This research guide is intended to be a general introduction to finding authoritative sources of information on criminal justice.

For research assistance send an email request to David Hoxie:

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Criminal Justice: Research Guide

- **Primary Reference Collection** (slides # 4-7)
  - Reference book articles
- **Online Catalog** (slides # 8-15)
  - Electronic books

**Journal articles**
- **ProQuest** (slides # 16-31)
- **Psychology & Behavioral Sciences** (slides # 32-36)
- **JSTOR** (slides # 37-42)
- **Lexis-Nexis** [important source of legal information and laws] (slides # 43-48)
- FBI Uniform Crime Reports - [https://ucr.fbi.gov/](https://ucr.fbi.gov/) (slides # 49-56)
The Primary Reference Collection has hundreds of college-level encyclopedias that are searched simultaneously and the results are listed by relevance to the search topic.
Sample topic for research guide: police training


21st Century Criminology: A Reference Handbook

GEOFFREY P. ALPERT University of South Carolina ROGER G. DUNHAM University of Miami The police have been a common feature in American society for more than a century. Today, police officers are seen patrolling streets, ...


Encyclopedia of Crime and Justice

Discovering the best way to organize and manage the police is a popular topic among police managers and administrators, researchers, reformers, and others interested in improving the American police. Over the past...


21st Century Criminology: A Reference Handbook
Police recruitment and training

So far, much of the discussion has involved changes in the police organization: its structure, style, management, or technology. Yet many police administrators think it is at least as important to change the people within the organization. This means developing recruitment and training strategies that produce a new breed of police officer. For instance, Baltimore Police Commissioner Thomas Frazier suggests that police organizations need to recruit officers with “a spirit of service rather than a spirit of adventure.” For community policing to take root, officers will need to be as interested in serving the community as in fighting crime. Others believe that while recruitment may

In addition to selective recruitment efforts, a sound and well-balanced training curriculum is another method for improving the quality of police personnel. While the importance of police training was recognized by police reformers at the beginning of the century, it was not until the early 1960s that it became more accepted by police administrators (Langworthy et al). Although there are variations across the country, there are three core types of police training: (1) basic training, (2) field training, and (3) in-service training. Basic training teaches basic skills and techniques necessary to conduct day-to-day police work. General topics covered in basic training include police procedure, criminal law, use of force, emergency response, ethnic and cultural diversity, interacting with citizens, and numerous other specialized topics. After basic training is completed in the academy, rookie officers (or “boots”) sometimes participate in a field-training program in which they accompany field training officers (FTOs) on patrol. In field training, rookie officers apply the knowledge and skills acquired in basic training to real-life situations on the streets. FTOs assess whether recruits are able to conduct routine police activities skillfully and independently. Also, it is during field training that rookie officers are socialized into the police subculture, a force that exerts considerable influence over police officer's behavior (Van Maanen).
To access electronic books in the Library Catalog from off campus:

Username: abu
Password: abubooks
Physical and Social Inventory of Neighborhoods

A block-level physical and social disorder inventory was conducted in April 1994 for baseline data for the project, and in October 1994, April 1995, and October 1995 for post-program implementation data. The inventory was conducted for 44 blocks—the combined total number of blocks in the project and comparison areas—and was modeled from the work of Perkins and his colleagues (Perkins, Meeks, & Taylor, 1992; Perkins, Wandersman, Rich, & Taylor, 1993).

For purposes of data collection, independent raters walked through all of the blocks of both the project and comparison sites and recorded observations of the physical and social environment. Interrater reliability checks determined that levels of interrater agreement were high. Each block-level inventory began with the raters recording the street name and cross streets, date, time, and the estimated temperature. Immediately thereafter, the social environment inventory was conducted. For exactly one minute, raters recorded the social activity on the block, recording the number of individuals present outside, their gender, approximate age, and their behavior. Behavior categories included pedestrian, working, hanging out, illegal activity, and other.

