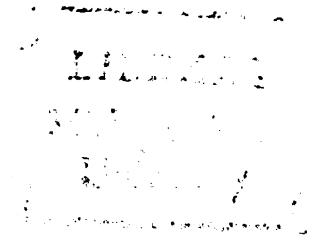

ABSTRACT

A SOCIOLOGICAL, ECONOMIC-SYSTEMS ANALYSIS OF ATTITUDES: TRAINING AND POLICE-COMMUNITY RELATIONS WITHIN THE UNITED STATES AIR FORCE

by

Paul S. Embert, Jr.

A variety of police problems, whose common generic nature is explainable by the social-psychological theories of subcultural association and interactionism, have resulted in the exacerbating phenomenon of the police being apart from, rather than a part of, the communities they serve. The police have responded to this phenomenon by professionalizing, implementing community relations training, and developing community relations programs. Yet, each of these approaches has contributed difficulties to the totality of police problems, which have mitigated against the attainment of the desired objective--a police that are a part of, rather than apart from, the communities they serve. Within this perspective, military sociological and police sociological researchers have generally failed to examine the military police social systems.

This national survey of United States Air Force Security Police training officers and training sergeants attempted to bridge this knowledge gap and to develop hypotheses, conclusions, and implications meaningful to the USAF Security Police social system, the broader police subculture, and the police-community relations spectrum. Based upon the data obtained in response to this mail survey, the research report

presents several findings of interest to the discipline of sociology, the police administration profession, and the USAF Security Police social system.

The report, which presents some of the sociological and nonsociological similarities and differences between the USAF Security Police social system and its municipal counterpart, presents an economic-systems analysis of attitudes relevant to three interrelated factors: technical training, community relations training and programs, and community relationships.

Sociologically and methodologically, the researcher concluded that military policemen possess a characteristic that was labeled as "individuality," which mitigates against the utilization of case studies and similar methodology in military sociological research endeavors.

Theoretically, the investigator deduced that military police attitudes are influenced by subcultural associations and interactions and implied that the most important variables affecting these attitudes are "local politics" and the "style" of the individual police administrator.

Practically, the writer presented four significant findings with implications for the USAF Security Police establishment, as well as for the broader police subculture: (1) the Security Police, as one of the few police establishments experienced in the utilization of programmed texts and correspondence training methodology, appear generally satisfied with both techniques; (2) there is significant dissatisfaction within the Security Police system concerning their over-all training program; (3) the Security Police training officers and NCOs desire training material designed to enhance their police-community relationships added to their program; and (4) the Security Police generally perceive

themselves as enjoying favorable relations with each of the three communities they serve (military, civilian, and local police). This latter conclusion served to validate the findings of earlier research.

These conclusions resulted in the formulation of three hypotheses in need of further exploration and empirical study: (1) the USAF Security Police have been able to achieve a favorable community relationship by means of public relations, which is only one leg of the community relations tripod; (2) the USAF Security Police, in spite of inadequacies in their technical training, community relations training, and community relations programming, enjoy favorable relationships with their communities due to the causal texture of their environment; and (3) the USAF Security Police, in spite of their perceptions, do not, in fact, enjoy a favorable police-community relationship.

As a result of the empirical research and survey of literature underlying this report, the researcher advanced several proposals deemed worthy of further evaluation, modification, and implementation in the pursuit of the police ideal--ordered liberty with justice. Since the study ascertained some of the dissatisfactions among Security Police training officials, the research implied several ways in which the USAF may enhance their Security Police training program. Additionally, since the research was the first attempt to determine the receptivity of police practitioners toward programmed texts and correspondence instructions, the investigator suggested that state, federal, or private agencies, such as the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance or the International Association of Chiefs of Police, might well consider such techniques as a means of aiding municipal police in their attempts to professionalize. More importantly, since the study succinctly implied that some police agencies

may be able to attain a favorable police-community relationship without adaptation of the total police-community relations concept, the researcher advanced the proposal that police administrators adopt the economic-systems analysis of behavior within their organizations. This approach appears to hold more promise for police administrators in their problem solving efforts than is offered by the traditional managerial approaches in vogue in policing today.

A SOCIOLOGICAL, ECONOMIC-SYSTEMS ANALYSIS OF ATTITUDES: TRAINING AND POLICE-COMMUNITY RELATIONS WITHIN THE UNITED STATES AIR FORCE

By

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Irwin A. Radecki
(Member)

DATE: July 23, 1969

TO: ROBIN ANN

This is yours; may you someday understand.

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This thesis reflects the efforts and support of numerous persons. The author's deepest appreciation must be extended to his 200 million fellow-Americans who indirectly supported the writer in the interest of national defense. Equal appreciation must be extended to his employer, the United States Air Force, for making the entire effort a possibility.

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Gratitude must also be expressed to the officers and NCOs of the Security Police who participated in the survey in spite of the rigors of their day-to-day assigned missions. Hopefully, their efforts shall not pass in vain, but rather, will lead to positive action.

Last, but not least, special appreciation must be extended to the writer's wife, Leanora. As severe critic, editor, and typist, as well as motivating force throughout the author's academic pursuits, her contributions were, unquestionably, the greatest of all.

As in all manuscripts, the errors and deficiencies remaining are the sole responsibility of the writer.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND NOMENCLATURE

I. ABBREVIATIONS

CDC--Career Development Course; a correspondence course required of all Security Policemen.

CONUS--Continental United States, exclusive of Alaska.

NCO (in tables = N)--Noncommissioned officer; within the USAF all enlisted personnel in the pay grades of E-4 through E-9. All NCOs are addressed as sergeants; hence NCO, sergeant, and noncommissioned officer are interchangeable terms.

NCOIC--NCO in charge of a given function, section, or unit.

OFF (in tables = O)--Officer (either warrant officer or commissioned officer; pay grades W-1 through W-4 and O-1 through O-10).

U. S.--United States.

USAF--United States Air Force.

II. MAJOR AIR COMMAND ABBREVIATIONS

AAC--Alaskan Air Command

ADC--Aerospace Defense Command

AFLC--Air Force Logistics Command

AFSC--Air Force Systems Command

ATC--Air Training Command

AU--Air University

Hq CMD--Headquarters Command (Headquarters USAF)

MAC--Military Airlift Command

PACAF--Pacific Air Forces

SAC--Strategic Air Command

TAC--Tactical Air Command

USAFE--United States Air Forces in Europe

USAFSS--United States Air Force Security Service

III. NOMENCLATURE

The President's Crime Commission--The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice.

The Kerner Commission (also the Riot Commission)--The National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders.

Junior officers--Warrant officers, lieutenants, and captains (pay grades W-1 through W-4 and O-1 through O-3), as opposed to majors, lieutenant colonels, and colonels, who are referred to as field grade or senior officers.

Police-community relations--abbreviated PCR--a concept embodying public relations, community service, and community participation.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION

Within the past twenty-five or thirty years numerous innovations have occurred in the employee relations, the public relations, and the technology of the police profession.[1] These changes, coupled with the phenomena of a dynamic society, have resulted in a veritable mountain of literature, research, and concepts directed toward criticizing, studying, or improving the police and resolving their problems. The scope of interest has been as vast as the magnitude of the literature. One area of socially significant study has been that of police-community relations (including all of the implications contained within this concept).

As one researcher noted, there have been a proliferation of research projects which have studied police attitudes toward their citizens, police perceptions of citizen attitudes toward their police, and vice versa. These projects have been undertaken on behalf of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (hereafter referred to as the President's Crime Commission), as well as under the sponsorship of numerous public and private agencies.[2] However,

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[1]The International City Managers' Association, Municipal Police Administration (Municipal Management Series. Fifth edition; Chicago: The International City Managers' Association, 1961), p. 176.

[2]Charles H. Bailey, "National Survey of United States Air Force Directors/Chiefs of Security Police Attitudes Pertaining to USAF Security Police-Community Relations" (unpublished Master's thesis, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1968), pp. 13-14.

the only previous research executed pertaining to military police-community relations was restricted to a study of the attitudes of the chiefs and directors of the United States Air Force (hereafter referred to as USAF) Security Police.[3]

A second focal point of interest has been police development, technical training, and training specifically designed to enhance police-community relations. It is significant that the majority of police literature pertaining to police training has been more subjective and opinionated than scientific. Equally significant is the absence of data regarding military police training and development.

The present study embraced both of these concerns, albeit, from a police-community relations perspective. In format the report presents some motivating factors leading to the research effort, a synthesis of sociological and nonsociological literature relevant to police-community relations and police training, a conceptual scheme which appears adoptable by all police agencies, and the specific study of the USAF Security Police.

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the problem. This inquiry consisted of an examination of attitudes within the USAF Security Police social system. The attitudes pertained to USAF Security Police technical training, community relations training and programs, and Security Police-community relationships. These were perceived as interrelated factors, each simultaneously functional and dysfunctional for the other.

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[3]See ibid., pp. 1-160.

As an exploratory-descriptive effort the research had a number of objectives: (1) to provide an analysis of perceptions reflected by Security Police chiefs and directors, Security Police training officers, and Security Police training sergeants (hereafter referred to as NCOs) concerning their Security Police-community relationships; (2) to explore the attitudes of Security Police training officers and training NCOs toward the state of the art of Security Police training in its broadest perspective; (3) to determine the extent of Security Police-community relations training and of community relations programs; (4) to evaluate the data in terms of managerial theory; and (5) to determine the implications of the study, both upon the USAF social system and the broader police-community relations spectrum. In view of the need for developing or employing theory applicable to police activities, this report has described a concept, which has not been incorporated within the parameters of police literature, that is adoptable by the police in decisions involving police training and developmental endeavors.

The purpose of any research is to discover answers to questions through the application of scientific procedures; thus, research always commences with a question or problem.[4] This inquiry began with three interrelated questions: (1) to what extent are police-community relations concepts suitable for adaptation by the USAF Security Police? (2) to what extent have the USAF Security Police implemented police-community relations concepts? and (3) to what extent do USAF Security Policemen perceive a need for training (or the improvement of training) and (or) programs designed to enhance their community relationships?

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[4]Claire Selltiz, et al., Research Methods in Social Relations (revised one-volume edition; New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Incorporated, 1967), p. 2.

Research questions are posed for two reasons--intellectual and practical.[5] This project was undertaken for both reasons. The practical motives did not imply either poor Security Police-community relations or inferior training; rather, they implied that even good community relations and effective training programs can be improved. The general topic was selected out of a scientific curiosity in exploring the general subject matter, an area about which relatively little is known of an empirical nature.[6]

General theoretical orientation of the research. Due to the exploratory nature of the project and due to the inclusion of several problem areas and fields, this study encompassed a range of theoretical interest. In its broadest perspective the basic referent was sociological in that the research employed, as its point of departure, a set of socially significant attitudes and perceptions within a formal social system. The USAF and the USAF Security Police were envisioned as social systems (i.e., groups of people, together with the interrelationships between the people and between their attributes). The term "social system" embraced the sociological concept that a group is a multidimensional system of roles. The term also rendered homage to the regular and ordered interaction and interdependence of the assemblage of personnel within the USAF. Similarly, the social system concept implied a formal lifestyle bound together by many common symbols and activities.[7]

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[5] Ibid., p. 4.

[6] This is but one of several reasons espoused by scholars to "justify" research of a subject. See ibid., p. 27.

[7] This concept was developed from a synthesis of ideas contained in John A. Seiler, Systems Analysis in Organizational Behavior (Homewood,

In a narrower perspective the general frame of reference was police administrative since the study concerned itself with universally encountered police problems (i.e., training and community relations). In its narrowest sense the inquiry determined some attitudes within the USAF Security Police social system which should be of concern to all within that system. The perspective, conceptual framework, and implications of the research appear to be of interest to all police agencies; the detailed data seems limited primarily to the USAF.

Background to the research. The President's Crime Commission has made more than two hundred specific recommendations that the commission believes can lead to a safer and more just society.[8] Although some (if not most) of these recommendations have varying degrees of merit, many involve either: (1) a drastic change in the lifestyle of the community and the police, or (2) a greatly increased expenditure of funds. For these reasons the early initiation of many such proposals is problematic; however, some may be feasible for early implementation. This research entailed a study relevant to those recommendations pertaining to police training and police-community relations.

Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Incorporated, and the Dorsey Press, 1967), pp. 1 ff.; Marshall B. Clinard, Sociology of Deviant Behavior (third edition; New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Incorporated, 1968), pp. 61-69; Arnold W. Green, Sociology: An Analysis of Life in Modern Society (third edition; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Incorporated, 1960), pp. 43 f. and Chap. 13; and Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (Springfield, Massachusetts: G. and C. Merriam Company, Publishers, 1956), pp. 803, 863.

[8]The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1967), p. v.

To avoid confusion with other concepts (e.g., public relations) which are not synonymous, the term "community relations" may be generally defined as:

> . . . the variety of ways in which it may be emphasized that the police are indeed an important part of, not apart from the communities they serve. Properly understood, Police and Community Relations is a concept for total police organization, functionally speaking--a total orientation, not merely the preoccupation of a special unit or bureau within the department. . . . In short, Police and Community Relations, ideally, is an emphasis, an attitude, a way of viewing police responsibilities that ought to permeate the entire organization.[9]

From such a definition, encompassing a total orientation, it is apparent that professional training is an inseparable part of any community relations program. This does not imply that training, in and of itself, is the key to effecting better community relations; rather, it implies that training is but one variable which may be functional for community relations. Without a community relations orientation, training may well be dysfunctional for community relations.

The previous research in the area of military law enforcement and community relations produced data which many experienced Security Police personnel would have anticipated. This is not to imply that the study was unimportant; indeed, it provided an initial empirical exploration into the Security Police social system. However, further research was necessary to determine the validity of these previous findings, to determine existing related attitudes, and to develop better community relations programs.

This study commenced with the previously established concept that the USAF Security Police, in order to effectively perform, are concerned

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[9]A. F. Brandstatter and Louis A. Radelet (eds.), Police and Community Relations: A Sourcebook (Beverly Hills, California: The Glencoe Press, 1968), Introduction, p. v.

with developing and maintaining a good relationship with three different communities: (1) the military community, (2) the nearby civilian community, and (3) the nearby civilian police community.[10] This same concern is probably shared by other military law enforcement agencies, but due to differences in training and operations between the Army, Navy, and Air Force further comparisons or generalizations are, perhaps, unfeasible. The Air Force was selected for study due to the researcher's past experience therein, which contributed more insight and knowledge to the inquiry than if some other branch of the Armed Forces had been explored.

A concern with good Security Police-community relations has been expressed by a substantial majority of the chiefs and directors of Security Police organizations throughout the United States.[11] A significant number of these individuals also perceived a need for guidance in Security Police-community relations from Headquarters USAF. Additionally, the data revealed a greater need in some major air commands than in others.[12] This posited a hypothesis that community relations programs within the USAF have generally originated at air command or base level rather than at Headquarters USAF. To understand the significance of this proposition, it is necessary to have a fundamental concept of the broad Air Force organizational structure.

The basic Air Force structure forms a pyramid. At the top of the pyramid is Headquarters USAF, responsible for directing and guiding all subordinate units. Directly below Headquarters USAF are several major air commands and separate operating locations, each charged with a

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[10] Bailey, op. cit., p. 17.

[11] Ibid., pp. 131-132.

[12] Ibid., p. 123.

different mission in support of the over-all Air Force mission. Each command, in turn, has subordinate units, variously termed air forces, air divisions, or subcommands. Each subcommand (or comparable unit) has subordinate wings, regions, or areas, which are further subdivided into groups (or other terms), which are themselves subdivided (see Figure 1).

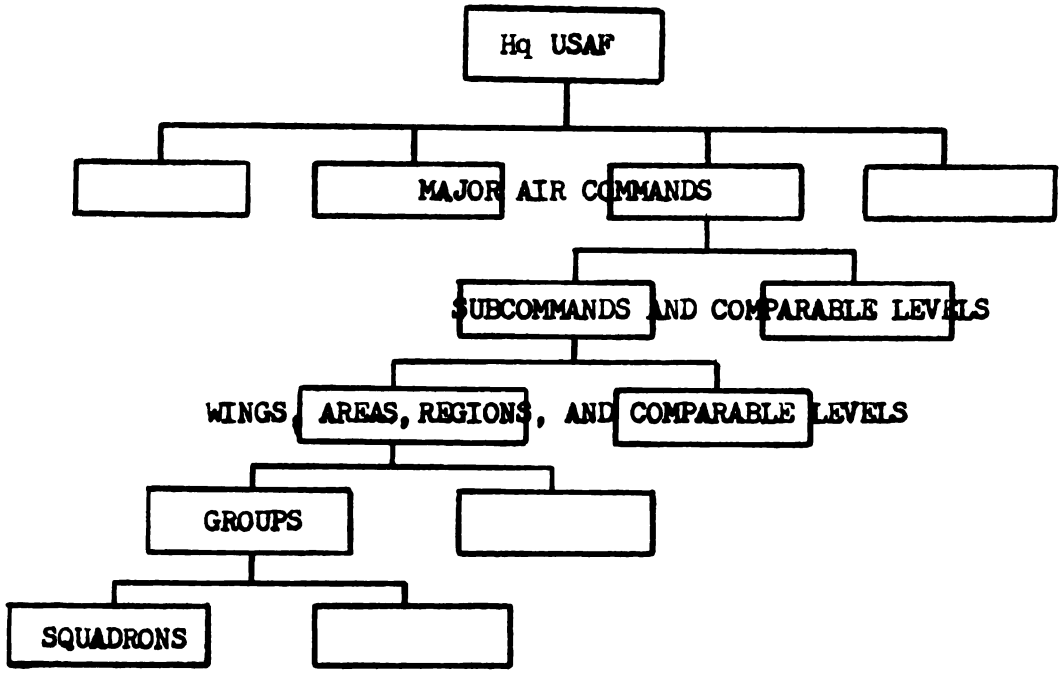

FIGURE 1

BASIC AIR FORCE STRUCTURE

In terms of community relations, the significance of this organization lies in the fact that community relations training and programs can be initiated at any one of several levels of command.

More important than this latter consideration is the fact that the chiefs and directors have expressed a concern with community relations. This concern, rather than decreasing, is likely to increase for several significant reasons: (1) the disorders of recent years could appear on or at any military facility, especially if the military police

do not contribute their share to the reduction of community tensions;[13] (2) the Armed Forces are becoming more concerned with minority group problems due to increased difficulties on the bases and due to military involvement in civil disorders; and (3) the vacillating United States' relationships with foreign countries (in which military personnel are stationed) make good community relations increasingly more important abroad, as well as within the United States.

Although there are numerous elements in a good police-community relations program (including public relations, community service efforts, community participation and dialogue, and mutual trust and confidence), an essential aspect is the training and professionalism of individual policemen. One specific recommendation of the President's Crime Commission was that:

> Formal police training programs for recruits in all departments, large and small, should consist of an absolute minimum of 400 hours of classroom work spread over a 4- to 6- month period so that it can be combined with carefully related and supervised field training.[14]

This suggestion may, or may not, be fully valid, for it was not based on a systematic appraisal of existing programs and (or) requirements. Nonetheless, this recommendation did reflect a valid concern with police training, for no person is prepared to perform police work

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[13]See, for example, The National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, Report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (New York: Bantam Books, Incorporated, 1968), hereafter referred to as the Riot Commission or Kerner Commission, which ably documented the police role, police training, and police-community relations' bearing upon riot prevention, riot causation, and riot control.

[14]The President's Crime Commission, The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society, p. 112.

on native ability alone.[15] Indeed, it was the researcher's firm belief in this latter thought, coupled with acceptance of the statement that "how a policeman handles day-to-day contacts with citizens will, to a large extent, shape the relationships between the police and community,"[16] that led him to concentrate on the training aspect of police-community relations. In essence, the researcher viewed training as one barometer of a concern with police-community relations; how training is conducted will result in a functional or dysfunctional impact upon these relations.

The research design. The research propositions which served as guideposts in formulating the research instrument were developed from the sociological and nonsociological literature of several fields: management, police administration, human relations, education, and training.

The data which was developed was obtained from a mailed, self-administering questionnaire dispatched to the 101 Air Force bases listed in the Air Force Directory of Unclassified Addresses.[17] Bases within the continental United States were chosen since each has a Security Police unit. Air Force Reserve bases, Air National Guard bases, Air Force stations, and auxiliary fields were not surveyed. The Reserve and National Guard units are not regular or active duty contingents; hence, their problems and attitudes would not necessarily be similar to active duty bases. Stations and auxiliary fields, as well as sites,

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[15]The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: The Police (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 137.

[16]The National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, op. cit., p. 312.

[17]Department of the Air Force, Air Force Manual 11-4, Volume I, Air Force Directory of Unclassified Addresses (Washington, D. C.: Department of the Air Force, November 1, 1968).

were not chosen due to their small size, frequent absence of any Security Police unit, and a number of other differentiating features. Overseas bases were not surveyed because this would have: (1) presented security problems (the total list of addresses is classified as are some of the characteristics of the bases, such as population); and (2) presented attitudes influenced by the country of assignment, thereby, introducing a new variable (i.e., the difference in attitudes of Security Policemen in the United States as opposed to those personnel stationed in Germany, Turkey, Japan, etc.).

A mail questionnaire was utilized in preference to personal interviews due to the expense and time involved in visiting 101 bases. It was felt that a near-universal sample of all bases would culminate in more valid data than would personal interviews at three or four of the bases; the results of the questionnaire supported this belief. The wide range of responses reflected a high probability that a limited case study would have been unrepresentative of Air Force attitudes as a whole, thereby, precluding the generalizing of any findings or conclusions.

The questionnaire was constructed following an extensive survey of police literature. The questions developed were designed to accomplish two objectives: (1) to compare this inquiry with a prior research effort in order to correlate the attitudes expressed by chiefs and directors of Security Police with the attitudes of Security Police training officers and training NCOs, and (2) to determine the extent to which Security Police training officials share attitudes toward training and professionalism as expressed in the literature of police administration.

Significance of the research. The significance of this research lies in three perspectives: theoretical, methodological, and applied.

The study is of theoretical importance as it inquired into a largely unexplored area of police-community relations--military police. This is significant because the study adds knowledge to a vital area of police concern which thus far has been primarily limited to what can best be termed "experienced perceptions." Of further theoretical importance, the research provides insight into those attitudes within which the police must operate and brings into police literature some concepts of other fields which appear adoptable to police work. The implications of the study have applicability to all segments of the police-community relations spectrum.

This inquiry is methodologically significant as it serves as a model by which similar data may be obtained by other police agencies; albeit, creative imagination would result in modifications to meet local conditions. Additionally, the study provides guidance for conducting similar research within the USAF.

The research was of practical importance because it provided the researcher with an opportunity to investigate a number of often contradictory notions relative to police training and police-community relations, often verbalized by his peers yet unstudied empirically.

Limitations of the research. The foremost limitation of the research is the material's reliability due to the inherent restrictions of any mail questionnaire (see p. 108). The data is merely opinion data, a second limitation; hence, no consideration can be made of the attempts, conscious or subconscious, to alter these opinions prior to implementing new training methods or subject matter, or new programs.

II. OPERATIONAL DISTINCTIONS AND DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

Police-community relations. Although a definition of this concept has previously been given, there are several other explanations with a degree of validity. Of these definitions the best appears to be "the sum total of the many and varied ways in which it may be emphasized that the police are part of and not apart from the communities which they serve."[18] Many who utilize this concept add to it the conception of a three-legged stool, each leg of equal importance in holding the stool upright. Some perceive one leg as public relations, a second as community service, and the third as community participation.[19] Others have employed this tripod concept in such a manner that one leg is public relations, one is human relations, and one is community service.[20]

Both of these conceptions are proper undertakings which appear to differ primarily in emphasis. The concept utilized in this treatise was that of a tripod whose three legs are public relations (including intergroup and interpersonal relations, imagery, and press); community service; and community participation.

Community. There are several acceptable definitions of what constitutes a community, and one can enter into an interesting but, perhaps,

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[18]Louis A. Radelet, "Police Community Programs: Nature and Purpose," Police and the Changing Community: Selected Readings, ed. Nelson A. Watson (Washington, D. C.: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1965), p. 122.

[19]Brandstatter and Radelet, loc. cit.

[20]Peoria Illinois Police Department, Development of a Police-Community Relations Program, A Report Prepared under United States Department of Justice Office of Law Enforcement Assistance Grant Number 164 (Peoria, Illinois: Police Department, July, 1968), p. ii.

futile exercise as to the elements of a "true community." In this discourse the definition utilized by Coates and Pellegrin appears appropriate, particularly in discussing a "military" versus a "civilian" community. The military community may, in fact, be real or a mere state of mind; hence, the following seems adequate:

> . . . territorial groupings within which most if not all of the goods and services necessary for the maintenance of life are to be found. So defined, a community consists of a relatively large number of people who reside in an area and who carry out their day by day activities within the context of community groups, institutions, and organizations. Their needs for shelter, clothing, food, water, medical care, spiritual guidance, intellectual improvement, justice, and so forth are all normally met without having to leave the confines of the community.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> There is a second way in which the concept of community is frequently employed. A community is not only a collection of individuals, groups, and organizations which perform institutional functions, but in a sense it is also a "state of mind."[21]

In terms of this study, the first definition precluded inclusion of Air Force Reserve and Air National Guard units, since these contingents do not provide most of the goods and services necessary for the maintenance of life within a military community; indeed, they may not even qualify as a military community in terms of the second explanation (i.e., state of mind). Similarly, small fields, air stations, and auxiliary fields may lack either the first or the second definition of a community. Regular Air Force bases meet the requirements of both explanations to a considerable extent; bases tend to provide most goods and services needed to maintain life and tend to create a state of mind that they are a separate community from the adjacent civilian community.

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[21]Charles H. Coates and Roland J. Pellegrin, Military Sociology: A Study of American Military Institutions and Military Life (University Park, Maryland: The Social Science Press, 1965), p. 373.

Training. This can best be defined as "management's intentional act of providing a means for learning to take place, on the job or in the classroom. Its purpose is to help each individual reach his maximum potential."[22] One may contend that training differs from education in that training is designed to limit behavior, whereas, education is designed to broaden behavior. In police work both concepts are of equal importance. Within this report these terms are used interchangeably so as to avoid any need for entering into an academic discussion as to whether some technique is educational or training in nature. Education and training are both encompassed within the broader concept of "developmental process."

Development.[23] For the purposes of this treatise, development is defined as any attempt to improve current or future performance by imparting information, conditioning attitudes, or increasing skills. Thus, the term necessarily includes both training and education and encompasses technical training, human relations training, and executive training.

Police-community relations training. Another effort could be undertaken to differentiate between human relations training, intergroup relations training, interpersonal relations training, and a host of other concepts. Within this report police-community relations training was utilized to serve as an all-inclusive concept denoting any training

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[22]John Proctor and William Thornton, Training: A Handbook for Line Managers (New York: American Management Association, 1961), p. 22.

[23]Basic definition is derived from Robert J. House, Management Development: Design, Evaluation and Implementation (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Bureau of Industrial Relations, Graduate School of Business Administration, University of Michigan, 1967), p. 13.

designed specifically to enhance the police-community relationship. Such an all-encompassing concept necessarily includes human relations training, courtesy, psychology, and a host of other terms all designed primarily to equip the individual officer to better deal with and relate to persons and groups. The prime purpose of the concept is to differentiate this type of training from technical or professional police training, such as how to patrol, how to complete certain forms, how to fire a weapon, etc.

Management/administration/executive. One writer has defined an executive as "a person who is responsible for the efforts of others, makes decisions on questions both as to policy and practice, and exercises authority in seeing that decisions are carried out."[24] This appears to be an apt description of a police chief, thereby, providing some validity to the concept that a chief is, at one and the same time, a manager, a commander, an executive, and an administrator. Within the context of this paper these terms are used interchangeably. Additionally, these terms are not necessarily restricted to the chief per se. They also extend to those individuals within a police hierarchy in management, administrative, or executive positions, who are responsible for planning, implementing, directing, or controlling developmental efforts and/or community relations programs.

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[24]Glen U. Cleeton and Charles W. Mason, Executive Ability, Its Discovery and Development (Yellow Springs, Ohio: Antioch Press, 1946), p. 8.

CHAPTER II

THE POLICE AND THEIR PROBLEMS: A SYNTHESIS OF THE LITERATURE

An extensive quantity of literature has been written concerning police problems related to police-community relations. Some of this prose has been the result of sociological research; whereas, some has been promulgated from experience, insight, or other factors. This chapter does not purport to summarize the literature; rather, the chapter projects a concise synthesis of the pansophy delineating those problems inducing the survey.

I. SOME POLICE PROBLEMS

A widely held social-psychological frame of reference for explaining behavior is symbolic interactionism. One aspect thereof may be termed subcultural association. These concepts interpret most human behavior as being learned behavior in which an important part of any given role is the extent to which the role incumbent acquires the techniques, rationalizations, and philosophies of a given cultural subgroup.[1] These

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[1]Subcultural association is similar to the differential association theory employed to explain criminal behavior, but refers instead to any type of behavior learned through subcultural interactionism. The theory of differential association has become the leading sociological framework for explaining the development of criminal behavior. See Edwin H. Sutherland and Donald R. Cressey, Principles of Criminology (seventh edition; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1966), pp. 77-100. The details of the theory have been modified with the passage of time, but the theory has remained essentially a learning theory of criminality as well as a learning theory of normal behavior. See Frank E. Hartung, Crime Law and Society (Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1965).

conceptions of human behavior necessarily focus on self-concepts, socialization, and social roles, which are interrelated with attitudes and motivations.[2] The theories also largely explain many of the police problems existing in America today.

The police role. One of the more vexing problems is that of a lack of consensus concerning the role of the police. The general function of the police may be stated as the maintenance of order under the rule of law--ideally expressed in the phrase, ordered liberty with justice. At present, however, there is little agreement, in or out of police circles, as to what the role of the police should be. This is due, in part, to the numerous sources of police-role definitions (citizens, courts, legislatures, and executive agencies). This is also a result of the interrelationship of the police role with some of the most excruciating issues of our society--civil rights, crime, poverty, urbanization, etc.[3] Hence, acceptance of a generalized police function does

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Hartung discussed differential association and symbolic interactionism as determinants of deviant, as well as nondeviant, behavior. Alfred R. Lindesmith and Anselm L. Strauss, Social Psychology (revised edition; New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Incorporated, 1956) provide an overview of the interactionism, self, and role concepts which are inextricably interwoven within the differential association and subcultural association concepts. The term subcultural association was employed in this paper so as to utilize a term more sociologically acceptable than differential association.

