptual framework for evaluating community policing effectiveness and its impact on public safety. The two would advance a theoretical model for assessing community policing program effectiveness. Within this framework, several elements thought to be critically important in the opportunities to predict the success of community policing programs are identified for their potential interactions on each other, as well as their potential outcome effects. These elements would be found in the principles relating to context, identification, intervention, and evaluation. The model thus, presents a theoretical design for the successful outcome of community policing program strategies. Central to its promise and values in providing for safer neighborhoods and community group life are insights found in the model's attention to social and economic strain, and other conditions creating the seeds for the problems of community disorder and crime within neighborhood settings characterized by high economic dislocation and decline.

Structural changes today found in higher than average unemployment, especially in minority neighborhoods, in the growing number of homeless, produce neighborhood disorganization and thus the needs for innovations found in community policing program philosophy. Cardarelli and McDevitt, for example notes how traditional police policies have proven unsuccessful and misguided in dealing with the homeless. Program evaluation as a component within the theory would allow for important feedback to be received from the evaluations brought to other elements, including context, identification, and intervention centered practices.

The rationale for this analysis was based on various literatures on community policing pointing to lack of a conceptual model for testing the effects of program outcomes centered on neighborhood-oriented crime control initiatives. This research was thus designed to test several proposed models thought to be critically important in evaluating community policing program strategy. It was anticipated that the analysis of these variables would possibly bring a greater precision to defining community policing both conceptually and operationally which should serve as a point of reference to future studies in this area. Examination of these variables focused on three specific research objectives.

The first objective of this research was to determine the value of four conceptually centered elements (i.e; context, identification, intervention, and evaluation) in predicting the outcome of community policing programmatic efforts. The second objective of this research was to determine the usefulness of the four elements in bringing greater precision to the conceptual and operational definitions undergirding community policing programmatic philosophy. The third objective of this research was to determine the relative strength of each of the four elements to the outcomes of community policing program initiatives. I examined objectives 1 and 3 by testing several hypothesized statements. Finally, I examined objective 2 by developing a series of factor analyses. For objective 2, the results for each of the survey years show evidence of high reliability and validity to the elements relating to context, identification, intervention, and evaluation. Additionally, each of the research hypotheses for objectives 1 and 3 are reviewed as resulted are interpreted and explained.

Tests of Hypotheses

The first research hypothesis proposed that context is negatively related to attitudes toward police officers/services. The data for 1997 and 1999 did not support the hypothesis. The results of the regression coefficient show that context has a weak positive relationship to attitudes toward police officers/services. However, the data for 1998 show support for the hypothesis. The second research hypothesis proposed that context is a stronger predictor of attitudes toward police officers/services than any single control group variable. The data from each of the survey years failed to show support for hypothesis II. The third research hypothesis proposed that identification is negatively related to attitudes toward police officers/services. The results of the regression coefficients for 1997 and 1998 show support for hypothesis III. However, data from 1999 did not show support for hypothesis III. The fourth research hypothesis proposed that identification is a stronger predictor of attitudes toward police officers/services than any single control variable. The results of the regression coefficients for 1997 and 1998 show support for hypothesis IV. However, the data for 1999 failed to show support for hypothesis IV.

The fifth research hypothesis proposed that intervention is positively related to attitudes toward police officers/services. The data from 1997did not provide support for the hypothesis. However, the data from 1998 and 1999 show support for hypothesis V. The sixth research hypothesis proposed that intervention is a stronger predictor of attitudes toward police officers/services than any single control group of variable. The data from 1997 and 1998 failed to show support for hypothesis VI. However, data from

1999 shows support for hypothesis VI. The seventh and final hypothesis proposed that each element of neighborhood community policing program philosophy brings equal contribution to predicting attitudes toward police officers/services. Only the data from 1998 show support for the hypothesis. Data from 1997 and 1999 did support hypothesis VII.

In Chapter I the researcher raised concerns that pointed to the absence of a viable theory on effective evaluation of neighborhood- oriented community policing. A great deal of uncertainty associated with community policing results largely from the difficulty in measuring its program outcomes. Community policing means many things to many people. To some, it represents a dimension of police-community relations, and still to many others, it simply means several loose and yet interconnected police strategies. This dissertation had as a primary interest, determining the usefulness of the four program elements in bringing greater precision to defining community policing operationally and conceptually. Further, this dissertation had the interest in providing an assessment to the value of the program elements to predicting the successful outcome of community policing program initiatives. The research data found evidence that identification and intervention to be the strongest predictors of successful program evaluation centered on neighborhood-oriented crime control strategies. Context was shown to be the weakest element in predicting neighborhood community policing outcomes. This data proved also successful in providing a concise definition for neighborhood community policing. The results from each of the three years show evidence of high reliability and validity to the elements relating to context, identification, and intervention.

This study sought to determine how successful policing initiatives found in neighborhood centered policing philosophy positively impact low-income neighborhood quality of life. Insights brought to policing strategies where neighborhood policing and other adoptions of community policing philosophy are constructed in accomplishing important community safety goals, see much promise in such principles positively impacting quality of life for low-income and other socially and economically strained neighborhood members. Policing philosophies embrace the social and environmental basis for many of the problems affecting low-income neighborhoods in the broader principles of problem-solving, crime prevention, and citizen-input that have come to shape community policing philosophy and practices today.

Implications for Urban Service Delivery

According to Elaine Sharp (1981), to argue that police departments should be responsive, or indeed that responsiveness is a desirable quality for any public agency, is to make a statement about which there is presumably little disagreement. However, if there is broad consensus that public agencies should be responsive, is there consensus on the meaning of responsiveness? (p. 33). The results from this dissertation allow an important opportunity to examine theoretical issues relating to the impact of greater expansion into service functions and the role of police in affecting public attitudes and general job satisfaction. Indeed policy departments offer a challenging case for examination of responsiveness in urban service delivery. This is partly because police exercise enormous powers and most likely to be involved directly in the lives of the

citizenry. Additionally, unique aspects of police functions (i.e., combination of social control and service provision, and norms of secrecy) produce conflict and strain on citizen perception of responsiveness.

This begs the question of what happens when the urban resident confronts an urban service delivery problem (i.e., unsatisfactory policy performance, socially disorganized neighborhood, or other forms of dissatisfaction with service delivery). A growing body of literature suggests that citizen-initiated contact such as those found in neighborhood-oriented policing is a key response and an important form of political assertion (Eisinger, 1972; Verba & Nie, 1972; Jacob, 1972; Friedmann, 1974; Jones et al., 1977).

Limitations of the Study

All research efforts are besieged by a variety of limitations that undermine the quality and accuracy of the study. For this study, some of the limitations which affect its findings are inherent in the research process. Thus, given the different measurement techniques employed, a few limitations seemed particularly important to this research. A primary interest of this dissertation was to assess the relative strength of each of the four program elements in explaining the outcomes of community policing. The data for 1998 did lend support for this stated objective. All of the program elements for 1998 showed a roughly equal predictable strength. This was not the case in the results for 1997 and 1999. For these two years, identification remained the strongest program element, and intervention the second strongest program element. The failure to consistently

demonstrate the importance of each of the three program elements to the outcome of neighborhood community policing effort may entail the need to consider in a future study of these processes a different measure for our dependent variable.

As a measure of neighborhood community policing program efforts, attitudes toward police officers/services may not be providing the best indicator of neighborhood program outcome. Previous studies of public attitudes toward the police suggest the clear racial and/or class dynamics of public views of the police (Smith, 1969; Perry, 1971; Boggs and Galliher, 1974; and Yates, 1984). Whites and the affluent in public opinion polls generally have a more positive view compared to racial minorities and lower income persons. These attitudes may operate independent of initiatives such as found in efforts of neighborhood community policing. Thus, the use of public perception of police officers/services as program evaluation measure may have ended up confounding the results of this study in seeking to understand the true impact of various program elements brought to explaining neighborhood community policing efforts. While the program elements generally do well against the demographic variables in predicting attitudes toward police officers/services, the amount of variance attributed to the program elements remained modest for each of the years examined. The results would thus invite other factors not yet considered as important to predicting neighborhood community policing outcome efforts.

Theoretical Implications

Evaluation designs for community policing found in actively incorporating social processes involving community context, identification, intervention, and program evaluation as key elements to govern the effective administering of community policing programs, find considerable support in the results of this research. The insight gained is directly born out of the measures which have been brought to each of the several program elements presented previously in the literature as both undergirding and being fundamental to community policing program philosophy. Among the three program elements that form the basis for this study, context had the least predictable effect on attitudes toward police officers/services. The model as proposed by Cardarelli and McDevitt (1995) defined context as a set of conditions that conceptually or operationally define the program's key assumptions and strategies. It provides the basis for the audience selected for community policing projects and the strategies determined to be the most effective for accomplishing the program goals. Inherent to this element of community policing are strategies or the procedures for carrying out the goals of what might describe neighborhood-centered policing.

Given what is a highly dimensional process conveying this program element, I may not have utilized the best measure for program context. If context among other things, suggests consensus on conditions prevalent in a community as providing a basis for the selection of targeted audience to be the recipient of proactive policing initiatives, my measure of fear of crime may not have been the best indicator of context. The results of this dissertation would suggest perhaps the need to consider a different measure for

context—one that factors more totally into the measure the consensual aspects of this program element.

