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Measuring the Impact of Residency Requirements and the Relationship with the Citizens in the Community

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The background of the entire page is a night-time photograph of a city skyline, featuring several illuminated skyscrapers. Overlaid on this image are various digital graphics: glowing white numbers (0-9) scattered throughout, thin white lines connecting different points, and several large, semi-transparent white circles. The overall aesthetic is modern and data-oriented.

Measuring the Impact of Residency Requirements and the Relationship with the Citizens in the Community

A Capstone in Education with a Concentration in Educational Leadership

By Daniel Villa

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Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of Requirements

For the Degree of Doctor of Education

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DePaul University

College of Education

I approve the capstone of Daniel Villa.

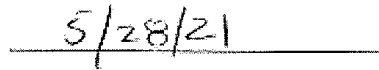


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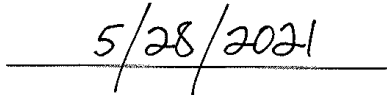


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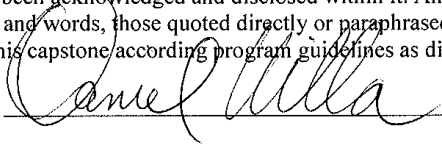
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Certification of Authorship

I certify that I am the sole author of this capstone. Any assistance received in the preparation of this capstone has been acknowledged and disclosed within it. Any sources utilized, including the use of data, ideas and words, those quoted directly or paraphrased, have been cited. I certify that I have prepared this capstone according program guidelines as directed.

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Executive Summary

Community policing is best described as how police departments work together with the community in solving problems. In several major U.S. cities, police departments have changed their residency requirements allowing their officers to reside outside of the municipality in which they are employed. One can assume that officers residing outside the community they serve may not have a high level of engagement in the area in which they work. The current movements to defund police departments led by politicians and members of various communities would imply that residing outside of the municipality in which officer's work would have no impact, or may be preferred. In this study, an emphasis was placed on whether residency requirements can assist in building better relationships with the community and build trust and credibility with the citizens they swore to serve and protect.

For this study, data was collected over a 14 year period from the New York police department, a municipality *without* a police residency requirement as well as the Chicago Police Department, a municipality requiring residency requirements. It was found that police residency had no statistically significant effect on the police department in the Midwest and a statistically significant effect in the police department in the East Coast, as measured by violent crime and citizen complaints.

To better understand residency requirements and the relationship between the community and policing, this study utilized credible research to help explain the relationship between police officers and citizens in the community. Our objective was to learn about the history of residency requirements and how it has changed, if at all. Our research also sought to determine if residency requirements had any impact on the relationship between a police department and the community. The study also highlights several successful practices used by police agencies to solve community problems.

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Introduction

Problem Statement

Little attention has been directed towards the implementation of requirements for officer residency during the community policing era. In fact, communities who had police living in the same community in which they served were not deemed as an essential, or even an integral element of community policing. This is important when considering the “residency requirements have been justified by governments imposing them as desirable because they increase employees’ rapport with, and understanding of, the community” (Swanson 1993, p. 428).

Residency requirements for police and other municipal employees were considerably more common in American cities, however, are becoming increasingly rare in the wake of policy changes and court challenges. More and more municipalities are granting changes in their residency requirements with limitations; yet, the City of Chicago, for example, is opposed and has fought very hard to keep their municipal residency requirements in place. Very few studies of the issue have been conducted in decades and there is a pressing need for discussion as to the impact of police residency policies on the effectiveness of relationship building between the police and the communities they serve.

Government, unions, reformers and researchers struggled with the question of residency requirements for more than a century. There is virtually no empirical research that has been done on the topic. Government and police administrators who desire to evaluate residency issues do so in a vacuum, lacking valid evidence for what is most favorable. Many decisions are made tied to political clout and personal influence. If police responsiveness to quality-of-life issues is indeed important, as community policing theory argues (Skogan, 1996), then residency should have some impact on the interaction between the police and their individual community (Murphy & Worrall, 1999). A large number of police agencies initially adopted the community policing format as part of community relations (Wilson, 2006).

Purpose Statement

This paper will focus on the influence of police residency requirements and the material effect on the relationships between police officers and citizens. There has been little empirical research into the relationship between the police and the community with or without residency requirements when measuring violent crime and citizen complaints. The goal of this work is to determine if there is measurable impact from these requirements.

I begin by reviewing the literature on the history of police residency, and define key terms, such as the use of force, legitimacy, implicit bias, and procedural justice. I will also review the community relationships between the police and citizens as neighbors. As this study uses

available literature as its starting point, it will continue by examining police residency requirements and the impact of municipal law on the relationship with the community by the Chicago Police Department.

Role of Researcher

As a resident of the City of Chicago since 1971, my life experience enables a unique understanding of living in different city neighborhoods and how important it is to have police officers reside within the city boundaries in which they work. I was born and raised in the North Lawndale community until I was 11, which was, and is currently a predominantly African American and Hispanic neighborhood filled with poverty and street gang violence. The only time I observed a police officer, is when they were responding to gunfire, gang altercations or other calls for service by a community member. In 1982, my family then relocated to the McKinley Park community, where we lived in a middle-class neighborhood with several police families as neighbors. The neighborhood was predominantly White with some Hispanic residents. Having officers as residents of the community in which they patrol, and the very presence of officers living in neighborhoods sustains a safer quality of life and builds better relationships with the community (Vargas & Palmer, 2017).

In 1989, my family relocated to the Gage Park community - a predominately middle-class Hispanic neighborhood, but riddled with gang activity, an assortment of crime, and yet, a favorable community for small business. The police were observed more frequently because the 008th district police station was less than 2 miles away and quickly responded to the calls for service by the community when gang activity emerged. In 1999, I joined the Chicago Police Department. I later married and moved into the Clearing/Garfield Ridge community, which is called "Copland", due to the community having a majority of its residents being police officers, firemen, and a number of other city workers. The neighborhood is predominantly White and Hispanic, with low crime in the area.

Researcher Assumptions

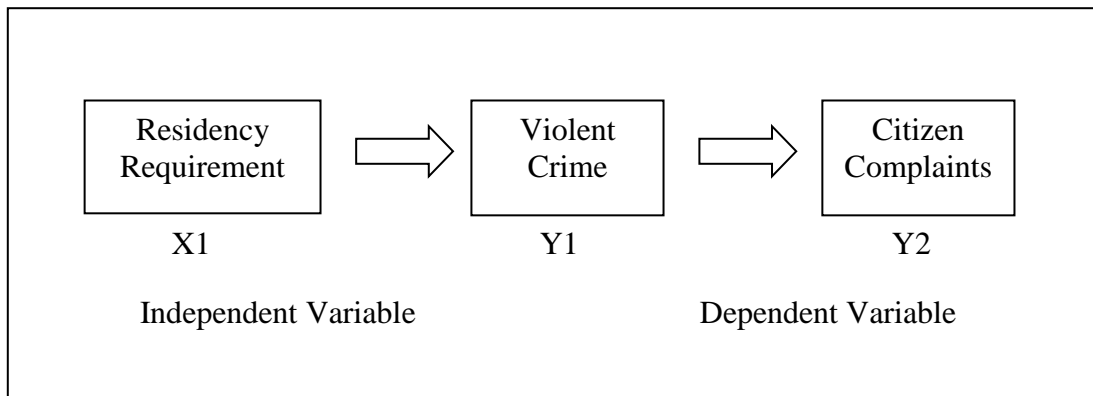
Many of my assumptions and tacit theories for this study are related to my background as a police officer. One assertion of whether residency requirements have a favorable impact is the idea that police officers will tend to be more productive and have a better relationship with the community in cities with residency requirements compared to cities without them. This assumption is supported by available evidence, at least for police officers (Smith, 1980). Citizens generally feel safer knowing that their neighbor is a police officer. With this relationship, resident police officers will likely be more restrained in their use of force against their neighbors or other citizens and be more conscientious with citizen encounters. This suggests that maintaining municipal residency laws will arguably produce better performance by police

officers, greater public safety, and ultimately a better relationship with the community (Smith, 1980).

Conceptual Framework

The researcher will conduct this study to demonstrate the correlation between two variables; residency requirements as the independent variable and yearly violent crime and citizen complaints as the dependent variable (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Correlation between Residency Requirements and Yearly Violent Crime and Citizen Complaints



The conceptual framework for this analysis is legitimacy theory, which is related to critical race theory. Legitimacy theory believes that reality is created and shaped by social, political, cultural, economic and gender-based assumptions and crystalized over time into social structures that are taken to be natural or real (Schiopoiu & Popa, 2013). Legitimacy theory is a social theory oriented toward critiquing and changing society as a whole and holds organizations responsible for providing information to society in a legitimate and socially responsible way to build a better image for all stakeholders (Schiopoiu & Popa, 2013). Through critical race theory, legitimacy theory advocates that organizations see to act within the limits and norms accepted by the community to transform the relationship that undergirds race, racism, and power. It highlights the extent to which organizations and the community disclose information between each other and are influenced by the boundaries established by society in order to be appreciated and avoid being penalized by the community in which the organization operates (Garcia, Lopez, & Velez, 2018).

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Many studies from a large body of literature have examined contextual issues regarding police; community relations problem such as opinions towards police (The Presidents Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 1967), prejudicial news reporting (Jaffe, 1965) crisis intervention (Morton Bard, 1968), empathy training (Ennis, 1967) sensitivity training (Skousen, 1967), and residency requirements and public perceptions (Murphy & Worrall, 1999). This study will continue to close the gap in understanding both the disconnect between residency requirements and community relations and conducting a quantitative study on police officers and the community.

Definitions of Key Terminology

This section identifies some key terminology in the field of policing and defines several terms in order to clarify the many studies and various reports that have been researched and provide updated terms on this area of policing.

Community Policing – A proactive, rather than reactive, response to neighborhood crime by addressing problems at their source where officers are deployed to patrol the same neighborhoods every day, allowing them to become familiar with, and understand the community.

Use of Force – In the context of law enforcement, use of force may be defined as the amount of effort required by police to compel compliance by an unwilling subject (International Association of Chiefs of Police, 2001).

Legitimacy – Reflects the belief that the police ought to be allowed to exercise their authority to maintain social order, manage conflicts and solve problems in their communities. Legitimacy is reflected in three judgments. The first is public trust and confidence in the police. Second, legitimacy reflects the willingness of residents to defer to the law and police authority, i.e., their sense of obligation and responsibility to accept police authority. Finally, legitimacy involves the belief that police actions are morally and legally justified and appropriate to the circumstances (Tyler, 2014).

Procedural Justice – Can be viewed as a means to attaining legitimacy and can be defined in terms of four issues. First people want to have an opportunity to explain their situation or tell their side of the story to a police officer. Second, people react to evidence that the authorities with whom they are dealing are neutral. Third, people are sensitive to whether they are treated with dignity and politeness, and to whether their rights are respected. Finally, people focus on cues that communicate information about the intentions and character of the legal authorities with whom they are dealing with (their "trustworthiness") not to mention procedural justice is also foundationally based on legitimacy and transparency as well (Tyler, 2014).

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Implicit Bias – The unconscious attitude and stereotypes that can manifest in the criminal justice system, school or workplace setting (Webster's Dictionary, 2021)

Municipality - A city or town that has corporate status and local government.

Us vs Them - A state of opposition between two groups, mostly based on group membership.

Code of Silence - A condition in effect when a person opts to withhold what is believed to be vital or important information voluntarily or involuntarily.

Thin Blue Line - Represents the police officer role of separating the good from the bad while creating order from chaos.

Literature Review Methods

The literature review for this study is based on research articles collected through DePaul University Library Databases such as EBSCO. Google Scholar was also used as a search engine to collect journals, news articles and books. Search terms included police residency requirements, perceptions of police, community policing, police and community issues. The researcher's 22-year career experience in law enforcement involving community patrol, gang investigation, narcotics investigation, policy analysis, crime statistics analysis, and as a counterterrorism officer also contributes to the literature review.

Extent and Nature of the Literature

The search for research topics on “residency requirements” resulted in a very large number of related items. Although this number is substantial, most of the articles are quite dated. Research articles relevant to this study's scope were challenging to locate. Nonetheless, the articles, journals, newspapers and books located in the searches render sufficient literature on residency requirements in order to present a thorough analysis of studies, findings, and discussions on this topic.

Theoretical Framework

The social justice movement has created an open and meaningful discussion about the tense relationship between law enforcement and the citizens of certain communities. Police departments across the nation have applied legitimacy theory to assist in mending these fractured relationships. Consequently, many scholars and policymakers have settled on a “legitimacy deficit” as the primary diagnosis of the strained relationship between law enforcement and some citizens. Legitimacy theory is a social theory oriented toward critiquing and changing society as a whole and holds organizations responsible for providing information to society in a legitimate

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and socially responsible way to build a better image for all stakeholders (Schiopoiu & Popa, 2013). A report by the White House Task Force's Final Report on 21st Century Policing discussed the goals of building trust, legitimacy, and transparency between law enforcement and the community (Mangus, 2015).

The reason residency requirements have become such an important debate is that local governments are in distress with decreasing populations and the best option to sustain fiscal control is to keep residency requirements in place (Eisinger, 1983, p. 2). Some researchers suggest the central goal of community policing is to build solid relationships between the police departments and the community, which create partnerships and strategies for reducing crime (Brown and Wycoff, 1987). From the reform era, 1960's, of policing to the modern era, 2000's, of policing, community policing had become a powerful national movement and part of everyday parlance. Community policing became commonplace, and the political appeal of community policing and its affinity to long-term trends in societal organization contributed to the widespread acceptance of community policing (Skogan and Hartnett, 1997). Minority communities have indicated that they still have feelings of distrust in law enforcement and are less likely to cooperate with their crime-fighting efforts (Bell, 2020). Research has also shown that, regardless of how trust is measured or conceived, citizens in minority communities tend to have little faith in the police (Bell, 2020). This vulnerable minority population also has less trust in other governmental institutions, neighbors, and even intimate partner relationships than other racial and ethnic groups in the United States. Sharp and Johnson (2009) tend to agree, stating that "deeply rooted feelings of historical injustice and persecution, as well as racial bias and profiling, may impact the community's impression of the police" (pp. 157-182).

However, some researchers believe one of the effective tools to achieve greater trust and legitimacy in law enforcement is practicing legitimacy and procedural justice with every person a police officer comes in contact with (Bell, 2020). Tyler (2004) states that legitimacy and procedural justice are measurements of the extent to which members of the public trust and have confidence in the police, believe that the police are honest and competent, think that the police treat people fairly and with respect, and are willing to defer to the law and to police authority. The concept of legitimacy is critical in that people should be compelled to obey the law and police officers, regardless of the trust and faith the community has in the police, and the public's attitude about the police (Tyler, 2004).

As stated in the White House Task Force's Final Report on 21st Century Policing, law enforcement agencies are implementing legitimacy and procedural justice as fundamental in police training (Mangus, 2015). This study will agree with the many of the researchers on the importance of both residency requirements as a solution to community relations, and procedural justice and legitimacy, which should all be implemented as a means to mend and strengthen relationships between law enforcement agencies and the communities they serve.

Conclusion

The issues with residency requirements have remained a very controversial topic for over a century. Debate continues, but minimal effective empirical research has been done. With the ever-changing methods and ideas for community policing and recognition of the importance of police-community interaction, research into the effect of residency on crime and citizen complaints should be considered a valid and important field of study. In the chapter that follows, a more thorough literature review will be conducted, and the information will be used to inform the issue under consideration.

Literature Review

This literature review presents an overview of community relationships between the police and citizens as neighbors, history of police-community relations, supporting municipal residency requirement, opposition to municipal residency requirements, and additional considerations about residency requirements. Further, this section will examine several different studies about police and community relations that have been conducted and provide a discussion of their results.

Residency requirements have become an important point of debate because local governments are facing "municipal distress" with decreasing populations, and the best option to have fiscal control is to keep residency requirements in place (Eisinger, 1983, p. 2). Residency requirements refer to the mandate that public employees live within the boundaries of the city. Residency laws are now relatively widespread, such that by 1980, nearly two-thirds of all the cities with a population over 250,000 had such laws, with most of them passed only in the preceding decade (Eisinger, 1983, p. 2).