Though the physical inventory data suggest some positive program effects, especially with regard to fewer abandoned buildings, target hardening, and signs of guardianship in the project area, several caveats should be mentioned here. The evaluation team had the impression that small changes, changes that were not likely to have had much impact on the quantitative data captured in the physical inventory, could have a significant effect on resident impressions of their environment and on police intervention. For example, although the number of unbroken lights in the project area did not significantly change between 1994 and 1995, residents continually spoke of their appreciation of increased lighting in the parking lot behind the resident building that had previously been dark and where much loitering had occurred in the evening hours. Similarly, police officers spoke of their appreciation of the cooperation of the business owners in the area to allow the fencing-off of the alleyways as a way of hindering the movement of drug dealers and patrons. The strategic placement of these barriers may be more meaningful than the increase from 0.95 barriers per block to 1.7 barriers per block as found in the data from physical inventory. In addition, survey data and informal observations by the research team suggest that numerous improvements to the physical environment were undertaken and completed through Project ROAR efforts, including im-
- Whenever possible, calls-for-service data should be used in place of the more limited information collected through the Uniform Crime Reports.

- Reliable and valid measures for physical and social disorder need to be developed. Raters should have common definitions of physical and social disorder, and the means to collect these data should be as unobtrusive as possible.

- The combination of qualitative and quantitative data in community crime prevention and community-policing evaluations will improve the confidence evaluators have of their results. In our case, small changes in the quantitative data had quite an impact on residents and their environment as measured through interviews and direct observation.
TI(policing training): search will include the words ‘police’ and ‘training’ in the title of the article. TX(“community policing”): search will include the exact phrase ‘community policing’ in the text of the article.
Bucquoux (1990) offer the following definition of **community policing**.

**Community policing** is a new philosophy of policing, based on the concept that police officers and private citizens working together in creative ways can help solve contemporary community problems related to crime, social and physical disorder, and neighborhood decay. The philosophy is predicated on the belief that achieving these goals requires that police departments develop new relationships with law-abiding people in the community, allowing them a greater voice in setting local police priorities and involving them in efforts to improve the overall quality of life in their neighborhoods. It shifts the focus of police work from handling random calls to solving community problems ([58] Trojanowicz and Bucquoux, 1990, p. 5).

Though community oriented policing (COPS) has sparked research and debate, training of police officers within such a framework has yet to receive much attention (or resources). Police training reflecting a community-oriented approach is a relatively new phenomenon, although COPS itself has existed in theory and practice since the 1980s ([58] Trojanowicz and Bucquoux, 1990). Historically, training of police officers has been slow to keep up with policing practice, and training in COPS has been no exception ([6] Bradford and Pynes, 1999).

The roles and responsibilities of police officers differ under COPS, and most existing training programs insufficiently address the underlying causes of crime and disorder, coalition-building, and crime prevention ([31] King and Lab, 2000). Traditional training prepared officers for a narrow focus on law-enforcement duties, rather than the more generalist approach that community policing entails. Traditional training focused on physical activities, such as firearms training, physical training, defensive tactics, and driving. Traditional training also included some knowledge areas such as law, arrest procedures, traffic enforcement, and officer safety. Neglected were areas such as communications, diversity, problem solving, and police-community relations.

Finally, some states such as Florida, Illinois and Michigan, have begun to address the importance of training in COPS in an effort to make COPS a success ([15] Dantzker et al., 1995, [57] Trojanowicz and Bellinap, 1986).

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**ProQuest**

Use different combinations of keywords and TI and TX search fields to locate additional information on a topic.
Defining community-oriented policing

Studies revealed that confusion over what COP really means has remained one of the most important organizational issues that hinders the full implementation of COP (Rosenbaum and Lurigio, 1994; Zhao et al., 1995; 1999). This definition problem has lingered among many law enforcement agencies adopting and practicing COP because of its theoretical and practical differences. COP programs, which theoretically represent new and innovative police strategies and activities, can be implemented in many different ways in practice. For example, COP may range from a “toy patrol” program where an officer’s goal is to make friends with the public to a “zero tolerance” program where officers enforce the law indiscriminately. Therefore, COP can mean different things to different people.