The results of this dissertation, nonetheless point to important principles found in neighborhood policing as containing the seeds to positively impact the overall quality of life in neighborhoods beleaguered by significant social and economic strain. In addition to this study presenting the results of a clear benefit of neighborhood policing initiatives to enhancing the overall quality of life in the neighborhoods where such efforts are place, the study contains important implications for future studies in this area. First, the study demonstrates quiet well the value for an active research monitoring of a project involving neighborhood police officers. Police departments and communities planning the implementation of neighborhood policing and other similar community policing initiatives would benefit tremendously from having in place an effective model for research monitoring similar to the Westside group of neighborhoods in Ponca City, Oklahoma.

This study as well demonstrates the immense importance of support among local police administrators and police personnel to the successful outcome of neighborhood community policing. The active support among Ponca City Police Department senior administrators, and in particular the two police officers assigned to the project have been a key factor for the success of neighborhood policing presence in the Westside community. There is an important need for this type of research in rural and small city communities throughout the country as communities increasingly adopt community-policing approach to improve neighborhood conditions and safety. The initiatives in

Ponca City should then serve as model for other small towns and rural communities. The barriers for embarking in this type of research are found in communities being unaware of potential benefits from such research. Strategies to alleviate such barriers include presenting to city police administrators and public officials a proposal clearly conveying the benefits of such research to the communities in facilitating their goals to establish a successful neighborhood community policing. Additionally, this research with its attention to interest levels of the police in seeing the successful implementation of greater police and community involvement in each other's affairs creates the opportunity to contribute insight on the possibilities of community policing as philosophy and practice aiding the cause of improved police-community relations and the quality of life in the neighborhoods. Further, this research can contribute to erecting a fairly reliable measure of community policing.

Overall, this research lends some support for a theory of neighborhood oriented community policing efforts centered in the active use of program context, identification, and intervention as viable to successful neighborhood community policing efforts. The strongest indication in this is found in the results from 1998, where five of the seven hypotheses were supported with the data. The dissertation also invite the value in seeing three of the program elements originally articulated by Albert Cardarelli and Jack McDevitt as important to predicting the outcome of community policing efforts. Again, the data from 1988 shows this the best, where each of the three program elements provides roughly the same predictability to neighborhood community policing outcomes.

Finally, this study provides evidence of the three program elements as important in helping define neighborhood community policing as a process and structure. Traditional policing as stated earlier has had limited impact on high crime levels in neighborhoods characterized by high economic strain and disorganization. It was further, stated that community policing provides a promising alternative to bringing about safer neighborhoods by involving community residents in a working relationship with the police. Such a philosophy has been presented in terms of important processes predictive of community policing success. At the same time, these processes invite the beginning of a useful theory of neighborhood community policing efforts. The results of this study appear to provide support for such a theory of neighborhood community policing program outcomes. This support is suggested by the study's findings and insights that where elements of program context, identification, and intervention have been made an active part of the process of implementing and defining community policing strategy, such processes provide an important level of predictability to neighborhood community policing outcomes.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Anderson, E. (1990). Street-wise: Race, class, and change in urban community. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Angell, J. E. (1971). Toward an alternative to the classic police organizational arrangements: A demographic model. Criminology, 9, 186-206.

Bailey, W. G. (1989). The encyclopedia of police science. New York, NY: Garland Publishing.

Bayley, D. H. (1988). Community policing: A report from the devil's advocate. In J. R. Greene & S. D. Mastrofski (Eds.), Community policing: Rhetoric or reality? New York, NY: Praeger.

Boggs, S. L., & Galliher, J. F. (1974). Evaluating the police: A comparison of black street and household respondents. Social Problems, 1974-75.

Boydsun, J. E., & Sherry, M. E. (1975). San Diego community profile: Final report. Washington, D.C.: Police Foundation.

Braiden, C. (1992). Enriching traditional police roles. Police management: Issues and perspectives. Washington, D.C.: Police Executive Research.

Bureau of Justice Assistance. (1994). Understanding community-oriented policing: A framework for action. Washington, D.C.: Department of Justice.

Bursik, R. J., & Grasmick, H. G. (1993). Neighborhoods and crime: The dimensions of effective community control. New York, NY: Lexington.

Byrne, J. M., & Sampson, R. J. (1986). The social ecology of crime. New York, NY: Springer.

Cardarelli, A. P., & McDevitt, J. (1995). Toward a conceptual framework for evaluating community policing. In P. C. Kratcoski & D. Duke (Eds.), Issues in community policing. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishing.

Carmine, E. G., & Zeller, R. A. (1979). Reliability and validity assessments. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Cook, T. D., & Campbell, D. T. (1979). Quasi-experimental design and analysis for field testing. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally College Publishing.

Cordner, G. W. (1985). The Baltimore county citizen-oriented police enforcement (COPE) project: Final evaluation. Criminal Justice Department, University of Baltimore, MD.

Cordner, G. W., & Shehan, R. (1999). Police administration. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson.

Cordner, G. W., & Trojanowicz, R. C. (1992). Patrol. In G. W. Cordner, & D. C. Hale, (Eds.), What works in policing: Operations and administrations examined. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson.

Deakin, T. J. (1988). Police professionalism: The renaissance of american law enforcement. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

Eck, J. E. (1979). Managing case assignments: The burglary investigation decision model replication. Washington, D. C.: Police Executive Research Forum.

Eck, J. E. (1982). Solving crimes: The investigation of burglary and robbery. Washington, D. C.: Police Executive Research Forum.

Eck, J. E., & Spelman, W. (1987). "Who ya gonna call? The police as problem-busters," Crime and Delinquency, 33, 31-52.

Eck, J. E., & Spelman, W. (1987). Problem-solving: Problem-oriented policing in Newport news. Washington, D. C.: Police Executive Research Forum.

Eck, J. E., & Spelman, W. (1989). A problem-oriented approach to police service delivery. In D. J. Kenney (Eds.) Police and policing: Contemporary issues. New York, NY: Praeger.

Eisinger, P. (1972). The pattern of citizen contacts with urban officials. In Hahn, Harlan (Ed.). People and Politics in Urban Society. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Farmer, M. T. (1981). Differential Police Response Strategies. Washington, D.C.: Police Executive Research Forum.

Friedmann, K. (1974). Complaining: Comparative aspects of complaint behavior and attitudes toward complaining in Canada and Britain. Beverly H ills, CA: Sage.

Glensor, R. W. (1993). Community-oriented policing: An empirical assessment of the influence of contact on citizens perceptions of police performance. Reno, NV: Reno Police Department.

Goldstein, H. (1979). Improving policing: A problem-oriented approach. Crime and Delinquency, 25, 236-258.

Goldstein, H. (1990). Problem-oriented policing. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Gottlieb, M. (1993). Crown heights study finds Dinkins and police at fault in letting unrest escalate. The New York Times, p. 1 (July 21).

Greenberg, B. (1975). Felony investigation decision model: An analysis of investigative elements of information report. Menlo Park, CA.: Stanford Research Institute.

Greene, J. R., & Mastrofski, S. D. (1988). Community police: Rhetoric or reality? New York, NY: Praeger.

Greene, J. R., & Taylor, R. B. (1988). Community-based policing and foot patrol: Issues of theory and evaluations. In J. R. Greene & S. D. Mastrofski (Eds.), Community policing: Rhetoric or reality? New York, NY: Praeger.

Greenwood, P. W., & Petersilian, J. (1975). The criminal investigation process, Vol. 1: Summary and policy implications. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation

Greenwood, P. W., Petersili, J., & Chaiken, J. (1977). The criminal investigation process, vol. II: Summary and policy implications. Lexington, MA: Rand Corporation.

Grinc, R. (1994). Angels in marble: Problems in stimulating community involvement in community policing. Crime & Delinquency, 40(3), 437- 468.

Harrington, M. (1981). The other America: Poverty in the United States. New York, NY: Macmillian.

Heitgerd, J. L., & Bursik, R. L., Jr. (1987). Extra-community dynamics and ecology of delinquency. American Journal of Sociology, 92, 775-787.

Hunter, R. D., & Barker, T. (1993). "BS and buzzwords: The new police operational style." American Journal of Police, 12(3), 157-168.

Jacob, H. (1972). "Contact with government agencies" A preliminary analysis of the distribution of government services." Midwest Journal of Political Science, 16, 123-146.

Jones, B., Greenberg, S., Kaufman, C., Drew, J. (1977). "Bureaucratic response to citizen-initiated contacts: Environmental enforcement in Detroit." American Political Science Review, 71, 148-165.

Kamisar, Y. (1980). Police interrogation and confessions: Essays in law and policy. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Kansas City, Missouri Police Department (1989). Response time analysis, vol. 2, Part 1: Crime analysis. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Kelling, G. L. (1981). Conclusion: The Newark foot experiment. Washington, D.C.: Police Foundation.

Kelling, G. L., & Moore, M. H. (1988). From political to reform to community: The evolving strategy of policing. In J. R. Greene & S. D. Mastrofski (Eds.), Community policing: Rhetoric or reality? New York, NY: Praeger.

Kelling, G. L. (1974). The Kansas City preventive patrol: A technical report. Washington, D.C.: Police Foundation.

Klockars, C. B. (1985). The idea of police. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Lurigio, A. J., & Skogan, W. G. (1994). Winning the hearts and minds of police officers: An assessment of staff perceptions of community policing in Chicago. Crime & Delinquency, 40(3).

McEwen, T. J., Connors, E. F, & Cohen, M. I. (1986). Evaluation of the differential police response field test. Washington D.C.: National Institute of Justice.

