

State Police and Community Policing

Gary Cordner, Kutztown University

With contributions by Mark W. Seifert and Brian A. Ursino



COPS
Community Oriented Policing Services
U.S. Department of Justice



Cover photo credits:

(top) [Bluedisk, en.wikipedia](#)

(middle) [Jacinta Quesada/FEMA](#)

(bottom) [Anthony92931, Wikimedia.org](#)

State Police and Community Policing

Gary Cordner, Kutztown University

Contributors:

Mark W. Seifert, Assistant Director, Campus and Public Safety,
University of Delaware (Deputy Superintendent, ret., Delaware State Police)

Brian A. Ursino, Director of Law Enforcement, American Association of Motor
Vehicle Administrators (Assistant Chief, ret., Washington State Patrol)

This project was supported by cooperative agreement number 2003-CK-WX-K073 awarded by the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services, U.S. Department of Justice. The opinions contained herein are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the U.S. Department of Justice. References to specific agencies, companies, products, or services should not be considered an endorsement by the authors or the U.S. Department of Justice. Rather, the references are illustrations to supplement discussion of the issues.

Copyright © 2014 Gary Cordner. The U.S. Department of Justice reserves a royalty-free, nonexclusive, and irrevocable license to reproduce, publish, or otherwise use, and authorize others to use, this publication for Federal Government purposes. This publication may be freely distributed and used for noncommercial and educational purposes only.

The Internet references cited in this publication were valid as of the date of this publication. Given that URLs and websites are in constant flux, neither the author(s) nor the COPS Office can vouch for their current validity.

Recommended citation: Cordner, Gary, Mark W. Seifert, and Brian A. Ursino. 2014. *State Police and Community Policing*. Washington, DC: Office of Community Oriented Policing Services.

ISBN: 978-1-932582-91-8

Published 2014

Contents

Letter from the Director of the COPS Office	iv
Acknowledgments	v
Introduction	1
The State Police	2
Community Policing and State Police: Fit or Misfit?	9
Evidence of Compatibility	14
Partnerships	18
Problem Solving	22
Organizational Transformation	26
Conclusion	29
Notes	30
References	33
About the Author	37
About the Contributors	37
About the COPS Office	38

Letter from the Director of the COPS Office

Dear colleagues:

In the COPS Office publication, *American Policing in 2022*, Colonel Kriste Kibbey Etue of the Michigan State Police defines the future of the state police agency by describing an organization where mobility and integrated technology enhancements will produce “no boundaries policing.” We think this “no boundaries” concept applies to the community policing philosophy as well. Community policing is a philosophy that is not constrained by the size of the agency or by the number of personnel serving the community. Just as local, county, tribal, and special police agencies like campus police can benefit from community policing, so too can state police agencies.

In this report, *State Police and Community Policing*, we see how state police agencies can benefit by applying the community policing philosophy of partnership building principles and problem-solving strategies to their operations and take steps within the organization to support community policing. For state police agencies and the troopers they employ, their diverse communities are composed of residents and businesses, as well as motorists, motorcyclists, and truck drivers journeying through their state. In some regions, the state police perform the same duties as local police, and for some municipalities are the only police available to address crime and disorder problems when local officers are not available.

Since its inception in 1994, the COPS Office has awarded \$856,445,529 in funding among 900 grants to 197 distinct agencies supporting state police functions. This funding supported the hiring of more than 5,510 officers as well as technology initiatives, training, and other efforts. While this funding is a means by which we can help support the community policing efforts of state police throughout the United States, it is our knowledge resources that continue this support in the long term. Therefore, it is with great appreciation for the work performed by the men and women of state police agencies around the country that the COPS Office offers *State Police and Community Policing* to support the future.

Sincerely,



Ronald L. Davis, Director
Office of Community Oriented Policing Services

Acknowledgments

Numerous state and local police officials contributed to this project by completing surveys, consenting to interviews, and reviewing earlier drafts. We would particularly like to thank Commissioner Joe Farrow and Commander Bob Nannini of the California Highway Patrol and Deputy Superintendent (ret.) Debra Baker of the New Jersey State Police for their generous assistance. In addition, we are grateful for the guidance and support provided by program managers Matt Lysakowski and Debra R. Cohen McCullough, PhD, of the COPS Office, who were equally patient and proactive in helping bring this project to completion.

Introduction

The standard images that many of us associate with community policing tend to center on Officer Friendly,¹ foot patrol, bike patrol, crime prevention programs, community meetings, and police activities for youth. These images mainly correspond with the community engagement and partnership elements of community policing. These are not the images that most of us associate with state police or highway patrol, however.² State police seem more serious, more remote, and primarily focused on law enforcement, especially traffic enforcement.

Popular images and stereotypes often have some basis in reality, but they are also frequently inaccurate or exaggerated. That is the case with respect to state police and community policing. On one hand, full-fledged community policing tailored to the needs and problems of local neighborhoods is not an easy fit for most state police agencies.³ On the other hand, state police can and do work with the public, especially communities of interest such as commercial truckers, motorcycle riders, or victim advocates, and they have a particular inclination toward problem solving, which is one of the three main elements of community policing.

This report provides a brief description of state policing in the United States followed by a more detailed discussion of the factors that seem to contribute to contradictory notions of its fit or misfit with community policing. Then we describe several specific ways in which state police can adopt and implement the core elements of community policing with practical real-life examples. It is hoped that the discussion and examples will encourage all state police agencies to make community policing an important component of their organizational strategy.

The State Police

Among the four main categories of law enforcement agencies in the United States,⁴ state police agencies were the last to be created. Sheriffs' offices existed in colonial times, and the first municipal police departments appeared in the 1830s. A few federal agencies sprang up at the nation's founding, including the U.S. Marshals Service and the Revenue Cutter Service (predecessor of today's Customs and Border Protection), while other federal agencies were established in the 1800s, including the Secret Service (Johnson 1981). At the state level, however, only the Texas Rangers can claim continuous operation since the 1800s. Massachusetts briefly established a state police force but then disbanded it in 1875. Pennsylvania cast the modern mold when it formed its state police in 1905, with most other states following suit by the 1960s (Falcone 1998; 2001).

Why were state police the last to be created? In general, Americans have long distrusted government power and authority.⁵ When they reluctantly saw the need to create police institutions to help control crime and disorder, they preferred to retain local control over those institutions, hence the

Today, the jurisdictions and functions of state police vary considerably among the 50 states.

proliferation of municipal police departments and county sheriffs' offices. Indicative of this thinking were the two original federal agencies mentioned above—one to control the nation's borders and the other to provide some law and order on the frontier as the nation expanded westward. Neither of these federal agencies represented much of a threat to ordinary citizens living in established communities and states. Similarly, when the U.S. Secret Service was created in 1865, it was for the distinct purpose of protecting the U.S. currency against counterfeiting—no general investigative powers were granted at first.

Despite the reticence to grant police power and authority to state governments, state police finally did come into existence in the 1900s. Several reasons are generally cited (Falcone 1998). First, the early 1900s were a time of significant labor strife. Strikes and other labor actions against mining companies and railroads often took place in rural areas where the sheriff and other local police either sympathized with the workers or were simply too outnumbered to reliably protect the business owners and their property. The usual alternatives were to employ private police or call in the National Guard, neither of which was particularly palatable or politically popular. This led to pressure to create a state-level police alternative that would, hopefully, be effective, fair, and reasonably neutral in handling conflicts between workers and business owners.

A second reason, overlapping to some extent with the first, was World War I. During the war, many National Guard units were activated and deployed overseas, leaving states without their primary resource for dealing with major conflicts and emergencies. A number of states created or expanded their state police during this period, sometimes with the intention that it would be a temporary solution until the war ended, but by then the usefulness of a state police agency had usually been demonstrated.

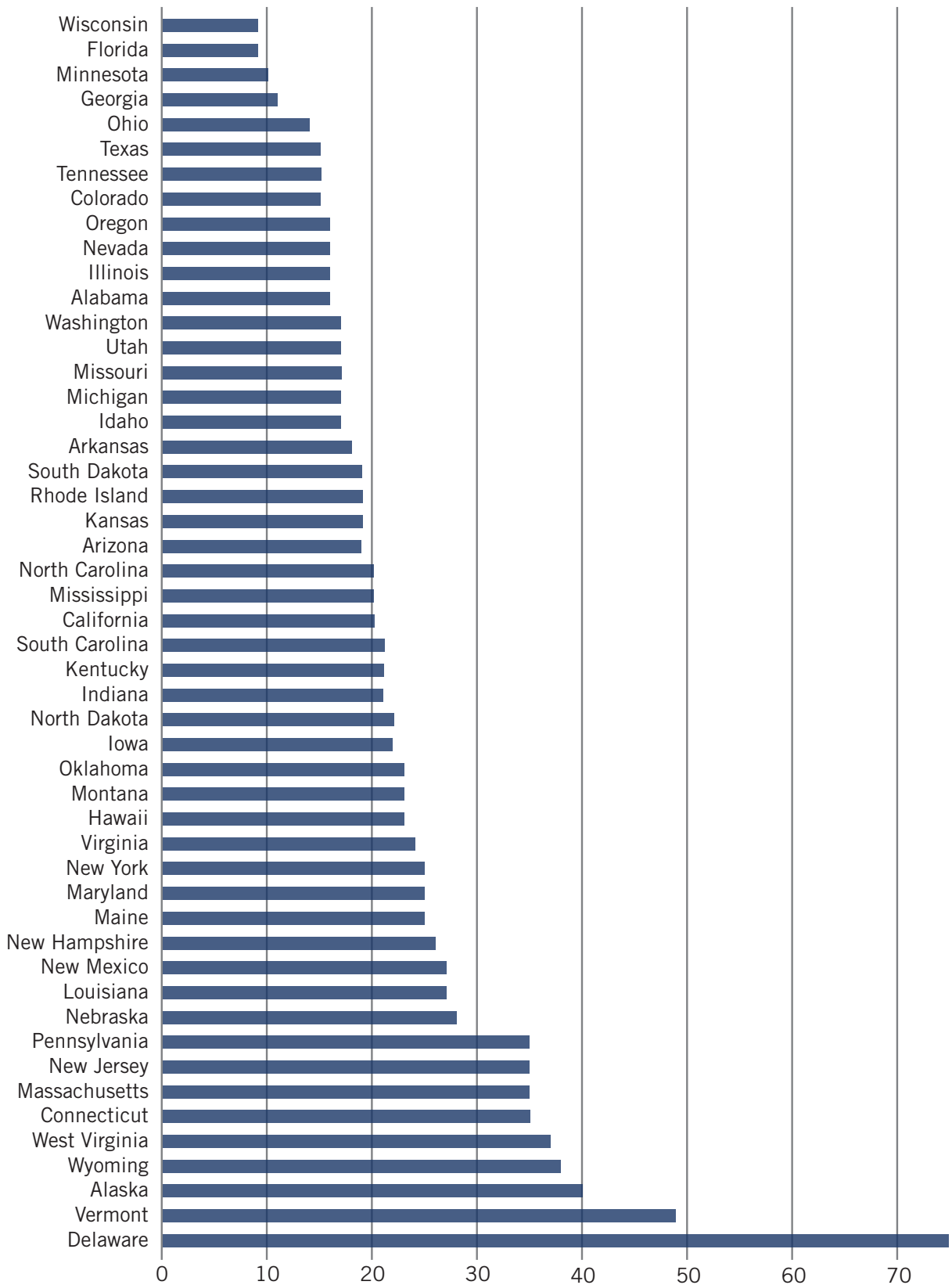
The third main explanation for the establishment and growth of state police agencies beginning in the early 1900s was the automobile. The introduction of cars and trucks quickly led to significant traffic safety problems. Moreover, the United States then decided to build a vast highway network to take economic and social advantage of the new modes of personal and commercial transportation created by motor vehicles. The construction of state and federal highways throughout the country, often passing mainly through rural areas, created new policing responsibilities that largely fell outside the domains of sheriffs, municipal police, and federal law enforcement agencies.