Although the exact origins of residency requirements are obscure, research has indicated that they were developed during the 1900's in American cities before the turn of the century. There can be little doubt that they represented a variation of and a codification of contemporaneous patronage practices (Eisinger, 1983). As one early observer of municipal government notes, "the local residency requirement is related to the central idea in the spoils system, namely that public employments are rewards for past service" (Anderson, 1925, p. 465). Such laws were consistent with and may have grown out of the common practice in many industrialized cities of allowing aldermen to staff the police force by appointing residents of their representative wards (Anderson, 1925, p. 465).

Since many people believed that residency requirements were not legal, the first court challenge of a residency law that is on record was heard in Alabama in 1901 (Eisinger, 1983). Opposition to residency laws emerged in the same period as a plank in the early reform movement, particularly among those interested in the spread of civil service (Eisinger, 1983). Arguing that such laws were a barrier to hiring the best candidates, reform groups attacked residency requirements one city after another. Beginning in the 1920's, public administration textbooks adopted the reform activists' view on such laws and elevated them to a position of professional orthodoxy. Residency requirements, wrote Mosher and Kingsley (1936) in their standard work, *Public Personnel Administration*, "are not in harmony with the merit principle...it is a cardinal feature of selection according to merit that the best qualified candidate should be employed, whatever his residence" (pp. 115-117). The International City Managers' Association likewise argued that residency laws were contrary to sound practices of personnel administration, classing them among the greatest barriers to the establishment of a career service" (Eisinger, 1983, p. 2).

Community Relationships between the Police and Citizens as Neighbors

History of Police-Community Relations

The central goal of community policing is to build solid relationships between the police departments and the community, which create partnerships and strategies for reducing crime (Brown and Wycoff, 1987). Although all societies incorporate some mechanisms of social control (Zedner, 2005), traditional policing is used to describe styles that were predominant before modern community policing had been thought of. The history of community and police relationships can be traced back to the early 20th century of the reform era in American policing. During the 1920's-1930's, referred to as the "Political Era of Policing", professional police departments began to be developed, which was a big change from police departments that were corrupt, inefficient, and focused on preventing crime by walking through neighborhoods. The reform era led to the creation of professional departments with strict hierarchies of leadership and proper management (Bond, 2016).

Between the 1920's and the 1950's, not much change took place in policing. During the 1960's, the reform era style of policing began to break down, especially in terms of community relations. The police were viewed as being impersonal, detached, and objective enforcers of the law in an era when people were protesting over extremely personal topics, such as civil rights. For instance, during a protest in Birmingham, Alabama, the American people saw police officers brutally attacking unarmed men, women, and children, and across the nation, the relationships between officers and citizens fell apart. Neither side trusted the other, so neither side was willing to work together to solve the issue (Bond, 2016).

Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, police departments realized there was a disconnect and began to re-evaluate their relationships with the community. In 1979, Wisconsin professor Herman Goldstein (1987) proposed an entirely new mindset for police, called problem-oriented policing (POP). According to Goldstein (1987), reform-era policing failed because it was more about the means, the way we police, than the ends, actually being effective. Problem-oriented policing tried to remedy this by looking beyond the simple incidents of crime occurring to underlying issues that create crime. This was elaborated on in 1987 with the SARA program, an acronym defining effective problem-oriented policing. The 'S' stands for scanning, which means identifying and prioritizing problems. The 'A' is for analysis or figuring out what these problems really indicate. The 'R' is response, developing and implementing a strategy; and the last 'A' is assessment, evaluating whether or not the response worked" (Goldstein, 1987).

Problem-oriented policing got officers back in touch with community members and began to repair relationships. The issue with problem-oriented policing was focused on the ends, on the result of reducing crime, so there needed to be a separate policy to fix the means of policing, the

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way that policing was done (Bond, 2016). The next idea that emerged in the 1980s was community policing, a policy approach concentrated on improving mutual support between officers and the community. This approach was intended to combat the generic idea of the reform era by holding police officers accountable for the community in which they served (Bond, 2016).

By the 1990's and 2000's, police departments across the country continued to reinvent themselves by building better community relations. Community policing became commonplace, and the political appeal of community policing and its affinity to long-term trends in societal organization contributed to the widespread acceptance of community policing (Skogan and Hartnett, 1997). Community policing changed the way police departments worked with the community. Creating foot patrols in the community and specialized community relations units to focus on community needs, officers were encouraged to exercise autonomy and independence in decision making when dealing with citizens. Finally, ensuring citizens were satisfied with police services became an important method for measuring police officer performance with the community (Skogan and Hartnett, 1997).

Ultimately, in order for police to work effectively they need the support of the community. In fact, community cooperation may be the most critical factor for the successful implementation of a community policing program (Carter & Radelet, 1999; Cordner, 1997; Goldstein, 1987; Greene & Pelfrey, 1997; Skogan, 1998; Williams, 1998). One of the main premises of community policing is cooperation between the police, the community and other agencies (Goldstein, 1987; Manning, 1984). As Greene and Pelfrey (1997, p. 395) stated:

The community is no longer expected to be passive in its relationship with the police or in its pursuit of neighborhood safety. Rather, problem-solving requires that the police and the community work together in identifying neighborhood problems, and that the community assumes greater “guardianship” of the neighborhood.

The United States Department of Justice Civil Rights Division (2017) stated that the true meaning of community policing is about the code of good conduct that creates both a boundary and common ground for officers and citizens in their communities to treat each other with trust and respect. This united bond serves as the platform for teamwork in forming solutions for crime prevention and a resolution to public safety issues at hand. When executed correctly, community policing assists with citizens feeling neither over-nor-under-policed and motivates and allows many to work with the police and others together. To be successful in this way, community policing must be supported not just by an entire police department, but by an entire city.

One way to build support in community policing is by increasing police legitimacy to build a better bond between police and the community. Police performance in crime prevention has been shown to be an avenue lacking legitimacy and gaining cooperation from the community. Sharp and Johnson (2009) also agree, stating that “deeply rooted feelings of historical injustice and

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persecution, as well as racial bias and profiling, may impact the community's impression of the police" (pp. 157-182). Tyler (2004) states that legitimacy and procedural justice are measurements of the extent to which members of the public trust and have confidence in the police, believe that the police are honest and competent, think that the police treat people fairly and with respect, and are willing to defer to the law and to police authority. The importance of legitimacy is that people should be compelled to obey the law and police officers, regardless of the trust and faith the community has in the police, and the public's attitude about the police (Tyler, 2004).

Police legitimacy is related to the degree of public support for, and cooperation with law enforcement to fight crime, build a better relationship with members of the community and reduce allegations of police misconduct. Many allegations of inappropriate force (force that is in excess of what a police officer reasonably believes is necessary), have been an enduring source of conflict between minority groups and police (Skogan & Meares, 2004; Weitzer & Tuch, 2004). Skogan and Meares (2004) assert, that as a price for holding a virtual monopoly over this power, there are standards for the use of force, standards that are too often violated" (p. 72). Citizen complaints have been widely identified as an important measurement which reveals the distrust by the community, lack of legitimacy, and perceptions of police misconduct (Walker & Archibold, 2000). But as long as law enforcement is legitimate and transparent with the community, a stronger, trusting relationship can be had.

Community policing is key to rebuilding the lack of trust in police officers. However, there is more to community policing than protecting and serving. Strong relationships of mutual trust between police agencies and the communities they serve are critical to maintaining public safety and effective policing (www.usdoj/crs.gov). Police officers are often effective at the protecting the community but not as effective in serving the community, as stated by the United States Department of Justice Community Relation Services, Importance of Police-Community Relationships and Resources. In order to establish better relationships, community members must be willing to trust the police and believe that police actions will reflect the values of the community by practicing principles of procedural justice and legitimacy (www.usdoj/crs.gov).

Sunshine and Tyler (2003) reaffirms how community policing is important in rebuilding trust in their study that showed a clear link between police officers being legitimate and the community complying with the law (see also Jackson et al. 2012; Tyler 1990, 2006b; Tyler and Fagan, 2008). In their research, the participants were asked how often they followed regulations about not making noise at night, how to legally dispose of trash and litter, and where to park a car legally (Sunshine and Tyler, 2003, p. 541). They also asked their participants to rate the risk of being caught and punished for disregarding these regulations. People were more likely to comply with the law if they viewed police as legitimate, while perceived risk of punishment played a less prominent role in predicting compliance (Sunshine and Tyler, 2003, p. 540). Sunshine and Tyler (2003) found procedural justice to be the key antecedent of people's perceptions of police legitimacy.

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Paternoster et al. (1997) also conducted a study which focused on the importance of community policing being used to rebuild the lack of trust in police officers. Their study used data collected in the Milwaukee Domestic Violence Experiment and examined the link between procedural justice policing and the likelihood that offenders would reoffend. They found when police officers were observed by offenders using procedural justice, a lower rate of reoffending among domestic violence perpetrators when police were observed (Paternoster et al. 1997). These examples point to the ability of the police to encourage law-abiding behavior in the absence of direct police supervision. Police need citizens to comply with the law generally because most behavior takes place outside of police surveillance. The goal for police, therefore, is to get fewer people doing the wrong thing, fewer people who only do the right thing when the police are around, and more people doing the right thing when no one is around to observe and intervene on illegal behavior.

The legitimacy of law enforcement officers has been questioned in many communities over perceptions of police misconduct and accusations of excessive use of force cases in 2014-15 such as Laquan McDonald in Chicago, Michael Johansen in Baltimore, Eric Garner in New York, Michael Brown in Ferguson Missouri, and Walter Scott in North Charleston, South Carolina. In each case, the offender committed a crime and a police officer was dispatched to further investigate the incident. In these cases and others, there have been riots over perceptions of excessive force and other police misconduct cases. It is imperative that police agencies make improving relationships with their local communities a top priority (www.usdoj/crs.gov). So, trust, confidence and shared similar values between the police and the community are important elements in procedural justice, which will define the legitimacy in how police officers (Jackson et al. 2012, 2013) respond to their jobs.

Changing the way the community views the police and showing that the police are performing in a legitimate, law abiding way, is part of the challenge after a police involved shooting incident. Whether or not an incident is justifiable, some communities continue to distrust law enforcement. Law enforcement agencies must establish an effective partnership with the community as a whole, in order to build mutual trust and a better understanding of the citizens they encounter. As stated by Jinnie Chua in a special report in PoliceOne.com “*we must strive to transform policing from a profession that defaults to enforcement, to one that prioritizes community engagement and satisfaction*”. Officers need to be trained in de-escalation techniques and procedural justice in order to know when and how to use force when appropriate. Officers need to rebuild trust with the community by changing the unwritten police culture in certain agencies that perpetuate “us vs them” (a state of opposition between two groups, mostly based on group membership), “code of silence” (a condition in effect when a person opts to withhold what is believed to be vital or important information voluntarily or involuntarily) and the “thin blue line” (represents the police officer role of separating the good from the bad while creating order from chaos) mentality which can create a healthier culture focused on true policing that goes beyond protecting and serving the citizens, and changing the way officers approach their job (Chua, 2018).

Supporting Municipal Residency Requirement

This section will explain several different studies about police and community relations that have been conducted and discuss their results, such as *Police Attitudes and Performance* (Smith, 1980), *Residency Requirements and Public Perceptions of the Police in Large Municipalities* (Murphy & Worrall, 1999), *How Will Law Enforcement Adapt to the Potential Increase in Commuting Police Employees by the 21st Century?* (Aasted, 1991), and *The Economic Effects of Residence Laws on Municipal Police* (Hirsch & Rufolo, 1985).

Each author provides the reasons for support of municipal residency requirements that include: Police officers becoming more familiar with the community and the specific neighborhood problems; potential improvement of their performance in basic law enforcement tasks; responding to calls quicker, writing more citations, addressing problems/concerns of the citizens, facilitating greater police diversity, keeping tax dollars in the municipality, sustaining a fully staffed police department, and less travel time to work. Collectively this improves the relationship between police and citizens creating a better relationship with the community, which is likely to result in resident police officers being more highly conscious of their potential use of force against their neighbors or other citizens and be more civil with citizen encounters.

In the article *Police Attitudes and Performance* (1980), Dennis C. Smith related that the residency requirement issue is complex. The principal argument for requiring police officers to be city residents is that they will be more familiar with the community and the neighborhood problems, which should improve their performance in basic law enforcement tasks. Furthermore, Smith (1980) states with municipal residency requirements, police officers will be available to respond quickly in the event of emergencies. One implication of these arguments is that police officers will tend to be more productive, i.e., respond to calls quicker, write more citations, address problems/concerns of the citizens, etc., in cities with residency requirements compared to cities without them. This prediction is supported by available evidence, at least for police officers. Smith (1980), reports that several measures of police performance are positively correlated with the number of officers who reside in a jurisdiction. Citizens may also feel safer knowing that their neighbor is a police officer. This suggests that maintaining municipal residency laws will arguably produce better performance by police officers, greater public safety, and ultimately a better relationship with the community. In Smith's (1980) study of residency requirements, police officer's performance and a police officer's attitude, showed positive evidence between a residency requirements and police performance. However, the findings showed little support for the expected attitude link of a police officer regarding residency requirements and police performance.

Improving the relationship between the police and the community has been widely recognized as critical to establishing and maintaining a clear public impression of the police. Further enhancing community relationships require that residency requirements be evaluated and understood by municipal policymakers (Murphy & Worrall, 1999). The tendency for the police to live outside

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their city of employment has been perceived by both legal experts and community residents to be an important part of relating with each other (Murphy & Worrall, 1999). In fact, during the 1970's and early 1980's, significant consideration was dedicated to the issue of municipal residency requirements after the Supreme Court established that such arrangements were protected by the constitution in a 1976 decision (e.g. Chase, 1979; Coleman, 1983; Hirsch & Rufolo, 1985). Moreover, "research on police officer residency requirements has indicated that individual officers typically oppose such requirements for reasons including high housing costs, safety and privacy concerns, as well as inferior education opportunities for children" (Chase, 1979, p. 63).

Some believe employment by municipalities should be for those individuals who show interest in being employed by a department in which they as employees desire to enhance the city in which they live in (Bureau of National Affairs, 1976). When most officers do not reside in the municipality where they are employed, they lack the familiarity and connection to the community. "It comes down to the old argument: if you don't live here, you simply don't care what happens here" (Hamill, 1976, p.11). In the eyes of the residents, these officers are viewed as absentee residents that isolate themselves from a real relationship with the community.

Additionally, in the article *FiveThirtyEight*, James DiGiovanni (2015) believes there are two different ways to look at the issue of police residing in the communities they serve. The first is that officers should be recruited from the communities they police, that is, officers should live in and be familiar with the communities they serve before they police these communities. The second is that officers should live in the communities they serve, regardless of where an individual grew up or lived before being hired. Living in the community should be a requirement to retain a position as a police officer (DiGiovanni, 2015).

Flowers and Ungar-Sargon (2014) explain how they believe that the government uses residency requirements to keep tax money in the city with the idea of improving the relationship between police and citizens of the area. There is uncertainty when you bring outsiders in to have them police a community that is not their own, raising concerns about how they would be able to gain ground when they are completely unfamiliar with the area and the people in the area. Yvette Thierry's brother-in-law was shot dead after a 911 call, and the officers did not know that he was mentally handicapped and not well. She explains that her son was also stopped by police for simply "driving while black." Thierry believes that police placed in areas with no roots are only damaging the ones who are living in the community and also putting officers who are not residents at a disadvantage. (Flowers and Ungar-Sargon, 2014).

Agreeing with Thierry, in *FiveThirtyEight*, James Giovanni (2015) relates that keeping residency requirements in place will help with the straightforward problem of police diversity issues. Giovanni (2015) states that lifting residency requirements can create the straightforward problem of police diversity, with white suburban officers commuting to police diverse, non-white communities. Even controlling for the race or ethnicity of the officers, there's good reason to

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think that an officer who lives outside his or her own community perceives those they may be interacting with differently (DiGiovanni, 2015). An officer who resides in the community becomes a stakeholder in that community. As Chicago Mayor Rahm Emanuel noted in 2011, police officers “are anchors in a neighborhood . . . not just in their block, but in their community” (Huffington Post, March 2011, p. 2).