Merry, S. E. (1981). Defensible space undefended: social factors in crime prevention through environmental design. Urban Affairs Quarterly, 16(4), 397-422.

Moore, H. W. (1998). Special Topics in Policing. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson.

Moore, H. W. (1992). Problem solving and community policing. In M. Tonry & N. Morris (Eds.), Modern policing, crime and justice: A review of research, Volume 15, Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Murphy, C., & Muir, G. (1985). Community-based policing: A review of the critical issues. Ontario, Canada: Solicitor General's Office.

Pate, A. M., Wycoff, M. A., Skogan, W. G., & Sherman, L. W. (1986). Reducing fear of crime in Houston and Newark: A summary report. Washington, D.C.: Police Foundation.

Peak, K. J. (1947). Policing American: Methods, issues, and challenges. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Peak, K. J., Bradshaw, R. V., & Glensor, R. W. (1992). Improving citizen perceptions of the police: Back to the basics with a community policing strategy. Journal of Criminal Justice, 20(1), 25-40.

Perry, D. (1971). Police service in a dual society: A study of the urban context police service and its problems in the city of Rochester, New York, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Syracuse University, Syracuse, NY.

Police Foundation. (1981). The Newark foot patrol experiment. Washington, D.C.

Rosenbaum, D. P. (1989). Community crime prevention: A review of what is known. In D. J. Kenney (Ed.), Police and policing: Contemporary issues. New York, NY: Praeger.

Rosenbaum, D. P. (1994). The challenges of community policing: Testing the promise. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Rosenbaum, D. P., & Lurigio, A. J. (1994). The impact of community policing on police personnel: A review of literature. In D. P. Rosenbaum (Ed.), The challenges of community policing: Testing the promises. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Rosenbaum, D. P., Hernandez, E., & Daughtry, S., Jr. (1991). Crime prevention, fear reduction, and the community. In Y. A. Geller (Ed.), Local government police management. Washington, D.C.: International City Management Association.

Rosenbaum, D. P., & Lurigio, A. J. (1994). An inside look at community policing reform: Definitions, organizational changes, and evaluation findings. Crime & Delinquency, 40(3), 299-314.

Sharp, E. B. (1981). "Responsiveness in urban service delivery: The case of policing." Administration and Society, 13, 33-58.

Skogan, W. G. (1990). Decline and disorder: Crime and the spiral of decay in american neighborhoods. New York, NY: The Free Press.

Skogan, W. G., & Maxfield, M. (1981). Coping with crime: Individual and neighborhood reactions. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Skolnick, J. H., & Bayley, D. H. (1988). Community policing: Issues and practices around the world. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice.

Taub, R. D., Taylor, G. S., & Dunham, J. (1984). Patterns of neighborhood change: Race and crime in urban America. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Trojanowicz, R. C. (1983). An evaluation of a neighborhood foot patrol program. Journal of Police Science and Administration, 11, 410-419.

Trojanowicz, R. C., & Bucqueroux, B. (1990). Community policing: A contemporary perspective. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson.

United States Government Printing Office. (1931). National commission on law observance and enforcement. Report on lawlessness in law enforcement. Washington D.C.: Author.

United States Government Printing Office. (1967). President's commission on law enforcement and administration of justice. Task force report: The police. Washington D.C.: Author.

Verba, S. & Nie, N. (1972). Participation in America: Political democracy and social equity. New York, NY: Harper and Row.

Walker, S. (1980). Popular justice. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Weisheit, R. A., Falcone, D. N., & Wells, E. L. (1994). Rural crime and rural policing: NIJ research in action. Washington, D.C.: U. S. Department of Justice.

Wilson, O. W. (1950). Police administration. New York, NY: Preager.

Wilson, D., & Bennett, S. (1994). Officer's response to community policing: Variations on a theme. Crime and Delinquency, 40(3), 354-370.

Wilson, J. Q., & Kelling, G. L. (1982). Broken windows. The Atlantic Monthly, 29-38.

Wycoff, M. A., & Skogan, W. (1994). Community policing in Madison: An analysis of implementation and impact." In D. Rosenbaum (Ed.), The challenges of community policing: Testing the promises. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Yates, D. L. (1984). Correlates of attitudes toward the police: a comparison of blacks and white citizens in Austin, Texas, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Texas, Austin, TX.

Yates, D. L., & Pillai, V. K. (1996). Attitudes toward community policing: A causal analysis. The Social Sciences Journal, 33(2),193-209.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

TABLES A-I THROUGH A-XXIII

CHAPTER IV RESULTS

TABLE A-I

COMPOSITE AND BASELINE CHARACTERISTICS OF NORTH AREA RESIDENTS BY DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Category	Composite Years*		Baseline Year**	
	%	N	%	N
Gender				
Male	46	108	42	33
Female	54	129	58	46
Race				
White	80	190	74	59
African-American	2	4	4	3
Native American	10	23	14	11
Hispanic	7	17	8	6
Other	1	2	0	1
Age				
Under 20	10	25	9	7
20-29	26	65	25	20
30-39	16	41	22	17
40-49	20	51	15	12
50-64	12	29	13	10
Over 65	26	40	16	13
Housing Tenure				
Owner	55	129	51	39
Renter	45	107	49	38
City Resident Tenure				
Less than 1 year	7	16	8	6
1 to 3 years	16	37	15	12
4 to 6 years	6	15	3	2
More than 6 years	71	170	75	60
Neighborhood Resident Tenure				
Less than 1 year	28	68	25	20
1 to 3 years	26	64	31	25
4 to 6 years	10	25	8	6
More than 6 years	36	88	36	29
Employment Status				
Employed (SE, EFT, EPT)	54	122	55	42
Unemployed (LO, OJ)	17	37	16	12
Retired	22	50	26	10
Student	7	15	3	2

TABLE A-I – Continued

Category	Composite Years*		Baseline Year**	
	%	N	%	N
Educational Level				
Below 9	11	25	13	10
9 to 11 years	28	68	30	24
12 years (completed HS)	31	74	24	19
1 to 3 years of college	24	58	27	21
4 years college or above	5	12	6	5
Yearly Household Income				
Less than $14,000	36	71	47	32
$14,000 to 19,999	18	35	12	8
$20,000 to 29,000	24	48	22	15
$30,000 to 39,000	10	19	4	3
$40,000 to 49,000	6	11	6	4
$50, 000 or more	6	12	9	6

Note: *=1997, 1998, & 1999; **=1997; SE=Self-Employed; EFT=Employed, Full-time; EPT=Employed, Part-time; LO=Laid Off; OJ=Out of job ; HS=High School.

TABLE A-II

COMPOSITE AND BASELINE CHARACTERISTICS OF SOUTH AREA RESIDENTS BY DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Category	Composite Years*		Baseline Year**	
	%	N	%	N
Gender				
Male	45	107	44	35
Female	55	133	56	45
Race				
White	85	203	89	71
African-American	3	8	1	1
Native American	9	21	6	5
Hispanic	3	6	3	2
Other	1	1	0	0

TABLE A-II – Continued

Category	Composite Years*		Baseline Year**	
	%	N	%	N
City Resident Tenure				
Less than 1 year	5	13	6	5
1 to 3 years	9	22	11	9
4 to 6 years	9	21	13	10
More than 6 years	77	184	70	56
Neighborhood Resident Tenure				
Less than 1 year	17	41	19	15
1 to 3 years	20	49	16	13
4 to 6 years	10	25	16	13
More than 6 years	52	125	49	39
Employment Status				
Employed (SE, EFT, EPT)	56	128	53	42
Unemployed (LO, OJ)	12	28	10	8
Retired	27	61	30	24
Student	5	13	6	5
Educational Level				
Below 9	6	15	6	5
9 to 11 years	29	74	25	20
12 years (completed HS)	33	85	39	31
1 to 3 years of college	25	63	25	20
4 years college or above	7	19	5	4
Yearly Household Income				
Less than $14,000	26	55	25	18
$14,000 to 19,999	16	34	13	9
$20,000 to 29,000	24	51	25	18
$30,000 to 39,000	17	35	14	10
$40,000 to 49,000	10	22	14	10
$50, 000 or more	7	14	8	6

Note: *=1997, 1998, & 1999; **=1997; SE=Self-Employed; EFT=Employed, Full-time; EPT=Employed, Part-time; LO=Laid Off; OJ=Out of job ; HS=High School.

TABLE A-III

COMPOSITE AND BASELINE CHARACTERISTICS
OF MERCHANT RESPONDENTS BY
DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Category	Composite Years*		Baseline Year**	
	%	N	%	N
Gender				
Male	61	51	59	20
Female	39	33	41	14
Race				
White	98	80	97	32
African-American	0	0	0	0
Native American	0	0	3	1
Hispanic	1	1	0	0
Other	1	1	0	0
Age				
Under 20	0	0	0	0
20-29	6	5	6	2
30-39	28	23	32	11
40-49	31	26	35	12
50-64	28	23	21	7
Over 65	7	6	6	2
Housing Tenure				
Owner	63	51	85	29
Renter	37	30	15	5
City Resident Tenure				
Less than 1 year	2	2	0	0
1 to 3 years	4	3	6	2
4 to 6 years	9	7	3	1
More than 6 years	85	69	91	31
Business Resident Tenure				
Less than 1 year	6	5	3	1
1 to 3 years	35	28	12	4
4 to 6 years	10	8	12	4
More than 6 years	49	40	73	24

TABLE A-III – Continued

Category	Composite Years*		Baseline Year**	
	%	N	%	N
Educational Level				
Below 9	3	2	6	2
9 to 11 years	10	7	41	13
12 years (completed HS)	40	29	31	10
1 to 3 years of college	24	17	22	7
4 years college or above	24	17	0	0
Yearly Household Income				
Less than $14,000	9	7	7	2
$14,000 to 19,999	5	4	0	0
$20,000 to 29,000	14	11	26	7
$30,000 to 39,000	38	29	19	5
$40,000 to 49,000	12	9	26	7
$50, 000 or more	22	17	22	6

Note: *=1997, 1998, & 1999; **=1997; HS=High School.