Today, the jurisdictions and functions of state police vary considerably among the 50 states.⁶ The main distinction is between state police and highway patrol, with each model taking hold in a significant number of states. In general, state police agencies have relatively broader missions and perform a wider range of police functions, such as patrolling, responding to calls, and investigating crimes. Highway patrol agencies, however, usually have more limited missions, sometimes restricted solely to state and federal highways, and consequently their duties tend to be concentrated much more on traffic control and enforcement. Naturally, one needs to consult any particular state's constitution and statutes to determine the precise mission, authority, and jurisdiction of their state police or highway patrol agency. It should be noted as well that primary state police agency names vary as follows (Reaves 2011):

- State police – 25
- Highway patrol – 13
- Department of public safety – 9
- State patrol – 2
- State troopers – 1

Two contextual factors help account for the distinction between state police and highway patrol agencies, and also for the size and breadth of the role that state-level agencies play in different states (Cordner 2011). First is the sheriff's office. In some states, especially in the South and West, sheriffs and their deputies provide the full range of policing duties (in addition to jail and court security functions). In these states, sheriffs often account for the bulk of rural policing, resulting in lowered demand for state police. The second factor is state-level investigative agencies, often referred to as BIs (Bureaus of Investigation). In states that have bifurcated systems (a primary state police agency and a stand-alone general-purpose criminal investigation agency that is organizationally separate from the state police), the state police or highway patrol agency typically shoulders less responsibility for criminal investigation, and thus is smaller than it otherwise would be if it had fully consolidated patrol and investigative responsibilities. To put it another way, it is in states that 1) do not have separate BIs or 2) that have "weak" sheriff systems (sheriffs that play little or no role in policing) that the state police typically play the broadest role.

Figure 1. Sworn state police per 100,000 residents per state, 2008



Source: Adapted from Brian A. Reaves. 2011. *Census of state and local law enforcement agencies, 2008*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/csllea08.pdf>.

Figure 1 illustrates the variation in the proportion of state police among the 50 states as reflected by the number of sworn state police officers per 100,000 residents (Reaves 2011). The national average is about 20. As shown in the figure, the variation is quite substantial, ranging from nine state police per 100,000 residents in Wisconsin and Florida to 75 in Delaware. Of the nine states with 30+ state police per 100,000 residents, six are located in the Northeast or Middle Atlantic regions in states where sheriffs have limited law enforcement duties (Delaware, Vermont, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania), while three are in particularly rural states (Alaska, Wyoming, and West Virginia). At the other end of the spectrum, the states with the fewest state police per population tend to be highway patrol states.

State police/highway patrol agencies represent a relatively small slice of the entire policing system in the United States, accounting for less than 7 percent of the nation’s full-time sworn law enforcement officers (Reaves 2011; 2012). As indicated in table 1, local police and sheriffs’ offices account for nearly three-quarters of all sworn officers with federal agencies supplying the next biggest contingent. Though vastly outnumbered by their local, sheriff, and federal counterparts, it is important to note that there are over 60,000 sworn state police officers in the country, far from an insignificant number.

The number of sworn state police officers has grown by about 15 percent over the last two decades, as shown in figure 2 (Reaves 2011).⁷ However, the U.S. population grew even faster over that period, so the number of state police per population has actually decreased slightly (figure 3). Partially

Table 1. Law enforcement agencies and full-time sworn employees, 2008

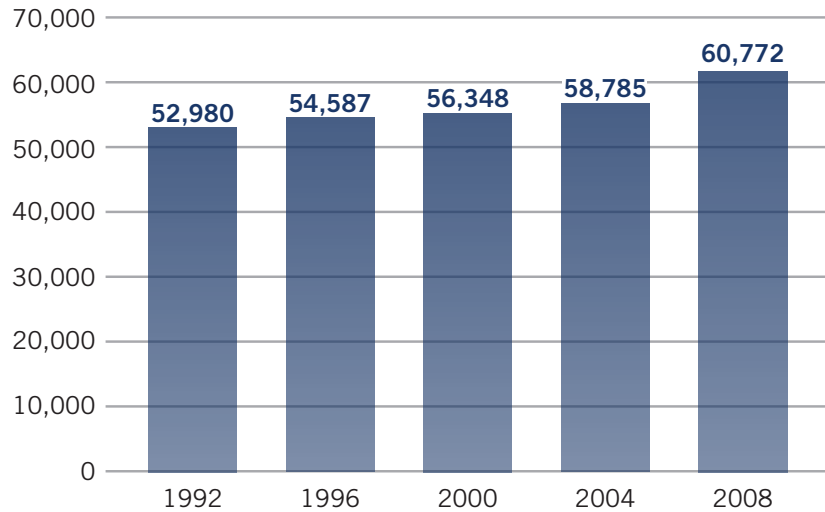
Agency type	Sworn employees		
	Number of agencies	Number	Percent of total**
Local police	12,501	461,063	52.1%
Sheriffs	3,063	182,979	20.7%
State police	50	60,772	6.9%
Special jurisdiction*	2,371	60,432	6.8%
Federal	73	120,348	13.6%
Total	18,058	885,594	100.1%

* Includes constables and (non-federal) marshals.

** Numbers may not add up to 100% due to rounding.

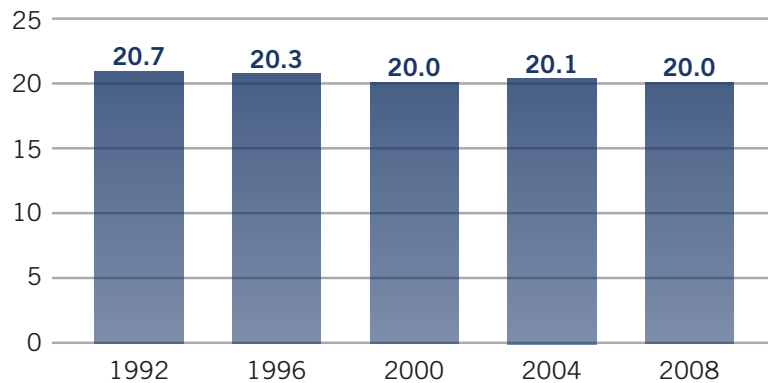
Sources: Adapted from Brian A. Reaves. 2011. *Census of State and Local Law Enforcement Agencies, 2008*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/cslea08.pdf>; and Brian A. Reaves. 2012. *Federal Law Enforcement Officers, 2008*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/fleo08.pdf>.

Figure 2. Sworn state police by year, 1992 – 2008



Source: Adapted from Brian A. Reaves. 2011. *Census of State and Local Law Enforcement Agencies, 2008*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/cslea08.pdf>.

Figure 3. Sworn state police per 100,000 U.S. residents per year, 1992 – 2008

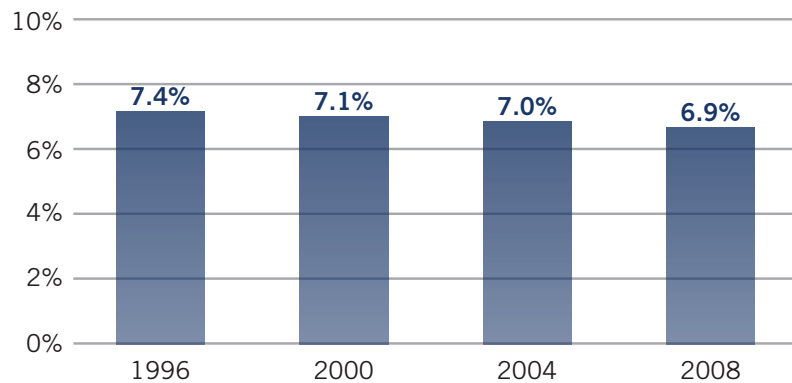


Source: Adapted from Brian A. Reaves. 2011. *Census of State and Local Law Enforcement Agencies, 2008*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/cslea08.pdf>.

offsetting this downward per-capita trend has been a 26 percent increase in non-sworn (civilian) full-time state police employees over the same period.

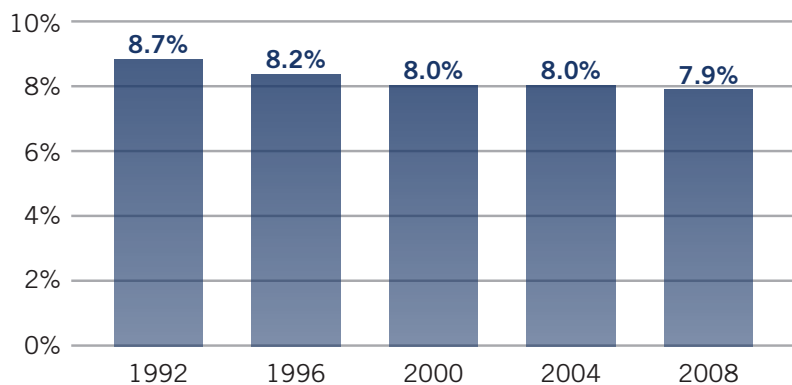
Other components of the U.S. law enforcement system have grown more than the state police over the last 15–20 years. The fastest growing segment has been sworn federal law enforcement officers, which grew 61 percent from 1996–2008—with 36 percent between 2000 and 2008, reflecting the

Figure 4. Sworn state police as percent of all federal, state, and local police by year, 1996 – 2008



Sources: Adapted from Brian A. Reaves Timothy C. Hart. 2001. *Federal Law Enforcement Officers, 2000*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/fleo00.pdf>; Brian A. Reaves. 1998. *Federal Law Enforcement Officers, 1996*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/fleo96.pdf>; Brian A. Reaves. 2006. *Federal Law Enforcement Officers, 2004*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/fleo04.pdf>; Brian A. Reaves. 2011. *Census of State and Local Law Enforcement Agencies, 2008*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/cslea08.pdf>; Brian A. Reaves. 2012. *Federal Law Enforcement Officers, 2008*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/fleo08.pdf>.

