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Realigning Community Policing in a Homeland Security Era

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This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

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Abstract

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MA, Marist College, 2003

BS, New York Institute of Technology, 1990

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

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Abstract

The priority shift from community policing to homeland security in local police departments in the United States has threatened the relationships and successes established by community policing, though little empirical research explored the relationship between funding and implementation of homeland security versus community policing objectives among local law enforcement agencies. Using Karl Popper's conceptualization of the liberal democracy as the framework, the purpose of this descriptive study was to examine how trends in funding and implementation of both community policing and homeland security objectives changed among American law enforcement agencies between 1993 and 2013. Data were acquired from the Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics dataset held by the Bureau of Justice Statistics for the years 1993 to 2013. The data included information from sample sizes that varied by year: 950 to 2,503 American law enforcement agencies with over 100 sworn officers and a stratified random sample of 831 to 2,145 American law enforcement agencies with fewer than 100 sworn officers. Data were examined using descriptive statistics and findings indicate community policing began as the priority, was scaled back after the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, when homeland security became the priority, and today local police departments are using strategy integration to maintain national security, public safety, and community relations simultaneously. Positive social change implications stemming from this study include the conveyance that communities are still the priority in policing and recommendations to local police agencies to utilize strategy integration to maintain community policing, regardless of the priority.

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Dedication

To Tiffany, Brianna, and Michael,

There is no dream or goal in life that is too big to accomplish…reach for the stars!

Love, Dad.

Acknowledgments

To my children, family, friends, and colleagues who have encouraged and supported me through this journey. To my committee, Dr. James D. Mosko, Dr. Heather Mbaye, and Dr. Tanya Settles, who saw my vision from the very start and believed in me throughout the journey. To my dear Terisa, the woman who has been *by my side*, through thick and thin, the good and the bad, the laughter and the tears. The woman who is always proud of "her man" and who has always been my cheerleader. I thank you all for taking this life-changing journey with me!

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

The study examined a priority shift in policing strategies from community policing to homeland security policing by local police departments in the United States over the past 20-years. The study explored whether the use of community policing was reduced as a result. While analyses showed that local policing in the United States shifted its priorities to the new terrorism threat, the analyses also showed that the priority is shifting back to the community and community policing. The implication for positive social change is that police–community relationships can be rebuilt.

This chapter examines the background of policing: from traditional policing to community policing to homeland security policing. The problems created with each priority shift are explained. Because there is little research on the priority shift in policing over time, the intent of the study was to examine the existing data to understand the need to clarify the priority shifts. The RQs address the shifts in priority by examining the implementation, funding, and results of each strategy. Finally, the study explored whether strategy integration is affecting the trend of community policing and homeland security priorities.

Background of the Study

Before the 1980s, policing in the United States primarily used a traditional approach. In traditional policing, officers conceived that their jobs were to combat crime, maintain order, and "to protect and serve" (Skogan, 2004). The police responded, corrected or arrested, and then moved on. The police eschewed the idea of bonding with

the community and maintained an "us against them" attitude toward policing (Skogan, 2004). Traditional policing created a separatist relationship between the police and the community (Skogan, 2004). In minority and diverse communities, traditional policing often created animosity between the police and the community (Murray, 2005). Minority communities felt targeted as criminals with policies such as "stop, question, and frisk" in New York (Center for Constitutional Rights, 2012). The animosity and disconnected feelings between the police and the community often caused residents to avoid contact with the police and to fear them in their communities (Hardin, 2015).

The goal of community policing is to prevent and repair damaged relationships, rebuild trust, and to bridge the gap by encouraging cooperation between the police and the community (Chappell, 2009). The United States federal government describes community policing as being responsible for the overall reduction in crime in the United States (Chappell, 2009). Community policing uses a customer service approach that allows the community to be an integral part of the solutions to the issues in their communities (California Department of Justice, 1999). Community policing is effective at removing the phenomenon known as "fear of the police" and "fear of crime." Trust develops when residents begin to know the officers in their neighborhood (Murray, 2005). The relationship also works in reverse. When officers know the community members through daily contact, they can operate in a more relaxed, less threatening manner (Stein and Griffith, 2015). The trust by both parties can lead to better relationships and less conflict (Stein and Griffith, 2015). Because residents are more

likely to communicate information to officers they know, the relationships can be an excellent tool for crime reduction and crime prevention (Innes, 2006).

Based on the needs of the communities they police and the funding available, law enforcement executives are at liberty to apply resources and implement policing strategies as they see fit (Scrivner, 2004). According to Jones and Supinski (2010), the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001, significantly changed the way local police departments operate and relate to communities in the United States. Policing was no longer concentrated solely on fighting crime and dealing with the issues of the local community. Law enforcement executives became obligated to include terrorism and national security in the decisions they made concerning resources and policing strategies. According to Afacan (2007), the federal government's call for local police departments to be involved with fighting terrorism thrust local police departments into the front lines of the war on terror. Local police departments received additional government funding to incorporate homeland security and terrorism prevention strategies in their policing initiatives.

Homeland security refers to a national effort to prevent terrorist attacks, reduce vulnerability to terrorism, and minimize the damage and recovery time from attacks in the United States (Department of Homeland Security (DHS), 2007). According to Davis, Pollard, Wilson, Varda, Hansell, and Steinberg (2011), in preparation for the new responsibility, patrol officers participated in newly created counterterrorism units and joint terrorism task forces. Officers manned newly established patrol post at vital points in critical infrastructure areas including bridges, tunnels, and sensitive locations like

churches, mosques, and temples. The redeployment of personnel drew away from the resources assigned to community patrols. New training initiatives are in place to teach officers terrorism awareness and preparedness. Homeland security policing also created the need for new resources, such as new vehicles, weapons, and computer systems (Davis et al., 2011). According to Morreale and Lambert (2009), new police recruits, hired with community policing as the training priority, were being trained with the new national security priority in place. The priority of homeland security policing created police departments with reduced or eliminated community-policing efforts and degraded relationships with the community (Thacher, 2005). After September 11, 2001, terrorism and national security were the priorities (Morreale and Lambert, 2009).

Research has examined community policing since its inception in cities like Chicago and New York City (Skogan and Harnett, 1999). A knowledge base exists based on studies that have focused on the implementation of community policing, how community policing works, and whether community policing works (Albrecht, 2011). According to Chappell and Gibson (2009), since the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, studies on the application of homeland security strategies in local police departments and its effects on the community and community relations have occurred. Additionally, research occurs on the compatibility and integration of the two policing strategies. The integration is a possible solution to the feeling of disconnect experienced between police and the community, created through the priority shift. A gap in research exists concerning an examination of the available data on the implementation and funding of both strategies, the priority shift, and the current direction of the priority.

The priority shift sought to establish stronger and better-prepared police departments, and to strengthen the country's infrastructure. This study also showed that this period was temporary and that community policing is returning as the priority in local police departments around the country. This information could help communities understand the shift in priorities and to begin to revitalize the trust and respect that existed between the police and the community prior to September 11, 2001.

Statement of the Problem

This study addressed two problems: (a) the priority shift from community policing to homeland security policing and (b) the redirection of federal funding to homeland security policing strategies. Together, they severed the relationship between police and the community. The priority shift has led to the militarization of policing, the reversion to traditional policing, and the diminution of successful community policing strategies in local police departments (Lee, 2010). The shift in priorities included the federal government calling for local police departments to strengthen their organizations to join the fight on terrorism (Chappell & Gibson, 2009). The trust and bonds that developed between the police and the community over the years of successful community policing were in jeopardy. Lower crime rates were also in jeopardy as more police were required to incorporate homeland security duties, and as the community withdrew from cooperating with the police in fighting crime.

The study examined existing data pertaining to implementation, deployment of personnel, and funding to ascertain the levels at which community policing was scaled back over the years and the current direction of the data into the future. The data

illustrated whether police departments around the country maintained community policing in the midst of the priority redirection, and if so, was it possible to carry them out simultaneously.

A review of the existing literature identified extensive research that explored community-policing strategies, homeland-security policing strategies, the need for integration of the strategies, and how the two strategies could work together. The data compiled for this study spanned 20-years to examine the levels of implementation around the country, whether the priority shift was led by federal funding, and whether integration was part of the strategy by the federal government or the local police departments. Lastly, an examination of the data was done to determine current trends and to predict the direction of policing strategies into the future. The study reveals whether local police departments around the country followed the federal government's call to be included in the fight against terrorism and whether the sacrifice of community policing was a result. A study examining this gap in information is rational.

Hypothesis and Research Questions

Local police departments in the post-9/11 era shifted their priorities from community policing to homeland security policing to concentrate on building their resources, training their officers, and fortifying their cities in the wake of being recruited into the fight against terrorism on United States soil. However, the hypothesis of this study is that with the establishment of police departments with resources and training to address terrorism, community policing will become the priority again. The dependent variable in this study was community policing—the strategy that has been affected and

the variable that has changed. The independent variable was homeland security policing. The shift towards homeland security policing threatened the relationship between the police and the community.

The following research questions (RQs) explored the priority change and its effects.

RQ1: How has the priority of homeland security policing strategies in local police departments in the United States affected community policing strategies?

A. At what rate has community policing been implemented by local police departments in the United States from 1993 to 2013?

B. At what rate have homeland security policing strategies been implemented by local police departments in the United States from 2001 to 2013?

C. How did federal funding for police strategies shift after the terrorist attacks of September 11th?

RQ2: What are the current and future trends of community policing and homeland security policing strategies?

RQ3: How are some local police departments maintaining community-policing strategies in an era of homeland security?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the priority shift from community-policing strategies to homeland security policing strategies in local police departments in the United States. The study examines the implementation and funding of community policing and homeland security by local police departments. The data helped assess whether police departments in the United States maintained community policing, and at what level, while adhering to the federal governments call to join the fight against terrorism. The results helped assess the importance of community policing as a policing strategy in American policing by showing whether or not changes occurred within it, while other priorities were in place. The study showed the level of importance placed on police-community relations by American policing, and the value held by police departments in building trust and bonds with the communities they serve.

Framework

The study used Sir Karl Popper's conceptualization of the liberal democracy. Popper's conceptualization of the liberal democracy offers critiques of totalitarianism, the defense of freedom, an open society, and in opposition of the government's sacrifice of democracy for security (Abdelahzadeh & Edalati, 2011). By using the conceptions within Popper's liberal democracy as the foundation to examine the variables and factors related to the priority shift in policing strategies that occurred after September 11th, I determined whether the theory that homeland security policing affected community policing was valid. The theoretical framework of the study helps to explain that community policing, the dependent variable, was scaled back because priorities shifted towards homeland

security policing, the independent variable, because of the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001. The theoretical framework continues by theorizing that because community policing has been a successful policing strategy, and because the community is the true priority of policing in the United States, once the desired level of preparedness occurs within local police departments, the priorities will begin to shift back towards community policing.

The study used a descriptive design to examine data on the factors of funding and implementation of community policing and homeland security strategies, pre- and post-9/11. The implementation data were an indicator of the responsiveness of local police agencies to the federal government's call for inclusion in the terrorist fight. An examination of existing data from the federal government's Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS), Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics (LEMAS) Survey from 1993 through 2013, assessed the rate at which community policing strategies and homeland security strategies occur during these times. The funding data were also examined to assess how the homeland security priority, past and present, has affected the existence and use of community policing strategies.

Operational Definitions

Local police departments: referenced in the study and throughout LEMAS survey. Refers to state police, highway patrol agencies, municipal police departments, city and county police departments, and sheriffs' offices.

Policing strategy: The plans implemented by police executives to effectively combat and prevent crime, violence, and disorder.

Collaboration: Working together, possibly with an outside agency or entity, to reach a common goal. The sharing of resources for accomplishing a common goal. Can be used interchangeably with the definition of integration.

Strategy integration: Combining two or more plans of actions, for efficiency, effectiveness, and to obtain the best possible outcome. The combining of strategies to maintain and obtain the benefits of both strategies in the most efficient way. Can be used interchangeably with the definition of collaboration.

National security: The concept where the government, the military, and law enforcement acts and performs in a manner to ensure the security and protection of the state and its citizens from national crises and terrorist acts.

Fear of police: A phenomenon that describes a person's feeling of being afraid to interact with law enforcement because of the concern of mistreatment, injury, or arrest.

Fear of crime: A phenomenon that describes a person's feeling of being afraid of being the victim of crime. This fear can cause persons to refuse to go outdoors and can occur with all ages but is more common in the elderly.

Organizational approach: The thinking process and overall direction of an organization concerning management, productivity, and direction.

Assumptions

The research topic examines the existing data to gauge the existence, implementation, and funding of community policing strategies and homeland security strategies in local police departments in the United States. The assumptions made in this study are that police departments in the United States were aware of the uses and

successes associated with community policing. It was also assumed that homeland security and national security were of importance to police departments in the United States. These assumptions were necessary to establish the police departments' need to maintain either one or both of these policing strategies.

Limitations, Scope, and Delimitations

The secondary data was assessed for two strategies—community policing and homeland security—and whether trends suggest the future direction of policing. Due to the dearth of data dating back to the early 90s, I was concerned about the validity of the data based on antiquated research methods. To provide the full outlook of the issue that spanned two decades, I needed to assemble data from the inception of community policing as well as from before and after the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001. To offset this concern and help ensure validity, additional sources were used to check and compare the data. Limitations also existed where data from the early 90s was not tabulated nor stored, therefore not available. To overcome this limitation, examination occurred of available data and references within the study were made to the missing data.

To offset the potential for bias due to my former position in law enforcement—bias that might affect the validity and reliability of the study—this study included only publically available data. No privileged law enforcement information or data that may have been assembled or released to skew the results were used.

Another limitation was the reliability of the data used for examination. In this study, the examinations were based on data only from existing sources. The accuracy of the data was only as reliable and credible as its source. To offset this limitation, the data

came from the Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics (LEMAS) survey, conducted by the United States Department of Justice's Office of Justice Programs and BJS. The LEMAS survey collected information about the administration and management—including community policing—of law enforcement agencies around the country. The survey, conducted periodically since 1987, collected data from over 3,000 state and local law enforcement agencies. Additionally, the COPS budgets from the United States Department of Justice were used to assess expenditures in law enforcement over the 20-year period.

The 20-year period was significant because it allowed the research to span from the time before the popularity of community policing, through the terrorist events of September 11, 2001, and through the current day. The use of over 3,000 state and local police departments, through open participation studies and actual data from COPS and LEMAS, allows for generalization.

Significance of the Study

The use of community policing, from its inception to post-9/11, were the focus of the study. The study examined community policing using a wide lens, which made it unique. The study advances knowledge in the discipline by providing information that confirms the shift in priority. The study showed that after the terrorist attacks the shift in priority away from community policing represented a temporary move in American policing strategies. Research that would help explain the scaling back of community policing since the inception of homeland security policing is limited. The evaluation gap included data that provided evidence of the shift and the results of the shift. The study

fills the gap by showing that the priority shift occurred and highlighting why the shift occurred. By evaluating the priority shift, the knowledge gained could shed light on the reasons for its occurrence and provide new insight for law enforcement and government in implementing new strategies. The study also examined whether local police departments have integrated community policing and homeland security strategies in order to maintain community policing, rather than abandon the strategy. The implications for social change exist through the results of this study that show the community that law enforcement's integration efforts and realignment to the community policing priority are evidence that the police view the communities they serve as a priority.

Social Change

This study has implications for social change. If its results are disseminated to local police departments, the departments will be made aware that they can maintain community policing in an era of homeland security. If community policing is maintained, police officers will be in the communities, addressing the community's needs, communicating with members of the community, and helping to build relationships. By adding homeland security, police address current terrorist threats, protect the communities they serve, and help safeguard the nation. The relationships built between the community and the police help solve crimes and establish trust. This, in turn, reduces the fear of police. The presence of police officers in the community also creates safer communities where children and adults can work and play. The positive role models that community policing officers present can fill gaps in many single-parent households, provide support and encouragement that can help youth remain in school and away from

drugs, gangs, and the violence of the streets. This study provides insight that helps police departments create similar integrated strategies and duplicate the positive social change in their communities.

The results of the study also show communities that local police departments are concerned with relationship building and creating lasting ties with the communities they serve. This is evident from the data which shows that, in the face of the federal government's call for national security, a time when they could have permanently abandoned the community and concentrated solely on terrorism, the community is still a priority.

Summary

Chapter 1 introduced the priority shift from community policing to homeland security over a 20-year period, from 1993 to 2013. The background of policing was explored from traditional policing to community policing to homeland security policing. The research questions that addressed the priority by examining implementation and funding of each strategy, current and future trends, and how community policing is being maintained are introduced. An exploration of the study's hypothesis that police departments shifted to homeland security strategies was done. Two problems were identified: the priority shift from community policing to homeland security policing and the redirection of federal funding to homeland security policing strategies. Explanations of the problems were given and an explanation of how together they may have caused damage to the relationships between police and the community.

Chapter 1 explained the purpose of the study: to use a quantitative approach to examine the priority shift from community policing to homeland security policing. Also detailed was how Sir Karl Popper's democratic model was used as the foundation to examine the theory that the priority shift occurred in policing after September 11th. An explanation of how a descriptive design was used to examine the funding and implementation factors of the community policing and homeland security strategies was provided. The assumptions associated with community policing and the importance homeland security were explained. Chapter 1 details how the limitations relating to older data were offset and how reliability was assured by using data from federal government sources. An explanation of how the study can show communities that the priority shift was temporary and that police are moving back to community policing, provides evidence that the police see communities as the priority, was included. Social change was addressed through the explanation of how this information can open the door for rebuilding the relationships that once existed and by showing police departments that integration can help maintain community policing, regardless of the current priority.

In Chapter 2 I reviewed the literature on community policing, homeland security, and the integration of community policing and homeland security strategies. The information in the chapter affirmed the success associated with the community policing strategy. In Chapter 3, the study's methods are described, and in Chapter 4, the results of the research questions are given. In Chapter 5, the conclusions are stated and recommendations made for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the priority shift from community-policing strategies to homeland security strategies in local police departments in the United States.

After the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, the priorities of local policing in the United States shifted from community policing to homeland security. Post-9/11 policing constituted a complex balancing act for law enforcement executives. The work environment for police, especially those near large metropolitan areas, changed (Stewart & Oliver, 2014). The government's call for national security to become a responsibility of local police departments represented a major task for local police. According to the International Association of Chiefs of Police (2004), local police departments were asked to confront a new threat, one perpetrated by organizations and individuals with vastly different motivations and means of attack than traditional criminals.

At the outset, the new roles that local police departments were expected to undertake were not clearly defined (Morreale & Lambert, 2009; Police Executive Research Forum, 2004). Agencies were required to change their strategies, organizational structures, policies, procedures, training, and budgets (Gilmore Commission, 2003; Henry 2002). Local police did not fully understand how to bring about this change (Murphy, Plotkin, & Flynn, 2003). Priorities, such as community policing, had to shift.

Through community policing the public gained the expectation of a higher level of professionalism from its police departments (Stone & Travis, 2011). That

professionalism included better relations, stronger communication, stronger bonds, increased transparency, and better handling of confrontational situations (Stone & Travis, 2011). Since the terrorist attacks on United States soil and the resulting priority shift, local police departments have had a difficult time living up to this expectation. Their focus shifted and community relations suffered.

In the literature review that follows, an examination and synthesis of the empirical research on community policing and homeland security occurred. A brief look at the history of community policing, its successes, difficulties, and current state took place. The impact of the priority of homeland security on police departments and communities around the country was examined. Finally, a review of the literature on the compatibility and integration of community policing and homeland security occurred.

Literature Search Strategy

To identify prospective, peer-reviewed journal articles and books, dissertations, professional association websites, and federal government websites and publications, the following databases— ProQuest Criminal Justice, Oxford Criminology Bibliographies, Sage Premier, Political Science Complete, and the Homeland Security Digital library— were searched for the period January 2011 to December 2016 using the following keywords: *community policing, homeland security, national security, homeland security policing, and counter-terrorism*. The Boolean operators, AND and OR were used to optimize the results. The review of abstracts explored an article's relevancy to the research questions.

Note, however, the majority of the critical research on community policing dates from the early 1990s, when the use of the community policing strategy was at its peak. In certain instances where the older literature is relevant, information from articles were included that provide details of the history and progress of community policing from its creation through its acceptance in the United States.