TABLE A-IV

PERCENT FREQUENCY OF ITEMS MEASURING PUBLIC FEAR OF CRIME BY SURVEY YEAR – NORTH RESIDENTS

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree		
	1997	1998	1999
I often avoid going during the daytime because I am afraid of crime.	5	11	3
I often avoid going out after dark because I am afraid of crime.	28	27	22
My fear of crime is very high.	36	37	25
I am more afraid of crime than I ever have been.	50	32	23
Fear of crime is very high in this neighborhood.	44	27	27
There is a good chance I will be a victim of a property crime this year.	54	46	43
There is a good chance I will be a victim of a personal crime this year.	20	7	10
Note: Base (N)	80	81	79

TABLE A-V

PERCENT FREQUENCY OF ITEMS MEASURING PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARD THE POLICE AND POLICE SERVICES BY SURVEY YEAR – NORTH RESIDENTS

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree 1997	1998	1999
The Police department is doing a better job in this neighborhood than it was a year ago.		80	75
I regularly see police officers on patrol in this neighborhood.	71	89	89
The police hassle people too much in this neighborhood.	23	10	8
The police department does the best job it can against crime in this neighborhood.	55	83	87
I must admit that I tend to view the police as an enemy rather than a friend.	13	6	6
My own impression of the police is that they cannot always be trusted.	38	14	10
The police are more interested in giving tickets than in solving crime.	33	11	10
The police in my neighborhood try to provide the kind of services that the people in my neighborhood want.		83	90
My opinion of Ponca City Police is that they:			
Show concern.	68	81	89
Are generally quite helpful.	73	81	91
Are Knowledgeable about the needs in my neighborhood.	58	85	78
Puts you at ease.	63	84	84
Always exhibit professional conduct.	64	80	92
Note: Base (N)	80	81	79

TABLE A-VI

PERCENT FREQUENCY OF ITEMS MEASURING NEIGHBORHOOD PROBLEMS BY SURVEY YEAR – NORTH RESIDENTS

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree 1997	1998	1999
One big problem in this neighborhood is disorderly youth gangs and/or groups.	46	31	24
One big problem in this neighborhood is teenage crime.	59	44	37
One big problem in this neighborhood is frequent street fights and/or people loitering on corners.	39	16	23
One big problem in this neighborhood are the abandoned cars and trucks.	14	11	11
One big problem in this neighborhood is poor street lighting.	44	31	23
One big problem in this neighborhood is run down buildings that are fire and other hazards.	49	38	15
One big problem in this neighborhood is litter and trash that don't ever seem to be cleaned up.	38	31	39
One big problem in this neighborhood is tall grass that don't ever seem to be cut.	43	28	23
Note: Base (N)	80	81	79

TABLE A-VII

PERCENT FREQUENCY OF ITEMS MEASURING NEIGHBORHOOD NEEDS BY SURVEY YEAR – NORTH RESIDENTS

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree		
	1997	1998	1999
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city provided job training for some really good jobs.	68	72	91
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city provided tutors for neighborhood children after school and on weekends.	69	73	84
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city could provide affordable educational opportunities for the adult in this neighborhood.	73	69	82
One way this neighborhood could be helped is a community recreational center could be built and organized activities be planned for neighborhood for children and adults.	68	80	92
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city planned more organized outings and other activities for the elderly in this neighborhood.	60	65	72
Note: Base (N)	80	81	79

TABLE A-VIII

PERCENT FREQUENCY OF ITEMS MEASURING QUALITY OF POLICE CONTACT BY SURVEY YEAR – NORTH RESIDENTS

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree 1997	1998	1999
Officers who patrol my neighborhood are generally polite to me.	79%	91%	95%
Officers have generally been helpful to me in matters where I have required their assistance.	76	85	85
Police officers have generally taken their time to understand my particular problem.	61	83	81
My experience is that police officers have generally cared about me as a person.	51	81	81
I will do anything possible to work with the police to make my neighborhood a better place to live.	88	94	96
Note: Base (N)	80	81	79

TABLE A-IX

PERCENT FREQUENCY OF ITEMS MEASURING PUBLIC FEAR OF CRIME BY SURVEY YEAR – SOUTH RESIDENTS

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree 1997	1998	1999
I often avoid going during the daytime because I am afraid of crime.	6%	4%	2%
I often avoid going out after dark because I am afraid of crime.	31	30	22
My fear of crime is very high.	27	32	26
I am more afraid of crime than I ever have been.		46	3826
Fear of crime is very high in this neighborhood.	32	28	25
There is a good chance I will be a victim of a property crime this year.	45	48	33
There is a good chance I will be a victim of a personal crime this year.	14	13	10
Note: Base (N)	80	79	81

TABLE A-X

PERCENT FREQUENCY OF ITEMS MEASURING PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARD THE POLICE AND POLICE SERVICES BY SURVEY YEAR – SOUTH RESIDENTS

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree 1997	1998	1999
The Police department is doing a better job in this neighborhood than it was a year ago.	-	80%	74%
I regularly see police officers on patrol in this neighborhood.	59	77	83
The police hassle people too much in this neighborhood.	23	1	4
The police department does the best job it can against crime in this neighborhood.	64	76	75
I must admit that I tend to view the police as an enemy rather than a friend.	13	6	6
My own impression of the police is that they cannot always be trusted.	24	32	17
The police are more interested in giving tickets than in solving crime.	19	5	16
The police in my neighborhood try to provide the kind of services that the people in my neighborhood want.	–	89	86
My opinion of Ponca City Police is that they:			
Show concern.	78	80	86
Are generally quite helpful.	76	90	84
Are Knowledgeable about the needs in my neighborhood.	53	75	83
Put you at ease.	71	80	83
Always exhibit professional conduct.	83	81	81
Note: Base (N)	80	79	81

TABLE A-XI

PERCENT FREQUENCY OF ITEMS MEASURING NEIGHBORHOOD PROBLEMS BY SURVEY YEAR – SOUTH RESIDENTS

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree		
	1997	1998	1999
One big problem in this neighborhood is disorderly youth gangs and/or groups.	38%	29%	26%
One big problem in this neighborhood is teenage crime.	40	35	40
One big problem in this neighborhood is frequent street fights and/or people loitering on corners.	19	24	9
One big problem in this neighborhood are the abandoned car and trucks.	16	15	11
One big problem in this neighborhood is poor street lighting.	36	33	38
One big problem in this neighborhood is run down buildings that are fire and other hazards.	43	37	30
One big problem in this neighborhood is litter and trash that don't ever seem to be cleaned up.	25	29	37
One big problem in this neighborhood is tall grass that don't ever seem to be cut.	36	33	17
Note: Base (N)	80	79	81

TABLE A-XII

PERCENT FREQUENCY OF ITEMS MEASURING NEIGHBORHOOD NEEDS BY SURVEY YEAR – SOUTH RESIDENTS

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree		
	1997	1998	1999
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city provided job training for some really good jobs.	71%	70%	80%
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city provided tutors for neighborhood children after school and on weekends.	66	71	78
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city could provide affordable educational opportunities for the adult in this neighborhood.	70	67	75
One way this neighborhood could be helped is a community recreational center could be built and organized activities be planned for neighborhood for children and adults.	66	75	75
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city planned more organized outings and other activities for the elderly in this neighborhood.	55	67	64
Note: Base (N)	80	79	81

TABLE A-XIII

PERCENT FREQUENCY OF ITEMS MEASURING QUALITY OF POLICE CONTACT BY SURVEY YEAR – SOUTH RESIDENTS

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree		
	1997	1998	1999
Officers who patrol my neighborhood are generally polite to me.	75%	91%	90%
Officers have generally been helpful to me in matters where I have required their assistance.	84	87	89
Police officers have generally taken their time to understand my particular problem.	70	66	81
My experience is that police officers have generally cared about me as a person.	66	67	78
I will do anything possible to work with the police to make my neighborhood a better place to live.	98	97	90
Note: Base (N)	80	79	81

TABLE A-XIV

PERCENT FREQUENCY OF ITEMS MEASURING
PUBLIC FEAR OF CRIME BY SURVEY
YEAR – MERCHANTS

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree 1997	1998	1999
I often avoid going during the daytime because I am afraid of crime.	0%	0%	4%
I often avoid going out after dark because I am afraid of crime.	35	8	24
My fear of crime is very high.	35	16	32
I am more afraid of crime than I ever have been.	50	28	40
Fear of crime is very high in this neighborhood.	47	56	44
There is a good chance I will be a victim of a property crime this year.	44	44	60
There is a good chance I will be a victim of a personal crime this year.	6	4	8
Note: Base (N)	34	25	25

TABLE A-XV

PERCENT FREQUENCY OF ITEMS MEASURING PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARD THE POLICE AND POLICE SERVICES BY SURVEY YEAR (MERCHANTS)