Figure 5. Sworn state police as percent of all state and local police by year (not including federal agencies), 1992 – 2008



Source: Adapted from Brian A. Reaves. 2011. *Census of State and Local Law Enforcement Agencies, 2008*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/cslea08.pdf>.

post-9/11 surge in counterterrorism and homeland security employment at the national level. As shown in figure 4, the proportion of all U.S. law enforcement officers accounted for by state police has decreased slowly but steadily since 1996 (Reaves and Hart 2001; Reaves 1998; 2006; 2011; 2012). Figure 5 shows the 1992–2008 trend with federal agencies omitted. The pattern is the same, with the state police portion of total law enforcement employment slowly but steadily decreasing.

An important consideration regarding state police functions is that many state police agencies provide a wide range of support services to other law enforcement agencies as well as to residents in their states. It is common for state police agencies to operate state crime labs, statewide law enforcement information systems, criminal record and criminal history repositories, firearm registries, sex offender registries, Amber Alert systems, fusion centers, and similar support activities. In some states, the state police also provide or oversee police academies and police training. Typically, these support functions are assigned to the state police by governors or state legislatures,

The overall picture is that state police account for a relatively small portion of all law enforcement officers in the United States, but they provide a very broad range of police operational and support services.

whether in response to federal mandates or to state-level initiatives. Frequently, they take the form of unfunded mandates, adding responsibility while effectively reducing the resources available to the agency for general-purpose policing throughout the state.

On the operational side, state police often assist smaller local agencies with serious criminal and internal investigations, complex traffic crash investigations, special event security, dignitary protection, and critical incident (SWAT) response. State police are also sometimes assigned to assist specific local jurisdictions experiencing emergencies or crises, such as Detroit, Michigan, and Oakland, California (Hunter 2012; Masunaga 2012), in recent years. Post-9/11, many state police agencies were assigned additional homeland security-related responsibilities,

including serving as lead state agencies for intelligence analysis and information sharing, counterterrorism operations, and fusion centers. Additionally, during the last decade, state police have been expected to fill niches and gaps previously covered by federal law enforcement agencies, such as assisting local agencies with cybercrime and white-collar crime investigations when those federal agencies were required to shift their focus more toward counterterrorism (Foster and Cordner 2005).

The overall picture is that state police account for a relatively small portion of all law enforcement officers in the United States, but they provide a very broad range of police operational and support services, and of course they have statewide responsibilities. In the next two sections, we discuss the ramifications of these factors for whether community policing makes sense as a state police philosophy and strategy.

Community Policing and State Police: Fit or Misfit?

At first glance, there are quite a few points of seeming contradiction or misfit between community policing and state police. A few of the most obvious conflicts are noted below:

- **Origin** – Many state police agencies were originally formed for the purposes of strikebreaking or regulation of automobiles (Falcone 1998). Neither of these purposes has an easy connection with community policing as it is generally understood today.
- **History** – State police agencies were created or came of age during the professional era of American policing (1920–1970) (Kelling and Moore 1988). Perhaps as a consequence, they seem to have maintained a stronger commitment to command and control—the legalistic style of policing (Wilson 1968)—and to a paramilitary ethos than many local law enforcement agencies (Falcone 1998).
- **Governance** – Most state police agencies report either directly to a governor or to a state cabinet-level public safety director who reports to the governor. These officials are further removed from ordinary citizens than local mayors and city managers. Also, state police rarely have citizen advisory boards or civilian review boards that provide direct public influence over their operations.
- **Geography** – State police cover such vast geographic areas that their reliance on automobiles (or, as in Alaska, airplanes, boats, and snowmobiles) is nearly inevitable. Foot patrol and bicycle patrol, visible hallmarks of local-level community policing, are simply not practical for most state policing.
- **Functions** – Highway patrol agencies, in particular, often perform a narrower range of functions than local police or sheriffs. In addition, state police are frequently in the role of helping local police handle major crimes and incidents, whereas community policing is often about everyday crime and disorder, nuisances, quality-of-life issues, reassuring the public, and providing miscellaneous services.
- **Diversity** – Community policing emphasizes that an agency’s officers should be representative of its service population, but state police agencies lag behind other types of law enforcement agencies on this criterion. About 15 percent of federal law enforcement officers are women, and 11–12 percent of local police and sheriff’s deputies are women, but the figure is only 6.5 percent for state police (Langton 2010). Comparable measurement of minority employment in different types of law enforcement agencies is not undertaken routinely except for local police departments, which had about 25 percent minority officers as of 2007 (Reaves 2010). Anecdotally, however, minority employment in state police agencies seems far below the 25 percent mark (Gorenstein 2011; Police Diversity 2013).

The diversity factor is arguably very important because it is more easily changed than some of the other characteristics cited above. That is, state police cannot change their history or the geographical features of their jurisdictions, and they may not have much influence over the functions they are required to perform. Through recruitment and selection they can influence the kinds of people they hire, however, and they can adjust training and management practices to improve their ability to

retain women and other minority employees. In a later section, we highlight some state police agencies that have substantially diversified over the past 20 years, which shows that it can be done. Overall, though, as noted, state police have lagged behind other types of law enforcement agencies in regard to diversification of personnel.

One structured way to consider how well community policing fits the state police is to utilize the seven dimensions of the police “bottom line” (Moore and Braga 2003). These seven dimensions are not unique to, or tailored to, community policing, but rather are one way of capturing the entire domain of police effectiveness. Table 2 presents the seven dimensions and then highlights the two dimensions for which there is the most solid evidence supporting the effectiveness of community policing—reducing fear and enhancing police legitimacy. To be sure, community policing may make positive contributions on other dimensions as well, but its main strengths seem to be in reducing fear and enhancing public satisfaction, trust, and confidence in the police (Cordner 2011).

Given this “bottom line” of police effectiveness and how it relates to community policing, does it fit the state police? It would not seem, traditionally, that public reassurance and public satisfaction have been top priority concerns of state police agencies.⁸ Rather, state police seem to have given their highest priority to other dimensions, notably “ensuring safety and civility in public spaces,” especially traffic safety. Thus, the correspondence between state police priorities and the widely-acknowledged principal benefits of community policing does not seem especially tight.

Table 2. The bottom line of policing

Dimensions of overall police effectiveness	Main strengths/effects of community policing
Reduce crime and victimization	
Hold offenders accountable	
Ensure safety and civility in public spaces	
Reduce fear and enhance personal security	★
Enhance public satisfaction and police legitimacy	★
Use force and authority fairly, efficiently, and effectively	
Use financial resources fairly, efficiently, and effectively	

Source: Dimensions adapted from Mark H. Moore and Anthony Braga. 2003. *The “Bottom Line” of Policing: What Citizens Should Value (and Measure) in Police Performance*. Washington, DC: Police Executive Research Forum. <http://www.policeforum.org/library/police-evaluation/BottomLineofPolicing.pdf>. Main effects attributions added by the author of this report.

Table 3. Correspondence of nine elements of community policing for state police

Elements of community oriented policing	Fit	Comments
Citizen input	Poor	By their nature, state police seem more independent of the community (and politics) than local and sheriff agencies.
Broad function	Poor	Some state police agencies are restricted to fairly narrow traffic and enforcement functions.
Personal service	Poor	State police are so widely dispersed that personal knowledge of those served is difficult to establish. Also, their operating philosophy seems more aligned with treating everybody the same.
Geographic focus	Good	State police are distributed and assigned to geographic areas. This often includes long-term assignments for front-line troopers as well as geographic command accountability. If personnel are rotated frequently, however, the level of familiarity can suffer.
Prevention emphasis	Mixed	The state police emphasis has traditionally been on enforcement rather than prevention. This includes a tendency to measure success on the basis of tickets and arrests. However, some state police do emphasize prevention of traffic crashes through public education and traffic engineering.
Flexible operations	Poor	State police are limited in their ability to utilize foot patrol, bike patrol, etc. Nor have they seemed to adopt the differential responses strategy for call handling or proactive offender targeting as an investigative strategy.
Positive interaction	Mixed	State police have a great many interactions with motorists, and some agencies have emphasized “selling the ticket” and other customer satisfaction techniques.
Partnerships	Mixed	State police would not seem ideally suited to forming partnerships with neighborhood-based groups, but they may have opportunities and incentives to partner with “communities of interest,” especially those with a connection to traffic safety.
Problem solving	Mixed	Because of their inclination toward enforcement, state police problem solving may be limited in scope. However, some longstanding approaches to traffic safety have similarities to problem-oriented policing.

Mixed fit indicates mixed evidence or mixed thinking, i.e., the case can be made either way for whether there is a good fit between state police and these elements of community policing.

Source: Elements of community policing adapted from Gary Cordner. 2010. *Community Policing: Elements and Effects*. In *Critical Issues in Policing: Contemporary Readings*, edited by Roger G. Dunham and Geoffrey P. Alpert, 6th ed., 432–449. Long Grove, IL: Waveland. Fit and comments added for this report.

Another way of making a structured assessment of the fit of community policing for state police is to consider nine elements of community policing (Cordner 2011), as illustrated in table 3. The “fit” judgments and comments in the table are admittedly somewhat speculative. In keeping with the current discussion, though, the table shows that community policing is not an automatic or easy fit, philosophically or strategically, with traditional state policing, or at least with common stereotypes about state police. At the same time, the table does begin to demonstrate some aspects of correspondence and, especially with regard to the more tactical elements of community policing (the bottom three rows of the table), some areas of potential convergence. We will return to these shortly.

The post-9/11 experience provides some additional insight into the differing roles and responsibilities of state police agencies as contrasted with municipal police and sheriffs. A national survey in 2004 found that state police agencies, compared to local law enforcement, were more likely to have increased their allocation of resources to critical infrastructure protection, intelligence gathering and analysis, special event security, terrorism-related investigations, commercial vehicle enforcement, and border security (Foster and Cordner 2005). Local agencies, however, were more likely to have increased their allocation of resources to community policing. Similarly, a majority of state police agencies indicated that they had assumed a major role (often the lead agency role) for numerous homeland-security functions within their states, but only a third indicated they had a major role as “source of homeland security announcements for the public” and less than one-quarter had a major role in “homeland security education/training for the public.”