Framework

The theoretical framework of this study was that community policing has been scaled back in local police departments in the United States. The theoretical framework of the study suggests that community policing, the dependent variable, was scaled back because priorities shifted towards homeland security policing, the independent variable, because of the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001. The theoretical framework also theorized that once the desired level of preparedness occurred within local police departments, the priorities would shift back towards community policing.

The study used a descriptive design to examine data that relates to the implementation and continuance of community policing and homeland security strategies, pre- and post-9/11. The implementation data was an indicator of the responsiveness of local police agencies to the federal government's call for inclusion in the terrorist fight. An examination of existing data from the United States BJS' LEMAS Survey from 1993 through 2013, the United States Department of Justice's COPS, and the DHS took place. The data from these sources assessed the levels in which community policing strategies and homeland security strategies occurred during these times. An

examination of the data assessed how the homeland security priority, past and present, affected the use and existence of community policing strategies.

Literature Review

History of Community Policing

Sir Robert Peel, who is regarded as the father of modern day policing by most law enforcement professionals, created the first police department in England in 1829. Peel introduced a community-minded style of policing to England. His principles, theories, and constant police reform are very similar to what is community policing today (Plummer, 1999). A famous quote by Peel, "…the police are the people, and the people are the police…" holds true with the current issues of community policing and homeland security. The quote lends itself to the belief that the police have to work with the public in fighting crime and correcting community issues. Today, those issues include terrorism prevention. The nine principles of Sir Robert Peel are as follows:

1. The basic mission that the police exist for is to prevent crime and disorder.
2. The ability of the police to perform their duties is dependent upon public approval of police actions.
3. Police must secure the willing co-operation of the public in voluntary observance of the law to be able to secure and maintain the respect of the public.
4. The degree of co-operation from the public that can be secured diminishes proportionately to the necessity of the use of physical force.

5. Police seek and preserve public favor not by catering to public opinion but by constantly demonstrating absolute impartial service to the law.
6. Police use physical force to the extent necessary to secure observance of the law or to restore order only when the exercise of persuasion, advice, and warning is insufficient.
7. Police, at all times, should maintain a relationship with the public that gives reality to the historic tradition that the police are the public and the public are the police; the police being only members of the public who are paid to give full-time attention to duties which are incumbent on every citizen in the interests of community welfare and existence
8. Police should always direct their action strictly towards their functions and never appear to usurp the powers of the judiciary.
9. The test of police efficiency is the absence of crime and disorder, not the visible evidence of police action in dealing with it.

Although elements of community policing have been visible in policing in the United States for decades, the majority of police departments operated using the traditional policing style. Community policing, as we know it, gained popularity and recognition during the civil rights movement of the 1960s (Riechers & Roberg, 1990). The prevalent civil unrest in the United States spurred the creation of the Commission for Law Enforcement by President Lyndon B. Johnson in 1967. The Commission sought to bring about ways for police to become responsive to the challenges of a rapidly changing society. For years, the government funded research and initiatives with this change in

mind. By the 1980s, community policing became the most successful policing strategy developed to address the needs of society by the police.

Policing has progressed since the 1980s. Policing in the United States now includes homeland security and terrorism prevention. Specifically in larger cities that are targets because of their population size and the elements of importance that exist within their infrastructure. Many states have created their own versions of community policing, adapted to the needs of their particular cities. Some discussion and research have taken place involving the implementation of homeland security into policing and its effects. However, little research occurs about the integration of the two strategies and its effects on the sustainability of community policing.

To begin, a review of the research encumbering the successes of community policing occurs. The literature details the public's participation, their perceptions, as well as the perceptions of the police. An examination of the change in priority, the move away from community policing, and the effect it has had on the community and the police as an organization. The literature review highlights the thoughts and attitudes regarding the need for police departments to return to community policing. The review examines integration as an option and explores the integral parts of successful integrations.

Successes of Community Policing

Police–community partnerships have been a common strategy for police departments to improve the public's satisfaction with the police. Community policing has been the primary tool used to establish and maintain the relationships and partnerships that exist between the community and the police (Wehrman & DeAngelis, 2011). Prior to

the development of community policing, police departments went through scrutiny for being overly concerned with criminality at the expense of the community's needs (Lee, 2010). The changes in society provided a shift in policing that made the community's needs an important measurement in successful policing. The satisfaction of the public became a policing goal, and community policing was the tool to achieve that goal. In fact, Skogan (2006) stated that the community policing concept is so popular with politicians, city managers, and the public, that few police chiefs would risk not having some version of a community-policing program in place.

In addition to law enforcements acceptance, the United States federal government recognizes community policing as being responsible for the reduction of crime in the United States (Chappell, 2009). This recognition led to vigorous support by the federal government, naming it their primary law enforcement priority in 1994 (Lee, 2010; He, Zhao, & Lovrich, 2005). The Office of COPS was established to advance community policing nationwide. Government funding poured into police departments engaged in initiating the strategy. This led to the hiring of 100,000 police officers nationwide and $8.8 billion dollars of federal monies targeted towards local police departments for community policing between 1995 and 2000.

The 2013 LEMAS Survey sponsored by the BJS confirms the expanded use of community policing as a policing strategy. The study found that 7 in 10 local police departments serving populations of 250,000 or more had a mission statement that included a component of community policing. The study also found that police departments serving populations of one million or more were most likely to have a

problem-solving partnership (BJS, 2015). Table 1 shows the percentages of police departments with community policing component mission statements. Figure 1 shows the increases in the number of police departments with a community-policing component between 2003 and 2013. This visual data represents a small portion of the examination of data in this study.

Table 1

Community policing policies and activities of local police departments, by size of population served, 2013

Population served	Mission statement with community policing component (%)	Problem-solving partnership or agreement with local organization (%)
All Sizes	68	32
1,000,0000 or more	86	86
500,000 – 999,999	97	59
250,000 – 499,999	91	67
100,000 – 249,999	87	61
50,000 – 99,999	91	59
25,000 – 49,999	87	52
10,000 – 24,999	81	41
2,500 – 9,999	74	29
2,499 or fewer	50	21

Note. From BJS, LEMAS survey, 2013. Reprinted with permission.

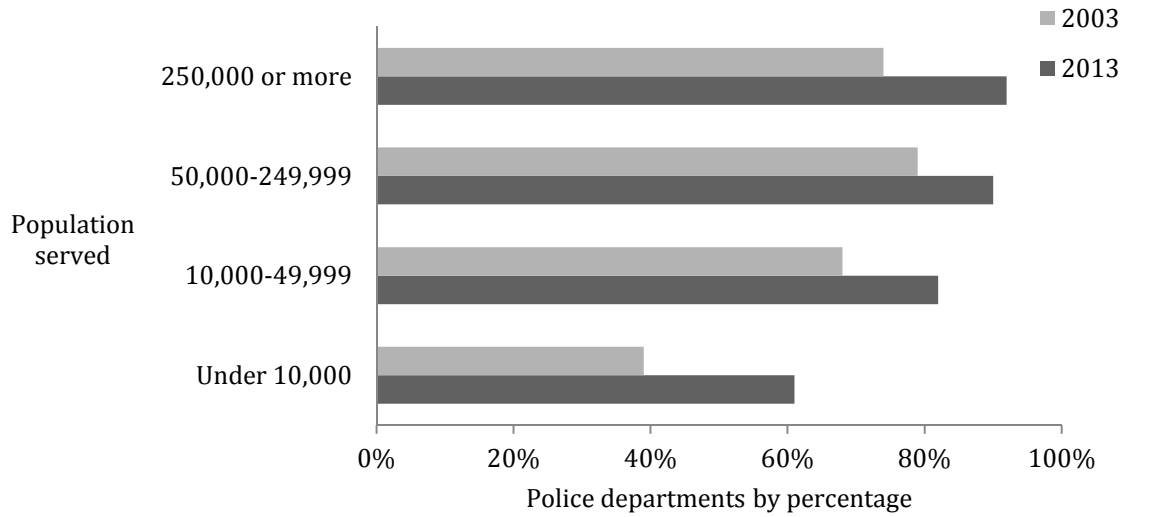

Figure 1. Local police departments with a mission statement that included a community policing component, by size of population served, 2003 and 2013.
Note. From BJS, LEMAS survey, 2003 and 2013. Adapted with permission.

Communities support policies that encourage the establishment and maintenance of relationships with police. A study by Katy Sindall and Patrick Sturgis (2013) found that by increasing police presence with strategies like community policing, citizen confidence in the police is positively affected. In May 2015, President Barak Obama established the President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing, which consisted of an eleven-member team that established recommendations for police reform in the United States. The recommendations include six topic areas called "pillars". The pillars include an increase in the use of community-based policing programs and strategies to build trust and work collaboratively with the community residents to increase public safety (President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing, 2015). The successes associated with community policing exists worldwide as a method for police to engage the public. In fact,

in diverse communities and countries as far away as India, the use of community policing occurs extensively to bridge the gap between police and the community (Kumar, 2012).

Predictable Surprise: A Priority Change

The term predictable surprise refers to knowing the likelihood or probability that an event will occur and choosing not to be prepared to prevent or address it. The author, Larry Irons (2005), used Hurricane Katrina as an example to demonstrate how the failure of government and government agencies to act on information that a devastating hurricane would occur, an issue with inevitable consequences, was "a failure of rational decision-making" (Irons, 2005). Theorists refer to the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, as another example of a predictable surprise. The terrorist attacks on United States soil were inevitable. An event that the United States should have known would occur eventually. An event the United States should have been prepared.

As a result of the attacks, the federal government has instituted innovations in national security to prepare and prevent future attacks. Officials and leaders have learned from the occurrence and are reinforcing for the prevention, and preparing for the response, should it occur again. Strengthening aircraft cockpit doors against hijackers, increasing security at airports, reminding citizens that, "If you see something, say something" (Reeves, 2012), and incorporating local police departments to be vigilant and join the fight, are just a few of the strategies the federal government has initiated in the fight against terrorism and to prepare for another predictable event. The changes come from the realization that the fight against terrorism is no longer simply a global war; it is

a fight that must occur from within our own borders. Local strategies have become paramount in thwarting terrorism in its earliest stages (Traina, 2010).

The United States federal government initiated a priority change towards homeland security policing, which creates a new role for local police. The new role included uncovering terrorist networks, collaborating with other agencies, responding to suspicious situations, and serving as first line emergency responders (Shernock, 2009). The priority change required local police departments around the country to become cognizant in the area of terrorism, which was once the responsibility of the federal government. Ortiz, Hendricks, and Sugie (2007); Pelfrey (2005) suggested that the primary role of the local police department in an era of homeland security is intelligence gathering in the war on terror. This role requires local law enforcement officers to be the eyes and ears of the community and to detect problems that larger agencies may not be able to detect.

Effects of Change: The Need for Repair

Jason Vaughn Lee (2010) explained that a common critique against homeland security is that its focus is too narrow on criminal law enforcement. When law enforcement agencies are given the task of homeland security, they often turn their attention and their practices to a policing style from the past. Lee (2010) agreed with critiques that see homeland security policing as a 21st-century repackaging of traditional policing. Additionally, some local police departments have used homeland security funding provided by the federal government primarily to purchase protective equipment, response vehicles, communication equipment, and to provide specialized training for

first-responders, with none directed to the community. In 2003, the city of Denver, Colorado, received a $12.5 million Homeland Security Grant (Lent, 2003), where none of the funding was directed to develop a program or strategy that included community involvement or participation. Many local police departments and cities have utilized the government funding in the same manner, leading to more militarized police departments.

The militarization of police resulting from the new priority is often viewed negatively by the public, but as a positive necessity by law enforcement. Police are given a task that is in line with their loyalties as Americans. A case study of the Long Beach, California, police department found that after the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, the department became more focused on tactical concerns, patrol, and counterterrorism. This new focus occurred while abandoning community policing tactics such as foot patrol and community relations (Raymond, Hickman, Miller, & Wong, 2005). Maquire and King (2004) have found that under the new priority, police departments' tasks have shifted to counterterrorism, surveillance, intelligence gathering, working with other federal agencies and the military, and securing critical infrastructure.

From a law enforcement perspective, the priority shift helps to prevent new terrorist-related attacks in the United States as well as numerous other benefits. Davis, Pollard, Ward, Wilson, Varda, Hansell, and Steinberg (2010) identified the long-term effects of law enforcement's priority shift towards homeland security and counter-terrorism in a study for the National Institute of Justice, U.S. Department of Justice, through the RAND Corporation.

Table 2 summarizes the benefits:

Table2

National Institute of Justice, 2007. Effects of law enforcement's focus on counterterrorism/homeland security

Domain	Description
Overall cultural or paradigm shift	Long-term focus on CT and HS represents a cultural or paradigm shift towards greater collaboration among law enforcement at local, state, and federal levels. More openness in the sharing of intelligence information. More openness in the sharing of intelligence information.
NIMS training	Improved incident mgmt of large-scale events involving multi-agency response.
Other CT and HS training and specialized training	HS training dept-wide improved the cop-on-the-street's awareness of the threat of terrorism, what information to look for, & how to report it. Improved dept's capabilities to respond to CBRNE-related incidents, including developing dept. proficiency in using NIMS. HS training is now part of departments' core curriculum.
Relationship building with the local community	Improved community outreach & relationship building with community groups. Assignment of special community liaison officers to outreach with the community & private sector related to HS & to serve as a point of contact for HS-related info.
Specialized tactical response units	Specialized tactical response units developed or enhanced response capabilities following 9/11 to address CBRNE and other terrorist-related incidents. In addition to developing local & regional capability, has also helped develop law enforcement response capabilities in general. Specialized response units have benefited from HS grant funding in terms of additional investments in equip. & training.
Grants management	Having dedicated grants management personnel to manage HS grants has resulted in capacity-building within LEAs to manage and administer grants. Also has led to investments in grants management systems.
Fusion centers	Improved regional coordination and information-sharing about terrorist-related threats among local law enforcement agencies and other regional stakeholders. Adoption of an all-crimes, all-hazards approach to information-sharing and analysis has also had spillover benefits related to crime in general. Improved LEAs abilities to address cross-jurisdictional crime and to develop analytic capabilities in general. Fusion centers have helped to formalize the diffusion process. In addition, by expanding the fusion centers' networks to include other LEAs in a region has led to improvements in strengthening relationships among agencies.
Equipment and technology	HS funding allowed LEAs to purchase a range of equipment such as sensors, specialized bomb robots, etc. HS grant requirements helped standardize the equipment used by all first responders and enabled LEAs to purchase PPE to prepare for CBRNE attacks. LEAs are using HS funding to leverage technology.

Note. From "Long-Term Effects of Law Enforcement's Post-9/11 Focus on Counterterrorism and Homeland Security," by L. Davis, M. Pollard, K. Ward, J. Wilson, D. Varda, L. Hansell, and P. Steinberg, 2010, National Institute of Justice, RAND Corporation, p. xxxi. Adapted with permission.

From the community perspective, homeland security policing represents the militarization of police, a threat to community-orientated models of policing, and an option that can alienate and further widen the divide between the police and citizens (Lee, 2010; Wyrick, 2013). The use of armored vehicles, armored gear, and other equipment put in place as the result of the militarization of law enforcement operating in the current terrorist climate, can send a distinct message to residents (Vaz, 2015). It sends a message of the reversion to a past time when traditional policing was the strategy primarily used by police, a time when the needs of citizens were not the primary focus of law enforcement.

Kraska and Kappeler (1997) described militarization as a set of beliefs and values that stress the use of force and domination as an appropriate means to solve problems and gain political power, while glorifying the tools to accomplish this with military power, hardware, and technology. Unfortunately, these tactics often leave the citizens and communities as the ones feeling they are the target of the police department's war. An aggressive militarized police force may perpetuate brutality against the same communities that its intent is to protect. Additionally, militarization can create a set of institutional norms that leads to greater violence by both the police and their targets (Paul & Birzer, 2008). In an article written by Paul and Birzer (2008), published in Critical Issues in Justice and Politics, they explained that persons targeted as criminals become more violent in their interactions with the police because of the potential for increased harm, while citizens begin to lose trust in the institution designed to protect them. The article examined the militarization of the American police force as it pertains to

disruption and brutalization of the American community. The authors reiterated previous scholar's arguments that the paramilitary environment creates a warrior-like mentality in the police, where the American streets become the front, and the American citizens become the combatants (Weber, 1999). Paul and Birzer (2008), further explained that the militaristic orientation could lead members to exist in a culture where they believe that they are engaged in combat or war. Through training and the mindset established by police departments in the military mindset, officers often begin to think and act like soldiers, alienating themselves from the communities they serve (Paul & Birzer, 2008).

In an article written by Karl Bickel (2013), a senior policy analyst at the United States Department of Justice's COPS, a discussion on whether police militarization is threatening community policing occurred. In addition to explaining that the current militaristic trend in policing is a move away from Peel's principles of policing which emphasized crime prevention, public approval, willing cooperation of the public, and the use of minimal physical force, he asked:

> if after hiring officers in the spirit of adventure, who have been exposed to action oriented police dramas since their youth, and sending them to an academy patterned after a military boot camp, then dressing them in black battle dress uniforms and turning them loose in a subculture steeped in an "us versus them" outlook toward those they serve and protect, while prosecuting the war on crime, war on drugs, and now a war on terrorism—is there any realistic hope of institutionalizing community policing as an operational philosophy? (Bickel, 2013)

Clifton Parker (2014), of the Stanford Report, conducted an interview of Stanford law professor and former federal prosecutor David Sklansky, about the current trend. Sklansky's response was that the militarization of police departments in the United States is counterproductive and is doing more harm than good. He questioned whether there was a need for police to be heavily armed, using armored vehicles and military-grade equipment in our communities and neighborhoods that are not war zones.

As part of many local police department's objectives, to maintain a national security level of preparedness against terrorism, military-style equipment and resources are acquired. During the recent conflicts that have occurred around the country between the police and the communities they serve, the military-style equipment and resources were being used against the residents. In a time where community policing was absent, attention to the harshness and militarization of policing strategies, similar to the 1960s and 1970s, have resurfaced. The public outcry for change spurred action by President Barack Obama to adopt, by executive order, the Grayson Amendment. It restricts the Department of Defense and other federal agencies from providing local police departments with military equipment (Canty, 2014). The Grayson Amendment is just one of the many attempts by the federal government to create friendlier more customer service based policing. The call for less aggressive policing is becoming the order of the day (Haberman, Groff, Ratcliffe,& Sorg, 2016).

Integration as an Option

Some in governmental and law enforcement administration fail to see how homeland security and community policing overlap. The overlapping principles are those

concerning local law enforcement and its role in providing communities with protection and security. Friedmann and Cannon (2007) acknowledged that it is the realization of the value that community policing holds in homeland security that should lead to the incorporation of the strategy as a key element of homeland security policies and programs. Afacan (2007) identified the community policing principles of communication, dialog, and connection with the public as tools that can assist efforts to fight terrorism. Collie (2006) identified seven principles of community policing that he feels apply to homeland security efforts: problem solving, accountability, change, trust, vision, empowerment, and leadership.

Chappell and Gibson (2009) conducted a study in Virginia where police chiefs who utilized community policing in their departments while also implementing homeland security strategies. The study found that departments, where community policing was maintained and used in conjunction with homeland security, did not see a reduction of the influence of community policing. Instead, the study found that the two missions worked complimentary to one another. The study revealed that anti-fear campaigns, disaster prevention, and hazard mitigation when shared with the community in a collaborative focus was a more successful approach than the traditional model. The collaborative approach allowed the community to feel a part of the solution to the issues in their communities and the national issue of terrorism.

Additionally, the importance of collaboration with the public using integrated strategies of community policing and homeland security is paramount. By enlisting the public, the disruption of terrorist activities and terrorist plots occur in its infancy stages

(Traina, 2010). By collaborating with the store owner who may recognize the purchase of large quantities of bomb-making materials, the landlord or superintendent that may recognize unusual activity or behavior from a tenant or the friend or family member who notices an unusual change in the behavior of a loved one. It is these reports to the local police department that can foil the operations and planning of the homegrown 'lone wolf' terrorist and the domestic groups.