[2]For example, see Lindesmith and Strauss, supra.

[3]Comments derived from a lecture given by Professor Louis A. Radelet, Director of the National Center on Police and Community Relations, to students in a graduate course on Community Relations in the Administration of Justice at Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, Fall term, 1968; and National Center on Police and Community Relations, A National Survey of Police and Community Relations, A Report of a Research Study Submitted to The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Field Survey V (East Lansing, Michigan: School of Police Administration and Public Safety, Michigan State University, 1967), p. 6.

not serve either to alter or to eliminate the confusion and ambivalence which exist on the part of both the police and the body politic concerning the police role.

One aspect of the problem resides in the fact that society is continuously making new demands and requiring new behavior from the police. Consequently, the police often find themselves as transitional figures trying desperately to meet society halfway in order that they and society may agree on what the police are supposed to be and on how the police are supposed to behave.[4] Another facet of the problem lies in the misconceptions possessed by police officers and citizens alike concerning the nature of police work.

As the President's Crime Commission has noted, the phrase, "police work," leads some people to envision a contest between a policeman and a criminal. Yet, the situations that the majority of policemen deal with most frequently are of a substantially different generic nature.[5]

> Basing their opinions, perhaps, on the Western, the detective story, and the "cops and robbers" saga, Americans tend to see police officers as spending most of their time in investigating felons and arresting them, often after a gun battle. In fact, most officers can serve for years without using their guns, except for practice, and their arrests of felons, or even serious misdemeanants, are not very frequent.
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> . . . the situations in which police officers most frequently find themselves do not require the expert aim of a marksman, the cunningness of a private eye, or the toughness of a stereotyped Irish policeman. Instead, they demand knowledge of human beings and the

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[4]Charlotte Epstein, Intergroup Relations for Police Officers (Baltimore: The Williams and Wilkins Company, 1962), p. 186.

[5]The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 91.

personal, as opposed to official, authority to influence people without the use or even threat of force.[6]

Other facets of the role dilemma have led to the theory that the patrolman's problem of today is largely one of morale, in which the individual officer has a need to find some consistent and satisfactory basis for his self-conceptions. This is partially due to the demands placed upon the individual officer to serve incompatible ends; a point discussed by several writers.[7] These incompatible ends manifest numerous problems, not the least of which are conflicting styles and concerns in policing.

The differentiation between "law officers" and "peace officers" has frequently been expressed, often inferring or implying that the problem of order, as opposed to law enforcement, is central to a patrolman's role. The order maintenance function of the peace officer necessarily involves the exercise of substantial discretion over matters of the greatest importance in a situation that is, by definition, one of conflict and in an environment that is often apprehensive and perhaps hostile. The patrolman, according to James Q. Wilson, approaches incidents that threaten order not in terms of enforcing the law but in terms of "handling the situation," which leads an officer to get involved in

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[6]Bruce J. Terris, "The Role of the Police," The Annals of The American Academy of Political and Social Science, CCCLXXIV (November, 1967), 67.

[7]James Q. Wilson, "The Police and Their Problems: A Theory," Public Policy, Yearbook of the Graduate School of Public Administration (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1963), p. 2. (Mimeographed copy in the Brennan Memorial Library, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan.) See also Marvin E. Wolfgang, "The Police and Their Problems," Police, X (March-April, 1966), 50-56, which discusses the problem of conflicting demands placed upon policemen.

the situation--the antithesis of the ideal of being impersonal.[8] Whether, in fact, all police officers approach a given situation in terms of "handling the situation," rather than enforcing the law, is problematic; whether "handling the situation" is, in fact, the antithesis of the ideal is also problematic. It is, however, the antithesis of the role of police that is often perceived by the public as the proper role.

In a study of a small Midwest police department, the policemen and a sample of citizens were requested to evaluate the importance of various local police functions. There was proximate agreement between the officers and the citizenry as to the relative importance of eleven of fourteen functions appraised. However, when the public expressed their views as to the expenditure of police effort, only three duties correlated with their perceptions of the importance of the tasks. For example, both the police department and the public perceived that checking parking meters for violations and appearing at various affairs and events in a "show" capacity were the least important police activities. Yet, when the citizens indicated their views as to the apportionment of police effort, meter-checking ranked number one and "show" functions rated number five.[9]

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[8] James Q. Wilson, Varieties of Police Behavior: The Management of Law and Order in Eight Communities (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1968), pp. 17-21, 30-33. Wilson's distinction between order maintenance and law enforcement is similar to the distinction made by Michael Banton, in The Policeman in the Community (New York: Basic Books, Incorporated, Publishers, 1964), pp. 6-7; and by Bayley and Mendelsohn, infra (footnote 11), pp. 68-78.

[9] Janyce Harpst and Bertha Lopez, "Survey: The Police Department" (unpublished term paper submitted for a class in social psychology, Siena Heights College, Adrian, Michigan, December, 1968). Data from this study is presented in Appendix A.

Such conflicting perceptions regarding the role of the police influence and, in turn, are influenced by an assortment of other attitudes by the police toward the public and by the public toward the police. Much of the friction between the police and the community stems from these sentiments; some of which are based on fact, whereas, many are the result of misconceptions. In either instance, the attitudes tend to be associated with a specific cultural subgroup.

Attitudes conditioning the police-community relationship. Contrary to the belief of many law enforcement officers, the majority of the public has a high esteem of the work of the police. One survey, for example, revealed that 67 per cent of the sample felt that the police do a good or excellent job of enforcing the laws; only 8 per cent indicated that the police do a poor job. However, polls have also shown that nonwhites, particularly Negroes, are significantly more negative, than are whites, in their positions toward police effectiveness, as well as toward police discourtesy and misconduct. Perhaps more importantly (particularly to the Armed Forces), studies have revealed that Negro males below age thirty-five are, as a group, most critical of the police.[10] Additionally, other minority groups hold unfavorable sentiments toward the police; one study indicated that:

> . . . minority people are, compared to Dominants, more critical of the police, much more willing to see racial slights in police activities, more suspicious of police activities, and more subject to

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[10]The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: The Police (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1967), pp. 145-147. The male Negro attitudes toward the police are of importance to the Armed Forces because there are more than 300,000 Negroes in the services, approximately 9 per cent of the total force of 3,487,000 (statistics reported in news items in the Air Force Times [Washington, D. C.], January 29, 1969; May 21, 1969).

> mistreatment, harassment, and brutality. In all these features of relation with the police, ethnicity and not social class are correlative. People within ethnic groups share much more in common with respect to relations with the police than do people of similar class.[11]

All of the critical attitudes directed toward the police are not confined to minority groups. There are a minority of whites who are disenchanted with their police departments and who are at the forefront in the fight against the police. In addition to the disenchanted, other dominants have been captious or censorious of specific police actions or have expressed what can best be termed "constructive criticism." As an illustration of the former type of criticism, an eye witness to the Chicago Democratic National Convention of 1968 reported that:

> What surprised me about the Mayor's police force was that it has no general standard of conduct. A Chicago cop does pretty much what he pleases, being pleasant or nasty according to his nature.[12]

This denouncement of one particular incident somewhat mirrored earlier, less censorious findings by a citizens' study of police-community relations in Chicago, which had noted that:

> While police brutality (in the physical sense) is now at a minimum, much remains to be done to stamp out verbal abuse—all forms of mental cruelty and disrespectful demeanor by the police. Indeed, the police are on occasion guilty of nonfeasance (inaction) which can be as objectionable as overt abuse.[13]

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[11] David H. Bayley and Harold Mendelsohn, Minorities and the Police: Confrontation in America (New York: The Free Press, 1969), p. 137. This study of Denver, Colorado, involved more than one minority group, thereby, allowing the researchers to generalize their findings more so than had the study been restricted to a community with only one sizable minority group.

[12] Murray Kempton, "Illusion to Reality," Law & Disorder: The Chicago Convention and Its Aftermath, ed. Donald Myrus (Chicago: Donald Myrus and Burton Joseph, 1968), p. 59.

[13] Citizens' Committee to Study Police-Community Relations, Police and Public: A Critique and a Program (Chicago: Citizens' Committee to Study Police-Community Relations in the City of Chicago, 1967), p. 24.

There is also a percentage of the dominant white community who are apathetic to police problems, as well as a minority who possess the "backlash" syndrome, wherein white support of the police is limited primarily to the protection which the police provide against riotous or rebellious behavior.[14]

Conversely, the attitudes of the public toward their police are but one aspect of the total problem. Equally important are police attitudes toward the citizens they serve. There exists a lack of understanding by police of the problems and behavior of minority groups (and those individuals who are members thereof), which constitutes a serious deterrent to effective police operation.[15] For a variety of reasons policemen are wary of minority groups and approach minority group members cautiously and alert for danger; whereas, the dominant community is perceived of as cooperative.[16] There is also an increasing body of evidence suggesting an affinity between police work and radical right political beliefs which influence police performance.[17] Other frequent police attitudes that condition the police-community relationship include: (1) a feeling of frustration among some police officers that they have been abandoned in the war against crime by an apathetic society, (2) a feeling of anger regarding the charges directed against them by vocal minorities, (3) a feeling of resentment due to what they

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[14]National Center on Police and Community Relations, op. cit., pp. 20-21.

[15]The President's Crime Commission, The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society, p. 107.

[16]Bayley and Mendelsohn, op. cit., pp. 106-108.

[17]Seymour Martin Lipset, "Why Cops Hate Liberals--and Vice Versa," The Atlantic, CCXXIII (March, 1969), 76-78.

perceive as an overemphasis upon the rights of the individual versus the rights of society, (4) a feeling of uncertainty concerning their role in society, and (5) a concern with the moral decay of our society.[18]

Such police attitudes, coupled with the attitudes of the public, compound the difficulties inherent in the exercise of police discretion, a problem, the nature of which is imperfectly perceived by police and citizenry alike.

Police discretion. A most important, if not the most important, factor in how a patrolman performs his role is that of the exercise of discretion. The police officer in the United States retains considerable individual judgment in the enforcement of the law.[19] Some individuals perceive the police as having almost no discretion, but such undirected choice is inevitable. This is due, in part, because: (1) it is impossible to observe every conceivable legal infraction, (2) laws require interpretation, and (3) the police believe that public opinion would not tolerate a policy of full enforcement of all the laws all the time. In this regard, a police agency differs from many other organizations in that, within it, individual judgment increases as one moves down the hierarchy. The lowest ranking officer, the patrolman, has the greatest discretion; hence, his behavior is of the gravest concern to a police administrator.[20] Indeed, the matter of discretion is of interest

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[18]National Center on Police and Community Relations, op. cit., pp. 21-22.

[19]Michael Banton, "Social Integration and Police," The Police Chief, XXX (April, 1963), 10. Also see Jerome H. Skolnick, Justice Without Trial: Law Enforcement in Democratic Society (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Incorporated, 1966), p. 74.

[20]J. Q. Wilson, Varieties of Police Behavior, pp. 7-8.

to society as a whole. Most police contacts are with the ordinary citizen who reports a crime, who seeks assistance or information, or who commits a minor violation. Proper relationship with these people is essential to a successful police operation.[21] The use of appropriate discretion is a part of this relationship. The exercise of discretion is not confined to particular police-citizen contacts; it is also an important aspect of the formal style of policing adopted by a police agency or by an individual officer.

Police style. Although the legal and organizational constraints under which the police operate are nearly the same from community to community, some police behavior will be affected by the tastes, interests, and style of the police administrator, as well as by local politics.[22] This factor further compounds the patrolman's problems.

Wilson subsequently defined three basic police styles--watchman, legalistic, and service. The police are watchman-like by emphasizing order over law enforcement and in judging the seriousness of infractions less by what the law says about them than by the infractions' immediate and personal consequences upon the patrolmen. In the legalistic style, patrolmen are expected to assume a full law enforcement view of their role (enforcement of all the laws all the time). Somewhere between these two extremes is the service approach, in which the police intervene frequently but not necessarily formally.[23]

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[21]The International City Managers' Association, Municipal Police Administration (Municipal Management Series. Fifth edition; Chicago: The International City Managers' Association, 1961), p. 185.

[22]J. Q. Wilson, Varieties of Police Behavior, p. 83.

[23]Ibid., pp. 141, 172-180, 205.

The impact of these styles is readily apparent. An administrator who adopts the watchman approach is prone to charges of inadequate police protection. Conversely, the chief who adopts the legalistic approach subjects his department to charges of police harassment. The community relations orientation and a stress on the service, rather than on the suppressive, role are inherent to the service style.

Equally as significant as Wilson's findings of formal departmental style is the extent to which individual officers adopt a particular approach, irrespective of administrative policy. Some formal research has dealt with this question (see McNamara, infra, footnote 31), and many experienced police officers have agreed that individual policemen do adopt one of the three styles, often contrary to the officially proclaimed departmental policy.

The sum of these problems--vague roles, conflicting attitudes, the exercise of discretion, and the adaptation of particular police styles--play an interrelated role in the ultimate of police problems: disorders.

Civil disorders. Among the more relevant findings of the Kerner Commission was the fact that although specific complaints varied from city to city, at least twelve deeply held grievances were identified as factors in the 1967 city riots. Police practices ranked among those at the first level of intensity.[24]

The problems inherent in rioting have resulted in considerable concern and literature in an effort to preclude future recurrances of a similar nature. However, the situations leading to disorders are not

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[24]The National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, Report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (New York: Bantam Books, Incorporated, 1968), p. 7.

solely police problems. For example, Newsweek, in discussing the Kerner Report's 1969 supplement, noted that a year later we are a year closer to being two societies, increasingly separate and unequal.[25] The police have expressed some concern with the problem, for they ultimately become deeply involved in such disorders and violence.

The disorder problem is not merely a problem of race, nor is it limited to the citizenry. Opposing trends in law enforcement are developing; these trends clearly revealed themselves during the 1968 Democratic National Convention. According to Arthur F. Brandstatter, Director of the School of Police Administration and Public Safety, Michigan State University, the convention witnessed indiscriminate and excessive use of police force and observed violations of the civil rights of many persons. At the same time, the Chicago Police Department has an outstanding record in the development toward a more professional, responsible police agency, including a concern with the rights of all citizens.[26] The Chicago "incident" was previously reported upon in the Walker Report.[27] Both the incident and the report have been of legitimate concern throughout the land, even if some have concluded that what the report says and whether it has arrived at historical truth "is of less moment than the fact . . . that a given ambiguous and worrisome

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[25]News item in Newsweek, March 10, 1969, p. 39. Similarly, the May 21, 1969, edition of the Air Force Times [Washington, D. C.] reported an increasing number of accounts of growing tensions between whites and blacks within the Armed Forces, as well as the fact that Secretary of Defense Laird expressed concern with the increasing polarization of the races within the Armed Forces.

[26]News item in the State Journal [Lansing, Michigan], March 5, 1969.

[27]Daniel Walker, Rights in Conflict (New York: New American Library, 1968).

event has been looked into."[28] The incident and the report have generated opposing attitudes and perceptions concerning the role of the Chicago police and the demonstrators alike, depending upon which cultural subgroup an individual refers to.

Summarization. From the foregoing it is apparent that the police are confronted with several interrelated problems: (1) a lack of consensus as to the role of the police; (2) hostile and apathetic attitudes on the part of the public toward the police and vice versa; (3) inherent difficulties in the exercise of police discretion in enforcing the law and in dealing with their publics; (4) the impact of the alternative styles of policing; and (5) civil disorders, as well as police disorders, including the underlying tensions and frustrations leading to such events. These problems (and others) have tended to separate the police from the communities they serve, and each subgroup within society has imparted its own techniques, rationalizations, and philosophies upon each of its role players, thereby, giving some credance to the concept that a significant portion of police problems are the result of subcultural association and symbolic interactionism. The police subculture, the dominant community, and various ethnic and other minority groups have developed their own vocabulary of motives, their own attitudes, and their own perceptions, which have resulted in the exacerbating phenomenon of the police being apart from, rather than a part of, the communities they serve. This has been the dysfunctional impact of the police problems. The potentially functional impact has been the police response to their problems.

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[28] Editorial comment in the National Review, XX (December 17, 1968), p. 1252.

II. POLICE RESPONSES TO THEIR PROBLEMS

In response to those conditions creating police problems and, in part, in response to the disorders and tensions of society, many police agencies have attempted to professionalize; others have initiated courses in human relations in an effort to eliminate prejudices and to improve relations between individual police officers and citizens; and other departments have developed police-community relations programs. All of these ventures appear to be proper undertakings; yet none, in and of themselves, appear capable of attaining the desired objective: a police that are a part of, rather than apart from, the communities they serve.

Professionalization: training and its difficulties. Effective law enforcement, although the foundation of all good public relations, is not self-sufficient.[29] Nonetheless, some departments have attempted to professionalize through better recruitment, selection, and training of the individual policeman (and administrator). The recruitment and selection problems are topics beyond the scope of this report; whereas, training is the central concern of the study. Training should have as its objective the changing of performance or behavior. This objective is the goal most difficult of attainment and is the concern of Chapter IV. In the main, it can be stated that the literature relevant to police training is primarily critical in its nature.

One study of police executive developmental programs revealed that only a limited amount of executive training was conducted in the

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[29]Raymond M. Momboisse, Community Relations and Riot Prevention (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, Publisher, 1967), p. 172.

large departments surveyed. The researcher also found an absence of theory and of planning in police developmental programs, such as were then utilized in other professions.[30] The weakness of administrative developmental programs is but one aspect of the training problem. Of equal, or greater, concern are the questions of recruit and in-service training designed to equip patrolmen to accomplish their vital role in society. Although most of the criticism has been directed at the brevity of such training, there are other legitimate problems.

A 1964 study of 1,543 New York police academy graduates led John H. McNamara to conclude that four months of formal recruit training is apparently insufficient to develop recruit characteristics to the appropriate degree.[31] This observation apparently shared the view that training is one of the most important means of upgrading the services of a police department.[32]

The President's Crime Commission enumerated some of the basic problems in police training today: (1) the instruction bears little relationship to what is expected of the officer on the job, (2) the length of training is generally inadequate, and (3) the methods of instruction are inadequate, indicating that many police departments are

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[30]Mary Jo Schneider, "Police Executive Development: The Construction and Presentation of a Model Program" (unpublished Master's thesis, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1964), pp. 1-177.

[31]John H. McNamara, "Uncertainties in Police Work: The Relevance of Police Recruits' Backgrounds and Training," The Police: Six Sociological Essays, ed. David J. Bordua (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Incorporated, 1967), p. 191.

[32]The President's Crime Commission, Task Force Report: The Police, p. 137.

either unaware of newer educational techniques or do not recognize the need for them.[33]

With minor variations and exceptions, all of the other literature on police training has been repeated or summarized by Allen Z. Gammage. He noted that most training is perfunctory and elementary, contributes little to the professionalization of the police service, and that those who should agree on training needs, methods, and evaluations are in constant disagreement.[34] Even a cursory review of the literature will substantiate Gammage's views. The topic of curriculum planning and developing is but one area where various writers tend to disagree. Many authors, such as O. W. Wilson, merely list subject areas and class hours which their "experience" has shown valuable.[35] Doctor Gammage, however, selected a more scientific approach to the problem. Basically, he embraced the idea of Thomas M. Frost and envisioned a job analysis to determine training curriculums. In his view, subject matter for police training programs is adopted premised on custom, imagination, tradition, or what other departments are teaching (i.e., conjecture or guess work).[36] Unfortunately, there is little documentation that Gammage's and Frost's concepts have been applied to many law enforcement agencies.

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[33] Ibid., pp. 20, 138-141.

[34] Allen Z. Gammage, Police Training in the United States (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, Publisher, 1963), p. vii.

[35] O. W. Wilson, Police Administration (second edition; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Incorporated, 1963), pp. 165-173. For another list see also John C. Klotter, Techniques for Police Instructors (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, Publisher, 1963), pp. 159-161.

[36] Gammage, op. cit., p. 157. Also see Thomas M. Frost, A Forward Look in Police Education (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, Publisher, 1959), pp. 39-69, which treats the concept of a job analysis for training in some depth.

In addition to the executive development and recruit training problems, there is the obstacle of police education. Raymond P. Witte, of Loyola University, Louisiana, in a recent article concerning police education and training, observed that policemen are the first to admit the need for professional education. As a result of the policemen's desire for a better education, the number of colleges offering degrees in criminology has more than tripled in the past five years (they now number about 200).[37] Doctor Witte noted that nearly half of the 450,000 law enforcement officers in the United States have never completed high school; approximately 12,000 departments do not require a high school diploma; only 20 demand some college. This lack of education, according to Witte, has not been offset by in-depth training. Whereas college students must spend nearly 2,000 hours in a classroom to earn their degrees and beauticians must complete 1,200 hours to become licensed, the city of New Orleans, with one of the longer police training periods in this country, requires only 520 hours of recruit training.[38]

It is apparent from the literature that the attempt to professionalize, in an effort to cope with the police-community dilemma, has not been without its own difficulties. Training, education, and executive development efforts, though an approach to solving police problems, have little likelihood of success if they themselves suffer from the inadequacies noted in the literature. However, professional training has not

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[37] Raymond P. Witte, "The Dumb Cop," The Police Chief, XXXVI (January, 1969), 38.

[38] Ibid., pp. 37-38. Witte did not mention the fact that, within the training programs that do exist, the two factors which work against the training of officers are dry and, even worse, distasteful subject matter--see Otto G. Brexler, "Training Parodies," Law and Order, XVI (November, 1968), 60.

been the sole approach to the resolution of police problems. A second method has been an increase in community relations training (in some cases, the initiation of such training).

Community relations training. A principle basis for relations between the police and the community is created in actual contacts between members of each group. These encounters are neither the sum total of police-community relationships nor the only determinants of predispositions on each side of the spectrum. However, a single encounter may set in motion an expanding circle of effects, conditioning the views of officers and citizens alike, which they then carry into their future contacts with one another.[39] The importance of such contacts is complicated by the intimate, often delicate, and sometimes explosive nature of the encounter. As the President's Crime Commission noted:

> Policemen deal with people when they are both most threatening and most vulnerable, when they are angry, when they are frightened, when they are desperate, when they are drunk, when they are violent, or when they are ashamed.[40]

From such considerations has developed a concern with enhancing the police contacts with their various publics. To paraphrase one scholar, we are beginning to realize that the policeman requires knowledge and skills which have not been included in traditional training. For example, the necessity for law enforcement arises out of the conflicts between people and the rules by which society regulates behavior. The police officer is often called upon to deal intelligently with conflict situations: using his judgment; offering his services as

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[39] Bayley and Mendelsohn, op. cit., p. 57.

[40] The President's Crime Commission, The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society, p. 91.

arbitrator; placating, calming, or comforting disturbed citizens. Although the policeman is neither social worker nor psychologist, he is frequently forced into situations where possession of the concepts and skills developed by these professions would be beneficial.[41]

Since the police publics include, among others, the driving public, store owners, new residents, labor and management, other police officers and departments, political officials, minority groups, and youth, the appropriate subject matter for community relations training is of necessity extremely broad. Thus, the scope and extent of such training has been as great as the number of publics served by the police. For example, the President's Crime Commission listed the range as follows: (1) human relations, 0 - 40 hours; (2) public relations, 0 - 32 hours; (3) sociology, 0 - 22 hours; (4) psychology, 0 - 16 hours; and (5) civil rights, 0 - 10 hours. The commission also noted that the majority of cities conducting community relations training concentrated on public relations. These programs attempt to teach officers how to improve the image of the police and how to conduct themselves in a manner so as not to alienate the public--such as courtesy, the necessity for avoiding physical or verbal abuse and discrimination, etc. A second type of training equips the officer to understand the various kinds of individuals with whom he will come into contact--psychology and sociology. A third type is interrelated to change attitudes and prejudices of recruits and officers. The commission concluded that each of these three purposes of training is important, and each reinforces the others.[42]

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[41] Epstein, op. cit., p. 2.

[42] The President's Crime Commission, Task Force Report: The Police, pp. 175-176.

Conversely, one survey indicated that approximately 40 per cent of the police departments examined did not offer any training in human relations material.[43] As one author noted, some police agencies perceive little value in the training of policemen in sociological and/or psychological aspects of human behavior and intergroup relations. Yet, police officers, whose obligation it is to deal impartially and fairly with people of different groups, must comprehend how their own group membership can affect their behavior. A man who is born into a certain family with a certain income, into a certain racial, religious, or national group, rather than another, was born also into a way of life he has taken for granted. He rarely questions the attitudes and beliefs he learned at home and from his first friends. These attitudes and beliefs cause him to act one way rather than another and cause him to accept some people and to reject others. We need to know about such influences and to evaluate them in the light of our maturity, scientific advances, and changing world conditions. In other words, we need to know ourselves before we can better understand the people with whom we come into contact.[44]

The programs offered in the police and community relations field also reflect the current dilemma revolving around the question: is behavior really changed unless attitudes are modified? This dilemma has resulted in the emergence of three forms of community relations training

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[43] National Center on Police and Community Relations, op. cit., p. 5.

[44] Epstein, op. cit., pp. 3-4. Also see Bayley and Mendelsohn, op. cit., p. 87, who noted that being a member of any occupation entails viewing the world from a particular perspective; people become sensitized to a particular gamut of problems and become aware of certain aspects of their environment and overlook others.

programs: institutes, recruit and in-service, and supervisory and command. The command and supervisory level training is almost nonexistent, and little attention is allocated to community relations training as a part of in-service training. The institutes appear to have been somewhat successful in attaining their educational objective (which is only one of several objectives of such institutes).[45]

Within recruit training curricula there is little agreement regarding what should be properly included in such training. One study observed that the Denver police were not equipped, either by formal education on by training, to understand the problems of minority groups; nor is the Denver situation unique, for very few departments make more than a token attempt to provide substantive knowledge of minority group problems.[46] Simple improvement in the level of courtesy would also return large dividends; "included in this courteous discourse would be much more explanation of the rationale behind specific police actions, e.g., field interrogations, etc."[47] These and other concepts are reflected in police-community relations training. For example, St. Louis includes the following in their recruit program:[48]

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[45] National Center on Police and Community Relations, op. cit., pp. 290-325.

[46] Bayley and Mendelsohn, op. cit., pp. 155-159.

[47] David J. Bordua, "Comments on Police-Community Relations" (unpublished manuscript in the Brennan Memorial Library, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, n.d.), p. 22. (Mimeographed.)

[48] The President's Crime Commission, Task Force Report: The Police, p. 176.

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Psychiatric Growth and Development	5
The American Culture	3
Human Behavior	2
Social Disorganization	12
The St. Louis Community	5
Mechanics of the PCR Program	1
Psychology of Prejudice	5
Mass Media Relations	1

Another department (Chicago) provides recruits with forty hours of what they term as human relations training:[49]

COURSE	HOURS
City Orientation	2
State and Local Government	3
Social Problems	5
Semantics	5
Basic Psychology	5
Abnormal Psychology	5
Causative Factors of Delinquency	5
Police Minority Groups	4
Juvenile Procedures	4
Subversive Activities	2

In a Peoria study the following topics were recommended for inclusion in their training program:[50]

1. How to communicate with minority groups.
2. The nature of prejudice and discrimination.
3. The nature and purpose of various civil rights groups.
4. The policeman's role in police-community relations.
5. The language of discrimination.
6. The meaning of black power.

Thus, there is a lack of consensus as to what constitutes adequate and proper training and subject matter relating to community relations. Similarly, there is a lack of consensus concerning methodology. Most

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[49]Citizens' Committee to Study Police-Community Relations, op. cit., p. 77.

[50]Peoria Illinois Police Department, Development of a Police-Community Relations Program, A Report Prepared under United States Department of Justice Office of Law Enforcement Assistance Grant Number 164 (Peoria, Illinois: Police Department, July, 1968), p. ii.

departments utilize the lecture method, but Philadelphia developed a human relations training program that consists of both lecture materials and role-playing situations. Recently there has been some utilization of the sensitivity or T-group method of training. However, it can be concluded that police and community relations training suffers from the same faults found in all police training: (1) a lack of quality, and (2) a lack of scientific evaluation to determine the effectiveness of various programs.[51]

The evaluation of training methodology: sensitivity training. Perhaps as important as the poor quality of training and the failure of police administrators to evaluate the effectiveness of training is the nonutilization of empirically developed data concerning training methodology. Such data allows the administrator to determine the probable success of any training method in attaining a particular training objective. To illustrate the type of empirical data that is available to aid police administrators in evaluating the probable effectiveness of a variety of training methods, the researcher will digress, somewhat, into a discussion of sensitivity training.

Recently, many police agencies have been "sold" on the benefits of sensitivity training as a panacea for their human relations problems. On the other hand, some departments have rejected sensitivity training as a "conspiracy to brainwash our police."[52] Yet, empirical studies are

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[51] National Center on Police and Community Relations, op. cit., pp. 324-325.

[52] Some individuals have rejected any form of community relations training. For example, see Richard Cotton, Conservative Viewpoint, V (May 27, 1967), Sec. 2, which censured the Law Enforcement Assistance Act, The Anti-Defamation League of B'Nai B'rith, the Supreme Court

available from which a police administrator can formulate more scientific judgments concerning the probable success of T-group training.

From approximately twenty empirical studies, this investigator determined that T-groups can be effective in developing self-awareness, reducing prejudice, and enhancing communicative abilities; however, the effectiveness of such training is influenced by the individual characteristics and motivations of the trainee group as well as by the behavior of the trainer. Perhaps the most significant conclusion is that sensitivity training, as is the case of other developmental efforts, is limited in its effectiveness by numerous variables which must be considered prior to committing managerial efforts and funds on such ventures. For example, some of the studies were limited to groups of college educated participants, other studies to persons "properly motivated." Such variables must be considered in evaluating the data.

Nonetheless, there are numerous reports indicating that T-group training is effective in bringing about changes that directly or indirectly reduce prejudice, enhance communication, and other factors benefiting interpersonal relations. Other studies have determined that, to an extent, learning is carried from the laboratory to the job site (i.e., produces behavior change). In evaluating these reports the police administrator must consider the objectives of the training, the conditions under which the training will be conducted (voluntary or forced), and the organizational climate within which the trainees must work following completion of their training. Unless this climate is conducive to

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of the United States, and their collective roles in "brainwashing" the police through community relations training.

reinforcing what is learned in the therapy sessions, the effect of training will be rapidly extinguished.[53]

The foregoing discussion has illustrated the type of decisions which police administrators may form and utilize to reform existing training methods and (or) to implement new training or programs. Through a use of the empirical knowledge which is available in the literature, albeit not in police literature, a police administrator can largely overcome the major defects found in police training today--poor methods and a lack of knowledge of the training's effectiveness. This, in turn, will allow the administrator to devote more effort to the third approach to resolving the police-community dilemma.