Another example of the need for a residency requirement was reported in the Department of Justice Civil Rights Investigation:

We observed an officer deal with a potentially volatile incident with skill and patience. By treating both parties with dignity, compassion, and respect, the officer was able to resolve the incident successfully rather than having it escalate, which might have occurred had the officer approached the situation differently, as we have seen from other CPD officers. This officer told us that the resolution was not atypical for him, and that he believed most situations like that could be easily defused with patience and respectful interactions by police officers. Throughout our time with this officer, it was clear he had a warm rapport with the people in the neighborhood he patrolled. He had grown up in the area and knew many people in the neighborhood. It was clear this officer knew the importance of connecting, on a real and personal level, with residents. He told us that he considered establishing those relationships as one of the keys to success for an officer working his or her beat. As a result of Chicago's requirement that officers live within the City, many officers talked to us, with pride and concern, about policing in the same neighborhoods they grew up in (United States Department of Justice Civil Rights Division, January 13, 2017, p. 136).

Keeping residency requirements in place can benefit police officers who reside where they are employed by (a) having a greater knowledge and understanding of community problems and (b) by being capable to respond quickly in the event of emergencies (Smith, 1980). This is reinforced by Aasted (1991), who conducted a study of residency requirements being lifted and how law enforcement officers would adapt to the potential increase in commuting time. His study found lifting residency requirements created issues of lengthy response times and staffing issues, due to longer distances of officers commuting for their occupation. Aasted (1991) came to this conclusion by conducting a Nominal Group Technique (NGT), comprised of several high-ranking Santa Barbara police officials, Santa Barbara city council members, and members from surrounding county's police agencies.

The original question to be resolved for Aasted's (1991) study was “What is the impact of full-time police commuting among employees on the Santa Barbara Police Department by the 21st Century?” From this, three sub-issues were developed: (1) What will be the effects of commuting on the individual that could impact job performance; (2) How will the department adapt to meet the varied needs of the commuters; and (3) What incentives can be developed for employee retention that can outweigh the spiraling cost of living in Santa Barbara? From this,

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their “strategic plan focused on providing a situational analysis, an evaluation of law enforcement strengths and weaknesses, identification of stakeholders, surfacing of policy considerations and structure for the implementation process” (Aasted, 1991).

The NGT group made forecasts in trends, such as traffic congestions on freeways, the increase in gas prices, the cost of residential housing, transportation costs, and local growth in government among several other trends, in order to determine if officers from the Santa Barbara police department would benefit from residency requirements being lifted. Their forecast predictions showed a gradual increase in the number of officer’s commuting to work. Their forecasts also showed an increase in individual commuting cost and family problems becoming a predominant issue because of the time the officer spends traveling to and from to work and court (Aasted, 1991).

To remedy the time in commuting, to and from their place of employment, Aasted (1991) suggested three recommendations to help alleviate the burdensome travel time. The first is for the municipality to build a facility with sleeping quarters for officers who must work late and return back to work the following morning. The second option is to develop a carpool system for those officers who live in the same vicinity, outside the municipality in which they work. And lastly, the municipality should offer low equity home loans for police officers to reside in the community in which they are employed. In all, Aasted’s (1991) exploration has appeared to show as commuting distances increase so does the negative impacts, i.e., increased commuting times, commuting costs, family problems from commuting, on police personnel, which he believes should be another reason for keeping municipalities from lifting residency requirements.

In general, backing police residency requirements has been framed in terms of giving greater benefit to the community. For example, support for municipal requirements comes from the idea that such regulations infer they make neighborhoods safer to live, reduce unemployment rates and add to the local government tax base (Hirsch & Rufolo, 1985). Hirsch & Rufolo conducted an analysis of supply and demand for municipal police and residency requirements. They gathered published information on police compensation from a 1976-1977 “Survey of U.S. Municipal Employee Benefits”, in order to total the annual municipal costs for gross payroll, including benefits, from about 300 cities. They then gathered information on police residency laws from a “Survey of Salaries and working Conditions of the Police Departments in the United States”, published by the Fraternal Order of Police. After matching the cities that gave salaries and residency requirements information, their data base was reduced to eighty cities for their complete analysis.

In short, what Hirsch & Rufolo’s (1985) study concluded was residency requirement laws can have a large impact on wages paid and a large impact on employment. For instance, police departments with residency requirements had a higher demand for police. Their study also found departments that were fully staffed, also had residency requirements in place. In other words,

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“when combining the demand and supply effect, there appears to be, associated with residency laws, an increase in the employment of municipal police” (Hirsch & Rufolo, 1985).

Hirsch & Rufolo (1985) also found in their study, in particular, relatively high or low wages affect the type and number of applicants for a government job. High wages allow for the government to be very selective about hiring, whereas low wages job offers give government agencies very little option on who they hire. Hence, the upgrading of worker quality will bring additional pressures on wages when hiring employees.

In terms of modern community policing, municipal residency requirements are believed to raise officer's attentiveness to the unique issues and needs of the communities in which they serve and protect (Chase, 1979). It is also believed that based on the presumption that police officers reside where they must work, they would be able to sympathize with the needs and unique problems that arise within the communities that they serve, especially if those same issues have affected their own families (Chase, 1979).

Around the country, other municipalities seem to be facing the same challenges as only 9% of Oakland officers live in Oakland, California, 7% of Miami, Florida officers live within city limits, and 6% of St. Louis, Missouri officers live within city limits (Steltzer, 2015). These numbers seem to be a problem for some criminologists like John Penny, a juvenile probation and parole officer, who inquiries about the ability to community police effectively when not many police live in the community. Penny (Steltzer, 2015) states:

Under normal circumstances you're protected better if you have to live in it. Residency requirements common to the 20th century were not designated to recruit dedicated cops. The requirements were a way for politicians to maintain power to give out jobs to people living in their own districts. Most police reformers were against those requirements because of nepotism and corruption involved. Life changes and around the civil rights era the residency requirements became a racial and economic issue. Suddenly the idea of mostly white police officers patrolling inner-city neighborhoods of color during the day then escaping to their suburban communities at night-didn't sound so great (p. 3).

In other words, communities are better protected and understood if residency requirements were kept in place, because the original intention for residency requirements were “public rewards for past services” (Anderson, 1925, p. 465). The reality of residency requirements is that many municipalities have changed their view in recent years changing their ordinance regarding this issue. A large number of municipal police departments have eased the residency requirements of their officers to reside within the communities that they serve (International City Management Association, 1991). With this, "community policing efforts will likely prove difficult if the police are unable to establish and maintain positive rapport with individual citizens and groups in the community" (Murphy & Worrall, 1999, p. 332). The difficulty comes with officers not being familiar with the neighborhood and the community that they have sworn to serve and protect.

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It is very important that police officers live where they work, in order to build solid relationships with the community. Easing residency requirements combined with increasing police salaries has enabled officers to flee the municipalities in which they reside. Soaring costs of affordable housing and municipalities lifting these requirements cause a loss of understanding of the unique aspects of the community they (police officers) serve (Hennessey, 1993). As James Q. Wilson (1968) has observed, when a majority of the officers do not live in the municipality that they serve, these officers lack knowledge and a relationship to that community. Police officers who do not reside in the municipality that they serve are less likely to care about what happens after their shift is over. Resident police officers are expected to have knowledge and understanding of the people in that community. So, if there are no residency requirements, most likely, there is no intimate relationship between the officers and the community that they serve.

Charles Stone, a fifth-generation citizen from Oakland, California and a resource officer assigned to an elementary school, seems to know everyone he encounters when he is working his shift. He understands the demographics of his community, as he explains that the school is in an area of major narcotics activity, where there are drugs and drive-by shootings, and the potential for violence. He feels that there is a connection for him and for his work to know his surroundings, being that he, too once grew up in Oakland. He has a certain pride employed in the city that he's lived in. Although the neighborhood he's assigned to is not the area in which he grew up, he still considers it part of his home turf (Steltzer, 2015). This and many other anecdotal stories suggest renewed consideration of the importance of municipal residency requirements.

As a police officer, Charles Stone along with several other researchers have agreed with the importance of residency requirements for law enforcement. They all agree police officers are expected to have knowledge and understanding of the people in that community that they serve and are more effective in their role. The way the community views police officers has been shown to be central in influencing such relations, determining the nature of the relationship between the police and community partnerships and the ultimate usefulness of policing efforts. Finally, enhancing relationships between a community and a police department are characterized as a favorable public outlook toward and increased familiarity with police (Wilson, 1968; Gaines & Vaughn, 1997; Hennessey, 1993).

Opposition to Municipal Residency Requirements

Opposition to residency requirements emerged in the early 1900's. Opponents argued that residency requirements were a barrier to hiring the best candidates; however, that idea was contested by reform groups in city after city (Eisinger, 1983). Police reformers such as Fosdick (1920) called for employers of civil servant occupations to hire the best applicants regardless of where they reside. The Wickersham Commission (1931) also related the third greatest problem with residency requirements is the limited number of qualified applicants for the selection of hiring new police officers. Agreeing with the reform groups was Mosher and Kingsley (1941)

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who wrote residency requirements “are not in harmony with the merit principle...it is a cardinal feature of selection according to merit that the best qualified candidate should be employed, whatever his residence.”

Another reason that employees oppose mandatory residency is the limitation it places on their choice of location. O’Brien’s (1997) conducted a study, which found there is strong resistance to these laws, with little argument that residency requirements have negative job aspects. Residency in a city does not imply that police will have greater information about neighborhoods where they are assigned to work. Many police officers tend to live in middle-income neighborhoods, while the areas they patrol are in less affluent areas. Also, residency law requirements may not make police more accessible in emergencies since distance and travel times in municipal areas are not determined solely by city of residence.

Moreover, O’Brien (1997) related the link between the frequent manpower of police and the ability to assist quickly in emergencies does not appear to be strong. He also noted residency laws were designed to have police officers readily available to respond to emergencies. But the law did not increase an officer’s response time or increase the officer’s productivity. He also found, residency law increased the fiscal health of the municipality, but did not increase greater pay for police officers. Lastly, O’Brien found residency laws are used to hire less qualified candidates, which will keep the municipality from paying a higher compensation for more qualified candidates that live outside the municipality.

Residency requirements are hugely unpopular among police officers in Pittsburgh and in other cities with similar rules. Even where they are in place, they are routinely flouted. Today, only 15 of America’s largest police departments have a strict residency requirement for police officers, and the majority of officers live outside the cities they serve (Flowers and Ungar-Sargon, 2014).

In short, municipal residency laws began during the (1900’s) and were revived in the machine era (1970’s). In the past, residency requirements were instituted as patronage practices, which employed residents who demonstrated an interest and were highly motivated to work for a police department. The idea of the residency requirement was to enhance the overall environment in which they resided, by keeping its officers where they lived (Eisinger, 1983). As time has passed, the residency issue has been linked to racial tensions in major cities. Minority populations have become the majority in communities that were predominantly white, along with the rising cost of good housing in affluent neighborhoods, both of which have contributed to the economic pressure for white flight (Eisinger, 1983).

A great example of the impact of lifting residency requirements, by Vargas and Palmer (2017), found that in Philadelphia, more than 1,000 police officers have moved to the suburbs, within the last five years, since their residency requirements had been lifted. They were lured to the suburbs by the prospect of better schools, cleaner streets, and safer neighborhoods. The Mayor of Philadelphia disagreed with officers living outside the city in which they work. He believed that

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losing police officers to the suburbs weakened the property-tax base and ultimately harmed city schools. He believes officers should live in the neighborhoods of Philadelphia and help make the schools better. Philadelphia isn't the only large municipality to see the flight of its middle-class public servants to the suburbs (2017, pp. 2-3). Many metropolitan police departments, such as Detroit and Miami, have no police residency requirement and have seen their officers living outside city boundaries. Whenever a municipality eases or eliminates residency requirements, an outcry follows about the effect on community police relations and can lead to the flight of officers residing outside of the residential boundaries in which they are employed (Vargas & Palmer, 2017).

Michael Nutter believes the opposition to police departments lifting municipal residency restrictions has an immense value in having police officers live within the city boundaries in which they work. He believed that police officers can better understand the residents of the community in which they patrol, and the very presence of officers living in neighborhoods sustains a safer quality of life and builds a better relationship between the community and the police officers (Vargas & Palmer, 2017). However, in disagreement with Michael Nutter, Robert J. Kane, director of the criminology and justice studies program at Drexel University was interviewed by Vargas & Palmer (2017), stated "Researchers have looked at whether residency requirements influence any patterns of misconduct or influence patterns of use of force... [or ties to] an increase or decrease in relationships and pretty much by and large...there is no support for those relationships" (p. 3). This implies that a good police officer would receive the assistance and cooperation of citizens no matter where the police officer chooses to reside (Vargas & Palmer, 2017).

Additional Considerations

A remedy for the opposition to residency requirements is to create a police force as diverse as the citizens of the city they patrol. The thought is that the composition of police personnel should reflect the characteristics of the community that they serve. Flowers and Ungar-Sargon (2014) stated diversity in police departments is critical as studies they have reviewed and have found a positive correlation between diversity in the police department, reduction in police misconduct, and enhanced trust from the community toward the police. The diversity of a police force creates institutional change making it less insular and open to community feedback. The departments that have required officers to live in the city they patrol have less diverse police forces. There was an assumption that this created a positive effect on police diversity, but data has not substantiated this. Flowers and Ungar-Sargon (2014) believe diversity issues existed before residency, so the rules did not cause a lack of diversity. These requirements did not solve the problem or reduce the distrust.

Flowers and Ungar-Sargon (2014) do not believe diversity is happening within police departments. For instance, seventy-five of the largest departments were analyzed to see whether

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those with residency had more racially representative police forces. For example, if a city population was 40% black, 30% Asian, 15% Hispanic, and 15% White, then the police force should mirror those numbers: 40% black, 30% Asian, 15% Hispanic, and 15% White (Steltzer, 2015). However, this is not the case.

A study by Flowers and Ungar-Sargon (2014) focused on demographics of police departments and the community they served. They looked at diversity and “racial dispersion score” as the sum of the absolute deviations between the percentage of police officers and the percentage of the city’s population for that demographic group. Their study showed Chicago’s police department is a department more similar demographically to the city of Chicago population than Pittsburgh’s police department is to the city of Pittsburgh’s general population. To get those figures, Flowers and Ungar-Sargon (2014) compared Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) data from 2006 to 2010 with American Community Survey (ACS) data for the same period and found that the cities with a residency requirement were less likely to have a police force that demographically resembled the population they police.

To figure out whether police departments with residency requirements were more or less demographically similar to their cities, Flowers and Ungar-Sargon (2014) calculated a dispersion index — a measure of how much the racial and ethnic composition of a city’s force differs from that of the population. Flowers and Ungar-Sargon (2014) used EEOC data on police officers to organize the top 75 cities by police force size into four demographic categories: Hispanic, non-Hispanic white, non-Hispanic black and non-Hispanic Asian. Then they used the ACS data to organize the overall population of these cities into those same four demographic groups.

What Flowers and Ungar-Sargon (2014) found was that police departments with a residency requirement had consistently higher dispersion scores than those without. In other words, these police forces were less demographically similar to their cities. Even when they controlled the racial and ethnic composition of the cities and the size of their minority groups, a residency requirement remains the most significant variable, and with a strong effect toward increasing the dispersion score.

The findings by Flowers and Ungar-Sargon (2014) resonate with older research by Murphy and Worrall (1999), who wanted to know whether there was a correlation between the cities that had a residency requirement and how people in those cities viewed their police officers, even if the public was unaware of the municipality’s requirements. Murphy and Worrall (1999) explored the connection between residency requirements and the confidence levels of their communities in three aspects of policing: the perceived ability of the police to prevent crime, their perceived ability to solve crime, and their perceived ability to protect citizens. They discovered the last thing they were expecting.