Table 4. Police chief executive officer (CEO) ratings of severity of consequences if a task is not performed correctly by their personnel (0=not applicable to 4=very significant)*

Community policing tasks	State police	Sheriff	Local police
Meet with community residents about local problems	2.78	3.28	3.28
Diagnose and solve local crime and disorder problems	2.64	3.29	3.30
Victim services/relations	2.69	3.28	3.32
Interact with special needs populations	3.09	3.34	3.37

* Differences on each item by agency type were statistically significant.

Source: Rural Policing Institute. 2011. *Final Report on the Rural Law Enforcement Training Needs Assessment*. Glynco, GA: Federal Law Enforcement Training Center. Unpublished document.

Another empirical look at differing priorities of state police versus other types of agencies is provided by a more recent national survey of 1,500 law enforcement agencies focused on the training needs of rural police (Rural Policing Institute 2011). One set of questions asked responding chief executive officers (CEO) to “rate the severity of the consequences for your community when a specific law enforcement job task is not performed correctly by your personnel.” Local police chiefs, sheriffs, and state police CEOs gave similar ratings to the majority of the 50 listed tasks,⁹ and in some cases, ratings that differed obviously resulted from distinctive agency functions (for example, sheriffs rated the seriousness of “provide court security” and “staff jail/detention facilities” much higher than local chiefs or state police CEOs). In regard to community policing, though, state police CEOs gave lower ratings to the four items presented in table 4: 1) meet with community residents about local problems, 2) diagnose and solve local crime and disorder problems, 3) engage in victim services/relations, and 4) interact with special needs populations. On the same survey, state police CEOs also rated their agencies’ need for community policing training for executive, command, and supervisory staff lower than did local police chiefs and sheriffs.

To sum up this section, there are various historical, conceptual, logical, and empirical reasons to be skeptical about the applicability or relevance of community policing for state police. In the next section, we look at the other side of the coin and discover more compatibility than the foregoing discussion would suggest.

Evidence of Compatibility

Returning to empirical evidence, the same rural law enforcement training survey mentioned previously (Rural Policing Institute 2011) provided some indication that state police CEOs actually do have community policing needs and interests. In regard to the need for management training in their agencies on 1) community relations/community involvement and 2) problem-oriented policing, state police responses mirrored those of local chiefs and sheriffs and were in the range of medium need. On two other management training topics, state police CEOs actually expressed greater need than their local and sheriff counterparts: 1) working with other government agencies (e.g., emergency management, fusion centers, public health, and social services) and 2) working with non-governmental and private-sector organizations. These latter responses suggest a relatively strong orientation toward partnerships and collaboration, two important characteristics of community policing.

For the items presented in table 4 (on page 14), although state police CEO ratings were lower than those assigned by local police chiefs and sheriffs, they did indicate that the consequences for their

agencies if those community-oriented tasks were not performed correctly by their personnel would be at least somewhat significant. This indicates that the state police respondents did recognize the importance of meeting with community residents, diagnosing local problems, providing victim services, and interacting with special needs populations—they simply rated the consequences of poor performance of those tasks a little lower than did chiefs and sheriffs. For a related task, “interact with culturally diverse populations,” state police CEOs gave the highest ratings, although the differences among the three categories of agencies were not statistically significant. Finally, state police CEOs were as supportive as chiefs and sheriffs of the importance for their personnel of 1) interpersonal skills/conflict resolution and 2) problem solving, critical thinking, and decision making.

The 2004 study of post-9/11 impacts on state police (Foster and Cordner 2005) found, perhaps not surprisingly, dramatic increases in state police collaboration with numerous federal agencies responsible for immigration, border control, aviation, emergency management, and domestic security.¹⁰ In addition, the majority of state law enforcement agencies reported increased collaboration with private companies and corporate security. That study concluded:

“In short, the world of state law enforcement has become incredibly more complex and demanding during the past several years. Not long ago, it would have been commonplace to regard the state police as perhaps the last bastion of old-style, traditional law enforcement. Those days are now gone.” (p. 60)



In keeping with the trends identified by the post-9/11 study, state police agencies have shown increasing interest in intelligence-led policing in recent years (Ratcliffe and Guidetti 2008; Schaible and Sheffield 2012). Most states have just one fusion center, and it is often under the direction of the state police. Also, the state police are frequently the state's official liaison with the national intelligence community. While intelligence-led policing is not inherently community oriented, many law enforcement agencies conjoin the strategies and also see a critical role for community policing in maximizing suspicious activity reporting and the collection of human intelligence (Carter 2009).

It was noted earlier that state police agencies have struggled to achieve diversity in their sworn ranks. A 2013 national survey of law enforcement and human resources officials found that state police respondents were less satisfied than local agency respondents with their ability to “attract/recruit applicants with the right kinds of qualities/ characteristics,” especially their ability to attract and retain women, racial/ ethnic minorities, and employees with foreign language skills (Cordner and Cordner 2013). This indicates that state police officials are neither unaware of nor insensitive to their agencies' shortcomings related to achieving a culturally diverse workforce.

Another important consideration, as discussed above, is that the breadth of functions performed by state police agencies varies widely among the 50 states. State police perform the same duties as local police in some states, though not all. For example, the Pennsylvania State Police (PSP) is the sole provider of police services for 50 percent of that state's 2,562 municipalities (Zajac and Kowalski 2012). In another 430 municipalities, which have part-time local police departments, PSP provides full police services when local officers are not available. Most of the municipalities covered by the PSP are small and rural, but at least two have 30,000+ residents, and the total population directly served is about 3.4 million. Nearly three-quarters of the 800,000 incident responses made by PSP each year occur in these municipalities, and run the gamut from homicides to thefts, traffic accidents, and domestic disputes.

The Pennsylvania example directs our attention to the specific mechanisms and structures by which state police agencies are called upon to deliver local policing services. In Pennsylvania and some other states, the state police are required to provide police services to any municipalities that choose not to create or maintain their own separate local police departments. In Pennsylvania, municipalities are not charged for any state police service that they consume—in fact, the municipality even gets back a portion of the traffic citation revenue generated by the state police within its boundaries (Zajac and Kowalski 2012). This model of state police service to municipalities at no cost is common in the Middle Atlantic and New England regions (Coate and Schwester 2009), although Pennsylvania is toward the extreme in the number of municipalities that have chosen to take advantage of the cost-free state service.

Not long ago, it would have been commonplace to regard the state police as perhaps the last bastion of old-style, traditional law enforcement. Those days are now gone.

Another mechanism, cited earlier, is the provision of state police services to local jurisdictions during crisis situations, such as crime waves, periods of social unrest, or instances of extreme financial hardship. Current examples include Detroit, Michigan, and Oakland, California (Hunter 2012; Masunaga 2012). Past examples of relatively substantial and long-term assignments of state police to cities have included Camden, Detroit, Los Angeles, and Philadelphia. In these kinds of situations, the state police may either take over responsibility for traffic enforcement and other specialized activities so that the local police can concentrate on managing crime and disorder, or they may work side-by-side on patrol with the local police.



From time to time, some state police agencies have established so-called “resident trooper” programs. In Connecticut, for example, the state police are required by law to provide services to towns that do not have their own police departments (Rose 2011). An on-duty trooper is typically responsible for several towns. But if a town wants to have a state trooper assigned exclusively to it, the resident trooper program provides that option for a fee. A town is required to pay 70 percent of the resident trooper’s “compensation, maintenance, and other expenses,” although raising the fee to 100 percent has been proposed (Fox 2009). As of 2011, 56 Connecticut

towns were contracting for one or more resident troopers. Other states that have used the resident trooper program include Illinois and Maryland (Resident Trooper 2013).

When state police work routinely in towns and villages, as opposed to strictly patrolling state and federal highways, their duties are similar, if not identical, to those of local police. In these situations, it might be expected that state police officers (and their commanders) would see the benefits of

citizen input, personal service, positive interactions, and partnerships for effectively managing crime and disorder and keeping the public on their side (Cordner and Scarborough 2003). Similarly, state police officers might see the value of taking a problem-solving approach to reducing crime and disorder. Such an approach has a natural appeal for state police, since it parallels the modern approach to traffic safety—analyze high-crash locations, identify causal behaviors and conditions, and then look for engineering and education solutions in addition to enforcement solutions (Rao 2003). This has been the professional mantra in the police and highway safety communities since the 1950s (Wilson 1952), and it closely resembles processes espoused by problem-oriented policing such as the SARA model (Center for Problem-Oriented Policing 2013a).

There is some interesting evidence to support the applicability of problem solving to state policing. Between 1993 and 2011, nine different state police agencies submitted a total of 40 applications for the Herman Goldstein Award for outstanding problem-oriented policing (Center for Problem-Oriented Policing 2013a). Those applications resulted in four

finalists, of which two won the top award. Considering that the Goldstein Award is open to applications from all over the world, four U.S. state-police finalists and two state-police winners in 19 years is a noteworthy accomplishment. Both of the winning projects were submitted by the California Highway Patrol (2001; 2002). Only two other law enforcement agencies have won the Goldstein Award twice—Lancashire Constabulary and Transport for London, both in the United Kingdom.

The preceding discussion has sought to make the case that community policing is relevant for state police, despite some functional and structural factors that, at first glance, make the fit seem difficult if not illogical. In the following sections, we present some specific examples and suggestions to illustrate the advantages and benefits of community policing for state police agencies.

When state police work routinely in towns and villages, as opposed to strictly patrolling state and federal highways, their duties are similar, if not identical, to those of local police.

Partnerships

Partnerships are a core element of community policing. The basic rationale is that the police cannot accomplish crime control or their other important missions by themselves. It therefore makes sense for police to seek assistance from others, whether in the form of “eyes and ears,” helping hands, resources, or influence. This line of reasoning is completely consistent with the Anglo-American tradition of self-government and civic responsibility. Sir Robert Peel, founder of the London Metropolitan Police in 1829, famously stated that the creation of police departments delegated day-to-day policing duties and authority to a group of paid, full-time officials, but did not absolve citizens of the responsibility for helping protect their communities from crime and disorder (Lentz and Chaires 2007).