In 2011, the White House released a strategic plan for reducing the threat of violent extremism in the United States. The plan was a call for community–police and community-government relationships that function in a community policing style (Silk, 2012). The relationships built with the community are part of a tactic to keep people from joining or supporting terrorism. According to the Executive Director of the Center for Policing Terrorism, homegrown terrorist cells exist in many cities in the United States. The biggest concern is that these "lone wolf" terrorist do not have to blend in, they are already in (Traina, 2010). These persons are already United States citizens or living unnoticed in this country.

In September 2015, the United States Department of Justice's Office of Community Oriented Policing Services released a Ferguson After-Action Report. The report focused on police response to the demonstrations, protests, and rioting that followed the shooting death of Michael Brown in Ferguson, Missouri. The report identified and examined the significant findings about the critical decisions and practices used by law enforcement, in attempts to develop lessons to help build trust, improve relationships, and protect civil rights (Department of Justice, 2015). The report, although

designed as a blueprint for the more than 16,000 law enforcement agencies around the country regarding local issues, concluded by making recommendations on the importance of maintaining community policing in the policing strategies used today and developed into the future. It reinforced the need for integrating community policing and homeland security strategies to allow the community and police to work together in all aspects.

Lessons in Integration

One of the major concerns and issues that have risen because of the homeland security priority undertaken by law enforcement is profiling. Treatment by law enforcement is one of the major concerns of minority communities around the country as homeland security transforms from a federal government issue to a national issue where local law enforcement are participants. Following the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, American Muslims felt profiled by police and other agencies involved with homeland security. One of the biggest area of concern came from the Transportation Security Agency and airport security as conceiving all Muslims as a threat to homeland security (Hasisi &Weisburd, 2011; Tyler, Schulhofer, & Huq, 2010). A study by Hasisi and Weisburd (2014) demonstrated that minority cultures with an affiliation to a country or culture where violent conflicts are common are likely to generate the image of an enemy in the minds of citizens. The anger and fear of terrorism stretches beyond the law enforcement community to the residential communities across the nation. A good majority of the fear and anger comes from the ignorance associated with not knowing the Muslim culture and their beliefs

Another concern regarding the integration of the strategies is that many police agencies have not adopted the central elements of community policing (Morabito, 2010). A study by Morabito (2010) examined the adoption of community policing in 474 police departments across the United States. The study found several predictors of adoption, the first being the size of the organization. Larger organizations tend to have an easier time adjusting to radical innovations than smaller organizations (Rogers, 2003). Smaller agencies usually have smaller budgets and fewer resources, making it harder to add the necessary training, equipment, and manpower to undertake a new strategy.

Additionally, a study by Giblin, Burruss, and Schafer (2014) found that the adoption of homeland security strategies does not occur uniformly across all police departments in the United States. The study revealed that larger agencies are more likely to prepare for and respond to critical incidents. The study examined whether proximity to larger agencies played a part in the homeland security preparedness of over 300 small departments in the United States. The findings contend that proximity to larger agencies meant higher interaction with the larger agencies that therefore led to better preparedness. Also affirmed by the Giblin, Burruss, and Schafer (2014) study was that the perceived risk of cities of any size to terrorism led to better preparedness. The cities that viewed themselves as being more at risk of experiencing a terrorism-related event were usually better prepared, regardless of size.

Another area of concern that affects the implementation of an integrated strategy of community policing and homeland security are the perceptions of the neighborhood by residents and the police. The needs of the community are paramount in understanding

how a program or strategy can add to or enhance the desired goal. A study by Stein and Griffith (2015) examined the police and resident perceptions of three high crime neighborhoods in a Midwestern city in the United States. The study revealed that residents in high crime neighborhoods have a distrust of the police. They also feel that it is the responsibility of the police to stop crime (Terpstra, 2011). This distrust by residents creates a divide where citizens fear retaliation by criminals if they interfere with their criminal enterprises and would more likely get involved if they knew the police would support and protect them (Terpstra, 2011). Additionally, these neighborhoods generally do not have crime prevention programs and residents are unlikely to get involved in a community-policing program because they do not agree with the types of programs that the police feel the community needs. Residents feel that the police do not know the needs of their neighborhoods because they are outsiders, while the resident's perceptions are from everyday lived experiences (Perkins, Wandersman, Rich, & Taylor, 1993; Taylor, 2001).

The study revealed that police perceptions of the neighborhood are more positive within the primarily White neighborhoods that have an active crime prevention program. In these communities, police and residents usually have a good relationship, the communities are more close-knit, and there is usually the presence of community organizations (Terpstra, 2011). These perceptions influence the way police officers feel about residents. A certain level of trust is established when the officers feel the residents are actively working to make their own communities safe. Consequently, officers find it easier to approach and work with residents who are already involved in bettering the

community. These perceptions are important because it is the police officers who take the lead to make these programs effective (Terpstra, 2011). When both residents and the police are approachable and share the same outlook, the likelihood of a program being successful increases.

Training and education are paramount in making collaboration and integration work. Using training to educate the officers and the public provides the understanding and insight into the need for relationship building that benefits all parties involved. Providing workshops, seminars, and literature for the residents of the community is an initial step towards enlightening the community. Additionally, inviting community leaders and residents into the precinct to learn about crime and terrorism information establishes the groundwork for better-informed residents and residents that feel they are part of the solution to the issues and problems within their own community. Enhancing police officer training to include updated socialization topics, data and information on the make-up of the community, and the different customs and religious practices common amongst the culturally diverse residents in the community is beneficial. Training allows officers to become familiar with the community's residents, laying the groundwork for conversation and establishing relationships. By educating both the residents and the police, the integration of community policing and homeland security can evolve in communities where it does not exist or exist in limited form.

Finally, one of the biggest lessons towards integration is the positive results obtained through having the public involved in the terrorism fight. Over a dozen planned terrorist attacks have been thwarted in the United Kingdom between 2001 and 2008,

leading to the successful prosecution of over 200 individuals for planning, supporting, and inciting terrorism (Briggs, 2010). Fortunately, the watchful public, who have taken action and helped to avert disaster by simply notifying the local police of unusual activity, has discovered several threats (Traina, 2010). One successful prevention of an attack occurred in New York's Times Square on May 1, 2010, when an alert street vendor noticed a vehicle emitting smoke parked in a no parking area and alerted the police. Another similar incident occurred in 2007 when an alert ambulance crew noticed a smoking car in front of a London nightclub and alerted police. The nightclub had over 1,500 people inside and the car contained a bomb. The foiling of these terrorist plots abroad and on United States soil by the watchful eyes of the public, provide supporting evidence that communities and the public need to be aware and enlisted in the counterterrorism strategies of this nation (Briggs, 2010).

These lessons provide insight into how collaboration between the community and the police can translate into successful policing strategies. Successfully educating both parties, changing the perceptions of both parties, and ensuring full adoption of strategies ensures that collaboration occurs, the rebuilding of relationships established through community policing occurs, and provides access to the additional eyes and ears on the streets in the furtherance of crime and terrorism prevention. By changing and improving the relationships, collaboration can exist, creating the cooperation needed to tackle the community's and the nation's issues together.

Branding and Successful Applications

Integration has been successful in police departments of larger cities around the country. Many of the police departments have strong community policing programs, making it harder to discard one strategy over the other. Although community policing is somewhat more prevalent in larger US cities, its importance in homeland security makes it vital for all U.S. cities. The smaller cities have just as much to gain or lose and are equally responsible for the national security element that the federal government has called for. Smaller cities can learn a lot from the larger cities that have figured out and devised ways to make the integration work.

An examination of the larger cities where the integration of community policing and homeland security has been successful finds that each city has branded their version of the integration to make it their own. This branding accompanies traits that are particular to the needs of each area. In some cities, gangs are a primary issue, in some it is homelessness, and in others its crime. Integration allows each city to choose its focus and blend successful strategies while always making community policing an active ingredient. It is important to know that integration is not limited to two strategies or even three strategies. Integration can be accomplished with as many strategies that are necessary to accomplish the organization's goals and mission.

In New York, the New York City Police Department has initiated a new strategy, Neighborhood Policing. Is it community policing? Of course it is, but it has been rebranded, rethought, and revamped to include the ingredients that are necessary to police New York City in 2015. It is not the community policing strategy of 2014, 2013, or even

of 2000. It is a new strategy categorized and labeled by its primary focus as the Five Ts: Tackling Crime (or Tactics), Technology, Training, Terrorism, and Trust (NYPD, n. d.). It is a strategy with a community policing platform where crime, technology, training, terrorism, and trust are incorporated. The new strategy allows patrol officers the time within their shift to follow up on past crimes, meet with the community, and work as active problem solvers in their steady assigned sectors. With the use of training and technology, this new function can bridge the gap that exists between the police and the communities, build trust with community residents, and allow officers to gain valuable information concerning crimes and the possibility of unusual terrorist activity. This program builds relationships with the police and the residents, making it easier for residents to communicate and confide in the officers.

In California, the Los Angeles Police Department has its own version of the community policing strategy with the goal of blending crime fighting and counterterrorism efforts seamlessly (Downing, 2009). The Rodney King beating in 1991 and the Rampart scandal of 1999, claiming abuse, perjury, and tampering with evidence within the Los Angeles Police Department led to the implementation of a consent decree to assure reform (Phillips & Jiao, 2016). By 2009, a new community approach led to approval ratings among residents increasing by double digits (Phillips & Jiao, 2016). In Los Angeles, community policing proved to be a critical strategy in policing. In adding the terrorism element to its police force, a concept known as convergence was used. Convergence involves bringing different concepts together to achieve a result that is beneficial to all (Downing, 2009).

In Florida, the Miami Police Department's version of an integrated community policing and homeland security strategy is called Operation Miami Shield. Operation Miami Shield is an initiative that utilizes public and police partnerships that create awareness and increased police visibility to deter, dissuade, and discourage crime and terrorism (City of Miami Police Department, n.d.). By coupling successful community policing crime strategies with anti-terrorism initiatives, the Miami Police Department has made the residents of Miami part of its terrorism fight.

Chicago has an initiative called Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy (CAPS) that it has been using since 1993 (pre-9/11). It was originally described as Chicago's newest weapon against crime. Through the initiative police, the community, and other city agencies are brought together to identify and solve the community's problems, rather than simply react after the fact. CAPS involves community-based beat officers, regular community meetings involving the police and the community, extensive training for both the police and the community, more efficient use of city services that impact crime, and new technology to help identify and target high-crime areas (Chicago Police Department, n.d.). The CAPS program does not include a terrorism awareness or prevention element, however, it is a perfect example of a successful, existing program that could. All of the elements are in place to add anti-terrorism ingredients to existing training and to utilize the existing relationships with the community to address terrorism issues and concerns.

The integrated strategies being deployed in New York City, Los Angeles, and Miami serve as examples of how community policing and homeland security can be blended. The collaboration benefits the police and the community by achieving better

relationships, and community involvement in fighting crime and terrorism, ultimately leading to safer neighborhoods. The Chicago Police Department is an example of a successful community policing strategy that already contains the necessary ingredients to address terrorism. It serves to show how local police departments around the country with community policing programs can update and include new material to develop an integrated community policing/homeland security strategy that would simultaneously address crime and terrorism, bringing them into the 21st century.

Summary

Chapter 2 began by examining existing literature on the history of community policing and homeland security policing. Specific reference is made to Sir Robert Peele's influence on policing past and present. By examining the history of the two strategies, the successes, the difficulties, and the current state of each strategy is reviewed. The literature covers the introduction and implementation of homeland security into policing after the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001. The impact of the priority shift from community policing to homeland security on police departments and communities are explored. An examination of literature on the compatibility of the two strategies and the integration option occurred, leading to a detailed look of strategy integration successes in police departments around the country.

Chapter 2 addressed the literature search strategy, including the use of peer-reviewed journal articles, books, and dissertations located and accessed through criminal justice and political science databases. Explanations are provided on the use of the descriptive design to examine the factors within the theoretical framework, which is that

community policing has been scaled back because of the priority shift towards homeland security policing.

Chapter 3 describes the methodology and the research design used to answer the research questions. Chapter 4 details the results based on the research questions and chapter 5 offers conclusions and makes recommendations for future research based on an evaluation of the results assembled in chapter 4.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the priority shift from community-policing strategies to homeland security strategies in local .police departments in the United States. The study explored whether the allocation of government funding to police departments played a role in the priority shift in police departments. The data from the study assessed whether or not police departments in the United States maintained community policing, and at what level, while adhering to the federal government's call to join the fight against terrorism. The study helped to assess the importance of community policing as a policing strategy in American policing, by showing whether the strategy was maintained while homeland security and preparedness priorities, like deployment of personnel and training, were in place. The results indicated the level of importance placed on police–community relations by local police departments in the United States and the value placed on building trust and bonds with the communities they serve.

In this chapter I described the quantitative approach and the descriptive design used in the study. The sources of data are given, along with the data collection and examination methods. The steps used to assure the use of ethical procedures were explained, along with the assurance of reliability and validity.

Research Design and Rationale

The study used a quantitative approach and a descriptive statistical research design to examine the hypothesis that community policing had been scaled back because

of the prioritization of homeland security by local police departments in the United States. In using a descriptive statistical research design, a summary of the data related to each factor within each variable, is determined. Community policing is the dependent variable in the study, which has been scaled back because of a priority shift towards homeland security policing, the independent variable. Both variables, community policing and homeland security policing, contain the same funding and implementation factors.

The rationale of the study continues by proving that once the desired levels of readiness and preparedness increase within local police departments, the priorities will begin to shift back towards the community-policing factor. In fact, the data shows that the shift back towards community policing is already taking place in police departments around the country. Proving the importance placed on community policing, acknowledging its successes, and most importantly, confirming that the community, and the relationship with the community, are the true priority in policing in the United States.

The RQs are quantitative in nature. They help test the objective theory of the scaling back of community policing because of the implementation of homeland security policing. The RQs also help to ascertain whether a resurgence of the community policing strategy is occurring. The descriptive statistical design allows for the summary of the numerical data related to the implementation and funding of each variable. A comparison of the realized trends and variances occurs to obtain the results. The examination evaluates whether the homeland security policing variable is a factor that may have influenced the priority shift.

The descriptive statistical research design for this study is associated with accessing data on the two variables of homeland security policing and community policing. Accessing either variable has limited constraints associated with time and resources. The resources used are the United States Department of Justice's, BJS, LEMAS Survey and the United States Department of Justice's COPS. The LEMAS surveys date back to 1987 and are published approximately every three (3) years. The years that publication did not occur, where no data was collected or compiled, creates an obvious gap in data. There is no way of filling this gap without having access to unlimited time and funding, as does the United States Federal government. To obtain funding data and to help fill-in the gaps in implementation data from the LEMAS survey, an examination of data from the United States Department of Justice's COPS program occurs. The examination occurs from the collection of data from the years where data exist.

The descriptive statistical design choice is consistent with research designs such as meta-analysis, where analysis occurs through data mining of existing data. In studies involving law enforcement agencies in the United States, where information and data are public, the descriptive statistical research design is an accepted design for conducting research of this type. Its use allows for the examination of the summarized secondary data relating to the effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable.

Population

The target population for this study consists of all local police departments in the United States. With over 17,000 local police departments in the United States (Reaves,

2015), the population is broad. By accessing the LEMAS survey, the data represents a nationally representative population of the more than 17,000 publicly funded State and local law enforcement agencies in the United States. The local police departments are those operated by a municipal or county government. Police departments with special jurisdictions such as parks, transit systems, airports, or school systems are not included.

Sampling Method

Through a stratified sample design, based on the number of sworn personnel, the identification of state and local police departments in the United States with 100 or more sworn officers occurs. The sample size of state and local police departments in the United States with 100 or more sworn officers varied each year and ranged from 950 to 2,503 law enforcement agencies, from 1993 to 2013. The population also consists of a nationally representative sample of agencies with fewer than 100 sworn officers. The nationally representative sample of agencies with fewer than 100 officers are chosen using stratified random sampling based on the type of agency (local police, sheriff, or special police), the size of population served, and the number of sworn officers. The sample of law enforcement agencies in the United States with fewer than 100 officers varied each year and ranged from 831 to 2145 law enforcement agencies, from 1993 to 2013. The BJS sends full-length surveys to the state and local police departments in the United States with 100 or more sworn officers. A nationally representative sample of agencies with fewer than 100 sworn officers receives an abbreviated version of the survey.

The BJS sends an initial mailing and two follow-up mailings to the identified agencies. The final sample size comes from the responses received from the three mailings. Each year the sample size changes based on the response rates of the mailings. Figure 2 is a graph that shows the response rate for the LEMAS surveys ranges from 86% through 97.8%. Figure 3 is a graph that shows the total number of completed responses compared to the number of the LEMAS surveys mailed out for each corresponding year, which ranged from 2822 to 3412 responses. Each graph details similar data viewed from different perspectives. The high response rate of the LEMAS study adds to the reliability and validity of the study because the subsequent data is representative of a large portion of the population. Because the data comes from a sample that is representative of the majority of local police departments in the United States, generalization is present. Table 3, showing the detailed information regarding the 1993 through 2013 BJS' LEMAS survey response rate, the total number of surveys sent, the amount responded based on agency size, total response, and the response by individual law enforcement agencies is listed below.

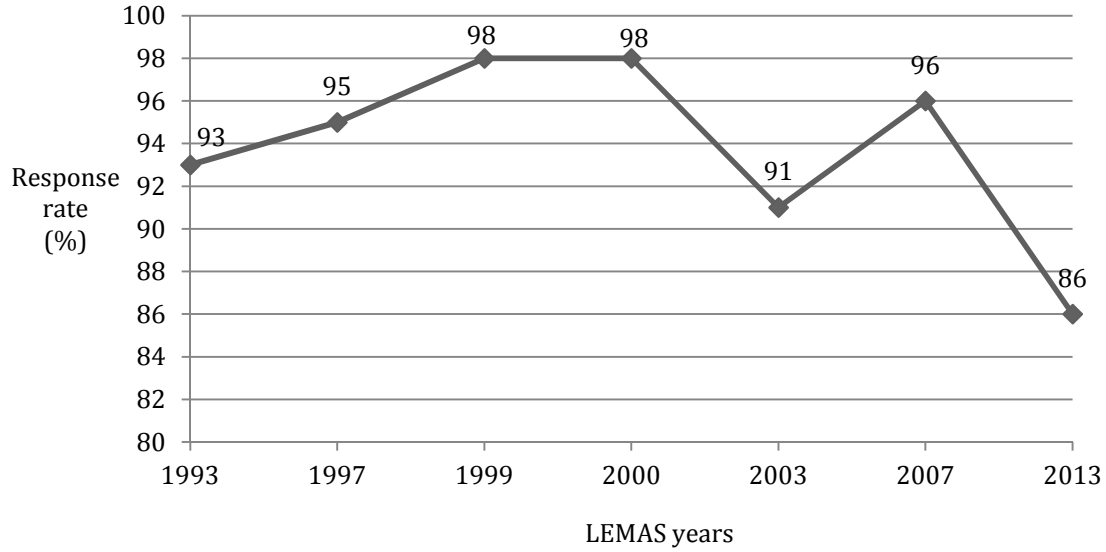

Figure 2. Response rate, LEMAS survey data, 1993-2013.
Note. Data From BJS

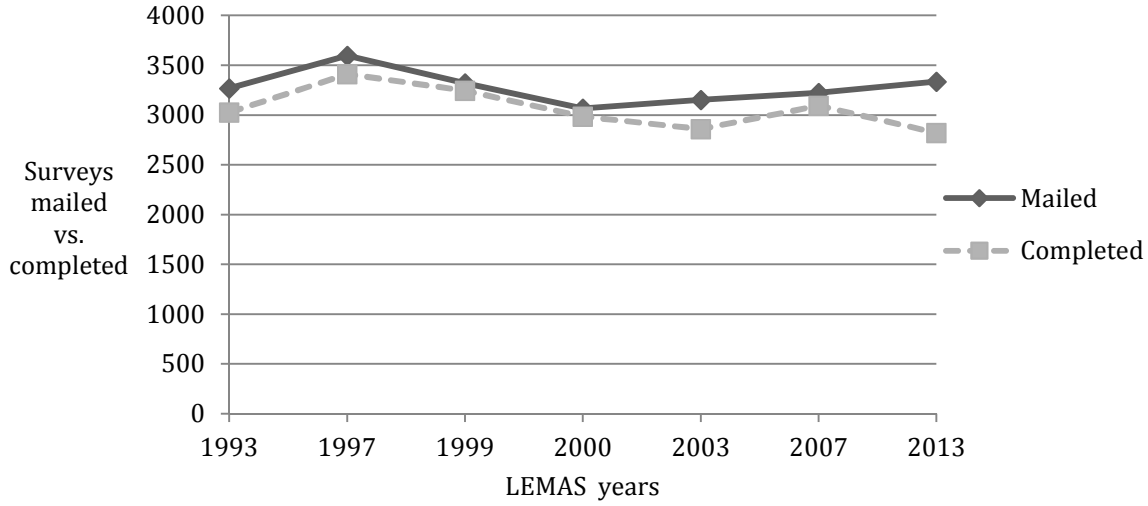

Figure 3. Mailed vs. completed surveys, LEMAS survey data
Note. Data from BJS, LEMAS surveys, 1993 to 2013

Table 3

LEMAS survey sample size & response rate by year

Reported	Response	Total	SR	NSR	Total	Individual Response			
years	rate (%)	sent	100+	100-	response	local	sheriff	special	state
1993	92.6	3270	2197	831	3028	1827	918	234	49
1997	94.9	3597	2503	909	3412	2012	915	356	129
1999	97.8	3319	2363	883	3246	2052	967	178	49
2000	97.8	3065	866	2119	2985				49
2003	90.6	3154	904	1955	2859	1947	863	-	49
2007	95.9	3224	950	2145	3095	2095	951	-	49
2013	86	3336			2822	2059	717	-	46

Note. BJS, LEMAS surveys, 1993 to 2013

Procedures for Participation and Data Collection

The LEMAS questionnaires are sent to the same agencies every year based on the number of sworn personnel. Data reported in the BJS' Directory Survey of Law Enforcement Agencies for the 1993 LEMAS and the Census of State and Local Law Enforcement Agencies (CSLLEA) for all other years, provides staffing levels, employment levels, and community policing information for all State and local law enforcement agencies in the United States. LEMAS data collections related to this study occurred in 1993, 1997, 2000, 2003, 2007, and 2013. A limited data collection focusing on community policing occurred in 1999.