Murphy and Worrall (1999) stated “We found to our surprise that residency requirements did not improve [the community’s] confidence” in police officers. It revealed that residency

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requirements were correlated with less public confidence in the police, specifically in the police force's ability to protect its citizens. Murphy and Worrall concluded tentatively that "it is possible that the critics of residency requirements are correct — the limitations on hiring pools, for example, could lead to poor personnel choices and a less qualified commissioned officer corps." The result of these studies show residency requirements do not improve diversity, nor does it help in building confidence or a better relationship between the community and law enforcement officers.

Another very strong case for abolishing residency requirements is about the impact on the quality of life and safety for officers and their families. Many officers would also like to escape high crime in the municipalities in which they work, leave because of the poor quality of education for their children, deteriorating neighborhoods, high property taxes, and pollution. A growing and troubling concern is the anger towards the police, which has slowly increased over the past few years in the wake of several high-profile police-involved killings of African Americans. Such as the 2014 cases of Laquan McDonald Chicago, IL, Michael Johansen Baltimore, Maryland, Eric Garner New York, New York, Michael Brown Ferguson, Missouri, and the 2015, case of Walter Scott North Charleston, South Carolina, and including the death of George Floyd in 2020 continue to magnify a perceived broad culture of aggression and disrespect toward African American residents by law enforcement. Many ethical and law-abiding police officers view these unlawful and disrespectful attacks by certain communities across the country as a profound threat to their very profession and feel that refusal to obey lawful orders of a police officer is beginning to be normalized and even encouraged.

As James Stewart Jr., a Newark detective and president of its chapter of the Fraternal Order of Police told the New Jersey Legislature, according to NJ.com "Right now, the community hates us...everything you see on social media...everything you see in the media, the community hates the police. And you want to put us right in the middle of that with our families?" (Eligon & Nolan, 2016). Many police officers in other communities have had their homes vandalized or visited by irate individuals that an officer may have come in contact with while on-duty. He said police shouldn't be forced to live in a hostile environment (Slagle, 2014).

Chase (1979) and Coleman (1983) have also reiterated that police officers have typically opposed residency requirements because of high costs of housing, privacy and safety concerns for themselves and their families, as well as lower quality education for their children. Proponents of lifting residency requirements say doing so allows police the opportunity to make choices about where they live, educate their children, and raise their family. This also gives municipalities more choices when recruiting new officers (Slagle, 2014). For many who oppose such requirements, it's a simple issue of a person's right to live wherever he or she chooses, without government interference. Republican state Senator Timothy Grendell of Chesterland, Ohio, told USA Today "Nobody should be forced to give up their constitutional rights to live where they want to live just because they work in the city," (Goodyear, 2014).

Limitations

A drawback associated with this quantitative analysis is the inability to gather data from the 10 largest police departments in the nation because of the COVID-19 virus that has impacted the personnel of every organization in the world. A second issue with this quantitative research is the Freedom of Information Act (FOIA) requests for data were denied because of lack of personnel available to process my request, and a very large backlog. I was informed that my request could not be accommodated which caused every police department to deny my request for data as a “burdensome request”. Another limitation to this study is the document review of information searched via the internet was incomplete, lacking data or not available due to lack of updated technology for the 10 largest police departments that have residency requirements in place or have lifted their residency requirements.

I searched for data through the Department of Justice (D.O.J.) and was also denied access due to the COVID-19 virus, lack of personnel available and a very large backlog of FOIA requests. The volume of data I requested for the ten largest police departments that had either residency requirements in place or had lifted their residency requirements was also seen as a “burdensome request”.

I narrowed my research to the data available for two of the three largest police departments in the nation and focused on analyzing their violent crime statistics and citizen complaints filed with each police department in order to conduct this correlational study. One of the issues in this type of data collection is the inability to review specific citizen complaints where a particular problem could go unnoticed (Bowen, 2006). This could include a complaint filed by a citizen that may be filed out of malice or spite instead of a legitimate proven sustained complaint against an officer for an egregious act that may have been committed. Another challenge in this quantitative study is the document review requires intensive gathering of data and data analysis process such as categorization of data, report contents, etc. (Eclo & Kyngas, 2008). Finally, different conclusions may be reached based on subjective interpretation and biases held by different researchers (Maxwell, 2005).

Literature Review Conclusion

After reviewing several different studies and evaluating cases both for, and against residency requirements, there does not appear to be a definitive correlation that proves residency mandates enhance the relationship between police officers and the community. How do communities begin to fix the damaged relationship between their citizens and law enforcement? The United States Department of Justice Civil Rights Division (2017) states that the true meaning of community policing is about the code of good conduct that creates both a boundary and common ground for officers and citizens in their communities to treat each other with trust and respect. This united bond serves as the platform for teamwork in forming solutions for crime prevention and a

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resolution to public safety issues at hand. Most researchers seem to agree problem-solving requires that the police and the community work together in identifying neighborhood problems, and that the community assumes greater “guardianship” of the neighborhood (Greene and Pelfrey, 1997).

When executed effectively, community policing creates an atmosphere where citizens feel neither over nor under policed and motivates citizens to work together with the police in their communities. To be successful, citizens need to be educated about the goals of community policing so that both residents and police departments are united in their efforts. This study will examine the correlation between citizen complaints and violent crime to determine if residency requirements affect the relationship between the police and the community they serve.

Rationale & Significance

Both the research and various police department practices demonstrate that municipal residency requirements will continue to be challenged. This study will examine a number of circumstances in which the growing trends to eliminate residency requirements and the individual needs and preferences of police officers may potentially increase conflicts that contribute to disconnects with law enforcement and citizens. In my opinion, to adequately serve the community, police officers need to look beyond their own personal interests and set aside their needs to focus more on their role of serving the public and what they willingly signed up for in choosing to work in a municipality with residency requirements.

This study will also bring attention to the history, support and opposition to the municipal residency requirements. It will also shed light on the importance of the relationship between the police and the community they serve. Can we measure the effectiveness of, and respect for police officers within communities by the length of time they have been residents of that community? Finally, it is anticipated that based on the findings, that resident officers will have a better understanding of the needs of their community and better relationships with its citizens.

Research Methods

This section reports on the research question, variables and hypothesis, rationale for research tradition, types of correlational results, research sample, sources of data, data collection method, data analysis methods, linear regression equation (LRE), reliability and validity, graphs, expected finding and limitations. Variables in the form of crime statistics and complaints against the police will be discussed. Further, this chapter will describe the variables it will study and explain how the data will be analyzed and how the relationship between the two variables will be tested.

Research Question

The research question reads as follows: How do residency requirements affect the relationship between police officers and the community they serve?

This research seeks to answer how residency requirements affect the relationship between police officers and the community they serve. I will introduce residency requirements as a potentially important public relations policy to explore. I will also attempt to find if residency requirements may be associated with increased unity between police officers and the citizens they protect, especially in terms of the ability of police officers and citizens to work together in harmony and lower citizen complaints.

Variables & Hypothesis

The unit of analysis in this study will be residency requirements. Moreover, the research question gives light to two specific demographic variables of interest; yearly violent crime totals and citizen complaints. By examining the relationship between these two variables, empirically-based suggestions can be introduced to create effective solutions to this issue.

The independent variable (IV) and the dependent variable (DV) material are based on the aforementioned question “how does residency requirements affect the relationship between police officers and the community they serve?” The IV for the hypothesis is residency requirements. The DV for the hypothesis is yearly violent crime totals and citizen complaints. Regarding to the research problem above, the hypothesis of this research is formulated as follows:

1. The Null Hypothesis (H₀)

There is no specific correlation when violent crime and citizen complaints increase regarding residency requirements.

2. The Alternative Hypothesis (H1)

There is a specific correlation when violent crime and citizen complaints increase regarding residency requirements.

Research Design

This research will be a non-experimental study. This correlational study “will only show the existence of correlation between two variables with neither explanation of the cause nor the effect” (Ravid, 2015). There are specific characteristics to this correlational research design. First, the statistical relationship discovered by the researcher is assumed to be correlational relationship and not a casual one. In this type of design, a researcher looks for a statistical pattern linking two natural occurring variables (Ravid, 2015). The researcher only passively observes the phenomena. Furthermore, the design measures two variables and evaluates the statistical relationship (i.e., correlation) between them and has no control over the variables (Ravid, 2015).

This research will rely on purposeful archival data from documented reports of two large metropolitan police departments, one police department that has had their residency requirements removed (New York Police Department, NYPD) and one police department that has residency requirements in place (Chicago Police Department, CPD). Archival data is part of a correlational research method that utilizes already gathered information regarding variables (Ravid, 2015). This method of research helps to track already verified statistical patterns of the variables. I will then compare the data that includes citizen complaints against police officers and yearly violent crimes of both police departments. I will use this quantitative paradigm to study the impact of municipal residency requirements, and whether residency requirements influence the relationship between the police department and the community in which they serve.

This study will attempt to establish an association between residency requirements, yearly violent crime totals and citizen complaints. I will also determine whether there is a positive or negative correlation between the two variables (Gray, 2014). The data for this study would be used to understand how residency requirements increased or decreased violent crimes and citizens' complaints.

By taking the role of a non-experimental researcher, I will manipulate the independent variable (residency requirements) to see the effect on the dependent variables (violent crimes and citizen complaints) to review their practices and accept the need for change (Gray, 2014). By describing the impact of residency requirements, the proposal study seeks to bridge the current gap in the literature.

Types of Correlational Results

There are three types of correlational results. The three types are positive correlational research, negative correlational research, and zero correlational research. A positive correlation involves two variables. An increase or decrease in one variable creates a like change in the other variable (Ravid, 2015). A negative correlation also involves two variables. Moreover, the two variables are statistically opposite, and an increase in one of the variables as well. A zero correlation involves two variables as well. The variables are not statistically connected, which means a change in one variable may not create a corresponding or alternate change in the other variable (Ravid, 2015). Sporadic statistical patterns in a zero correlation are usually by chance.

Expected Findings

In this study, one expects to discover a statistically significant relationship in the hypothesis. In the hypothesis, one expects to accept the alternative hypothesis via a positive correlational research, specifically, as a violent crime increases, citizen complaints will increase via a positive correlation.

Data Analysis Procedure

Via SPSS, three statistical tests will be conducted to analyze and test the two hypotheses. This study will utilize Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (PCC), a Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient (SRCC) and a Linear Regression Equation (LRE) in the analysis. The aforementioned statistical tests all measure the relationship between two variables. This study seeks to evaluate the statistical relationship between violent crime and citizen complaints. Thus, PCC, SRCC, and LRC will adequately serve the analytical needs of this study (Ravid, 2015).

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (PCC)

With the first test conducted, Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (PCC), an evaluation is made of the strength of the linear relationship between violent crime and citizen complaints. The statistical relationship between two continuous variables is measured by PCC (Ravid, 2015). PCC is usually signified by r (rho) and can take on the values from 1.0 to -1.0 (Ravid, 2015). The further that r is from 0.0, the stronger the correlation. Subsequently, 1.0 is a perfect positive correlation and -1.0 is perfect negative correlation. A strong correlation ranges from 0.70 to 0.99 and -0.70 to 0.0 is no correlation, and -1.0 is a perfect negative (inverse) (Ravid, 2015).

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient has a few assumptions (Ravid, 2015). One assumption is the two variables should be linearly related to each other. This relationship can be illustrated in a scatterplot diagram. Another assumption is cases should be independent of each other. The final assumption is there must be homoscedasticity (having equal statistical variances) (Ravid, 2015). In other words, the results on the scatterplot should be roughly the shape of a rectangle.

Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient (SRCC)

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient tends to be influenced by outliers in the data. Therefore, it is appropriate to conduct a second statistical test. The second test is the Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient (SRCC). An assumption of SRCC is there must be two ordinal, interval, or ration variables. The SRCC ranks data and use said ranks to find a correlation. Subsequently, the test is not vulnerable to outliers (Ravid, 2015). In other words, PCC measures the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables. On the other hand, SRCC measures the strength and direction of the monotonic (varying in a way that it either never decreases or never increases) relationship between two variables. The monotonic relationship occurs when the value of one variable increases as well as the other variable. A monotonic relationship also occurs when the value of one variable increases the other variable's value decreases. SRCC is usually signified by r_s and can also take on the values from 1.0 to -1.0 (Ravid, 2015). The further r_s is from 0.0, the stronger the correlation. Subsequently, 1.0 is a perfect positive correlation and -1.0 is a perfect negative correlation. A strong correlation ranges from 0.70 to 0.99 and -0.70 to 0.0 is no correlation, and a -1.0 is a perfect negative (inverse) correlation (Ravid, 2015).

Linear Regression Equation (LRE)

The final statistical test applied to the data set will be LRE. LRE will be utilized if PCC indicates very strong probability that a linear relationship exists between two variables. Therefore, a regression equation is the most appropriate measure to assess the line that illustrates the two variables' relationship. LRE is a method for predicting the value of a dependent variable (Y) based on the value of an independent variable (X) (Ravid, 2015).

Reliability & Validity

This study plans on examining the relationship between violent crime in a police department and the complaints by citizens against police officers in agencies that have lifted residency requirements and those that have kept residency requirements in place. Thus, the three aforementioned tests are ideal for investigating the relationship. All three tests measure different perspectives of a correlational study. Consequently, the research concepts of reliability and validity can be achieved by running the data through various statistical tests. Reliability refers to the consistency of a statistical measurement (Ravid, 2015). In essence, if the same results can be constantly attained by using the same methods under the same settings, then the measurement is reliable. Validity refers to how accurately a method measures what it is intended to measure (Ravid, 2015). Thus, to achieve reliability and validity, using the three tests will be ideal to reach the goal of this study (Ravid, 2015). Thus, to achieve reliability and validity, using the three tests will be ideal to reach the goal of this study.

Graphs

Clear communication regarding the findings of a study is bolstered with the aid of a charts and graphs. Thus, the findings of this study will be illustrated on a scatterplot diagram via Excel. A scatterplot diagram is a graphical display that shows the relationship between two or more numerical variables (Evergreen, 2017). Moreover, the variables are represented as dots for the score of each pair. The scatterplot diagram will show the strength and direction of the correlation between the two variables. On a scatterplot diagram, it does not matter which variable goes on the x-axis or y-axis. In this study, the y-axis will include violent crime and the x-axis will include citizen complaints.

Research Methods Summary

This chapter will discuss the study's methodological approach. The discussion will focus on how the quantitative approach will be used to determine if there is a connection between the variables that will give us a resolution to our hypothesis. More specifically, how the correlational research will be conducted in getting our results by using three separate statistical tests; Pearson's Correlation Coefficient, Spearman's Rho Coefficient, and Linear Regression Equation. The findings will be illustrated in charts, graphs and a scatter plot diagram to transmit a clear understanding of correlation between variables.

Results

The purpose of the statistical analysis was to measure the relationship between increasing violent crime and citizen complaints against law enforcement in a police department that had no residency requirement and a police department that has residency requirements for its municipality. Subsequently, a statistical analysis, via SPSS, was conducted to assess the correlational relationship between the variables. In this chapter, the findings of this study, the assessment of the relationship between the variables, and the research and answers to the hypothesis based on the measured correlation will be discussed. This chapter will also utilize tables, charts, graphs and scatter plots, which assist in visualizing the results of the analysis.

First, a descriptive analysis was conducted to find frequency, seeing the distribution of the data, helps detect outliers, and enables you to identify associations among variables, median, mean, and standard deviation to assess the spread of your data, thus making you ready to conduct further statistical analyses or tests. We then examined the relationship between variables through the use of correlation matrices. These results revealed many weak or strong correlations, with many or few moderate and strong correlations. The strength or weakness of the relationships was determined using the Pearson's Correlation Coefficient, Spearman Rho Coefficient, and Linear Regression Equation, which are tests used to measure the strength of association between two variables, where the value $r = 1$ means a perfect positive correlation and the $r = -1$ means a perfect negative correlation.

Hypothesis

Our research question asked: How does residency requirements affect the relationship between police officers and the community they serve?

The null and alternative hypotheses for the first hypothesis read as follows:

1. The Null Hypothesis (H0)

There is no specific correlation when violent crime and citizen complaints increase regarding residency requirements.

2. The Alternative Hypothesis (H1)

There is a specific correlation when violent crime and citizen complaints increase regarding residency requirements.