Community relations programs. Some police departments have responded to the police (and community) problems existing in our society in a third manner--by initiating community relations programs. As the Kerner Commission observed, community relations programs can be important tools in decreasing hostility and in increasing communication between the police and the community. Such programs can also be utilized to explain patrol practices, law enforcement programs, and other police efforts to reduce crime.[54]

Conversely, the Kerner Commission also noted that although of great potential benefit, such programs have frequently had disappointing results. The reasons for the failure of community relations programs include: infrequent meetings; lack of patrolman involvement; lack of

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[53]See Appendix B for a concise summary of the studies from which this discussion was developed.

[54]The National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, op. cit., p. 320.

coordination; and, more significantly, the fact that "too often these are not community relations programs, but public relations programs, designed to improve the department's image."[55] This latter criticism is directed at programs whose sole purpose is to identify "the mission of a military organization with the public interest, and execute a program of action to earn public understanding and acceptance."[56] While such an approach is a part of community relations, community service and community participation are also essential.

Among the various programs in operation throughout the nation, probably no two are alike. The National Center on Police and Community Relations observed that no two programs can be identical due to the diversity of community cultures and structures.[57] However, following a review of current programs, the National Center developed a working model involving seven elements from which specific departmental programs can be evolved:[58]

1. An advisory council, similar to that in operation in St. Louis.
2. A police and community relations unit directly responsible to the chief, as is found in San Francisco.
3. The incorporation of a public information unit (of the type existing in Chicago) into the police and community relations unit.
4. A program and apparatus capable of identifying tension and conflict.

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[55] Ibid., p. 319.

[56] Department of the Army, Army Regulation 320-5, Dictionary of United States Army Terms (Washington, D. C.: Department of the Army, April, 1965).

[57] National Center on Police and Community Relations, op. cit., p. 32.

[58] Ibid., pp. 102-103. A full discussion of the model is contained in pp. 103-127.

5. The design of programs to reduce tension and conflict.

6. District committee organizations.

7. The assignment of a district community relations coordinator (of command rank) to each district, as in New York.

This discussion of community relations programs could be greatly expanded; however, any such elaboration would be irrelevant to the concern of this thesis. The foregoing served chiefly as a means of completing the tripodal response of the police to their problems. In addition, the brief passage fulfilled the purposes of: (1) noting some reasons for the failure of community relations programs; (2) imparting some insight into the generic difference between public relations and community relations programs; and (3) presenting the elements of a recommended total program, which can be adopted in whole, or in part, to fit the needs of a given police department and a given community.

Summarization. From this over-all section it can be observed that the police have responded to their problems in essentially three ways: (1) professionalising, through improved recruitment, selection, and technical training; (2) initiating (or expanding upon) some variety of community relations training; and (3) initiating community relations programs. All three approaches have merit, but no one approach, in and of itself, is sufficient to eliminate or to reduce the variety of problems whose generic nature stems from factors inherent in the subcultural association concept of learned behavior. It is apparent that behavior learned in various subcultures dictates re-educational efforts directed at all subcultures involved—police, minority group, and dominant group.

Additionally, all three approaches have been weakened through the failure of the police to adequately cope with the problems peculiar to the specific technique. In the area of training, the nonutilization of

empirical knowledge, such as was illustrated concerning sensitivity training, has been a serious shortcoming. Similarly, failure to adopt improved instructional methodology and curriculum development has also posed problems.

III. PROPOSED METHODS OF IMPROVING POLICE TRAINING

There are two relatively recent educational techniques that possess sufficient merit to warrant their study for adaptation to police training: the systemic approach to curriculum development and the correspondence method of instruction, carried to its next logical development—the adaptation of programmed instruction.

Over and above any discussion of the need for new training methodology within police work, it is necessary to refer to the apparent lack of knowledge in police agencies of the psychology of learning, particularly the requirement for stimulus, reward, reinforcement of learning, and conditions suitable to alter knowledge, skill, attitudes, or performance. This knowledge gap will be a topic of consideration in a subsequent chapter; hence, the immediate discourse will be limited to methodology.

The systemic approach. The systemic approach to training differs from the traditional subject-oriented approach, primarily with respect to the basis upon which decisions are formulated regarding course content, teaching methods, and the sequencing of instructions. Curriculum development, rather than focusing on the instructor and on the development of a description of what is to be taught, focuses on the student and on what is to be learned. This approach begins with a systematic examination of the duties performed on the job (a concept earlier espoused by Gammage and Frost). Each task is described with a statement

of the conditions under which they are to be performed; the frequency of performance, both in terms of the job of one individual and in terms of the department as a whole; and the criticality of proficiency. Task descriptions are then analyzed, and a determination is made as to what should be learned in a formal training course, on-the-job training, experience, or assigned reading. Tasks to be learned in a formal training course are then further analyzed, and a "terminal performance objective" is formulated for each task. The terminal performance objective sets forth a description of the behavior the student must be able to demonstrate upon completion of the training to assure that he can perform the task on the job, the conditions under which he must perform, and the criterion by which satisfactory performance will be measured.[59]

While the systemic approach to training involves more than that indicated above, its application to law enforcement is apparent. A systemic approach to law enforcement training has implications in terms of formal training programs, methods of instruction, and continuing programs. In addition, a systemic study of police training is a logical first step in the development of, and inclusion in, training programs of either programmed instruction or correspondence courses. Further, a fully applied systems approach will permit prediction of success in a training venture, as well as an economic approach to decision making in relation to police training.

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[59]Sydney Freeman, "A Systems Approach to Law Enforcement Training," The Police Chief, XXXV (August, 1968), 62-63. Mr. Freeman also noted that the systems approach is the most appropriate means of developing a recruit training curriculum, since it offers the most rational means of providing a sound basis for the identification of training needs.

Correspondence study. Correspondence study has greatly expanded recently as a part of the educational process. The National Home Study Council currently recognizes hundreds of courses and schools as approved for this method of learning. Some courses involve purely academic studies, but others reach into technical fields. Unfortunately, few correspondence courses are presently available to law enforcement officers. The International City Managers' Association, in cooperation with Michigan State University, has offered one such course, "Municipal Police Administration," upon successful completion of which Michigan State University awarded four quarter-hours of college credit.[60] Several "home study" schools also offer courses, such as "Law for Police Officers," that have some value. But no one course is presently available which attempts to teach a recruit how to be a patrolman. Such a course is possible as evidenced by the military endeavors in this field.

Within the past decade, the Air Force has pioneered in the development of mandatory correspondence courses in an effort to maintain a competent corp of technicians, while retaining minimal training costs. These courses, entitled career development courses, are prepared by the Air Training Command at Lackland Air Force Base, Texas, and are required in all Air Force occupational specialties.

Among the topics included in the Security Police Career Development Course are: (1) communications, (2) first aid, (3) military law, (4) ceremonies, (5) search and restraint, (6) investigations, (7) weapons

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[60] International City Managers' Association and Michigan State University, "Municipal Police Administration" (leaflet describing course content and enrollment procedures, n.d.), pp. 1-4.

nomenclature and safety, and (8) security operations.[61] A somewhat similar, but more extensive, correspondence program is offered by the United States Army Military Police School at Fort Gordon, Georgia. Their voluntary course is composed of such topics as: (1) traffic control, (2) communications, (3) army confinement, (4) military law, (5) criminal investigation, (6) physical security, (7) domestic emergency, and (8) prisoner of war treatment.[62]

It can readily be noted that there is an established concept of correspondence study in the field of police work within the military establishment. It would appear that this concept also has relevance to civilian police work. Any attempt to develop a significant correspondence course would require a scientific study to determine suitable course content and course method.

The military establishment has also preceded civilian police agencies in other instructional methods; their latest approach is programmed instruction, a method advocated by some police administrators. Former Attorney General Katzenbach has claimed that the police have lagged in finding ways to accomplish the job of training more effectively, more efficiently, and with the imaginative utilization of existing techniques. W. J. Mathias, among others, has contended that one of these overlooked techniques for police training is programmed instruction. A rather recent development in the field of instructional methods, programmed instruction is potentially of great value to law enforcement training. The essential elements of this form of instruction

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[61] Extension Course Institute, Career Development Course 81150/70 (3 vols.; Gunter Air Force Base, Alabama: Air University, n.d.).

[62] Department of the Army, Extension Course of United States Army Military Police School (multi-volume; Fort Gordon, Georgia: Military Police School, n.d.).

are: (1) an ordered sequence in the presentation of the material to be learned, (2) active response by the learner, (3) reinforcement by immediate knowledge of results, (4) progression through the material, and (5) self-pacing.[63]

Thus, there are three elements--a systemic approach to training, correspondence course work, and programmed instruction--with the obvious possibilities of being interrelated--that police agencies can utilize to both improve their training and do so without significant increases to their training budgets. Albeit, the preparation of a correspondence course and programmed texts would probably require the active involvement and financial support of a state or federal agency--such as the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance or the International Association of Chiefs of Police.

IV. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter has presented a concise synthesis of sociological and nonsociological literature relevant to police-community relations, particularly the training aspects thereof, in order to present a perspective from which the research was conducted. The researcher categorized a variety of police problems, involving attitudes, perceptions, self-conceptions, and behavior, whose common denominator is the sociological theory of subcultural association and interactionism. The police have responded to these problems by one or more of a triad of approaches. Each approach, in turn, has presented additional difficulties for the police.

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[63] W. J. Mathias, "Programmed Instruction," The Police Chief, XXXIII (August, 1966), 44-46.

Each problem that was discussed can be presumed to exist in every police agency in the United States, albeit in differing degrees. Chapter III will present a profile of the USAF Security Police, reflecting some of the ways in which they share problems similar to those described in this chapter.

One difficulty encountered in police training is that of ineffective and inefficient techniques. Two proposed techniques--correspondence courses and programmed texts--were advanced as devices for improving police training. Unfortunately, no research has been conducted to determine police attitudes toward such approaches; this was an objective of the survey--to determine some police attitudes toward the utilization of these devices.

Another training problem has been that of the nonutilization of empirical data to select the appropriate training methodology. A brief digression was made into sensitivity training in order to illustrate the type of data which is available to guide police administrators. In addition, training has lacked a systematic approach. One factor in such an approach was presented in this chapter (i.e., job analysis). A total approach to training is also required (see Chapter IV).

CHAPTER III

PROFILE OF THE USAF SECURITY POLICE: UNDERSTANDING ITS METABOLISM

This treatise is predicated upon two propositions: (1) the military police possess significant characteristics that are similar to civilian police characteristics to warrant a comparison and generalization from the one to the other; and (2) the military establishment, composed as it is of a cross representation of America, possesses the traits, characteristics, attitudes, etc., that are evident throughout society. This does not imply that there are no differences between military and civil police functions and problems nor any differences between military and civilian environments. Indeed, there are significant differences; one of which is a more rigid, authoritarian, and bureaucratic social structure (which results in a more homogeneous community than the norm, in spite of the individual differences therein). Yet, the differences should not be stressed at the expense of the similarities. This chapter will present a brief comparison between the military and civilian police social systems and will reflect a few of the problems of military life which are similar to the problems of society (indeed, they spring from the problems of the greater society).

I. SIMILARITY BETWEEN MILITARY AND CIVIL POLICE

Policemen within municipal agencies and policemen within the military establishment are confronted with similar law enforcement goals

and problems. Each might appropriately claim their basic law enforcement role to be the maintenance of order in society for the safety, preservation, and benefit of that society. Additionally, the police within both the military establishment and municipal police agencies experience similar problems on a daily basis.

When a comparison is made between municipal police and military police, it can be viewed as a comparison of the role of the police in two distinct societies. This concept of the military comprising a separate society within the greater American society is grounded in a peculiar occupational fact. Separation between place of work and place of residence, characteristic of urban occupations, is generally absent. Instead, the military community is a relatively closed community where professional and residential life have been intermingled; although, a combination of developments has enlarged the military community so that there is an increasing trend toward the civilian pattern of separation of work and residence. Despite these recent changes, membership in the military involves participation in an organizational community which regulates behavior both on and off the job. In the United States Air Force, it is the Security Police who regulate much of the overt behavior of military personnel.

The law enforcement mission of the Security Police is closely identifiable with the duties and responsibilities of their civilian counterparts--the municipal police. There are some differences in the orientation of these two agencies, but both have numerous problems which confront them. One such problem is that of effectuating and maintaining a good relationship between themselves and the communities they serve.

This problem, albeit of greater concern and with more serious ramifications for the municipal police, is of mutual concern to the Security Police.

The essential objective of justice and the American Criminal Justice System is fair treatment of every individual--fair in fact and also perceived to be fair by those affected. Despite the presence and general acceptance of this objective, the police, both municipal and military, and their communities have not always been able to develop and maintain a good relationship. The reciprocally influencing systems (police and community) are frequently at odds with one another. As a result of many incidents, allegations, misperceptions, and, all too often, the lack of adequate communication with their communities, the police, civil and military, are struggling to improve their relationship with the communities they serve.

Municipal police agencies are given the responsibility to function as a chief social control agency within the communities they serve. The police within the United States Air Force also function as a social control agency and have a similar goal, even though their law enforcement orientation differs from that of the municipal police. Although the military community represents a different sort of community from that which municipal police agencies normally encounter, the installation is a community alongside the larger civilian community. Being adjacent to each other, these two communities develop a symbiotic relationship in which the communities are dependent upon each other, in a police sense, for the preservation of order in society. The task confronting the Security Police as they function within the police-community relations dilemma is compounded by the uniqueness of the community with which they must deal.

The problem is threefold because, in essence, the Security Police have three communities which they must serve and with which they must effectuate a good relationship.

Despite the difference in their law enforcement orientation, it is evident that municipal police agencies and the police within the military establishment share a common law enforcement goal, a common police image, and a common concern pertaining to their maintenance of a good relationship with the communities they serve. The uniqueness of the Security Police's communities--military community, municipal police community, and civilian community--further complicates this dilemma as it pertains to the Security Police.[1]

II. CONTRASTING FEATURES OF THE USAF SECURITY POLICE

There are a variety of law enforcement officers within the United States whose generic species is that of a policeman. However, there are numerous breeds of police officers; one breed is that of a military policeman. Though similar to the municipal policeman, his role possesses a variety of contrasting features from his civil counterpart. Of a more obvious nature is the relatively closed community in which he functions, as well as the absence from this community of many of the most perplexing problems found in some civilian communities--ghettos, organized crime, hard-core criminals, etc. However, there are other, less apparent, contrasting features.

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[1]This section was summarized from Charles H. Bailey, "National Survey of United States Air Force Directors/Chiefs of Security Police Attitudes Pertaining to USAF Security Police-Community Relations" (unpublished Master's thesis, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1968), pp. 1-76.

Coates and Pellegrin have stressed the importance of group life within the military establishment.[2] Any individual in the Armed Forces finds himself in an enforced, intimate association with others, during nearly all phases of his military service. He trains in a group; works in a group; fights in a group; and frequently sleeps, eats, and spends his leisure hours as a member of a group. This generally continuous association within a given military unit, together with functional (and often spatial) isolation from members of other units, reduces the likelihood of the formation of primary group ties outside the unit to which an individual is assigned. The totality of these, and other sociological factors, results in a strong tendency for a group's members to demand loyalty to the informal values of their particular primary group, rather than the values of any other group, in situations in which the values of the groups conflict. Additionally, these primary groups, as is the case in all primary groups, have a tendency to mold the behavior of their members to the group's collective norms. These aspects tend to instill in military policemen an even greater solidarity and discipline than is found in civilian police departments.[3]

This solidarity within military units is enhanced by the military status differentiation. As military sociologists have noted, there are several status differentiations within the Armed Forces, not withstanding a tendency to equate stratification with only its military rank form.

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[2]Charles H. Coates and Roland J. Pellegrin, Military Sociology: A Study of American Military Institutions and Military Life (University Park, Maryland: The Social Science Press, 1965), pp. 311-335.

[3]See Michael Banton, The Policeman in the Community (New York: Basic Books, Incorporated, Publishers, 1964), pp. 114-126, for a discussion of solidarity and discipline in both American and British police agencies.

Differentiation in terms of military rank is at once the most obvious and basic form of military stratification; in few other organizations does the individual carry a badge of status identification on his sleeve, shoulder, or collar. Additionally, the military establishment has a hierarchy of positions or offices organized in terms of extent and type of authority. The office and rank hierarchies are frequently imperfectly correlated. There is also a prestige hierarchy of functions or occupations.[4] The military policeman, while ranking low in occupational prestige and rank, fills a powerful office which creates problems less frequently found in civilian police agencies (e.g., a lower grade, enlisted, military policeman frequently must enforce the law against senior NCOs and officers in spite of their differences in ranks. This situation places the military policeman in a position on a daily basis analogous to that of the city patrolman issuing a traffic citation to the city councilmen or city manager).

Beyond these (and similar) sociological differences between military and civilian environments, the Security Police role differs from that of the municipal police due to the dichotomy of the Security Police mission. On the one hand, the Security Police fulfill a law enforcement role similar to that of municipal law enforcement officers. On the other hand, the Security Police also fulfill a role more analogous to that of industrial security guards, store detectives, and (or) contract security forces. This portion of the Security Police mission entails protecting the Air Force combat capability, providing security for Air Force installations and resources, safeguarding classified information and material,

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[4]Coates and Pellegrin, op. cit., pp. 247-249.

safeguarding classified information and material, and providing for personnel security management.[5] As revealed in the survey, the extent of commitment to this security role varies by base and major air command. It also presents a factor in the Security Police role dilemma which is absent from civil police agencies.

Thus, the uniqueness of the military institution and military life both eases and compounds the problems of a Security Policeman. While in many respects his role is easier to fulfill than that of some civilian police officers, it is compounded by the peculiarities of the military lifestyle and by the dichotomy of the Security Police mission. This latter dilemma dictates the training of individual Security Policemen not only to perform as law enforcement officers, but also to discharge the duties inherent in a security force.

III. SECURITY POLICE TRAINING

Security Police training, in basically its present format, was initiated during the Korean War. The intervening generation has been one of gyration and modification culminating in the present form.

The basic resident course for enlisted personnel (airmen) is approximately six weeks in length and includes training in corrections duties, law enforcement (in such areas as jurisdiction, application of apprehension and restraint, control of prisoners, conducting investigations, seizure of evidence, searches, patrolling, and traffic control); weapons; combat measures; and security guard and aerospace weapons

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[5]Department of the Air Force, Air Force Regulation 125-1, Functions and Organization of the USAF Security Police Activities (Washington, D. C.: Department of the Air Force, May 29, 1967).

system security duties. This course, the USAF equivalent to recruit school, is not attended by all Security Policemen; the exact figure fluctuates from year to year but averages approximately 50 per cent. Those not attending learn to be Security Policemen on the job.

In addition to the basic resident school, all Security Policemen are required to complete one or more correspondence courses prepared by the Air Training Command, termed Career Development Courses (CDC). The basic CDC for Security Policemen includes Air Force Manuals 125-3, Security Police Handbook, and 207-2, Handbook for Security Forces, the basic "bibles" in Security Police work. The course also contains a text on weapons (nomenclature, assembly and disassembly, and safety). Each Security Policeman is obliged to study all three volumes, to complete an open book exercise or examination of the multiple choice variety, to attain a passing score on each so-called "volume review exercise," and then to attain a qualifying score on a controlled, closed book, end-of-course evaluation. Personnel in the field have generally expressed the following dissatisfactions with the CDC: (1) the volumes pertaining to law enforcement and security are mere reproductions of the Air Force manuals rather than true texts; (2) the end-of-course examinations are readily compromised, thereby, rendering them meaningless as evaluation devices; and (3) the course fails to consider all facets of a Security Policeman's functions.

The basic resident school for officers is five weeks in length and is designed to train inexperienced officers in the organization, supervision, and direction of installation security, of law enforcement, and of corrections activities, as well as to provide firearms training. It should be noted that while most civilian police agencies require their

personnel to serve as patrolmen, then sergeants, lieutenants, and, ultimately, captains, military police officers do not generally rise through the ranks. This fact would appear to dictate that the absence of line experience be compensated for by extensive training. However, a large corp of sergeants and the differences between military and civilian police operations offset--to some extent--this need for intensive training. Additionally, most junior officers are better equipped academically than are lieutenants and captains in civilian agencies. All recently commissioned Security Police officers possess undergraduate college degrees; many hold master's degrees. While all officers do not attend the basic school, the Air Force allegedly controls officer assignments in such a manner that the lack of experience and (or) attendance at the Security Police Officers School would be compensated for through assignment procedures.

All Security Policemen and Security Police Officers also attend either an eight or a nine day course in preparation for assignment to the limited war environment of Southeast Asia. This school provides combat orientation, area briefings, and counterinsurgency planning. Thus, one area of needed training is postponed until the training is absolutely necessary (i.e., immediately prior to entering combat). This course counterbalances some of the apparent shortcomings of the basic schools and allows these schools to concentrate on subject matter more relevant to performance in a noncombatant environment.

Selected officers and NCOs attend various college programs. The Institute of Correctional Administration for officers, an eight week program at the American University, as well as short institutes, of two to three weeks duration, are aimed at training personnel concerned with

stockade administration. The Traffic Institute at Northwestern University is utilized to assist in the accomplishment of the USAF mission by providing instruction in motor vehicle traffic management programs. Only officers attend this three week course. The University of Southern California Police Administration Institute for Security Police Officers, an eight week course, consists of a combined management-behavioral science technique, employed with the prime objective being to provide students with a knowledge of modern police administration and operations.

There are also four other resident schools (two for sentry dog personnel and two designed to prepare individuals for specialized combat duty) and two sentry dog correspondence courses that are utilized in training specialists within the Security Police. Some personnel also participate in various Army Military Police courses, both resident and correspondence.

Unit and individual on-the-job training programs are designed to either provide initial training and (or) enhance proficiency while on the job. The importance of on-the-job and unit training should not be overlooked. The training of the individual Security Policeman depends, to a great extent, on a continuing program of unit-conducted organizational and individual training. Each major air command has a different mission; hence, the unit programs allow the using organizations to train their personnel in those skills most needed in that particular unit. For example, Security Police within the Strategic Air Command (SAC) are primarily security force personnel; hence, SAC concentrates on training for security duties. Air Training Command (ATC), on the other hand, performs primarily a law enforcement function, consequently, emphasizes law

enforcement training. This variation in primary function obviously imposes some constraints on the basic schools, since some students may be assigned to security duties, others to law enforcement functions.[6]

IV. SECURITY POLICE CONCERNS WITH COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

As previously indicated, Security Policemen perform many functions that are similar to those discharged by municipal law enforcement officers. A brief excerpt from the Security Police specialty description will attest to these similarities:

> Enforces standards of conduct and adherence to laws and regulations. Apprehends violators of military regulations and accepts custody of military personnel apprehended by civil police or other law enforcement agencies. Conducts investigations of minor offenses and traffic accidents and reports findings. Guards scenes of disasters. Directs and routes pedestrian and vehicular traffic at congested points and enforces traffic regulations. Performs off base patrols and quells disturbances involving military personnel. Controls spectators at special events.[7]

As a result of these law enforcement duties, it is apparent that:

> Community relations, even on an Air Force Base, are of continuing concern--emphasizing the helpful, protective role of the Security Police rather than the possible image of public persecutors. And then there is a continuing variety of nuisance assignments--delivering messages, picking up stray dogs, running errands--the routine community service duties generally expected of any police force and never provided for in the manning authorizations.[8]

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[6]The data contained in this section was summarized from Department of the Air Force, Air Force Recurring Pamphlet 125-2, Security Police Digest (Fall-Winter edition; Washington, D. C.: Department of the Air Force, 1968), pp. 3-10; and Department of the Air Force, Air Force Manual 50-5, USAF Formal Schools Catalog (Washington, D. C.: Department of the Air Force, July, 1968).

[7]Department of the Air Force, Air Force Manual 39-1M, Airman Classification Manual (Washington, D. C.: Department of the Air Force, July 1, 1967), II, 81-7.

[8]Theodore J. Newman and T. A. Fleek, "The Air Force Approach to Professional Police Management," The Police Chief, XXXIV (May, 1967), 43.

As in civilian communities, there is concern and confusion on the part of the 46,000 Security Policemen and their publics regarding the role of the Security Police.[9] This confusion is compounded by the dichotomy of functions found within the Security Police mission. One writer succinctly reflected this role dilemma:

> Air base security is, and always will be, the mission of the USAF Security Policeman [researcher's emphasis]. Traffic control, law enforcement operations, accident and criminal investigations, weapons control and registration, anti-crime planning, police-community relations, ground defense and criminal intelligence, riot prevention and control, and the many other functions normally requiring the full-time endeavor of a police department continue to exist on air bases. . . .[10]

Paradoxically, while the foregoing quotation mirrors one aspect of the role dilemma, it also illustrates the true nature of the Security Police mission. In essence, this mission is one of preventive protection --of persons, places, and things--and necessarily encompasses both a law enforcement function and a security function. Many identical problems exist in both primary functions. One such problem is that of effectuating and maintaining a favorable Security Police-community relationship. Although this report has restricted itself largely to law enforcement problems, the same concerns and difficulties exist within a security context.

One authority, in addressing the problem of community relations from a security force perspective, related several significant comments:[11]

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[9] Ibid., pp. 31-32.

[10] Thomas S. Batson, "Air Force Security Police Operations in the Limited War Environment," The Police Chief, XXXVI (January, 1969), 33-34.

[11] John Richelieu Davis, Industrial Plant Protection (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, Publisher, 1957), pp. 19-27.

1. "The success or failure of any police agency will hinge, to a large extent, upon the attitude of the public to that body.

2. "No other department is more vitally concerned with public relations [than is the security department].

3. "The individual officer is the chief link in the chain of public relations."

The importance of a favorable relationship with the community in security endeavors has also been stressed by the federal government:

> Each loyal employee is a personally interested assistant in the successful operation of protection programs.
> . . . . . .
> Thoroughly effective cooperation of employees cannot be expected or secured without education and training in the problems and the discipline required.[12]

It can be seen that favorable community relations is of concern to the Security Policeman regardless of whether he is fulfilling his law enforcement role or his security force capacity. Similarly, the Security Policeman is interested in professional training and in training designed to enhance his community relations.[13] Nonetheless, there are some who would argue that the Security Police environment is not sufficiently similar to that of civilian life to generate a significant concern with community relationships. Even if true, this premise does not imply an absence of similar problems.

Although there are no ghettos on military bases, some members of the Armed Forces are products of the ghettos. In addition, members of

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[12]Executive Office of the President, Office of Defense Mobilization, Standards for Physical Security of Industrial and Governmental Facilities (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1958), p. 9.

[13]See, for example, Walter Fray, "A Practical Training Program for Security Personnel," Industrial Security (April, 1963), p. 8; and National Industrial Conference Board, Incorporated, Industrial Security Plant-Guard Handbook (New York: National Industrial Conference Board, Incorporated, 1954), p. 52.

the military, coming as they do from all walks of life, bring into the armed services their race, religion, national origin, socio-economic background, and prejudices. While there are those who maintain that federal agencies, in general, and the Armed Forces, in particular, have resolved all problems in this area, there are some who do not perceive this to be true.[14] Several Security Police acquaintenances of the researcher have encountered difficulties of a racial nature during their military careers, and a review of current news releases revealed the opinions of others who perceive problems of race, rebellious youth, etc.

One subscriber to the Air Force Times commented that while the USAF can be justly proud of its role in eliminating racial prejudice from its ranks, subtle traces of the practice remain; his complaint was aimed at assignment limitations for personnel of interracial marriages which he perceived to exist.[15]

Similarly, the climate of anti-military, anti-war, anti-ROTC, as well as the growing separation between blacks and whites, appear to have ramifications for the military--if only due to the base from which the Armed Forces procures its people. This climate has had some consequences for the military, as yet unmeasured. For example, a Department of Defense study group is formulating new rules for textbooks to be utilized

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[14]For example, Coates and Pellegrin, op. cit., p. 357, noted that "racial discrimination in the armed forces, more than in civilian society, is no longer practiced on a formal, official basis." (researcher's emphasis)

[15]See "Letters to the Editor," in the Air Force Times [Washington, D. C.], March 19, 1969.

in overseas dependent schools. Their aim is to insure that minority groups in American life are presented fairly in the texts.[16]

It was also recently reported that some ranking military officers are concerned with the troubled conditions of our time. Lieutenant General A. P. Clark, Air Force Chief of Professional Schooling, has declared that the military services must participate in the national effort to save troubled society, or we shall perish with it. Noting that the services share with civilian institutions the problems of restless and sometimes rebellious youth, Clark laid some of the services' difficulties to factors that have caused trouble in the outside world and claimed that the Armed Forces, being composed of a cross section of society, can hardly maintain themselves above it in the long run.[17]

Still another Air Force Times editorial indicated that "the Air Force is groping for new ways to communicate with its younger members and make the service a more acceptable profession.[18] It would appear inconceivable that some of the problems of society and of the Armed Forces could not be expressed in terms of hostility or apathy toward the Security Police.

There is also a growing awareness that the Armed Forces have an obligation to prepare individuals for a useful return to civilian status upon completion of their military obligations. In fulfilling this responsibility, the military can play a significant role in resolving

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[16]News item in the Air Force Times [Washington, D. C.], February 12, 1969.

[17]News item in the Air Force Times [Washington, D. C.], January 15, 1969.

[18]Editorial in the Air Force Times [Washington, D. C.], January 29, 1969.

some of the problems of society; specifically, training can be provided which will not only benefit the services but will also better equip individuals to assume vital positions in society. A news item in the Air Force Times, reporting on the findings of a Ph.D. dissertation, revealed that one of the problems facing Air Force personnel separating from the service was finding the right kind of job, particularly in nontechnical fields.[19] Such studies led to "Project Transition," a program designed to provide training and counselling, as well as job-hunting aid, for individuals about to leave the Air Force. The scope of the program is significant; between January 1968-January 1969, approximately 7,000 men received transition training and over 87,000 obtained counselling and job-hunting aid.[20]

According to one Project Transition NCO, local law enforcement agencies and Air Force bases are working together in search of civil police recruits; Security Policemen and Negro airmen are of special interest to these law enforcement agencies.[21] A well trained Security Policeman would benefit society if he subsequently chose to become a civil policeman--this fact may provide sufficient justification, in and of itself, for increasing Security Police training.