To ensure adhesion to the study and the research questions, an examination of the questions from the secondary sources related to community policing occurred. Appendix

A contains a complete listing of community policing questions from the Census of State and Local Law Enforcement Agencies (CSLLEA). Below is a sample of the CSLLEA community policing questions:

1. As of June 30, 2000, did your agency have a community-policing plan?
2. During the 12-month period ending June 30, 2000, what proportion of agency personnel received at least eight hours of community policing training (problem-solving, SARA, community partnerships, etc.)?

Data collection, informed consent, and permissions are not in the scope of the study because all data is secondary and is obtained from the LEMAS studies which are publically available information from the United States Department of Justice's, Office of Justice Programs', BJS. Permissions have been obtained for the tables and figures reproduced for this study. Permission letters are included in Appendix E and F.

Instrument

The BJS of the United States Department of Justice is the principal federal agency responsible for measuring crime, crime programs, and crime related issues. The Urban Institute's Justice Policy Center collects and processes data, under the watch of the BJS Director, William J. Sabol. The Urban Institute, based in Washington, D.C., is a nonprofit think tank that carries out economic and social policy research. The Justice Policy Center of the Urban Institute concentrates on research and evaluations that aim to improve justice policy and practice at the national, state, and local levels. BJS Statistician Dr. Brian A. Reaves, who has been with the BJS' Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics (LEMAS) program from its inception in 1987, reports the

results from the Urban Institute in written form. A second BJS Statistician checks and verifies the results to strengthen reliability. Editing is done, and the report is published within 2years of the data being collected (BJS, n.d.). The intention of the survey is to provide law enforcement agencies an opportunity to assess their progress relative to that of comparable jurisdictions. Permissions are unnecessary because the survey and all its data are publicly available on the United States Department of Justice's website.

The BJS uses a questionnaire to obtain the data in the LEMAS surveys. The amount of questions in each year's surveys ranges from 26 questions in 1999 to 62 questions in 2003. The data obtained through the questions focus on personnel, expenditures, functions performed, officer salaries, education and training requirements, types of weapons authorized, body armor policies, computers and information systems, the use of special units, task force participation, and community policing activities. The survey questions update each year the survey occurs to reflect emerging issues in the field of law enforcement (BJS, n.d.).

Starting in 1997, a community policing section is included with survey questions developed by the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS). The input is the result of the ongoing partnership between, and the joint funding of the survey by, the BJS and the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS). The inclusion of community policing questions is one-step in assessing the impact community policing programs have had on law enforcement agencies across the country. The data also allows for the monitoring and observing of changes occurring in policing.

The LEMAS survey questions pertaining to community policing are in a separate section of the study each year, since 1997. Appendix B contains a complete list of the questions related to community policing from the LEMAS survey. Below is a selection of questions from the LEMAS survey pertaining to community policing which illustrate the correlation to the RQs and the issues in this study:

1. As of January 1, 2013, what best describes your agency's WRITTEN MISSION STATEMENT?
2. During the 12-month period ending December 31, 2012, what proportion of FULL-TIME SWORN PERSONNEL received at least 8 HOURS of training on COMMUNITY POLICING issues (e.g., problem solving, SARA, and community partnerships)?
3. During the 12-month period ending December 31, 2012, did your agency regularly assign the SAME patrol officers' primary responsibility for a particular AREA OR BEAT within your agency's jurisdiction?
4. How MANY patrol officers are regularly have primary or exclusive responsibility for particular AREAS OR BEATS?

Appendix C contains a complete listing of the questions from both the CSLLEA survey and the LEMAS survey that address to homeland security.

Data Analysis

The statistical data garnered from the study determines whether the implementation and funding of community policing decreased because of the priority shift to homeland security policing in local police departments. The data also shows

whether the homeland security priority is still in effect or if community policing is becoming the priority again. By conducting a year to year examination of the funding directed to each strategy by the United States federal government and the implementation of each strategy by local police departments, trends and patterns emerge that show a correlation between the funding and the priority shift. A year-to-year implementation examination, using the data from the LEMAS surveys, exhibits trends and patterns that provide evidence of a reduction in community policing implementation took place.

Data visualization in the form of figures and tables detail and highlight the data and trends that exist. The data related to each figure is located in Appendix D. The visual data shows the movement and direction of the data for each year of the LEMAS studies. The trends are an indicator that shows communities that the shift occurred, clarify why the shift occurred, and show that local police departments did not abandon community policing, but temporarily refocused their direction in the name of national security. The trends also show that after several years of fortifying and training their departments, community policing is realigning as the priority in local policing in the United States.

In addition to highlighting directions and trends, the data also provides detailed information on local police departments that have implemented integrated strategies to allow them to maintain both strategies simultaneously. This additional information further confirms that the community is the priority in policing in the United States. By showing that the country's law enforcement agencies are in a homeland security and national security era, when local police could have abandoned community-policing altogether and chosen to focus exclusively on homeland security, they chose to create

integrated strategies. The integrated policing strategies combine community policing and homeland security policing, allowing local police departments to maintain the community priority.

Reliability, Threats to Validity, and Ethics

Reliability of data gathered through the CSLLEA and LEMAS surveys occurs through the associated federal agencies by having a dedicated toll-free helpline, an email helpline, and a direct contact person or team assigned to assist agencies with questions and issues that may arise with the questionnaire. For the CSLLEA surveys, the toll-free help-line is 1-800-352-7229, the email address is csllea@census.gov, and the contact person is Theresa Reitz. For the LEMAS surveys, the Urban Institute, Justice Policy Center, collects the data. The associated toll-free help-line is 1-855-650-6963, the email address is lema@urban.org, and the Survey Team is the contact. This information is on each questionnaire and helps assure the accuracy of the data inputted by participant agencies.

To assure validity, all data used in the study is from trusted United States Federal government sources. The LEMAS and the CSLLEA surveys both include burden statements printed within the instructions informing participating agencies that the estimate for the public reporting burden for the survey is an average of 4 hours per response. This public reporting burden estimate provides agencies and their managers with a fair preamble estimation of the manpower hours to complete the survey. Additionally, the burden statement informs participating agencies that federal agencies may not conduct or sponsor an information collection, and a person is not required to

respond to a collection of information unless it displays a currently valid OMB Control Number. The OMB Control number associated and printed on both the LEMAS and the CSLLEA surveys are 1121-0240.

Both the LEMAS and the CSLLEA surveys have United States Department of Justice (USDOJ) form numbers associated with them. The LEMAS survey is associated with USDOJ Form CJ-44 and the CSLLEA survey is associated with USDOJ Form CJ-38L. These additional identifying steps help add to the validity of the data by assuring the participating agencies that the USDOJ is collecting the information. The USDOJ further assures validity through its requirement that each agency list is 9-digit NCIC-ORI number on the questionnaire. The 9-digit NCIC-ORI number is a distinct identifying number that is associated with every law enforcement agency in the United States. No two agencies have that same NCIC-ORI number. Having the NCIC-ORI numbers on the questionnaires provides a quick and frequent, reference and confirmation that the correct data is being associated with each correct agency.

To add to the reliability and validity of the study, data are checked and reviewed for accuracy and bias by the Walden University Dissertation Committee. The reviews and protocols Walden University has in place add to the reliability and validity accounted for by the secondary sources used for the study.

The introduction of the study addresses my former position as a law enforcement officer to instill honesty and to remove any suggestion of bias and ethical issues. To address researcher bias and ethics, an explanation that my former position in law enforcement was not that of an administrative, executive, policy-making, or decision-

making role concerning the two strategies presented in this study. Although data from the New York City Police Department is included in the LEMAS studies and funding data, my former employment by the New York City Police Department had no bearing on the study and cannot add favorable results. The study is an informational one where publicly available data is used. The New York City Police Department is included in the study because it fit the criteria of the LEMAS study, from which data was drawn. The benefits related to its member size, the size of the population it polices, and the potential importance concerning experience in policy, strategy, and threat level are all unrelated factors. The Walden University Internal Review Board (IRB) has reviewed and approved the study for ethical issues under IRB approval # 02-27-17-0327358.

In research, threats to external validity are usually associated with three items – people, places, or times (Trochim, Donnelly, & Arora, 2015). In this study, the population is law enforcement, and the geographic region of the study is the United States. Generalizations exist to the law enforcement population, with the exception of size. Policing strategies can be generalized within local police departments where public safety is the major issue, as opposed to university or private police departments where that may not be the case. The range of years used for the study accounts for the factor of time, which spans twenty years from 1993 through 2013. The twenty-year range provides a clear view of data dating from pre-9/11 to the most current available.

Threats to internal validity include history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, and statistical regression. In 1998, a study by Maguire, Snipes, Uchida, and Townsend conducted a study which claimed that the Directory of Law Enforcement undercounted

the number of law enforcement agencies in the United States. Their study compared the 1992 and 1998 data from the Directory of Law Enforcement to the corresponding Uniform Crime Report (UCR) and the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (OCOPS) data. This occurred for two reasons. First, the 1987 survey defined large agencies as those employing 135 or more officers; however, a new standard was set in 1990, which changed the definition of large agencies to those employing 100 or more officers. Although each LEMAS survey usually uses prior year's data, the 1987and 1990 LEMAS surveys utilize 1986 data. However, this has little bearing on the validity of this study due to its range starting in 1993.

The more pressing issue is the changes made to the LEMAS sampling protocol from 1993 to 1997. The 1993 survey used a systematic stratified protocol, which sorted the agencies by type and stratified them within the type. Beginning in 1997, optimal allocation to strata and then systematic sampling within strata occurred (Langworthy, 2002). The sampling protocol changes address the undercounting issue by providing a stratum that is weighed differently, ensuring a sample that produces robust representations of each stratum (Langworthy, 2002). Table 4 below shows the sampling frame, definitions of large agency, and sampling protocol used to sample the Directory of Law Enforcement. Figure 4 below illustrates the effect of the changed sampling protocol on the content of the 1993 and 1997 samples. The smallest agencies are less prominent in the 1997 sample than in the 1993 sample.

Table 4

LEMAS sampling frame, large agency size, and protocol used

Year	Sampling frame	Definition of large agency	Sampling protocol
1987	1986	135	Mixed/Varied allocation/systematic within strata
1990	1986	100	Systematic/stratified
1993	1992	100	Systematic/stratified
1997	1996	100	Optimal allocation/systematic within strata
1999	1996	100	Optimal allocation/systematic within strata

Note. From" LEMAS: A comparative organizational research platform," by R. Langworthy, 2002, *Justice Research and Policy*, Vol. 4, p.26. Reprinted with permission.

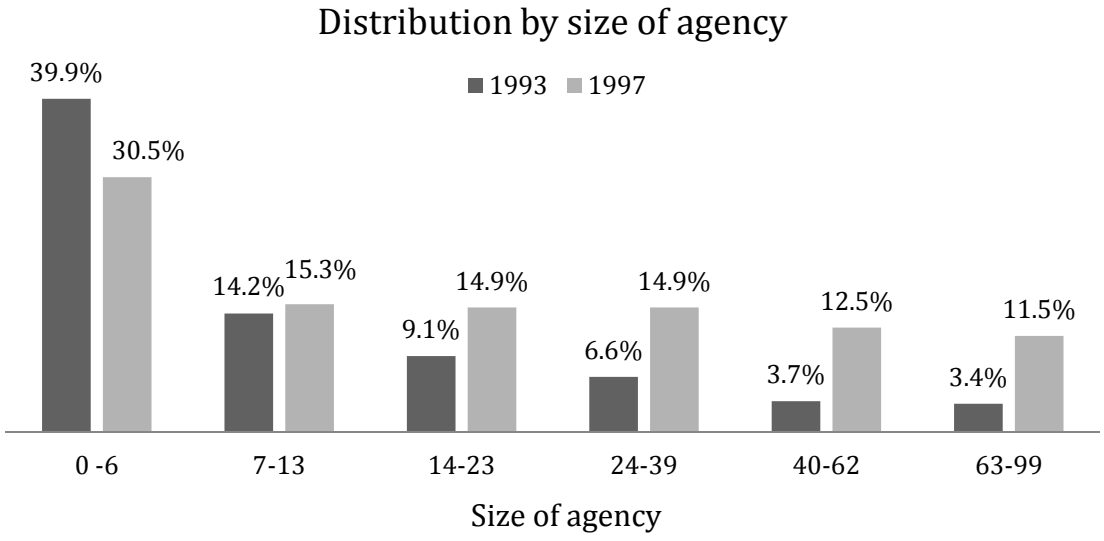

Figure 4. Comparison of 1993 & 1997 local police sample distributions by size of agency.

Note. From" LEMAS: A Comparative Organizational Research Platform," by R. Langworthy, 2002, *Justice Research and Policy*, Vol. 4, p.27. Reprinted with permission

Protection of Participants

The study had no participants and used only secondary data from government sources. Therefore, anonymity and confidentiality were not factors. However, despite the fact that there is no participant information to protect, the data and results of the study are stored on a password-protected USB drive and a password-protected external hard-drive. Both storage devices are stored in a locked file cabinet; they will be held for five years, and then destroyed.

Summary

Chapter 3 identified the study as using a quantitative approach, a descriptive statistical design, and secondary data obtained from the United States federal government sources. The descriptive statistical design was explained as using the factors of funding and implementation within each variable, community policing and homeland security, to examine the priority shift. The population was identified as the 17,000 publicly funded state and local law enforcement agencies, with stratified sampling identified as the sampling method used by the BJS. The response rates of 86% to 98% were highlighted and questionnaires identified as the data collection instrument used by the secondary government sources. A year-to-year examination of the summary of the data from community policing and homeland security was identified as the method of data analysis used in the study. Chapter 3 detailed how telephone help-lines, websites, burden statements, control numbers, and NCIC-ORI numbers were used to address reliability, threats to validity, and ethics concerns through each agency participating in the study.

In Chapter 4, I detail the examination of the data and illustrate how the data relates to the research questions. Visual data illustrates the results where appropriate. This provides(a) a concise representation of the occurrence of the scaling back of community policing in favor of homeland security policing and (b) a look at what the priority is today. The study provides evidence that local police departments hold communities as the priority. Chapter 5 provides an interpretation of the results, including confirmation of the validity of the hypothesis, recommendations for future studies, and details how the study's information contains implications for social change.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the priority shift from community-policing strategies to homeland security strategies in local police departments in the United States. In using a descriptive statistical design, the two factors, implementation and funding, which existed in both community policing and homeland security, were examined to understand how each affected community policing.

The results were derived from an examination of implementation and funding data from LEMAS, COPS, and the United States Department of Justice. The data highlighted the current and future trends of the community policing strategy. Additional data examination draws attention to how community policing is maintained in an era of homeland security.

Data Collection and Clarifications

To help understand the data, the years pertaining to the LEMAS studies are referred to as LEMASyear; e.g., LEMAS2013. Note that LEMAS1993 does not address community policing because funding for the COPS only began in 1995. Similarly, homeland security came into existence after the creation of the DHS in 2002. Therefore, the data in the study that relates to homeland security implementation and funding was available starting in FY2002.

It is important to understand the continuity of the survey questions in the LEMAS study. Note that, throughout the seven years that LEMAS studies were carried out, new questions were added, and others were omitted, based on current policing issues when the

survey was being developed. This created inconsistency in the questioning through the years and did not always allow issues to be followed on a study-by-study basis. In some instances, a specific issue was not addressed in each LEMAS year. The number of LEMAS questions that addressed community policing or homeland security issues, across all years, was 30. The sample of consistent questions from the population was 12.

The inconsistencies can be seen in questions Q11, Q12, Q13, Q15, and Q16, about problem-solving and citizen training. These questions were included only in the studies from LEMAS2000 and forward. LEMAS1993, LEMAS1997, and LEMAS1999 did not include problem-solving issues. Although this particular inconsistency still allowed for an examination of community policing implementation, there were other issues in which the absence of data for particular years had a more significant effect. For example, LEMAS2007 is the only year in which data about multiagency, antiterrorism task forces and terrorism intelligence exist. This provides no additional data, from prior or subsequent years, for comparison.

In the study results section, for RQ1, there are data about sub-questions A, B, and C. The examination of the data from the sub-questions provides the answers to RQ1 in Chapter 5. The data for RQs 2 and 3 also exist in the study results section for examination in Chapter 5.

Study Results

RQ1, Sub-question A

The central research question,RQ1, inquired how the priority of homeland security policing affected community-policing strategies. The results from the three sub-

questions provided the answers. Research sub-question A was as follows: From 1993 to 2013, at what rate did local police departments in the United States implement community policing? The rate of implementation were assessed using descriptive statistical design to examine the number and percentage of local police departments participating in and using a community policing policy, procedure, or strategy. The first examination occurred from LEMAS1997 through LEMAS2000 data from Q1 through Q5 (Table 1 and Chart 1). The second examination occurred from Q1 through Q16 data from LEMAS2000 through LEMAS2003 data, when homeland security is first implemented (Table 2 and Chart 2). The third examination of data for sub-question A occurs from LEMAS1997 through LEMAS2013 across all 12 questions individually (Figures3 through Figure9). The LEMAS questions selected for RQ1, sub-question A, were purposefully selected based on their continuity throughout the LEMAS study. The following LEMAS questions were chosen:

Q1. What is the amount of full-time community policing officers in local police departments (percentage)?

Q1B. What is the amount of full-time community policing officers in local police departments (average number of full-time sworn)?

Q3. What is the percentage of agencies with community policing training for new officer recruits (at least some recruits)?

Q3A. What is the percentage of agencies with community policing training for new officer (all recruits)?

Q4. What is the percentage of agencies with community policing training for in-service sworn personnel (at least some officers)?

Q4A. What is the percentage of agencies with community policing training for in-service sworn personnel (all officers)?

Q5A. What is the percentage of agencies with a community-policing plan (formally written)?

Q11. What is the percentage of agencies that actively encouraged patrol officers to engage in problem solving?

Q12. What is the percent of agencies that formed problem-solving partnerships through written agreements?