The stereotypical community policing partnership joins up police with a geographically based neighborhood association. This gives police officers insight to specific local issues and problems and gives the neighborhood the opportunity to get to know, and influence, “their” local beat officer

or officers. This form of partnership enhances local knowledge and responsiveness and corresponds with the historical American preference for local government and local policing. Many of the specific elements of community policing, including geographic focus, permanent beat assignment, citizen input, and personal service, are designed to encourage and support this type of neighborhood partnership.

Since our typical notions of community policing tend to incorporate this one particu-

lar form of partnership, it is crucial to recognize other forms as well. The COPS Office publication *Community Policing Defined* (2014) identifies one of the key components of community policing as “community partnerships between the law enforcement agency and the individuals and organizations they serve to develop solutions to problems and increase trust in police.” The report goes on to explain that the range of potential partners is quite large, including

- other government agencies;
- community members/groups;
- nonprofits/service providers;
- private businesses;
- media.



wellphoto, Shutterstock.com

We emphasize the range and diversity of potential police partnerships because this opens the door to community policing for state police agencies. That is, the typical partnership with a local neighborhood association will not always be logical or feasible for state police, but other kinds of partnerships with public and private agencies, statewide community organizations, and communities of interest (such as motorists, commercial truckers, and crime victims) are both practical and desirable. In regard to the five categories of partners noted above, for example, consider the following:

- **Other government agencies** – State police commonly partner with local and federal law enforcement agencies, national security agencies, probation and parole agencies, and highway departments, just to name a few. Of particular importance are the longstanding close partnerships between state police agencies and the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA), particularly those aimed at increasing seat belt usage and decreasing alcohol-impaired driving.
- **Community members/groups** – State police often partner (or could do so) with community organizations, especially in rural areas, such as co-ops, Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, and merchants’ associations.
- **Nonprofits/service providers** – State police frequently partner with domestic violence shelters, faith-based organizations, schools, colleges/universities, volunteer fire departments, and similar entities, especially in rural areas.
- **Private businesses** – State police can partner (and often do) with security companies, major private facilities such as chemical plants and nuclear power plants, and highway-related businesses such as towing companies and road contractors.
- **Media** – State police often work closely with the media, not only to disseminate news information but also to produce and distribute public service announcements, especially those related to highway safety.

We emphasize the range and diversity of potential police partnerships because this opens the door to community policing for state police agencies.

Beyond these generic illustrations, a few more specific real-life examples will help to demonstrate the range and significance of state police partnerships in conjunction with community policing.

- **Kentucky State Police** – KSP is the lead agency in its state for the national program “Hero Campaign” to combat drunk driving.¹¹ In that program, KSP partners with manufacturers, bar and tavern owners, beer and liquor stores, colleges, and others. As part of the campaign, distillers, distributors, and retail sellers of alcoholic beverages are specifically asked to pledge to encourage responsible drinking and the use of designated drivers. Local governments and other law enforcement agencies are also sought as partners in the program.¹²

- **Rhode Island State Police** – RISP has a formal partnership with the Family Service of Rhode Island in order to provide victim and witness assistance services to the public, including referrals to shelters, safe houses, and legal advocacy.¹³ The Delaware State Police also has a very robust victim services operation.¹⁴
- **Delaware State Police** – DSP operates a Citizen’s Police Academy intended to help members of the community become more knowledgeable about policing and more effective partners with the police in addressing community problems.¹⁵ DSP also has an Explorers program for young people aged 14–20 who are interested in policing careers, through which they get mentoring and participate in community service events.¹⁶ Also:
 - DSP has over 100 troopers serving as school resource officers (SRO).¹⁷ Police in schools reflect an important partnership component of community policing but not one in which state police are always engaged. DSP’s strong involvement is indicative of the fact that the agency accounts for a substantially larger portion of all the police in its state in comparison to the other 49 primary state police agencies around the country (as illustrated in figure 1 on page 6).
 - DSP has partnered with the City of Wilmington, the state’s Attorney General, the Division of Probation and Parole, and other agencies in “Operation Pressure Point” to help the city police target violent crime hot spots (Fowser 2011). This model of state police aid to cities has also been used in many other states, including California, Maryland, Michigan, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania.
- **California Highway Patrol** – CHP established the El Protector program in 1987 as a means of outreach to the Hispanic community for traffic safety education and crash prevention.¹⁸ The Washington State Patrol also uses El Protector and has established formal community, law enforcement, and traffic safety partners to help extend the program into Hispanic communities in its state.¹⁹ Also:
 - CHP makes active use of volunteers, including over 700 members of the Retired Senior Volunteer Program (Scroggin 2012).²⁰ The agency also participates in the Governor’s Mentoring Partnership, a youth mentoring program.²¹ CHP personnel use equal amounts of work time and personal time to fulfill their mentoring responsibilities. CHP and other state agencies partner with numerous community-based mentoring programs such as Big Brothers/Big Sisters and Boys and Girls Clubs.
- **Washington State Patrol** – WSP partners with other agencies in several statewide traffic safety initiatives. These include a partnership with the Washington State Department of Transportation (WSDOT) for motorist assistance,²² a public-private partnership to reduce crashes at

highway-railroad crossings,²³ and a partnership with WSDOT and local fire services to improve on-scene management and expeditious clearing of highway incidents.²⁴

- **Ohio State Highway Patrol** – OSHP partnered with a non-profit educational company and a corporate sponsor to produce “Crash Scene Investigation,” a web-based program designed to teach science and math skills to middle and high school students as well as convey age-appropriate traffic safety messages.²⁵

As noted, the purposes of partnerships are to leverage additional resources and assistance, increase trust and confidence in the police, and aid in solving community problems. All of these purposes are illustrated by the diverse state police examples described above and in the following statement

about community outreach posted by the California Highway Patrol on its agency website.²⁶

The CHP has a successful tradition of working with governmental agencies, community groups, private businesses, and public organizations to accomplish its goals and promote public safety. From working with local allied agencies to curb an escalating crime rate, public agencies to discourage underage drinking, community residents to address local traffic complaints, or private businesses to promote responsible alcohol consumption, the CHP has created partnerships focused on enhancing traffic safety while improving the community’s overall quality of life.

Nurturing further community involvement, participation, and partnerships with local communities will not only increase traffic safety, but also provide the public with ample opportunity to be part of the CHP-community partnership team. This, in turn, will increase understanding and support for CHP operations and programs.

Interaction with community groups is an invaluable and positive resource with unlimited potential. The team spirit and synergy created by these partnerships allows for increased communication between the community and the CHP, more efficient and effective traffic safety programs, and greater understanding of issues that create barriers to partnerships.

Together, in partnership with the community, the CHP’s ability to positively impact traffic safety increases significantly. The motto of these partnerships is “Shared Responsibility, Shared Success,” a recipe for true accomplishment and traffic safety.



JPL Designs and Sergey Tropov, Shutterstock.com

Problem Solving

Problem solving is an essential substantive component of community policing (Goldstein 1987; 1990). While partnerships and good police-community relations are invaluable in their own right, they also make it possible for police to do their work more effectively. In the most traditional sense, police can handle emergencies, quell disorders, and solve crimes most successfully when they have the cooperation and confidence of the public. Taking that one step further, when police and citizens collaborate in identifying and solving ongoing crime and disorder problems, evidence shows that crime control, public safety, fear reduction, and public trust are achieved to a greater extent than with any other policing strategies (Weisburd and Eck 2004; Tuffin et al. 2006; Weisburd et al. 2008).

The case for problem solving is clearly presented in *Community Policing Defined* (COPS Office 2014).

Community policing emphasizes proactive problem solving in a systematic and routine fashion. Rather than responding to crime only after it occurs, community policing encourages agencies to proactively develop solutions to the immediate underlying conditions contributing to public safety problems. Problem solving must be infused into all police operations and guide decision-making efforts. Agencies are encouraged to think innovatively about their responses and view making arrests as only one of a wide array of potential responses. A major conceptual vehicle for helping officers to think about problem solving in a structured and disciplined way is the SARA (scanning, analysis, response, and assessment) problem-solving model.

Many state police agencies have traditionally employed a problem-solving approach to traffic safety, albeit with different terminology. Sometimes referred to as selective traffic enforcement, this approach parallels the problem-solving model as follows:

- 1. Scanning** – Review data to identify the locations, days, and times when traffic crashes, injuries, and fatalities are most frequent.
- 2. Analysis** – Thoroughly analyze the data to determine the driving behaviors, driver characteristics, and roadway conditions most associated with crashes, especially serious crashes. Also look for patterns and trends, and review the success of any past efforts to reduce the problem. Attempt to answer the questions, “Why are crashes most common at these locations and not others?” and “Why do crashes occur more often during these days and times but not others?”
- 3. Response** – Identify a range of potential responses to the specific traffic safety problems and locations that have been identified, based on the foregoing analysis. Consider enforcement, engineering, and education responses, at a minimum. Select and implement those responses that seem most likely to be successful in reducing crashes based on the analysis and on existing

scientific evidence of the effectiveness of the responses under consideration. As a general rule, expect to implement more than one response and monitor actual performance in order to avoid implementation failure.

- 4. Assessment** – Continue to examine traffic crash data to determine whether the implemented responses are succeeding in reducing the problem. Adjust responses as needed to seek maximum sustainable effects. Recognize that effects are sometimes delayed and that initial responses are not always successful. More analysis and ongoing trial and error are sometimes necessary.

In addition to this close correspondence between the traffic-safety paradigm and the SARA model, state police agencies have a second built-in problem-solving advantage over most local police departments—because state police agencies are much larger, on average, they have more data and are more likely to have qualified analysts on staff. Consequently, they have the opportunity to rely on data when scanning for problems, and they have greater capacity to analyze problems once they are identified. These are distinct advantages, because careful problem analysis should precede searching for and selecting responses, and because studies of police problem solving in the field have found that the analysis stage is often given rather superficial attention (Clarke and Eck 2005; Cordner and Biebel 2005).

The best illustrations of police problem solving are descriptions of actual projects undertaken in the field. Several state police problem-solving efforts are summarized next.

- **Corridor Safety (California Highway Patrol 2001)** – CHP initiated a formal scanning process of reviewing multi-year statewide data on collisions, injuries, fatalities, and traffic volume, combined with qualitative information on public concerns, in order to select roadway segments termed “corridors” for special attention. State Routes 41 and 46 in California’s Central Valley comprised one selected corridor. Analysis of collision data and observations by CHP staff and numerous stakeholders led to the identification of several causal and contributing factors in this corridor, including aggressive driving, unsafe passing, failure to use safety equipment, and barriers to safe and quick arrival by emergency services. A wide array of responses was then implemented in four categories: enforcement, emergency response, engineering, and education, with the assistance of various public and private partners. Assessment revealed a 35 percent reduction in fatalities and

Rather than responding to crime only after it occurs, community policing encourages agencies to proactively develop solutions to the immediate underlying conditions contributing to public safety problems.



a 26 percent reduction in severe injuries over the four-year period following the initiative compared to the four years prior to it.