Concurrent with the preceding developments has been a heightened interest on the part of some Security Police personnel in bettering their image, bettering their community relations, and bettering their

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[19]News item in the Air Force Times [Washington, D. C.], March 19, 1969.

[20]Ibid.

[21]News item in the Air Force Times [Washington, D. C.], January 29, 1969.

training and professionalism. Security Police equipment has been improved with an eye to the future and a hand on the present situation in Southeast Asia.[22] Senior Security Police NCOs recently advanced several suggestions to improve the Security Police professionally: (1) permit E-7 through E-9 enlisted personnel to attend Air Force Institute of Technology courses in police administration, corrections, and traffic, now set aside for officers; (2) development of a supervisory course specifically for E-4 and E-5 Security Policemen; (3) employment of specially trained Security Police instructors to conduct unit training programs; (4) raise entrance aptitude requirements; and (5) raise height requirements for entrance into the field.[23] Similarly, several recommendations to improve the Security Police image are under study by Hq USAF officials.[24]

V. SUMMARIZATION

It is apparent that numerous forces and trends at work in society today are exerting an influence (however great or small) on the military establishment. A review of what might be termed "current intelligence" (news releases) bears witness to these influences. Such factors warrant concern on the part of Security Policemen to insure progression, rather than regression, both in terms of over-all professional training and, specifically, in terms of training and programming in community relations.

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[22] Ibid.

[23] News item in the Air Force Times [Washington, D. C.], January 22, 1969.

[24] News item in the Air Force Times [Washington, D. C.], January 29, 1969.

In addition, the time appears to be "right" for any significant, over-all revision of operations and training. Not only can the Security Police point to growing tensions as justification for better training but also to Project Transition as reason for increased training in the effort to contribute better qualified personnel to civil agencies, thereby, contributing to society as a whole.

The literature revealed similarities between the Security Police and the civil police, as well as between Security Police and industrial security guards. The outline of the Security Police training program indicated considerable deviation from the training standard recommended by the President's Crime Commission for all police agencies; yet, it also showed some ways in which the Security Police have surpassed some civilian police agencies in training, as well as in professionalising.

From the total profile it can be observed that the military and civilian police do possess sufficient, similar characteristics and problems to warrant some comparison and generalization from the one to the other.

CHAPTER IV

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK: THE ECONOMIC-SYSTEMS APPROACH

The profile of the USAF Security Police social system related that establishment to the general perspective from which the survey was conducted. The immediate task confronting the researcher is that of presenting the conceptual framework within which the data and findings of the survey are to be analyzed. While this chapter may convey the impression of digressing from the over-all context of the report, the concepts presented herein have relevance to that which has gone before, as well as to that which is to come. The study and discussion of training methodology, evaluation, and sensitivity training were developed within this framework. Section VI of Chapter VI will also relate to this scheme. Additionally, the research involved not only sociological concerns but also police administration matters. Since the concepts to be subsequently employed in the data analysis are conspicuous by their absence from police literature, this apparent detour is necessary to provide knowledge where little exists.

Notwithstanding the research and concern which has been directed at the police, few attempts have been exerted either to develop or to adopt concepts and theories beneficial in managing, predicting, or changing police behavior. Yet, there is a growing body of literature which has endeavored to synthesize empirical studies into useful theory and generalized concepts. It appears that such a utopian goal has not,

at present, been fully attained.[1] However, some theories and concepts have emerged in other professions that are adoptable by the police; some could resolve (or at least reduce) many police problems. Two such concepts, relevant to this report, are the economic approach to decision making and the systems approach to organizational behavior.

I. THE ECONOMIC APPROACH TO DECISION MAKING

The researcher perceives the majority of police administration problems as being of an economic nature. Specifically, they are problems resolvable to the efficient allocation and utilization of resources (men, money, and material). Inherent in the efficient utilization of men, as well as of money, are the needs for efficient and effective training designed to produce efficient and effective behavior (or performance) on the part of the individual police officer. Confronted with the police-community relations dilemma and the problems of society today, efficient police service must consider effectuating and maintaining a favorable police-community relationship. Without a consideration of this most significant variable, efficient utilization of the police manpower (and money) resources is not attainable.

In perceiving most police administration difficulties as essentially economic problems, there are certain considerations and limitations that must be borne in mind. The generalization cannot be extended to the problems of the individual patrolman; his day-to-day difficulties are more of a human relations or sociological nature than they are

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[1]For example, see Joseph E. McGrath and Irwin Altman, Small Group Research: A Synthesis and Critique of the Field (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Incorporated, 1966).

economic. This factor enhances the significance of the police-community relations variable in the administrator's concern with the allocation and utilization of his resources.

Another limitation of the view is a distinction in terms of what the economic approach does not imply. It is not, as is often perceived, a view toward cheapness. Rather, it is a view of maximum versus marginal return per dollar of expenditure. This concern with maximum return per dollar of expenditure dictates the in-depth study of police problems, the accumulation of scientific knowledge, and the selection of options based upon the greatest return for the least expenditure from the total police system.

The police administrator's problem, thereby, becomes one of achieving efficiency in the operation of a system with no adequate price mechanism and with no institutions forcing a natural selection of efficient rather than inefficient alternatives. The solution to the problem lies in an increased recognition and awareness that police problems are, in one of their important aspects, economic decisions. Unless the appropriate questions are asked, unless the appropriate alternatives are selected for comparison, and unless suitable criteria are utilized for choosing the most efficient alternative, the administrator's objectives will suffer.

On the other hand, if the alternatives are arrayed and a serious attempt is made to apply sound criteria in choosing the most efficient alternatives, decisions are likely to be improved even though the considerations brought to bear are mainly qualitative and intuitive. In essence, one has arrived at an economic analysis of police problems, consisting of several elements: (1) an objective or objectives,

(2) alternatives, (3) costs of resources used, (4) a model or models, and (5) a criterion.

The executive must first determine an objective or objectives. What aim or aims is he attempting to accomplish with the forces, equipment, projects, or tactics that the analysis is designed to compare? A choice of objectives is fundamental; if the choice is incorrectly made, the whole analysis becomes addressed to the wrong question. The choice of an objective is extremely crucial in questions concerning training. As will subsequently be shown, each possible training objective requires specific conditions to be met if the training objective is to be attained.

Once an objective is clearly defined, the next analysis to be made concerns the alternative forces, equipment, tactics, etc., through which the objective may be attained. In terms of training, this analysis requires a consideration of the available empirically derived knowledge of training methodology, such as previously discussed in Chapter II and further illustrated in Appendix B. Each alternative method of accomplishing the objective involves the incurring of certain costs or the use of certain resources, which must also be considered.

The next step in the process is to develop a model--an abstract representation of reality--which will aid the administrator to perceive significant relations in the real world, to manipulate them, to analyze them, and to predict other relationships or outcomes. A systems analysis of organizational behavior, discussed in the following section, provides such a model for considering the numerous variables which serve a functional or dysfunctional role in training and in police-community relations.

The final step in an economic analysis is to establish criteria. This is the test by which we select one alternative over another or one system over another. Objectives and costs usually have no common measure; hence, administrators have to be satisfied with some approximation to the ideal criterion that will enable them to say that system A is better than system B--note: better, not optimal. Implied in this characteristic is a concept of fundamental importance: economic choice is but a way of looking at police problems. As such, it does not depend upon the use of any analytic aids or computational devices. Where utilized (and they can sophisticate the process), such devices are in no sense alternatives to, or rivals of, good judgment which, as always, remains of critical importance in designing the analysis, in choosing the alternatives, and in selecting the criterion. In short, the economic approach to decision making is but one approach of value in solving a problem; nonetheless, it is an approach more valid than traditional police management concepts and practices, particularly in training, development, and police-community relations programming. The approach, however, requires an understanding of the systems-like nature of human behavior in organizations and a model with which to enhance the administrator's perceptions of the variables and probable outcomes of his alternative courses of action.[2]

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[2]The basic concept employed in the preceding discussion was adopted from Charles J. Hitch and Roland N. McKean, Elements of Defense Economics (National Security Management Series. Washington, D. C.: Industrial College of the Armed Forces, 1967), especially pp. 69; 81-84; 87-89.

II. SYSTEMS ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOR IN ORGANIZATIONS

In recent years there has been an increasing emphasis on systems analysis, as well as on the study of behavior and training. Few attempts have been exerted to synthesize the accumulated bodies of knowledge into helpful models. The following discussion is one such attempt.

It is obvious that some actions we perform produce the effects we desire, whereas, others do not. These undesirable (or at least surprising) effects tend to increase as our human involvement increases due to our limited knowledge of human behavior and due to our own human fallibilities. Being human, we possess imperfect thinking habits; the most important of which is our single cause habit of thinking. This results in the oversimplification of both the causes of problems and the answers to problems.

If a single cause explanation to problems is inadequate, an obvious substitute is the assumption that events are the result of numerous forces operating in complex relation to each other--a concept embodied within the systems approach. Basically, a system may be envisioned as a set of objects, together with the relationships between the objects and between their attributes. Somewhat overly simplified, everything is related to everything else in such a manner that a change in any one thing produces a change in everything else within the system (albeit, the change may be infinitesimal).

This concept requires the creating of a hierarchy of natural units and the development of knowledge concerning smaller units prior to proceeding to larger or external units. This hierarchy of systems enables us to concentrate on understanding one internal system at a time, to treat some systems as external environment, to handle some as producers

of internal effects, and to deal with some in the full complexity necessitated by our goals, responsibilities, and skills.

One property of any system is that of dynamic or moving equilibrium--a tendency toward balance. Underlying this property is the feedback mechanism. That is to say, a system is an entity into which elements are introduced, transferred, and emitted (an input-output mechanism). What comes out influences what goes in and vice versa. Systems analysis, in basic terms, is an analysis of functions and dysfunctions. One variable is a function of another if its magnitude varies with the magnitude of the other. Behavior, a part of any human system, is not merely functional--it is functional for something else. It is necessary to determine what the "something" is in order to avoid mere good/bad judgments. There is a tendency to confuse a function with a consequence or visible change, but there is no necessary relationship between the visibility of effects and the significance of the function.

A system maintains two kinds of relations with its environment: (1) the environment imposes certain constraints within which the system must operate, but (2) systems also act upon their environment. Within any organization these constraints are of three types: (1) human inputs, (2) technological inputs, and (3) organizational inputs. These constraints, as part of environment, influence the behavior of a system. Conversely, the system's behavior affects its environment, thereby, influencing the human, technological, and organizational inputs. Behavior within a system has three aspects: (1) activities, (2) interactions, and (3) sentiments, each of which influences and, in turn, is affected by each of the other aspects of behavior.

Translating the preceding into an overly simplified schematic, it can be observed that a police system acts upon the community it serves and vice versa. By the same token, there are subsystems at work within the police system.

Based upon Figure 2, it is apparent that the training system of a police agency is affected by the supervisory and command system, but it, in turn, influences the supervisory and command system. Similarly, a police agency, the other subsystems of the justice system, other subsystems of a community, and other communities interact and influence one another.

If one recognizes and accepts this elementary framework and if one is interested in influencing behavior, it is next necessary to develop a scheme for diagnosing the behavior one desires to influence. The scheme presented in Figure 3, page 77, seems suitable.

Once a systems analysis approach to modifying or changing behavior has been accepted, one must obviously operate within certain constraints; of prime consideration is the external environment.[3]

The causal texture of organizational environment. A main problem in the study of organizational behavior change is the fact that the environments in which organizations operate are changing at an increasing rate toward greater complexity. A complete understanding of organizational behavior requires some knowledge of each of the following: (1) processes within the organization, (2) exchanges between the organization

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[3]This section was based upon an adaptation of concepts contained in John A. Seiler, Systems Analysis in Organizational Behavior (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Incorporated, and the Dorsey Press, 1967), especially pp. 1-32.

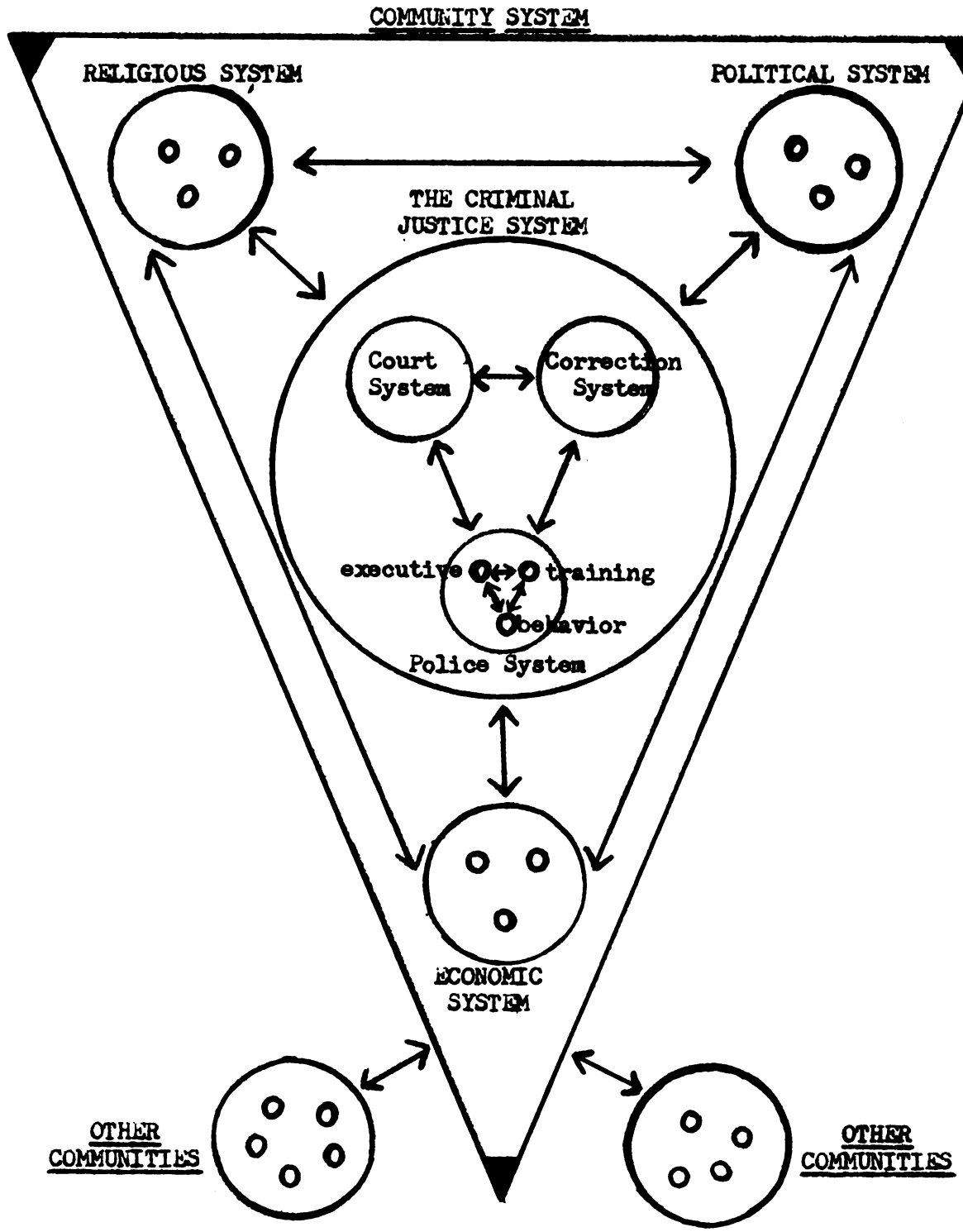

FIGURE 2

A SIMPLE COMMUNITY SYSTEM*

Legend: ⟷ = "Functions for"

*This figure is based upon an idea contained in Seiler, op. cit., p. 7. The figure is not intended to be an all-inclusive model of a community system, but merely an illustration; hence, several significant subsystems (such as the social services subsystem) are excluded.

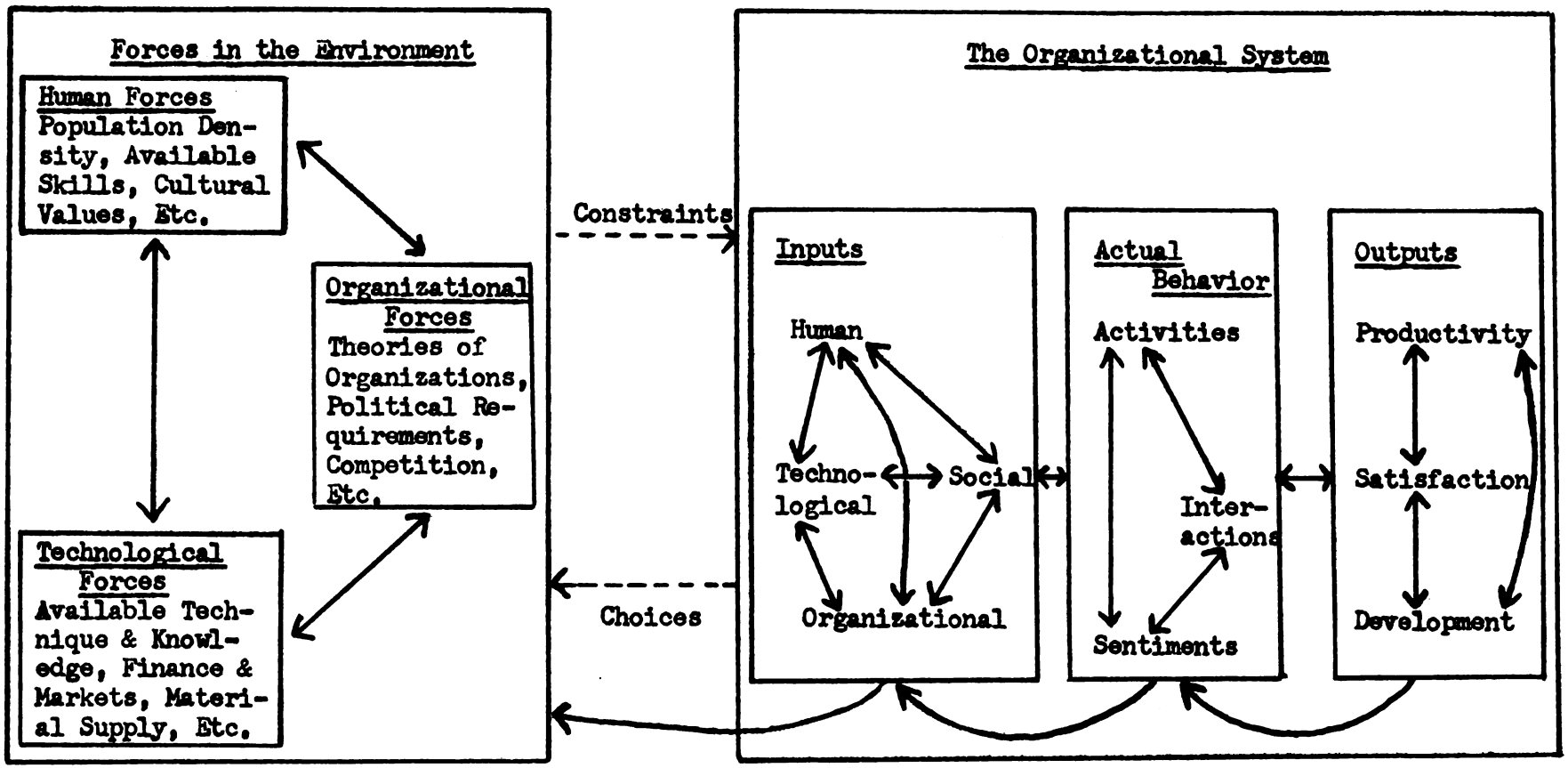

FIGURE 3

AN ELEMENTARY FRAMEWORK FOR DIAGNOSING HUMAN BEHAVIOR IN ORGANIZATIONS*

Legend: ⟷ = "Functions for"

*This figure is based upon Seiler, op. cit., p. 33.

and its environment, and (3) the processes through which the parts of the environment become related to each other (i.e., the causal texture).[4] Somewhat simplified, this concept implies that an external environment of a system greatly defines the parameters within which one is free to manipulate the internal factors of a system. Nonetheless, within the limits imposed on a subsystem (the police) by its external system (the community), it is possible to manipulate the internal elements of the subsystem to influence behavior or performance within that subsystem (the police) and to an extent, thereby, influence the external environment (the community). The question becomes twofold: (1) how does one desire to influence the behavior or performance of the subsystem (policemen)? and (2) what conditions are necessary to achieve this goal?

III. CONDITIONS REQUIRED TO INDUCE CHANGE IN BEHAVIOR

One authority has claimed that executive development efforts have been unsuccessful due to a failure to isolate, quantify, measure, and study the variables of the process of education and development. Based on two hundred empirical studies, House has developed a scheme of conditions required to induce change through development programs (see Figure 4). Police training, per se, and human relations training, in particular, have also been unsuccessful due to a failure to isolate, quantify, measure, and study both the variables within the police system itself and the variables of the process of education and development. The scheme of conditions required to induce change in industrial

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[4] F. E. Emery and E. L. Trist, "The Causal Texture of Organizational Environments," Readings in Organization Theory: A Behavioral Approach, eds. Walter A. Hill and Douglas M. Egan (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Incorporated, 1966).

Conditions for Development	Objectives of Development I: Change knowledge	II: Change attitude	III: Change ability	IV: Change performance
Participant characteristics	Sufficient IQ + Sufficient motivation	Flexible attitudes on part of participants ——— Agreement with spirit of the material to be learned	Non-conflicting habits or personality traits	
Learning effort	Direct method of instruction + Competent instruction	Discussion of on-the-job applications and personal benefits	Practice + Corrective training	On-the-job practice of newly acquired abilities
Leadership climate		Neutral or positive attitude of superior	Superior's attitude consistent with desired change	Coaching, counseling, and periodic performance review by superior
Formal organizational climate		Goals and policies consistent with learning		Philosophy, practices, and precedents consistent with desired performance
Primary work group culture		Cultural conditions and social beliefs consistent with desired attitudes		Informal group rules and standards consistent with desired change

FIGURE 4

CONDITIONS REQUIRED TO INDUCE CHANGE*

*This figure is based upon House, loc. cit.

developmental programs appears equally applicable to police executive development and to individual police officer development. A review of some of the empiric studies from which the concept evolved revealed nothing that would preclude the adaptation of the concept.

In the general area of police training and in the specific area of human relations, intergroup, and interpersonal relations, it appears that by examining the conditions needed for development one can predict the likelihood of success in attaining a specific objective for a training effort. For example, given an inadequate I. Q. or motivation, will a policeman gain any knowledge in a classroom? The answer, quite obviously, is, at best, very little. Similarly, if one's training objective is to change performance, all the conditions listed in Column IV, Figure 4, would need to be present, or one could reasonably anticipate failure.[5]

IV. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

It can be seen that the conceptual framework within which police training should be conducted, be it technical training, community relations training, or executive training, is that of a complete economic-systems analysis of behavior within an organization. By attempting to ascertain all of the influencing variables which will reinforce or negate a given training effort, the police administrator can determine the probability of success or failure in the training endeavor. Through a systemic determination of the training needs (an occupational or job

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[5]This concept was based upon Robert J. House, Management Development: Design, Evaluation and Implementation (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Bureau of Industrial Relations, Graduate School of Business Administration, University of Michigan, 1967), pp. 17-19; 105-132.

analysis), through a scientific evaluation of the effectiveness of various training methods, and through analysis of the organizational environment's variables which will enhance or negate the training, the administrator can make a valid economic decision as to a course of action. For example, where the nature of a department is suitable, sensitivity training, even though a most costly training method, will prove highly effective and beneficial. However, where other variables are in force that will negate any training effort, the "proper" economic choice might well be to expend the least amount on training as is possible. Similarly, where variables at work within the organization are such that role playing methods of teaching human relations would be nearly as effective as sensitivity training and considerably less costly, the economic choice would lean toward role playing. Conversely, factors might well prescribe that the administrator manipulate the variables within his system so that whatever method is employed will be reinforced on the job, rather than extinguished. House labeled this "the commitment approach," which entails the diagnosis and complete modification (where appropriate) of an organization's internal environment so as to insure that training efforts are reinforced.[6] Obviously, such an approach presupposes that the training objective is clearly directed toward that behavior sincerely desired on the job. Unless this condition is present, no rational administrator would be likely to alter his organization (manpower selection, structure, assignment procedures, etc.) to attain a training objective and encourage behavior that he did not deem to be the appropriate behavior.

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[6] Ibid., pp. 45-64.

It was within such a concept that the ultimate findings of the survey were to be evaluated and the conclusions and recommendations were to be formulated. Similarly, it is an approach which shows promise for police administrators in improving their police training and police-community relationships (both through training and programs).

CHAPTER V

NATURE, PROCEDURES, AND METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH

The preceding survey of literature (Chapters II and III) reflected the perspective from which the research was undertaken. Chapter IV presented a concept within which the data was evaluated. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss methodology: the nature of the study, the procedures followed, and the instrument employed in the investigation. The objective of the inquiry was to obtain data for subsequent analysis in order to: (1) ascertain attitudes pertaining to Security Police training; (2) determine the state of the art of Security Police community relations training and programming; and (3) compare the perceptions of chiefs and directors, training officers, and training NCOs regarding their Security Police-community relationships. The ultimate goal of the study was to develop hypotheses, form conclusions, and determine the implications of the findings in terms of the USAF Security Police, civilian police agencies, and the police-community relations spectrum. The research instrument was constructed so as to attain the aforementioned objective. Concepts and data derived from relevant literature were incorporated where appropriate.

I. THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The survey instrument was a mailed self-administering questionnaire (see Appendix C). As will be shown in Chapter VI, the characteristics of

the respondents mitigated against utilizing either limited sample interviews or case studies as techniques for obtaining the desired data. Such techniques would have precluded the generalization of the resultant findings. The decision to employ a questionnaire rather than to conduct personal interviews was predicated upon the impracticality of visiting 101 Air Force bases, as well as upon the scope and nature of the study which were deemed suitable for a mail survey.[1]

The questionnaire contained thirty-five items and was designed for completion within thirty minutes. Ten items were so constructed as to provide information pertaining to various characteristics of the respondents. These characteristics provided a means for tabulating and correlating the data and established a base for the analysis of variables that might influence the subsequent responses. In this section of the survey the respondents were required to fill in blanks and check appropriate responses.

Twenty-five items sought to ascertain various opinions, attitudes, or data. Of these questions, ten related to Security Police training in its broad perspective; five considered community relations training, three involved community relations programs, and five concerned the respondents' perceptions of their relationships with their communities. Another item was designed to measure the perceived importance of favorable community relations in security functions since such duties are a significant concern of the USAF Security Police. An "Importance

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[1]See Charles H. Backstrom and Gerald D. Hursh, Survey Research (Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University Press, 1963), pp. 1-10, for some considerations relevant to the election of personal interviews as opposed to mail surveys. The sample size and type is described in pp. 10-11, supra, and pp. 97-99, infra.

Evaluation Rating Scale" was also included; the respondents were to evaluate the importance of eighteen types of training subject matter.

A Likert scale was utilized in eleven of the twenty-five opinion questions; the respondents were to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with given statements. Five items required a yes or no response; seven necessitated a selection from several possible alternatives. In still another question, the respondents were requested to list projects or drives undertaken within the respondent's unit to enhance the Security Police-community relationship.

In order to effect a comparison of the data obtained in earlier research with that derived from this study, seven of the twenty-five opinion items were virtual repeats of questions utilized in previous research to determine the attitudes of Security Police chiefs and directors concerning their community relationships. These items were repeated to preclude different responses which alternative questions might have elicited.

Section I, identifying data. This section provided data for identifying, categorizing, and correlating the opinion data obtained in Section II of the survey.

ITEM 1:

The Major Air Command to which I was assigned immediately prior to my present assignment to this installation was _____.

The respondents' current command of assignment was ascertained through the mailing list; however, it was hypothesized that the command to which the respondent was previously assigned could significantly influence his opinion responses. Most air commands possess unique characteristics, particularly those commands located abroad. It was perceived

that the combat environment of Southeast Asia would tend to develop different attitudes than those developed in noncombatant areas.

ITEM 1a:

I was assigned to my current installation (prior to) or (after) 1 March 1968.

ITEM 1b:

Since 1 March 1968, there has been: ____ a new Chief of Security Police assigned to this installation; ____ a new director; ____ both a new chief and new director; ____ neither a new chief nor a new director.

The information to be derived from these two items would allow an analysis of the attitudes of those personnel who served under the chiefs/directors previously surveyed as opposed to those who did not serve under those chiefs. The chiefs and directors reflected a set of attitudes; similar attitudes expressed by respondents to this survey would tend to validate the prior findings as legitimate perceptions of the entire Security Police corp. Conversely, significant differences would tend to refute the earlier findings.

ITEM 2:

I have been in the Security Police (including Air Police) career field for ____ years and ____ months as of 1 April 1969.

ITEM 3:

I have been on active duty in the Air Force or other branch of the Armed Forces for ____ years and ____ months as of 1 April 1969.

Since numerous Security Police personnel have not served their entire military career within the Security Police field, it was desirable to determine both their length of time in the Security Police and their length of time in the service, so as to analyze the influence of

experience in fields other than the Security Police. Length of time in the Air Force would necessarily correlate with attitudes previously held as a civilian; whereas, length of time as a Security Policeman or Security Police officer would tend to develop what could be termed "a police perspective."

ITEM 4:

I am assigned (as full time duty or as an additional duty) as: ____ a Security Police Training Officer; ____ NCO; ____ neither of the above, please explain.

Foreseeing the possibility of someone other than the addressee completing the questionnaire, a choice of "neither of the above; please explain" was included. The data obtained from this item permitted a comparison of officer attitudes with NCO attitudes. The officers were hypothesized to reflect different attitudes than the NCOs as a consequence of their younger age, greater educational level, and differences in job perspectives.

ITEM 5:

The approximate population (military personnel, dependents, and civilian employees) of this installation is _____ thousand.

ITEM 6:

This installation is located approximately _____ miles from the nearest city with a population of 50,000 and approximately _____ miles from the nearest city with a population of over 250,000.

ITEM 7:

There are approximately _____ military and civilian (combined total) Security Policemen assigned to this installation.

ITEM 8:

There are approximately _____ Security Policemen performing a law enforcement function (such as base patrol, town patrol, pass and identification, etc.) as opposed to a security function at this installation.