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The relationship between residency and violent crime and citizen complaints is a very important measurement. If the findings show a positive correlation, then there is a statistical validation that residency requirements have a clear and material impact on community relationships with police.

New York Police Department Data

Table 1. Descriptive Analysis of Total Violent Crime and Total Complaints

<i>Total Violent Crime</i>		<i>Total Complaints</i>	
Mean	835123.2143	Mean	5824.857143
Standard Error	23809.56678	Standard Error	346.4572957
Median	877391	Median	5565
Mode	#N/A	Mode	#N/A
Standard Deviation	89087.24142	Standard Deviation	1296.3245
Sample Variance	7936536585	Sample Variance	1680457.209
Kurtosis	-1.105794889	Kurtosis	-1.531604092
Skewness	-0.709996218	Skewness	0.409148802
Range	254928	Range	3378
Minimum	673838	Minimum	4285
Maximum	928766	Maximum	7663
Sum	11691725	Sum	81548
Count	14	Count	14
Confidence Level (95.0%)	51437.4418	Confidence Level (95.0%)	748.4754825

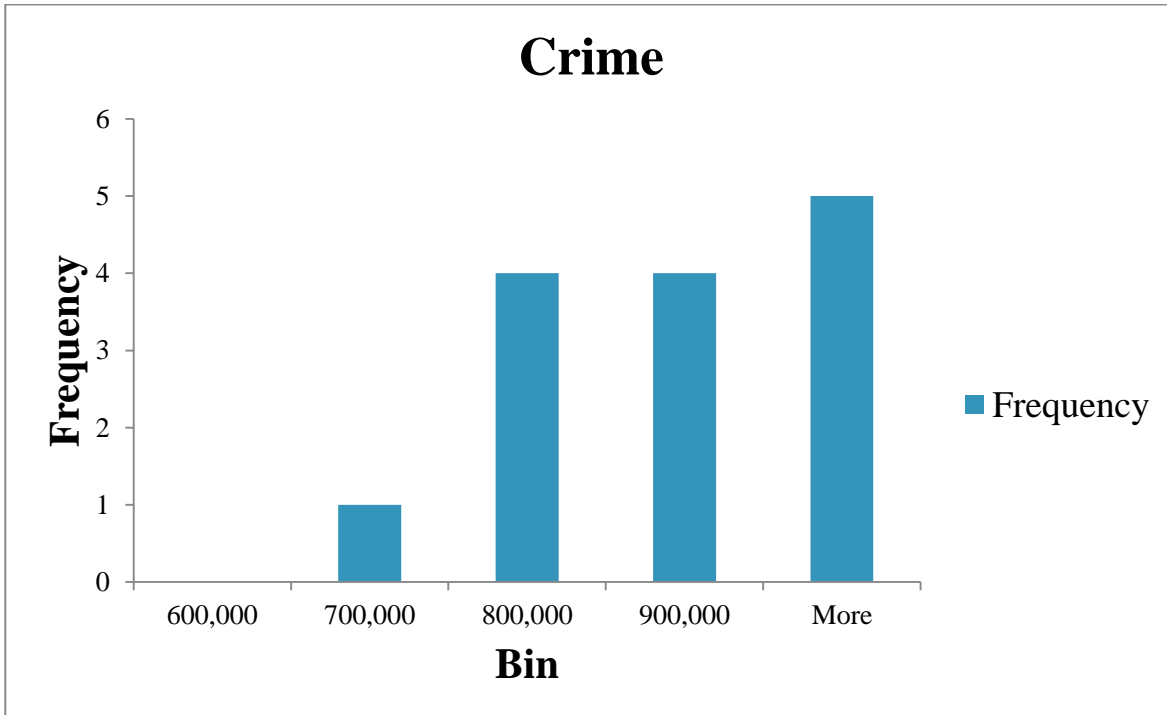
The descriptive analysis is an important first step in conducting statistical analyses. It assists the researcher in seeing the distribution of the data, helps detect outliers, and enables researcher to identify associations among variables, median (the midpoint of a frequency distribution of observed values or quantities, such that there is an equal probability of falling above or below it), mean (the average value of the data), and standard deviation to assess the spread of your data, thus making the researcher ready to conduct further statistical analyses or tests. The descriptive analysis (see Table 1) for this study, will utilize two pairs or 14 observations as a sample size. The results of the violent crime data reveal the median value is 877,391 and the mean value is 835,123. Since the median and the mean are symmetric, it means both values are similar.

The standard deviation determines how the spread of the data are from the average. A low standard deviation means that most of the numbers are close to the average, while a high standard deviation means that the numbers are more spread out. The standard deviation for violent crime the police department with no residency requirement is 89,087.24. The histogram (see Figure 4) shows the frequency. If the data was skewed, the majority of the data would be

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located on either the left or the right side of the graph. In this case, the data is skewed to the right, which means of the 14 samples of violent crime, the data tends to average more than 800,000 – 1,000,000 incidents in violent crime 11 of the 14 years. A normal curve should be symmetric, but this graph is skewed, which means this data may not be a good fit, but more tests will be needed.

Figure 2. New York Police Department Violent Crime Frequency Chart



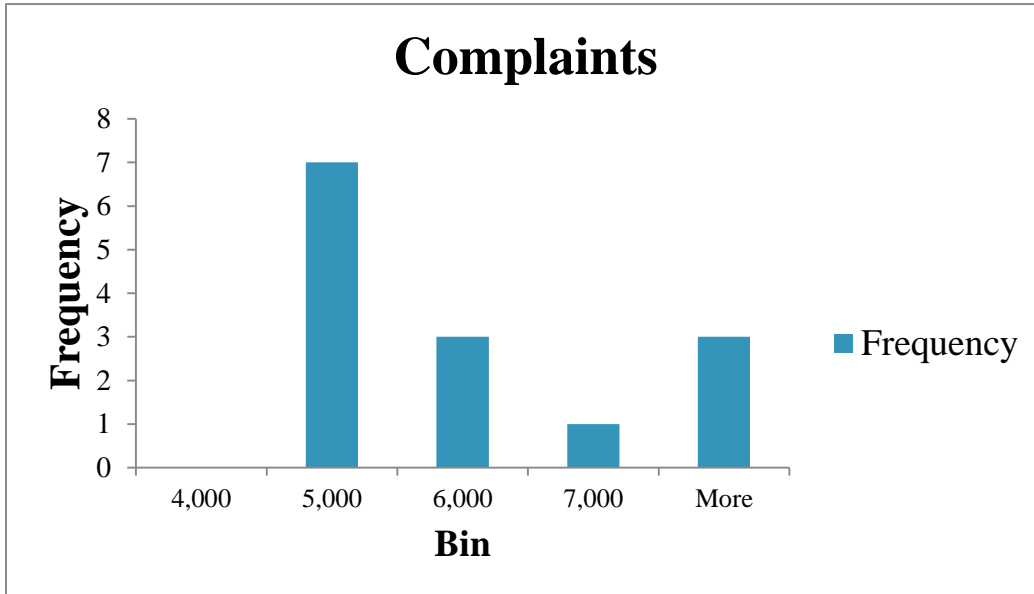
The results of the citizen complaints data reveals the median value (the midpoint of a frequency distribution of observed values or quantities, such that there is an equal probability of falling above or below it) is 5,565 and the mean value (the central value of the data) is 5,824.85. Since the median and the mean are symmetric, it means both values are similar.

The standard deviation determines how the spread of the data are from the average. A low standard deviation means that most of the numbers are close to the average, while a high standard deviation means that the numbers are more spread out. The standard deviation for citizen complaints in the police department with no residency requirement is 1,296.32. The histogram (see Table 4) shows the frequency. If the data were skewed, the majority of the data would be located on either the left or the right side of the graph. In this case, the data is skewed to the left, which means of the 14 samples of complaints, 7 of the 14 years of complaints tends to be average (5,000) in frequency. A normal curve should be symmetric, and this graph is skewed

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to the right, making a positive skew, which means this data may be a good fit, but more tests will be needed.

Figure 3. New York Police Department Citizen Complaints



Pearson Correlation Coefficient

Table 2. Pearson Correlation Coefficient Model Summary

Correlations			
		Complaints	Crime
Complaints	Pearson Correlation	1	.776**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	14	14
Crime	Pearson Correlation	.776**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	14	14

** Correlation is Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

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A confidence interval of 95 was used, resulting in a decision point of $p < .05$. This is the standard for this research (Ravid, 2015). A standard for Pearson's correlation and r statistics was derived from Ravid (2015). Correlation statistics of less than .3 were considered weak correlations, from .4 – .6 is considered moderately strong correlations, and those greater than .7 is considered strong correlations.

The Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (PCC) (see Table 2) suggests a statistically linear relationship between violent crime and citizen complaints in a municipality without residency requirements. The Pearson's analysis also produced an r -value of .776 with a p -value of .001. The results of a low r -value and p -value for this analysis indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between the two variables. The low p -value also implies a 0.0% chance that any relationship between the two variables could have occurred by mere chance (Ravid, 2015). Therefore, because the r -value of .776 is greater than the critical value of .497 at a level of significance of .01 on a two-tailed test at 20 degrees of freedom, there is evidence to reject **H0** in favor of **H1**. In short, the PCC analysis shows that there is a strong positive correlation between increases in violent crime and citizen complaints when residency requirements are not in place.

Spearman's Rho Correlation

Table 3. Spearman's Rho Correlation Model Summary

Correlations			Complaints	Crime
Spearman's rho	Complaints	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.780**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001
		N	14	14
	Crime	Correlation Coefficient	.780**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.
		N	14	14

** Correlation is Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The Pearson's Correlation Coefficient is influenced by outliers in the data, which necessitates the need for a second statistical approach. The second test that was conducted to conduct a statistical analysis is the Spearman's Rho Correlation (SRC). The data analyzed using the SRC (see Table 3) showed results in the r 's value of .780 and a p -value of .001. Similar to the PCC data, the SRC r -value also signifies a strong statistical relationship between the two variables. Because the r -value of .780 is greater than the critical value of .679 at a level of significance of .01 on a two-tailed test at 12 degrees of freedom (14 pairs minus 2), there is evidence to reject **H0** in favor of

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H1 (Ravid, 2015). Once again, a second analysis shows a strong positive correlation between increases in violent crime and citizen complaints when residency requirements are not in place.

Linear Regression Equation

Table 4. Linear Regression Equation Model Summary

Model Summary					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.776a	.602	.569		851.094
a Predictors: (Constant), Crime					

Table 5. Linear Regression Equation Coefficients Model Summary

Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B		Beta		
1	(Constant)	-3604.583	2224.454		-1.620	.131
	Crime	.011	.003	.776	4.261	.001

a) Dependent Variable: Complaints

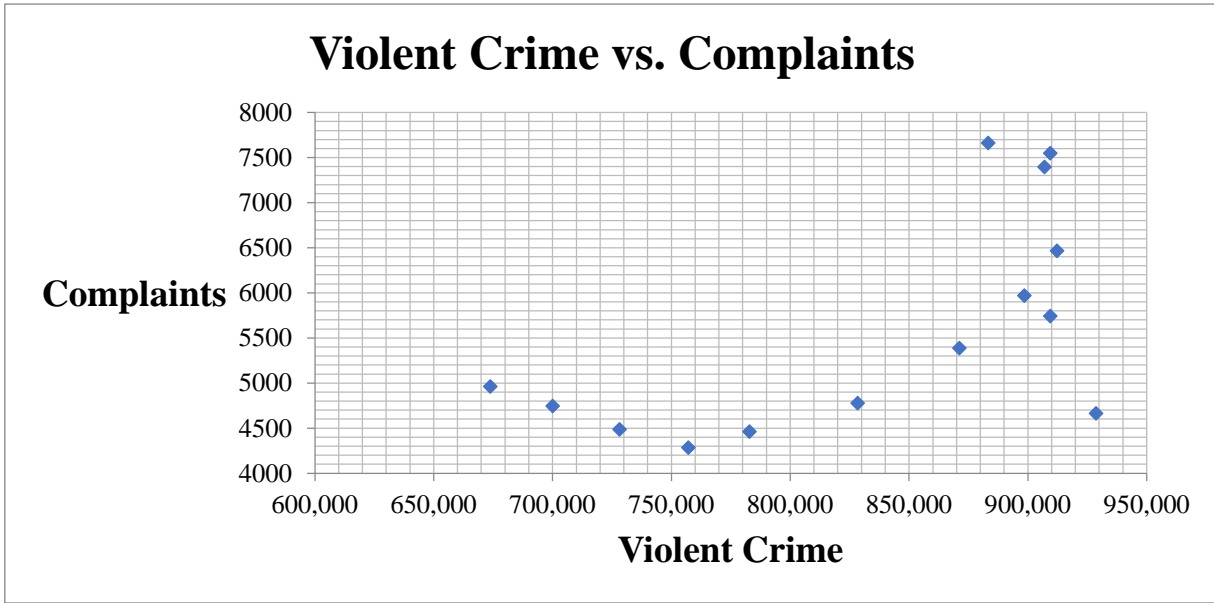
In order to validate whether a strong probability that a linear relationship exists between the two variables, a third and final statistical test must be applied to the data; a Linear Regression Equation (LRE). Because the Pearson's Correlation Coefficient indicates a strong relationship, it may not be likely that the relationship is perfectly linear. In order to verify this, a regression equation is the most fitting measure to assess the line that illustrates the relationship between violent crime and citizen complaints.

After processing the data in SPSS, the LRE results are in Table 8. The regression equation is $y = -3604.58 + .011(x)$. The y intercept of the equation is -3604.58, which means which means the number of citizen complaints will be at -3604.58 when the percentage of violent crime is 0. The equation's slope is .011, which implies for every increase of 1% in the violent crime, the number of citizen complaints increases by .011. The regression statistics also offer specific information about the relationship between the variables. What stands out among the information is the

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coefficient of determination, which is .602. This means that the independent variable (violent crime) can explain 60% of the dependent variable's variability (citizen's complaints).

Figure 4. Histogram of Violent Crime vs. Citizen Complaints



An LRE analysis must determine whether or not these correlations are large enough to be important. Thus, it is necessary to produce the following scatterplot (see Figure 4) to illustrate both the positive correlation and the importance of the correlations that exist between the variables. The scatterplot shows the strength and direction of the correlation between the two variables. In particular, the scatter plot illustrates a strong positive correlation. The dots for the score of each pair are headed up and to the right of the diagram. This pattern is indicative of a positive correlation.