Q13. What is the percentage of agencies that gave patrol officers responsibility for specific geographic areas?

Q15. What is the percentage of agencies that trained citizens in community policing?

Q16. What is the percentage of agencies that conducted a Citizen Police Academy?

To learn the rate of implementation of community policing before the introduction of homeland security to policing, an examination of the data from LEMAS1997 to LEMAS2000 occurs. The rate of the early implementation of community policing are evident in the data from the LEMAS questions (Q1, Q1B, Q3, Q3A, Q4, Q4A, and Q5A) chosen for the study. From the inception of community policing with

LEMAS1997 through LEMAS2000, the rate of implementation show an average increase of 136%, based on the LEMAS questions selected. Figure 5 and Table 5 highlight the individual increases.

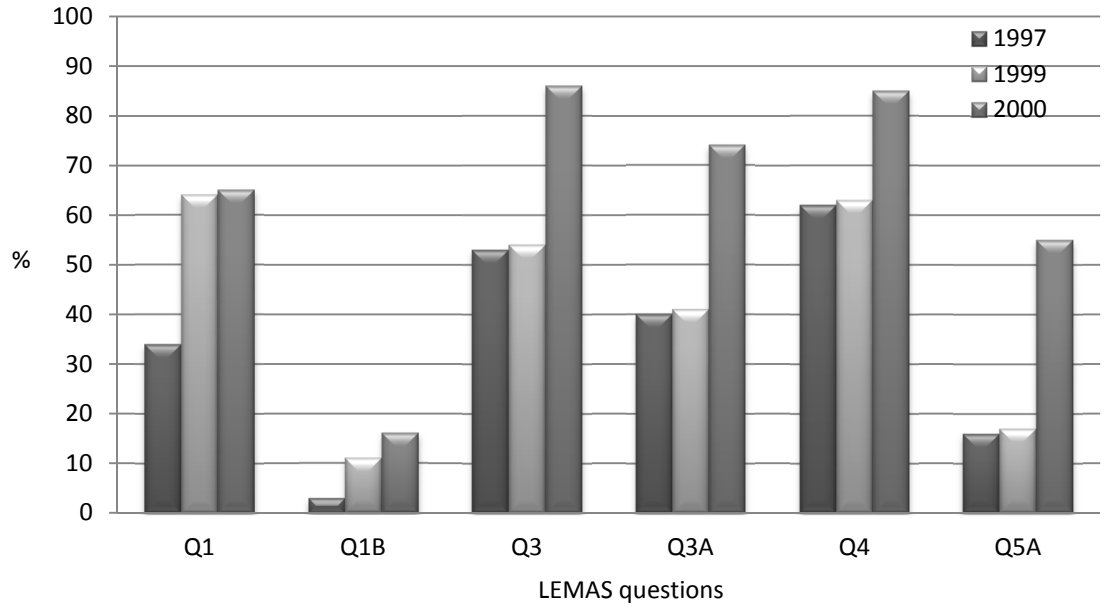

Figure 5. Community policing full-time officers (Q1 and Q2), Training (Q3, Q3A, and Q4), and Formal written plan (Q5A) from 1997 to 2000.

Table 5

Rate of community policing, LEMAS1997 to LEMAS2000

LEMAS questions	LEMAS1997 (%)	LEMAS2000 (%)	Change from LEMAS1997 to LEMAS2000 (%)
Q1	34	65	+91
Q1B	3	16	+433
Q3	53	86	+62
Q3A	40	74	+85
Q4	62	85	+37
Q4A	27	27	-
Q5A	16	55	+244

An examination of the data about the implementation of community policing during the specific period after the introduction of homeland security follows, from LEMAS2000 to LEMAS2003. In LEMAS2003, the percentages and numbers begin to decline. In some instances, the declines are staggering. The largest variance across the LEMAS2000 and LEMAS2003 community policing questions decreased by 91%. This decline represents a decline from 86% to 8% for the question regarding new recruit community policing training (Q3). In fact, of the 12 LEMAS community policing questions assembled for examination, nine show declines in the triple-digits from 2000 to 2003. The average decline between LEMAS2000 and LEMAS2003 for the 12 questions queried is 53%. The average decline between LEMAS2000 and LEMAS2003 for the seven questions previously referred to examine the increase in the implementation of community policing from LEMAS1997 to LEMAS2000 (Q1, Q1B, Q3, Q3A, Q4, Q4A, Q5A) is 56%. The one question that had positive responses, representing a 20% percent increase, during the same period relates to problem-solving partnerships through written agreements (Q12). Figure 6 and Table 6 shows the variances between LEMAS2000 and LEMAS2003.

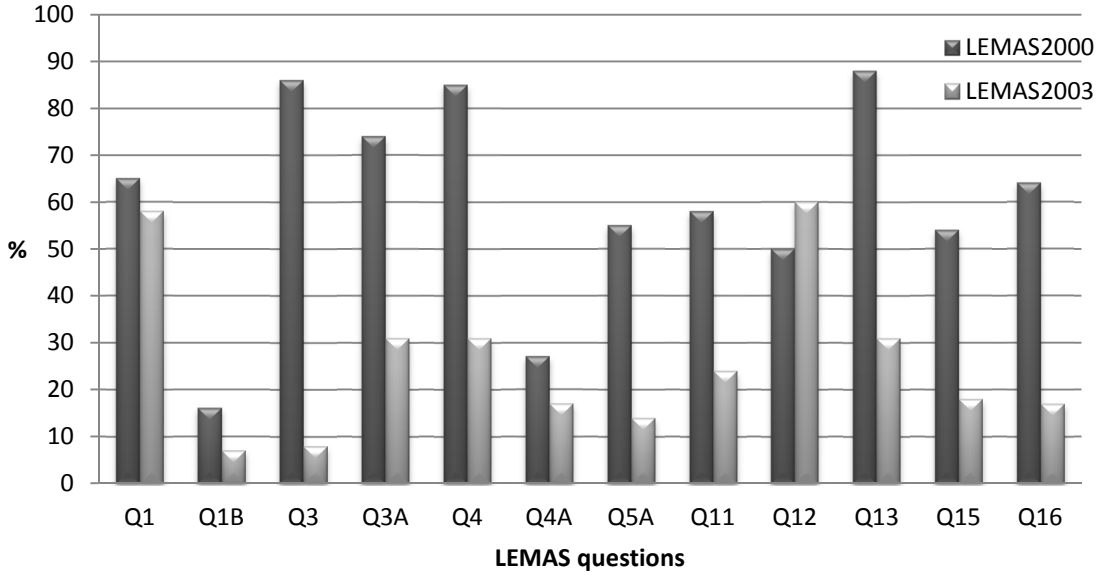

Figure 6. Range of shift from LEMAS2000 to LEMAS2003

Table 6

Rate of community policing implementation, LEMAS2000 to LEMAS2003

LEMAS questions	LEMAS2000 (%)	LEMAS2003 (%)	Change from LEMAS2000 TO LEMAS2003 (%)
Q1	65	58	-11
Q1B	16	7	-56
Q3	86	8	-91
Q3A	74	31	-58
Q4	85	31	-64
Q4A	27	17	-37
Q5A	55	14	-75
Q11	58	24	-59
Q12	50	60	+20
Q13	88	31	-65
Q15	54	18	-67
Q16	64	17	-73

The following results detail the examination of each of the LEMAS community policing questions individually represented in this study. The initial question in the

community policing section of the LEMAS study inquires about the percentage of full-time community policing officers in local police departments (Q1). Figure 7 shows the percentage of full-time community policing officers in local police departments increased from 34% in 1997 to 64% in 1999, to 65% in 2000, to 58% in 2003, to 47% in 2007. The data shows that the percentage of full-time community policing officers increased by 91% from LEMAS1997 to LEMAS2000. After the introduction of homeland security to policing, the percentage of full-time officers decreased in LEMAS2003 and LEMAS2007. By LEMAS2007, the number of full-time community policing officers decreased by 38% from its highest point of 65% in LEMAS2000. There is no data for LEMAS1993 for reasons described previously and no data for LEMA2013 because the 2013 LEMAS did not address full-time community policing officers.

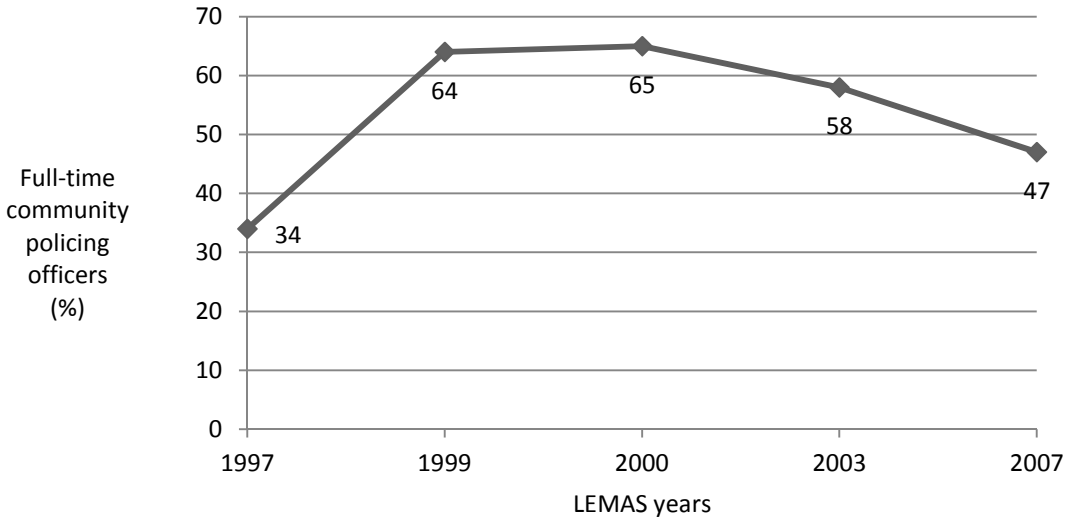

Figure 7. Percentage of full time community policing officers (Q1)

Figure 8 shows the average number of full-time community policing officers in local police departments (Q1B). In LEMAS1997, the average number of full-time

community policing officers was 3. The number increases to 11 in LEMAS1999 and peaks at 16 in LEMAS2000. After the introduction of homeland security to local policing, the average number of full-time community policing officers in local police departments drops by 56% to 7 in LEMAS2003 and then increased slightly to 8 in LEMAS2007.

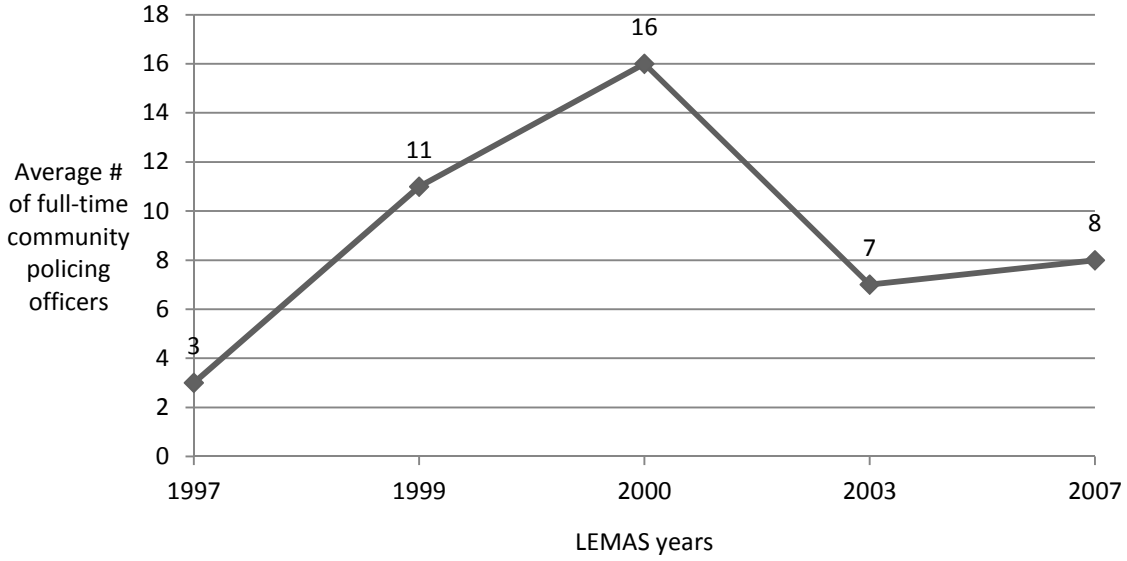

Figure 8. Average number of full-time community policing officers (Q1B)

Training is an area that serves as an indicator of a police department's priorities. Figure 9 shows the percentage of local police departments that provide community policing training for new officer recruits. The data are divided into two categories, the departments that train at least some of their recruits (Q3) and the departments that train all of their recruits (Q3A). The local police departments that provide community-policing training for at least some of their new recruits is 53% in LEMAS1997, 54% in

LEMAS1999, and 86% in LEMAS2000. The percentage drops a staggering 91% to 8% in LEMAS2003, followed by an increase to 12% in LEMAS2007 and 16% in LEMAS2013. The local police departments that provide community-policing training for all of their recruits is 40% in LEMAS1997, 41% in LEMAS1999, and 74% in LEMAS2000. The percentage decreases by 58% to 31% in LEMAS2003 and then increases to 44% in both LEMAS2007 and LEMAS2013, down 41% from its high point in LEMAS2000.

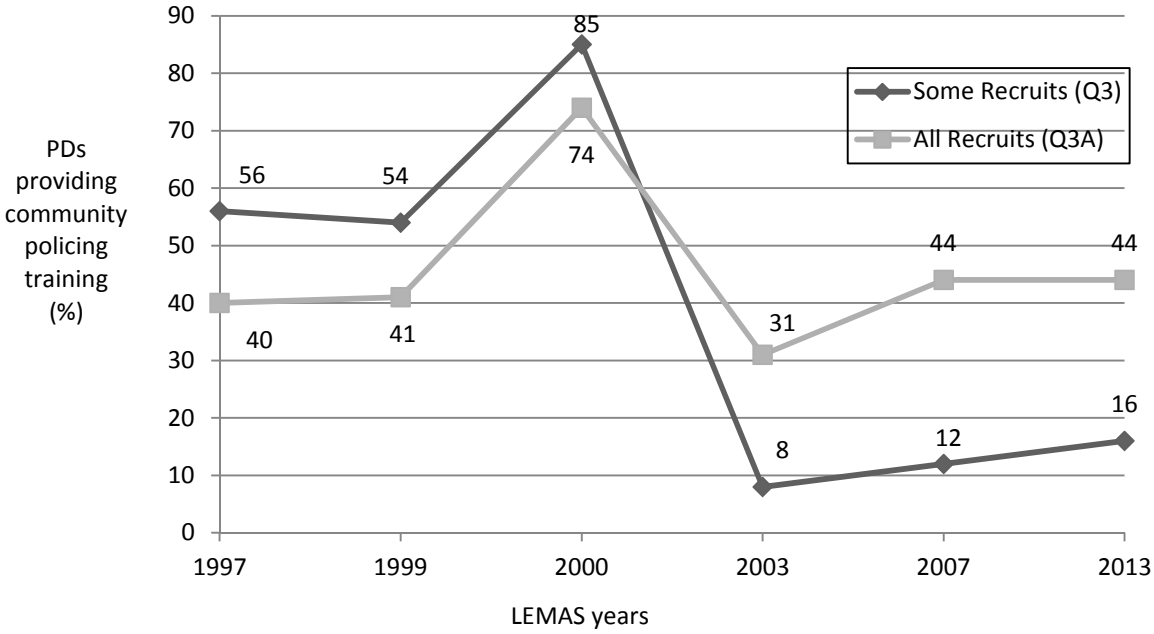

Figure 9. New recruit community policing training (Q3, Q3A)

Community policing training for in-service personnel follows patterns similar to recruit training. Figure 10 shows that 62% of local police departments provide in-service community policing training to at least some of their officers (Q4) in LEMAS1997. The percentage increases to 63% in LEMAS1999 and 85% in LEMAS2000. In LEMAS2003,

31% of local police departments train at least some of their in-service officers in community policing, a 64% reduction from the previous study, LEMAS2000. LEMAS2007 does not address this segment of training, however, in LEMAS2013 the percentage was 27%, down 68% from LEMAS2000. Figure 10 also shows the percentage of local police departments providing community policing training for all of their in-service officers (Q4A) was 27% in LEMAS1997, 28% in LEMAS1999, and 27% in LEMAS2000. The percentage dropped by 37% in LEMAS2003 to 17%. This segment of training is not represented in LEMAS2007 questions, however, in LEMAS2013 the percentage is 40%, an increase of 48% from LEMAS2000.

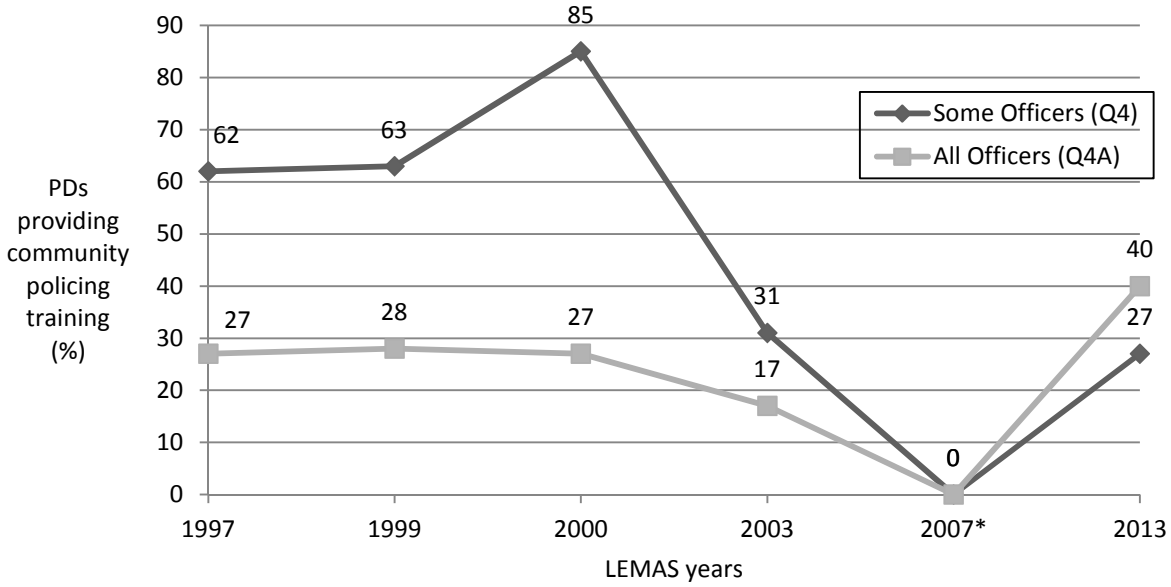

Figure 10. In-service police officers community policing training (Q4, Q4A)

The percentage of local police departments with a formal written community policing plan (Q5A) is also an indicator of the implementation of community policing in a department. Starting in LEMAS1997 the percentage was 16%, increasing to 17% in LEMAS1999, and then increasing by 224% to 55% in LEMAS2000. The percentage then

decreased by 75% to 14% in LEMAS2003, with a slight increase to 16% in LEMAS2007. LEMAS2103 did not address this issue. Figure 11 shows the high point occurring in LEMAS2000.