- **Farm Vehicle Safety (California Highway Patrol 2002)** – CHP scanning indicated 50+ farm labor vehicle collisions per year during the 1990s with many injuries and fatalities. Analysis revealed that these vehicles, which are used to transport migrant workers, were exempt from seat belt requirements, frequently had other safety equipment violations,

and were often operated by inexperienced and unskilled drivers. Responses included new safety equipment legislation, non-punitive vehicle inspection and certification, and a massive public education effort in the farm worker and agricultural employer communities. Assessment indicated an immediate 73 percent reduction in farm vehicle collisions, no fatalities for several years, inspection of over 3,000 farm labor vehicles, and widespread public recognition for effective life-saving efforts.

- **Vehicle Theft (California Highway Patrol 2003)** – CHP recognized a decade-long rise in vehicle theft between 1983 and 1992. Thefts rose 94 percent, and even accounting for increased vehicles in the state, the rate of theft was up 59 percent. Analysis revealed no single cause of the increase, but rather multiple causes including disjointed enforcement and investigation methods, weak legislation pertinent to vehicle titling and salvaging, and a lack of focus on stolen vehicle exporting via seaports and land borders. Multiple responses were implemented to combat different categories of vehicle theft, including transportation theft (“joyriding”), commercial/cargo theft, professional theft/exportation, salvage schemes, and insurance fraud. Partnerships were established with law enforcement in Mexico, port authorities and shipping companies, the insurance industry, and many others. Assessment indicated a 49 percent reduction in auto theft rates over the ensuing five years.

- **Motorcycle Safety (Washington State Patrol 2008)** – WSP noticed a steady increase in motorcycle fatalities in the state, doubling between 2000 and 2005 (from 37 to 74 per year). Further scanning indicated a similar though not quite so dramatic national trend as well as a significant increase in motorcycles registered in the state. As attention focused on the problem, a statewide task force was formed by the governor that included highway safety agencies, several associations of motorcycle riders, and others. These interest groups became partners in analysis of the problem, which

was later significant when responses were being identified, because motorcycle riders often resist safety initiatives. Analysis of crash data determined that the primary causal factors were motorcycle rider behavior and skill, not unsafe actions by automobile drivers as some would expect. Also, it was learned that 39 percent of motorcycle fatalities involved riders lacking a proper license or endorsement. The task force recommended measures emphasizing motorcycle rider education and public awareness. Subsequent responses also included targeted enforcement, police officer training, and legislation giving police the power to impound motorcycles operated by riders lacking the proper license or endorsement. Assessment indicated an initial 18 percent reduction in motorcycle fatalities and a stronger sense of partnership and collaboration between enforcement agencies and the motorcycle rider community.

- **Highway Cost Recovery (Washington State Patrol 2013b)** – WSP scanning suggested that damages to state property caused by traffic crashes were often not recovered, or recovery was significantly delayed. Analysis indicated that the state lost over a million dollars annually due to this problem and that a main cause was that crash reports failed to systematically document damages in a manner that the Washington State



Logan Buel, Shutterstock.com

Department of Transportation could use to gain prompt compensation from insurance companies. The response was to tighten up the crash reporting system, including the use of bar codes to identify damaged state property along with streamlined reporting. Assessment indicated minimal impact on WSP, as all the cost recovery activity was the responsibility of WSDOT. Initial results included a 292 percent increase in recovered damages and a 45 percent reduction in claim recovery time.

As these examples clearly demonstrate, problem solving can be effectively utilized by state police agencies to address crime, traffic safety, and other public safety issues. Several of the examples also highlight the value of partnerships for state police throughout the problem-solving process, including problem identification (scanning), analysis, and the development and implementation of responses.

Organizational Transformation

The third main pillar of community policing is organizational transformation. The basic rationale is that the manner in which police organizations have traditionally been structured and managed was principally designed to support reactive and enforcement-driven policing. In order to put significantly more emphasis on partnerships and problem solving, then, it is necessary to make organizational changes that support and facilitate new and different police strategies and tactics (Cordner 2010). The COPS Office publication *Community Policing Defined* (2014) describes it this way: “the alignment of organizational management, structure, personnel, and information systems to support community partnerships and proactive problem solving.”

As organizations, state police agencies face some of the same transformational challenges that confront any police department attempting to adopt full-scale community policing as well as some relatively unique challenges. One distinctive characteristic is that every state police agency is a large

Every state police agency is a large organization, compared to the typical U.S. police department, a fact that complicates day-to-day administration as well as change management.

organization compared to the typical U.S. police department, a fact that complicates day-to-day administration as well as change management.

Another is that state police agencies are responsible for extensive geographic areas compared to municipal and county law enforcement agencies, which also complicates leadership and coordination. A third organizational factor is that, compared to local police departments, state police agencies are required to provide a variety of operational and support services to other law enforcement and criminal justice agencies. Their line of business is, in some respects, broader than that of a local police department, with a diverse array of customers and clients.

Several examples of organizational change in state police agencies are described below to illustrate the applicability of the organizational transformation component of community policing.

- **Strategic Planning** – The Washington State Patrol (WSP) has established “effective partnerships” and “earning the trust and confidence of the public” as two of their agency’s six core values.²⁷ In addition, the agency formally adopted the Problem-Oriented Public Safety (POPS) philosophy in the 1990s with the following mission: “The Washington State Patrol, in partnership with our communities, uses problem solving, education, enforcement, and assistance activities to improve public safety.”²⁸ Initially, an organizational champion was appointed to ensure systematic POPS implementation throughout the agency. Later, the agency established a command-level POPS

coordinator position and began holding an annual problem-solving competition within the organization. Each year, the WSP winning effort is then nominated for the international Herman Goldstein Award sponsored by the Center for Problem-Oriented Policing.²⁹

- **Leadership Development** – The Delaware State Police (DSP) recognized the need for a more systematic approach to leadership development throughout the ranks and adopted the “Leadership in Police Organizations” program in 2007 (Moriarty 2009). This program emphasizes dispersed leadership throughout the organization rather than relying solely on traditional top-down approaches. It also emphasizes human factors, diversity, ethics, group dynamics, and transformational leadership. DSP collaborated with several other state and local law enforcement agencies in order to make the training more cost-effective and to take advantage of outside perspectives and multi-agency learning opportunities.
- **Organizational Development** – The California Highway Patrol (CHP) has an Organizational Development Section with the mission to provide dynamic training programs that promote experiential learning, critical thinking, and communication.³⁰ Training is offered to prepare employees for current and future positions. The section 1) acts as an internal consultant to top management in assessing leadership and management needs of departmental commands; 2) administers and coordinates leadership conferences and forums; 3) administers and coordinates specialized, supervisory, and management training; and 4) provides program oversight and control of the department’s statewide Mentoring and Coaching Program.
- **Geographic Responsibility** – State police agencies naturally adopt a strong geographic focus in assignment and deployment of front-line and command personnel, out of necessity. The Michigan State Police have augmented this standard practice with the assignment of 23 Community Service Troopers (CST) to various regions of the state.³¹ These troopers are responsible for “community outreach to strengthen communities,” including “mentoring youth, working with seniors, educating citizens on emerging crime trends, and focusing on community service and training. CSTs also work with other police agencies to help strengthen law enforcement.”
- **Transparency** – The Connecticut State Police (CSP) publish annual reports by their Internal Affairs Unit.³² Many state police agencies, such as the Arizona Department of Public Safety, publish agency-wide annual reports.³³ The Oregon State Police publish their annual performance measures as well as their agency budget requests.³⁴ The Florida Highway Patrol has a citizen advisory council to give the public more insight and input about its operations.³⁵

- **Personnel Diversity** – State police agencies have made progress in regard to gender diversity. From 1990 to 2010, 45 of 50 states increased the percentage of sworn female officers in their primary state police agencies, with the Nevada Highway Patrol and Minnesota State Patrol registering the greatest proportional increases.³⁶ During that period, the 50 agencies' average proportion of

sworn women increased from 3.9 percent to 6.0 percent.³⁷ As of 2010, four state police agencies met or exceeded the 11–12 percent national average of sworn women officers—the Michigan State Police, Nevada Highway Patrol, Florida Highway Patrol, and Delaware State Police (FBI 2011).

- **Accreditation** – Currently, 19 of the 50 primary state police agencies are accredited or in the self-assessment phase with the Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies (CALEA).³⁸ This represents 38 percent of state police agencies compared to only about 4 percent of all U.S. law enforcement agencies that are engaged with CALEA.³⁹ While the accreditation standards and processes primarily reflect principles of systematic administration and risk management, they also emphasize

community outreach, personnel diversity, and other considerations that correspond closely with community policing.

It is apparent from these examples that the various facets of organizational transformation associated with community policing not only can be applied to state police, but also have been adopted by many state agencies. The degree to which all state police agencies have adopted most of these enhancements is hard to measure, but the evidence shows what state police can do when they recognize the value and importance of community policing.



Bruce C. Murray, Shutterstock.com

Conclusion

Based on common stereotypes, community policing seems like an awkward fit for state police. However, as described previously, 1) many state police agencies have developed productive partnerships of various kinds, 2) the problem-solving method closely resembles already-existing approaches to traffic safety, and 3) state police agencies have embraced numerous aspects of organizational transformation associated with community policing. The evidence indicates that the state police model of community policing may not be identical to the local police model, but it is viable and is currently in use in many agencies around the country.

It is recommended that state police agencies adopt the community policing philosophy, if they have not already done so. As the examples in this report illustrate, an agency can tailor community policing to its particular mission and needs. Scientific studies have firmly established that community policing helps agencies be more effective in reducing fear of crime and improving public trust in the police. Moreover, with the inclusion of a solid problem-solving component, community policing is more effective than other policing strategies in reducing crime and increasing safety and order in public places. With these demonstrated effects, and given its flexible nature, community policing deserves careful consideration by every type of law enforcement agency, including state police and highway patrol agencies.