Chicago Police Department Data

Descriptive Analysis

Table 6. Descriptive Analysis of Total Violent Crime and Total Complaints

<i>TOTAL Violent Crime</i>		<i>Total Complaints</i>	
Mean	212083.7143	Mean	6424.285714
Standard Error	10461.1842	Standard Error	647.3895292
Median	207657.5	Median	5864
Mode	#N/A	Mode	#N/A
Standard Deviation	39142.16715	Standard Deviation	2422.309814
Sample Variance	1532109249	Sample Variance	5867584.835
Kurtosis	-1.655458021	Kurtosis	-1.488031122
Skewness	0.274870295	Skewness	0.149588112
Range	102958	Range	6895
Minimum	166460	Minimum	3055
Maximum	269418	Maximum	9950
Sum	2969172	Sum	89940
Count	14	Count	14
Confidence Level(95.0%)	22600.01446	Confidence Level (95.0%)	1398.600047

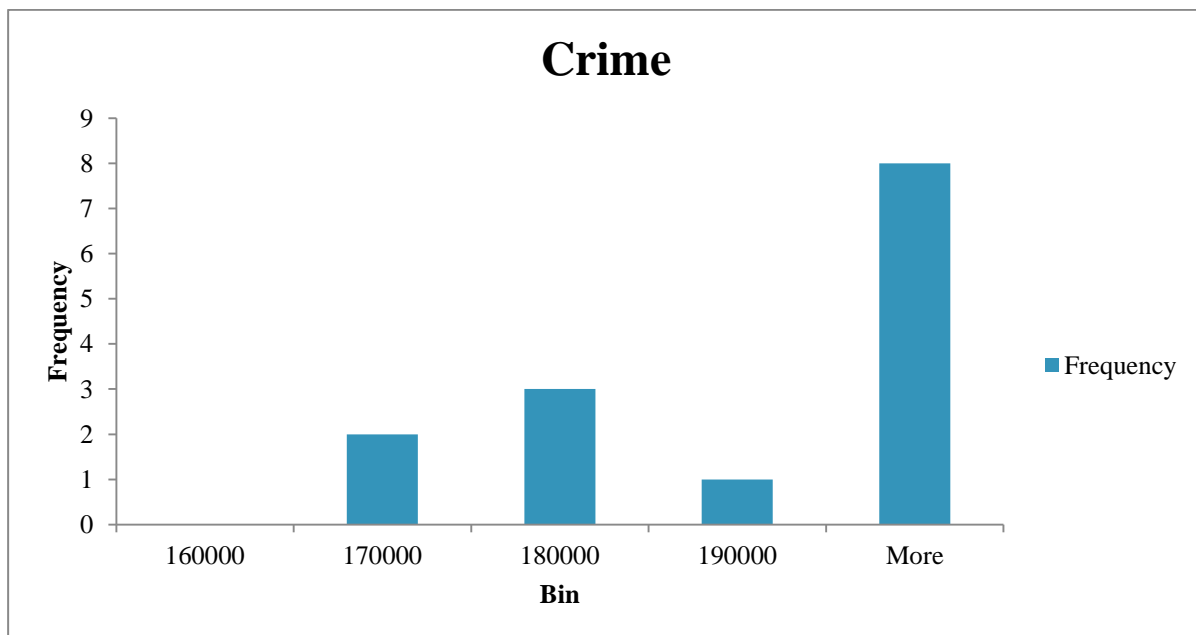
The descriptive analysis is an important first step in conducting data review for the Midwest police department. It assists in analyzing the distribution of the data, helps detect outliers, and enables you to identify associations among variables, median (the midpoint of a frequency distribution of observed values or quantities, such that there is an equal probability of falling above or below it), mean (the central value of the data), and standard deviation to assess the spread of your data, thus making you ready to conduct further statistical analyses or tests. The descriptive analysis (see Table 6) for this study, will utilize two pairs or 14 observations as a sample size. The results of the violent crime data reveal the median value is 207,658 and the mean value is 212,083.71. Since the median and the mean are symmetric, it means both values are similar.

The standard deviation determines how the spread of the data are from the average. A low standard deviation means that most of the numbers are close to the average, while a high standard deviation means that the numbers are more spread out. The standard deviation for

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violent the police department with residency requirement is 39,142.18. The histogram (see Table 7) shows the frequency. If the data was skewed, the majority of the data would be located on either the left or the right side of the graph. In this case, the data is skewed to the left, which means of the 14 samples of violent crime; the data tends to average more than 200,000 incidents in violent crime about 8 of the 14 years. A normal curve should be symmetric, but this graph is skewed to the left and makes it a negative skew, which means this data, may not be a good fit, but more tests will be needed because this shape may indicate the preponderance of any outliers is less than the mode.

Figure 5. Chicago Police Department Violent Crime



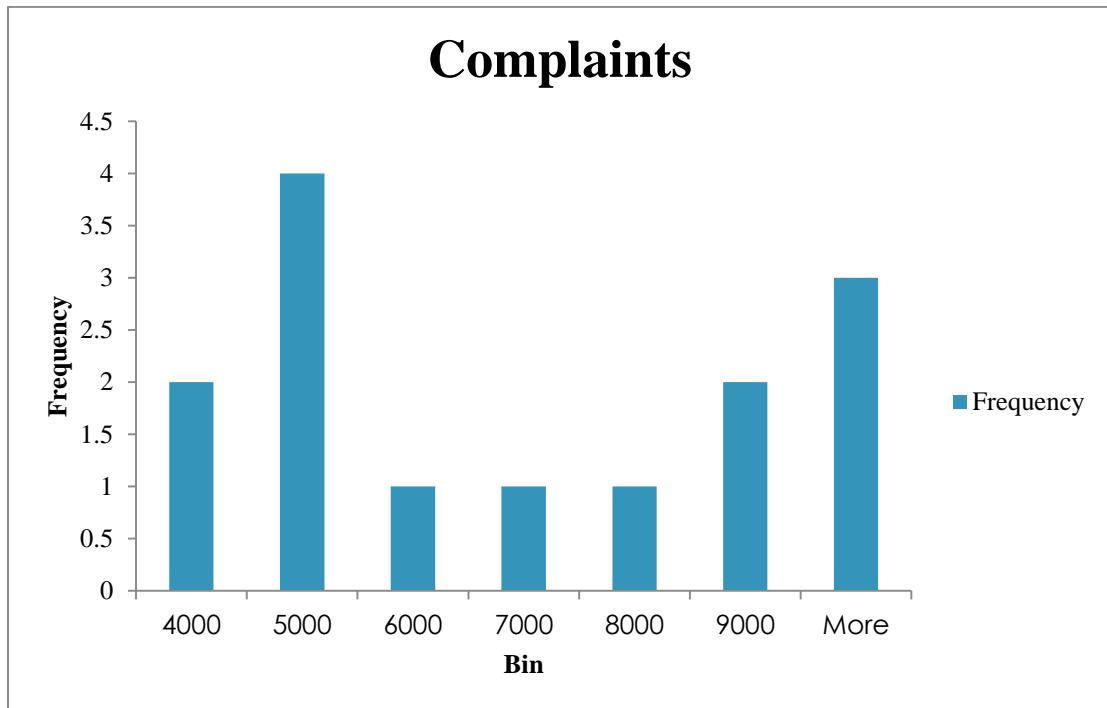
The results of the citizen complaints data reveals the median value (the midpoint of a frequency distribution of observed values or quantities, such that there is an equal probability of falling above or below it) is 5,864 and the mean value (the central value of the data) is 6,424.29. Since the median and the mean are symmetric, it means both values are similar.

The standard deviation determines how the spread of the data are from the average. A low standard deviation means that most of the numbers are close to the average, while a high standard deviation means that the numbers are more spread out. The standard deviation for citizen complaints in the police department with no residency requirement is 2,422.30. The histogram (see Table 7) shows the frequency. If the data was skewed, the majority of the data would be located on either the left or the right side of the graph. In this case, the data is skewed to the left, which means of the 14 samples of complaints, 7 of the 14 years of complaints tends to

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be average (5,000) in frequency. A normal curve should be symmetric, as the complaints graph is similar, which means both side of the data almost mirror each other, but the data is far from a normal distribution sample. Subsequently, more tests will be needed.

Figure 6. Chicago Police Department Citizen Complaints



Pearson Correlation Coefficient

Table 7. Pearson Correlation Coefficient Model Summary

Correlations			
		Complaints	Crime
Complaints	Pearson Correlation	1	.382
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.178
	N	14	14
Crime	Pearson Correlation	.382	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.178	
	N	14	14

** Correlation is Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

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A confidence interval of 95 was used, resulting in a decision point of $p < .05$. This is the standard for this research (Ravid, 2015). A standard for Pearson's correlation and r statistics was derived from Ravid (2015). Correlation statistics of less than .3 were considered weak correlations, from .4 – .6 is considered moderately strong correlations, and those greater than .7 is considered strong correlations.

The Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (PCC) (see Table 7) suggests a statistically linear relationship between violent crime and citizen complaints in a municipality with residency requirements. The Pearson's analysis also produced an r -value of .382 with a p -value of .001. The results of a low r -value and p -value for this analysis indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between the two variables. The low p -value also implies a 0.0% chance that any relationship between the two variables could have occurred by mere chance (Ravid, 2015). Therefore, because the r -value of .382 is lower than the critical value of .622 at a level of significance of .01 on a two-tailed test at 20 degrees of freedom, there is evidence to reject **H1** in favor of **H0**. In short, the PCC analysis shows that there is a negative correlation between increases in violent crime and citizen complaints when residency requirements are in place.

Spearman's Rho Coefficient

Table 8. Spearman's Rho Coefficient Model Summary

Correlations			Complaints	Crime
Spearman's rho	Complaints	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.266
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.358
		N	14	14
	Crime	Correlation Coefficient	.266	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.358	.
		N	14	14

** Correlation is Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The Pearson's Correlation Coefficient is influenced by outliers in the data, which necessitates the need for a second statistical approach. The second test that was conducted to conduct a statistical analysis is the Spearman's Rho Correlation (SRC). The data analyzed using the SRC (see Table 8) showed results in the r 's value of .266 and a p -value of .001. Similar to the PCC data, the SRC r -value also signifies a positive but weak statistical relationship between the two variables. Because the r -value of .266 is lower than the critical value of .679 at a level of significance of .01 on a two-tailed test at 12 degrees of freedom (14 pairs minus 2), there is evidence to reject **H1** in favor of **H0** (Ravid, 2015). Once again, a second analysis shows a positive, but moderately

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weak correlation between increases in violent crime and citizen complaints when residency requirements are in place.

Linear Regression Equation

Table 9. Linear Regression Equation Model Summary

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.382a	.146	.075	2330.078
a Predictors: (Constant), Crime				

Table 10. Linear Regression Equation Coefficients Model Summary

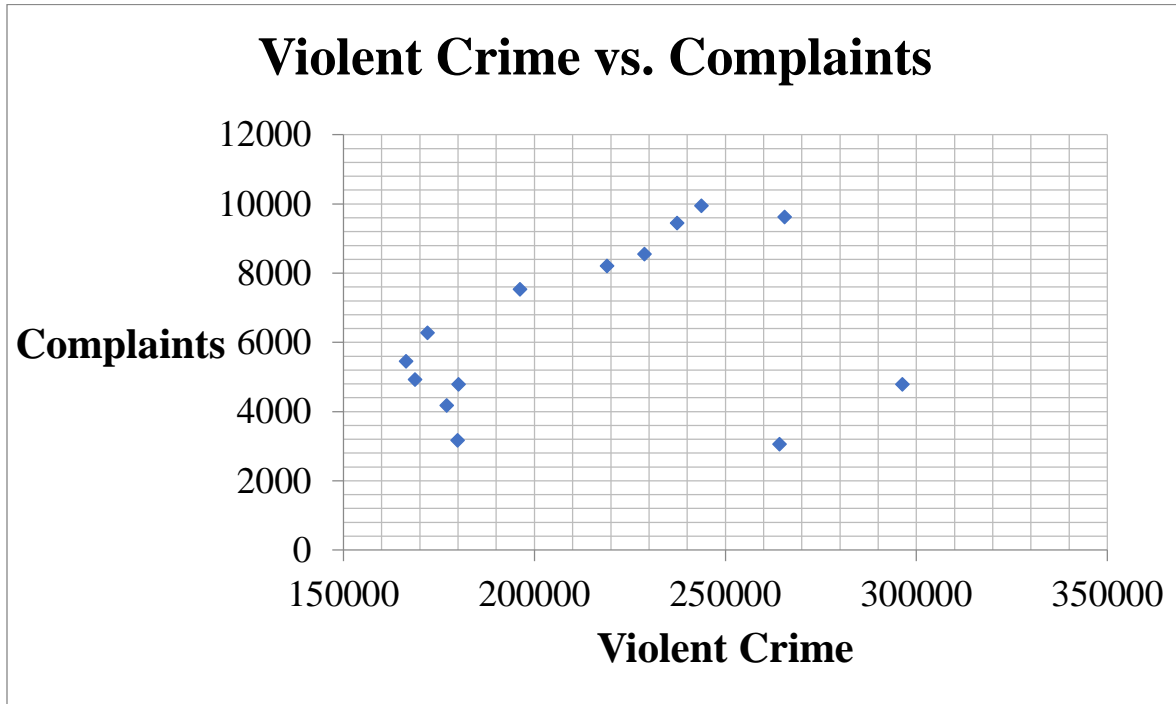
Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1411.389	3556.502		.397	.698
	Crime	.024	.017	.382	1.432	.178

a) Dependent Variable: Complaints

In order to validate whether there is a strong probability that a linear relationship exists between the two variables, a third and final statistical test must be applied to the data; a Linear Regression Equation (LRE). Because the Pearson's Correlation Coefficient indicates a moderately weak relationship, it may not be likely that the relationship is perfectly linear. In order to verify this, a regression equation is the most fitting measure to assess the line that illustrates the relationship between violent crime and citizen complaints.

After processing the data in SPSS, the LRE results are in Tables 9 and 10. The regression equation is $y = 1411.39 + .024(x)$. The y intercept of the equation is 1411.39, which means which means the number of citizen complaints will be at 1411.39 when the percentage of violent crime is 0. The equation's slope is .024, which implies for every increase of 1% in the violent crime, the number of citizen complaints increases by .024. The regression statistics also offer specific information about the relationship between the variables. What stands out among the information is the coefficient of determination, which is .146. This means that the independent variable (violent crime) can explain 14% of the dependent variable's variability (citizen's complaints).

Figure 7. Histogram of Violent Crime vs. Citizen Complaints



An LRE analysis must determine whether or not these correlations are large enough to be important. Thus, it is necessary to produce the following scatterplot (see Figure 7) to illustrate both the positive correlation and the importance of the correlations that exist between the variables. The scatterplot shows the strength and direction of the correlation between the two variables. In particular, the scatter plot illustrates again, a moderately weak correlation. The dots for the score of each pair are headed up and to the right of the diagram. This pattern is indicative of a negative correlation.

Discussion

Clearly there are many pros and cons to residency requirements for police departments. Evaluating support for relationship building, economic impact on a municipality, and quality of life for officers and citizens, employee recruiting and retention, and applicant pool should be considered in the decision to have residency mandates. The purpose of this research study was to develop a strong set of criteria for police departments that are struggling with decision making for keeping or eliminating residency requirements in their municipality. The variables analyzed in this study were violent crime and citizen complaints in a police department without residency requirements and a police department with residency requirements. After conducting correlational tests for the data available for each police department, the correlational tests revealed a strong correlation between violent crime and citizen complaints within a municipality without residency requirements and a very weak correlation between violent crime and citizen complaints within the municipality with residency requirements. Essentially, the data revealed statistical evidence that a residency requirement does not have an effect on violent crime or citizen complaints. Notably, proposals can be made to guide policy making in municipality's that have residency requirements in place or a municipality without a residency requirement.

As mentioned in the literature review, many municipalities have lifted the residency requirements and have not reinstated them, whereas other municipalities have lifted residency requirements are negotiating with the police departments union to reinstate the ordinance code. With all the controversial police involved shooting incidents across the nation within the past few years, and the talk of the “defunding of the police” many police departments are in the process of improving interaction with the community and assisting the community in solving problems together. Residency requirements are not a only a part in building trust and nurturing legitimacy on both sides of the police-citizen divide, but also the foundational principle underlying this inquiry into the nature of relations between law enforcement and the communities they serve (Magnus, 2015).

Another way for police departments to show their commitment to building community relations is by being transparent, ensuring officers are using procedural justice and legitimacy guidelines and ensuring that those using implicit bias and are being held accountable for their actions. Abiding by a federal or state mandated consent decree involves an agreement between involved parties submitted in writing to a court. Once approved by the judge, it becomes a legally binding agreement. In other words, a consent decree establishes an enforceable plan for reform within a police department. Specifically, it's an agreement that requires a law enforcement agency to undertake various reforms, document those changes, and measure in specified metrics, those changes and report back to the judge for accountability (Illinois Attorney General's Office, 2021).

Police Residency Requirements

A consent decree can be altered to fit the needs of any police department and requires monitoring and evaluating the progress toward reform. This has shown to be effective by demonstrating transparency to the community and protection for the residents of that city to ensure constitutional policing (Illinois Attorney General's Office, 2021). A consent decree will focus on key areas, such as community policing, impartial policing, use of force, training, and accountability and transparency. Continued and updating training of police officers can change the relationship between the officers and communities. For instance, de-escalation techniques have taught officers to be empathetic and nonjudgmental, use nonthreatening words or phrases, keeping their emotions in check, exercise persuasion and advice, and focus on the citizens need when dealing with the community. This training is intended to prevent or reduce the need for force when it is safe and feasible (Chicago Police Department, 2021).