However, although COP has been defined differently and sometimes loosely, the dynamic and elastic nature of COP characteristics seems to accommodate all of these definitional differences. One central defining feature of COP addressed by many police researchers is cooperation and collaboration between police and citizens to solve crime (Barlow, 2000, p. 225; Cordner, 1998; Thurman and McGarrell, 1997, p. 2; Trojanowicz and Buequroux, 1990, p. 5). Some believe COP reflects a facilitating role of police where citizens are encouraged to help themselves (Skogan, 1990; Souryal, 1995, p. 197). Others consider the change in police structure, management, and operations – such as decentralization of authority, citizen empowerment, quality control of police-citizen contacts, and creative problem-solving strategies – as parts of COP (Cordner, 1998; Goldstein, 1996; Rosenbaum, 1988; Zhao et al., 1994).
Searches can be limited to specific time frames (ex. 2010-2019).
Forecasting Crime

Research and recent advances in geospatial analysis suggest the possibility of identifying neighborhoods at risk for increasing levels of violence (Bowers et al. 2004; Gilchrist 1976; Gorr and Harries 2003). During the past 30 years, researchers have developed methods for retrospective and prospective crime mapping (Bowers et al. 2004) and forecasting (Gilchrist 1976; Gorr and Harries 2003) with the purpose of predicting future crime, changes in crime rates, and shifting trends in types of crime. One of the most widely used and thoroughly researched approaches uses indicators such as simple assaults and 911 calls to aid in predicting future serious crime (Cohen and Gorr 2005). Such leading indicators may be variables that range from simple assaults to police reported shootings from a month earlier or more. Zeoli and colleagues (2012) regard altercations that may not be reported to police, drug transactions, and firearms as analogous to the infectious agents that are critical to disease diffusion in the public health impact. Unfortunately, resource availability does not permit assignment of violence prevention workers to all high-need areas for extended periods of time. Thus, a timely and accurate prediction model can help inform where prevention workers are needed most, how resources should be allocated, and can potentially improve the effectiveness of violence prevention efforts.

We plan to further develop the prediction model created in this study by adding information gained through a sentinel system involving community observers who regularly report on indicators of emerging gang activity such as new graffiti and minor incidents of harassment that may not normally be reported to police but may be important in predicting youth violence. Our hope is that the combination of official statistics and street-level intelligence can assist community policing programs and neighborhood organizations in planning neighborhood organizing efforts to address the youth violence problem.
A survey is an easy way to produce original research data on a specific topic. One way to identify survey questions is to see what questions have been used in research on a similar topic.

question* --- * is a truncation symbol
In this search the words ‘survey’ and/or ‘question’, ‘questions’, ‘questionnaire’, etc. will be included in the text of the article.

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**7**

Trends in violent crime: A comparison between police statistics and victimization surveys

...to describe trends in violent crime: police statistics and victimization surveys...considerably, whilst the victimization surveys show that violent crime has not...surveys. Methodological problems involving both data sources are also discussed.

Cited by (12)

Abstract/Details  ✎ Full text  ✎ Full text - PDF (1 MB)

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**8**

Exploring the limits of collaboration in community policing: A direct comparison of police and citizen views

...review was to ensure that the terminology used in some of the survey questions...of police agencies that employed community policing officers, and surveys of law...More specific questions emerged regarding the desirability of expanding the

Cited by (18)

Abstract/Details  ✎ Full text  ✎ Full text - PDF (129 KB)
Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to provide direct comparisons between the views of citizens and officers within a jurisdiction that has been largely influenced by the community-oriented policing movement. Comparisons between police and citizen views are specifically made in terms of the relative importance of crime problems in the jurisdiction; the value of community policing programs; overall satisfaction with the performance of the department; and strategies designed to improve the performance of the department.