It was hypothesized that the type of data developed from the foregoing items would affect the subsequent responses. For example, it was envisioned that the proximity of a base to an adjacent city would directly correlate with attitudes toward relationships with that civilian community. Similarly, it was perceived that mission orientation would significantly affect attitudes toward training. Other perceived relationships in the variables are presented in Section IV.

ITEM 9:

Within the law enforcement function at this installation what type of personnel are employed as Security Police: military; civilian; or both?

The purpose of this item was to test the hypothesis that those commands utilizing only military Security Policemen would reflect less concern with community relations than those utilizing civilian guards but would express greater concern with training as military Security Policemen are required to perform a broader range of duties than are civilian Security Police personnel.

Section II, opinion data. The questions in this portion of the instrument were intentionally dispersed so that the respondents would be less likely to reason out a pattern of "intended responses." Therefore, the items will be discussed out of the sequence in which they appeared in

the actual questionnaire; they will be presented in their intended relationship, by category of concern.

Category I--Training

ITEM 5:

I consider extensive and intensive training essential in order to develop an effective professional Security Policeman: strongly agree; agree; do not know; disagree; strongly disagree.

An unperceived need for training would--if legitimate--affect other responses. Some individuals have expressed the opinion that there is no valid need for professional policemen, particularly in the Armed Forces. This item was designed to determine the extent to which, if any, such a belief is entertained within the USAF Security Police establishment.

ITEM 1:

I consider the current over-all Security Police Training Program to be generally effective in developing professional, competent Security Policemen: strongly agree; agree; do not know; disagree; strongly disagree.

ITEM 22:

How much of your training time is used in teaching things that do not seem important to you: a lot of it; some of it; only a little of it; almost none of it?

These two items were designed to ascertain general satisfaction with the over-all Security Police training program as discussed in Chapter III. Item 22, in part, was also intended to serve as a cross-check against the responses to Item 1. It was assumed that if a respondent considered the over-all program to be generally effective, he would not

perceive himself as spending a significant amount of time teaching seemingly unimportant material. The reverse could also be true, thereby, revealing dissatisfaction with the on-the-job training portion of the training program even though the respondent might reflect satisfaction with the school and correspondence portions of the program.

ITEM 6:

I consider most Security Policemen throughout the Air Force as well trained in most facets of our job: strongly agree; agree; do not know; disagree; strongly disagree.

ITEM 21:

In general, how well do you think the Security Police are trained: trained very well; trained not so well; trained very poorly; undecided?

The data from these two items will reveal how well the respondents perceived the individual Security Policemen to be trained, either as the result of the training program or in spite of the program. Item 21 was somewhat differently worded in order to determine how well the respondents perceived the individual policemen to be trained in their specific jobs, as opposed to the broad specialty (i.e., to ascertain the effectiveness of training personnel as specialists versus training them as generalists). Numerous comments offered by the respondents indicated that they perceived this intention in the items.

ITEM 23:

How adequate do you consider the basic Security Police technical school: excellent--little room for improvement; basically good but needs to be expanded; fairly good but limited to only security duties; poor--a virtual waste of time; some other opinion, explain?

It was envisioned that some respondents would express some dissatisfaction with the over-all Security Police training program. An obvious source of dissatisfaction could have been the basic Security Police training school; one question was necessary to consider this possibility. On the other hand, approximately 50 per cent of the Security Policemen do not attend this school; hence, additional questions designed to develop a more comprehensive insight into perceptions concerning the recruit school were excluded from the survey. This allowed the research to cover other areas and allowed the instrument to be confined to a length conducive to a high response rate.

ITEM 2:

I consider the current Security Police career development course to be generally adequate in developing professional, effective Security Policemen: strongly agree; agree; do not know; disagree; strongly disagree.

ITEM 24:

How adequate do you consider the CDC: excellent--little room for improvement; basically good but needs to be expanded; fairly good for teaching security but not law enforcement; poor--it contributes little to the professional performance of Security Policemen; a waste of time--does little to prepare a man for his job; some other opinion, explain?

ITEM 4:

I would favor a greatly expanded version of the career development course which would cover more areas and treat them in greater depth: strongly agree; agree; do not know; disagree; strongly disagree.

ITEM 3:

I would favor the career development course being rewritten into a

programmed text such as used in the general military training program: strongly agree; agree; do not know; disagree; strongly disagree.

All Security Policemen are required to complete the mandatory correspondence course discussed in Chapters II and III. Item 24, in part, served as a check on the response to Item 2. Additionally, it provided the respondent with an opportunity to express an opinion other than that solicited by the closed responses. Item 3 was designed to determine attitudes toward the possible conversion of the course to a programmed text as suggested by a review of the literature. Since some administrators have reflected a desire to adopt similar approaches, it was considered desirable to ascertain the opinions of some police practitioners experienced in the utilization of such tools in an effort to aid any future attempts in this direction.

Category II—Community Relations Training

ITEM 8:

I emphasize effecting good community relations throughout my training program: yes; no.

ITEM 9:

I conduct specialized classes concerning community relations: yes; no.

ITEM 10:

I need material added to my training program concerning community relations: yes; no.

ITEM 11:

In my unit, class instruction is given in the following areas: (a list of thirteen areas was provided).

ITEM 12:

Are there any other courses or subject matter taught in your unit that you conceive of as pertinent to community relations: yes; no; if yes, explain or list briefly?

The total image conveyed by these five items was intended to reflect the nature and extent of community relations training within the USAF Security Police. While considerable research has been directed at civilian police agencies to determine the nature and extent of community relations training therein, no prior research has determined this aspect of military training.

Category III--PCR Programs

ITEM 18:

In my Security Police unit there is: a vigorous program aimed at improving community relations; a moderate program; little or no program.

ITEM 20:

During the past year my Security Police unit has initiated the following projects or drives to benefit, help, or improve the military or civilian community or parts thereof _____.

ITEM 7:

I feel that Headquarters USAF has sufficient detailed guidance available in current directives to assist me (or require of me) to effect good relations with:

a. The military community: yes; no.

b. The civilian community: yes; no.

c. The local civilian police: yes; no.

The data developed from these questions allowed an overview of the nature and extent of community relations programs within the USAF Security

Police. Such an overview was not available in police literature, and it was perceived that some of the data developed would be beneficial to all police agencies. Additionally, the consolidation of ideas from Security Police units across the United States would provide a source of practical knowledge to the Security Police corp.

Category IV--PCR Perceptions

ITEM 13:

My Security Police unit has a poor relationship with the civilian police: strongly agree; agree; do not know; disagree; strongly disagree.

ITEM 14:

My Security Police unit maintains frequent contact with the local police: strongly agree; agree; do not know; disagree; strongly disagree.

These two items were intended to determine the respondents' perceptions of their relationship with the local civilian police. Item 14, in a sense, was a validating item, allowing an analysis of the basis upon which a response to Item 13 was selected. On the other hand, the frequency of contact with local civil police also serves as a barometer for measuring Security Police-civil police relations. The absence of contact would tend to indicate alientation between the two agencies and would assuredly interfere with Security Police law enforcement mission accomplishment.

ITEM 19c:

Place an "X" by the phrase which BEST describes how you feel your Security Police unit is regarded by the local civilian police: not too competent as a law enforcement unit; as good as any other military police unit; a good law enforcement unit; highly competent and professional; not a law enforcement unit.

The information to be derived from this item is self-explanatory--the respondents' perceptions concerning how well the local police regard the Security Police.

ITEM 15:

My Security Police unit's relationship with the military community is highly unsatisfactory: strongly agree; agree; do not know; disagree; strongly disagree.

ITEM 19a:

Place an "X" by the phrase which BEST describes how you feel your Security Police unit is regarded by the military community: unprofessional, one of the worst Security Police units in the Air Force; not too competent; as good as any other Security Police unit; a good and impartial law enforcement unit; highly competent and professional; not a law enforcement unit.

ITEM 16:

My Security Police unit's relationship with the civilian community is highly unsatisfactory: strongly agree; agree; do not know; disagree; strongly disagree.

ITEM 19b:

Place an "X" by the phrase which BEST describes how you feel your Security Police unit is regarded by the civilian community: worse than the local civilian police; as good as the local civilian police; better than the local civilian police; different from, but still: worse, as good as, better than the local civilian police.

These four items were so constructed as to determine the respondents' perceptions of their relationships with the military and civilian communities, both in terms of the relationship and in terms of the

esteem held by the military and civilian communities for the Security Police.

The total image conveyed by the previous seven items allowed a comparison of the perceptions of training officers, the perceptions of training NCOs, and the perceptions of chiefs/directors (expressed in prior research) as to the relationships of the Security Police with the three communities they serve.

ITEM 17:

In the final analysis, effective community relations is not as significant to the effective accomplishment of my security mission as it is to the effective accomplishment of the law enforcement mission.

It was felt that by deliberately slanting this statement any true concern with community relations in conjunction with security work would reveal itself. Obviously, such an approach implies that any percentage of disagreement with the statement would necessarily be a conservative figure. The community relations problem in security work is limited to the military community, in that the local police and the civilian community normally would not encounter a Security Policeman performing security duty (persons from these communities would not have access to the areas being secured). However, good relations with the military community are essential if the security system is to function efficiently and effectively.

ITEM 25:

IMPORTANCE EVALUATION RATING SCALE. The respondents were requested to indicate, by placing an "X" in the appropriate block, how significant they felt various subject matter to be in the accomplishment of the Security Police mission, the bettering of community relations,

and the enhancement of Security Police professionalism. The items or subjects were selected from a synthesis of police literature. Three items--"more emphasis on law enforcement duties--an expanded coverage," "investigative duties," and "UCMJ"--were included to serve as a check on responses to community relations items in an effort to measure the rater tendency to inflate his ratings in response to a perceived "anticipated answer," as well as to allow some determination as to whether expansion of the CDC and (or) technical school should be limited to security functions or include law enforcement.

II. PROCEDURES

Approval to conduct the survey was obtained through Air Force channels; next, the mailing list of 101 USAF bases was developed as reported in Chapter I. Two questionnaires were dispatched to each base; one was addressed to the Security Police Training Officer and the other to the Security Police Training NCOIC (Noncommissioned Officer in Charge). At the time it was unknown if, in fact, each base had a training officer assigned. This obviously made the determination of an officer response rate inexact. However, it was perceived that some officers would delegate their questionnaire to a training NCO, thereby, presenting difficulties in determining a valid officer response rate.

Similarly, it was perceived that some bases would return two responses, both completed by NCOs. Since any Security Police unit has only one officer directly involved in training but may have several NCOs so involved, it was felt that this would pose no statistical problem; rather, this would provide a larger numerical sample of training NCOs.

Three weeks after the initial distribution of the surveys, a follow-up letter was sent to those units which had not as yet replied. Approximately one hundred responses were received within two weeks after mailing the survey, only two during the third week. The follow-up letter resulted in thirty-two replies during the month subsequent to mailing the follow-up letter. It was determined that further follow-up letters would not result in a statistically significant increase in responses. Of the sixteen bases that failed to reply, two were in Air University (the only two bases in that command). This command, by virtue of its size, would not have provided statistically significant data as a command without a 100 per cent response and complete agreement on all survey items. Another nonresponding base was in the Headquarters Command. Again, this was felt to be statistically insignificant in terms of analysis as a separate command as there are but two bases in that command. The remaining thirteen bases were from commands in which a statistically significant response had already been received.

It should be noted that Air Force directives prohibit personnel from completing surveys unless Air Force approval has been granted (Air Force students obtain approval through the Air Force Institute of Technology; civilians obtain approval from Hq USAF). Approval to conduct this survey was obtained through Air Force channels prior to mailing the questionnaire to the field. Notwithstanding this approval, three bases returned uncompleted questionnaires citing either local, command, or obsolete Air Force directives as justification for not completing the survey.

Many explanations are possible for the nonresponses. Inquiry revealed that the personnel at one base failed to respond because of the

beliefs that they could be identified by the postmark on the return envelop and that their opinions, if obtained by Air Force officials, could be prejudicial to their careers, regardless of how they responded to the questionnaire. Since another respondent included a note with his completed survey indicating that he could be identified by the return postmark, it is highly probable that many of the nonrespondents recognized that they could, in fact, be identified and refused to reply due to the possibility that their opinions, if made known to Air Force officials, could be prejudicial to their careers.

This problem could have been overcome in two ways. First, franked envelopes (postage and fees paid by the USAF) could have been used. Air Force directives prohibit this practice except for official business; student surveys have been determined to be unofficial business even though the results of a study might provide data useful to the Air Force. A second alternative would have been procurement of a mailing permit to preclude the use of postal marks; this procedure would have nearly tripled the postage costs involved. Since the response rate, in every way calculated, exceeded the 10 to 50 per cent normally obtained in a mail survey,[2] the nonresponses were considered to be sufficiently low as to counterbalance the problem (particularly in lieu of the patterns, or lack thereof, of responses). The rationale for nonresponses should, however, be considered in future research into the military police establishments.

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[2] Ibid.

III. RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The major hypotheses underlying this research were: (1) the concern with good community relations previously expressed by chiefs and directors of Security Police would not be as greatly shared by junior officers and senior NCOs; (2) though a concern with police-community relations has been expressed by chiefs and directors, in practice there is little or no training or programming in effect designed to enhance police-community relations; and (3) there would be a general dissatisfaction with both the training program and the state of training of the Security Police force. It was also hypothesized that prior command assignments would reveal significant differences in perceptions due to the differences in orientation between commands located in the continental United States, Europe, and the Pacific. Specifically, it was believed that personnel who had been in PACAF would think more highly of the state of training within the Air Force due to the combat situation existing within that command. Conversely, it was hypothesized that personnel who had recently been assigned to USAFE would express significantly more concern with community relations than individuals in other commands due to that command's emphasis on community relations (especially during the period of mid 1966-mid 1968). In addition, it was hypothesized that the Security Police would express attitudes toward training typical of that found in civilian police literature (i.e., dissatisfaction with recruit school, little significance of police-community relations in security work, etc.). The major propositions underlying each category of question were as follows:

Category I--Training

1. More personnel would view the over-all Security Police training program to be generally ineffective than would view the program favorably. PACAF returnees would take a reverse position.

2. A lesser number of personnel would admit to spending much time teaching subjects that seemed unimportant due to the tendency to conduct "paper training" in areas perceived as unimportant.

3. The majority of NCOs would consider most Security Policemen well trained, but the officers would not share this attitude.

4. Most personnel would express dissatisfaction with the technical school, and a greater number would express dissatisfaction with the CDC.

Category II--Community Relations Training

1. Few would acknowledge specialized classes designed to enhance community relations.

Category III--PCR Programs

1. There would be few programs in operation to enhance Security Police-community relations.

2. Most "programs" listed would be "gimmacks" designed to enhance the Security Police public image rather than benefit the community.

Null hypotheses. Selltiz has claimed that:

> Whether or not the nature of anticipated relationships can be stated explicitly--i.e., whether or not they can be expressed as hypotheses in the formulation stage of an inquiry--depends largely on the state of knowledge in the area under investigation. Scientific research can begin with well-formulated hypotheses, or it can formulate hypotheses as the end product of the research.[3]

In this study true hypotheses could not be stated in advance of the research due to the existing lack of validated knowledge about Security Police-community relations. However, tentative or exploratory hypotheses,

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[3]Claire Selltiz, et al., Research Methods in Social Relations (revised one-volume edition; New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Incorporated, 1967), p. 39.

based on the past experiences of the researcher, were possible and these postulates formulated a point of departure for the research endeavor:

1. The attitudes of Security Police directors and chiefs do not differ from the attitudes of junior Security Police officers.

2. The attitudes of Security Police officers do not differ from the attitudes of Security Police NCOs.

3. There is consensus within the Security Police field as to what a community relations program should encompass.

4. There is consensus between the perceived needs of the USAF Security Police and the programs and ideas of current police-community relations programs elucidated in literature, programs, and workshops throughout the nation.

IV. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Variables. There were nine dependent and eleven independent variables correlated and analyzed within this framework:

1. The perceptions of the chiefs and directors of Security Police pertaining to their Security Police-community relationships.

2. The perceptions of Security Police training officers pertaining to their Security Police-community relationships.

3. The perceptions of Security Police training NCOs pertaining to their Security Police-community relationships.

4. The attitudes of Security Police training officers pertaining to Security Police professional training.

5. The attitudes of Security Police training NCOs pertaining to Security Police professional training.

6. The data furnished by Security Police training officers relevant to community relations training.

7. The data furnished by Security Police training NCOs relevant to community relations training.

8. The data furnished by Security Police training officers relevant to community relations programs.

9. The data furnished by Security Police training NCOs relevant to community relations programs.

10. The relation of the Security Police unit's primary mission (law enforcement or security) on attitudes relevant to professional training, community relations training and programs, and community relationships.

11. The effect of the size of a Security Police unit on attitudes relevant to professional training, community relations training and programs, and community relationships.

12. The influence of current major air command of assignment on perceptions of community relationships, community relations training, and community relations programs.

13. The influence of current major air command of assignment on attitudes toward professional training.

14. The influence of prior command assignment on perceptions of community relationships, community relations training, and community relations programs.

15. The influence of prior command assignment on attitudes toward professional training.

16. The difference in perceptions of Security Police-community relationships reflected by personnel who have continuously served under the same chief and director as previously surveyed (as opposed to personnel serving under different chiefs and directors).

17. The effect of length of service on attitudes pertaining to professional training.

18. The effect of length of service on perceptions of community relationships, community relations training, and community relations programs.

19. The effect of non-Security Police experience on attitudes pertaining to professional training.

20. The effect of non-Security Police experience on perceptions of community relationships, community relations training, and community relations programs.

21. The effect of base population on perceptions of community relationships, community relations training, and community relations programs.

22. The effect of proximity and population of nearby civilian communities on perceptions of community relationships, community relations training, and community relations programs.

23. The effect of utilizing civilian Security Police personnel on perceptions of community relationships, community relations training, and community relations programs.

24. The effect of utilizing civilian Security Police personnel on attitudes pertaining to professional training.

Analysis. The data was grouped by rank, command of current assignment, and command of prior assignment. Upon tabulation the raw data was translated into meaningful percentages and correlated. Due to the small number of responses involved, small differences in percentages were statistically insignificant. Hence, full percentages were generally utilized; albeit, this resulted in totals not equaling exactly 100 per cent.

Each item was analyzed (and correlated, where appropriate) to arrive at major findings and conclusions, which were then analyzed within the conceptual framework presented in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER VI

DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS, AND CONCLUSIONS

I. INTRODUCTION

Response to the survey. One copy of the questionnaire described in Chapter V was mailed to each Security Police Training Officer and Security Police Training NCOIC (Noncommissioned Officer in Charge) at each of 101 USAF bases (a total of 202 questionnaires) located within the confines of the continental United States (CONUS). Three of these bases advised the researcher that various directives or policies prohibited completion of the surveys. In response to a follow-up letter, another base indicated that the questionnaires had not been received. Duplicate copies of the instrument were not forwarded as it was anticipated that the responses would not be returned in sufficient time to allow incorporation into the data analysis. Presumably, the original surveys were lost either in the mail or in the base's correspondence distribution system. It was also learned that one base included on the mailing list had been deactivated prior to mailing the questionnaires to the field. This left a total of ninety-six bases from which one or more responses could have been anticipated, eighty of which returned one or more completed surveys (83.3 per cent response rate).

Two bases that responded returned one unmarked questionnaire and one survey completed by an NCO; it was indicated that they had no officer assigned as a training officer. Still another base reported that

they had no NCO assigned as a training NCO (?). Eight bases returned two questionnaires, both completed by NCOs. This left a possible total of eighty-six officer replies and ninety-six bases from which one or more NCO responses could have been anticipated (a possible 104 NCO responses).

Fifty-four of the eighty-six officers replied (62.8 per cent); eighty of the 104 NCOs responded (76.9 per cent). Of the possible 190 total replies, 134 were received (70.5 per cent response rate). Seventy-five per cent (n=72) of the ninety-six bases returned one or more questionnaires from NCOs. Forty-five of the eighty-six bases that could have returned both an officer and NCO reply, so responded (52.3 per cent); fifty-three of the ninety-four bases which could have returned two replies, either from an officer and NCO or from two NCOs, so responded (56.4 per cent).

From the foregoing statistics it is apparent that the response rate was sufficient to reflect the general attitudes of the total populations sampled. In view of the pattern of replies, the response rate was even more significant. The nonrespondents would nearly all have had to return identical replies to significantly alter the major conclusions, inferences, and implications developed herein.

Since the survey was intended to sample those junior officers most deeply involved in the training function, as well as those NCOs directly concerned with training, it was decided to use all responses. This resulted in a larger numerical sample of NCOs than officers; this was perceived as acceptable as most bases have more than one NCO directly concerned with the training function but only one officer so involved.

Eight of the fifty-four officer respondents (14.8 per cent) identified themselves as the only officer in their unit; hence, while serving as a training officer, they were also the chief or director of their unit. This was considered as a possible influencing variable on their attitudes and on their responses. However, from the researcher's past experience in a similar position, it seemed likely that these officers would be sufficiently involved with training to reflect attitudes similar to those of other training officers. In addition, all but one of these respondents were identifiable as lieutenants (four) or captains (three), thereby, placing them in the category of a junior officer. As a result, all officer responses were included in the data analysis. A separate analysis of these eight officers was conducted throughout the data evaluation to ascertain significant variances from other junior officer replies, but none were noted.

Format of data presentation. The data developed from the survey was analyzed in six major categories and will be reported upon in this sequence so as to present the findings in a logical, comprehendible manner. These categories included: (1) the general characteristics of the respondents, (2) the attitudes of the respondents pertaining to the over-all Security Police training program, (3) the data relevant to community relations training, (4) the data relevant to community relations programs, (5) the perceptions of the respondents concerning Security Police-community relationships, and (6) the over-all findings and implications of the survey. Within each category, the appropriate variables and correlates listed in Chapter V were considered.

Survey limitations. The method employed in the research possessed inherent limitations: (1) a low proportion of return (influenced by the sponsorship of the survey, the attractiveness of the format, the length of the questionnaire, the nature of the accompanying letter, the ease of completion, and the nature of the people to whom sent); (2) the characteristics of those who do respond, such as the more interested, the more literate, and the more positive sector of the community; and (3) the limited information obtained from prearranged questions.[1] While the high response rate and the pattern of responses partially counterbalanced these normally encountered disadvantages, they should be borne in mind.

Additionally, it is important to emphasize that these evaluations and attitudes arise from a restricted perspective within a limited social system. Hence, the findings should not be construed to reflect attitudes within similar social systems, such as the Army Military Police Corp--nor even the entire USAF Security Police corp. The lower ranking Security Policemen could well possess entirely different attitudes than those expressed by officers and NCOs. Indeed, the attitudes of the training NCOs may not be representative of the entire NCO corp since some degree of selectivity is generally exercised in appointing NCOs to a training function or position.

II. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS

As reflected in Tables I and II, the respondents were assigned to eight major air commands and were grouped into three categories of

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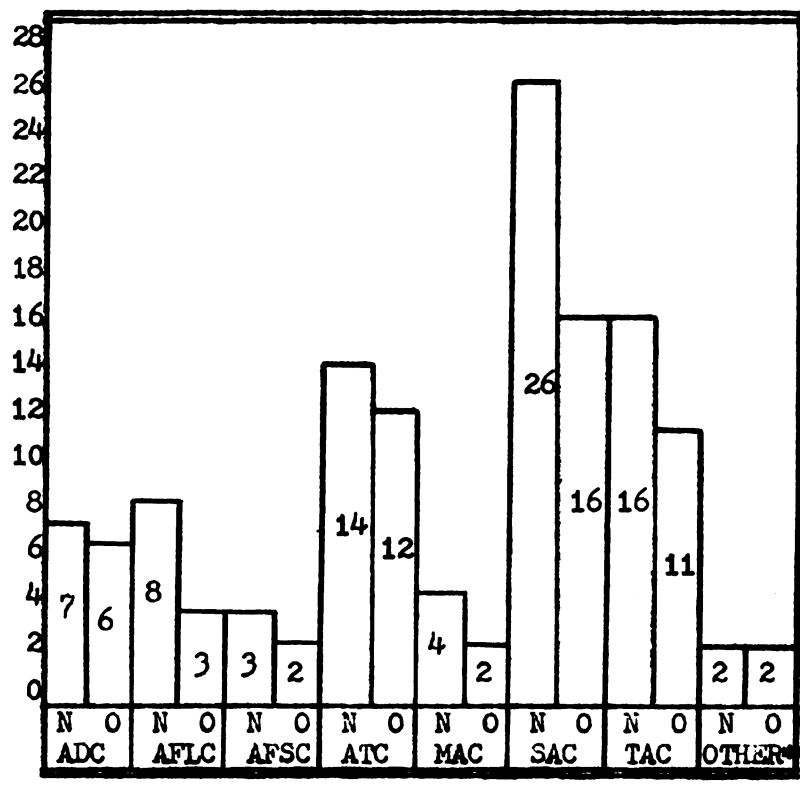
[1]Claire Selltiz, et al., Research Methods in Social Relations (revised one-volume edition; New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Incorporated, 1967), pp. 236-243; and Charles H. Backstrom and Gerald D. Hursh, Survey Research (Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University Press, 1963), pp. 1-10.

previous commands (the list of abbreviations and nomenclature, pages xiii and xiv, reflects all abbreviations employed in this chapter). Headquarters Command replies were limited to one officer and one NCO. Since there was also one unidentifiable officer response and one unidentifiable NCO response, these four replies were grouped and reported as "other" in order to provide the Headquarters Command respondees with anonymity.

TABLE I

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS BY CURRENT COMMAND



*N = NCO; O = Officer

**Includes one NCO and one officer from Hq Cmd and one unidentifiable officer and one unidentifiable NCO

In the grouping by prior command (Table II), the thirty-eight officers reflected under "CONUS/other" included officers on their initial

duty assignment, as well as those who had transferred to their present base from another continental base (either from within their current command or from another continental United States command).

TABLE II

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS BY PREVIOUS COMMAND

	USAFE	PACAF	CONUS/OTHER
NCO	16	39	25
OFF	7	9	38

The twenty-five NCOs grouped under "CONUS/other" included eighteen NCOs who had transferred to their current base from another continental U. S. base, five who had previously been assigned to the Alaskan Air Command (AAC), one from the USAF Security Service (but unstated as to whether the tour of duty was in the United States or abroad), and one NCO who apparently misinterpreted the question and indicated that his last command was "very good." The five Alaskan returnees were judged to be too few statistically to determine any effect an AAC assignment might have had on the respondents' attitudes. Additionally, since AAC is more comparable to a continental U. S. assignment than a European or Asiatic tour of duty, it was felt that the five could properly be grouped with the eighteen for analysis purposes. Similarly, the other two replies were also included in this category since the principle objective of the prior command analysis was to compare the differences, if any, between PACAF, USAFE, and other assignments on the attitudes of respondents.

Sixty per cent (n=48) of the NCOs were stationed at their current base prior to March 1968. Twenty-four of these NCOs (50 per cent) reported a change in their chief and/or director since that date, thereby, leaving only twenty-four NCOs who had served under the chiefs and directors previously surveyed who were still working for the same individual. Nearly sixty-seven per cent (n=36) of the officers were assigned to their present base prior to March 1968; eighteen (50 per cent) indicated a change in their chief and/or director since that time, leaving only eighteen officers who were still serving under the same chiefs and directors as previously surveyed.

Based upon the foregoing, the conclusion was drawn that no contrast could be made between the attitudes of personnel influenced by the chiefs/directors previously surveyed and the attitudes of personnel not so influenced. Only 30 per cent (n=24) of the NCO sample and 33.3 per cent (n=18) of the officer sample could have worked continuously for the same chief or director previously surveyed. The time variable of one year would have had an effect on the attitudes previously determined which could not be statistically calculated. This would have partially invalidated some of the limited comparable sample. Furthermore, the near unanimous perceptions of all respondents concerning their Security Police-community relationships precluded forming any meaningful conclusions from an analysis of such a limited sample.

Only ten of the fifty-four officers (18.5 per cent) and fourteen of the eighty NCOs (17.5 per cent) reflected more time in the service than in the Security Police career field (except for short periods obviously spent in basic training or in basic officer training). The range of officer experience in other than Security Police work was from

seventeen months to 17.7 years (average=6.1 years), while the range of NCO length of duty was from eleven months to 8.2 years (average=3.51 years). The limited number of personnel with non-Security Police military experience, the range of nonpolice length of duty, and the absence of survey questions to determine whether this experience was in a different career field in the Air Force or the result of service in the Army, Navy, or some other branch of the Armed Forces (as well as whether this length of duty was in a police or nonpolice capacity therein), made analysis of the non-Security Police experience variable an impossibility.

Three officers and one NCO reported more experience in the Security Police career field than active duty, thus, leading to the conclusion that they had inactive reserve service. This factor is significant for any future research in the military and/or Security Police. For example, Bailey reported the experience level of chiefs/directors to average 8.8 years and to range from one to twenty-nine years.[2] Yet, his survey failed to consider the reserve time variable which could have significantly altered his findings (the twenty-nine years of experience could have been the result of only seventeen years active duty and--as reported by one officer in this survey--twelve years inactive duty.

Analysis of the respondents' active duty Security Police experience revealed a significant difference in length of duty between chiefs, training officers, and training NCOs. The training officers averaged but 5.13 years active duty Security Police experience, ranging from eight months to 18.42 years. Only seven of the fifty-four respondents

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[2]Charles H. Bailey, "National Survey of United States Air Force Directors/Chiefs of Security Police Attitudes Pertaining to USAF Security Police-Community Relations" (unpublished Master's thesis, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1968), p. 110.

(13 per cent) had over ten years experience; whereas, six (11 per cent) were obviously second lieutenants with less than eighteen months experience. The remaining forty-one officers were primarily first lieutenants and captains with eighteen months to 8.7 years active experience (five could have been majors, lieutenant colonels, or warrant officers by virtue of non-Security Police experience or reserve duty time). Of the eighty NCOs responding, only fourteen (17.5 per cent) had less than ten years Security Police length of duty. The range was from three years to 20.5 years (average=13.95 years).

Only three commands (AFLC, AFSC, and ATC) reported utilizing both civilian and military Security Policemen; the remaining commands indicated the use of only military police personnel. Two bases reported the employment of civilian personnel only, but this was unique even within their command.