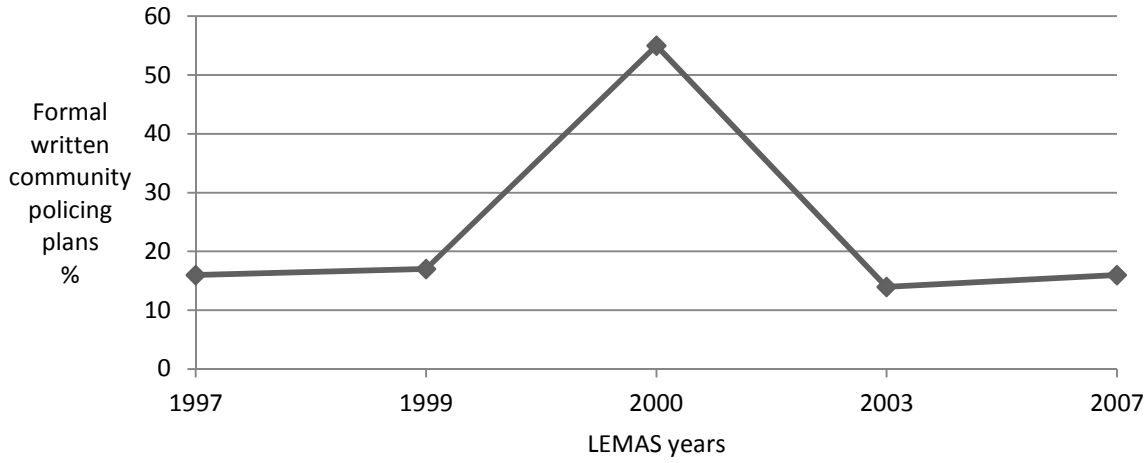

Figure 11. Local police departments with formal written community policing plans (Q5A)

Problem solving is an element of community policing where the police and the community are encouraged to work together to address and solve the issues in the community. In some agencies, officers are encouraged to engage in problem-solving with the community, on their own, while on patrol. In other agencies, problem-solving partnerships exist with community groups, organizations, and businesses through written agreement. Starting in LEMAS2000, problem-solving efforts are represented. The data shows that in LEMAS2000, 58% of agencies actively encourage their patrol officers to engage in problem solving (Q11). In LEMAS2003, the percentage drops to 24%, a

59% decrease. In LEMAS2007 and LEMAS2013, the percentages were 21% and 33% respectively. The percentage of agencies that formed problem solving partnerships through written agreement (Q12) is 50% in LEMAS2000, 60% in LEMAS2003, and 32% in LEMAS2013. Questions regarding problem-solving written agreements are not represented in LEMAS2007. Even though the data goes from LEMAS2003 to LEMAS2013, the numbers represent a 47% decrease. Figure 12 details the data's patterns.

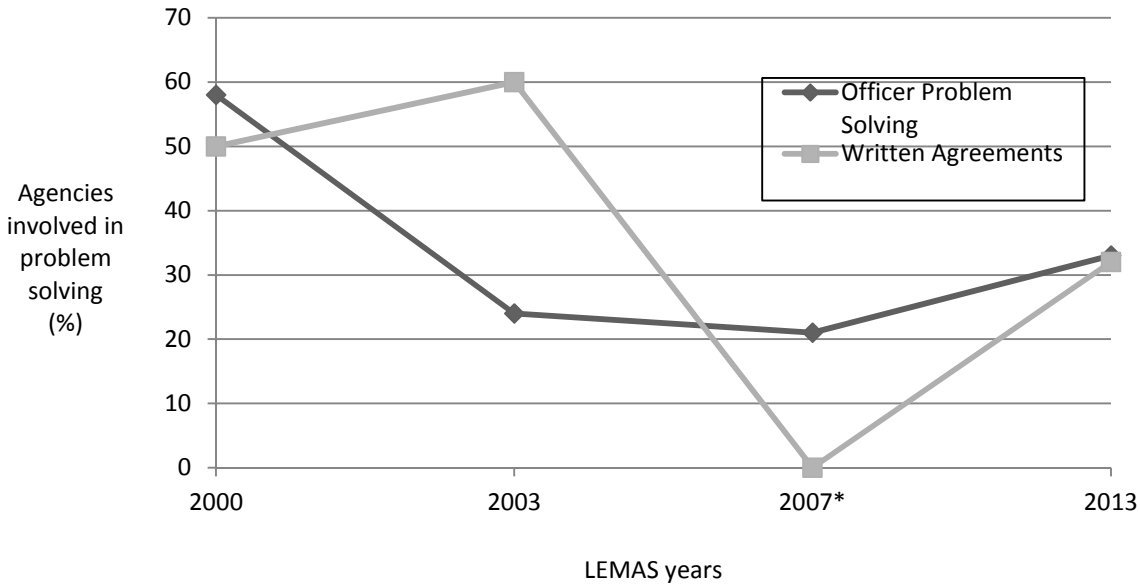

Figure 12. Problem solving efforts (Q11, Q12).

An ingredient of community policing is relationship building between the police and the community. This occurs by assigning the same officer(s) to the same area regularly. Under the category of community policing, the LEMAS survey queries whether local police departments give patrol officers responsibility for specific geographic areas (Q13). In LEMAS2000, 88% of local police departments gave patrol

officers responsibility for specific geographic areas. After the inclusion of homeland security into local policing, in LEMAS2003, a 65% reduction takes place. In LEMAS 2003, 31% of local police departments gave patrol officers responsibility for specific geographic areas, 33% in LEMAS2007, and 44% in LEMAS2013. Figure 13 details the data.

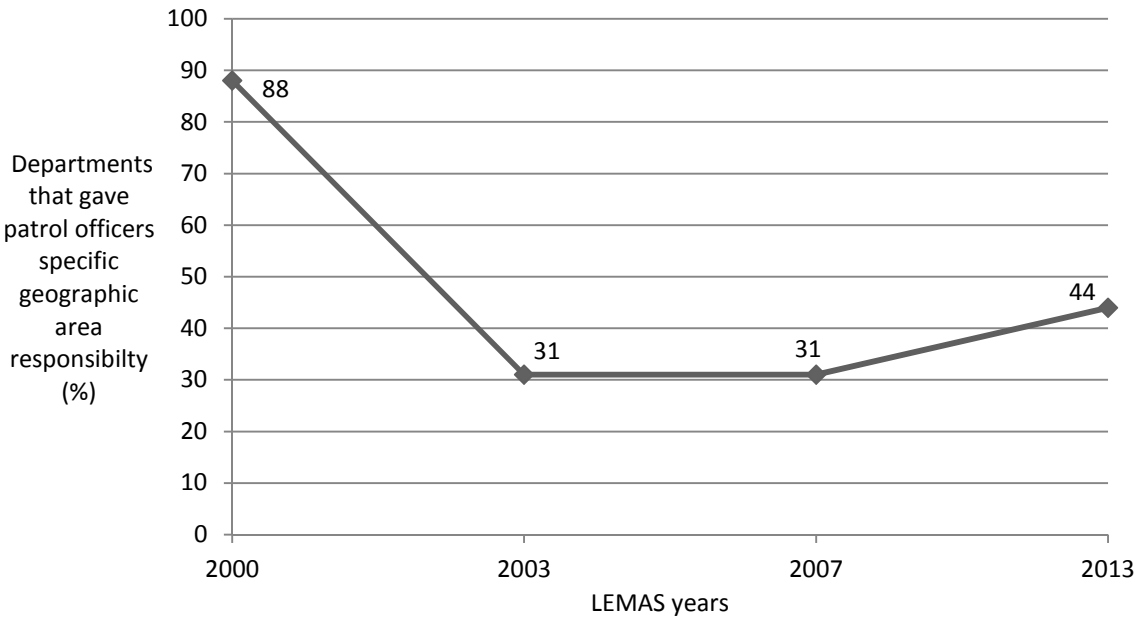

Figure 13. Agencies that gave patrol officers the responsibility for specific geographic areas (Q13)

In addition to training officers in community policing, it is important that the members of the community are familiar with the expectations and inner-workings of community policing. Police departments often provide a civilian version of the community policing training for its residents, to allow them to better communicate and relate to the police officers in their community. The LEMAS study inquired about the percentage of local police departments that trained citizens in community policing (Q15)

during the 2000 and 2003 LEMAS studies. The percentage is 54% in LEMAS2000, dropping to 18% in LEMAS2003. Sponsoring Citizen Police Academies is another way to engage the community in policing while providing transparency and understanding of policing concepts to the community. LEMAS2000, 2003, and 2007 inquired which police departments conducted Citizen Police Academies (Q16) for the communities they served. The results were 64% in LEMAS2000, 17% in LEMAS2003, and 15% in LEMAS2007.

An examination of the rate of community policing implementation in local police departments in the U.S. across the entire 1993 to 2013 range takes place using seven LEMAS questions (Q1, Q1B, Q3, Q3A, Q4, Q4A, and Q5A). Based on the data from LEMAS1997 through LEMAS2013, community policing implementation has decreased by an average of 26% across these represented areas. Figure 14 provides clear indication that after the steady increase in rate of implementation of community policing through LEMAS2000, implementation began to decline. The declines occur from LEMAS2003, which is after the terrorist attack of September 11, 2001. This is important because it confirms the priority shift away from community policing in local police departments in the United States.

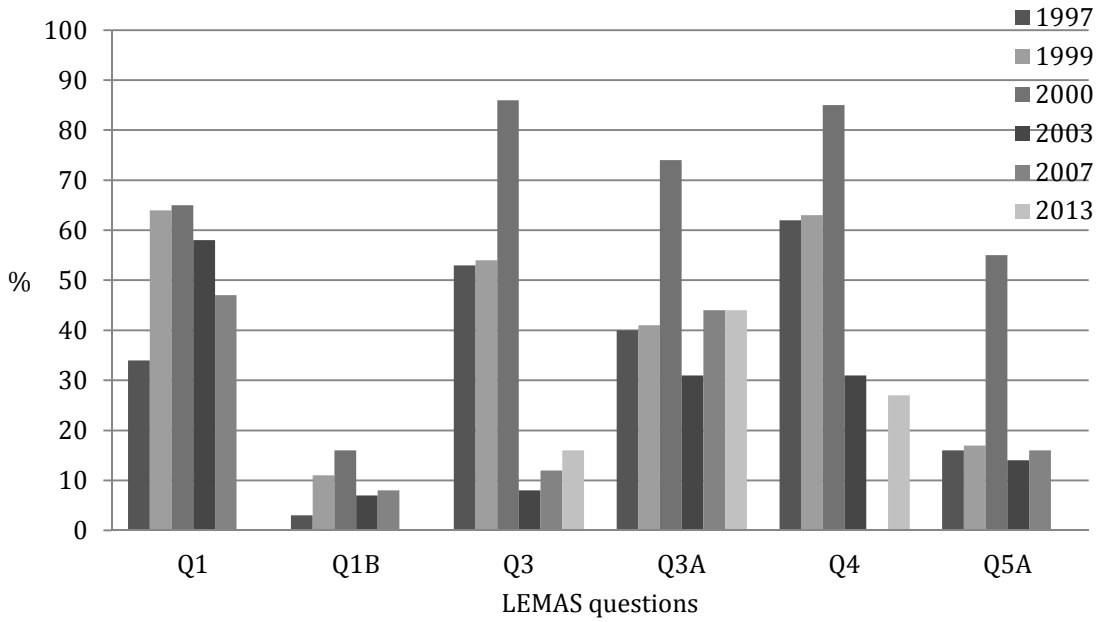

Figure 14. Rate of implementation of community policing, across Q1, Q1B, Q3, Q3A, Q4, and Q5A from 1997 to 2013.

Another indicator of the priority shift is evident in the LEMAS questions related to problem solving (Q11), officer responsibility for specific areas (Q13), citizen community policing training (Q15), and Citizen Police Academies (Q16). The LEMAS data regarding these issues are represented from LEMAS2000 through LEMAS2013. Prior to the year 2000, the LEMAS study did not address these issues. Figure 15 below shows the large declines that occur from LEMAS2000 to LEMAS2003. The percentage of agencies that formed problem-solving partnerships through written agreements (Q12) is the only category where an increase occurs from LEMAS2000 to LEMAS2003. The percentage increases from 50% to 60%. Although data is absent in this category during LEMAS2007, LEMAS2013 continues the pattern of declines at 32%. The pattern of

declines evident in the chart further supports the occurrence of the priority shift away from community policing that occurred.

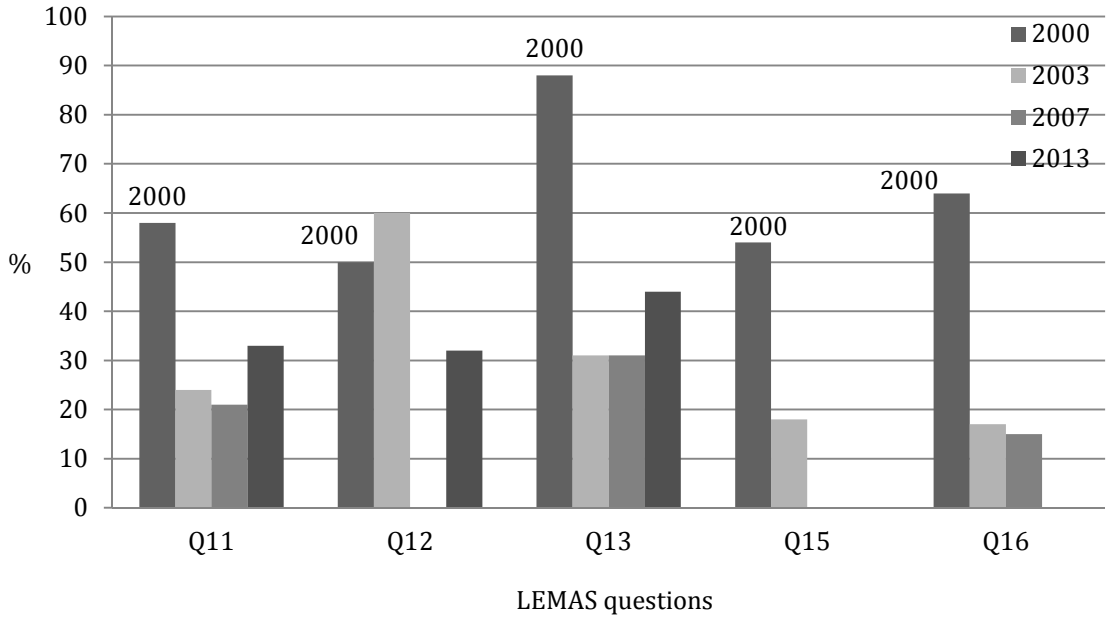

Figure 15. Rate of implementation of community policing, across Q11, Q12, Q13, Q15, and Q16 from 2000 to 2013.

RQ1, Sub question B

The homeland security implementation data from the LEMAS surveys are limited. After the creation of the DHS in 2002, LEMAS2003 did not address homeland security or terrorism as a local policing function. Therefore, the rate of implementation of homeland starts in 2007. In LEMAS2007, representative questions address the existence of a written terrorism response plan (Q19), antiterrorism task force participation (Q20, Q20A), and personnel in intelligence positions related to combating terrorism (Q21), and emergency preparedness.

An anti-terrorism task force consists of officers assigned to multi-agency units whose duties are to prevent terrorism. LEMAS2007 shows that 100% of local police departments serving populations over 1 million, had full or part-time officers assigned to such a task force (Q20A). The amount is 90% at the population of 500,000 to 999,999 and 80% at 250,000 to 499,999. Local police departments serving populations of 100,000 to 249,999 represent 54%.

A terrorism response plan specifies actions taken in the event of a terrorist attack. Based on LEMAS2007, 100% of police departments serving a population of over 1 million had a written terrorism response plan. Additionally, 9 out of 10 local police departments serving populations over 100,000 had written terrorism response plans. Local police departments in the United States with a terrorist response plan employ 81% of police officers. As part of their emergency preparedness and homeland security responsibilities, 62% of local police departments participated in emergency preparedness exercises. Figure 16 provides the breakdown of the percentage of local police departments engaging in each emergency preparedness activity listed, based on LEMAS2007 data.

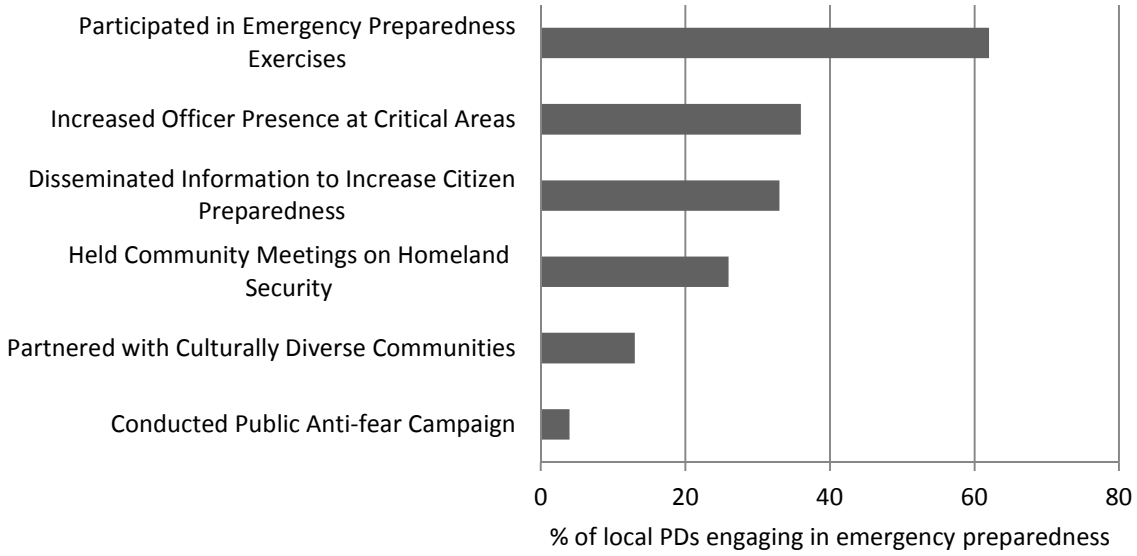

Figure 16. Percentage of local police departments engaging in emergency preparedness activities, LEMAS2007.

Local police departments can have full-time intelligence positions with primary duties related to terrorist activities. Based on LEMAS2007 data, more than 90% of local police departments serving 500,000 or more residents employed full-time sworn intelligence officers. The total percentage of departments having sworn officers serving in this capacity is 11%, representing approximately 4,000 police officers nationwide.

One multi-dimensional question in LEMAS2013 addressed terrorism and homeland security. Of the 2826 responses from departments to the LEMAS2013 study, 372 departments (13%) responded as having a specialized unit with full-time personnel. 204 departments (7%) responded as having a specialized unit with part-time personnel. 442 local police departments (16%) responded as having personnel dedicated to homeland security, 1221 departments (43%) responded as having no dedicated personnel,

and 499 (18%) as not having terrorism and homeland security formally addressed. This data illustrates that homeland security strategies are in place and are being practiced by local police departments around the country.

To assess the implementation of homeland security policing implementation using LEMAS data a comparison was conducted of the two years where LEMAS homeland security and terrorism data are available, 2007 and 2013. Four comparisons occurred using compatible categories across each of the two years. The percentage of local police departments that have full and part-time personnel assigned to a multi-agency anti-terrorism task force (LEMAS2007) compared with the percentage of full-time personnel in terrorism or homeland security specialized unit (LEMAS2013). The percentage increased from 4% in LEMAS2007 to 13% in LEMAS2013. The part-time percentage also increased from 5% in LEMAS2007 to 7% in LEMAS2013. Intelligence positions related to combating terrorism (LEMAS2007) compares to personnel dedicated to addressing terrorism/homeland security (LEMAS2013). The percentage increased from 11% in LEMAS2007 to 16% in LEMAS2013. Finally, a comparison of local police departments with a written terrorism response plan (LEMAS2007) and departments that formally address terrorism/homeland security (LEMAS2013) occurs. In LEMAS2007, the data shows 54% of departments have a terrorist response plan. In LEMAS2013, the data shows 18% of departments do not formally address the issue, leaving 82% that do. The data represents an increase of 52%, from 54% in LEMAS2007 to 82% in LEMAS2013. The comparison of the data represents an average increase of 90% across

the four homeland security implementation indicators represented in both LEMAS2007 and LEMAS2013.

RQ1, Sub question C

The United States Department of Justice (USDOJ) funds the Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS) program annually. The first year of COPS funding occurred in FY1995 at $1.3 Billion. The funding increased to $1.4 billion in FY1996 and remained at that amount through FY1999. In FY2000, the funding reduced to $595 million and then increased to $1 billion and $1.05 billion in FY2001 and FY2002 respectively. From FY2003, the funding decreased each year through current day, with the exception FY2009 when the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) added $1 billion to the $551 million originally earmarked for the program. Figure 17 displays the pattern of funding from FY1995 through FY2013.