Design/methodology/approach – The methodology of the study is officer and citizen surveys.

Findings – Officers and citizens significantly differed in their assessment of the importance of specific crime problems in the jurisdiction, the value of community policing programs, the degree to which they were satisfied with the performance of the department, and their assessment of improvement strategies. These differences are discussed within the context of previous literature that has focused on the implementation and continued acceptance of community policing.

Research limitations/implications – Findings are derived from surveys conducted in one jurisdiction. Findings are limited to the degree that citizen/officer views within this jurisdiction differ from those found elsewhere.

Originality/value – The study utilizes seldom-used concurrent surveys of officers and citizens within a single jurisdiction. The method allows for the direct comparison of police and citizen views. Thus, this paper provides evidence regarding the feasibility of collaboration between police and citizens, and the continued viability of community-oriented strategies.

Keywords: Community policing, Police, Surveys, Citizens

Paper type Research paper

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<th>SD</th>
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<th>df</th>
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<td>6.03**</td>
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Notes: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; 1 – not important; 2 – important; 3 – very important
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<td>14.10*</td>
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Notes: *p < 0.01; 1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – agree; 4 – strongly agree

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Notes: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; 1 – Very dissatisfied/perform not well at all; 2 – dissatisfied/perform not too well; 3 – satisfied/perform generally well; 4 – very satisfied/perform very well
TI(police) – Search will include the word ‘police’ in the title of the article.
TX(community and training) – Search will include the words ‘community’ and ‘training’ in the text of the article.

Limit your results

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Publication | Published Date

2. Self-Control, Social Consequences, and Street Youths' Attitudes towards Police.
Subjects: Street youth -- Psychology; Social impact; Self-control; Street life; Delinquent behavior; Homelessness -- Social aspects

PDF Full Text (947KB)

3. Outcomes achieved by and police and clinician perspectives on a joint police officer and mental health clinician mobile response unit.
Subjects: Australia; Victoria; Interprofessional relations; Medical care -- Evaluation; Mental health; Mental illness; Police: Questionnaires; Qualitative research; Pilot projects; Thematic analysis; Mobile hospitals; Descriptive
Introduction

Research suggests that young people are at greater risk of having contact with law enforcement officials (Leiber, Nalla, and Farnworth 1998; Janekela 1999; Hurst, McDermott, and Thomas 2005; Brick, Taylor, and Esbensen 2009). Their extensive use of public space attracts the attention and often intervention of police (Hinds 2009). This risk is increased in lower socio-economic locations, where many impoverished youth are also involved in visible illegal activities (Janekela 1999; Hurst et al. 2005; Brunson 2007; Stewart et al. 2009; Gau and Brunson 2010; O’Grady, Gaetz, and Buccieri 2013). When enhanced policing becomes the dominant reaction to youth in these socio-economic conditions, a process of “criminalization” can take place (Gau and Brunson 2010; O’Grady et al. 2013; Sommers 2013), whereby the police use the everyday activities of these youth to justify surveillance practices, thereby accelerating the probability that the youth will be stopped and interrogated. The youth can often construe this form of surveillance as harassment, thereby creating antagonistic feelings towards the police and an ever-escalating cycle of negative relations between the two parties (Janekela 1999; Friedman et al. 2004; Brunson and Miller 2006a, 2006b; Hinds 2007, 2009; Flexon, Lurigio, and Greenleaf 2009; Gau and Brunson 2010; O’Grady et al. 2013).