The most significant characteristic of the respondents was not ascertained until after all of the survey data had been analyzed. However, this characteristic warrants inclusion in this section of the chapter so as to present it in its proper location, as well as to preclude redundancy and (or) the presentation of meaningless data throughout the remainder of the report. For the lack of a more appropriate term, this characteristic can be labeled as "individuality." Each respondent tended to reply to the survey items as an individual--free of apparent influencing variables (albeit, the limited size of the sample could partially account for the low degree of correlation between variables).

The characteristic of individuality was recognized when analysis of the data failed to reveal statistically significant causal or influential relationships between the eleven independent and nine dependent variables which were correlated and analyzed. Specifically, little or

no consistent trends appeared which were attributable to: (1) the respondents' amount of Security Police experience; (2) the respondents' prior command assignments; (3) the size of the Security Police units; (4) the Security Police units' mission orientation (security or law enforcement); (5) the type of Security Policemen utilized within the Security Police units (civilian, military, or military and civilian combined); (6) the base population; (7) the proximity of nearby civilian communities to the bases; and (8) the population of civilian communities adjacent to the bases. While each of these variables appeared to exert some influences, in no case was a statistically significant correlation observed nor was there a consistent pattern of influence. This characteristic of individuality has two significant implications.

The foremost implication relates to research methodology, both in terms of the instant endeavor and in terms of other military sociological inquiries. In the absence of evidence to the contrary, the researcher concluded that individual Air Force bases must be treated (in research) as individual communities. From this conclusion the hypothesis is made that case studies, limited interviews, and similar research methods would present any researcher with questionable results if an attempt were made to generalize the findings of the research. This conclusion and its hypothesis tend to validate the present research methodology as being more appropriate than had a limited case study been conducted.

A secondary implication of this individuality characteristic relates to the theoretical inferences that may be drawn from the previous conclusion. The nondiscovery of influencing variables in this research suggests that the attitudes reflected in the study have their genesis in the sociological concepts of subcultural association and

interactionism. Acceptance of this hypothesis succinctly tends to support James Q. Wilson's observations that policemen are influenced to a considerable extent by local politics and by the style of the individual police administrator. Subcultural associations and interactions would necessarily encompass influences by the base and command hierarchy (the military equivalent to "local politics"), the style of the individual chief or director of Security Police, as well as the style of the individual Security Policeman or Security Police officer (developed as the result of the sum total of the individual's past experience and background). This explanation also tends to illustrate the systems-like nature of behavior in organizations (discussed in Section 2 of Chapter IV). The human inputs into each organization apparently interacted with the organizational inputs so as to result in individual outputs (see Figure 3, p. 77). In this case, the outputs were attitudes. Although empirical studies are necessary to prove this hypothesis, it serves the immediate purpose of explaining the noncorrelation of variables analyzed within this study. This explanation is necessary as several of the variables would "logically" correlate with specific survey items. As previously indicated, however, this tentative hypothesis must be qualified due to the small size of the sample involved in the research.

Summary and conclusions. From the foregoing the researcher concluded that the chiefs and directors (with an average of 8.8 years length of duty), the training officers (with an average of 5.1 years experience), and the training NCOs (with an average of 14 years length of duty) represented three distinctly different subgroups in the overall Security Police social system. Differing not only in rank level (senior officers, junior officers, and senior NCOs) and in experience,

the subgroups also vary by educational level. The NCOs, for the most part, are limited to high school educations. The junior officers generally possess at least a bachelor's degree, and the chiefs and directors average something less than a college degree (but more than a high school diploma). This variation in educational level, although not measured empirically, exists due to the differences in recruitment policies between officers and NCOs and due to the different policies that have existed through the years. For example, many senior officers were able to obtain a commission at a time when officers were required to possess only a high school diploma; the more junior officers have obtained their commissions subsequent to the requirement for a college degree for commissioning. Similarly, many NCOs entered the service when less than a high school education was necessary for enlistment; many have since attained some college. In general, however, the educational level would relate inversely to experience.

The NCOs responding were responsible for training approximately 14,071 Security Policemen, while the officers were accountable for training about 10,358 Security Policemen. Approximately 16,188 (35.2 per cent of the total Security Police force of 46,000) were influenced by an officer, NCO, or both, responding to this survey. Of this number, about 5,329 (33 per cent) were engaged in law enforcement duties as opposed to security duties; albeit, this fluctuated by command.[3] Nonetheless, the significance of the remaining data is enhanced, in that the attitudes and data expressed herein affect a significant percentage of

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[3]The following percentages of Security Police personnel perform law enforcement duties: (1) ADC-27.8%; (2) AFLC-71%; (3) AFSC-67%; (4) ATC-75.6%; (5) MAC-60%; (6) SAC-15%; (7) TAC-31.3%; and (8) other-33.3%/

the total USAF Security Police social system and in that a significant portion of these personnel are engaged in law enforcement duties.

Due to the noncorrelation of most variables, the remainder of this chapter will present data primarily by command and rank responses. The researcher concluded that such a presentation would convey more meaningful data than if only total responses were indicated. Command and rank were selected for discussion since these variables reflected the most consistent and statistically significant variables. The other variables will be commented upon only where appropriate.

III. ATTITUDES PERTAINING TO THE OVER-ALL TRAINING PROGRAM

Perceived importance of training. The respondents were virtually unanimous in voicing their opinion that extensive and intensive training is essential in developing effective, professional Security Policemen. Only one NCO and one officer from 132 total responses (1.5 per cent) reflected disagreement with item five of the questionnaire. As noted in Table III, both of these individuals were assigned to the same command; combined, they reflected 15.4 per cent (n=2) of the total ADC replies (n=13). Due to their differences in bases, years of experience, and prior command assignments (one from a USAFE base, the other from a CONUS base), no significance was attached to their deviant responses. Both individuals could have marked erroneous replies on their survey instrument. This seemed more likely in the case of the NCO whose responses to adjacent questions were all disagreements with the statements. The pattern of the officer's replies may well have indicated that he perceived only minimal training as necessary for Security Policemen.

Reflecting an intense conviction that training is important in the professional development of Security Policemen, forty-nine (62 per cent) of the NCOs (n=79) and over 75.4 per cent (n=40) of the officers strongly agreed with the statement. Air Training Command personnel appeared to feel strongest about the importance of training. This could be due to the nature of that command's primary mission (which is training). The other commands showed no statistically significant variance.

TABLE III

NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS AGREEING/DISAGREEING THAT TRAINING IS IMPORTANT

	NCOs			OFFICERS		
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree
ADC	5	1	1	4	1	1
AFLC	4	4	0	3	0	0
AFSC	1	2	0	2	0	0
ATC	11	3	0	11	1	0
MAC	2	2	0	1	1	0
*SAC	15	10	0	9	6	0
TAC	10	6	0	9	2	0
OTHER	1	1	0	1	1	0
Total	49 62%	29 36.7%	1 1.3%	40 75.5%	12 22.6%	1 1.9%

*One nonresponding NCO and one nonresponding officer

Since AFLC and AFSC NCOs ranked among those reflecting the least strong attitudes toward the importance of training and because both of these commands also reported the utilization of civilian Security Policemen, it appeared that there might be a correlation between the utilization

of civilian Security Police personnel and the perceived importance of training in the professional development of Security Policemen. All five of the AFLC and AFSC respondents expressing the strongest belief in the importance of training also reported the use of both civilian and military personnel. Of those only agreeing (but not strongly agreeing) with the survey item, two reported the utilization of civilian personnel only, one indicated the use of military only, and three revealed employment of both military and civilian personnel. Hence, no significant correlation existed between attitudes toward training importance and the utilization of civilian Security Policemen. The MAC, SAC, and "other" respondents who also expressed mild agreement did not report the use of civilian guards; no other variable explained their weak response to the item.

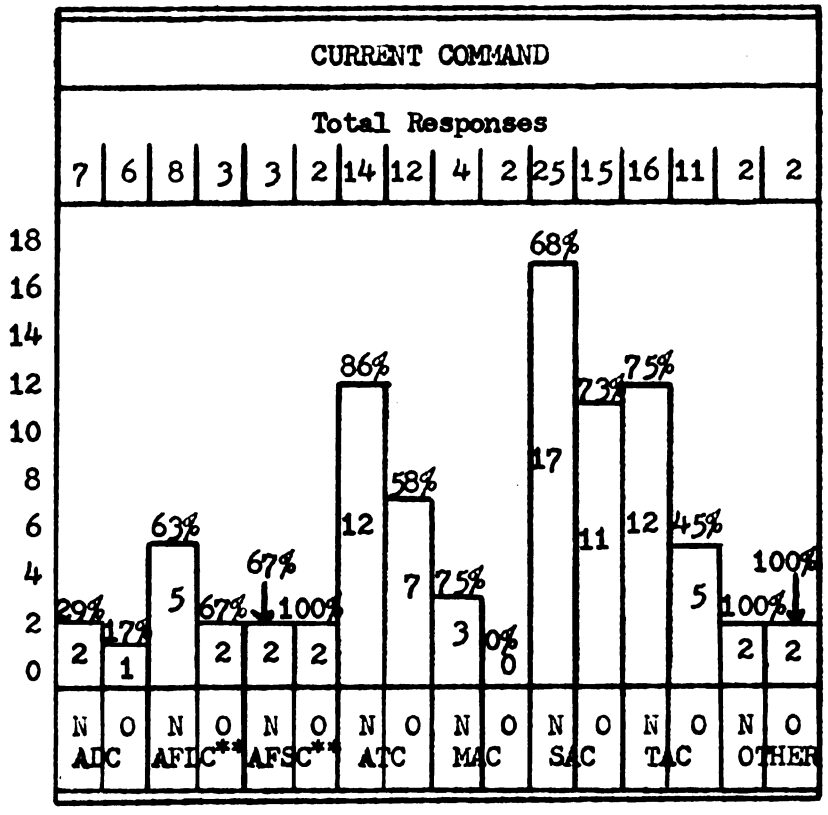
Only about fifty-seven per cent of USAFE returnees strongly agreed with the survey item, thereby, reflecting a possible lack of emphasis within that command on training. The USAFE returnees were distributed throughout the CONUS commands in such a manner as to make any conclusions concerning this influence problematic.

Perceived effectiveness of the training program. Contrary to the researcher's preliminary hypothesis, the majority of the respondents expressed a generally favorable opinion of the current Security Police training program. As reflected in Tables IV and V, nearly 57 per cent (n=30) of the officers (n=53) and nearly 70 per cent (n=55) of the NCOs (n=79) responding to item one of the questionnaire expressed the opinion that the current Security Police training program is generally effective in developing professional, competent Security Policemen. Nonetheless, less than 9 per cent (n=7) of the NCOs and less than 4 per cent (n=2) of

the officers strongly agreed with the questionnaire statement, thereby, reflecting some dissatisfaction with the training program.

TABLE IV

FAVORABLE ATTITUDES TOWARD EFFECTIVENESS OF SECURITY POLICE TRAINING PROGRAM



*N = NCO; O = Officer

**All command respondents disagreeing reported the use of civilian Security Police personnel

By command, the responses ranged from zero to 100 per cent. ADC personnel, as a command, indicated general dissatisfaction with the training program; the other extreme deviations from the average were reflected in commands with statistically insignificant numbers to form valid conclusions. The respondents reporting the utilization of civilians were no less enthusiastic with the effectiveness of the over-all

program (eleven of the seventeen total replies indicating the use of civilians were favorably disposed toward the training program). Similarly, an analysis considering prior command assignment revealed no significant pattern which would influence the responses or over-all impression. The officers, however, did appear to expect more in the training program than the NCOs: six officers strongly disagreed with the survey item, whereas, only two strongly agreed; of the NCOs, seven strongly agreed but only four strongly disagreed.

TABLE V

ATTITUDES TOWARD EFFECTIVENESS OF TRAINING PROGRAM BY PREVIOUS COMMAND ASSIGNMENT

	NCOs		OFFICERS	
	Favorable Attitudes	Total Responses	Favorable Attitudes	Total Responses
OTHER	18 (75%)	24	22 (59.5%)	37
USAFE	10 (62.5%)	16	4 (57.1%)	7
PACAF	27 (69.2%)	39	4 (44.4%)	9

From the analysis of this item the conclusion was drawn that a majority of NCOs and officers are favorably disposed toward the training program, but most of those so disposed perceive some weaknesses. With over 91 per cent (n=71) of the NCOs (n=78) and over 96 per cent (n=50) of the officers (n=52) who had indicated favorable attitudes toward the program expressing some dissatisfaction and with over 31 per cent of the NCOs and over 43 per cent of the officers generally dissatisfied, the obvious conclusion to be made is that there are some perceived weaknesses in the over-all program.

So long as there is significant reservation concerning the effectiveness of the training program, it behooves Hq USAF to seriously study the problem in an effort to improve upon or to eliminate those undesirable features of training, particularly if any effort to enhance community relations is entertained. It is generally assumed that a favorable community relationship is founded upon professional service, which can only be attained through professional training.

The foregoing conclusion was substantiated by analysis of the replies to item twenty-two of the survey instrument. Thirty of the fifty-four responding officers (55.5 per cent) perceived some or a lot of their training time as being spent in teaching material that seemed unimportant. Thirty-six of the eighty responding NCOs (45 per cent) shared this opinion.

As reflected in Table VI, there was no statistically significant variance by current command or by prior command assignments. Similarly, the utilization of civilians, the length of service, and other variables appeared to be negligible influencing factors. However, there was little or no direct relationship between attitudes generally favorable toward the over-all training program and perceptions concerning wasted teaching efforts. Of the fifty-three officer respondents, twenty-eight (52.8 per cent) reflected agreement (but not strong agreement) with item one of the survey. This compared with thirty officers (55.5 per cent of the replies) who indicated that they spent some or a lot of their training time teaching material they perceived of as unimportant. On the other hand, only fifteen of the twenty-eight (53.6 per cent) showed a relationship.

Of the seventy-nine NCOs responding, forty-eight (60.8 per cent) reflected agreement (but not strong agreement) that the training program

TABLE VI

PERCEPTIONS OF WASTED TRAINING TIME

		A Lot	Some	A Little	Almost None
CURRENT COMMAND					
NCO	ADC	2	1	1	3
	AFLC	2	2	2	2
	AFSC	0	0	0	3
	ATC	1	7	2	4
	MAC	1	1	1	1
	SAC	6	4	9	7
	TAC	2	7	2	5
	OTHER	0	0	1	1
OFF	ADC	1	2	2	1
	AFLC	0	1	2	0
	AFSC	0	2	0	0
	ATC	2	3	2	5
	MAC	0	0	1	1
	SAC	3	7	2	4
	TAC	1	7	3	0
	OTHER	0	1	0	1
PRIOR COMMAND					
NCO	OTHER	3	9	7	6
	PACAF	7	12	6	14
	USAFE	4	1	5	6
OFF	OTHER	6	17	8	7
	PACAF	1	4	2	2
	USAFE	0	2	2	3
TOTAL	NCO	14 17.5%	22 27.5%	18 22.5%	26 32.5%
	OFF	7 13.0%	23 42.6%	12 22.2%	12 22.2%

is generally effective. On the other hand, only nineteen of the forty-eight (39.6 per cent) showed a direct relationship with wasted teaching effort.

This lack of relationship between wasted instruction and general satisfaction with the over-all training program led to three possible hypotheses: (1) training concentrates on perceived important subject matter in spite of what is officially prescribed, (2) perceived inadequacies in the training program are due to quantitative rather than qualitative reasons, and (3) dissatisfaction with the program resides primarily in the technical school or in the career development course as opposed to the unit training programs. Separate analyses considering the amount of Security Police experience, the size and mission of the unit, and the utilization of civilian versus military personnel revealed no statistically significant variation in the patterns thus formed. The two primary conclusions derived from the analysis of these items were: (1) status (enlisted versus officer) is a more significant variable than experience in attitudes toward the importance and effectiveness of training, and (2) the other variables considered did not have a significant effect on the individual attitudes.

Perceived state of training. Reacting to item twenty-one, over 60 per cent ($n=47$) of the seventy-eight NCO respondents and over 46 per cent ($n=25$) of the fifty-four officer respondents voiced the opinion that, in general, the Security Police are trained very well (see Table VII). More important, however, a significant minority of both the NCOs (33 per cent) and the officers (44 per cent) expressed the belief that the Security Police are either trained poorly or not so well. Additionally, the conclusion was drawn that the NCOs, who had indicated greater

TABLE VII

PERCEPTIONS OF HOW WELL SECURITY POLICEMEN ARE TRAINED

		Very Well	Not So Well	Poorly	Undecided
CURRENT COMMAND					
NCO	ADC	1	4	2	0
	AFLC	3	3	0	1
	AFSC	2	1	0	0
	ATC	9	3	0	2
	MAC	4	0	0	0
	SAC	17	5	1	2
	TAC	9	6	1	0
	OTHER	2	0	0	0
OFF	ADC	1	2	3	0
	AFLC	2	1	0	0
	AFSC	2	0	0	0
	ATC	4	5	1	2
	MAC	1	0	0	1
	SAC	9	5	1	1
	TAC	4	5	1	1
	OTHER	2	0	0	0
PRIOR COMMAND					
NCO	OTHER	14	5	3	3
	PACAF	22	13	0	2
	USAFE	11	4	1	0
OFF	OTHER	16	14	3	5
	PACAF	6	1	2	0
	USAFE	3	3	1	0
TOTAL	NCO	47 60%	22 28%	4 5%	5 6%
	OFF	25 46%	18 33%	6 11%	5 9%

satisfaction with the training program than had the officers, were also less critical of the state of training. The command analysis, though showing considerable variation in attitudes, revealed a significant correlation with command attitudes toward the training program. ADC personnel, who were generally dissatisfied with the training program, also held low opinions of how well Security Policemen are trained. Similarly, the other command responses tended to duplicate the attitudes reflected toward the effectiveness of the training program. Analyses by amount of experience, use of civilians, and Security Police unit characteristics did not reveal significant influencing factors.

The data obtained in response to item six of the survey was designed to ascertain attitudes concerning the scope of Security Police training. Only thirty-one of seventy-nine (39.2 per cent) NCO replies and eighteen of fifty-three (40 per cent) officer responses agreed that most Security Policemen throughout the Air Force are well trained in most facets of Security Police duties. Only one officer and four NCOs strongly agreed with the survey item; one officer and nine NCOs strongly disagreed.

No statistically significant differences were noted by command of current or prior assignment, but again the officers were more critical than the NCOs in their attitudes toward the state of training. Additionally, dissatisfactions were more strongly felt than were satisfactions. Less than 13 per cent (n=7) of the officer replies and slightly more than 26 per cent (n=21) of the NCO responses to items six and twenty-one failed to correlate, thereby, leading to the conclusion that the dissatisfactions expressed toward the state of training were validly expressed criticisms.

Satisfaction with technical school. Since the overwhelming majority of NCOs and officers reflected attitudes recognizing the importance of training, but also revealing a significant amount of dissatisfaction either with the training program or with the state of training, the questionnaire items concerning the basic technical school and the career development course assumed added significance.

Item twenty-three was designed to measure the respondents' perceptions of the adequacy of the basic technical school. As portrayed in Table VIII, the majority of NCOs (70 per cent; n=56) and officers (56 per cent; n=30) perceived the school as being in need of expansion. Only 14 per cent of the NCOs and 13 per cent of the officers rated the school as poor. Nonetheless, the relatively few respondents who reflected complete satisfaction with the school appeared to explain a significant portion of the dissatisfaction expressed toward the over-all training program.

TABLE VIII

PERCEPTIONS OF ADEQUACY OF TECHNICAL SCHOOL

	EXCELLENT	BASICALLY GOOD	FAIR BUT LIMITED TO SECURITY	POOR	OTHER	RESPONSE TOTAL
NCO	4 (5%)	56 (70%)	3 (4%)	11 (14%)	6 (8%)	80
OFF	1 (2%)	30 (56%)	8 (15%)	7 (13%)	8 (15%)	54

Although a majority of the NCOs and officers rated the school as basically good and in spite of a lack of correlation in attitudes with command assignment, length of Security Police experience, and the utilization of civilian guards or policemen, significant information was

derived from the unsolicited comments of twelve officers and thirteen NCOs. These respondents offered statements on their questionnaires which reflected dissatisfactions with the school other than its brevity. The comments from SAC personnel tended to project a concern in terms of that command's primary mission: a need for more training in security duties, coverage of missile security functions, and more coverage in accord with the doctrine of SAC (As one NCO noted, the school is "not compatible with SAC."). From his personal acquaintance with the school, one officer claimed that he was "convinced that its instructors are the scum of the Air Force wallowing in their own incompetence." An NCO also shared this opinion, but used less vivid terminology. The opinion was expressed by three other individuals that all Security Policemen should attend the school rather than only 50 per cent. It was suggested by one officer that the Air Force revert to utilizing the Army Military Police School. Several respondents expressed the belief that the school should not be expanded since the uniqueness of command missions dictates extensive unit training, regardless of what is taught in school. Finally, four individuals felt that the school needed to provide more realistic and practical training and less classroom instruction, while four others reiterated the belief that the best improvement would be an expansion.

From the above it was concluded that the USAF Security Police recruit school suffers from the same criticisms levied by the Crime Commission and other literature toward civilian police recruit training (i.e., training is too brief, instructors are incompetent, obsolete teaching methodology is employed, and irrelevant subject matter is taught).

Attitudes concerning the CDC. A majority of the NCOs and officers responding to item two of the questionnaire agreed that the current Security Police career development course is generally adequate in developing professional, effective Security Policemen. No statistically significant deviation was noted by command; although once more, the officers were more critical than the NCOs (see Tables IX and X). Additionally, the extreme expressions of dissatisfaction were more prevalent than were extreme expressions of satisfaction (five NCOs and officers strongly agreed with the survey statement; nine strongly disagreed).

TABLE IX

PERCEPTIONS OF ADEQUACY OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT COURSE

	GENERALLY ADEQUATE	TOTAL RESPONSES
NCO	48 (61%)	79
OFF	28 (53%)	53

The data reflected in Table IX was strongly supported by the responses to item twenty-four (see Table X). Although only a small percentage perceived the course as being excellent, 66 per cent (n=52) of the NCOs and 55 per cent (n=29) of the officers concurred with the item option that the course is "basically good but needs to be expanded."

The seventeen opinions written in response to item twenty-four closely correlated with the opinions included for question two; specifically, the course: (1) contains obsolete material, (2) does not explain the material, (3) lacks positive control over examinations, (4) needs to treat security duties in more depth, (5) should be developed as a study

text rather than a mere reproduction of manuals, and (6) does not cover the entire specialty.

TABLE X

PERCEPTIONS OF ADEQUACY OF CDC--QUESTION 24

		EXCELLENT	GOOD	GOOD FOR SECURITY	POOR	WASTE	OTHER
ADC	NCO	0	5	0	1	1	0
	OFF	0	4	1	1	0	0
AFLC	NCO	1	7	0	0	0	0
	OFF	1	0	1	1	0	0
AFSC	NCO	1	0	0	1	0	1
	OFF	0	2	0	0	0	0
ATC	NCO	0	9	1	1	2	1
	OFF	0	6	4	0	1	0
MAC	NCO	0	4	0	0	0	0
	OFF	0	1	0	1	0	0
SAC	NCO	0	19	2	0	3	2
	OFF	1	10	0	1	1	3
TAC	NCO	1	7	2	2	2	1
	OFF	1	4	4	0	0	2
OTHER	NCO	1	1	0	0	0	0
	OFF	0	2	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	NCO	4 5%	52 66%	5 6%	5 6%	8 10%	5 6%
	OFF	3 6%	29 55%	10 19%	4 8%	2 4%	5 9%

Exhibiting a desire to enhance the professional development of Security Policemen, forty of fifty-two officers (77 per cent) and sixty-five of seventy-nine NCOs (82 per cent) responding to item four agreed that they would favor a greatly expanded version of the career development

course. Thirty-one of the sixty-five agreeing NCOs (48 per cent) and eleven of the forty agreeing officers (28 per cent) expressed strong agreement; one NCO and two officers strongly disagreed. The only group which reflected a significant deviation from the over-all norm was the ADC NCOs (four of seven disagreed with the survey item). It was perceived that the size of the Security Police unit, the unit's primary mission (law enforcement versus security), and the use of civilian personnel might be influencing variables on the replies. However, these factors proved irrelevant.

This overwhelming agreement that the CDC should be revised and expanded further explained a significant portion of the dissatisfaction expressed toward the over-all training program and enhanced the importance of item three. Since the personnel reflected a desire to revise the course, this would, in and of itself, tend to increase their receptivity to the idea of adopting a programmed text. Conversely, since they were interested in improving the course, they would also tend to critically evaluate any proposed change.

Table XI reflects the respondents' receptivity to the conversion of the correspondence course to programmed texts. As illustrated, fifty-six per cent (n=73) of the total respondents (n=131), replying to question three, voiced approval of the suggestion. Only 36 per cent (n=47) disapproved of such action. The remainder (n=11; 8 per cent) did not know or did not voice an opinion.

As can be seen, the officers were somewhat more receptive to the idea of a programmed correspondence course than were the NCOs. Command assignment did not significantly influence the responses although SAC and AFSC NCOs showed a greater inclination than the over-all average and TAC

NCOs were predominantly negative toward the idea. However, the responses from the officers did not mirror this pattern.

TABLE XI

RECEPTIVITY TO PROGRAMMED COURSE MATERIAL

	APPROVED	DISAPPROVED	UNKNOWN
NCO	43 (54%)	31 (39%)	5 (6%)
OFF	30 (58%)	16 (31%)	6 (12%)

Summary and conclusions. The data analyzed within this section has revealed that command assignments are not a statistically significant variable on attitudes pertaining to Security Police training. The use of civilian Security Policemen, length of Security Police experience, and characteristics of the Security Police units also appeared to be generally irrelevant variables. The most significant variable exhibited was in the difference in attitudes of officers versus the attitudes of NCOs. Officers tended to expect a better training program than the NCOs. Similarly, the officers displayed less satisfaction with the existing state of training than the NCOs.

Both the officers and NCOs seemed basically satisfied with the technical school and with the correspondence course but desired improvements in both (in terms of more relevant material, more material, and better instructional methodology). In the case of the CDC, there is significant receptivity to converting the course to a programmed text as advocated by Mathias (see Chapter II, pp. 47-48).

IV. COMMUNITY RELATIONS TRAINING DATA

Nearly 92 per cent (n=122) of the 133 respondents to item eight reported that they emphasize good community relations throughout their training programs. As indicated in Table XII, the range of command replies varied from 67 per cent (AFLC officers) to 100 per cent. Interestingly, the data reflected by AFLC personnel, a command employing civilian policemen, directly refuted the researcher's original hypothesis that bases utilizing civilian guards would reveal more concern with community relations than those bases utilizing only military personnel. Those bases not emphasizing community relations were not explainable by any variable analyzed: primary mission, size of Security Police unit, base population, or proximity to adjacent civilian communities. Administrative style (see Chapter II, pp. 26-27) appeared to be a possible explanation for the lack of emphasis.

On the other hand, in reply to item nine only 23 per cent (n=30) of the respondents (n-133) claimed that they conduct specialized classes in community relations (see Table XIII). Contrary to the researcher's original hypothesis, former USAFE personnel were not a significant number of those respondents conducting specialized courses emphasizing effecting good community relations. Once again, the only variable explaining the presence of specialized classes in some units and the absence of such classes in other units was that of the style of the individual administrator (or "local politics"). Primary mission, base population, proximity to adjacent civilian communities, and size of Security Police unit were noninfluential variables.

All of those respondents not emphasizing community relations throughout training (n=11), also indicated that they do not conduct

TABLE XII

RESPONDENTS EMPHASIZING COMMUNITY RELATIONS THROUGHOUT TRAINING PROGRAM

COMMAND AND STATUS		YES*	NO
ADC	NCO	7	0
	OFF	6	0
AFLC	NCO	6 (75%)	2
	OFF	2 (67%)	1
AFSC	NCO	3	0
	OFF	2	0
ATC	NCO	14	0
	OFF	12	0
MAC	NCO	3 (75%)	1
	OFF	2	0
SAC	NCO	23 (92%)	2
	OFF	16	0
TAC	NCO	13 (81%)	3
	OFF	9 (82%)	2
OTHER	NCO	2	0
	OFF	2	0

*100% except as indicated

TABLE XIII

RESPONDENTS CONDUCTING SPECIAL CLASSES IN COMMUNITY RELATIONS

COMMAND AND STATUS		YES	NO
ADC	NCO	1 (14%)	6
	OFF	1 (17%)	5
AFLC	NCO	2 (25%)	6
	OFF	0 (0%)	3
AFSC	NCO	1 (33%)	2
	OFF	1 (50%)	1
ATC	NCO	2 (14%)	12
	OFF	4 (33%)	8
MAC	NCO	2 (50%)	2
	OFF	0 (0%)	2
SAC	NCO	4 (16%)	21
	OFF	2 (13%)	14
TAC	NCO	4 (25%)	12
	OFF	4 (36%)	7
OTHER	NCO	1 (50%)	1
	OFF	1 (50%)	1

specialized training classes in community relations. Those respondents conducting specialized classes (n=30), all claimed to also emphasize community relations throughout training, thereby, revealing a nearly perfect statistical association. This led to the conclusion that the mere presence of specialized classes in community relations will influence the emphasis given community relations throughout the entire training program.

As Table XIV depicts, 57 per cent (thirty-one out of fifty-four) of the officers and 63 per cent (fifty of seventy-nine) of the NCOs (61 per cent combined) expressed a need for material in their training programs concerning police-community relations.

TABLE XIV

PERCEIVED NEED FOR ADDITIONAL
COMMUNITY RELATIONS TRAINING MATERIAL

COMMAND AND STATUS		YES	NO
ADC	NCO	6	1
	OFF	3	3
AFLC	NCO	6	2
	OFF	2	1
AFSC	NCO	2	1
	OFF	2	0
ATC	NCO	7	7
	OFF	7	5
MAC	NCO	2	2
	OFF	2	0
SAC	NCO	12	13
	OFF	7	9
TAC	NCO	14	2
	OFF	7	4
OTHER	NCO	1	1
	OFF	1	1

As noted, however, the command range in response to item ten was great. Sac, for example, had less than 50 per cent of its officers and

NCOs express a requirement for such material; conversely, 78 per cent of the TAC respondents perceived such a need. There were two possible hypotheses derivable from this data: (1) SAC, by virtue of its predominantly security mission, is unconcerned with training its personnel in community relations; whereas, TAC, with a significant portion of its personnel engaged in law enforcement duties, is concerned with providing such training; or (2) SAC has developed its own training material, whereas, TAC has not. In either case, the obvious conclusion is that Hq USAF has failed to provide the field with adequate training material in community relations subjects.