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree 1997	1998	1999
The Police department is doing a better job in this neighborhood than it was a year ago.	-	76%	68%
I regularly see police officers on patrol in this neighborhood.	68	76	84
The police hassle people too much in this neighborhood.	3	4	4
The police department does the best job it can against crime in this neighborhood.	41	56	64
I must admit that I tend to view the police as an enemy rather than a friend.	6	0	12
My own impression of the police is that they cannot always be trusted.	12	4	16
The police are more interested in giving tickets than in solving crime.	24	4	28
The police in my neighborhood try to provide the kind of services that the people in my neighborhood want.	-	76	80
My opinion of Ponca City Police is that they:			
Shows concern.	65	80	72
Are generally quite helpful.	68	80	76
Are Knowledgeable about the needs in my neighborhood.	59	64	88
Puts you at ease.	50	76	72
Always exhibit professional conduct.	59	72	92
Note: Base (N)	34	25	25

TABLE A-XVI

PERCENT FREQUENCY OF ITEMS MEASURING NEIGHBORHOOD PROBLEMS BY SURVEY YEAR (MERCHANTS)

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree 1997	1998	1999
One big problem in this neighborhood is disorderly youth gangs and/or groups.	76%	56%	68%
One big problem in this neighborhood is teenage crime.	79	56	80
One big problem in this neighborhood is frequent street fights and/or people loitering on corners.	53	44	44
One big problem in this neighborhood are the abandoned car and trucks.	26	12	24
One big problem in this neighborhood is poor street lighting.	47	36	48
One big problem in this neighborhood is run down buildings that are fire and other hazards.	50	52	48
One big problem in this neighborhood is litter and trash that don't ever seem to be cleaned up.	29	28	40
One big problem in this neighborhood is tall grass that don't ever seem to be cut.	26	24	36
Note: Base (N)	34	25	25

TABLE A-XVII

PERCENT FREQUENCY OF ITEMS MEASURING NEIGHBORHOOD NEEDS BY SURVEY YEAR (MERCHANTS)

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree 1997	1998	1999
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city provided job training for some really good jobs.	47%	40%	44%
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city provided tutors for neighborhood children after school and on weekends.	41	40	52
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city could provide affordable educational opportunities for the adult in this neighborhood.	53	48	36
One way this neighborhood could be helped is a community recreational center could be built and organized activities be planned for neighborhood for children and adults.	44	52	56
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city planned more organized outings and other activities for the elderly in this neighborhood.	32	36	48
Note: Base (N)	34	25	25

TABLE A-XVIII

PERCENT FREQUENCY OF ITEMS MEASURING QUALITY OF POLICE CONTACT BY SURVEY YEAR (MERCHANTS)

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree		
	1997	1998	1999
Officers who patrol my neighborhood are generally polite to me.	91%	96%	100%
Officers have generally been helpful to me in matters where I have required their assistance.	85	92	88
Police officers have generally taken their time to understand my particular problem.	71	68	72
My experience is that police officers have generally cared about me as a person.	68	72	80
I will do anything possible to work with the police to make my neighborhood a better place to live.	94	100	100
Note: Base (N)	34	25	25

TABLE A-XIX

CROSS-TABULATIONS OF ITEMS MEASURING PUBLIC FEAR OF CRIME BY SAMPLE GROUP (BASE YEAR, 1997)

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree		
	North Residents	South Residents	Merchants
I often avoid going during the daytime because I am afraid of crime.	5	6	0
I often avoid going out after dark because I am afraid of crime.	28	31	35
My fear of crime is very high.	36	27	35
I am more afraid of crime than I ever been.	50	46	50
Fear of crime is very high in this neighborhood.	44	32*	48
There is a good chance I will be a victim of a property crime this year.	54	45	44
There is a good chance I will be a victim of a personal crime this year.	20	14	6*

Note: p<.01***; p<.05**; p<.10*.

TABLE A-XX

CROSS-TABULATIONS OF ITEMS MEASURING PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARD THE POLICE AND POLICE SERVICES BY SAMPLE GROUP (BASE YEAR, 1997)

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree North Residents	South Residents	Merchants
I regularly see police officers on patrol in this neighborhood.	71	59*	70
The police hassle people too much in this neighborhood.	23	8***	3***
The police department does the best job it can against crime in this neighborhood.	55	64	41**
I must admit that I tend to view the police as an enemy rather than a friend.	13	13	9
My own impression of the police is that they cannot always be trusted.	38**	24	12
The police are more interested in giving tickets than in solving crime.	33**	19	24
My opinion of Ponca City Police is that they:			
Show concern.	68	78	65
Are generally quite helpful.	73	76	68
Are Knowledgeable about the needs in my neighborhood.	58	53	59
Puts you at ease.	63	71	50**
Always exhibit professional conduct.	64	83***	59

Note: p<.01***; p<.05**; p<.10*.

TABLE A-XXI

CROSS-TABULATIONS OF ITEMS MEASURING NEIGHBORHOOD PROBLEMS BY SAMPLE GROUP (BASE YEAR, 1997)

Comments	Percent Agree or Strongly Agree		
	North Residents	South Residents	Merchants
One big problem in this neighborhood is disorderly youth gangs and/or groups.	46	38	76***
One big problem in this neighborhood is teenage crime.	59**	40***	79***
One big problem in this neighborhood is frequent street fights and/or people loitering on corners.	39***	19	53***
One big problem in this neighborhood are the abandoned car and trucks.	14	16	26*
One big problem in this neighborhood is poor street lighting.	44	36	47
One big problem in this neighborhood is run down buildings that are fire and other hazards.	50	42	50
One big problem in this neighborhood is litter and trash that don't ever seem to be cleaned up.	38	31	29
One big problem in this neighborhood is tall grass that don't ever seem to be cut.	43*	36	26

Note: p<.01***; p<.05**; p<.10*.

TABLE A-XXII

CROSS-TABULATIONS OF ITEMS MEASURING NEIGHBORHOOD NEEDS BY SAMPLE GROUP (BASE YEAR, 1997)

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree		
	North Residents	South Residents	Merchants
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city provided job training for some really good jobs.	68**	71***	47
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city provided tutors for neighborhood children after school and on weekends.	69***	66***	41
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city could provide affordable educational opportunities for the adult in this neighborhood.	73**	70*	53
One way this neighborhood could be helped is a community recreational center could be built and organized activities be planned for neighborhood for children and adults.	68***	66**	44
One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city planned more organized outings and other activities for the elderly in this neighborhood.	60***	55**	32

Note: p<.01***; p<.05**; p<.10*.

TABLE A-XXIII

CROSS-TABULATIONS OF ITEMS MEASURING QUALITY
OF POLICE CONTACT BY SAMPLE GROUP
(BASE YEAR, 1997)

Comments	Percent of Agree or Strongly Agree		
	North Residents	South Residents	Merchants
Officers who patrol my neighborhood are generally polite to me.	79	75	91*
Officers have generally been helpful to me in matters where I have required their assistance.	76	84	85
Police officers have generally taken their time to understand my particular problem.	61	70	71
My experience is that police officers have generally cared about me as a person.	51	66**	68*
I will do anything possible to work with the police to make my neighborhood a better place to live.	88***	98	94

Note: p<.01***; p<.05**; p<.10*.

APPENDIX B

TABLES B-I THROUGH B-XXVII

CHAPTER V RESULTS

TABLE B-I

FACTOR LOADINGS AND COMMUNALITY FOR ITEMS MEASURING THE CONSTRUCT: PROGRAM CONTEXT (1997)

	Construct and Items	Factor Loading	Communality
1.	I often avoid going out during the daytime because I am afraid of crime	.69	.55
2.	I often avoid going out after dark because I am afraid of crime	.72	.64
3.	My fear of crime is very high	.79	.70
4.	I am more afraid of crime than I ever been	.67	.57

Note: Alpha = .74.

TABLE B-II

FACTOR LOADINGS AND COMMUNALITY FOR ITEMS MEASURING THE CONSTRUCT: PROGRAM IDENTIFICATION (1997)

	Construct and Items	Factor Loading	Communality
1.	One big problem in this neighborhood is frequent street fights and/or people loitering on the corners	.43	.54
2.	One big problem in this neighborhood are abandoned cars and trucks	.63	.50
3.	One big problem in this neighborhood is poor street lighting	.47	.42
4.	One big problem in this neighborhood is run down buildings that are fire and other hazards	.73	.60
5.	One big problem in this neighborhood is litter and trash that don't ever seem to be cleaned up	.78	.60

Note: Alpha = .73.