The evidence that self-control, and the activities and associations related to it, are influencing the exposure of some populations to policing, prompting them to participate in marginal activities and swaying their behaviour during police/suspect interactions, points to possible avenues for further police training on matters of suspect demeanour. This type of training would allow for less adversarial, conflict-ridden interactions that exacerbate problems in the long-term dealings with these individuals in these populations. Police officers may come to understand that they may be about to encounter unpleasant situations. Officers could be trained to be aware that interactions with these types of individuals might require additional patience, placidity, tolerance, and endurance. Further, police should be trained to avoid provocative approaches that set negative outcomes into motion. The development of an unflappable approach, in which emotions are managed, could make police less likely to react in a manner that might be viewed as unjust (Wolfe 2011).
Scroll Down. Choose subject categories
- "Performances of Twilight Policing: Public Authority, Coercion, and Moral Ordering" (pp. 194-229)
  From: *Twilight Policing*
  Tessa G. Diphoorn
  Edition: 1
  *University of California Press* (2016)
  [Chapter]

- "Race and Policing in Different Ecological Contexts" (pp. 118-139)
  From: *Race, Ethnicity, and Policing*
  Ronald Weitzer
  *NYU Press* (2010)
  [Chapter]
The mode-of-incorporation thesis is situated at the macro-structural and historical level of analysis and, as such, is not intended as a complete explanation of police-minority relations, but it offers considerable insight into group-level patterns and is a useful counterbalance to micro-level, individual, and situational explanations. It can also be used to help explain cross-national differences in police relations with ethnic minorities, an argument developed in the final section of the chapter.

Age is a consistent predictor of both experiences with and attitudes toward the police. Young people are more likely than older cohorts to have contact, and more adversarial contact, with police officers, and to harbor critical opinions of the police. While this age cleavage exists across racial and ethnic groups, minority youth are especially vulnerable to unwanted attention from the police. It is thus no surprise that they view the police more critically than white youth.

Gender is typically not a predictor in its own right, but does play a role as it intersects with race and age. In the few studies that include race-age-gender interactions, young black males are significantly more likely to report bad experiences with officers and to hold negative opinions of the police than their counterparts—young black women, young white men, and older black men. This triple jeopardy pattern is also apparent among young Latino men.

If police practices vary across different types of communities, it is reasonable to expect residents' views of the police to reflect this, and the evidence shows that this is indeed the case. First, residents of high-crime areas may blame the police for crime and disorder, and demand more vigorous policing. A large number of blacks and Hispanics, especially those living in disadvantaged neighborhoods, feel that their communities receive insufficient police protection. Weitzer and Tuch's national survey found that 85 percent of Hispanics and 88 percent of African Americans favored more police surveillance of high-crime areas, and a New York City poll reported that 66 percent of Hispanics and 72 percent of blacks supported the planned installation of four hundred surveillance cameras throughout the city to enhance crime control. Second, residents of such communities complain about harsh practices, including physical and verbal abuse and unwarranted stops of pedestrians and motorists. There is evidence that police who patrol such communities often behave indiscriminately in their treatment of people; this is the dynamic of "ecological contamination" whereby mere residence in a particular community becomes a liability for all residents. In sum, residents of these communities are doubly frustrated with the police, resulting in demands for both more robust and more sensitive policing.
Search will include the words ‘police’ and ‘policing’ in the search results. Important link for information on law near the bottom of the search screen.
Law journal with 12,000 word article on police training and legitimacy in the community.
I. Introduction

On January 8, 2015, at 3:30 p.m., Officer Matthew Taylor of the Salt Lake City Police Department responded to a call about a suspicious male going door to door with a shovel asking neighbors if he could shovel their property for money. The caller explained that the man’s behavior was suspicious because there was not enough snow on the ground to necessitate shoveling, and because a similar individual was spotted in the same neighborhood a day earlier looking into car windows. When Officer Taylor came upon the man, later identified as James Dudley Barker, Barker was at a home located about one block from his own residence. At the time of the encounter, Officer Taylor was wearing a body camera that was turned on. In the footage, Officer Taylor is heard asking Barker his name and stating that neighbors reported his suspicious behavior. After this brief exchange, Barker becomes noticeably agitated and begins shouting at Taylor. In what Officer Taylor described as “zero to 100,” the conversation turned increasingly hostile as Barker continued screaming, began swearing, and stuck his finger in Officer Taylor’s face. Thereafter, Officer Taylor’s hands appear in front of him as he moves towards Barker, in what the officer explained as going "hands on" to try and handcuff the suspect. In response, Barker grabs his snow shovel and begins swinging it at Officer Taylor. While striking Officer Taylor several times, Barker disabled the body camera.