Notes

1. The Officer Friendly program goes back several decades and typically involves police officers visiting elementary schools to promote child safety and encourage children to view police as their friends and protectors (see Sweeney and Lourgos 2010).
2. This report focuses on the applicability of community policing for each state's primary state-level police agency. About half the states also have a separate state-level general-purpose investigative agency, often called a Bureau of Investigation. While community policing does have important implications and relevance for police investigative work (see Wycoff and Cosgrove 2001), these stand-alone investigative agencies are not the main focus of this report.
3. The term "state police" is generally used in this report to refer to each state's primary state-level law enforcement agency, regardless of its official name. Distinctions between general-purpose state police agencies and highway patrol agencies, which usually have narrower jurisdictions, are important, of course, and are discussed in the report. Some agencies have other names as well, including state patrol, state troopers, and department of public safety.
4. This refers to the four categories of local police, sheriff, primary state police, and federal law enforcement. A fifth category, mentioned later in the report, is special jurisdiction law enforcement agencies (such as campus police, park police, and transportation police).
5. This accounts for federalism (dividing government power across local, state, and national levels), separation of powers (dividing power among the executive, legislative, and judicial branches), the Bill of Rights, and numerous other fundamental characteristics of U.S. government.
6. Until recently, official reports from the Bureau of Justice Statistics cited 49 states with primary state police agencies, omitting Hawaii. Most recently, the Hawaii Department of Public Safety has been added to the official list (Reaves 2011).
7. The data in this section are drawn from the most recent Bureau of Justice Statistics census reports of law enforcement agencies, which cover the year 2008 (Reaves 2011; 2012). It is likely that the numbers of sworn officers in all categories have decreased during the recent Great Recession, with the possible exception of federal law enforcement officers. The next BJS census reports should cover the year 2012.
8. This is not meant to suggest that state police agencies have ignored these considerations. For example, the Washington State Patrol periodically surveys state residents and follows up with public meetings to discuss the results. See http://www.wsp.wa.gov/publications/reports/2005-2012_WSP_A_Legacy_of_Integrity.pdf.
9. The complete list of 50 tasks was as follows: Officer safety; Use of force; Investigate homicides-violent crimes; Investigate sexual assault; Respond to reports of missing persons-abducted children; Use of firearms; Investigate high-profile crimes; Interrogate suspects; Protect and document crime scenes; Prepare reports; Problem-solving, critical thinking, and decision making; Operate emergency vehicles; Protect and collect digital evidence; Investigate drug and alcohol crimes; Prepare to testify/testify; Investigate technology-related crimes; Interview child victims/witnesses; Investigate domestic violence; Respond to domestic violence; Respond to crimes in progress; Interview adult victims/witnesses; Respond to natural and man-made disasters; Interdict crime vehicles/felony stops; Interpersonal skills/conflict resolution; Investigate property crimes; Knowledge of laws/regulations; Coordinate with prosecutors; Diagnose and solve local crime and disorder

problems; Plan and execute raids/warrants; Law enforcement technology; Interact with special needs population; Recognize and document suspicious activities; Emergency communication; Respond to terrorist threats; Interact with culturally diverse populations; Meet with community residents about local problems; Protect critical infrastructure; Computer use; Investigate traffic accidents; Respond to anti-government/hate groups; Conduct surveillance; Victim services/relations; Enforce evacuation/quarantine orders; Recruit/manage informants; Track/search in wilderness-backcountry; Investigate human trafficking; Protect dignitaries/public officials; Provide court security; Enforce immigration laws; Staff jail/detention facilities (see Rural Policing Institute 2011).

10. These increases were more substantial for full-service state police agencies than for highway patrol agencies. See Schaible and Sheffield 2012.

11. See <http://herocampaign.org/>.

12. See <http://kentuckyheroes.org/agenda/>.

13. See <http://www.risp.ri.gov/importantinformation/victimsassistance.php>.

14. See <http://dsp.delaware.gov/victim%20services.shtml>.

15. See <http://dsp.delaware.gov/CitizenPoliceAcademy.pdf>.

16. See <https://www.facebook.com/DSPexplorers> and <http://dsp.delaware.gov/explorers.shtml>.

17. See <http://dsp.delaware.gov/Annual%20Report%202012.pdf>.

18. See <http://www.chp.ca.gov/community/elprotector.html>.

19. See <http://www.wsp.wa.gov/community/elprotector.htm>.

20. Also see <http://www.chp.ca.gov/community/svp.html>.

21. See <http://www.chp.ca.gov/community/mentoring.html>.

22. See <http://www.wsdot.wa.gov/operations/incidentresponse/>.

23. See <http://www.utc.wa.gov/publicSafety/railSafety/Pages/operationLifesaverAboutUs.aspx>.

24. See <http://www.watimcoalition.org/about.htm>.

25. See <http://statepatrol.ohio.gov/edheads.stm>.

26. See <http://www.chp.ca.gov/community/omrarticle.html>.

27. See <http://www.wsp.wa.gov/about/mission.htm>.

28. See <http://www.wsp.wa.gov/community/pops.htm>.

29. See <http://www.popcenter.org/goldstein/>.

30. See http://www.chp.ca.gov/depts_divs_offs/ood.html.

31. See http://www.michigan.gov/msp/0,4643,7-123-1589_63868---,00.html.

32. See <http://www.ct.gov/despp/cwp/view.asp?a=4201&q=498308>.

33. See <http://www.azdps.gov/About/Reports/Annual/>.

34. See http://www.oregon.gov/osp/Pages/about_us.aspx.

35. See <http://www.fhpadvisorycouncil.org/>.

36. Calculated from data in FBI (1991: 243) and FBI (2011). Nevada increased from 3.2 percent to 12.1 percent and Minnesota increased from 3.6 percent to 10.3 percent. Personnel data for the Massachusetts State Police were missing for 1990, so data from FBI (1992: 296) were used for that agency's baseline.

37. These are averages of agency percentages and thus do not equal the total percentage of sworn state police personnel who are women. That figure is slightly higher, because larger state police agencies tend to have a higher percentage of women officers.

38. Data drawn from the CALEA client database located at <http://www.calea.org/content/calea-client-database>.

39. CALEA's participation rate for medium- and large-size law enforcement agencies is much higher than the 4 percent overall figure. Among the 50 percent of all agencies that have 10 or fewer sworn officers, though, CALEA has very few clients.

References

- California Highway Patrol. 2001. *Corridor Safety Program: A Collaborative Approach to Traffic Safety*. [http://www.popcenter.org/library/awards/goldstein/2001/01-09\(W\).pdf](http://www.popcenter.org/library/awards/goldstein/2001/01-09(W).pdf).
- . 2002. *SAFE: A Safety and Farm Vehicle Education Program Reducing Farm Labor Vehicle Collisions*. [http://www.popcenter.org/library/awards/goldstein/2002/02-07\(W\).pdf](http://www.popcenter.org/library/awards/goldstein/2002/02-07(W).pdf).
- . 2003. *Vehicle Ownership Security: A Proactive Approach to Vehicle Theft Prevention in California*. [http://www.popcenter.org/library/awards/goldstein/2003/03-05\(F\).pdf](http://www.popcenter.org/library/awards/goldstein/2003/03-05(F).pdf).
- Carter, David L. 2009. *Law Enforcement Intelligence: A Guide for State, Local, and Tribal Law Enforcement Agencies*, 2nd ed. Washington, DC: Office of Community Oriented Policing Services. <http://it.ojp.gov/docdownloader.aspx?ddid=1133>.
- Center for Problem-Oriented Policing. 2013a. “Goldstein Award Documents by Department/Agency.” <http://www.popcenter.org/library/awards/goldstein.cfm?browse=department>.
- . 2013b. “The SARA Model.” <http://www.popcenter.org/about/?p=sara>.
- Clarke, Ronald V., and John E. Eck. 2005. *Crime Analysis for Problem Solvers in 60 Small Steps*. Washington, DC: Office of Community Oriented Policing Services. <http://www.popcenter.org/learning/60steps/index.cfm>.
- Coate, Douglas, and Richard W. Schweser. 2009. “Use of State Police Services for Local Policing: The Case of New Jersey.” *Public Budgeting & Finance* 29(3): 97–109.
- COPS Office. 2014. *Community Policing Defined*. Washington, DC: Office of Community Oriented Policing Services. <http://ric-zai-inc.com/Publications/cops-p157-pub.pdf>.
- Cordner, Gary. 2010. “Community Policing: Elements and Effects.” In *Critical Issues in Policing: Contemporary Readings*, edited by Roger G. Dunham and Geoffrey P. Alpert, 432–449, 6th ed. Long Grove, IL: Waveland.
- . 2011. “The Architecture of U.S. Policing: Variations Among the 50 States.” *Police Practice and Research: An International Journal* 12:107–119.
- Cordner, Gary, and Elizabeth P. Biebel. 2005. “Problem-Oriented Policing in Practice.” *Criminology & Public Policy* 4(2): 155–180. doi: 10.1111/j.1745-9133.2005.00013.x.
- Cordner, Gary, and AnnMarie Cordner. 2013. *Human Resource Planning in Police Organizations*. Final report to the National Institute of Justice. Unpublished document.
- Cordner, Gary, and Kathryn S. Scarborough. 2003. “Operationalizing Community Policing in Rural America: Sense and Nonsense.” In *Community Policing in a Rural Setting: Innovations and Organizational Change*, edited by Quint C. Thurman and Edmund F. McGarrell, 11–20, 2nd ed. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson.
- Correia, Mark E., Michael D. Reisig, and Nicholas P. Lovrich. 1996. “Public Perceptions of State Police: An Analysis of Individual-Level and Contextual Variables.” *Journal of Criminal Justice* 24(1): 17–28.
- Falcone, David N. 1998. “The Illinois State Police as an Archetypal Model.” *Police Quarterly* 1(3): 61–83.
- . 2001. “The Missouri State Highway Patrol as a Representative Model.” *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management* 24:585–594.