TABLE B-III

FACTOR LOADINGS AND COMMUNALITY FOR ITEMS MEASURING THE CONSTRUCT: PROGRAM INTERVENTION (1997)

	Construct and Items	Factor Loading	Communality
1.	One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city provided job training for some really good jobs	.74	.58
2.	One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city could provide tutors for neighborhood children after school and on weekends	.80	.71
3.	One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city could provide affordable educational opportunities for the adults in the neighborhood	.82	.69
4.	One way this neighborhood could be helped is if a recreational center could be built and organized activities be planned for neighborhood children and adults	.78	.64
5.	One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city planned more organized outings and other activities for the elderly in the neighborhood	.70	.53

Note: Alpha = .84

TABLE B-IV

FACTOR LOADINGS AND COMMUNALITY FOR ITEMS MEASURING THE CONSTRUCT: PROGRAM EVALUATION (1997)

	Construct and Items	Factor Loading	Communality
1.	The police department does the best job it can against crime in this neighborhood	.55	.42
2.	The Ponca City Police are knowledgeable about the needs in my neighborhood	.68	.52
3.	Officers have been generally been helpful in matters where I have required their assistance	.77	.66
4.	Police officers have generally taken their time to understand my particular problem	.83	.71
5.	The Ponca City Police shows concern	.77	.65
6.	The Ponca City Police are generally quite helpful	.51	.52
7.	The Ponca City Police puts you at ease	.71	.60
8.	The Ponca City Police always exhibits professional conduct	.63	.43
9.	Officers who patrol my neighborhood are generally polite to me	.74	.59
10.	My experience is that police officers have generally cared about me as a person	.79	.66

Note: Alpha = .89

TABLE B-V

CORRELATIONS AMONG THE FOUR CONSTRUCTS (1997)

	Context	Identification	Intervention	Evaluation
Context	1.00			
Identification	0.24	1.00		
Intervention	0.17	0.25	1.00	
Evaluation	0.03	-0.21	-0.14	1.00

TABLE B-VI

FACTOR LOADINGS AND COMMUNALITY FOR ITEMS MEASURING THE CONSTRUCT: PROGRAM CONTEXT (1998)

	Construct and Items	Factor Loading	Communality
1.	I often avoid going out during the daytime because I am afraid of crime	.65	.44
2.	I often avoid going out after dark because I am afraid of crime	.77	.60
3.	My fear of crime is very high	.80	.63
4.	I am more afraid of crime than I ever been	.76	.60
5.	Fear of crime is very high in this neighborhood	.64	.56

Note: Alpha = .78.

TABLE B-VII

FACTOR LOADINGS AND COMMUNALITY FOR ITEMS MEASURING THE CONSTRUCT: PROGRAM IDENTIFICATION (1998)

	Construct and Items	Factor Loading	Communality
1.	One big problem in this neighborhood are abandoned cars and trucks	.73	.57
2.	One big problem in this neighborhood is poor street lighting	.48	.53
3.	One big problem in this neighborhood is run down buildings that are fire and other hazards	.73	.66
4.	One big problem in this neighborhood is litter and trash that don't ever seem to be cleaned up	.78	.69
5.	One big problem in this neighborhood is tall grass that don't ever seem to be cut	.54	.60

Note: Alpha = .70.

TABLE B-VIII

FACTOR LOADINGS AND COMMUNALITY FOR ITEMS MEASURING THE CONSTRUCT: PROGRAM INTERVENTION (1998)

	Construct and Items	Factor Loading	Communality
1.	One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city provided job training for some really good jobs	.83	.71
2.	One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city could provide tutors for neighborhood children after school and on weekends	.86	.78
3.	One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city could provide affordable educational opportunities for the adults in the neighborhood	.80	.70
4.	One way this neighborhood could be helped is if a recreational center could be built and organized activities be planned for neighborhood children and adults	.70	.61
5.	One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city planned more organized outings and other activities for the elderly in the neighborhood	.76	.69

Note: Alpha = .85.

TABLE B-IX

FACTOR LOADINGS AND COMMUNALITY FOR ITEMS MEASURING THE CONSTRUCT: PROGRAM EVALUATION (1998)

	Construct and Items	Factor Loading	Communality
1.	The police department does the best job it can against crime in this neighborhood	.63	.39
2.	The Ponca City Police are knowledgeable about the needs in my neighborhood	.76	.57
3.	The Ponca City Police shows concern	.79	.63
4.	The Ponca City Police are generally quite helpful	.81	.65
5.	The Ponca City Police puts you at ease	.74	.55
6.	The Ponca City Police always exhibits professional conduct	.77	.60
7.	The Police department is doing a better job in this neighborhood than it was a year ago	.56	.31
8.	The Police in my neighborhood try to provide the kind of services that people in my neighborhood want	.66	.43

Note: Alpha = .84

TABLE B-X

CORRELATIONS AMONG THE FOUR CONSTRUCTS (1998)

	Context	Identification	Intervention	Evaluation
Context	1.00			
Identification	0.14	1.00		
Intervention	0.01	0.16	1.00	
Evaluation	0.12	-0.51	-0.12	1.00

TABLE B-XI

FACTOR LOADINGS AND COMMUNALITY FOR ITEMS MEASURING THE CONSTRUCT: PROGRAM CONTEXT (1999)

	Construct and Items	Factor Loading	Communality
1.	I often avoid going out during the daytime because I am afraid of crime	.70	.55
2.	I often avoid going out after dark because I am afraid of crime	.54	.57
3.	My fear of crime is very high	.76	.64
4.	I am more afraid of crime than I ever been	.79	.65
5.	Fear of crime is very high in this neighborhood	.52	.44
6.	There is a good chance that I will be a victim of personal crime this year	.58	.37

Note: Alpha = .77.

TABLE B-XII

FACTOR LOADINGS AND COMMUNALITY FOR ITEMS MEASURING THE CONSTRUCT: PROGRAM IDENTIFICATION (1999)

	Construct and Items	Factor Loading	Communality
1.	One big problem in this neighborhood are abandoned cars and trucks	.77	.67
2.	One big problem in this neighborhood is poor street lighting	.68	.47
3.	One big problem in this neighborhood is run down buildings that are fire and other hazards	.63	.48
4.	One big problem in this neighborhood is litter and trash that don't ever seem to be cleaned up	.73	.58
5.	One big problem in this neighborhood is tall grass that don't ever seem to be cut	.79	.609

Note: Alpha = .81.

TABLE B-XIII

FACTOR LOADINGS AND COMMUNALITY FOR ITEMS MEASURING THE CONSTRUCT: PROGRAM INTERVENTION (1999)

	Construct and Items	Factor Loading	Communality
1.	One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city provided job training for some really good jobs	.83	.72
2.	One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city could provide tutors for neighborhood children after school and on weekends	.84	.75
3.	One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city could provide affordable educational opportunities for the adults in the neighborhood	.87	.75
4.	One way this neighborhood could be helped is if a recreational center could be built and organized activities be planned for neighborhood children and adults	.64	.46
5.	One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city planned more organized outings and other activities for the elderly in the neighborhood	.70	.54

Note: Alpha = .85.

TABLE B-XIV

FACTOR LOADINGS AND COMMUNALITY FOR ITEMS MEASURING THE CONSTRUCT: PROGRAM EVALUATION (1999)

	Construct and Items	Factor Loading	Communality
1.	The police department does the best job it can against crime in this neighborhood	.62	.36
2.	The Ponca City Police are knowledgeable about the needs in my neighborhood	.71	.50
3.	Officers have generally been helpful in matters where I have required their assistance	.60	.38
4.	Police officers have generally taken their time to understand my particular problem	.73	.57
5.	The Ponca City Police shows concern	.59	.34
6.	The Ponca City Police are generally quite helpful	.75	.56
7.	The Ponca City Police puts you at ease	.76	.53
8.	The Ponca City Police always exhibits professional conduct	.74	.55
9.	The Police department is doing a better job in this neighborhood than it was a year ago	.57	.38
10.	My experience is that police officers have generally cared about me as a person	.77	.59
11.	The police is doing a better job in this neighborhood than it was a year ago	.44	.25
12.	The Police in my neighborhood try to provide the kind of services that people in my neighborhood want	.80	.64

Note: Alpha = .89.

TABLE B-XV

CORRELATIONS AMONG THE FOUR CONSTRUCTS (1999)

	Context	Identification	Intervention	Evaluation
Context	1.00			
Identification	0.31	1.00		
Intervention	0.15	0.38	1.00	
Evaluation	0.06	0.07	0.18	1.00

TABLE B-XVI

UNSTANDARDIZED REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS (BS) FOR THE EFFECT OF CONTEXT ON ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE OFFICERS/SERVICES (1997)

	Dependent Variable Attitudes Toward Police Officers/Services		
Independent Variable	Without Controls	With Controls	With Controls
Context	.023 (.031)	.009 (.013)	.017 (.024)
Gender (1=female)	--	.074 (.060)	--
Minority (1=nonwhite)	--	-.252** -(.143)	--
Age (1=<65)	--	-.302*** -(.180)	--
City Residence (1=<6 years)	--	--	-.110 -(.072)
Household Income (1=>$14,000)	--	--	-.048 -(.033)
Homeownership (1=own)	--	--	.023 (.050)
R^2	.001	.064	.010

Note: p=.001****; p=.01***; p=.05**; p=.10*; Numbers in Parentheses are Beta Weights.

TABLE B-XVII

UNSTANDARDIZED REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS (BS) FOR THE EFFECTS OF IDENTIFICATION ON ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE OFFICERS/SERVICES (1997)

	Dependent Variable Attitudes Toward Police Officers/Services		
Independent Variable	Without Controls	With Controls	With Controls
Identification	-.160 -(.205)	-.152** -(.194)	-.162** -(.208)
Gender (1=female)	--	.100 (.081)	--
Minority (1=nonwhite)	--	-.249** -(.142)	--
Age (1=<65)	--	-.272*** -(.162)	--
City Residence (1=<6 years)	--	--	-.118 -(.077)
Household Income (1=>$14,000)	--	--	-.029 -(.020)
Homeownership (1=own)	--	--	.025 (.056)
R^2	.042	.101	.053

Note: p=.001****; p=.01***; p=.05**; p=.10*; Numbers in Parentheses are Beta Weights.