After the recording stopped, the physical altercation between Officer Taylor and Barker escalated even further. Just a few seconds later, Barker reportedly jumped on top of the Officer. Even with a broken arm, Officer Taylor managed to get out from under Barker. The Officer’s next move was to draw his gun, which he fired three times, killing Barker.

[*406] Tension between police officers and local residents is nothing new. Community relationships with and perceptions of law enforcement have ebbed and flowed over the years. Nonetheless, the fact that recent criticisms of law enforcement practices are not novel does not mean that claims about mistrust in local police are unfounded. However, surprisingly absent from discussions about present problems with law enforcement are what caused the “broken relationship” between officers and their communities, and how to mend these ever-increasing rifts. This Note seeks to fill that void by uncovering what has caused the current and deteriorated relationship between law enforcement and the community, and what can be done to restore public trust in the police.

To that end, Part II discusses the relevant factors that have culminated in our nation’s militarized police departments. In particular, Part II first analyzes various federal programs, historical events, police recruit training techniques, and general policing strategies that encourage and incentivize the excessive militarization of law enforcement agencies. Thereafter, the combined effect of each of these factors is examined, whereupon this Note argues that the current model of policing has resulted in the warrior mentality being instilled in our police, who are increasingly using military-grade weaponry to respond to mundane and routine matters.

Part III offers a solution to this daily and excessive use of combat-level force by local law enforcement. Part III begins with an examination into what compels citizens to voluntarily comply with the law, and continues by recommending that law enforcement agencies should restructure their policing strategies to conform with community policing. This Part concludes with a discussion about body cameras as a possible solution for rebuilding the community’s trust in law enforcement, and argues that such support is misplaced. While the use of body cameras may improve the speed and accuracy of investigations into disputes between police officers and local residents, cameras will not solve current tensions because the technology neither prevents encounters from escalating, nor makes the use of deadly force any less justified.
Online sources of authoritative information can be found at .gov websites

https://ucr.fbi.gov/

Uniform Crime Reporting

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- Law Enforcement Officers Killed and Assualted (LEOKA)
- Hate Crime Statistics
- National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS)
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NIBRS Resources
- NIBRS Overview

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- New Rape Definition (pdf)
- New Rape Definition Frequently Asked Questions (pdf)
- New Rape Fact Sheet (pdf)

Data Collections
- National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS)

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An annual publication for more than eight decades, this report contains a compilation of the volume and rate of violent and property crime offenses for the nation and by state. Individual law enforcement agency data are also provided for those contributors supplying 12 months complete offense data. In addition, this report also includes arrest, clearance, trends, and law enforcement employee data. Also available to use with *Crime in the United States* is the online UCR Data Tool to research crime statistics for the nation, by state, and by individual law enforcement agency.


**National Incident-Based Reporting System**

The National Incident-Based Reporting System, or NIBRS, was implemented to improve the overall quantity and quality of crime data collected by law enforcement by capturing more detailed information on each single crime occurrence. NIBRS’ first annual published compilation of data covered calendar year 2011, and NIBRS data was also used to publish several specialized reports on topics such as sex offenses, human trafficking, and federal crime data.


**Hate Crime Statistics**

An annual publication in which the FBI provides data on the number of incidents, offenses, victims, and offenders in reported crimes that were motivated in whole or in part by a bias against the victim’s perceived race, religion, sexual
Learn about the evolution of NIBRS and how it will help law enforcement have access to information that will drive informed decisions and discussions in the new NIBRS 101 video.

Watch NIBRS 101

Use filters to view map points by agency type, state, and crime category (by offense).

Interact with the NIBRS map

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