Figure 17. COPS funding by year

Funding data related to homeland security comes from the DHS. The DHS funding data highlights the levels of financial support directed at local police department's homeland security strategies. DHS funding began in FY2002 and funds all initiatives related to national security. The DHS funding data directed to local police departments and law enforcement agencies is categorized under various named sub-agencies throughout DHS's existence. The funding was the responsibility of the DHS Office of Domestic Preparedness until 2004, the Office of State and Local Government Coordination and Preparedness (SLGCP) during FY2005, the Preparedness Directorate and Preparedness: Office of Grants and Training starting FY2006, and FEMA: Grants Programs starting in FY2008, all of which have been part of the larger annual DHS budget.

Total DHS annual funding started at its inception at $19.50 billion in FY2002. It increased to $37.2 billion in FY2003, slightly decreasing to $36.2 billion in FY2004, and then steadily increasing by $1 billion to $5 billion every year, until reaching $59 billion in FY2013. Figure 18 displays the funding pattern from its inception through 2013.

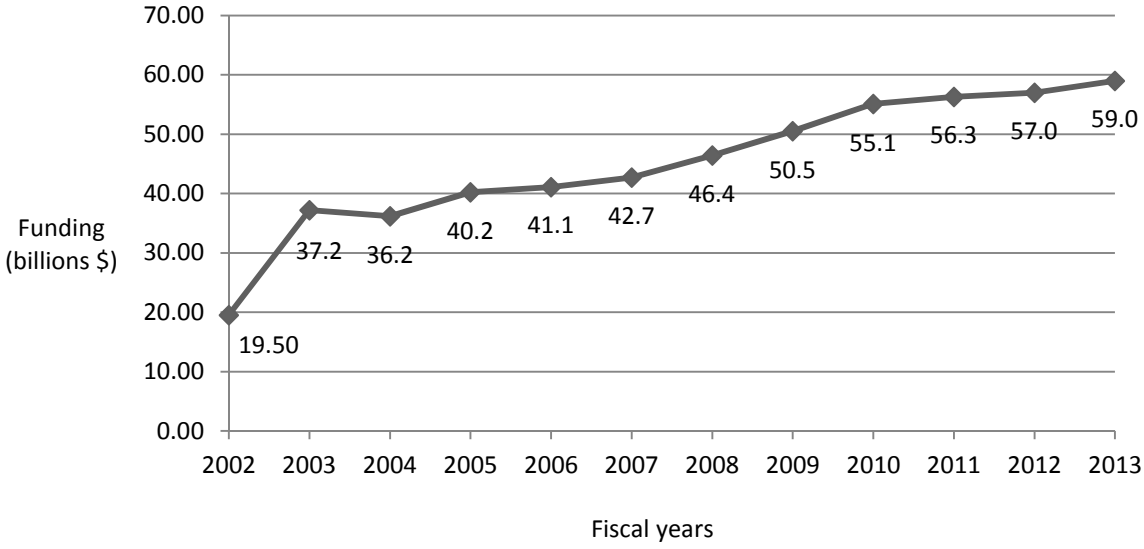

Figure 18. Total DHS annual funding by fiscal year

This study focuses on local and state DHS funding as opposed to overall DHS funding. DHS funding directed at local and state homeland security strategies are a fraction of the overall DHS budget. Figure 19 details local DHS funding from FY2002 through FY2013. For FY2002, the amount funded is $260 million. In FY2003, DHS funded $1.96 billion, reaching a peak of $4.37 billion in 2004. The local funding amount remains steady at $4 billion from FY2005 through FY2007. Slight increases occur until the value reaches $4.25 billion in FY2009. The funding amount decreases continuously until reaching $2.37 billion in FY2013. Figure 21 details the pattern of funding by DHS to local and state police departments in the U.S. from FY2002 through FY2013.

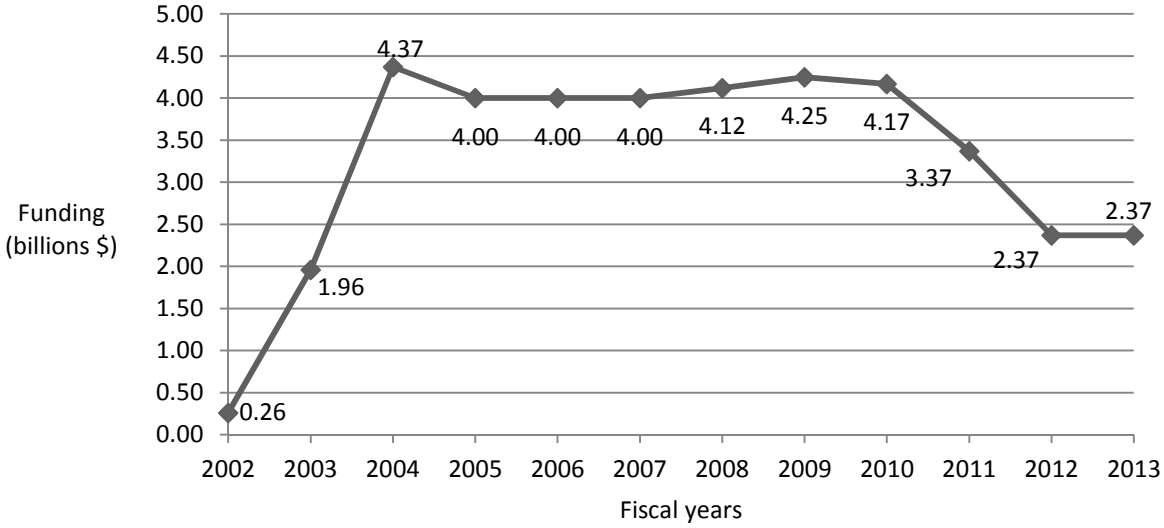

Figure 19. Local and state DHS funding by fiscal year

By using a descriptive statistical design, an examination of the funding factors takes place. By examining local DHS and COPS funding patterns together, specific points become prominent. Figure 20 displays both funding patterns and the three marked points of interest. Point A, FY1999, represents one of the high points in COPS funding, before the creation of DHS. There is no DHS funding at this point. At Point B, FY2003, after the creation of DHS and the introduction of homeland security to local policing, COPS funding begins to decline. This decline is steady from FY2003 through FY2008. The decline in funding occurs during a time when DHS funding reaches its peak and remains near its high point, over $4 billion, for several years. From FY2003 to FY2008, DHS funding increases by 110%, while COPS funding reduces by 40%.

At point C, FY2009, after over five years of declining COPS funding, the administration's priority of funding additional law enforcement officers to improve public safety begins. In addition to the $551 million earmarked for FY2009, the COPS

Hiring Recovery Program (CHRP), funded by the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA), adds $1 billion to the COPS budget, creating a total COPS budget of $1.5 billion. This added funding creates a temporary upswing in the COPS funding data. Through FY2013, COPS funding continues to decline. Local DHS funding also declines from FY2009 through FY2013. However, the declines differ. From FY2009 to FY2013, DHS funding decreases 44%, during the same period COPS funding decreases by 86%.

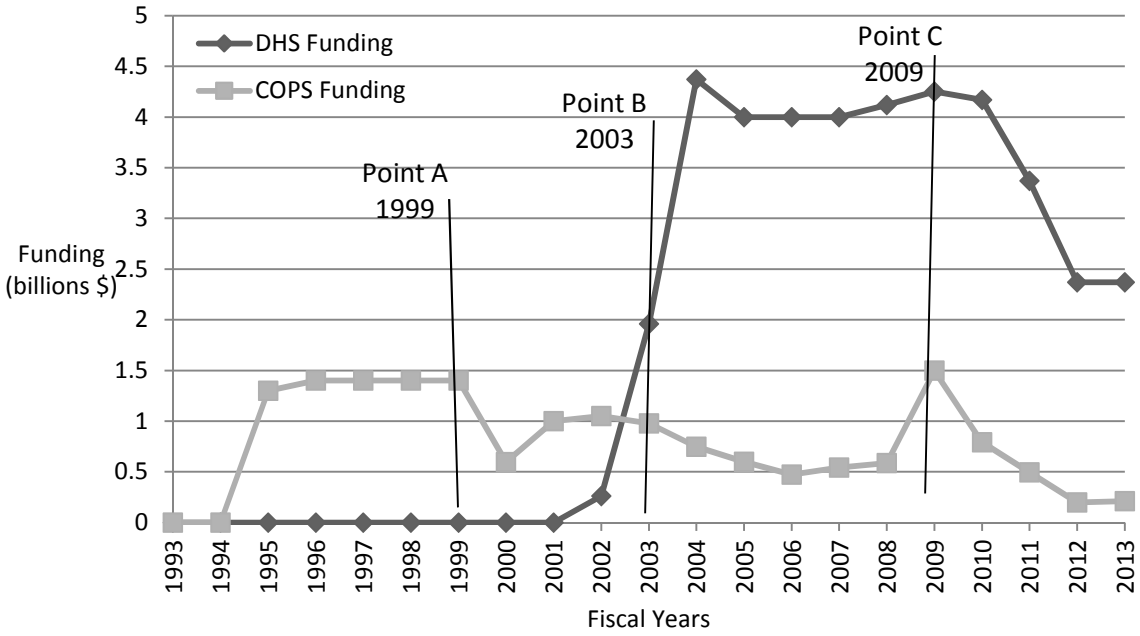

Figure 20. COPS funding v. local/state DHS funding by years

Descriptive statistical design highlights the relationship between the two data patterns. Regardless of Local DHS funding declines after 2010, COPS funding has been on a steady decline while DHS funding increased or remained relatively constant. In addition to the range of funding data differences, the differences in local DHS funding and COPS funding from the inception of both is staggering. Local DHS funding has

increased by 912% from FY2002 through FY2013, and by 1635% at its highest point in FY2009. Meanwhile, COPS funding has declined by 84% from FY1995 through FY2013. Figure 21 uses descriptive statistical design to highlight the funding differences, from the inception of both community policing and homeland security policing, and at points A (1999), B (2003), and C (2009), from Figure 20.

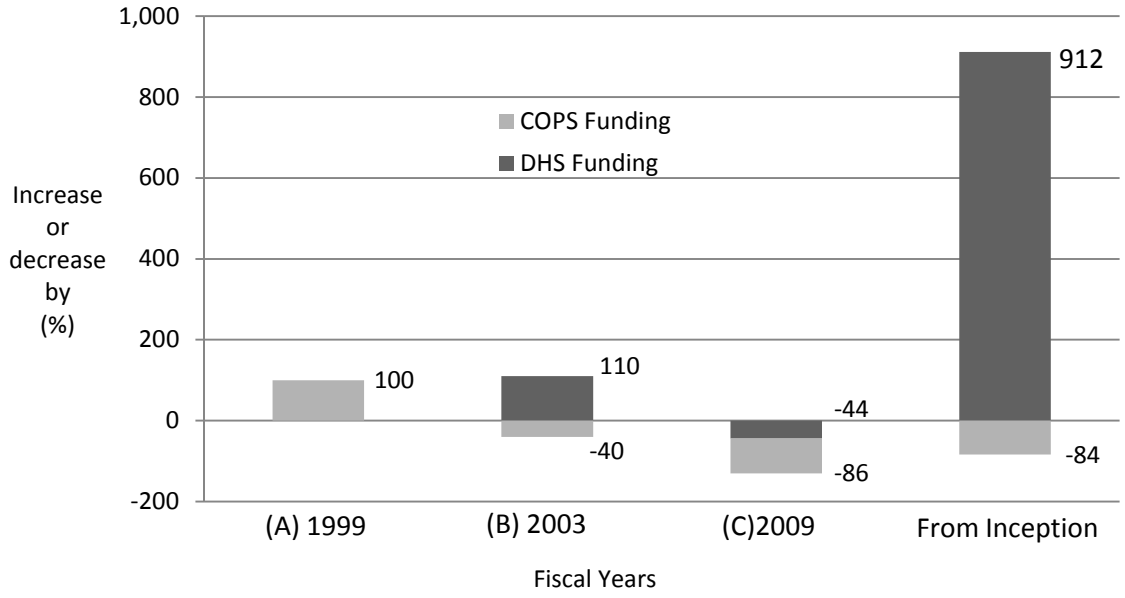

Figure 21. DHS funding v. COPS funding from inception

RQ2

RQ2 asks: What are the current and future trends of community policing and homeland security policing strategies? The results from RQ1 details the current trends in both strategies. In community policing the current trend in implementation shows increases in recent years and in funding the smaller allocations have leveled off and remain stagnant. In homeland security the current trend in implementation shows

increases since its inception and funding has leveled off, but at a higher level than community policing.

In order to assess future trends in community policing strategies and homeland security policing strategies, and because there has not been a LEMAS study conducted since 2013, an examination of DHS and COPS funding data from 2013 and after enhances the prediction of the direction policing may be moving in. Table 7 list the DHS and COPS funding from 2013 through 2016. The data illustrates little changes in the current level of funding for either of these programs over the four-year period.

Table 7

DHS and COPS funding, FY2013 through FY2016

	FY2013	FY2014	FY2015	FY2016
DHS funding	$2.4 billion	$2.5 billion	$2.2 billion	$2.6 billion
COPS funding	$210 million	$214 million	$208 million	$212 million

RQ3

Maintaining community policing in an era of homeland security involves finding ways to maintain both strategies simultaneously. Integration is a tool local police departments have utilized to achieve this goal. Table 8 shows the fifteen local police departments in the United States, serving populations over 1 million residents, as of 2013. Table 9 shows the twenty-three local police departments in the United States, serving populations over 500,000 residents, as of 2013. An examination of strategy integration

data revealed that of the thirty-eight police departments listed, nineteen that have integrated community policing and homeland security strategies. Therefore, 50% of local police departments serving over 500,000 residents utilize strategy integration. The nineteen local police departments that have the integrated strategies are highlighted in Tables 8 and 9.

Table 8

Local police departments serving population over 1 million

City, county town, state	Agency	Size	Community policing	Homeland security	Integrated strategy
New York, NY	NYPD	8,491,079	Yes	Yes	Neighborhood Policing
Los Angeles, CA	LAPD	3,792,657	Yes	Yes	i-Watch LA
Chicago, IL	Chicago PD	2,722,389	Yes	None	-
Miami-Dade County, FL	Miami-Dade PD	2,662,874	Yes	Yes	Operation Miami Shield
Dallas, TX	Dallas PD	2,518,638	Yes	Yes	i-Watch Dallas
Houston, TX	Houston PD	2,239,558	Yes	Yes	i-Watch Houston
Santa Clara, CA	Santa Clara County PD	1,894,605	Yes	None	-
Broward County, FL	Broward Sheriff	1,869,235	Yes	Yes	MySafeFlorida.org
Philadelphia, PA	Philadelphia PD	1,526,006	Yes	Yes	i-Watch Philadelphia
Palm Beach County, FL	Palm Beach PD	1,397,710	Yes	None	-
San Diego, CA	San Diego PD	1,381,069	Yes	None	-
Hillsborough County, FL	Hillsborough County Sheriff	1,316,298	No	None	-
Orange County, FL	Orange PD	1,253,001	Yes	Yes	i-Watch
Allegheny County, PA	Allegheny PD	1,231,255	No	None	-
Fairfax County, VA	Fairfax PD	1,137,538	Yes	Yes	1-877-4VA-TIPS

Source: U.S. Census Bureau 2013

Table 9

Local police departments with populations over 500,000.

City, County Town, State	Agency	Size	Community Policing	Homeland Security	Integrated Strategy
Pinellas County, FL	Pinellas Sheriff	938,098	Yes	None	-
Jacksonville, FL	Jacksonville Sheriff	853,382	Yes	Yes	i-Watch
San Francisco, CA	San Francisco PD	852,469	Yes	None	-
Columbus, OH	Columbus PD	835,957	Yes	Yes	TEWG
Baltimore, MD	Baltimore PD	826,925	Yes	None	-
Montgomery, MD	Montgomery PD	816,857	Yes	None	-
Charlotte, NC	Charlotte PD	809,958	Yes	Yes	Unnamed
San Mateo County, CA	San Mateo County Sheriff	758,581	Yes	None	-
San Joaquin, CA	San Joaquin County Sheriff	715,597	Yes	None	-
Lee County, FL	Lee County Sheriff	679,513	Yes	None	-
Denver, CO	Denver PD	663,862	Yes	None	-
El Paso, TX	El Paso PD	663,519	Yes	None	-
Washington, DC	Metropolitan PD (DC)	658,893	Yes	Yes	i-Watch & Operation TIPP
Boston, MA	Boston PD	655,884	Yes	Yes	i-Watch Boston
Polk County, FL	Polk County Sheriff	634,638	Yes	None	-
Arapahoe County, CO	Arapahoe Sheriff	618,821	Yes	None	-
Las Vegas, NV	Las Vegas PD	613,599	Yes	Yes	Unnamed
Delaware	Delaware State Police	562,960	Yes	Yes	DIAC: 1-800-FORCE-12
Jefferson County, KY	Jefferson County Sheriff	558,503	Yes	None	-
Brevard County, FL	Brevard Sheriff	556,885	Yes	Yes	Unnamed
Lancaster, PA	Lancaster PD	533,320	Yes	Yes	T.E.A.M.
Chester, PA	Chester PD	512,784	Yes	None	-
Volusia, FL	Volusia Sheriff	507,531	Yes	Yes	Unnamed

Source: U.S. Census Bureau 2013

Summary

The data assembled in this study provides insight into the rate of implementation and the appropriation of funding to community policing and homeland security in the United States from 1993 to 2013. By using a descriptive statistical design to examine the assembled data, the levels of each factor become clear. This clarity allows for the recognition of the trends that exist in the implementation and funding of each factor within the variables. The trends realized in the data provide indications of a priority shift in policing. The shift is away from community policing and towards homeland security. The shift is evident in the implementation data as well as in the funding data.

In addition to highlighting past trends and shifts, the data also provides insight into the current direction and trend of the community policing strategies. The assembled data also provides the groundwork for predicting the future trends of community policing as a policing strategy. Key indicators are in place that allow for adjustments and decisions that affect the future of policing in the United States.

Additionally, the examination of organizational data from police departments around the country, coupled with the data obtained from the governmental secondary sources, provides a clearer understanding of how the integration of the strategies are being used to maintain community policing in a homeland security era. The use of integration upholds the theory that community policing is not only vital to police departments as a basic strategy of policing, but that it is important to police departments because it provides the police-community relationships that are a departure from the traditional policing styles of the past.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the priority shift from community-policing strategies to homeland security strategies in local police departments in the United States. The study is expected to help police administrators, police executives, the federal government, and the public, in understanding the factors involved with the priority shift. The study provides information that allows all involved to understand how a priority shift can occur and to encourage the development of policies and tactics to prevent similar shifts in the future.

The results of the study provide evidence of a priority shift from community policing to homeland security in local police departments in the United States. By examining the data using a descriptive statistical design, the priority shift was evident in two factors: implementation and funding. The evidence comes in the form of changes in the appropriation of funding and changes in the implementation in both the community policing and the homeland security variables. The shift away from community policing becomes apparent after the introduction of homeland security. Additionally, patterns emerge that allow for the prediction of future trends in community policing. Finally, by accessing local police departments, it was determined that integration is a technique being used to maintain community policing in an era of homeland security.

Interpretation of Findings

The findings confirm the existing knowledge within the policing discipline, that the priority of homeland security affected the priority of community policing that was

already in place by local police departments and the federal government. The primary role of the local police departments in an era of homeland security is intelligence gathering in the war on terror (Ortiz, Hendricks, & Sugie, 2007). One of the problems with the priority shift is that homeland security policing can be seen as a 21st-century repackaging of traditional policing (Lee, 2010). The shift results in departments that focus more on tactical concerns, patrol, and counterterrorism, while abandoning community policing tactics, such as foot patrol and community relations (Raymond, Hickman, Miller, & Wong, 2005). Another concern with the priority shift is that with the funding shift that accompanies the priority shift, community policing falls by the wayside. Local police departments used government funding for militarization and none of it was used to develop a program or strategy that includes community involvement (Lent, 2003).

RQ1

RQ1 asks how the priority of homeland security policing strategies affected community-policing strategies. The answer is in the evaluation of the answers to the three sub questions. According to Sub question A, the implementation of community policing increased by an average rate of 136% from 1997 through 2000. From 2000 to 2003, when homeland security was introduced, the same indicators showed an average decline of 56%. Across all 12 questions, the average decline was 53% from the years 2000 to 2003. The rate of community policing implementation in local police departments in the United States across the entire 1993 to 2013 range are examined using the four LEMAS questions selected that are represented from LEMAS1997 through LEMAS2013 most

consistently (Q3, Q3A, Q4, and Q4A). From LEMAS1997 through LEMAS2013, community policing implementation decreased by an average of 26%.