Importance of Residency Requirements

As mentioned earlier, the need for residency requirements is not a new consideration. The reason residency requirements have become such an important debate is that local governments are in such municipal distress with decreasing populations, and the best option to have fiscal control is to keep residency requirements in place (Eisinger, 1983, p. 2). Proponents of police residency requirements, such as Murphy & Worrall, believe the police officers, who live in the municipality they serve, will contribute to local tax base, provide better information dissemination, and represent community interests in their agencies. Even community activist like Kenyatta Johnson, a member of the Philadelphia's City Council, stated "It's a plus if we have officers who live in the city, they grew up in the city, they have a stake in the city because it's home...it goes a long way to building community trust" (Hauck & Nichols, 2020). Residents of the communities want police officers to reside in the cities they work, making officers more culturally competent, encourage more diversity in police departments and ultimately improve police and community relations.

Another advocate for residency requirements is Maria Quinones Sanchez, a member of the Philadelphia City Council. She believes residency requirements should be a determining factor for qualification to serve the community. She also believes new members of the police department should be members of a "historically marginalized community" and have diverse members of a police department whose officers can speak different languages to fit the needs of the community they serve (Hauck & Nichols, 2020).

Many researchers are in agreement that police officers are expected to have knowledge and understanding of the people in community they serve. The way the community views police officers has been shown to be central in influencing such relations, determining the nature of the relationship between the police and community partnerships and the ultimate usefulness of policing efforts. Finally, enhancing relationships between a community and a police department

are characterized as a favorable public outlook toward and increased familiarity with police (Wilson, 1968; Gaines & Vaughn, 1997; Hennessey, 1993).

Opponents of Residency Requirements

Those who oppose residency requirements say there isn't any recent research which shows that these requirements build better relationships between law enforcement and the citizens they're sworn to serve and protect. Residency requirements had the municipal workforce and the community believing that employees ought to reflect the communities they were serving (Eisinger, 1983). Hauck & Nichols (2020) agreed, stating "the idea of municipal workforce coming into the city from the suburbs smacked of colonialism. You had white employees coming from the suburbs to work in largely minority communities".

Michelle Gross, the president of the Communities United Against Police Brutality (CUAPB), agrees with Eisinger who stated, "throughout our research, we have never encountered a shred of evidence that requiring or incentivizing police officers to live in the communities in which they work has any positive effect on the quality of policing" (Hauck & Nichols, 2020). Many thought residency requirements were about bonding with the community, but their view did not support that. Residency requirements were mainly introduced as a way of capturing the spending of earned income and taxes paid by the municipal employees – the "local coffer theory" (Eisinger, 1983).

As proponents believe residency requirements should be part of reforming police departments, the opponents disagree. Sarah Greenman, a professor for criminology and criminal justice at Hamline University in Saint Paul, Minnesota believes that based on what she has seen so far - residency requirements boosting community ties does not matter - reforming police departments is what is needed. Michelle Gross agreed, stating "we frequently hear from members of the community that they would not want to live in the same community as officers who have been arrested, harassed or perhaps even abused them... [residency requirements] are a distraction from real reform".

Chuck Wexler, the executive director of the Police Executive Research Forum related municipalities have been moving away from residency requirements for a variety of reasons. One reason is to hire the best applicants regardless of they live and where they choose to reside. Agreeing with the reform groups was Mosher and Kingsley (1941) who wrote residency requirements "are not in harmony with the merit principle...it is a cardinal feature of selection according to merit that the best qualified candidate should be employed, whatever his residence." Some of the other reasons include taxes, better schools, and better real estate value in suburbs than city housing, better community services, and not having to worry about having to run into the person you arrested, or having criminals know where you reside.

Alternative Solutions to Residency Requirements

In reviewing the research on both perspectives of residency requirements, I would suggest a pragmatic approach be taken, instead of choosing one side over the other. As this research study has shown, both views can be applied to fit each political stance but should not be a standalone solution to building relations with the community. I agree with some of the researchers, such as, Zedner, (2005), who believes all societies incorporate some mechanisms of social control, such as residency requirements and other traditional policing styles that were predominant before modern community policing had been thought of. Even the United States Department of Justice believes residency requirements are a part of community policing which can assist in rebuilding the lack of trust in police officers. However, there is more to community policing than protecting and serving. Strong relationships of mutual trust between police agencies and the communities they serve are critical to maintaining public safety and effective policing. Police officers are often good at protecting the community but not as good at serving the community. (www.usdoj/crs.gov).

I must also acknowledge the concerns of other researchers who oppose residency requirements, such as Fosdick (1920), Mosher and Kingsley (1941), and O'Brien, who state that a principal reason to oppose residency requirements is the limited number of qualified applicants for the selection of hiring new police officers. Employers of civil service occupations should be called to hire the best applicants regardless of where they reside. Residency laws are used to hire less qualified candidates, which will keep the municipality from paying a higher compensation for more qualified candidates that live outside the municipality. They also believe residency in a city does not imply that police will have greater information about neighborhoods where they are assigned to work.

In order to compromise within both sides of this issue, a policy can be proposed where both perspectives can be taken into consideration. For example, the Milwaukee, Wisconsin police department lifted residency requirements in 2016, with the contingency that officers are allowed to live within 15 miles of the municipality's border. In Tennessee, police officers from Nashville, Knoxville, Chattanooga, and Jackson are allowed to live anywhere in the state and are not restricted to a particular county. The St. Louis police department lifted their residency requirements for officers who had at least 7 years on the job.

Cities are concerned with lifting residency requirements and losing their tax base, which ultimately affects the city budget. Perhaps lifting residency requirements with the caveat of a yearly tax on salaries is an economic compromise for those who choose to reside outside the municipality. Another option may be to offer municipal employees a tax break option such as catholic/private school vouchers, a capped property tax deduction/refund, take home squad cars to reduce maintenance on their personal vehicle, or a combination of these.

Police Residency Requirements

Police departments have a number of creative choices to develop policy that brings benefits to municipal employees who are impacted by mandates, and benefits to citizens, who in many communities get the services of engaged police officers who know them and are in the best position to serve and protect them. As previous researchers and reformers have mentioned, police departments must have an integrated set of strategies to deploy in order to mend and build stronger relationships with the community. Policies that protect and partner with residents and educate law enforcement on how to effectively interact with citizens and understand the needs of the community can have substantial impact on best practices for community policing.

The end result will be well trained officers who are more aware of social and cultural/ethnic issues in the community in which they work and an enhanced ability to empathize with citizens, especially in minority communities.

Recommendations for Future Research

The implications of residency requirements have continued to open up more debate and other avenues for future research. My suggestion for future research would be to interview three specific groups of police officers. The first group would be officers who have resided outside the municipality and had to move to adhere to the residency requirements for employment. The second group would be of officers who were born and raised in the municipality where they work. The third group would be police officers who are currently residing in same district/precinct/or designated area in which they are currently assigned to work. This would allow researchers to gather information from three specific residency scenarios in order to get opinions and other important data about the impact of residency requirements and how they are working for those officers in each situation.

An expanded future study could produce a comprehensive set of factors that contribute to both sides of the residency requirement debate. The results may also assist in determining if future prospective applicants are viable who reside outside the municipality or focus on the citizens who reside within the municipality. As reform takes place in police departments, a policy that enables protection of and partnership with the community and simultaneously educates law enforcement on how to properly interact with citizens has the greatest potential for success in community policing.

Recommendations

There is plenty of evidence that identifies strained relationships between law enforcement agencies and certain communities served. A strong correlation exists between violent crime and citizen complaints in a municipality without residency requirement, yet there is little correlation in a municipality with residency requirements.

Many believe residency requirements are an integral part of building a stronger relationship with the community and without the efforts to keep these ordinances in place “will likely prove difficult if the police are unable to establish and maintain positive rapport with individual citizens and groups in the community” (Murphy & Worrall, 1999, p. 332). The proponents believe the difficulty comes with officers not being familiar with the neighborhood and the community that they have sworn to serve and protect. Many opponents of residency requirements argue the ordinance is unconstitutional because it inhibits an employee’s freedom to travel and reside wherever they choose (Constitutional Law, 1974). Complicating the issue is the current movements for “defunding the police” and reformers being divided on the issue of residency requirements.

Understanding the need for residency requirements and their ability to address the policies for both sides of the argument, the U.S. Department of Justice taskforce on 21st-century policing recommended that police departments institute “residency incentive programs” (Magnus, 2015). Based on the results of the testing done with the available data, I propose a pragmatic solution that may address the concerns for both sides of the argument; a policy that will put residency requirements in place for every law enforcement agency, which will satisfy the needs of all who are affected. The following three recommendations offer viable strategies to manage residency requirements, which will assist in building stronger relationships with communities.

Recommendation 1: Reinstate Residency Requirements

A possible solution for those departments who have lifted their residency requirements, is to change the ordinance for new hires and “grandfather” (a clause exempting certain employees from the requirements affecting their previous rights, privileges, or practices), those employees who are currently abiding by the previously agreed upon ordinance. Pay structure for new hires would depend on employee choice to live in or outside the municipality with higher pay being offered to those who live inside and incentives to existing employees to return to the municipality with greater compensation.

Recommendation 2: Law Enforcement Agencies with Residency Requirements

Another possible solution may be to offer those municipal employees, who reside within the municipality incentives in the form of tax breaks, such as private school vouchers for their children to attend, a capped property tax deduction/refund, take home squad cars to reduce maintenance on their personal vehicle and show police presence in the area in which the officer resides, extra points on promotional exams, or a combination of the options. This option will generate taxes for the municipality and encourage their earned income by the employee to also be spent within the municipality.

Recommendation 3: Years of Service Option

Another option is to eliminate residency requirements for employees based on years of service. The case can be made that these employees have established relationships with the community they serve. Older employees could be given more freedom to purchase homes wherever they feel is best for their needs as they transition into retirement. Many have already given years of service and contributed greatly to their employing community through their service and taxes.

Conclusion

This study considered the relationship of police residency requirements and the impact on violent crime and citizen complaints, a concept that has not previously been considered in other research studies. Are police officer's better protectors of, and more capable of understanding the communities they serve if they live within, or outside their jurisdiction. Using residency requirements, the research centered on violent crime and citizen complaints as the measurable data points. Utilizing sound methodology and data collection practices, it was determined that police residency has no effect on the relationship with the community.

Public service as a police officer is a very stressful occupation. I have been a police officer for over 21 years and have fulfilled many roles in service to the community, such as a counselor, confidante, mediator, legal advisor, chauffeur, nurturer, child-care advocate, and many other services that involve the traumatic aftermath of senseless violence, accidents and loss of life. With that, Kulbarsh (2008) agrees that the policing profession is one of the most stressful occupations a person can have. Reducing or relieving police officer's duress level is paramount and offering options to residency requirements is a viable contribution to an overall stress management program.

Proponents of residency requirements advocate for it because contributes to the tax base and reduces the unemployment rate within the municipality. They also suggest it is a means to have continual police presence in the community and perhaps reduce criminal activity. Some proponents say the requirement helps achieve a balance of racial and ethnic representation, closely mirroring the demographics of community in which they serve. When it comes to municipal residency requirements building better relationships with the community, Robert J. Kane, (Vargas & Palmer, 2017) disagrees with the correlation, stating "Researchers have looked at whether residency requirements influence any patterns of misconduct or influence patterns of use of force, [or ties to] an increase or decrease in relationships [between the community and law enforcement officers], and pretty much by and large...there is no support for those relationships" (p. 3).

Still, many researchers believe residency requirements have an impact on the officer's relationship with the community in that police officers will tend to be more productive in engaging with the community, have a better understanding of the needs of the citizens in cities with residency requirements compared to cities without them, be more invested in the municipality in which they live and work, make neighborhoods safer to live, and in reduce unemployment rates and add to the local government tax base (Hamill, 1976; Hirsch & Rufolo, 1985; Smith, 1980). Gaines and Vaughn (1997) believe that residency requirements will enhance the relationship between the police and the community, which has consistently been of fundamental concern to police departments, particularly with the implementation of community policing programs.

Police Residency Requirements

Dated and contemporary debates over the merit of residency requirements of law enforcement have stirred a great deal of controversy. Arguments and discussions have been debated for both sides regarding concerns from the community and concerns from police officers. Residency debates continue with increased emotion from the community, politicians, law enforcement management and police officers themselves, which have led to better communication and a higher level of understanding among all parties.

An analysis of residency requirement literature suggests different opinions exist on the issue and the topic remains controversial. Journals and case law has argued for both the elimination and expansion of residency requirements over many years. Residency requirements didn't start as a tradition, but as Eisinger (1983) stated, there can be little doubt that they represented a variety of and a codification of contemporaneous patronage practices. Many municipalities have lifted residency requirements, but there are still many that have kept residency requirements in place for one reason or another. In exploring the literature on residency requirement, many topics regarding personal impact and several work/life issues need to be further examined.

Some of the common issues that seem to be a concern for both sides of this argument, is quality of police service for the community, quality of life and safety for the police officers and the community, the economics for the municipality, the diversity of law enforcement, the quality of candidates hired as police officers, and the perception of the police and community towards each other. Further research is needed to determine the relationship between law enforcement officers and the community in which they serve regarding eliminating, instilling or retracting residency requirements. By continuing new research on this topic, municipalities, the community, and law enforcement agencies can come together and examine the impact of what residency requirements have on all the parties involved.

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Appendix A: Raw Data for New York Police Department

Year	Population	Index	Violent	Property	Murder	Forcible Rape
2006	19,306,183	482,270	83,966	396,304	921	3,169
2007	19,297,729	461,731	79,915	381,816	801	2,926
2008	19,467,789	466,131	77,546	388,585	836	2,799
2009	19,541,453	452,647	75,110	377,537	781	2,582
2010	19,395,206	456,202	76,492	379,710	868	2,797
2011	19,501,616	449,300	77,463	371,837	769	2,751
2012	19,576,125	454,803	79,535	375,268	683	2,837
2013	19,695,680	436,166	77,563	358,603	644	2,575
2014	19,748,858	415,085	75,972	339,113	616	4,316
2015	19,747,183	392,351	75,126	317,225	613	4,414
2016	19,745,289	379,466	74,285	305,181	630	4,569
2017	19,590,719	364,136	70,746	293,390	550	6,297
2018	19,530,351	350,055	68,512	281,543	562	6,577
2019	19,453,561	336,919	69,764	267,155	558	6,583

Police Residency Requirements

Year	Population	Index	Aggravated Assault	Burglary	Larceny-Theft	Vehicle Theft
2006	19,306,183	482,270	45,387	68,565	295,605	32,134
2007	19,297,729	461,731	45,387	68,565	295,605	32,134
2008	19,467,789	466,131	42,122	65,537	297,952	25,096
2009	19,541,453	452,647	43,606	62,769	292,897	21,871
2010	19,395,206	456,202	44,197	65,839	293,232	20,639
2011	19,501,616	449,300	45,538	65,227	287,361	19,249
2012	19,576,125	454,803	47,382	64,389	293,562	17,317
2013	19,695,680	436,166	46,130	56,444	286,676	15,483
2014	19,748,858	415,085	45,295	50,738	272,624	15,751
2015	19,747,183	392,351	44,493	44,117	257,837	15,271
2016	19,745,289	379,466	45,079	39,821	250,968	14,392
2017	19,590,719	364,136	43,777	34,928	245,093	13,369
2018	19,530,351	350,055	43,182	31,158	237,243	13,142
2019	19,453,561	336,919	44,555	27,600	226,851	12,704

Appendix B: New York Police Department Descriptive Analysis of Total Violent Crime and Total Complaints

Table 1. Descriptive Analysis of Total Violent Crime and Total Complaints

<i>Total Violent Crime</i>		<i>Total Complaints</i>	
Mean	835123.2143	Mean	5824.857143
Standard Error	23809.56678	Standard Error	346.4572957
Median	877391	Median	5565
Mode	#N/A	Mode	#N/A
Standard Deviation	89087.24142	Standard Deviation	1296.3245
Sample Variance	7936536585	Sample Variance	1680457.209
Kurtosis	-1.105794889	Kurtosis	-1.531604092
Skewness	-0.709996218	Skewness	0.409148802
Range	254928	Range	3378
Minimum	673838	Minimum	4285
Maximum	928766	Maximum	7663
Sum	11691725	Sum	81548
Count	14	Count	14
Confidence Level (95.0%)	51437.4418	Confidence Level (95.0%)	748.4754825