TABLE B-XVIII

UNSTANDARDIZED REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS (BS) FOR THE EFFECTS OF INTERVENTION ON ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE OFFICERS/SERVICES (1997)

	Dependent Variable Attitudes Toward Police Officers/Services		
Independent Variable	Without Controls	With Controls	With Controls
Intervention	-.110**	-.067	-.104*
	-(.141)	-(.087)	-(.133)
Gender (1=female)	--	.093	--
		(.076)	
Minority (1=nonwhite)	--	-.226*	--
		-(.128)	
Age (1=<65)	--	-.271**	--
		-(.161)	
City Residence (1=<6 years)	--	--	-.075
			-(.050)
Household Income (1=>$14,000)	--	--	-.048
			-(.033)
Homeownership (1=own)	--	--	.025
			(.056)
R^2	.020	.071	.027

Note: p=.001****; p=.01***; p=.05**; p=.10*; Numbers in Parentheses are Beta Weights.

TABLE B-XIX

UNSTANDARDIZED REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS (BS) FOR THE EFFECTS OF PROGRAM VARIABLE GROUP COMBINATIONS ON ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE OFFICERS/SERVICES (1997)

	Dependent Variable Attitudes Toward Police Officers/Services			
Independent Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Context	--	.042 (.057)	.023 (.031)	.072 (.098)
Identification	-.160*** -(.205)	--	--	-.158*** -(.202)
Intervention	--	-.117** -(.151)	--	-.083 -(.107)
R^2	.042	.023	.001	.060

Note: p=.001****; p=.01***; p=.05**; p=.10*; Numbers in Parentheses are Beta Weights.

TABLE B-XX

UNSTANDARDIZED REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS (BS) FOR THE EFFECTS OF CONTEXT ON ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE OFFICERS/SERVICES (1998)

	Dependent Variable Attitudes Toward Police Officers/Services		
Independent Variable	Without Controls	With Controls	With Controls
Context	-.089* -(.124)	-.125** -(.172)	-.098* -(.136)
Gender (1=female)	--	.199*** (.181)	--
Minority (1=nonwhite)	--	.000 -(.001)	--
Age (1=<65)	--	--	-.216** -(.157)
City Residence (1=<6 years)	--	--	-.028 -(.022)
Household Income (1=>$14,000)	--	--	-.048 -(.033)
Homeownership (1=own)	--	--	.023 (.050)
R^2	.015	.046	.042

Note: p=.001****; p=.01***; p=.05**; p=.10*; Numbers in Parentheses are Beta Weights.

TABLE B-XXI

UNSTANDARDIZED REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS (BS) FOR THE EFFECTS OF IDENTIFICATION ON ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE OFFICERS/SERVICES (1998)

	Dependent Variable Attitudes Toward Police Officers/Services		
Independent Variable	Without Controls	With Controls	With Controls
Identification	-.115**	-.111**	- .098*
	-(.149)	-(.144)	-(.127)
Gender (1=female)	--	.142*	--
		(.129)	
Minority (1=nonwhite)	--	-.084	--
		-(.006)	
Age (1=<65)	--	--	-.177*
			-(.129)
City Residence (1=<6 years)	--	--	-.016
			-(.013)
R^2	.022	.039	.039

Note: p=.001****; p=.01***; p=.05**; p=.10*; Numbers in Parentheses are Beta Weights.

TABLE B-XXII

UNSTANDARDIZED REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS (BS) FOR THE EFFECTS OF INTERVENTION ON ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE OFFICERS/SERVICES (1998)

	Dependent Variable Attitudes Toward Police Officers/Services		
Independent Variable	Without Controls	With Controls	With Controls
Intervention	.085* (.119)	.088* (.123)	.111** (.154)
Gender (1=female)	--	.146* (.133)	--
Minority (1=nonwhite)	--	-.038 -(.027)	--
Age (1=<65)	--	--	-.240** -(.174)
City Residence (1=<6 years)	--	--	-.037 -(.029)
R^2	.014	.033	.046

Note: p=.001****; p=.01***; p=.05**; p=.10*; Numbers in Parentheses are Beta Weights.

TABLE B-XXIII

UNSTANDARDIZED REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS (BS) FOR THE EFFECTS OF PROGRAM VARIABLE GROUP COMBINATIONS ON ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE OFFICERS/SERVICES (1998)

	Dependent Variable Attitudes Toward Police Officers/Services			
Independent Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Context	--	--	-.089*	-.074
			-(.124)	-(.103)
Identification	-.115**	-.133**	--	-.121**
	-(.149)	-(.172)		-(.157)
Intervention	--	.105**	--	.104**
		(.146)		-(.145)
R^2	.022	.043	.015	.053

Note: p=.001****; p=.01***; p=.05**; p=.10*; Numbers in Parentheses are Beta Weights.

TABLE B-XXIV

UNSTANDARDIZED REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS (BS) FOR THE EFFECTS OF CONTEXT ON ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE OFFICERS/SERVICES (1999)

	Dependent Variable Attitudes Toward Police Officers/Services		
Independent Variable	Without Controls	With Controls	With Controls
Context	.037 (.057)	.034 (.053)	(.038) (.058)
Gender (1=female)	--	.042 (.086)	--
Minority (1=nonwhite)	--	-.047 -(.033)	--
Age (1=<65)	--	--	-.113 -(.081)
City Residence (1=<6 years)	--	--	-.162* -(.143)
R^2	.003	.010	.025

Note: p=.001****; p=.01***; p=.05**; p=.10*; Numbers in Parentheses are Beta Weights.

TABLE B-XXV

UNSTANDARDIZED REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS (BS) FOR THE EFFECTS OF IDENTIFICATION ON ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE OFFICERS/SERVICES (1999)

	Dependent Variable Attitudes Toward Police Officers/Services		
Independent Variable	Without Controls	With Controls	With Controls
Identification	.044 (.073)	.041 (.069)	.049 -(.082)
Gender (1=female)	--	.042 (.085)	--
Minority (1=nonwhite)	--	-.039 -(.027)	--
Age (1=<65)	--	--	-.131 -(.094)
City Residence (1=<6 years)	--	--	-.161* -(.142)
R^2	.005	.012	.028

Note: p=.001****; p=.01***; p=.05**; p=.10*; Numbers in Parentheses are Beta Weights.

TABLE B-XXVI

UNSTANDARDIZED REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS (BS) FOR THE EFFECTS OF INTERVENTION ON ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE OFFICERS/SERVICES (1999)

	Dependent Variable Attitudes Toward Police Officers/Services		
Independent Variable	Without Controls	With Controls	With Controls
Intervention	.107*** (.175)	.109*** (.178)	.107*** (.174)
Gender (1=female)	--	.043 (.087)	--
Minority (1=nonwhite)	--	-.082 -(.056)	--
Age (1=<65)	--	--	-.146 -(.105)
City Residence (1=<6 years)	--	--	-.141* -(.124)
R^2	.031	.039	.051

Note: p=.001****; p=.01***; p=.05**; p=.10*; Numbers in Parentheses are Beta Weights.

TABLE B-XXVII

UNSTANDARDIZED REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS (BS) FOR THE EFFECTS OF PROGRAM VARIABLE GROUP COMBINATIONS ON ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE OFFICERS/SERVICES (1999)

	Dependent Variable Attitudes Toward Police Officers/Services		
Independent Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Context	--	.025 (.039)	.021 (.032)
Identification	--	.037 (.062)	-.001 -(.001)
Intervention	.107*** (.175)	--	.105** (.171)
R^2	.031	.007	.032

Note: p=.001****; p=.01***; p=.05**; p=.10*; Numbers in Parentheses are Beta Weights.

APPENDIX C

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

A SURVEY OF WESTSIDE RESIDENTS AND MERCHANTS IN PONCA CITY ON PUBLIC FEAR OF CRIME, OPINION OF POLICE SERVICES, AND OTHER CURRENT QUALITY OF LIFE CONDITIONS

I am a graduate research assistant and staff member in the Department of Sociology at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater. The city of Ponca City and the Ponca City Police Department have requested our assistance in conducting a survey of residents in your neighborhood concerning your current needs in the general area of police services. We are interested in what you think about police practices in this city and in your neighborhood. We are also interested in your concerns about crime, as well as other conditions that you would like to see changed with the assistance of the police. We conducted surveys last year at this time, and are returning this year to conduct a follow-up survey.

The results will be used to assist the police department in making decisions about the future of the neighborhood police officers presently stationed in your community, as well as other initiatives which have been underway by the police department over the past two years to make this neighborhood safer from crime and other social disorder. The interview does not take very long to complete. The survey itself will not include any names or addresses. Also, if you are willing to be interviewed, we will need your consent by having you sign a consent form.

----------Study Number _ _Card Number 1Case Number _ _ _ _

Col. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

SECTION 1 (Public Fear of Crime)

First, I want to find out your concerns, if any, about crime in your neighborhood. Please indicate how you personally feel about each of the following statements by telling me whether you "Strongly Agree," "Agree," "Neither Agree or Disagree," "Disagree," or "Strongly Disagree" with each of the statements. Each statement, again, is a matter of your opinion.

1. I often avoid going out during the daytime because I am afraid of crime. (Circle the number under the desired response.)