This conclusion is supported by the data presented in Table XV, wherein the respondents, in replying to item eleven, indicated subject matter taught in their training programs.

TABLE XV

RESPONDENTS PROVIDING INSTRUCTION IN VARIOUS SUBJECTS

	SUBJECT	NUMBER	PER CENT
* 1	Individual human behavior	69	51**
2	Interpersonal relations	41	31
3	Human relations	68	51**
4	Semantics for Security Policemen	50	37
5	Police-minority group relationships	35	26
6	Civil rights	55	41
7	The socializing process	11	8
8	The American culture	11	8
9	Public relations	82	61**
10	English usage	40	30
11	Security Police appearance, bearing, behavior, and ethics	131	98***
12	Handling of disorderly conduct cases	118	88***
13	Handling of domestic complaints	111	83***

*Numbers utilized in lieu of subject title in Table XVI
**Reflects subjects taught by over 50% of respondents
***Reflects subjects taught by over 80% of respondents

As depicted in Tables XV and XVI, 98 per cent of the respondents indicated devoting some amount of training to Security Police appearance, behavior, and ethics, thereby, reflecting a concern with the Security Police image.

Instruction in public relations was conducted by eighty-two respondents (61 per cent), while 51 per cent (n=68) offered training in human relations. Yet, a significantly fewer number reflected the conduct of training in areas which enhance public or human relations--such as police semantics, English usage, intergroup relationships, and interpersonal relations. From this analysis it appeared that Security Policemen are not equipped through training to enhance their relationships with their communities, especially the minority group members thereof. Although not determined empirically, it can also be presumed that Security Policemen are not equipped through academic education to enhance these relationships since little or no selectivity is exercised in recruiting personnel into the Security Police corp.

Replying to a separate open-ended item, nine respondents (four officers and five NCOs) indicated subject matter, other than the thirteen areas listed in Table XV, taught by them which they perceived of as influencing community relations: (1) disaster action, (2) civil disturbance, (3) riot control, (4) psychology, (5) use of drugs/narcotics, (6) honors and ceremonies, and (7) jurisdiction. One officer pointed out that "there are a number of subjects which could be taught and that would be a worthwhile endeavor; however, there is not enough <u>time</u> to accomplish the mission and proficiency training other than cutting into off-duty time."

TABLE XVI

COMMAND RESPONSES INDICATING INSTRUCTION IN THE VARIOUS SUBJECT MATTER REPORTED IN TABLE XV

	ADC		AFLC		AFSC		ATC		MAC		SAC		TAC		OTHER	
	NCO	OFF	NCO	OFF	NCO	OFF	NCO	OFF	NCO	OFF	NCO	OFF	NCO	OFF	NCO	OFF
*1	3	0	5	1	2	2	8	8	3	0	13	8	8	5	2	1
2	2	0	0	0	0	1	7	8	3	0	6	7	1	3	2	1
3	4	2	5	1	2	2	9	9	2	0	11	8	4	5	2	2
4	2	1	2	2	3	1	5	4	3	0	9	7	6	4	1	0
5	1	2	2	1	1	1	4	2	2	0	7	4	3	3	1	1
6	1	1	3	1	2	2	7	9	2	0	8	5	7	3	2	2
7	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	2	1	1	1	1	0
8	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	2	0	2	0	2	2	1	0
9	5	3	5	3	3	2	10	9	4	0	10	13	4	7	2	2
10	2	2	2	1	3	1	1	6	2	0	5	5	3	3	2	2
11	7	6	8	3	3	2	13	11	4	2	25	16	16	11	2	2
12	7	6	7	2	3	2	13	10	3	1	21	15	14	10	2	2
13	6	6	5	1	3	2	13	11	3	1	21	15	11	9	2	2

*Subject numbers refer to topics listed in Table XV.

Summary and conclusions. From this data the conclusion was drawn that training in community relations subject matter is limited within the USAF Security Police. The majority of such training is devoted to public relations, not community relations. This finding implies that Security Policemen are not equipped through training to enhance their contacts with the publics they serve. This conclusion is similar to the findings of Bayley and Mendelsohn (see Chapter II, p. 37) and of the Kerner Commission which reported that civilian police are not equipped by training or education to cope with citizen contacts, particularly with minority group members, and that most community relations efforts are, in reality, public relations rather than community relations efforts.

V. COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROGRAMS DATA

Previous research revealed that over 72 per cent of the Security Police chiefs and directors had conducted community projects during the preceding year.[4] However, no attempt was made in that research endeavor to ascertain the nature or extent of those undertakings. The present study attempted to develop a list of current projects (which can be presumed as indicative of the previous undertakings, thereby, validating the implications of the earlier finding) and to determine the extent of community relations programs within the Air Force.

Forty-six per cent (n=36) of seventy-nine NCOs and 58 per cent (n=31) of fifty-three officers claimed a moderate as opposed to a vigorous program aimed at improving community relations. Of 132 total replies to item eighteen, ninety-seven (73 per cent) indicated either a moderate or vigorous program as depicted in Table XVII. Former USAFE NCOs tended to reflect extreme feelings (i.e., they perceived either an absence of or a moderate community relations program); however, this belief was not shared by former USAFE officers. No other differences were noted in the analysis by prior command. The utilization or nonutilization of civilians appeared irrelevant, as did base population, proximity and population of adjacent communities, size of Security Police unit, and primary mission. Once more the researcher deduced that administrative style was the most probable influencing variable.

The respondents were also requested to specify any projects or drives initiated in the past year to help or improve the military or civilian communities or parts thereof. Twenty-seven of fifty-four

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[4] Bailey, op. cit., p. 113.

(50 per cent) officers and forty-four of eighty (55 per cent) NCOs either did not respond to question twenty or else indicated that their units had not conducted any projects. The remaining listed a wide range of activities, some of a community service nature and others primarily designed to enhance the Security Police image. A list of these activities is contained in Appendix D.

TABLE XVII

RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROGRAMS

	VIGOROUS		MODERATE		LITTLE OR NONE	
ADC	1	3	4	2	2	1
AFLC	0	0	3	2	5	1
AFSC	1	1	1	1	1	0
ATC	4	3	7	7	3	1
MAC	0	0	4	1	0	1
SAC	10	4	10	9	5	3
TAC	2	1	6	8	8	2
OTHER	0	0	1	1	1	1
	NCO	OFF	NCO	OFF	NCO	OFF

Since approximately one-third of the chiefs and directors expressed a need for Hq USAF guidance in effecting good relations with the communities they serve, a comparative analysis of this perceived need was conducted between the chiefs, junior officers, and NCOs. The results (in response to item seven) are compared in Table XVIII. As can be seen, the training officers tended to share the attitudes previously expressed by chiefs and directors. However, the NCOs failed to show the same concern. Table XIX reflects the number of replies by command.

TABLE XVIII

PERCEIVED NEED FOR USAF GUIDANCE
TO ENHANCE COMMUNITY RELATIONS*

	MILITARY COMMUNITY	CIVILIAN COMMUNITY	POLICE COMMUNITY
CHIEFS	31 (33%)	32 (35%)	28 (30%)
TNG OFF	20 (37%)	16 (30%)	14 (26%)
TNG NCO	11 (14%)	11 (14%)	14 (18%)

*Data for chiefs/directors obtained from Bailey, op. cit., Table XI, p. 122.

TABLE XIX

COMMAND NEED FOR USAF GUIDANCE
TO ENHANCE COMMUNITY RELATIONS

	MILITARY COMMUNITY				CIVILIAN COMMUNITY				POLICE COMMUNITY			
	NO		YES		NO		YES		NO		YES	
ADC	6	5	1	1	6	4	1	2	5	4	2	2
AFLC	4	2	4	1	7	2	1	1	6	2	2	1
AFSC	2	2	1	0	2	1	1	1	3	2	0	0
ATC	14	7	0	5	13	8	1	4	13	8	1	4
MAC	4	1	0	1	3	1	1	1	2	1	2	1
SAC	23	11	1	5	23	14	2	2	23	13	2	3
TAC	12	4	4	7	12	6	4	5	11	8	5	3
OTHER	2	2	0	0	2	2	0	0	2	2	0	0
	NCO	OFF	NCO	OFF	NCO	OFF	NCO	OFF	NCO	OFF	NCO	OFF

Summary and conclusions. The conclusion derived from the data presented herein was that most Security Police units do not, in fact, have a vigorous community relations program. Of those having extensive activities, the efforts tend to be as much public-image oriented as

community relations oriented. This conclusion is in agreement with the findings of the Kerner Commission pertaining to many civilian police agencies. In addition, though officers tend to be concerned with effecting better community relations, this attitude apparently is not equally shared by NCOs.

VI. PERCEPTIONS OF RELATIONS WITH VARIOUS COMMUNITIES

Civilian police. Perceiving an excellent relationship with the civilian police community all but four NCOs and one junior officer failed to disagree with the statement, "My Security Police unit has a poor relationship with the civilian police." This data is enhanced by the fact that only one officer and two NCOs failed to indicate frequent contact with the local police (item fourteen). The absence of frequent police interactionism could be indicative of a poor Security Police-civil police relationship. Further, the lack of such contacts would serve to invalidate the perceived relationships expressed in response to item thirteen.

Supporting the data portrayed in Table XX, only seven out of seventy-seven NCOs (9.1 per cent) and five out of fifty-four officers (9.3 per cent) responding to item 19c expressed the belief that their Security Police unit was regarded by the local police as "not too competent as a law enforcement unit." Nearly 91 per cent (n=70) of the NCOs and over 87 per cent (n=47) of the officers perceived the local police as holding their unit in favorable esteem (see Table XXI). This compared with over 93 per cent of the chiefs who perceived the local police as evaluating their Security Police as being as good or better than the local police.[5]

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[5] Ibid., Table XVIII, p. 128.

TABLE XX

PERCEIVED POOR RELATIONSHIPS WITH THE CIVILIAN POLICE*

COMMAND AND STATUS		STRONGLY DISAGREE/DISAGREE (100% except as indicated)	TOTAL RESPONSES
ADC	NCO	7	7
	OFF	6	6
	CHF	16	16
AFLC	NCO	7 (87.5%)	8
	OFF	2 (66.7%)	3
	CHF	7	7
AFSC	NCO	3	3
	OFF	2	2
	CHF	4	4
ATC	NCO	13 (92.9%)	14
	OFF	12	12
	CHF	15	15
MAC	NCO	4	4
	OFF	2	2
	CHF	6	6
SAC	NCO	24 (96.0%)	25
	OFF	16	16
	CHF	25	25
TAC	NCO	13 (92.9%)	14
	OFF	11	11
	CHF	5	5
OTHER	NCO	2	2
	OFF	2	2
	CHF	5	5

*Data for chiefs/directors obtained from Bailey, op. cit., Table VIII, p. 125

Military community. A somewhat less enthusiastic response (but still highly favorable) was received in reply to the questions (15 and 19a) concerning Security Police-military community relations. In every command at least one respondent agreed that his Security Police unit had a highly unsatisfactory relationship with the military community (see Table XXII, p. 145); however, nearly 87 per cent of the respondents perceived their units as being held in favorable esteem by the military community (see Table XXIII, p. 146). The chiefs and directors reflected

TABLE XXI

PERCEIVED ATTITUDES OF LOCAL POLICE
TOWARD SECURITY POLICE

COMMAND AND STATUS		NOT TOO COMPETENT	AS GOOD AS ANY MP UNIT	A GOOD LAW ENFORCEMENT UNIT	HIGHLY COMPETENT	NOT A LAW ENFORCEMENT UNIT
ADC	NCO	0	2	2	3	0
	OFF	1	1	2	2	0
AFLC	NCO	1	1	3	3	0
	OFF	0	1	1	0	1
AFSC	NCO	0	1	1	1	0
	OFF	0	0	2	0	0
ATC	NCO	0	3	9	2	0
	OFF	1	0	6	5	0
MAC	NCO	0	0	2	2	0
	OFF	0	0	1	1	0
SAC	NCO	5	3	10	6	0
	OFF	1	1	6	8	0
TAC	NCO	1	2	10	2	0
	OFF	2	2	3	4	0
OTHER	NCO	0	0	2	0	0
	OFF	0	0	2	0	0

TABLE XXII

PERCEIVED POOR RELATIONSHIPS WITH MILITARY COMMUNITY*

COMMAND AND STATUS		STRONGLY DISAGREE/DISAGREE (100% except as indicated)	TOTAL RESPONSES**
ADC	NCO	7	7
	OFF	6	6
	CHF	14 (87.5%)	16
AFLC	NCO	7 (87.5%)	8
	OFF	1 (33.3%)	3
	CHF	7	7
AFSC	NCO	2 (66.7%)	3
	OFF	2	2
	CHF	3 (75.0%)	4
ATC	NCO	13 (92.9%)	14
	OFF	9 (75.0%)	12
	CHF	15	15
MAC	NCO	4	4
	OFF	2	2
	CHF	4 (80.0%)	5
SAC	NCO	18 (72.0%)	25
	OFF	15 (93.8%)	16
	CHF	26	26
TAC	NCO	12 (75.0%)	16
	OFF	9 (81.8%)	11
	CHF	12 (85.7%)	14
OTHER	NCO	2	2
	OFF	2	2
	CHF	5	5

*Data for chiefs/directors obtained from Bailey, op. cit., Table XIV, p. 125

**Five did not know

TABLE XXIII

PERCEIVED ATTITUDES OF MILITARY COMMUNITY TOWARD SECURITY POLICE*

COMMAND AND STATUS		UNPROFES-SIONAL	NOT TOO COMPETENT	AS GOOD AS ANY SECURITY POLICE UNIT	A GOOD IMPARTIAL LAW ENFORCEMENT UNIT	HIGHLY COMPETENT AND PROFES-SIONAL	NOT A LAW ENFORCE-MENT UNIT	
ADC	N	0	1	3	1	2	0	
	O	0	0	1	3	2	0	
	C	0	4	0	10	0	0	
AFLC	N	0	1	2	1	3	1	
	O	0	0	1	1	0	1	
	C	0	1	0	5	0	0	
AFSC	N	0	0	2	1	0	0	
	O	0	0	0	1	1	0	
	C	0	1	0	3	0	0	
ATC	N	0	0	5	8	1	0	
	O	1	0	2	7	2	0	
	C	0	1	0	11	0	0	
MAC	N	0	0	0	2	2	0	
	O	0	0	0	2	0	0	
	C	0	4	0	2	0	0	
SAC	N	1	2	11	3	8	0	
	O	0	1	6	4	5	0	
	C	0	3	0	20	0	0	
TAC	N	0	2	5	5	4	0	
	O	0	1	5	2	3	0	
	C	0	1	0	10	0	0	
OTHER	N	0	0	0	2	0	0	
	O	0	0	0	2	0	0	
	C	0	0	0	5	0	0	
TOTAL	N	1	6	28	23	20	1	= 78
	O	1	2	15	22	13	1	= 53
	C	0	15	0	66	0	0	= 93

*Data for chiefs/directors obtained from Bailey, op. cit., Table XVI, p. 127; original source also reported twelve individuals noting Security Police unit as "As Good As Other Jobs"

somewhat less favorable perceptions of military community attitudes than the junior officers and NCOs.

Civilian community. An even better relationship was perceived of with the civilian community as reported in Table XXIV. Three NCOs, three training officers, and two chiefs/directors failed to disagree with statement sixteen: "My Security Police unit's relationship with the civilian community is unsatisfactory." In response to item 19b, three NCOs and two junior officers perceived the civilian community as rating the Security Police worse than the local police (see Table XXV).

TABLE XXIV

PERCEIVED RELATIONSHIPS WITH CIVILIAN COMMUNITY*

COMMAND AND STATUS		STRONGLY DISAGREE/DISAGREE (100% except as indicated)	TOTAL RESPONSES
ADC	NCO	7	7
	OFF	6	6
	CHF	16	16
AFLC	NCO	8	8
	OFF	2 (66.7%)	3
	CHF	7	7
AFSC	NCO	3	3
	OFF	2	2
	CHF	3 (75.0%)	4
ATC	NCO	14	14
	OFF	11 (91.7%)	12
	CHF	15	15
MAC	NCO	4	4
	OFF	2	2
	CHF	6	6
SAC	NCO	23 (92.0%)	25
	OFF	16	16
	CHF	26	26
TAC	NCO	15 (93.8%)	16
	OFF	10 (90.9%)	11
	CHF	13 (92.9%)	14
OTHER	NCO	2	2
	OFF	2	2
	CHF	5	5

*Data for chiefs/directors obtained from Bailey, op. cit., Table XV, p. 126

TABLE XXV

PERCEIVED ATTITUDES OF CIVILIAN COMMUNITY TOWARD SECURITY POLICE*

COMMAND AND STATUS		WORSE THAN LOCAL POLICE	AS GOOD AS LOCAL POLICE	BETTER THAN LOCAL POLICE	DIFFERENT FROM AND WORSE THAN LOCAL POLICE	DIFFER FROM BUT AS GOOD OR BETTER THAN LOCAL POLICE
ADC	NCO	0	4	0	0	3
	OFF	1	1	1	0	3
AFLC	NCO	1	3	2	0	1
	OFF	0	0	1	1	1
AFSC	NCO	0	1	0	0	2
	OFF	0	1	1	0	0
ATC	NCO	0	5	1	0	8
	OFF	0	3	2	0	6
MAC	NCO	1	0	0	0	3
	OFF	0	0	0	0	1
SAC	NCO	1	16	2	0	6
	OFF	0	5	2	0	9
TAC	NCO	0	8	3	0	4
	OFF	0	2	3	0	6
OTHER	NCO	0	2	0	0	0
	OFF	0	1	0	0	1
TOTAL	NCO	3	39	8	0	27
	OFF	1	13	10	1	27
CHF/DIR		0	7	0	2	85

*Data for chiefs/directors obtained from Bailey, op. cit., Table XVII, p. 127

Importance of favorable community relations to security mission accomplishment. Item seventeen of the questionnaire was deliberately designed to elicit agreement with the statement that "effective community relations is not as significant to the effective accomplishment of my security mission as it is to the effective accomplishment of the law enforcement mission." As Table XXVI portrays, there was more agreement than disagreement with the statement. More significally, a substantial minority disagreed (over 37 per cent of the NCOs and over 34 per cent of

the officers). Perhaps of most importance, only about 9 per cent (n=7) of the NCOs and 15 per cent (n=8) of the officers strongly agreed. This data revealed that the Security Police are well aware that good community relations play a role in their security mission as well as in their law enforcement mission. It can be presumed that had the survey item been less biased a substantially greater number of personnel would have revealed this awareness.

TABLE XXVI

IMPORTANCE OF GOOD PCR TO SECURITY VS. LAW ENFORCEMENT MISSION ACCOMPLISHMENT

COMMAND AND STATUS		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNKNOWN	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
ADC	NCO	1	4	0	2	0
	OFF	1	2	0	0	3
AFLC	NCO	1	5	0	1	1
	OFF	1	2	0	0	0
AFSC	NCO	1	0	0	1	1
	OFF	0	0	0	2	0
ATC	NCO	1	6	2	3	1
	OFF	2	4	2	1	3
MAC	NCO	0	0	1	2	1
	OFF	1	1	0	0	0
SAC	NCO	2	13	1	7	2
	OFF	1	6	2	2	4
TAC	NCO	1	7	1	4	2
	OFF	2	6	0	2	1
OTHER	NCO	0	1	0	1	0
	OFF	0	2	0	0	0
TOTAL	NCO	7	36	5	21	8
	OFF	8	23	4	7	11

Summary and conclusions. The data analyzed in this section indicated that the Security Police perceive themselves as possessing favorable relationships with (and as being well regarded by) all three of the communities they serve. This tends to validate Bailey's major

conclusion that the Security Police do not feel isolated or alienated from the communities they serve.

The one question pertaining to the importance of good community relations on effective security mission accomplishment provided additional support for the conclusion that the Security Police are concerned with their community relationships.

VII. OVER-ALL FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE SURVEY

The findings and conclusions contained within this chapter (Sections II-VI) have methodological, theoretical, and practical implications for the discipline of sociology, the police administration profession, and the USAF Security Police social system. Additionally, the findings and conclusions derived from analysis of the survey data provided a base for an economic-systems analysis of training and of police-community relations (which illustrates an approach adoptable by police agencies in their efforts to resolve some of their problems).

Methodological and theoretical conclusions. Methodologically and sociologically, the most significant finding was that the military respondents to this survey possessed a characteristic which the researcher has labeled as "individuality." Eleven variables, analyzed in terms of being causal or influencial factors bearing on the dependent variables, failed to establish a significant correlation. Since the independent variables would "logically" correlate with the attitudes expressed in response to the survey, the researcher concluded that military personnel are affected by a multitude of variables explainable only in terms of the concepts of subcultural association and interactionism.

This conclusion subtly suggests that military sociological research methodology of a case study nature will not render data generalizable to either the entire military establishment or to a single component thereof.

Similarly, since the more apparent and "logical" variables failed to reflect significant influences on the attitudes expressed herein, the researcher inferred that other variables, most notably "local politics" and administrative style, as well as the style of the individual, appear to be the more probable influencing factors on the attitudes of the respondents. This inference dictates the need for in-depth empirical study of administrators and "local politics." It is conceivable that the long sought "key" to resolving the police problems of today resides in the evaluation of these factors rather than, as has frequently been assumed, in the study of lower echelon police behavior. The implication, however, must be qualified. Since the size of the Security Police units responding to this survey ranged from 25 to 850 personnel and the base populations ranged from 900 to 40,000, the conclusion and inference developed are limited to cities and police departments of the same approximate population. This qualification would specifically exclude the application of this hypothesis to the megalopolises, such as Chicago, New York, etc.

In addition to the above, the instant research added validity to an earlier study concerning military police-community relations. Bailey concluded that the chiefs and directors of Security Police units do not feel that they are alienated from the communities they serve, thereby, refuting any contention that Westley's pariah concept applies equally to civilian police and to the USAF Security Police.[6] However, Bailey also

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[6] Ibid., p. 114.

noted that the attitudes and opinions of other Security Police officers and individual Security Policemen need to be known in order to obtain a true image of the Security Police-community relationship.[7] The results of the immediate exploration into the attitudes of junior officers and NCOs served this latter purpose.

The training officers and training NCOs represent distinctly different subgroups in the USAF Security Police social system from that of the chiefs and directors, in terms of experience, educational level, age, and job perspective. The NCOs, with nearly fourteen years experience (at the operative level in duties similar to patrolmen, detectives, security guards, and first line supervisory positions), reflected differing, but not contradictory, attitudes than the better educated, but less experienced, officers (who fill basically executive positions). Nonetheless, both the NCOs and junior officers affirmed Bailey's findings that the Security Police are maintaining good relations with each of their three communities and that they perceive their units as favorably regarded by all three of the communities they serve.[8] Thus, the instant research, of two different subgroups within the USAF Security Police social system, validated the conclusions formed by Bailey from his study of a third subgroup: (1) the Security Police do not feel isolated or alienated from their communities, and (2) the Security Police perceive themselves as integral parts of the communities they serve.[9]

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[7] Ibid., p. 137.

[8] Bailey's findings contained in ibid., p. 135.

[9] Ibid., pp. 135-136.

Practical findings and implications. That part of the immediate research concerning professional training, community relations training, and community relations programs raised considerable room for speculation as to the validity of these perceived relationships between the Security Police and their communities. It was assumed that good police-community relations, civil or military, are developed and perpetuated through public relations, community service, and community participation. Ergo, the logical conclusion to be drawn is that in the absence of any one of the three legs of the community relations tripod, good police-community relations will be jeopardized. The immediate research concentrated on training, both professional and community relations, and on community relations programs under the assumption that such factors have a direct bearing on the public relations and community service legs of the tripod. This assumption was predicated upon two generally accepted propositions: (1) the foundation upon which good police-community relations rests is professional line service, brought about through recruitment, selection, and training; and (2) how a policeman handles his day-to-day contacts with citizens will, to a large extent, determine the police-community relationship.

Nearly 99 per cent of the officers and NCOs shared the opinion that extensive and intensive training is essential in developing effective, professional Security Policemen, thereby, reflecting agreement with the President's Crime Commission that no person is prepared to perform police work on native ability alone.[10] These individuals, who function

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[10]The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: The Police (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 137.

in a position to best perceive the effectiveness of the over-all Security Police training program, expressed a significant amount of dissatisfaction with the program or parts thereof. Indeed, a significant minority (31 per cent of the NCOs and 43 per cent of the officers) appeared generally discontented with the over-all training program. The dissatisfactions resided primarily in the career development course and in the basic technical school and, to a slight extent, in the unit training portion of the program. The dissatisfactions correlated with the criticisms of civilian police training programs levied by the President's Crime Commission: (1) the instruction bears little relationship to what is expected of the officer on the job, (2) the length of training is generally too brief, and (3) the methods of instruction are inappropriate.[11]

Of the newer instructional methods, at present generally unadopted by civilian police agencies, the Security Police training officers and NCOs expressed general satisfaction with the correspondence course, as well as significant receptivity to converting the course to programmed texts.

Only twenty-three per cent of the respondents conduct specialized classes in community relations, but fifty-nine per cent expressed the need for material of this nature in their training programs, thereby, indicating an awareness of the fact that how policemen handle their day-to-day contacts is important in community relations.

Economic-systems analysis. In terms of an economic-systems approach to training, the foregoing findings have several implications. The process utilized in this analysis is the commitment approach to

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[11] Ibid., pp. 20; 138-141.

development espoused by Robert J. House.[12] Such an approach is designed to change the behavior or performance of individuals and is based upon organizational and participant needs; it provides for teaching methods suitable to the attitudes and learning capabilities of the participants and changes or fits the prevailing organizational climate.[13] The approach is compatible with Freeman's systems approach to law enforcement training,[14] Gammage's concept of job analysis,[15] economic decision making,[16] and a systems analysis of organizational behavior.[17]

The first step in such an approach is the establishment of training objectives; a logical starting point in determining these objectives is to inventory current problems, which can be accomplished through a sampling of employee opinions.[18] This was a purpose of the survey instrument, and the foregoing analysis has revealed perceived problem

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[12]For a full discussion of this approach, see Robert J. House, Management Development: Design, Evaluation and Implementation (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Bureau of Industrial Relations, Graduate School of Business Administration, University of Michigan, 1967), especially pp. 45-64.

[13]Ibid., p. 45.

[14]See Sydney Freeman, "A Systems Approach to Law Enforcement Training," The Police Chief, XXXV (August, 1968), 62-63.

[15]See Allen Z. Gammage, Police Training in the United States (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, Publisher, 1963); also see Thomas M. Frost, A Forward Look in Police Education (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, Publisher, 1959), pp. 39-69.

[16]See Charles J. Hitch and Roland N. McKean, Elements of Defense Economics (National Security Management Series. Washington, D. C.: Industrial College of the Armed Forces, 1967), p. 69.

[17]See John A. Seiler, Systems Analysis in Organizational Behavior (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Incorporated, and the Dorsey Press, 1967), pp. 1-32.

[18]House, op. cit., pp. 48-49.

areas in all segments of the Security Police developmental process: on-the-job training, recruit school, and the career development course.

Each of these problem areas requires a determination of that area's training objective: (1) change knowledge, (2) change attitudes, (3) change skills, or (4) change job performance.[19] As previously indicated (Figure 4, p. 79), each of these broad objectives requires the fulfillment of prescribed conditions if the developmental effort is to succeed. In view of the crucial need to influence the behavior of patrolmen (discussed on pp. 18-29), it would appear that the objective of training should be to change behavior. However, this ultimate goal could be attained in stages. For example, the recruit school and the CDC could have as their objective the mere change of knowledge and the on-the-job training, the change of performance.

In analyzing the data of this survey, it was determined that the respondents desired the expansion of the technical school and the CDC. From this it could be implied that Security Police training officials either: (1) would like to see the technical school and the CDC develop the ability to perform, or (2) they desire these phases of training to impart more knowledge. In terms of an economic analysis, this implies two possible broad alternatives: (1) vastly expand the technical school to produce Security Policemen capable of performing any Security Police task upon assignment to the field, or (2) limit the technical school to training in those tasks all Security Police perform in all commands. Considering the costs involved, as well as the probable return per training dollar, an economic choice would dictate an approach in consonance with the second alternative.

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[19] Ibid., pp. 51-52.

This finding would, logically, lead to an analysis of the role of the CDC in Security Police development. Here again, the CDC, according to House's concept, could only impart knowledge not actual ability to perform. However, since the technical school is not attended by all Security Policemen and because the school, out of a consideration of cost, cannot be expanded to the extent dictated to produce Security Policemen skilled to perform all Security Police tasks, it would appear that the CDC should be vastly expanded to impart all the knowledge a Security Policeman needs in order to perform. This would require an in-depth job analysis as advocated by Frost, Gammage, and Freeman. Nonetheless, a starting point could be the attitudes of personnel in the field. Tables XXVII and XXVIII reflect the respondents perceptions of the importance of eighteen areas or subjects for inclusion in the training program. Three of the subjects are now covered but in limited depth. The other fifteen areas, developed from a synthesis of topics taught in civilian police training programs, deal directly with subjects affecting police-community relations. The respondents expressed a belief that civil rights legislation, civil rights movements, urban development, and Negro history are topics of little value to Security Policemen, thereby, indicating a belief that the Security Police do not experience the serious problems with minority groups and members thereof that civil police encounter. However, several other topics were perceived of as highly important, particularly for bettering community relations: ethics, public relations and courtesy, communication problems between people, controlling prejudice, human relations, and personality and behavior. The respondents also felt a need for an expanded coverage of law enforcement duties.