- FBI. 1991. *Uniform Crime Reports for the United States, 1990*. Washington, DC: Federal Bureau of Investigation.
- . 1992. *Uniform Crime Reports for the United States, 1991*. Washington, DC: Federal Bureau of Investigation.
- . 2011. *Crime in the United States, 2010*. Washington, DC: Federal Bureau of Investigation. <http://www.fbi.gov/about-us/cjis/ucr/crime-in-the-u.s/2010/crime-in-the-u.s.-2010/tables/10tbl76.xls>.
- Foster, Chad, and Gary Cordner. 2005. *The Impact of Terrorism on State Law Enforcement: Adjusting to New Roles and Changing Conditions*. Lexington, KY: Council of State Governments. <http://www.csg.org/pubs/Documents/Misc0506Terrorism.pdf>.
- Fowser, Mark. 2011. Operation Pressure Point adds Delaware State Police Presence to Wilmington. *WDDE 91.1 FM*, March 29. <http://www.wdde.org/9758-operation-pressure-point-adds-state-police-presence-wilmington/>.
- Fox, Tracy Gordon. 2009. "Towns Resist State Bid to Shift Trooper Costs." *New York Times*, March 5. <http://www.nytimes.com/2009/03/08/nyregion/connecticut/08policect.html>.
- Goldstein, Herman. 1987. "Toward Community-Oriented Policing: Potential, Basic Requirements and Threshold Questions." *Crime & Delinquency* 33:6–30.
- . 1990. *Problem-oriented policing*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Gorenstein, Nathan. 2011. "PA State Police Say They're Recruiting More Minorities." *The Inquirer*, July 7. http://articles.philly.com/2011-07-07/news/29747263_1_black-troopers-pennsylvania-state-police-recruiters.
- Hunter, George. 2012. "Amid Cuts, Detroit Gets Police Help." *The Detroit News*, July 5. <http://www.detroitnews.com/article/20120705/METRO01/207050380>.
- Johnson, David R. 1981. *American Law Enforcement: A History*. St. Louis: Forum Press.
- Johnson, Richard R., and Erica L. Olschansky. 2010. "The Ecological Theory of Police Response: A State Police Agency Test." *Criminal Justice Studies* 23(2): 119–131.
- Kelling, George L., and Mark H. Moore. 1988. "The Evolving Strategy of Policing." *Perspectives on Policing*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice.
- Langton, Lynn. 2010. *Women in Law Enforcement, 1987-2008*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/wle8708.pdf>.
- Lentz, Susan A., and Robert H. Chaires. 2007. "The Invention of Peel's Principles: A Study of Policing 'Textbook' History." *Journal of Criminal Justice* 35(1): 69–79.
- Masunaga, Samantha. 2012. "CHP Deployed in Oakland to Assist Local Police." *Oakland North*, November 2. <http://oaklandnorth.net/2012/11/02/chp-deployed-in-oakland-to-assist-local-police/>.

- Moore, Mark H., and Anthony Braga. 2003. *The "Bottom Line" of Policing: What Citizens Should Value (and Measure) in Police Performance*. Washington, DC: Police Executive Research Forum. http://www.policeforum.org/assets/docs/Free_Online_Documents/Police_Evaluation/the%20bottom%20line%20of%20policing%202003.pdf.
- Moriarty, Sean E. 2009. "The Leadership in Police Organizations Program in the Delaware State Police: Recommendations for Law Enforcement Leadership Development." *The Police Chief* 76, May. http://www.policechiefmagazine.org/magazine/index.cfm?fuseaction=display_arch&article_id=1792&issue_id=52009.
- Police Diversity. 2013. *The Record* April 24. http://www.northjersey.com/news/opinions/204429611_The_Record_Police_diversity.html.
- Rao, Angelo. 2003. "Transportation Services." In *Local Government Police Management*, edited by William A. Geller and Darrell W. Stephens, 207–238. 4th ed. Washington, DC: International City/County Management Association.
- Ratcliffe, Jerry H., and Ray Guidetti. 2008. "State Police Investigative Structure and the Adoption of Intelligence-Led Policing." *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management* 31(1): 109–128.
- Reaves, Brian A. 1998. *Federal Law Enforcement Officers, 1996*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/fleo96.pdf>.
- . 2006. *Federal Law Enforcement Officers, 2004*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/fleo04.pdf>.
- . 2010. *Local Police Departments, 2007*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/lpd07.pdf>.
- . 2011. *Census of State and Local Law Enforcement Agencies, 2008*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/cslea08.pdf>.
- . 2012. *Federal Law Enforcement Officers, 2008*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/fleo08.pdf>.
- Reaves, Brian A., and Timothy C. Hart. 2001. *Federal Law Enforcement Officers, 2000*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/fleo00.pdf>.
- Reisig, Michael D., and Mark E. Correia. 1997. "Public Evaluations of Police Performance: An Analysis Across Three Levels of Policing." *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management* 20(2): 311–325.
- Resident Trooper. 2013. *Baltimore Sun* (archive of past articles). <http://articles.baltimoresun.com/keyword/resident-trooper>.
- Rose, Veronica. 2011. *Payment for Resident State Trooper Services*. Hartford, CT: Office of Legislative Research. <http://www.cga.ct.gov/2011/rpt/2011-R-0189.htm>.

- Rural Policing Institute. 2011. *Final Report on the Rural Law Enforcement Training Needs Assessment*. Glynco, GA: Federal Law Enforcement Training Center. Unpublished document.
- Schaible, Lonnie M., and James Sheffield. 2012. "Intelligence-Led Policing and Change in State Law Enforcement Agencies." *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management* 35(4): 761–784.
- Scroggin, Samantha Yale. 2012. "Senior Volunteers Big Benefit to Highway Patrol." *Times Press Recorder*, May 4. <http://www.timespressrecorder.com/articles/2012/05/04/news/news03.txt>.
- Sweeney, Annie, and Angie Leventis Lourgos. 2010. "Officer Friendly Back on City Beat: Englewood Area Reinstating Program for Kids and Cops." *Chicago Tribune*, January 21. http://articles.chicagotribune.com/2010-01-21/news/1001200691_1_officer-friendly-police-officers-stranger-danger.
- Tuffin, Rachel, Julia Morris, and Alexis Poole. 2006. *An Evaluation of the Impact of the National Reassurance Policing Programme*. London: Home Office Research, Development and Statistics Directorate.
- Washington State Patrol. 2008. *Motorcycle Safety Through Licensing, Education, and Enforcement*. [http://www.popcenter.org/library/awards/goldstein/2008/08-52\(F\).pdf](http://www.popcenter.org/library/awards/goldstein/2008/08-52(F).pdf).
- . 2013a. *Community Outreach: Problem Oriented Public Safety*. <http://www.wsp.wa.gov/community/pops.htm>.
- . 2013b. *Exemplary POPS Projects*. http://www.wsp.wa.gov/community/docs/presenations/POPS_projects.pdf.
- Weisburd, David, and John E. Eck. 2004. "What Can Police Do to Reduce Crime, Disorder, and Fear?" *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 593:42–65.
- Weisburd, David, Cody W. Telep, Joshua C. Hinkle, and John E. Eck. 2008. "The Effects of Problem-Oriented Policing on Crime and Disorder." *Campbell Systematic Reviews* 14. Oslo, Norway: The Campbell Collaboration.
- Weisheit, Ralph A., David N. Falcone, and L. Edward Wells. 1999. *Crime and Policing in Rural and Small-Town America*, 2nd ed. Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press.
- Wilson, James Q. 1968. *Varieties of Police Behavior: The Management of Law and Order in Eight Communities*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University.
- Wilson, O.W. 1952. *Police Planning*. Springfield, IL: Charles C Thomas.
- Wycoff, Mary Ann, and Colleen Cosgrove. 2001. *Investigations in the Community Policing Context*. Washington, DC: Police Executive Research Forum. <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/189568.pdf>.
- Zajac, Gary, and Lindsay Kowalski. 2012. *An Examination of Pennsylvania State Police Coverage of Municipalities*. State College, PA: Pennsylvania State University, Justice Center for Research.

About the Author

Gary Cordner is a Professor of Criminal Justice at Kutztown University of Pennsylvania and a Commissioner with the Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies (CALEA). He worked as a police officer and police chief in Maryland and obtained his PhD from Michigan State University. Gary has authored three previous publications for the COPS Office—*People With Mental Illness* (Problem-Oriented Guide No. 40, 2006); *Reducing Fear of Crime: Strategies for Police* (2010); and *E-COP: Using the Web to Enhance Community Oriented Policing* (with Elizabeth Perkins, 2013).

About the Contributors

Mark Seifert is Assistant Director of Campus and Public Safety at the University of Delaware. He worked for the Delaware State Police for 21 years, retiring as deputy superintendent. Mark earned his MPA degree from Wilmington University.

Brian A. Ursino is Director of Law Enforcement for the American Association of Motor Vehicle Administrators (AAMVA). He worked for the Washington State Patrol for 30 years, retiring as assistant chief. Brian earned his MBA degree from the City University of Seattle.

About the COPS Office

The Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS Office) is the component of the U.S. Department of Justice responsible for advancing the practice of community policing by the nation's state, local, territory, and tribal law enforcement agencies through information and grant resources.

Community policing is a philosophy that promotes organizational strategies that support the systematic use of partnerships and problem-solving techniques, to proactively address the immediate conditions that give rise to public safety issues such as crime, social disorder, and fear of crime.

Rather than simply responding to crimes once they have been committed, community policing concentrates on preventing crime and eliminating the atmosphere of fear it creates. Earning the trust of the community and making those individuals stakeholders in their own safety enables law enforcement to better understand and address both the needs of the community and the factors that contribute to crime.

The COPS Office awards grants to state, local, territory, and tribal law enforcement agencies to hire and train community policing professionals, acquire and deploy cutting-edge crime fighting technologies, and develop and test innovative policing strategies. COPS Office funding also provides training and technical assistance to community members and local government leaders and all levels of law enforcement. The COPS Office has produced and compiled a broad range of information resources that can help law enforcement better address specific crime and operational issues, and help community leaders better understand how to work cooperatively with their law enforcement agency to reduce crime.

- Since 1994, the COPS Office has invested more than \$14 billion to add community policing officers to the nation's streets, enhance crime fighting technology, support crime prevention initiatives, and provide training and technical assistance to help advance community policing.
- To date, the COPS Office has funded approximately 125,000 additional officers to more than 13,000 of the nation's 18,000 law enforcement agencies across the country in small and large jurisdictions alike.
- Nearly 700,000 law enforcement personnel, community members, and government leaders have been trained through COPS Office-funded training organizations.
- To date, the COPS Office has distributed more than 8.57 million topic-specific publications, training curricula, white papers, and resource CDs.

COPS Office resources, covering a wide breadth of community policing topics—from school and campus safety to gang violence—are available, at no cost, through its online Resource Center at www.cops.usdoj.gov. This easy-to-navigate website is also the grant application portal, providing access to online application forms.

State Police and Community Policing provides a brief examination of state policing in the United States and the ways in which state police agencies can adopt and implement the core elements of community policing. With practical real-life examples, the report details how state police agencies can organize and incorporate partnership building and problem-solving strategies into their operations. The report also discusses ways in which state police agencies have organized their leadership and management styles to more fully support community policing.



COPS

Community Oriented Policing Services
U.S. Department of Justice

U.S. Department of Justice
Office of Community Oriented Policing Services
145 N Street NE
Washington, DC 20530

To obtain details on COPS Office programs,
call the COPS Office Response Center
at 800-421-6770.

Visit the COPS Office online at www.cops.usdoj.gov.



15200 Kutztown Road
Kutztown, Pennsylvania 19530

ISBN: 978-1-932582-91-8

e02146625

Published 2014