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

2. I often avoid going out after dark because I am afraid of crime.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

3. My fear of crime is very high.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

4. I am more afraid of crime than I ever have been.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

5. Fear of crime is very high in this neighborhood.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

6. There is a good chance that I will be a victim of a property crime (theft, burglary) this year.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

7. There is a good chance that I will be the victim of a personal crime (rape, assault) this year.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

SECTION II (Attitudes toward the Police/Police Service)

Next, I want to find out what you think about police practices in this city and in your neighborhood. (Circle the number under the desired response)

8. The police department is doing a better job in this neighborhood than it was a year ago.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

9. I regularly see police officers on patrol in this neighborhood.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

10. The police hassles people too much in this neighborhood.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

11. The police department does the best job it can against crime in this neighborhood.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

12. I must admit that I tend to view the police as an enemy rather than a friend.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

13. My own impression of the police is that they cannot always be trusted.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

14. The police are more interested in giving tickets than in solving crime.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

15. The police in my neighborhood try to provide the kind of services that the people in my neighborhood want.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

16. How would you rate the overall quality of police services in your neighborhood? (Check the most appropriate)

0_Very satisfied 1_Somewhat satisfied

2_Somewhat dissatisfied 3_Very dissatisfied

Please rate your opinion of the Ponca City Police:

17. Shows concern.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

18. Are generally quite helpful.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

19. Are knowledgeable about the needs in my neighborhood.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

20. Puts you at ease.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

21. Always exhibits professional conduct.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

Next, indicate how you personally feel about each of the following statements: (Circle the number under the desired response)

22. I really feel that the police are mainly doing what a few rich people in the city tell them to do.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

23. I really believe that a main job of the police is to keep those people who are down and out exactly where they are.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

24. My impression is that police would just as well keep poor people in their own neighborhoods.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

SECTION III (Neighborhood Needs)

Now, I would like to ask you some questions about your opinion of some of the needs in this neighborhood. Take your time and try to provide your honest feelings on the following statements.

25. One big problem in this neighborhood is disorderly youthful gangs and/or groups.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

26. One big problem in this neighborhood is teenage crime.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

27. One big problem in this neighborhood is frequent street fights and/or people loitering on corners.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

28. One big problem in this neighborhood are the abandoned cars and trucks.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

29. One big problem in this neighborhood is poor street lighting.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

30. One big problem in this neighborhood is run down buildings that are fire and other hazards.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

31. One big problem is this neighborhood is litter and trash that don't ever seem to be cleaned up.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

32. One big problem in this neighborhood is tall grass that don't ever seem to be cut.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

33. One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city provided job training for some really good jobs.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

34. One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city could provide tutors for neighborhood children after school and on weekends.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

35. One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city could provide affordable educational opportunities for the adults in the neighborhood.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

36. One way this neighborhood could be helped is if a community recreational center could be built and organized activities be planned for neighborhood children and adults.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

37. One way this neighborhood could be helped is if the city planned more organized outings and other activities for the elderly in the neighborhood.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

SECTION IV (Quality of Contact)

Next, I would like to ask you to give your honest opinion to the following statements:

38. Officers who patrol my neighborhood are generally polite to me.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

39. Officers have generally been helpful to me in matters where I have required their assistance.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

40. Police officers have generally taken their time to understand my particular problem.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

41. My experience is that police officers have generally cared about me as a person.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

42. I will do anything possible to work with the police to make my neighborhood a better place to live.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

SECTION V (Criminal Victimization)

Now I would like to ask you some questions about criminal victimization. Take your time and try to recall if any of the following things have happened to you or to any member of your household.

43. (Burglary)
During the past 12 months, did someone break into your home or business and take something or attempt to take something of yours? (if yes, Circle the number of times this occurred).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes (Also skip to Ques. 44)

8_No (If no, ask Ques. 44)

9_No Answer

44. Has it happened to any other member of this household during the past 12 months?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes

8_No

9_No Answer

45. (Robbery)
During the past 12 months, did anyone actually take or try to take by force or threat any money or property from you? This would include bicycles taken away by force or a Violent purse snatching. (if yes, Circle the number of times this occured).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes (Also skip to Ques. 46)

8_No (If no, ask Ques. 46)

9_No Answer

46. Has it happened to any other member of this household during the past 12 months?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes

8_No

9_No Answer

47. (Theft/Stealing)

During the past 12 months, did someone take or try to take anything from you without your permission? This includes car theft, things stolen from a public place, or theft from mail box. (if yes, Circle the number of times this occurred).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes (Also skip to Ques. 48)

8_No (If no, ask Ques. 48)

9_No Answer

48. Has it happened to any other member of this household during the past 12 months?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes

8_No

9_No Answer

49. (Vandalism/Arson)

During the past 12 months, did someone maliciously destroy, damage, or burn property belonging to you? Things like ripping down a fence or breaking off a car aerial? (if yes, Circle the number of times this occurred).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes (Also skip to Ques. 50)

8_No (If no, ask Ques. 50)

9_No Answer

50. Has it happened to any other member of this household during the past 12 months?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes

8_No

9_No Answer

51. (Assault)

Were you in a fist fight or attacked in any way by another person--including another member of the household--within the past 12 months? (if yes, circle the number of times this occurred).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes (Also skip to Ques. 52)

8_No (If no, ask Ques. 52)

9_No Answer

52. Has it happened to any other member of this household during the past 12 months?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes

8_No

9_No Answer

53. (Auto Offenses)

Within the past 12 months, were you injured by a hit-and-run, drunk, or otherwise reckless driver--or was your property or car damaged through someone else reckless driving? (if yes, circle the number of times this occurred).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes (Also skip to Ques. 54)

8_No (If no, ask Ques. 54)

9_No Answer

54. Has it happened to any other member of this household during the past 12 months?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes

8_No

9_No Answer

55. (Rape)

Have you been sexually assaulted by anyone, even a family member during the past 12 months? (if yes, circle the number of times this occurred).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes (Also skip to Ques. 56)

8_No (If no, ask Ques. 56)

9_No Answer

56. Has it happened to any other member of this household during the past 12 months?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes

8_No

9_No Answer

57. (Threats)

During the past 12 months, were you threatened with harm to yourself or to someone else or blackmailed either in person, by phone, or in writing? (if yes, circle the number of times this occurred).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes (Also skip to Ques. 58)

8_No (If no, ask Ques. 58)

9_No Answer

58. Has it happened to any other member of this household during the past 12 months?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7+ times_Yes

8_No

9_No Answer

SECTION VI (Demographic Information)

May we have some additional information please? (Mark with an "X")

59. Please tell us your age:

0_Under 20 1_20 to 29 2_30 to 39 3_40 to 49

4_50 to 64 5_Over 65 9_No Answer

60. Please tell us your gender:

0_Male 1_Female

61. Please tell us your race or ethnic background:

0_White 1_African-American 2_Native American

3_Hispanic 4_Other

62. Are you working at the present time?

0_Self-employed 1_Employed full-time

2_Employed part-time 3_Laid off temporarily

4_Out of a job 5_Retired 6_Student 9_No Answer

63. What was the last grade you completed in school?

0_below 9 years 1_9 to 11 years 2_12 years (completed high school)

3_1 to 3 years/college 4_4 years/college or above

64. Which figure comes closest to your total household income for the past year before taxes?

0_Less than $14000

1_$14000 to $19999

2_$20000 to $29999

3_$30000 to $39999

4_$40000 to $49999

5_$50000 or More

6_Not Sure

65. Tell us how long you have lived in Ponca City?

0_less than 1 year 1_1 to 3 years 2_4 to 6 years

3_More than 6 years

66. In your present neighborhood?

0_less than 1 year 1_1 to 3 years 2_4 to 6 years

3_More than 6 years

67. Do you rent or own your residence?

0_rent 1_own

68. When was the last time you saw a police officer in your neighborhood? (Check the most appropriate)

0_Within the past 24 hours 1_Within the past week

2_Within the past month 3_More than a month ago

4_Never see police 5_Don't Know (If you check either 4 or 5, skip to Ques. 70)

69. What did you observe them doing? (Check the most appropriate)

0_Walking in the neighborhood 1_Riding in a patrol car

2_Riding a bicycle 3_Working at the scene of a crime

or accident 4_Doing something else

70. Would you care to express your opinion about the value and/or benefit of having the two neighborhood police officers stationed in your community?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you for your time in completing this survey!

2

VITA

Ken Amaechi Egbo

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: AN EXAMINATION OF THE CONCEPTUAL UNDERPINNINGS OF COMMUNITY POLICING PROGRAM PHILOSOPHY: THE CASE OF NEIGHBORHOOD-ORIENTED CRIME CONTROL STRATEGIES

Major Field: Sociology

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Enugu, Nigeria, March 3, 1963, the son of Chief and Mrs. Egbo Neonah Orbodo.

Education: Graduated from Boys Secondary School, Umueze, Awkunanaw in June, 1981; received Bachelor of Science degree in Criminal Justice from the University of North Texas, Denton, Texas in 1993; received Master of Arts degree in Sociology from Texas Southern University, Houston, Texas in 1995; enrolled in doctoral program at Oklahoma State University in 1997; completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in August, 2001.

Professional Experience: Assistant Professor and Coordinator of Criminal Justice Program, Iowa Wesleyan College, 2001-Present; Research Assistant, Oklahoma State University, 1997-2000; Graduate Teaching Associate, Oklahoma State University, 1997-1999; Instructor, Oklahoma State University, 1999-2000.

Professional Organizations: American Society of Criminology, Mid-South Sociological Association, Western Social Sciences Association, Oklahoma Sociological Association.