TABLE XXVII

NCO SUBJECT MATTER EVALUATION

RANK ORDER		HIGHLY IMPORTANT	FAIRLY IMPORTANT	LITTLE VALUE	WASTED EFFORT
1	Police ethics	75	4	1	0
2	Communication problems between people	73	6	1	0
3	Police public relations and courtesy	71	9	0	0
4	Human relations	71	8	1	0
5	Personality and behavior	61	18	0	1
6	More emphasis on law enforcement duties--an expanded coverage	61	17	2	0
7	Human behavior	60	19	1	0
8	Investigative duties	60	18	2	0
9	UCMJ	59	19	2	0
10	Juvenile procedures	57	17	6	0
11	Controlling prejudice	55	19	4	1
12	Handling of drunk and disorderly incidents	52	23	4	0
13	Police-minority group relations	30	28	20	2
14	Social groups--in the community	25	31	17	7
15	Civil rights legislation	19	39	14	8
16	Civil rights movements	16	28	27	9
17	American urban development	15	23	31	11
18	Negro history	8	19	35	18

TABLE XXVIII

OFFICER SUBJECT MATTER EVALUATION

RANK ORDER		HIGHLY IMPORTANT	FAIRLY IMPORTANT	LITTLE VALUE	WASTED EFFORT
1	Police public relations and courtesy	49	5	0	0
2	Police ethics	48	6	0	0
3	Communication problems between people	41	10	2	0
4	Controlling prejudice	41	9	3	1
5	More emphasis on law enforcement duties--an expanded coverage	40	12	2	0
6	Human relations	39	13	1	1
7	UCMJ	38	15	0	1
8	Investigative duties	37	14	3	0
9	Handling of drunk and disorderly incidents	34	17	3	0
10	Personality and behavior	34	13	7	0
11	Human behavior	33	16	3	1
12	Juvenile procedures	29	18	4	3
13	Police-minority group relations	20	17	11	6
14	Social groups--in the community	12	21	18	3
15	Civil rights legislation	12	21	14	6
16	Civil rights movements	9	21	17	7
17	American urban development	5	18	21	10
18	Negro history	2	13	23	16

Bearing in mind the systems analysis of behavior in an organization (pp. 73-78), the USAF Security Police system is but a subsystem of the over-all military establishment. As such, the USAF Security Police corp has constraints placed upon it which influence the human inputs into the Security Police. Apparently, this external environment is such that the Security Police have not developed the serious problems with their communities that some civilian police departments have encountered. Whether this is due to a functional impact of police behavior on the community or whether the community has had a functional impact on the Security Police is a question irrelevant to the concern of this essay. The important consideration is that within the Security Police system the executives and training officials do not perceive the Security Police as having the serious community relations problems found in some civilian police agencies. Yet, they are concerned with developing professional policemen and with enhancing their community relationships. These considerations have ramifications in terms of whether training is necessary and in terms of the methodology to be employed in training.

In subject matter designed to enhance community relations, the use of case method, role playing, or T-Group training would be more effective than a lecture or text (see Appendix B). However, within the causal texture in which the Security Police function, it would appear that inclusion of community relations training would be a more suitable economic decision.

Summary and conclusions. From the foregoing analysis in terms of the economic-systems concept outlined in Chapter IV, the conclusion was drawn that the executive and training functions of the USAF Security Police social system are desirous of improving Security Police community

relations and professional training. Using economic criteria, the most beneficial aspect of the training program for revision and expansion appears to be in the CDC. The respondents to the survey revealed a receptiveness to converting the course to programmed texts and voiced opinions that subject matter such as taught in civilian police academies should be included in the training program.

Conversely, the survey and analysis led to the conclusion that extensive community relations training, such as sensitivity training, is not necessary in the USAF Security Police system.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The changes of the past generation, both within the police profession and within the larger society of which the police are an integral part, have resulted in considerable research and speculation designed to resolve police problems. Two predominant areas of concern have been police-community relations and police training and development. The majority of research in these areas has been limited to municipal police agencies, with little attention directed at their socially significant counterparts within the Armed Forces.

The military police within the Armed Forces perform a function comparable to municipal police agencies. Similarly, the military community, although a relatively closed community, is composed of a cross representation of America, thereby, inheriting many of the attitudes, perceptions, and problems inherent in the larger society. Thus, it was perceived that a study of the military police might reveal information of benefit not only to the Armed Forces but also to civilian police and civilian communities.

I. SUMMARY

This inquiry consisted of a survey and analysis of attitudes within the USAF Security Police social system. The attitudes pertained to interrelated factors, each of which were conceived of as functional

and dysfunctional upon the other: Security Police technical training, community relations training and programs, and Security Police-community relationships. As an exploratory-descriptive study, the research sought to provide an analysis of opinions and attitudes expressed by Security Police training officers and training sergeants relevant to each of the aforementioned factors. The findings and conclusions of the statistical analysis were, in turn, evaluated within the context of a concept conspicuous by its absence from police literature. The ultimate goal of the investigation was to develop hypotheses, to form conclusions, and to determine the implications of the study in terms of methodological, theoretical, and practical applications.

The research had its genesis in recommendations of the President's Crime Commission relevant to police training and police-community relations, as well as in the findings contained within an earlier limited study of Security Police-community relations. This prior survey was of a limited population (chiefs and directors of Security Police) and did not attempt to ascertain causal or influencial factors bearing on the attitudes and opinions ascertained in the research endeavor. Similarly, no attempt was exerted to explore the various factors interrelated with a favorable police-community relationship.

The researcher proposed that a variety of police problems have a common generic nature, explainable only in terms of the sociological and social-psychological concepts of subcultural association and interactionism. These difficulties have resulted in the exacerbating phenomenon of the police being apart <u>from</u>, rather than a part <u>of</u>, the communities they serve. However, these problems have had not only this dysfunctional impact but also a functional impact--the police response to their problems.

The police have reacted to their problems in one or more of a triad of approaches: (1) professionalizing, (2) initiating community relations training, and (3) implementing community relations programs. Unfortunately, none of the approaches has been the desired panacea; each response has generated its own difficulties--a different breed of difficulties than those originally encountered but not less perplexing and frustrating.

Contrary to the most frequently voiced criticism of police training (its brevity), the researcher proposed that most police training endeavors have been unsuccessful due to a failure to isolate, quantify, measure, and study the variables of the process of education and development. The report presented a conceptual scheme within which the survey data was evaluated and a concept which allows police administrators to consider these variables.

Survey findings. Methodologically and sociologically the most significant finding of the survey was that the respondents possessed a characteristic which the researcher has labeled as "individuality." Eleven variables which were perceived as probable influencial factors failed to correlate with the attitudes expressed in response to the survey. This phenomenon, which validated the research methodology employed in the study, appears explainable in terms of the subcultural association and interactionism concepts.

The survey also added validity to an earlier study of USAF Security Police-community relations. Specifically, this report supported two earlier conclusions: (1) the Security Police do not feel isolated or alienated from their communities, and (2) the Security Police perceive themselves as integral parts of the communities they serve.

Representing eight major air commands and over 83 per cent of the Air Force bases located within the confines of the continental United States, the respondents voiced opinions and attitudes of practical significance to the USAF Security Police social system, as well as to the over-all police profession. Virtually 100 per cent of the sample shared the opinion that extensive and intensive training is essential in developing professional policemen. While the majority of the officers and NCOs expressed the belief that the existing Security Police training program is generally effective, over 91 per cent perceived some deficiencies, and a significant minority were generally dissatisfied with the program. This discontentment appeared to reside primarily in the technical school and in the career development course, as opposed to the unit training programs. The perceived inadequacies tended to reflect the same criticisms found in the literature concerning civilian police training programs: (1) the training is too brief, (2) the course material is irrelevant to the job requirements, (3) instructors (at the school) are incompetent, and (4) course material (in the career development course) is obsolete.

Of interest to civilian agencies, however, the respondents reflected a generally favorable view of the mandatory correspondence course but desired the course to be expanded. A majority reacted favorably to revising the course and republishing the volumes as programmed texts. In spite of the proposals of various administrators and educators to adopt programmed texts in police training programs, this is the first attempt to ascertain the receptivity of police practitioners to such an idea. Their opinions are enhanced by the fact that the respondents have past experience in the utilization of correspondence course work, as well as programmed texts.

Although nearly 92 per cent of the respondents indicated that they emphasize effectuating favorable police-community relations throughout their training program, less than a quarter of the sample reported the conducting of special classes designed to equip the individual Security Policeman in his contacts with the public. A majority expressed a need for training material to better their community relationships.

The survey also revealed that the respondents do not perceive their units as pursuing a vigorous program to enhance their community relationships. Even in those units which appear to have vigorous activities, the programs seem to be as much public image oriented as they are community service.

II. CONCLUSIONS

From the data analysis, the foregoing findings, and an economic-systems evaluation, the researcher arrived at his conclusions and recommendations.

Conclusions. The USAF Security Police, as a subsystem within a larger system, have a concern with effecting good community relationships. This research found that the Security Police (of differing rank levels): (1) perceive themselves as well-regarded by the three communities they serve, (2) consider their Security Police units as enjoying good relationships with all three of the communities they serve, (3) are significantly dissatisfied with the over-all Security Police training program, (4) conduct a minimal program in community relations training, and (5) pursue a minimal community relations program. The conclusion to be drawn from these findings is that the Security Police enjoy good community relations in spite of deficiencies in areas generally espoused as

crucial in the development and maintenance of favorable relations. From this conclusion evolve several implications for the over-all police social system, the USAF social system, the USAF Security Police, and society as a whole.

Implications. The first implication to be drawn from the above conclusions is that in the face of deficiencies in training, community relations training, and community relations programs, the perceptions of the respondents concerning their community relationships are invalid. This implication dictates study of the attitudes of civilian police agencies, military communities, and civilian communities so as to ascertain the opinions of these subsystems toward the USAF Security Police. Such a study is necessary to either confirm or refute the finding that the USAF Security Police enjoy generally favorable relationships with the communities they serve.

The second implication of the conclusion formed herein would develop from this necessary additional research. If further study confirmed the finding that the USAF Security Police do, in fact, enjoy a good relationship with the communities they serve, in spite of deficiencies in areas commonly presupposed as crucial to favorable police-community relations, then these presuppositions obviously are not valid in all cases. This implication would substantiate Seiler's analysis of behavior in organizations, particularly the aspect concerning the constraints imposed by the external environment of an organization, and would allow the inference to be drawn that conditions exist within the USAF environment which negate, at least to a large extent, the actions

of the USAF Security Police, active or passive, to enhance their police-community relationships. From such an implication two inferences may be developed.

First of all, the inference can be made that the USAF social system is so unique that the implications developed herein do not extend to any civilian communities or civilian police agencies.

On the other hand, the inference can also be drawn that the USAF social system is not so unique; in which case, conditions in some civilian communities and in some civilian police agencies may be sufficiently similar to preclude significant concern with police-community relations and police professionalism. This inference is in direct opposition to the President's Crime Commission's recommendations that "all officers be thoroughly aware of, and trained in, community relations problems,"[1] and that formal training should consist of a minimum of 400 hours of classroom instruction.[2] However, the inference is in accord with the systems analysis approach. Specifically, the inference would reject any arbitrary determination of minimal hours of police training and of subject matter to be included in such training. Instead, the inference would dictate a systems analysis of the individual police department to determine subject matter for training, as well as an analysis of the departmental environment to ascertain whether or not specific subject matter is not only necessary but whether or not the particular training will be reinforced or extinguished by the environment.

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[1]The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 103.

[2]Ibid., p. 112.

Thus, the instant research, rather than solving problems, has raised questions--which are answerable only through further research. However, a limiting or qualifying comment should be interjected on the implications and inferences developed from this research. The foregoing conclusions and inferences should not be construed to mean that some police agencies need reflect absolutely no concern with professional training and with community relations. The issue raised is not one of all or none, but rather one of degree. Given the nature of today's society and the nature of police work within this society, it appears that every police agency must strive to improve its professional service and must pay heed to enhancing its community relationship. However, the degree of professionalism and the degree of emphasis to be placed on community relations may be subject to considerable fluctuation from department to department.

Recommendations. In spite of the finding that the Security Police perceive themselves as enjoying generally favorable community relationships, the instant research also determined that the training officers and training NCOs desire to improve the over-all Security Police training program and perceive a need for training material designed to better equip the individual Security Policemen in their citizen contacts. Due to the economics involved in greatly expanding the Security Police recruit school, it is recommended that the correspondence course be completely revamped, expanded, and republished (preferably as a programmed course). Prior to revising the course, a complete occupational analysis of the Security Police career field should be conducted to insure that the end-product covers all duties performed by USAF Security Policemen. This job

analysis could also be utilized to revamp the resident technical school where needed.

Subsequent to the publication of the revised CDC, a survey of attitudes similar to the survey reported upon herein should be conducted to ascertain the satisfaction of personnel in the field and further modifications made where appropriate. Such a course would not only benefit the USAF Security Police but could also ultimately serve as a model for the development of professional training texts for civilian police training programs.

Of more pressing need is the requirement for an immediate text on community relations. Therefore, it is recommended that a supplementary volume to the CDC be published to provide all Security Policemen with the knowledge necessary to effectively deal with the publics they serve.

It is also recommended that appropriate civilian agencies, such as the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance, initiate a study to ascertain the feasibility of preparing and administering a correspondence course of instruction for municipal policemen. Since the Security Police have expressed general satisfaction with this method of training, it would appear that such a course might be one means of enhancing municipal police training, particularly in the smaller cities where budgetary limitations preclude lengthy recruit schools. The Office of Law Enforcement Assistance is specifically suggested as an action agency since a study of this nature would require in-depth research to ascertain the receptivity of civilian police departments to requiring such a course and would necessitate an extensive occupational analysis to include subject matter appropriate to all police departments. The International Association of Chiefs of Police is also suggested as an action agency.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

COMPARISON OF PERCEIVED ROLES OF POLICE[1]

The policemen in a small Midwest police department were requested to evaluate the importance of fourteen functions they perform. A sample of the community similarly evaluated the importance of the functions and also evaluated the emphasis apparently rendered to the function by the police department. The final rank orders are reflected in Table XXIX.

TABLE XXIX

PERCEIVED ROLES OF POLICE

FUNCTION NUMBER	POLICE PERCEPTION OF IMPORTANCE OF FUNCTION	PUBLIC PERCEPTION OF IMPORTANCE OF FUNCTION	PUBLIC PERCEPTION OF POLICE EMPHASIS GIVEN FUNCTION
1	14	13	1
2	3	2	4
3	5	12	11
4	12	10	3
5	13	14	5
6	6	6	8
7	2	3	2
8	1	1	7
9	4	5	10
10	9	11	14
11	8	4	6
12	11	7	9
13	7	9	12
14	10	8	13

[1]Obtained from Janyce Harpst and Bertha Lopez, "Survey: The Police Department" (unpublished term paper submitted for a class in social psychology, Siena Heights College, Adrian, Michigan, December, 1968).

APPENDIX B

STUDIES OF SENSITIVITY TRAINING

Culbert compared the effects that a "more," or "less," "self-disclosing" trainer behavior had upon the members of two T-Groups. He concluded that the amount of "self-disclosure" affected trainees. Too much self-disclosure may have keyed off resistances prompting some group members to avoid therapeutic involvement with the trainer; conversely, more self-disclosing trainer participation apparently accelerated ratings of self-awareness.[1] Similar influences of trainers have been noted in other experiments.

Haigh, for example, reported on a critical incident in a two week session and concluded that the disturbing incident became therapeutic because of four factors: (1) the trainer did not yield to the temptation to turn away from the emotional distress; (2) the trainer made a strong quest for meaning in the confused behavior of the crisis; (3) there was warm support and empathy from the group for the crisis member; and (4) there was an identification by several group members with the crisis member's experience.[2]

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[1]Samuel A. Culbert, "Trainer Self-Disclosure and Member Growth in Two T Groups," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, IV (January, 1968), 47-73.

[2]Gerard V. Haigh, "A Personal Growth Crisis in Laboratory Training," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, IV (October, 1968), 437-452.

These two studies indicate that the trainer's behavior has some influence on the effectiveness of T-Group therapy--a phenomenon also reported upon by Psathas and Hardert. These researchers proposed that the differences observed between T-Groups may result from differences in the trainer's ideology and style or from differences in the group's development or concern. They concluded that their study should lead to further analysis of the trainer's role in the T-Group.[3]

Haigh's study also noted the influence of group members in a T-Group, as have other studies. Rubin, for example, conducted an analysis of data by partial correlation. He concluded that the data offered substantial support for the hypothesis that an individual's level of anomy and his changes in self-acceptance during a laboratory training session would have an interactive effect on his level of acceptance of others, with low anomy and high self-acceptance leading to a high acceptance of others.[4]

Harrison and Lubin investigated the differences in interpersonal behavior and in learning, and the effects of training design. They concluded that work-oriented members tend to learn more than person-oriented members and that homogeneous groups do not provide the confrontations needed for optimal learning--additional group influences on the effectiveness of T-Groups. Their conclusions also noted that work-oriented members learn more due to the "cultural shock" of the T-Group.[5]

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[3]George Psathas and Ronald Hardert, "Trainer Interventions and Normative Patterns in the T Group," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, II (April, 1966), 149-169.

[4]Irwin Rubin, "Increased Self-Acceptance: A Means of Reducing Prejudice," Journal of Personnel Social Psychology, V (May, 1967), 233-238.

[5]Roger Harrison and Bernard Lubin, "Personal Style, Group Composition, and Learning, Part I," pp. 286-294; and "Personal Style, Group

Sherwood noted that changes in self-identity were dependent upon the differential importance of various peers for the individual, the extent to which peer perceptions were communicated, and the individual's degree of involvement in the group.[6] This early finding was somewhat similar to Steele's conclusion that to some extent personality or style of behavior influenced the outcome of the training effort.[7] Steele's study was based on the assumption that individuals who have certain relatively stable personality traits would tend to be more responsive to the laboratory training process than other types of individuals.

Having briefly summarized some studies concerning two influencing variables on T-Group effectiveness, some conclusions as to the outcome of such training will be discussed.

Baumgartel and Goldstein reported on an exploratory study of the effects of T-Groups on interpersonal orientations and generalized values. They concluded that highly rated (by peers) women and low rated (by peers) men seemed to show the greatest changes in T-Groups as measured by tests (i.e., some people will change more than others).[8] They also drew the conclusion that sociometric choice has some relevance for predicting which people will change more than others.

Composition, and Learning, Part II," pp. 294-301, The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, I (July, 1965).

[6]J. J. Sherwood, "Self-Identity and Referent Others," Sociometry, XXVIII (March, 1965), 66-81.

[7]Fred I. Steele, "Personality and the 'Laboratory Style'," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, IV (January, 1968), 25.

[8]Howard Baumgartel and Joel W. Goldstein, "Need and Value Shifts in College Training Groups," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, III (January, 1967), 87-101.

Kuriloff noted that in general the T-Group is effective, particularly in raising the ability of participants to communicate effectively at a level substantially higher than before the training.[9] This was supported by Oshry, who concluded that the diagnostic orientations learned about self in relation to the T-Group appear to generalize to learnings about self in relation to work.[10]

There are additional studies all reporting that T-Group training is effective in bringing about changes that directly or indirectly reduce prejudice, enhance communication and other factors benefiting interpersonal relations, and that, to an extent, learning is carried from the laboratory to the job site (i.e., produces behavior change).

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[9]Arthur H. Kuriloff and Stuart Atkins, "T Group for a Work Team," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, II (January, 1966), 63-93.

[10]Barry I. Oshry and Roger Harrison, "Transfer from Here-and-Now to There-and-Then: Changes in Organizational Problem Diagnosis Stemming from T-Group Training," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, II (April, 1966), 185-198.

APPENDIX C

USAF SECURITY POLICE OPINION SURVEY
(Air University Survey Control Number: AU-2)

DIRECTIONS: As a member of the USAF Security Police you are asked to answer the following questions based upon your PERSONAL views irrespective of whatever DOD, USAF, Major Air Command, or local directives and policy that may exist. Please DO NOT SIGN YOUR NAME or the name of your installation. This will afford you with complete anonymity. Directions are contained where appropriate.

FILL IN THE BLANK SPACES

1. The Major Air Command to which I was assigned immediately prior to my present assignment to this installation was _____.

a. (cross out erroneous response) I was assigned to my current installation (prior to) (after) 1 March 1968.

2. I have been in the Security Police (including Air Police) career field for _____ (number) years and _____ (number) months as of 1 April 1969.

3. I have been on active duty in the Air Force or other branch of the Armed Forces for _____ (number) years and _____ (number) months as of 1 April 1969.

4. (check one) I am assigned (as full time duty or as an additional duty) as:

_____ A Security Police Training Officer.
_____ A Security Police Training NCO.
_____ Neither of the above; please explain in a few words: _____

_____

5. The approximate population (military personnel, dependents, and civilian employees) of this installation is _____ (number) thousand.

6. This installation is located approximately _____ (number) miles from the nearest city with a population of 50,000 and approximately _____ (number) miles from the nearest city with a population of over 250,000.

7. There are approximately _____ (number) military and civilian (combined total) Security Policemen assigned to this installation.

8. There are approximately _____ (number) Security Policemen performing a law enforcement function (such as base patrol, town patrol, pass and identification, etc.) as opposed to a security function at this installation.

9. Within the law enforcement function at this installation (check one):
_____ Only military Security Police personnel are used.
_____ Only civilian Security Police personnel are used.
_____ Both military and civilian Security Police personnel are used.
_____ No personnel are employed in a law enforcement function.

10. Since 1 March 1968 (check one):
_____ There has been a new Chief of Security Police assigned to this installation.
_____ There has been a new Director of Security Police assigned to this installation.
_____ There has been both a new chief and new director assigned to this installation.
_____ There has been neither a new chief nor a new director assigned to this installation.

OPINION DIRECTIONS. The remainder of this questionnaire deals with personal opinions concerning Security Police training and education, Security Police professionalism, and Security Police-community relations.

CIRCLE THE NUMBER DIRECTLY BELOW THE CHOICE WHICH BEST ANSWERS THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS

1. I consider the current over-all Security Police Training Program to be generally effective in developing professional, competent Security Policemen.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DO NOT KNOW	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1	2	3	4	5

2. I consider the current Security Police career development course to be generally adequate in developing professional, effective Security Policemen.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DO NOT KNOW	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1	2	3	4	5

3. I would favor the career development course being rewritten into a programmed text such as used in the general military training program.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DO NOT KNOW	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1	2	3	4	5

4. I would favor a greatly expanded version of the career development course which would cover more areas and treat them in greater depth.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DO NOT KNOW	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1	2	3	4	5

5. I consider extensive and intensive training essential in order to develop an effective professional Security Policeman.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DO NOT KNOW	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1	2	3	4	5

6. I consider most Security Policemen throughout the Air Force as well trained in most facets of our job.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DO NOT KNOW	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1	2	3	4	5

7. I feel that Headquarters USAF has sufficient detailed guidance available in current directives to assist me (or require of me) to effect good relations with:

a. The military community (i.e., personnel living in base housing, BOQs, etc.).

YES	NO
1	2

b. The civilian community (i.e., visitors to the installation and/or civilians encountered by town patrols).

YES	NO
1	2

c. The local civilian police.

YES	NO
1	2

8. I emphasize effecting good community relations throughout my training program.

YES	NO
1	2

9. I conduct specialized classes concerning community relations.

YES	NO
1	2

10. I need material added to my training program concerning community relations.

YES	NO
1	2

11. (place an "X" before all appropriate responses) In my unit, class instruction is given in the following areas:

_____ Individual human behavior
_____ Interpersonal relations
_____ Human relations
_____ Semantics for Security Policemen
_____ Police-minority group relationships
_____ Civil rights
_____ The socializing process
_____ The American culture
_____ Public relations
_____ English usage
_____ Security Police appearance, bearing, behavior, and ethics
_____ Handling of disorderly conduct cases
_____ Handling of domestic complaints

12. Are there any other courses or subject matter taught in your unit that you conceive of as pertinent to community relations?

YES	NO
1	2

a. If yes, explain or list briefly _____
b. If possible, please enclose a copy of your training syllabus.

13. My Security Police unit has a poor relationship with the civilian police.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DO NOT KNOW	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1	2	3	4	5

14. My Security Police unit maintains frequent contact with the local police.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DO NOT KNOW	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1	2	3	4	5

15. My Security Police unit's relationship with the military community (personnel living in the housing area, barracks, and BOQ) is highly unsatisfactory.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DO NOT KNOW	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1	2	3	4	5

16. My Security Police unit's relationship with the civilian community (visitors to the installation, civilians encountered by town patrols, etc.) is highly unsatisfactory.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DO NOT KNOW	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1	2	3	4	5

17. In the final analysis, effective community relations is not as significant to the effective accomplishment of my security mission as it is to the effective accomplishment of the law enforcement mission.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DO NOT KNOW	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1	2	3	4	5

18. In my Security Police unit (check one):
_____ There is a vigorous program aimed at improving community relations.
_____ There is a moderate program aimed at improving community relations.
_____ We have little or no program aimed at improving our community relations.

Please explain in a few words _____
_____
_____
_____

19. Place an "X" by the phrase which BEST describes how you feel your Security Police unit is regarded by:

a. The military community
_____ Unprofessional. One of the worst Security Police units in the Air Force.
_____ Not too competent.
_____ As good as any other Security Police unit.
_____ A good and impartial law enforcement unit.
_____ Highly competent and professional.
_____ Not a law enforcement unit.

b. The civilian community
_____ Worse than the local civilian police.
_____ As good as the local civilian police.
_____ Better than the local civilian police.
_____ Different from, but still:
_____ worse _____ as good as _____ better than the local civilian police.

c. The local civilian police
_____ Not too competent as a law enforcement unit.
_____ As good as any other military police unit.
_____ A good law enforcement unit.
_____ Highly competent and professional.
_____ Not a law enforcement unit.

20. During the past year my Security Police unit has initiated the following projects or drives to benefit, help, or improve the military or civilian community or parts thereof _____

21. In general, how well do you think the Security Police are trained?
_____ They are trained very well.
_____ They are trained not so well.
_____ They are trained very poorly.
_____ Undecided.

22. How much of your training time is used in teaching things that do not seem important to you?
_____ A lot of it.
_____ Some of it.
_____ Only a little of it.
_____ Almost none of it.

23. How adequate do you consider the basic Security Police technical school?
_____ Excellent--little room for improvement.
_____ Basically good but needs to be expanded.
_____ Fairly good but limited to only security duties.
_____ Poor--a virtual waste of time.
_____ Some other opinion. Explain _____

24. How adequate do you consider the CDC?
_____ Excellent--little room for improvement.
_____ Basically good but needs to be expanded.
_____ Fairly good for teaching security but not law enforcement.
_____ Poor--it contributes little to the professional performance of Security Policemen.
_____ A waste of time--does little to prepare a man for his job.
_____ Some other opinion. Explain _____

25. IMPORTANCE EVALUATION RATING SCALE. You are asked to place an "X" in the appropriate block below to show how significant you feel each type of subject matter would be in the successful accomplishment of the Security Police mission, the bettering of community relations, or the enhancement of Security Police professionalism.

SUBJECT MATTER	DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE			
	HIGHLY IMPORTANT	FAIRLY IMPORTANT	LITTLE VALUE	WASTED EFFORT
Communication problems between people				
Human relations				
Police public relations and courtesy				
Human behavior				
Controlling prejudice				
American urban development				
Civil rights legislation				
Negro history				
Police-minority group relations				
Police ethics				
Social groups--in the community				
Juvenile procedures				
Handling of drunk and disorderly incidents				
Personality and behavior				
More emphasis on law enforcement duties--an expanded coverage				
Investigative duties				
UCMJ				
Civil rights movements				

APPENDIX D

PROJECTS LISTED BY SECURITY POLICE UNITS TO ENHANCE THEIR COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

1. Provide honor guards for public ceremonies and civic groups.
2. Provide ceremonial support for burials.
3. Attend meetings with civic leaders.
4. Speaker's Bureau (provide speakers on various appropriate topics).
5. Provide safety lectures to school children.
6. Conduct school guard training.
7. Initiated a "Stop Crime Program."
8. Conducted a "Lock Your Car--Prevent Auto Theft" campaign.
9. Conducted a "Use Your Seat Belt" campaign.
10. Conduct "open house" of Security Police facilities.
11. Participation in Armed Forces Day activities.
12. Conducted speed surveys.
13. Active in "Big Brother" program.
14. Active in "Good Neighbor" program.
15. Help train local police.
16. Sponsor and guide school safety program.
17. Sponsor pistol match.
18. Aid various charities, as well as participate in fund drives.
19. Sponsor Explorer Scout program.
20. Assist driver improvement program.

21. Support an orphanage.

22. Sponsor local peace officers' luncheon.

23. Assisted Golden Gloves Tournament.

24. Conducted bicycle safety program.

25. Conduct courtesy patrol.

26. Sponsor a junior deputy program.

27. Hand out Security Police assistance cards.

28. Volunteer for searches for missing persons.

29. Volunteer blood donor program.

30. Sponsor Christmas charity program.

APPENDIX E

NONSIGNIFICANCE OF VARIABLES[1]

Inasmuch as the conclusion was drawn that the independent variables analyzed were largely uninfluencial on the various responses, a few statistics will here be rendered. Since the data calculated for the NCOs closely approximated that of the officer sample, only the latter will be presented. No single variable analyzed achieved the five per cent significance level. The data reflected was selected as being the most obvious influencing variables.

Independent Variable	Survey Item	X^2	5% Significance
Size of Security Police Unit[2] (mdn=155)	1	.94	df=1; 3.84
	2	.04	
	6	.71	
	8	.04	
	9	.09	
	13	.93	
	15	.10	
	16	1.00	
	17	.06	
	18	1.90	
	23	2.34	
Base Population[3]	8	.60	df=3; 7.82
	9	2.64	
	15	1.48	
	18	.19	

[1]Descriptive statistics such as Mean, Median (mdn), and Mode and Chi-square (X^2) associational measure were employed. Discussed in Harold E. Yuker, A Guide to Statistical Calculations (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1958).

[2]Mission orientation and unit size were closely related--large units tending to be security oriented and vice versa.

[3]Grouping: (1) 11 bases, 1,200-8,000; (2) 16 bases, 5,000-9,500;

As is apparent from the foregoing, the data yielded insignificant Chi-squares (with a probability of .90 - .995). Additionally, several F_i's were less than one (in numerous instances more than 20 per cent of the F_i's were less than five), thereby, further invalidating the limited inferences which could be derived from the X^2's. For these reasons it was deemed inappropriate to continuously present insignificant X^2's throughout the body of the thesis, or to present the totality of X^2's in this appendix.

In addition to the above, it should also be noted that the limited numbers involved in the total analysis placed an obvious constraint on the over-all conclusions concerning the noninfluencial effect of the various factors analyzed. Had a larger sample been conducted, it is conceivable that some of the variables might have revealed themselves as influencing factors on the various responses to the survey.

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(3) 16 bases, 10,000-18,000; (4) 9 bases, 20,000-35,000; and (5) 2 bases did not respond.