Appendix C: Histograms for New York Police Department Data

Figure 2. New York Police Department Violent Crime Frequency Chart

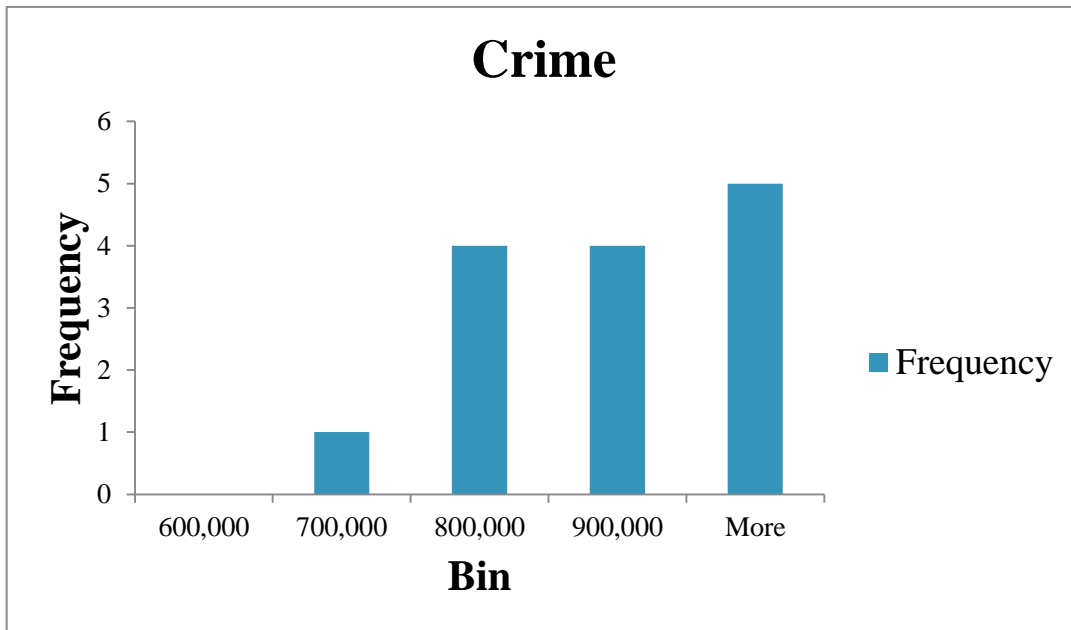
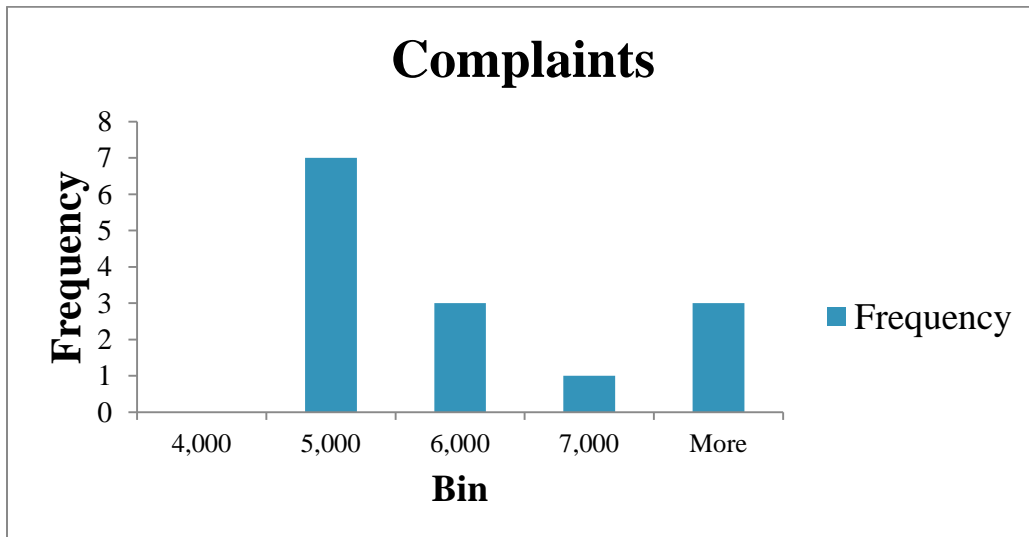


Figure 3. New York Police Department Citizen Complaints



Appendix D: SPSS Output for New York Police Department

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

Table 2. Pearson Correlation Coefficient Model Summary

Correlations			
		Complaints	Crime
Complaints	Pearson Correlation	1	.776**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	14	14
Crime	Pearson Correlation	.776**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	14	14

** Correlation is Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Spearman's Rho Correlation

Table 3. Spearman's Rho Correlation Model Summary

Correlations				
			Complaints	Crime
Spearman's rho	Complaints	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.780**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001
		N	14	14
	Crime	Correlation Coefficient	.780**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.
		N	14	14

** Correlation is Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Linear Regression Equation

Table 4. Linear Regression Equation Model Summary

Model Summary						
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate	
1	.776a	.602	.569		851.094	
a Predictors: (Constant), Crime						

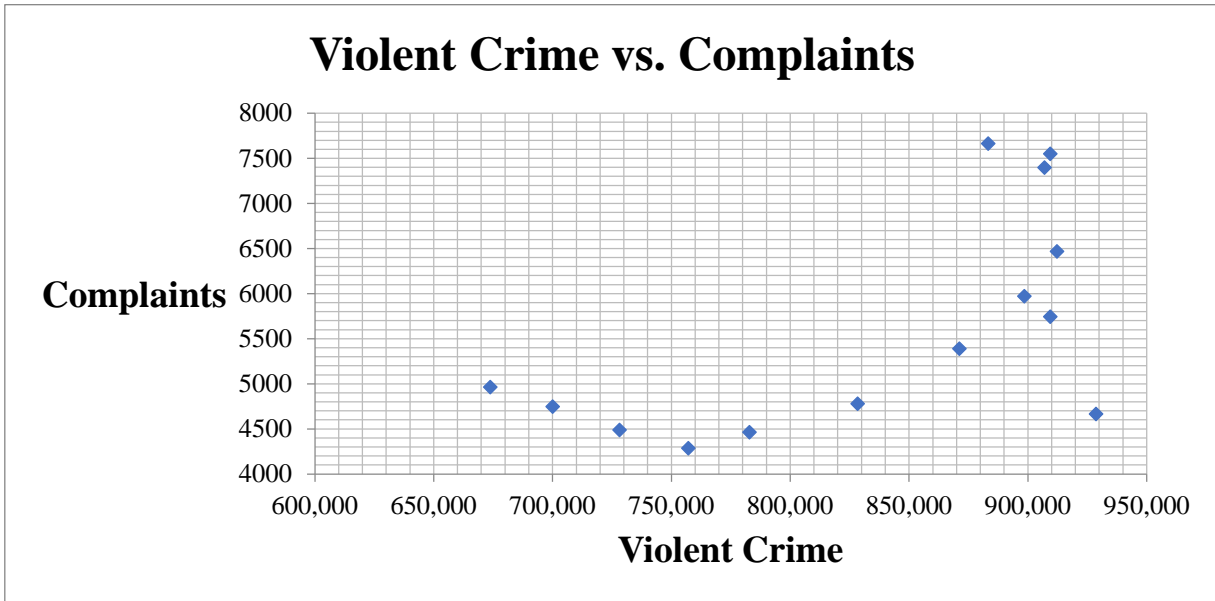
Table 5. Linear Regression Equation Coefficients Model Summary

Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-3604.583	2224.454		-1.620	.131
	Crime	.011	.003	.776	4.261	.001

b) Dependent Variable: Complaints

Appendix E: Scatter Plot Correlation

Figure 4. Histogram of Violent Crime vs. Citizen Complaints



Appendix F: Raw Data for Chicago Police Department

Year	Homicide	Criminal Sexual Assault	Robbery	Aggravated Assault	Burglary	Larceny
2006	473	1,794	15,970	11,012	24,327	86,346
2007	450	1,873	15,464	11,160	24,862	85,263
2008	514	1,782	16,709	10,816	26,218	88,547
2009	464	1,680	15,989	10,154	26,773	81,079
2010	440	1,600	14,281	9,441	26,429	76,882
2011	446	1,695	13,995	8,408	26,626	75,323
2012	509	1,631	13,492	8,012	22,850	75,587
2013	424	1,493	11,825	6,638	17,896	71,719
2014	420	1,548	9,802	6,578	14,571	61,721
2015	492	1,624	9,642	7,023	13,185	57,369
2016	778	1,766	11,964	8,091	14,289	61,676
2017	658	1,930	11,882	7,852	12,999	64,427
2018	578	1,951	9,685	7,744	11,747	65,303
2019	496	1,897	7,999	7,876	9,634	6,583

Police Residency Requirements

Year	Motor Vehicle Theft	Involuntary Man/Reckless Homicide	Simple Assault	Simple Battery	Arson	Shooting Incidents
2006	21,830	13	29,764	11,012	727	n/a
2007	18,582	3	30,118	11,160	712	n/a
2008	18,891	6	29,179	10,816	644	n/a
2009	15,486	4	26,371	10,154	616	n/a
2010	19,039	4	24,418	9,441	522	2,310
2011	19,395	8	22,325	8,408	504	2,212
2012	16,571	6	20,905	8,012	472	2,452
2013	12,596	5	19,009	6,638	364	1,865
2014	9,924	7	17,062	6,578	397	2,084
2015	10,079	12	17,036	7,023	455	2,425
2016	11,299	7	17,604	8,091	516	3,547
2017	11,389	7	17,721	7,852	444	2,766
2018	9,993	15	18,589	7,744	373	2,376
2019	8,980	12	18,647	7,876	375	2,146

Appendix G: Chicago Police Department Data Descriptive Analysis of Total Violent Crime and Total Complaints

Table 6. Descriptive Analysis of Total Violent Crime and Total Complaints

<i>TOTAL Violent Crime</i>		<i>Total Complaints</i>	
Mean	212083.7143	Mean	6424.285714
Standard Error	10461.1842	Standard Error	647.3895292
Median	207657.5	Median	5864
Mode	#N/A	Mode	#N/A
Standard Deviation	39142.16715	Standard Deviation	2422.309814
Sample Variance	1532109249	Sample Variance	5867584.835
Kurtosis	-1.655458021	Kurtosis	-1.488031122
Skewness	0.274870295	Skewness	0.149588112
Range	102958	Range	6895
Minimum	166460	Minimum	3055
Maximum	269418	Maximum	9950
Sum	2969172	Sum	89940
Count	14	Count	14
Confidence Level(95.0%)	22600.01446	Confidence Level (95.0%)	1398.600047

Appendix H: Histograms for Chicago Police Department Data

Figure 5. Chicago Police Department Violent Crime

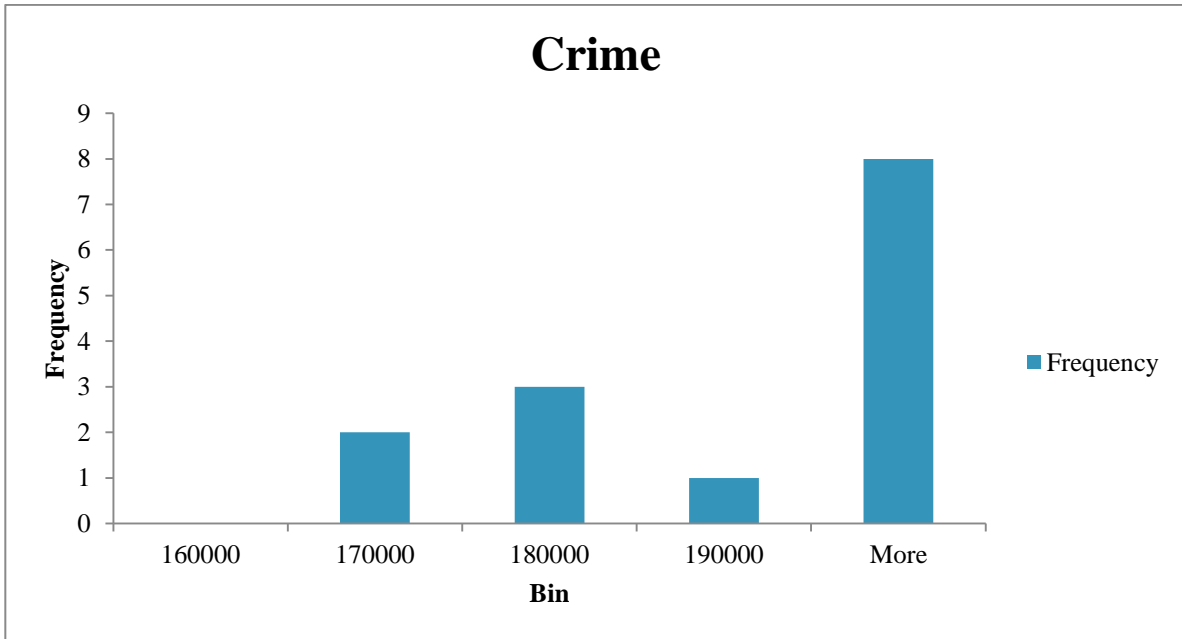
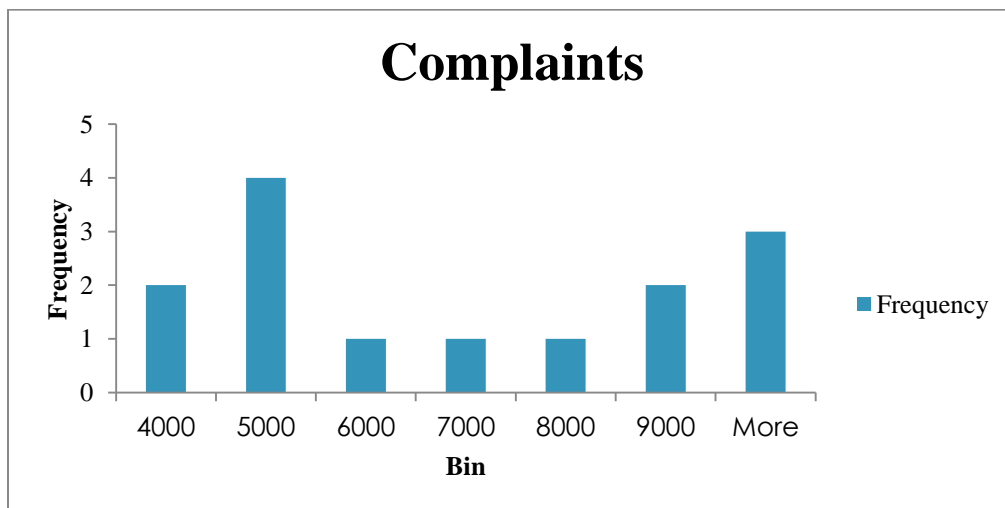


Figure 6. Chicago Police Department Citizen Complaints



Appendix I: SPSS Output for Chicago Police Department Data

Pearson Correlation Coefficient

Table 7. Pearson Correlation Coefficient Model Summary

Correlations			
		Complaints	Crime
Complaints	Pearson Correlation	1	.382
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.178
	N	14	14
Crime	Pearson Correlation	.382	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.178	
	N	14	14

** Correlation is Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Spearman's Rho Coefficient

Table 8. Spearman's Rho Coefficient Model Summary

Correlations				
			Complaints	Crime
Spearman's rho	Complaints	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.266
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.358
		N	14	14
	Crime	Correlation Coefficient	.266	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.358	.
		N	14	14

** Correlation is Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Linear Regression Equation

Table 9. Linear Regression Equation Model Summary

Model Summary						
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate	
1	.382a	.146	.075		2330.078	
a) Predictors: (Constant), Crime						

Table 10. Linear Regression Equation Coefficients Model Summary

Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B		Beta		
1	(Constant)	1411.389	3556.502		.397	.698
	Crime	.024	.017	.382	1.432	.178

b) Dependent Variable: Complaints

Appendix J: Scatter Plot Correlation

Figure 7. Histogram of Violent Crime vs. Citizen Complaints