For Sub question B, the rate of homeland security implementation by local police departments in the U.S. from 2001 to 2013, the LEMAS data is limited. Results from the LEMAS2007 and LEMAS2013 studies indicate an average 95.5% increase in the rate of homeland security implementation. The rate of homeland security implementation is examined using the funding data related to homeland security. For Sub question C, after the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, federal funding has shifted away from community policing and towards homeland security policing. The results show COPS funding, once at $1.4 billion in 1999, decline to $210 million in 2013. A decline of 5.66 times lower than the amount at its inception. DHS funding for homeland security policing, once at $260 million in 2002, increases to $2.37 billion in 2013. An increase of 8.11 times the amount at its inception, after falling from a high point of $4.37 billion in 2004, when COPS funding was at $750 million.

By using a descriptive statistical design to examine the factors within each variable, it is clear that the priority of homeland security policing strategy variable in local police departments in the United States has affected the community policing variable. It is evident in the reduction of the rate of the community policing implementation factor, the increased rate of homeland security implementation factor, and the shift of federal funding factors away from community policing to homeland security policing.

RQ2

Using descriptive statistical design to examine the funding factor in DHS and COPS funding, the current trend is that funding has leveled off. After both factors have reached their high points during their initial implementations, data from FY2013 through FY2016 indicate they both have settled at a steady lower point. Although it should be noted that the DHS funding factor is 12.26 times higher than the COPS funding factor. A prediction into the future of policing strategies, based on the current data, is that community policing will always be an element of policing strategies and federal funding directed at policing. It is also evident that funding provided by the federal government plays an important role in the priority placed on policing strategies in the United States. Therefore, it becomes the federal government's responsibility to ensure that community policing is maintained throughout any new priority.

RQ3

The examination of data from local police departments in the United States revealed that agencies have goals and strategies in place that integrate both community policing and homelands security policing. Agencies have added homeland security ingredients to their existing strategies that already focused on community policing, while others have created new strategies that incorporate both priorities into a single, more comprehensive strategy. By integrating community policing and homeland security, local police departments are maintaining community policing albeit federal funding for community policing has shifted. Integration allows departments to maintain the benefits of both strategies while adhering to the federal government's eligibility guidelines for

homeland security funding. Integration also allows local police departments to be eligible for both homeland security and community policing funding. Therefore, local police departments in the U.S. are maintaining community policing in a homeland security era through integration.

Hypothesis

The implementation results confirm the hypothesis that local police departments shifted their priorities from community policing to homeland security to concentrate on fortifying their cities, building their resources, and training their officers in the wake of the recruitment into the fight against terrorism. The funding results also confirm that federal funding to local police departments shifted away from community policing towards homeland security at the same time. The current and future trend results also confirm the second hypothesis that after the establishment of a fortified nation, community policing will become the priority again. Additionally, local police department's use of integration, confirms that community policing is still the priority because it is being maintained, even when the funding does not support its maintenance. This provides evidence that police departments found a way, through strategy integration, to maintain community policing because it works and is good for policing.

Limitations of the Study

In addition to the limitations identified in chapter one of the study, there were concerns with the ability to generalize the study and its findings. However, the study, its findings, the conclusions, and the recommendations formed can be generalized to local police departments and law enforcement agencies in the United States. Generalization

can occur because the identified agencies and departments have public safety, community relations, terrorism prevention, and terrorism readiness as vital concerns. These common goals allow for generalization. An exception would apply based on the differences in size of the department and the size of the population served by the department.

Recommendations

The study shows that community policing became a prominent policing strategy before the introduction of homeland security policing. The literature review confirms the successes of community policing throughout its existence. Based on the current police-community climate in the United States, it is recommended that more local police departments follow the lead of departments that are using integration to maintain community policing, rather that discard it. Outcries over the militarization of local police departments and the increasing occurrence of police–community conflict provide evidence that community policing and its successes are important now more than ever.

The results of the study show that community policing is an element in policing that is here to stay. Research has shown the importance of community policing as a policing tool. Future research should occur to determine the community's thoughts and feelings regarding community policing in their communities, the reduction of community policing, and whether they feel the continuance of community policing is important. By gauging this population, support for the continuance of community policing may cause local police departments to look at integration, and the federal government to encourage and promote the integration of future strategies. Additional research should also occur within the departments using integration to identify the methods used and the barriers

experienced in developing their integrated strategy. This can provide a blueprint for other local police departments around the country who are considering integration as an option or who are not aware that integration is an option.

Implications for Social Change

By disseminating the information in this study to local police departments, the community, and the federal government, social change can be the result. The information contained in this study informs local police departments that there are options available that allow them to address the homeland security issues of our current day while building and maintaining the bonds, the relationships, and the trust with the communities they serve. With the understanding that both community policing and homeland security can occur simultaneously, the police and the residents of the community benefit through more relaxed and less stress-filled interactions with the each other, leading to less conflict.

Armed with the information from this study, communities can approach local police departments and politicians to request the implementation of strategy integration within their communities. Through gaining the understanding that their local police did not completely abandon community policing when the priority shifted to homeland security, understanding that community policing was maintained, and that by utilizing integration to maintain both strategies, at a time where community policing could have been discarded, the community can realize that they are a priority in policing. Once integration is in place, the community can experience social change by creating relationships with their local police, working with their local police to correct the issues

in their communities, and by having the police serve as positive role models for their children.

By disseminating the information in this study to the federal government, policy and decision makers can realize the importance of integration in the fight against terrorism and the maintenance of police-community relations. By creating policies and funding opportunities in the form of grants that encourage the integration of community policing and homeland security policing, encouragement can occur within departments that have not yet used integration as an option. It can also make it easier for the departments already using integration to continue doing so and possibly at a greater level. By funding the use of integration instead of homeland security alone, the federal government will be promoting social change by encouraging strategies that develop and maintain police-community relationships, rather than strategies that can negatively affect them.

Conclusion

Community policing is recognized as one of the most important and effective strategies in policing. The United States federal government recognizes community policing as being responsible for the reduction of crime in the United States (Chappell, 2009). This recognition led to support by the federal government, naming it their primary law enforcement priority in 1994 (Lee, 2010; He, Zhao, & Lovrich, 2005). In addition to its effect on crime, in diverse communities and countries as far away as India, the use of community policing occurs extensively to bridge the gap between police and the community (Kumar, 2012). Additionally, a study by Katy Sindall and Patrick Sturgis

(2013) found that by increasing police presence with strategies like community policing, citizen confidence in the police is positively affected.

As society creates new policies and laws, as old laws are amended and rewritten, as threats change, and new threats evolve, police departments across the country must be able to adjust and adapt with the community's needs in mind. Law enforcement in the United States now includes an element of homeland security and terrorism prevention. International terrorism and the emergence of homegrown terrorism are major issues that affect policing today. This study shows that in the past, the priority of homeland security policing created police departments that reduced or eliminated community-policing efforts and degraded relationships with the community (Thacher, 2005). It is important that the inclusion of homeland security in current and future policing strategies do not overshadow the need for the continuance of community policing. Police department executives and administrators must know that even with the scarcity of resources and funding, both community policing and homeland security strategies can exist simultaneously.

Strategy integration is a tool that can be used to address the current situation and the possibilities of future priority shifts. This study has proven that integration of policing strategies can exist and can be successful. The lessons learned from this study must transcend into the implementation and creation of all future strategies in policing. Community policing is a strategy that the United States cannot dismiss, reduce, or discard. The relationships created through community policing are vital to the trust and

bonds that create a peaceful relationship between the police and the community. These relationships are essential to peace within the borders of our communities and our nation.

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Appendix A: Survey Questions from the CSLEA Survey

The complete listing of community policing questions from the Census of State and Local Law Enforcement Agencies (CSLLEA):

1. As of June 30, 2000, did your agency have a community-policing plan?
2. During the 12-month period ending June 30, 2000, what proportion of agency personnel received at least eight hours of community policing training (problem solving, SARA, community partnerships, etc.)?
3. During the 12-month period ending June 30, 2000, which of the following did your agency do?
    - Actively encouraged patrol officers to engage in SARA-type problem-solving projects on their beats
    - Assigned detectives to cases based on geographic areas/beats
    - Conducted a citizen police academy
    - Formed problem-solving partnerships with community groups, public agencies, or others through specialized contracts or written agreements.
    - Gave patrol officers responsibility for specific geographic areas/beats
    - Included collaborative problem-solving projects in the evaluation criteria of patrol officers
    - Trained citizens in community policing (e.g., community mobilization, problem solving)
    - Upgraded technology to support community policing activities
    - None of the above
4. During the 12-month period ending June 30, 2000, did your agency conduct or sponsor a survey of citizens on any of the following topics?

- Public satisfaction with police services
- Public perceptions of crime/disorder problems
- Personal crime experiences of citizens
- Reporting of crimes to law enforcement by citizens
- Other – Specify
- Did not survey general public

Appendix B: Survey Questions from the LEMAS Survey

The complete listing of questions from the LEMAS survey that pertain to community policing:

1. As of January 1, 2013, what best describes your agency's WRITTEN MISSION STATEMENT?
2. During the 12-month period ending December 31, 2012, what proportion of FULL-TIME SWORN PERSONNEL received at least 8 HOURS of training on COMMUNITY POLICING issues (e.g., problem solving, SARA, and community partnerships)?
3. During the 12-month period ending December 31, 2012, did your agency actively encourage PATROL OFFICERS to engage in SARA-TYPE PROBLEM-SOLVING PROJECTS?
4. During the 12-month period ending December 31, 2012, how many PATROL OFFICERS were engaged in SARA-TYPE PROBLEM-SOLVING PROJECTS?
5. As of January 1, 2013, did your agency include COLLABORATIVE PROBLEM-SOLVING PROJECTS in the evaluation criteria of PATROL OFFICERS? …
6. During the 12-month period ending December 31, 2012, did your agency have a PROBLEM-SOLVING PARTNERSHIP or WRITTEN AGREEMENT with any local civic, business, or governmental organizations? This could include a Memoranda of Understanding.

7. During the 12-month period ending December 31, 2012, did your agency regularly assign the SAME patrol officers' primary responsibility for a particular AREA OR BEAT within your agency's jurisdiction?
8. How MANY patrol officers are regularly given primary or exclusive responsibility for particular AREAS OR BEATS?
9. During the 12-month period ending December 31, 2012, did your agency utilize information from a SURVEY OF LOCAL RESIDENTS about crime, fear of crime, or satisfaction with law enforcement?

Appendix C: Homeland Security Survey Questions from the CSLLEA and LEMAS

In addition to Community Policing, both the CSLLEA and the LEMAS surveys address Terrorism and Homeland Security issues in the following questions:

In Section I of the LEMAS survey:

I1. As of January 1, 2013, how did your agency ADDRESS the following ISSUES, PROBLEMS OR TASKS?

	Specialized Unit				
	Personnel assigned full-time	Personnel assigned part-time	Dedicated personnel	No dedicated personnel	Issue not formally addressed
	Check if any personnel were assigned to this unit on a full-time basis	*Check if any personnel were assigned to this unit on a part-time basis*	*Check if at least one person was assigned to this issue/problem on at least a part-time basis but the agency has no specialized unit*	*Check if the agency has specialized policies, procedures, or training but no dedicated personnel or specialized unit*	
a. Bias/Hate crime	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
b. Bomb/Explosive disposal	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
c. Child abuse/endangerment	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
d. Cybercrime	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
e. Domestic / Intimate partner partner violence	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
f. Terrorism/homeland security	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
g. Human Trafficking	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
h. Drug/alcohol impaired driving	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
i. Juvenile crime	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
j. Gangs	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
k. Re-entry surveillance	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
l. Fugitives / Warrants	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
m. Victim assistance	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5
n. Special Operations Unit (e.g., SWAT, SRT)	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5

In the CSLLEA survey:

1. During 2008, which of the following functions did your agency perform on a regular basis or have primary responsibility for performing when needed?

   Task force participation:

   a. Drug trafficking

   b. Gangs

   c. Human trafficking

   d. Violent crime

   e. Anti-terrorism

   f. Other (Specify)

   g. None of the above

7. Enter the number of FULL-TIME personnel as of September 30, 2008 for each position listed below.

Position	Sworn	Civilian
a. Crime analysts	_____	_____
b. Investigative analysts	_____	_____
c. Intelligence analysts with duties related to terrorism	_____	_____
d. Other intelligence analysts not included in c. above	_____	_____
e. Recruitment managers	_____	_____
f. Public information officers	_____	_____

29. For which of the following types of activities or initiatives has your agency collaborated with private security? *Mark [X] all that apply.*

1 Data information sharing and intelligence

2 Resource sharing (e.g., technology, facilities)

3 Training (e.g., joint or cross-training)

4 Community policing initiatives

5 Cybercrime investigation

6 Alarms (e.g., false alarms, verified response)

7 Critical incident planning and response

8 Financial crimes analysis

9 Special events preparation and response

10 Business improvement district (BID) projects

11 Terrorism prevention/homeland security

12 School safety

13 Other (Specify)

Appendix D: Data for figures 1 through 21

Data for figure 1

Population size	2013 (%)	2003 (%)
Under 10,000	61	39
10,000-49,999	82	68
50,000-249,999	90	79
250,000 or more	92	74

Figure 2. Local police departments with a mission statement that included a community policing component, by size of population served, 2003 and 2013.
Note. From BJS, Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics (LEMAS) Survey, 2003 and 2013. Adapted with permission.

Data for figure 2

Years	Response rate (%)
1993	92.60
1997	94.90
1999	97.80
2000	97.80
2003	90.60
2007	95.90
2013	86.00

Figure 2. Response rate, LEMAS survey data, 1993-2013.
Note. Data From BJS

Appendix D (continued)

Data for figure 4

Agency size	1993 (%)	1997 (%)
0 -6	39.9	30.5
7-13	14.2	15.3
14-23	9.1	14.9
24-39	6.6	14.9
40-62	3.7	12.5
63-99	3.4	11.5

Figure 4. Comparison of 1993 & 1997 local police sample distributions by size of agency.
Note. From" LEMAS: A Comparative Organizational Research Platform," by R. Langworthy, 2002, *Justice Research and Policy*, Vol. 4, p.27. Reprinted with permission

Data for figure 5

Questions	1997 (%)	1999 (%)	2000 (%)
Q1	34	64	65
Q1B	3	11	16
Q3	53	54	86
Q3A	40	41	74
Q4	62	63	85
Q5A	16	17	55

Figure 5. Community policing full-time officers (Q1 and Q2), Training (Q3, Q3A, and Q4), and Formal written plan (Q5A) from 1997 to 2000.

Appendix D (continued)

Data for figure 6

LEMAS questions	LEMAS2000 (%)	LEMAS2003 (%)
Q1	65	58
Q1B	16	7
Q3	86	8
Q3A	74	31
Q4	85	31
Q4A	27	17
Q5A	55	14
Q11	58	24
Q12	50	60
Q13	88	31
Q15	54	18
Q16	64	17

Figure 6. Range of shift from LEMAS2000 to LEMAS2003

Data for figure 7

Years	Full time community policing
1997	34
1999	64
2000	65
2003	58
2007	47

Figure 7. Percentage of full time community policing officers (Q1)

Appendix D (continued)

Data for figure 8

Years	# of officers
1997	3
1999	11
2000	16
2003	7
2007	8

Figure 8. Average number of full-time community policing officers (Q1B)

Data for figure 9

Years	Some recruits (Q3) (%)	All recruits (Q3A) (%)
1997	56	40
1999	54	41
2000	86	74
2003	8	31
2007	12	44
2013	16	44

Figure 9. New recruit community policing training (Q3, Q3A)

Data for figure 10

Years	Some officers (Q4) (%)	All officers (Q4A) (%)
1997	62	27
1999	63	28
2000	85	27
2003	31	17
2007*	-	-
2013	27	40

Figure 10. In-service police officers community policing training (Q4, Q4A)

Appendix D (continued)

Data for figure 11

Years	Departments with written community policing plan (%)
1997	16
1999	17
2000	55
2003	14
2007	16

Figure 11. Local police departments with formal written community policing plans (Q5A)

Data for figure 12

Years	Officer problem solving (%)	Written agreements (%)
2000	58	50
2003	24	60
2007*	21	-
2013	33	32

Figure 12. Problem solving efforts (Q11, Q12).

Data for figure 13

Years	Agencies that gave patrol officers responsibility for specific geographic areas (%)
2000	88
2003	31
2007	31
2013	44

Figure 13. Agencies that gave patrol officers the responsibility for specific geographic areas (Q13)

Appendix D (continued)

Data for figure 14

Questions	1997 (%)	1999 (%)	2000 (%)	2003 (%)	2007 (%)	2013 (%)
Q1	34	64	65	58	47	-
Q1B	3	11	16	7	8	-
Q3	53	54	86	8	12	16
Q3A	40	41	74	31	44	44
Q4	62	63	85	31	-	27
Q5A	16	17	55	14	16	-

Figure 14. Rate of implementation of community policing, across Q1, Q1B, Q3, Q3A, Q4, and Q5A from 1997 to 2013.

Data for figure 15

Questions	2000 (%)	2003 (%)	2007 (%)	2013 (%)
Q11	58	24	21	33
Q12	50	60	-	32
Q13	88	31	31	44
Q15	54	18	-	-
Q16	64	17	15	-

Figure 15. Rate of implementation of community policing, across Q11, Q12, Q13, Q15, and Q16 from 2000 to 2013.

Appendix D (continued)

Data for figure 16

Emergency preparedness activities	Local police department engaged (%)
Conducted public anti-fear campaign	4
Partnered with culturally diverse communities	13
Held community meetings on homeland security	26
Disseminated information to increase citizen preparedness	33
Increased officer presence at critical areas	36
Participated in emergency preparedness exercises	62

Figure 16. Percentage of local police departments engaging in emergency preparedness activities, LEMAS2007.

Data for figure17

Year	COPS funding (billions $)
1995	1.30
1996	1.40
1997	1.40
1998	1.40
1999	1.40
2000	0.60
2001	1.00
2002	1.05
2003	0.98
2004	0.75
2005	0.60
2006	0.47
2007	0.54
2008	0.59
2009	1.50
2010	0.79
2011	0.50
2012	0.20
2013	0.21

Figure 17. COPS funding by year

Appendix D (continued)

Data for figure 18

Years	Total DHS funding (billions $)
2002	19.50
2003	37.2
2004	36.2
2005	40.2
2006	41.1
2007	42.7
2008	46.4
2009	50.5
2010	55.1
2011	56.3
2012	57.0
2013	59.0

Figure 18. Total DHS annual funding by fiscal year

Data for figure 19

Years	Local and state DHS funding (billions $)
2002	0.26
2003	1.96
2004	4.37
2005	4.00
2006	4.00
2007	4.00
2008	4.12
2009	4.25
2010	4.17
2011	3.37
2012	2.37
2013	2.37

Figure 19. Total DHS annual funding to local and state police departments by fiscal year

Appendix D (continued)

Data for figure 20

Years	DHS funding (billions $)	COPS funding (billions $)
1993	-	-
1994	-	-
1995	-	1.30
1996	-	1.40
1997	-	1.40
1998	-	1.40
1999	-	1.40
2000	-	0.60
2001	-	1.00
2002	0.26	1.05
2003	1.96	0.98
2004	4.37	0.75
2005	4	0.60
2006	4	0.47
2007	4	0.54
2008	4.12	0.59
2009	4.25	1.50
2010	4.17	0.79
2011	3.37	0.50
2012	2.37	0.20
2013	2.37	0.21

Figure 20. COPS funding v. local/state DHS funding by years

Data for figure 21

Years	DHS funding (%)	COPS funding (%)
(A) 1999	0	100
(B) 2003	110	-40
(C) 2009	-44	-86
Inception	912	-84

Figure 21. DHS funding v. COPS funding from inception

Appendix E: Permission letter Table 5

Appendix F: Permission letter for figure 3

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